《综合英语(一)》 教学大纲

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目 录

前 言	3
一、课程简介和开设目的:	3
二、课程教学要求:	
三、课程教学内容:	
四、 具体教学安排	
Lesson One Half a Day	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Summary of the Text:	
VII. Further Discussion:	
Lesson Two Going Home	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Structure of the story:	
V. Pre-reading Questions:	
VI. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VII. Topics for further discussion:	
Lesson Three Message of the Land.	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Topics for further discussion:	
Lesson Four The Boy and the Bank Officer	9
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	9
III. Cultural note:	9
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Topics for further discussion:	9
VII. Written work:	9
Lesson Five Angels on a Pin	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Topics for further discussion:	
Lesson Six The Monsters Are Due on Maple	
I. Activities:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Literary Knowledge:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	11 11
valuonies normanies archistant	- 11

Lesson Seven Mandela's Garden.	12
I. Teaching Aims:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	12
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Topics for further discussion:	12
Lesson Eight My Personal Manager	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	13
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	13
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	13
VI. Topics for further discussion:	13
Lesson Nine Against All Odds	14
I. Teaching Aim:	14
II. Time Allotment:	14
III. Cultural note:	14
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	14
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	14
VI. Topics for further discussion:	
Lesson Ten The Green Banana	15
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	15
III. Cultural note:	15
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Topics for further discussion:	
Lesson Eleven The Midnight Visitor	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Literary Knowledge:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Complimentary Reading:	
VII. Further Discussion:	
Lesson Twelve The Kindness of Strangers	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Geographical Knowledge:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Further Discussion:	
五、测试与评估	
六、教学参考书	

前言

一、课程简介和开设目的:

高等学校英语专业本科四年的教学内容分为两个阶段,即:基础阶段(一年级和二年级)和高级阶段(三年级和四年级)。基础阶段的主要教学任务是传授英语语言文化的基础知识,对学生进行全面的、严格的基本技能训练,培养学生实际运用语言的能力、良好的学风和有效的学习方法,为高年级的学习打下扎实的专业基础。高级阶段的主要教学任务是继续加强语言文化的基知识,把英语专业和相关专业的知识向纵深方向发展,进一步拓宽知识面,培养学生对英语语言国家以及异国文化进行表层和深层解读和阐释的能力。在对语言文字和文化元素的掌握和应用都有所拓宽和加深的基础上,提高学生运用英语进行综合交际的能力。

"综合英语"是高等学校英语专业本科基础阶段的一门专业必修课,为期两学年,即四个学期。 累计 432 学时,共计 24 学分。每学期为 108 学时,6 学分。

"综合英语"是一门综合技能课程,其主要目的在于培养和提高学生综合运用英语语言的能力。通过语言基础训练与篇章讲解分析,该课程会帮助学生逐步提高语篇阅读理解能力,了解英语各种文体的表达方式和特点,扩大词汇量和熟悉英语常用句型,具备基本的口头与笔头表达能力。教师应鼓励学生积极参与课堂的各种语言交际活动以获得基本的交际技能,并达到《英语专业教学大纲》所规定的听、说、读、写、译等技能要求,为以后高年级阶段专业课学习打好扎实的基础。另外,学生还应该熟悉中国文化传统,具备一定的艺术修养,所谓知己才能知彼。熟悉英语语言国家的地理、历史、发展现状、文化传统、风俗习惯等,对文化元素有宽度和深度的认识;具有一定的人文知识和科技知识,具有较强的用英语进行口头和书面表达的能力,具有较强的创新意识和一定的创新能力。

二、课程教学要求:

根据高等学校英语专业教学大纲,英语专业本科生在入学阶段以及基础阶段第一、二学年的具体教学要求如下:

在语音方面,学生入学阶段应该能够熟练地运用发音规则和音标准确地读出生词;比较流利地朗读没有生词、难度相当于高三英语课文的材料,口齿清楚,语音、语调大体正确;经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够自觉地模仿和纠音,正确掌握多音节单词、复合词和句子的常见重音模式,初步掌握朗读和说话的节奏感并注意轻重变化对意义表达的影响,初步掌握语流中的语音变化规律、连续、辅音爆破和语音同化的技巧以及陈述句、疑问句和祈使句的语调;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够做到针对大部分常用词汇发音正确,较好地掌握朗读和说话的节奏感,掌握语流中的语音变化规律、连续、辅音爆破和语音同化等技巧以及陈述句、疑问句和祈使句的语调,初步掌握语段中语音轻重和新旧信息传递之间的关系。在语法方面,学生入学阶段应该能够识别词类,区分名词的可数性和不可数性、可数名词的单、复数形式,基本掌握各种代词的形式与用法、基数词和序数词、常用介词和连词、形容词和副词的句法功能、比较级和最高级的构成及基本句型、冠词的一般用法,了解动词的主要种类、时态、语态及不定式和分词的基本用法、句子种类、基本句型和基本构词法;经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够掌握主谓一致的关系、表语从句、宾语从句、定语从句和状语从句等句型、直接引语和间接引语的用法、动词不定式和分词的用法、各种时态、主动语态、被动语态和构词法;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该熟练掌握主语从句、同位语从句、倒装句和各种条件句,初步掌握句子之间和段落之间的衔接手段。在词汇方面,学生入学阶段认知的

词汇应该不少于2,000个,掌握1,200个左右的常用词和一定数量的习惯用语及固定搭配,并能 在口笔语中运用,认识740个左右的单词和一定数量的习惯用语及固定搭配,能根据上下文的提示 理解其含义: 经过第一学年的学习,通过基础英语课、阅读课和其它课外阅读等途径认知词汇达 4, 000-5,000 个(其中含中学已学的2,000个),正确而熟练地使用其中的2,000-2,500个词汇 及其最基本的搭配:经过第二学年的学习,通过基础英语课、阅读课和其他途径认知词汇5,500-6, 500个(含第二级要求的4,000-5,000个),正确而熟练地运用其中的3,000-4,000个词汇及 其最基本的搭配。 在听力方面, 学生入学阶段应该能够听懂教师的课堂用语以及对课文内容所作的 解释,听懂较慢语速的日常对话,听懂基本没有生词、题材熟悉、难度略低于高三所学课文的语段, 理解正确率达到70%;经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够听懂英语国家人士所作的难度不超过所 学语言知识的讲座,掌握中心大意,理解主要内容,并能辨别说话人的态度和语气,能够听懂 VOA 慢速新闻广播和文化节目,抓住主要内容。能在15分钟内听写根据已学知识编写而成或选用的录 音材料(词数 150 个左右, 朗读四遍, 语速为每分钟 100 个单词), 错误率不超过 10%; 经过第二 年的学习,学生应该能够听懂英语国家人士关于日常生活和社会生活的谈话,听懂中等难度(如 TOEFL 中短文)的听力材料,理解大意,领会作者的态度、感情和真实意图,听懂 VOA 正常速度和 BBC 新闻节目的主要内容。能大体辨别各种英语变体(如美国英语、英国英语、澳大利亚英语), 能在 15 分钟内听写根据已学知识编写或选用的词数为 200 个左右、语速为每分钟 120 个单词的录 音材料,错误率不超过8%。在口语表达方面,学生入学阶段应该能够熟练地就课文内容进行问答, 并进行简单的讨论,经过准备,能简单而连贯地复述听过的或读过的语段,能就日常生活的话题进 行初步交际,能清楚而连贯地讲述学生熟悉的题材和课文内容,长度不少于八句:经过第一学年的 学习,学生应该能够就所听到的语段进行问答和复述,能就日常生活话题进行交谈,做到正确表达 思想,语音、语调自然,无重大语法错误,语言基本得体;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够在 一般社交场合与英语国家人士交谈,做到正确的表达思想、语音、语调自然,无明显的语法错误, 语言用词基本得体。在阅读方面,学生入学阶段应该能够以每分钟60个单词的速度阅读生词率不 超过3%的人物传记、故事、科普短文等,理解正确率达到70%,能读懂简单的应用文,能掌握所读 材料的主要内容和中心思想;经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够阅读难度相当于 Thirty-Nine Steeps (简写本) 的较为浅显的文字材料,阅读速度为每分钟 70-120 个单词,理解中心大意,抓住 主要情节或论点;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够读懂难度相当于美国 Newsweek 的国际新闻 报道,能读懂难度相当于 Sons and Lovers 的文学原著,能在理解的基础上抓住要点,并能运用正 确观点评价思想内容,阅读速度为每分种 120-180 个单词,理解准确率不低于 70%。能在 5 分钟内 速读 1,000 词左右、中等难度的文章,掌握文章的大意。在写作方面,学生入学阶段应该能够根 据提示,在 20 分钟内写出 100 个单词左右的短文,无严重语法错误,意义表达清楚,能改写课文 内容,能书写简单的书信、便条和通知等应用文,格式和行文无严重错误,书写规范:经过第一学 年的学习,学生应该能够在30分钟内写出长度为120-150个单词的短文,内容切题,条理清楚, 语言正确。能改写或缩写课文内容,能正确书写便条和通知等应用文;经过第二学年的学习,学生 应该能够能根据作文题目、提纲或图表、数据等,在30分钟内写出长度为150-200个单词左右的 短文,内容切题,结构严谨,条理清楚,语法正确,语言通顺,表达得体,并能根据提示在10分 钟内写出长度为60个单词左右的应用文。在翻译方面,学生入学阶段应该能够将内容不超过高三 课文难度的短语和句子译成汉语,要求理解正确、语言通顺:经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够 独立完成课程中的各种翻译练习,理解准确、语言通顺;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够独立 完成课程中的各种翻译练习,要求译文忠实于原文、表达流畅。在使用工具书的能力方面,学生入 学阶段应该能够比较熟练地使用中小型英汉词典,掌握词语的正确发音、意义和基本用法;经过第 一学年的学习,学生应该能够熟练地使用《英汉大词典》等英汉词典和简易的英英词典(如 0xford

Advanced English Dictionary 以及 Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English),独立解决语言问题;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够熟练地使用各种英汉词典和部分英英词典(如 Collins Cobuild College English Dictionary 和 Random House College Dictionary),独立解决语言问题和部分知识方面的疑难问题。在文化素养方面,学生入学阶段应该对中国文化有一定的了解,有较扎实的汉语基本功,对英美等英语国家的地理、历史和发展现状有一定的了解,掌握基本的数理化知识;经过两年的学习,学生应该熟悉中国文化传统,具有一定的艺术修养,熟悉英语国家的地理、历史、发展现状、文化传统、风俗习惯,具有一定的人文知识和科技知识,具有较强的汉语和英语的口头和书面表达能力,具有较强的创新意识和一定的创新能力。

三、课程教学内容:

授课教师根据以上英语专业本科生的入学阶段以及本科基础阶段第一、二学年的具体教学要求,系统的组织"综合英语"课程的教学内容和活动,确保学生全面、系统地掌握英语语音、词汇和语法、听力、口语、阅读、写作和翻译等语言知识和技能,帮助学生学会使用各种高级工具书,同时要比较全面地介绍中西文化以提高学生的文化素养。

课程所用教材: 杨立民主编 《现代大学英语》精读 1-4 册,外语教学研究出版社,2001。综合英语课程 I、II、III、IV 使用的教材分别为高等学校英语专业用书《现代大学英语》1-4 册。每册书共有十五课。每课由课文 A(TEXT A)、课文 B(TEXT B)、练习(More Work on the Text)三大部分组成。练习(More Work on the Text)包括 Oral Work,Vocabulary,Grammar 和 Written Work。

本课程以教材一课为单元,每单元大概用时8学时。每单元具体教学环节大致如下:

1、课文A和课文B,其中以课文上(TEXT A)为主,课堂教学设计为:Warm up, Text explanation, Vocabulary Study 和 Quiz 四个部分;课文B(TEXT B)和练习(More Work on the Text)为学生自学,教师统一课堂答疑解决学生学习问题。

本环节学时分配大约为: 6 课时。

2、补充阅读和听力材料:这些材料应该适合学生现阶段语言程度,有关课文 A (TEXT A)的主题,或者有助于学生掌握各种学习技能和听说读写译等语言技能,也可以是有关英语国家的人文和科技知识的材料。这些材料在题材和体裁方面,应该具有生动性、多样性和实用性。可用作课文 A (TEXT A)环节的补充材料,也可用作组织课堂语言活动的材料,还可以用作课外阅读作业。

本环节学时分配大约为: 1课时。

3、各种课堂语言活动。综合英语课程作为综合语言技能课,应该精心设计和组织一些单一或综合的听说读写译的课堂语言活动,以便培养学生的实际综合应用语言的能力。

本环节学时分配为: 1课时。

4、作业。

四、 具体教学安排

综合英语(一)(第1学期)

WEEK 3—4

Lesson One Half a Day

I. Teaching Aim:

To introduce some strategies commonly used in fiction writing and help them divide the story into parts, considering the setting, plot and etc.

To help them to develop their personal thinkings on the message of the story.

II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

the creator of the universe (Para 14)

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. Was it hard for you to leave home for the first time in your life?
- 2. Did you feel you were a stranger the first day you arrived?
- 3. Did you find the university just as you had imagined? In what way it was, and in 4. 4. what way it wasn't? (Were you disappointed when you found it wasn't as good as you had imagined?)
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

- VII. Further Discussion:
- 1. What do you think is the main message of the text?
- 2. Can you recall your first day's experience at primary school?

WEEK 4-5

Lesson Two Going Home

I. Teaching Aim:

Besides the language points, students are supposed to understand some writing techniques such as making contrast, the use of informal questions and symbols, etc.

II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

the yellow ribbon and other ribbons well-known(red and white) and their symbolic meanings

- IV. Structure of the story:
- 1—4: the introduction and the setting
- 5—9: the main body: where Vingo was going and what for and how the young people got interested in what was going to happen.
 - 10—12: the result: Vingo was forgiven and welcomed home
 - V. Pre-reading Questions:
 - 1. Do you find it a touching story? Why or why not?
 - 2. what do you know about 1960s and 1970s as a historical time for American people?
 - 3. do you agree the yellow ribbon is a symbol? What does it symbolize?
 - VI. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VII. Topics for further discussion:
- 1. What kind of person do you think Vingo's wife is? Why didn't she write to Vingo when he was in prison?
 - 2. what lessons have you learnt from his story?
 - 3. what do you think of importance of the ability to forgive and forget in human relationship?

WEEK 5-6

Lesson Three Message of the Land

- I. Teaching Aim: 1. General comprehension 2. Word study 3. Cultural note: Thai culture 4. Analysis of ideas 5. Rhetorical devices II. Time Allotment: Text—6hours Exercises—2 hours III. Cultural note: Cultural note: Thai culture IV. Pre-reading Questions: 1. In this text, there is a wife and a husband. Which country are they living in? Do they have any children? Where are they now? What is/are the point(s) are they making in their talk? 2. Are they similar to your own parents in some way? Do you identify with them? V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - 1. What is the traditional social values of Thiland? Or the ongoing social changes in Thiland?
 - 2. What would you say about the possible conflicts between different generations?
 - 3. How do you understand the message of the land?

VI. Topics for further discussion:

WEEK 7-8

Lesson Four The Boy and the Bank Officer

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. General comprehension
- 2. Cultural notes/background information
- 3. Word study
- 4. Language characteristics.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

- 1. The role of the church in the West
- 2. School Bullying—a general discussion
- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. Have you ever been to a bank? What kind of a bank do you normally choose to go to? The Construction Bank? The Merchants Bank? The Industrial and Commercial Bank? The Agricultural Bank? The Bank of China? Or the Bank of Communications?
 - 2. Which kind of bank account do you have? Is it a savings account or a checking account?
 - 3. Do you go there to deposit money or withdraw money? Or you go there to pay the bills?
- 4. What are the bank procedures? Could you tell us any of your experiences there? Do you also happen to use an ATM?
 - 5. What do you think of the bank clerks there? Are they friendly/hostile to you?
 - 6. Have you ever heard of/experienced school bullying?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VI. Topics for further discussion:
- 1. How much do you know about the banking system in China? Could you name some frequently used terms in banking?
 - 2. do you prefer to go to bank or ATM to draw a not very large sum of money?
 - VII. Written work:

A summary of the story

WEEK 8-9

Lesson Five Angels on a Pin

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. The original end of the article and a comment
- 2. People's views on the issue "angles on a pin"
- 3. A few things about angels
- 4. Russian Sputnik's influence on American education
- 5. An article on education
- 6. Examination system reform in China
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

Angels Dancing on the Head of a Pin

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. Do you think the student is a good student or a bad one?
- 2. Have you had any classmate like him?
- 3. How do you like a teacher like the narrator?
- 4. What is a perfect teacher in your mind?
- 5. Do you have any idea about the differences between the education system in China and in US? What do you think of the differences?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VI. Topics for further discussion:
 - 1. Would you like to study abroad? Why? Where?
 - 2. What do you think of the American education system and/or features
- 3. What would you do with China's education and examination system if you were the Minister of Education?
- 4. Debate: China should follow American education pattern VS China should not follow American education patter

WEEK 9-10

Lesson Six The Monsters Are Due on Maple

I. Activities:

- 1. Warming up
- 2. Text Explanation: a) Introduction of Sci-fi, and relevant knowledge of plays
- b) Word Study
- 3. Exercises
- 4. Group Discussion
- 5. Quiz
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

- III. Literary Knowledge:
- 1. Science fiction:
- 2. elements of a play:
- 3. language features of a play:
- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. Have you read or seen any sci-fi novels or movies? What are they? (They might say 'yes', and possible names are "Jurassic Park", "Star Wars", "The Matrix", "Man in Black", "Terminator II, III", "E.T.", "The Lord of Ring" etc.)
 - 2. Do you like sci-fis? Why do many people like sci-fi?
 - 3. What do you think the language of play?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VI. Topics for further discussion:
 - 1. what is the real monster for human being? Is there such a monster inside you?
 - 2. what is the basic reason for weakness of human rights?
 - 3. How can we get rid of those monsters that destroy the relationship among people?

WEEK 11-12

Lesson Seven Mandela's Garden

- I. Teaching Aims:
- 1. Incorporate the questions on P.166 while going over the text, invite Ss's analysis of those points.
- 2. Reading comprehension of the details of the text, make use of the questions on P.167
- 3. This is an elegant piece of writing (according to the teacher's book). Point out the relatively formal style for a narrative piece, the large number of verbs used in this short piece. Quite brief/concise in its narrative style.
- 4. Point out the two metaphors: gardening and leadership, the beautiful tomato plant and Mandela's relationship with Winnie.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

A Brief Biography of Mandela

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. Who's Mandela? What do you know about him?
- 2. How much do you know about 'apartheid'?
- 3. what is the background of this writing? From which book is it adapted?
- V. Detailed Study of the Text:
- VI. Topics for further discussion:
- 1. What do you think made Mandela such a remarkable person? Quite a lot of people think that he should be considered as the man of the 20th century, do you agree? why or why not?
- 2. What kind of qualities should a successful leader possess according to Mandela and according to you?
 - 3. What is Mandela's understanding of a healthy relationship?
 - 4. Have you got any inspiration from Mandela's gardening experience?

WEEK 12-13

Lesson Eight My Personal Manager

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. Try to incorporate the questions on p.192 while going over the text, invite students' analysis.
- 2. Try to point out the informal style of the language. (e.g., cool, my, what have you got to loose)
- 3. Ask students to analyze Carlos's personality from what he said and did in paragraph 1, 4, 5, 7, 8 in comparison to Karen (if applicable).
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

What is a Personal Manager?

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. Have you ever had similar problems like Karen did? How did you handle those problems? Or are you still troubled by them? Work in pairs. Try to help each other identify the problem(s) and give suggestions to each other. Share in the big group.
 - 2. How do you define yourself in terms of self-evaluation or self-esteem?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VI. Topics for further discussion:
 - 1. What makes Karen a different girl, do you think?
 - 2. How do you think Karen will choose between Reed and Carlos as her boy friend?
 - 3.Do you have any weak points in your character that you want to improve?

WEEK 13-14

Lesson Nine Against All Odds

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. Give relative background information about Stephen Hawking and other famous persons in China and other countries?
- 2. Ask the students to analyse the possible themes of the text? Is there only one? or two? What is it of what are they?
 - 3. Paraphrase some difficult sentences.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

1. About Stephen Hawking

2. about Helen Keller

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. Who is Stephen Hawking? What is he famous for?
- 2. What does the title mean?
- 3. What's the main idea of the text?
- 4. What do you think of the theme or themes of the text? (be to discussed in the discussion session)
- V. Detailed Study of the Text:
- VI. Topics for further discussion:
- 1. What is the theme or are the themes of the text?
- 2. If you were Hawking, what would you have done?
- 3. How do you usually deal with the difficulties in your life? What shall we do when disasters strike?

WEEK 15-16

Lesson Ten The Green Banana

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. Give relative background information about Donald Bachelder and make a brief introduction to his book *Beyond Experience: The Experiential Approach to Cross-Cultural Education*.
- 2. Ask the students to analyse symbols in the story? How many symbols and what do they represent or symbolize?
 - 3. Help students understand better about cultural ideology and cross-cultural thinkings.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

Moral Relativism: Cultural Relativism

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. When you see the title of this text at first glance, what does it occur to you?
- 2. Have you heard about ethnocentrism or cultural relativism? If not, please first look them up in the dictionary, and then refer to the material attached to this work sheet.
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VI. Topics for further discussion:
 - 1. What is the theme or are the themes of the text?
 - 2. If you were Hawking, what would you have done?
 - 3. How do you usually deal with the difficulties in your life? What shall we do when disasters strike?

WEEK 16-17

Lesson Eleven The Midnight Visitor

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To appreciate a good mystery story, to appreciate a good character sketch.
- 2. To draw a rough picture about suspense stories, suspense fiction.
- 3. To have some knowledge about tow writing techniques: Foreshadowing and Points of view.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

- III. Literary Knowledge:
- 1. Suspense fiction genre includes <u>detective stories</u>, <u>spy thrillers</u>, <u>crime novels</u>, etc. 2. 2. The point of view of a literary work is the perspective from which the reader views the action and characters. The three major types of point of view in novels are omniscient (all-knowing narrator outside the story itself), first-person (observations of a character who narrates the story), and third-person-limited (outside narration focusing on one character's observations).
 - IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. What's the main idea of the story? Try to refer to the questions on page 272 while going over the text.
 - 2. Ask students to divide the story into three parts and explain the main idea of each one.
 - 3. Describe Ausable in terms of his physical appearance and ways of dealing with emergencies.
- 4. Compare him with the description of secrete agents in Hollywood movies or popular literature, James Bond for example. Why is there such a difference?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VI. Complimentary Reading:
 - VII Further Discussion:
 - 1. The Midnight Visitor belongs to the category of mysteries.
 - 2. What are the elements that make this story so gripping to you?
 - 3. Look for the steps Ausable had designed that led Max finally to the "balcony".
- 4. Compared with James Bond, Ausable seems common almost in every way. But what is it that makes him uncommon?
 - 5. Do you find any contrasts in Ausable?

WEEK 17-18

Lesson Twelve The Kindness of Strangers

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. Give relative background information about Geography of the US.
- 2. Ask the students to analyse the possible themes of the text? Is there only one? or two? What is it or what are they?
 - 3. Paraphrase some difficult sentences.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

- III. Geographical Knowledge:
- 1. Take out the map of the United States and get familiar with the map. You may want to talk about some commonly used geographical concepts of US, such as New England, the Great Lakes, etc.
- 2. **Reference Materials concerning** Geography of the United States, 25 Largest U.S. Cities and Metropolitan Areas, New England, Great Lakes and Great Plains.
 - IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. What's the main idea of the story? Try to refer to the questions on page 297 while going over the text.
 - 2. Position the places mentioned in the text in the map, and mark the route of the writer's journey.
 - 3. Why does he decide to take this trip the week he turned 37. Would you do the same?
 - 4. Why does he carry a plate showing "America"? What would happen if he didn't carry it?
 - 5. Any inspiration for us Chinese?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:

1. language points

2. paraphrasing difficult sentences:

- (para. 1) There was a time in the country when you'd be considered a jerk if you passed by somebody in need. Now you are a fool for helping.
- (para. 2) Leaving him stranded in the desert did not bother me so much. What bothered me was how easily I had reached the decision.
 - (para 5) ...the land of the almighty dollar...
 - (para 9) People don't have no heart anymore.
 - (para 10) Those who had the least to give often gave the most
 - (para 12) Now we are talking.

VI. Further Discussion:

- 1. What do you think the writer said when he was invited to speak to the classes?
- 2. Role play--Make a five-minute speech on your trip to a memorable place.

Revision

五、测试与评估

本课程采取闭卷考试为主,结合平时课堂表现和作业成绩的评测方式。本课程的最终总评成绩 大概包括以下部分:

- 1. 课堂出勤 (Class attendance) (5%)
- 2. 课前口语操练(Presentation)(5%)
- 3. 测验和作业 quizzes/assignments (5%)
- 4. 口语考试 (Oral test) (5%)
- 5. 期中考试 (Mid-term exam) (20%)
- 6. 期末考试 (Final exam) (70%)

六、教学参考书

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《语音》教学大纲

王雅琨 编写

目 录

前 言		97
	一、概述	97
	二、课程教学目的和基本要求	97
	三、课程基本内容及学时分配	97
	四、主要教学形式	98
	五、推荐课外阅读材料	98
Week 1 In	ntroduction to Some Concepts of Phonetics and This Course	99
Week 2	Features of Vowels and Rules of Articulation	100
Week 3	Read and Compare Exercises on Vowels	101
Week 4	Features of consonants and rules of articulation (1)	102
Week 5	Features of consonants and rules of articulation (2)	103
Week 6	Read and Compare Exercises on consonants	104
Week 7	Rhythm in English	105
Week 8	Intonation	106
Week 9	Test	107

前言

一、概述

也许有人会认为,发音及音调仅仅是英语学习的一小部分,甚至是最不重要的一部分。但是实践告诉我们,英语发音的好坏是评价一个人整体英语水平的重要因素。尤其对于英语专业的学生来说,语音语调是否过关,将直接影响日后其在听、说、读、写、译方面的提高。因此,本课程可以说是专业学生第一年学习的"重中之重",要求学生给予足够的重视。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程针对英语专业本科低年级学生缺乏语音知识和理论指导、在读音实践过程中深受汉语和 地方方言影响的现状,从英语元音和辅音的读音规则入手,指导学生在英语的语音、连读、节奏、 停顿、语调等各个方面有一个全面的认识,从而达到纠正学生中文式发音的目的,使其能以正确的 语音、语调朗读,表达思想并进行交际,为将来进入高年级打下良好的专业基础。

语音学的课程设置从内容上可以分为两部分:一是音素的发音,二是音素在语篇中的说、读技能。前者要求在正确读音规则的指导下,通过大量的、反复的发音练习来纠正不正确的发音,并形成正确的发音方法和习惯。想要改变长期形成的发音习惯不是一件容易的事,只有经过长期不懈的练习才能办到。因此,本课程要求每天要坚持一定时间(60-90分钟)的练习,从慢到快,先严格按发音规则发音,再逐步巩固从而养成新习惯。第二部分主要训练正确的英语话语节奏规律和语调。这一部分要求多听标准录音,多模仿。对段落及篇章的模仿,重点在模仿语调和提高流利程度。

本课程通过语音基础知识的学习和多种形式的训练,帮助学生掌握语音的发音、语流的规律、语调的功能。一年级的语音语调课程应使学生在结课后达到如下水平:能自觉模仿和纠音,在语流中发音正确;初步掌握朗读技巧,在朗读和听说中有基本的节奏感和语调感。

三、课程基本内容及学时分配

本教程采用以教师的课堂讲解、学生练习以及课堂检测相结合的方式,覆盖以下内容:

- 1. 简要介绍语音学中的一些基本知识和理论:
- 2. 系统介绍英语元音、辅音各音素的发音部位及发音方法;分辨相似、相近音素之间的区别;
- 3. 介绍英语的节奏规律: 句子的重音模式、节律模式、弱读等方面的知识,着重训练学生的英语话语节奏规律;
 - 4. 介绍英语语调的结构:如英语的降调、升调、降升调等,常用调型组合及其功能和应用;除了理论知识和纠音训练,对英语重音、节奏、语流、语调的感知与训练贯穿课程的始终。

第一讲: 概论(2学时)

主要目的: 了解国际音标及其分类标准, 及本课程的教学要求

主要内容: 1、介绍目前比较普遍的英音和美音的区别。2、英语的 24 个辅音。英语辅音的分类标准有以下三个: 1)发音部位; 2)发音方法; 3)声带振动情况。3、英语的元音共 20 个,其中单元音 12 个,双元音 8 个。英语元音的分类标准是: 1)舌面的高低; 2)舌位的前后; 3)唇形。4、发音器官图解。5、本课程的教学目的、教学要求、教学进度及测试手段。

第二讲 英语语音(10学时)

主要目的:了解单元音、双元音、以及各个辅音的发音部位及发音方法;能分辨相似、相近音素之间的区别;掌握英语各个音素的准确发音。

主要内容: 1、单元音的分辨与模仿。2、双元音的分辨与模仿。3、辅音的分辨与模仿。4、单词重音练习。5、辅音连缀知识与应用。 6、相似、相近音素对比练习

第三讲 英语的节奏韵律(3学时)

主要目的:了解英语的节奏规律;掌握句子的重音模式、节律模式、音的连续、音的同化、省音与缩约、弱读等方面的知识,以促进英语话语的流利程度,也有助于提高听力水平。

主要内容: 1、学习英语的重读规律,进行重读音节、重音组、节奏练习等。2、掌握音的连读的规律。3、了解音的同化现象。4、训练音的省略与缩约。5、进行英语的弱读训练,包括代词、介词、连词等的弱读。6、语篇模仿练习。

第四讲 英语的语调 (3 学时)

主要目的: 学习英语语调; 掌握英语的降调、升调、降升调等,能确定调子的位置,正确的标出句子的语调,正确的模仿; 了解语调单位,能分辨出语调单位的四个组成部分; 掌握语调的使用问题分清不同语调的不同使用语境; 掌握英语语调的功能。

主要内容: 1、学习英语的降升调。2、学习语调的单位。3、掌握英语语调的使用。4、掌握英语语调的功能,包括强调功能、语法功能、语段功能等。5、语篇模仿练习。

四、主要教学形式

- 1、课堂讲解一语音基础知识:元音、辅音的读音规则:相近、相似音素的区别
- 2、课件展示一语音基础知识;元音、辅音的读音规则;相近、相似音素的区别
- 3、语音示范-元音、辅音的发音; 节奏,语调的示范(教师带读、CD、磁带)
- 4、语篇模仿一提高节奏、语流、语调的觉察力(相关材料, CD、磁带等)
- 5、语音辨别练习一元音、辅音的读音规则;相近、相似音素的区别
- 6、语音检测一帮助学生进行小结/总结,检查学习情况

五、推荐课外阅读材料

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Week 1 Introduction to Some Concepts of Phonetics and This Course

These two periods will firstly make a brief introduction to the design of this course, including the goal, the schedule of the course, methods adopted, and course requirements. By doing so, the students will be aware of what they will deal with and how to cooperate with the teacher in and after class. Then a description of phonetics concepts follows, covering standards of good English pronunciation, the organs of speech, the classification of speech sounds, and lastly, differences between pronunciation and intonation of GA (general American) and GB (general British) English.

For example,

Difference in pronunciation

- 1. $[a :] \rightarrow [æ]$ before $[f, \theta, s]$, and [m,n,n]
- 2. $[a :, a :, a : a] \rightarrow vowel+[r]$ when r occurs
- 3. $[t] \rightarrow \text{similar } [d]$ when unstress and between vowels
- 4. $[w] \rightarrow [hw]$

Difference in intonation

Generally speaking, GB intonation has wider voice range and more varieties than GA intonation.



Week 2 Features of Vowels and Rules of Articulation

These two periods mainly focus on the articulation of vowels. After a general description on the features of vowels, the vowels will be dealt with one by one, from the monophthongs (the front vowels, the central vowels, and the back vowels) to the diphthongs (the closing diphthongs, the centering diphthongs). The methods of delivery are firstly the illustration of rules for articulation, like the lip shape, tongue position and degree of tenseness. Then, the teacher makes models for each sound and listens to some students to find out the mispronunciations. A lot of repetition exercises follow to enhance the rules of articulation. The correction of the monophthongs is the most important, because the position of articulation for the front, back and centering vowels are confusing. They could be illustrated as follows:

The features for the front vowels are

- a. the front of the tongue is raised to various levels in the direction of the hard palate
- b. The tip of the tongue is usually kept down behind the lower teeth.
- c. The lips are spread out

The features for the back vowels are

- a. The tongue is retracted, the back part is raised to various levels in the direction of the soft palate.
- b. The tip of the tongue is slightly drawn away from the lower teeth

The features for the centering vowels are

- a) the middle of the tongue is raised towards the dividing line between the hard and the soft palates
- b) The lip position is neutral, that is, the lips are held naturally and normally.

Week 3 Read and Compare Exercises on Vowels

These two periods aim at correcting the mispronunciation of all the vowels. Fourteen pairs of similar and confusing vowels are presented and carefully examined. They are [iː]& [ɪ],[e] &[æ], [e] & [eɪ],[ɜː] & [ə], [aː] & [aː] & [aː] & [aː] & [aː] & [aː] & [aː], [au] & [au], [au], [au] & [au], [a

Some students are not sure about the differences between the long vowels [iː]& [ɪ], they just take the latter as a shortened form of the former, and it is not correct. For [iː], it is not only longer, and the tongue position is higher, and the lips are spread out, and the muscle gets very tensed; for [ɪ], it is shorter, but the tongue position is lower, the lip shape is neutral, and it is lax. The same differences exist in [ɔː]& [v] and [uː]& [v].

Week 4 Features of consonants and rules of articulation (1)

The consonants are classified into different groups according to the work of the vocal cords, place of articulation and manner of articulation. This course deals with the rules of articulation of plosives [p],[b], [t],[d], [k],[g], fricatives [f], [v], [θ], [δ], [s], [s], [s], [s], [s], [r] and affricates [f] [t] [tr] [tr] [dr] [ts] [dz]. A lot of sample words or phonetic transcripts are presented for practices. Mispronunciations are pointed out and corrected.

The consonants [v], $[\theta]$, $[\int]$, [f]]seem to be problems:

For [v], the lower lips should rise to and press against the upper teeth.

For $[\theta]$, the tip of the tongue rise to touch or protrude between the teeth.

For [f], the tip and blade of the tongue rise towards the back part of the teeth ridge. The mispronunciation is produced when the tip of the tongue is put forward than it should be put. And the lips should round slightly.

For [f], the tip of the tongue rises to touch the back part of the teeth ridge. And the lips are somewhat protruded.

Week 5 Features of consonants and rules of articulation (2)

These classes deal with the rest of the consonants: Nasals [m], [n] and [n], laterals [l] [†], semi-vowels [w] [j]. The methods adopted mainly are correcting mispronunciations by a lot of reading aloud, reading and comparing exercises. However, the most important thing is to make very clear the rules of articulation. Only directed by the rules could the students once and forever command the correct way of articulation.

When producing [l], the tip of the tongue presses against the upper teeth ridge, while the sides of the tongue are lowered. The body of the tongue forms a slope. [†] is a variety of [l]. It is when the letter l is in the final position of the words or before consonants, and it is also call the dark [l], the tip of the tongue is lowered, and the back of the tongue is raise, so that the body of the tongue forms a curved shape.

Week 6 Read and Compare Exercises on consonants

These two periods aim at correcting the mispronunciation of all the consonants. Fifteen pairs of similar and confusing vowels are presented and carefully examined. They are [m]&[n], [n] &[ŋ], [n] & [l], [l] & [t], [f] & [v], [v] & [w], [s] & [z], [s] & [f], [f] & [s], [t] & [s], [t] & [t], [t] & [t], [t] & [t], [t] & [t], [t] & [t] &

The mispronunciation of [w] for [v] is very common among the students. The mistake occurs when the lower teeth doesn't rise to touch the upper lip.

When producing [s], the tip of the tongue is close to the teeth ridge.

[w],and [j] are semi-vowels, because they are speech sounds of vowel quality used as a consonants. They are quick, smooth, non-friction glide towards a following vowel sound.

Week 7 Rhythm in English

The two periods start from syllables, word -stress, sentence- stress, liaison, pausing, sense group, breath group and finally lead to the rhythm of English. Rhythm of English speech is formed by the recurrence of stressed syllables at more or less regular intervals of time and by the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. In connected speech, the stressed syllables follow each other nearly at roughly equal intervals of time, and the unstressed syllables (weather many or few) occupy almost the same period of time between the stressed syllables. The greater the number of unstressed syllables, the quicker they are pronounced. So English is a stress-timed language.

I think he wants to go.

I think that he wants us to go.

I think it was an excellent affair.

Each of these three sentences contains the same number of stressed syllables, but a different number of unstressed syllables. However, they are pronounced almost in the same period of time. One way to improve the rhythm is to beat the rhythm with your hand, one beat for each stressed syllable and with exactly the same time between each pair of beats.

Week 8 Intonation

Intonation is an important element of speech. By intonation we mean the rise and fall of the pitch-change of the voice which take place on the nucleus. An analysis of English intonation may help know fairly the sentence structure and the attitude of a speaker so as to get the message well in communication.

The falling tome is used in the following types of sentences:

- 1. Ordinary statements.
- 2. WH questions (special questions)
- 3. imperative sentences
- 4. Exclamatory sentences
- 5. The final part of the alternative questions
- 6. The former part of the disjunctive questions
- 7. Rhetorical questions
- 8. Short questions used as responses

The rising tone which indicates "uncertainty" or "incompleteness" or "politeness" is used in the following types of sentences.

- 1. Yes-no questions showing great doubt or uncertainty.
- 2. Complete statements which are intended as questions
- 3. The preceding alternatives in alternative questions
- 4. Tag questions of some disjunctive questions
- 5. Repetition-questions
- 6. Incomplete groups or enumerations
- 7. Adverbials at the beginning of sentences
- 8. polite requests
- 9. Tag-questions after commands
- 10. Some statements which are intended to be soothing or encouraging
- 11. Some special questions which sound more friendly and concerned

Week 9 Test

Test consists of three parts. The first part, Read aloud the phonetic transcript, is aiming at testing the pronunciation correctness. The second part, Read the passage with appropriate rhythm and intonation. The third part, Make a conversation with the given context, is to test the comprehensive ability to use the phonetics knowledge in a real conversation.

The score of this test will account for 70% of the final score. The rest of score will be made up by class attendance and performance.

《综合英语(二)》 教学大纲

张青云 编写

目 录

盯	音		3
		课程教学目的和基本要求	
		相关教学提示	
		建议教材及教学参考书	
***		课程主要内容及学时分配	
第一			
	—,	语言与语篇	5
	_,	修辞分析	6
第二	单元		8
	· · ·	语言与语篇	8
		修辞分析	
笹二			
∕ 14 —.		语言与语篇	
		修辞分析	
<i>አ</i> -አ- ⊦+		写作风格分析.language and style:	
第四.		See 3.1.1 See Ma	
		语言与语篇	
	_,	修辞分析:	14
	三、	写作风格分析	14
第五	单元		15
		语言与语篇	
		修辞分析:	
		写作风格分析	
笛六		→ IFPVII カリー	
∠I4/ \ -		语言与语篇	
		修辞分析 parallelism: the use of identical or equivalent syntactic constructions	
		esponding clauses	
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分 七			
		语言与语篇	
		修辞分析 Simile	
		Writing Technique:	
第八	单元		23
		语言与语篇	23
			23
	_,	语言与语篇	23 24
第九	三、 三、	语言与语篇 修辞分析	23 24 24
第九	二、 三、 单元	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25
第九-	二、 三、 单元 一、	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25 25
第九	二、 三、 单元 一、 二、	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25 25 26
	二、 三、 单元 一、 二、 三、	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25 25 26 26
	二、三、 三、 单元 一、二、三、 单元	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25 25 26 26 28
	二、三、 三、 单元 二、二、三、 单元	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25 25 26 26 28 28
	二、三、 单元 一、二、三、 单元 ———————————————————————————————	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25 25 26 26 28 28 28
第十	二、三、 単元 一、二、三、 単元 、二、三、 二、三、	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25 25 26 26 28 28 28 29
第十	上、三、	语言与语篇	23 24 25 25 26 26 28 28 28 29 30
第十	上、三、	语言与语篇	23 24 25 25 26 26 28 28 28 29 30
第十	上 単元 単元…一、二三元… 一 一 一 一 一 一 一 一 一	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25 26 26 28 28 28 29 30 30
第十	单元	语言与语篇	23 24 24 25 26 26 28 28 29 30 30 31

英语专业课程教学大纲

第十二单元		32
— ,	语言与语篇	32
=,	修辞分析	32
\equiv	写作风格分析	32

前言

综合英语属于英语专业基础课范畴,它融听、说、读、写、译五项技能为一体,其主要目的是培养和提高学生实际运用英语的能力。此课程通过语言基本功的训练和篇章分析,使学生熟悉英语常用句型并逐步扩大词汇量,提高英语阅读理解能力,为提高口语及写作能力打下坚实的基础。同时,让学生了解英语各种文体的特点,帮助学生获取不同文化背景知识,拓宽学生的知识面。综合英语的教学融知识性,实践性和综合性为一体,为其它专业课的学习提供了有力的保障与铺垫。

《综合英语(二)》

适用范围:英语专业一年级第二学期课程总学时数:108课程总学分:6

执笔: 张青云

一、课程教学目的和基本要求

二年级综合英语教学要求学生在掌握正确发音的基础上,具备较强的辨音、正音和示范朗读能力。语法方面学生应掌握比较系统、完整的语法知识,能在综合运用中做到概念清楚,并具备一定的语法分析能力。词汇方面要求学生领会掌握词汇 4500 个左右,复用式掌握其中 2000 至 2500 个左右单词,要求能正确朗读与拼写,并能在听、说、读、写、译中正确使用。听力方面要求学生能听懂程度略低于学过的综合英语课文的有声材料,基本能听懂英语国家电台较慢的新闻报道,并能听懂外籍英语专家的讲演和报告。口语方面要求学生能进行生活对话,用英语回答教师提出的问题,进行释译表达,口头复述。阅读方面要求学生能熟练使用字典,正确理解作者写作意图,把握文章发展线索,正确理解全文。写作方面要求学生能根据课文材料写出故事复述,进行重点场景及人物描写,并能写出行文流畅的作文。交际能力方面要求学生能运用所掌握的语言知识和技能在规定的范围内进行交际。为真正提高学生的语言实践能力,要摒弃"教师满堂灌"的做法,留一定的时间和空间给学生,鼓励学生积极地参与到每个语言练习活动中去,提高学生的自主学习能力。

二、相关教学提示

先修课程:本课程的先修课为《听力》、《语法》,《语音》,《泛读》

后续课程:《综合英语 III》《英美文化》《翻译》《写作》

因为本课程的综合性质,本课程在教学内容上和先修课程与后续课程是一脉相承的。而且本课程将多种课程融为一体,比如课程文章的文化性,文章的翻译,课后作业中的写作等。但是本课程的侧重点仍是综合性的,并不能深入地探讨和其他课程的相交点。因此有必要要求学生选修其它相关的课程。另外需要指出,本课程也为其它课程奠定了良好的基础。

三、建议教材及教学参考书

- [1] 黄源深, 虞苏美等主编,《综合英语教程》(1-4 册), 高等教育出版社, 1998
- [2] 杨立民主编, 《现代大学英语》, 外语教学研究出版社, 2001
- [3] 李观仪主编,《新编英语教程》,上海外语教育出版社,1999
- [4] 《高等学校英语专业英语教学大纲》,外语教学研究出版社,上海外语教育出版社,2000
- [5] Jack C. Richards,《剑桥国际英语教程》, 外语教学研究出版社,2000
- [6] Collins English Dictionary for Advanced Learners, 2001

- [7] The Society and Culture of Major English-Speaking Countries (An Introduction),高等教育出版 社,2002
 - [8] Reader's Choice, 世界图书出版公司, 2008
 - 四、课程主要内容及学时分配

综合英语 I (第1学期)

第一单元

Another School Year --- What For?

背景知识(0.5 小时)

About the author: John Ciardi

William Shakespeare,

Bach,

Homer,

THE ILIAD,

THE ODYSSEY,

VIRGIL, or VERGI, DANTE,

The Divine Comedy,

ARISTOTLE (384-322 BC), Geoffrey Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales,

LA ROCHEFOUCAULD, François de (1613-80),

Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT)

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

- 1. 语言难点: accomplishment, assume, certify, fresh out of, specialize in, true of expose, faculty, generate, nevertheless, rear. species, suffice 等词汇和短语
 - 2. 派生词构词法:

Prefix -in

Root - sum, tain

Suffix - ment, ist

Verbal affixies: -ize/ise; -fy; -en

- 3. 语法: inversion, adverbial clauses of concession, the way of expressing future time; the use of emphasizing coordinate conjunctions s: both ...and.../ not only ... but (also) / not...but... / either... or / neither...nor
 - 4. 课文释义

Difficult sentences:

- 1)...one of the earliest disasters in my career as a teacher
- 2) I was fresh out of graduate school.
- 3) Part of the student body was a beanpole with hair on top who...
- 4) New as I was to the faculty
- 5) drugstore-mechanics and pill-grinding...
- 6) ...it would further certify that he had been exposed to some of the ideas mankind has generated within its history.
 - 7) I could have told him all this, but it was fairly obvious he wasn't going to be around long enough

for it to matter.

- 8) They will be a little shorter when you are in love, and a little longer when you are out of love, but the average tend to hold
- 9) You will see to it that the cyanide stays out of the aspirin, that the bull doesn't jump the fence, or that your client does not go to electric chair as a result of your incompetence.
 - 10) ...may it always suffice.
- 11) Will you be presiding over a family that maintains some contact with the great democratic intellect?
 - 12) I'm out to make money.
 - 13) ...because you're going to be badly stuck for something to do.
 - 14) You are on your way to being that new species of mechanized savage, the push-button
- 15) There is not time enough in a single lifetime to invent for oneself everything one needs to know in order to a be civilized human.
- 16) If you are too much in a hurry, or too arrogantly proud of your own limitations, to accept as gift to your humanity some pieces of the minds of Aristotle, or Chaucer, or Einstein, you are neither a developed human nor a useful citizen of a democracy.
 - 17) ...most people would never fall in love if they hadn't read about it.
 - 5. 语篇分析

Structure Analysis

Part I (para. 1 - 8) describes the writer's encounter with one of his student.

Part II (para. 9 - 14) restates what the writer still believes to be the purpose of a university: putting its students in touch with the best civilizations the human race has created.

二、修辞分析

1. euphemism; Writing Technique: Euphemism or "language pollution", or "double speak," as some call it, is often intended to obscure or hide the real situation.

jump the fence / go to the electric chair / pass away / rest in peace / go to the bathroom, ladies' room / senior citizen / sanitary engineer / correction center / domestic help / meat technologist / substandard housing / He is a bit slow for his age

2. analysis of short and long clauses 等。

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. The misunderstanding of the purpose of university that the student taking the class had.
- 2. Understanding and discussion about what the purpose of university really is.

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 语言技能训练:用 fresh out of, certify, specialize in, training and education 等词及相关短语写一篇关于进入大学后对于大学目的理解的短文;同义词、形近词辨析、复杂结构与语法练习
 - 2. 小组讨论

What did the students think was the purpose of university and what is it now when they are studying in university.

- 3. 主题研究:
- 1). The understanding of current college students about the purpose of university.

- 2). The problems existing in university.
- 3). Suggestions made to solve these problems.

作文写作

Suppose you are the writer and write about what you said to the tall student about the purpose of a university in about 130 words. Your retelling should contain three parts.

- 1. How you came to talk about it
- 2. what you said
- 3. what you pointed out in conclusion

扩展阅读

Text B

Internet resources

The Class by Erich Segal

第二单元

Maheegun My Brother

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Background information:

Wolf and Man

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

- 1. 语言难点: pierce, quiet down, come into focus detain, dim, drift, leap, lick, pierce, poke, realize, shiver, slash, smother, spear, spurt, squat, stir, thicken, thrill, wiggle, howl, rumble, snarl, whimper, take sb./sth. to, take over, take its/their/a heavy toll on sb./sth., only too, on one's own, thrill to sth., (all) for the best, see, in(to) focus,
 - 2. 复合词: compound adjectives:
- n.+ -ed: moon-flooded cabin, snow-filled creek bed, blood-soaked bandage, thunder-struck crowd, sun-tanned arms, wind-driven generator, cloud-capped tower, heart-felt 等词汇和短语
 - 3. 语法: 1)the function of infinitive; 2)the modal + have done 等
 - 4. 课文释义

Difficult sentences

- 1)Meheegun would poke his head around the corner, waiting for things to quiet down.
- 2) . Gone was the puppy-wool coat. In its place was a handsome black mantle.
- 3) . It all served to fog my mind with pleasure so that I forgot my Grandpa's repeated warnings, and one night left Maheegun unchained.
- 4) . Then after a while, from the distance came a softer call in reply. Maheegun stirred, with the deep rumble of pleasure in his throat. He slipped down the rock and headed out across the ice.(14)
 - 5) . A mile down the road I slipped into my snowshoes and turned into the bush
 - 6) . A great white stillness had taken over and with it, biting cold.
 - 7) . Suddenly the world exploded in snarls. I was thrown against the branches of the shelter.

5.语篇分析

Plot of the story:

Setting of the story:

Protagonist v.s. Antagonists:

Drama of the story lies in:

Theme of the story: The story depicts the ideal relationship between humans and wild animals—they are fellow creatures on earth, and therefore should treat each other like brothers.

Structure Analysis: The story can be roughly divided into four parts: the first three paragraphs serve as the introduction. The second part describes the happy days the boy and Maheegun had together in the short period of less than a year, and how Maheegun returned to the wild where he belonged. Next is the reunion of the two when the boy's life was endangered by two hungry wolves. In the concluding part, the brothers returned to the place where they each belonged – the boy to his warm home and his loved ones,

the world to his kind in the wild. The story beings in spring and ends in early spring, in the normal sequence of Nature.

二、修辞分析

- 1. inversion
- 2. Simile, metaphor, Personification
- 3. Action expressions

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. How do you think Maheegun came to be abandoned?
- 2. What happened one day that convinced the boy's grandpa that the time had come to say goodbye to Maheegun?
 - 3. Why did Maheegun return to his kind?
 - 4. All creatures on earth are created equal, and should treat each other like brothers.

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 语言技能训练:用 alert, slip down, lick 等词及相关短语写一篇动物描写;同义词、形近词辨析、复杂结构与语法练习
 - 2. 小组讨论
 - 1. About the description of actions, appearance and natural scenes
 - 3. 主题讨论:
 - 1. How do you view the relationship between wolves and humans?
 - 2. Do you have a similar story to tell?
 - 4. 扩展阅读

Boys's Life(by Eric Acland)

Movie: Kekexili

第三单元

More Crime and Less Punishment

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge:

Richard Moran

Alcatraz Island

Jury system in America

Guiding principle in criminal court in America

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

1. 语言难点: Expressions related to crime, law and court: correctional personnel, to prosecute sb, parole, to imprison/jail a criminal, crime rate, to supervise a criminal, arrest record, to execute a murderer, property crime

Verbs: convince, persuade, refuse, reject, decline, reject, commit, deter, illustrate, measure,

Expressions: get tough with, Lock away (lock up), Be/go easy on sb (be/go easy with/on sth), so as to, work out to, the other way around,等词汇和短语

2. 派生词构词法:

Prefix -ex, non

Suffix - al

3. 语法: Grammar Focus:

Ways of expressing result: so... that / so...as to... / so that.../ and / so / only to do.../ and so / comparative degree, ways of comparing things: as...as / more than / the more...the more /

Passive voice

subjunctive mood

4. 课文释义

Difficult sentences

- 1). The best estimates suggest that 36 to 40 million people have arrest records for nontraffic offenses. (para.1) Paraphrase the sentence.
- 2). We already have 2.4 million people under some form of correctional supervision. (para.1) What is meant by 'under some form of correctional supervision'?
- 3). The painful fact is that the more crime there is the less we ate able to punish it. (para.2)Analyze the grammatical structure of the sentence.
- 4). We think that punishment deters crime, but it just might be the other way around. (para. 3)Paraphrase the sentence.
- 5). Just as the decline in the number of high-school graduates ··· made it more difficult to get into prison. (para.4)Explain the use of "as" here. What are being compared in this sentence?

- 6). While elite colleges and universities still have high standards of admissions, some of the more "exclusive" prisons now require about five prior serious crimes before an inmate is accepted into their correctional program. (para. 4)Define "elite colleges", "exclusive prisons", and "prior serious crimes".
 - 7). Our current crop of prinsoners is an elite group... (para.4) Paraphrase the sentence.
- 8). Yet when measured against the lower crime rates ··· are not worth the cost to state and local governments. (para.7) Explain the first part of the sentence.
- 9). Besides, those states that have tried to gain voters' approval for bonds to build new prisons often discover... (para.7) What does "bonds" mean here? What do the bonds have to do with the voters' approval?
- 10). While it is not possible to know the true amount of crime committed by people released from prison in any given year, ... (para. 8) Explain the use of "while" and the meaning of the word "given" here.
- 11). ••• this would amount to only 15,000 crimes prevented: a drop in the bucket when measured against the 41 million crimes committed each year. (para. 8)Paraphrase the sentence.
- 12). The first-year operation cost would be worth it if the victim were you or me, but much too expensive to be feasible as a national policy. (para. 9)Why worth it if we were the victims, but no feasible as a national policy?

5. 语篇分析

Theme of the Story: The story depicts the ideal relationship between humans and wild animals—they are fellow creatures on earth, and therefore should treat each other like brothers.

Structure Analysis

Part I (para.1-3) Introduction of the central idea: punishment does not reduce crime

Part II (para. 4-9) Why punishment doesn't deter crime

Part III (para. 10) Conclusion: getting tough with criminals is not the answer to the crime problem.

二、修辞分析

Writing Technique:

- 1. Statistical Information:
- 2. Rhetorical Ouestions:
- 3. Selective Use of Repetition:
- 4. Analogy:

三、写作风格分析.language and style:

Formal essay

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. What is the author's view on the relationship between crime and punishment?
- 2. How does the author illustrate his point of view?
- 3. What conclusion has he reached about crime and punishment?
- 4. The terms used in crime and punishment.

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 语言技能训练:用 victim, execute, prosecute, get tough with, too easy on 等词及相关短语写一篇关于犯罪与法律惩罚之间关系的短文;同义词、形近词辨析、复杂结构与语法练习
 - 2. 小组讨论

The relationship between crime and punishment

What should be done in order to reduce crime in society?

3. 辩论

Death penalty should/should not be banned.

- 4. Questions for after-class discussion
- 1) What do you now about jury system in America?
- 2) What is the guiding principle?
- 3) What are the advantages and disadvantages of the principle?
- 4) What expressions do you know about crime, law and court?
- 5) What is the root of crime?
- 5. 扩展阅读

Internet resources

Can Punishment Be Justified by Thomas Ash

The Executioner's Current by Richard Moran

第四单元

The Nightingale and the Rose

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

Oscar Wilde's early school years and works

Oscar Wilde's belief:

Criticism

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

1. 语言难点:fling, cynic, chill, stain, for want of, something of want, fling, bloom, blossom, ebb, linger, see about doing, see something out, see through sb./ sth., see to something, go about something, go after sb/sth, go against sb/sth, go along, go round, go back on sth, go by, go for sb/sth, go into, go over, go underVocabulary;

Jewels: gems, emeralds, ruby, sapphire, jade, diamond;

Plants: daisy, rose, oak-tree, daffodil;

Animals: nightingale, lizard, butterfly;

Subjects: philosophy, metaphysics, logic;

Stringed instruments: harp, violin 等词汇和短语

- 2. 派生词构词法 Word formation: -ed, -ian, -out -ty, -ity
- 3. 语法:

Grammar Focus:

- 1) learn how to use modals: can, could, may must, might
- 2) relative clauses: all that.../ everything that.../something that.../ nothing that.../ anything that.../ anyone who.../ the best that
 - 3)inversions
 - 4)独立主格结构
 - 4. 课文释义
 - 5. 语篇分析

Structure Analysis

- Para.1-12 Nightingale struck by the "the mystery of love"
- Para.13-34 Nightingale looking for a red rose to facilitate the love
- Para.35-45 Nightingale sacrificing her life for a red rose
- Para.46-54 Student discarding the red rose

Theme: The nightingale is the true lover, if there is one. She, at least, is Romance, and the student and the girl are, like most of us, unworthy of Romance. Nightingale sacrifices its own life for pure love's sake. A true love needs wholehearted devotion and passion.

Understanding the Text

Symbolic meanings of "Red rose", "Lizard" "Butterfly" and "Nightingale":

二、修辞分析:

Figurative speeches used in the text:

Personification:

Simile and Metaphor

parallelism.

Climax and Anticlimax

三、写作风格分析

- 1. Genre of this story and its characteristics:
- 1) Fairy tales:
- 2) Characteristics:
- 2. Syntactic device:

Inversion:

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. The sacrifice the nightingale made for love
- 2. The different understandings of love by different characters
- 3. The implications of the rose, the nightingale, the butterfly, the lizard and the daisy.

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 语言技能训练:掌握 simile 和 parallelism 在写作和口头的使用,尤其是在演讲中的使用;同义词、形近词辨析、语法结构与语法练习。
 - 2. 小组讨论:
 - 1) Is it worthwhile to sacrifice one's life for love?
 - 2)Is love the most important part of one's life?
 - 3 戏剧表演: Oral work: Use the dialogues in the text to dramatize the story
 - 4.作文写作 Written work:

Describe how the Nightingale built a red rose out of music in about 150 words.

5. 扩展阅读

Internet resources

Art for Art's Sake by Oscar Wilde

第五单元

Say Yes

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

Tobias Wolff

Works of the author:

Historical Context: The passage is written during the Republican years

Racism

KKK(Ku Klux Klan)

Creation of the Jim Crow South

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

1. 语言难点: Vocabulary (word study):

Synonyms: Consider, considerate, considerable, considering: prep. break up, break down, break in (to), break away, break through, break off

Idiomatic expressions from the text: to do the dishes, to pitch in, to congratulate sb. on sth, to get on a subject, to come along, all things considered, to be okay with sb., to take one's word, to break up, at a rate, as a matter of fact, to be angry with sb., to take a deep breath, to feel cornered, to have no choice but to do sth, to be at sth., to put sth., to have effect on sb., to take one's hand by the wrist, to make it up, to hold sth. Up, to dab at sth, to start up a conversation, to finish up, to feel ashamed, to blur sth. out, to do sth. out of concern for sb., for Christ's sake, to come up with sth., to take a reasonable tone, to get sb. into a fight, to come to one's aid, squeeze, come to one's aid or so

- 2. 派生词构词法: Prefix: hypo-, hyper- Suffixes: -ics, -ic
- 3. 语法:

Grammar Focus:

- 1) noun clauses introduced by wh-word
- 2) with + noun + preposition phrase / participle / adjective
- 3) the way
- 4. 课文释义
- 5. 人物性格分析

Analysis of husband

5. 语篇分析

Understanding the theme: The idea of racism is the theme in the story

Textual Structure schedule

On an ordinary night after supper \rightarrow a common talk \rightarrow different altitudes \rightarrow conflicts

Part 1 (Para. 1): The husband and wife maintain a harmonious relationship with each other.

Part 2 (Paras. 2—51): The husband is questioned by his wife about his view on a white person's marrying a black person.

Part 3 (Para. 52): He has a strange feeling of uneasiness in the dark.

二、修辞分析:

Innuendo:

三、写作风格分析

Writing Devices

- 1. A direct, even non-dramatic, style of writing:
- 2. Verbs or phrases employed to show the inner feeling of both husband and wife:

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. Racism
- 2. Discrimination, Racial inequality

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 戏剧表演:课文场景再现
- 2. 相关历史了解;种族问题、歧视问题
- 3. 小组讨论: "Listen, I went to school with blacks, and I've worked with blacks and we've got along just fine. I don't need you coming along now and implying that I'm a racist." What can we conclude about the husband?
 - 4. 语言技能训练: 同义词、形近词辨析、语法结构与语法练习
 - 5. Assignment
 - 1) How do you think the husband and wife will resolve their situation?

Do you think they will resolve it? Write a scene that takes place the following day.

- 2) Analyze the husband in terms of whether or not he is a racist character.
- 3) Write a counterargument to the husband's statement that African Americans don't come from the same culture as whites.
 - 6. 扩展阅读

"This Boy's Life"

Internet resources

movie: "Rwanda Hotel"

第六单元

The Man in the Water

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

About the author:Roger Rosenblatt

About the Air Crash

Moments After the Crash

Comments on the Event

Related information: Presidential Monuments, Washington Monument, Jefferson Memorial;

The Potomac Rive

Heroism.

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

1. 语言难点: as…goes…, chaotic, chaos, slap, aesthetic, aesthetic, anaesthetic, anesthetic, chunk, clash, the elements, grope, indifferent to, rise to the occasion /challenge /task, acknowledge, account for, in line with, (be) in line with, (be) out of line with, deliver one's line, mass casualty, anonymity, anonymous, ability, capability, capacity, essential, classic, go at: attack, set sb. Against, standoff

crash, aesthetic, acknowledge, rise to the occasion 等词汇和短语

2. 派生词构词法:

an--nym-, -ity, -ion, -sur-, -vit/-viv

prefix im- in-

3. 语法:

Grammar Focus:

- 1) Appositive clauses 名词性从句
- 2) Indefinite pronouns derived from: some, any no, every 时间状语从句

4. 课文释义

Difficult Sentences

- 1) And there was the aesthetic clash as well -—blue and green Air Florida, the name of a flying garden, sunk down among gray chunks of ice in a black river. (para 1)
- 2) Last Wednesday the elements, indifferent as ever, brought down Flight 90. And on that same afternoon human nature —groping and struggling rose to the occasion. (para. 2
- 3) Of the four acknowledged heroes of the event, three ate able to account for their behavior. (para.3)
- 4) Skutnik added that "somebody had to go into the water, delivering every hero's line that is no less admirable for being repeated. (para 3
- 5) "In a mass casualty, you' ll find people like him," said Windsor." But I' ve never seen one with that commitment. (para 4)

- 6) His selfishness was one reason the story held national attention; his anonymity another. (para 4)
- 7. The fact that he went unidentified gave him a universal character. (para 4)
- 8. For a while he was Everyman, and thus proof (as if one needed it) that no one is ordinary. (para 4)
- 9. He was there, in the essential, classical circumstance. (para 7)
- 10. ••• the one making no distinctions of good and evil, acting on no principles, offering no lifelines; the other acting wholly on distinctions, principles and , perhaps, on faith. (para. 7)
- 11. In reality, we believe the opposite, and it takes the act of the man in the water to remind us o four true feelings in this matter. (para. 8)

5. 语篇分析

Part 1 (*Paras. 1—3*): The terrible air crash in Washington, D.C. that brought people to tears and to attention and the possible reasons for the national sensation.

Part 2 (*Paras. 4—9*): It's the ordinary man in the water who performed the extraordinary and stunning deeds that created the emotional impact and the enduring wonder.

Theme of the Text

Heroism: Heroism of course has been admired. But this man's heroism was unusual. People usually expect revolutionaries to die martyrs; true believers to be willing to die for their faith; people ready to lay down their lives in performing their duty; even people to show courage in their attempt to win power, influence, money or to save their loved ones. But the man in the water did not fit any of these descriptions.

The man in the water did not have to give his rings to others; he did not even know these people. He was extraordinary precisely because he was ordinary. He showed what everyone of us could do. The display of his heroism was a song to the beautiful human character.

二、修辞分析 parallelism: the use of identical or equivalent syntactic constructions in corresponding clauses

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. The air crash and the reasons why it was so memorable.
- 2. The real heroes in the crash
- 3. The response of an ordinary citizen in face of such an catastrophe

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 语言技能训练:掌握 parallelism 在写作和口头的使用,尤其是在演讲中的使用;同义词、 形近词辨析、语法结构与语法练习。
 - 2. 小组讨论: Heroism
 - 3. 戏剧表演: Please adapt the text into a TV program in the form of an interview.
 - 4. Assignment
- 1) Oral Work: Role-play a television interview with three students acting as the three heroes and another student as the anchorman. Make sure that the questions and answers bring out the dramatic details about their rescue mission, and about the man in the water.

- 2) Written Work: Describe the plane crash briefly in about 130 words, with emphasis on the behaviour of the "man in the water."
 - 6. 扩展阅读

Internet resources

The Heroes of the Greeks by Karl Kerenyi

On Heroes, Hero Worship and the Heroic in History By Thomas Carlyle

第七单元

The Greatest Invention

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

About the author, Lord Dunsany, and his fantasy "The Gods of Pegana".

Germ warfare

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

- 1. 语言难点: go ashore, decent, figure, cavalry charges, spur, fierce, bribe glory, plague, what if, let loose, have sth. within one's grasp, keep sb. at sth, but for, mark an area off, a strip of, brood, lose the grip on, alter, soothingly, aspiration, let loose, more than 等词汇和短语
 - 2. 派生词构词法: -tion, -lun-, -ish
 - 3. 语法: Grammar Focus: the use of "as" and "it"; relative clauses 定语从句
 - 4. 课文释义
- 1) What do you think is going to happen, Jokens? (para.1) "Happen" to what? What were these people talking about? Who were they?
- 2) When the bottle had been uncorked and the wine poured out, ... he began to talk. (para.5) What words have been omitted in "the wine poured out"? Why was the wine compared to the tropical sunlight? What special quality was being suggested?

And we had a scientist who, as I have since seen proved, had no rival west of the Atlantic. (para.6)Paraphrase the sentence.

"You may not have thought it," he said, "but I was in our Ministry of Warfare." (para. 10) Explain the use of "may" here. Have you ever heard of any government that calls its Ministry of Defense by that name? What purpose do you think is achieved by using the word "warfare"?

He thought of war simply as an opportunity for cavalry charges and fine uniforms and glory. (para.12)Explain the word" charge" here.

And the splendor of our position faded like dreams. We were so nearly one of the Great Powers but for a fancy that came to this man's mind. (para.24) Paraphrase the first sentence. Explain "but for a fancy".

I examined his blade of grass, and he gave me every facility, ... (para. 44)What facility.

"Whether it was that the stranger's tale was told," Jorkens concluded, "perhaps on the world." (para.45) Who was putting down his glass? Why did Jorkens mention" wine so many times? What kind of picture was he trying to paint about this man?

5. 语篇分析

Part 1 (Paras. 1—4): Why did Jorkens tell the story?

Part 2 (Paras. 5--44): the story itself

Part 3 (Para.-45): the concluding paragraph

Plot: the development of the conflict between a scientist driven by his scientific curiosity and the government which wants to force the scientist to serve their political purpose

Setting: Caribbean area

Protagonists: the man in the Ministry of Warfare and the scientist

Theme of the story

In today's world, ordinary people may have access to the most dangerous weapons of mass destruction. It is possible for a few individuals to hold the whole of humanity as hostage. It is not easy to find a solution. But now is the time to start thinking. What is the purpose of science. It can bring happiness to us. But it can also turn out to be Pandora's box. What should scientists do in the circumstance? What is the driving force of scientific development? Should science always aim at serving a practical need?

二、修辞分析 Simile

三、Writing Technique:

Genre: modern fable:

Fantasy:

Fable:

Modern fable:

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. The purpose of science
- 2. The scientist's point of view towards science.

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 语言技能训练:用 mastery, inspiration, aspiration, mastery 等词及相关短语写一篇短文;同义词、形近词辨析、复杂结构与语法练习
 - 2. 小组讨论

What is the purpose of science?

- 3. 主题辩论:
- a. Which do you think produces better result in science, the idle curiosity of scientists or their purposeful effort? .
- b. Do you think terrorism is justifiable for small nations or nationalities who have "just aspirations" and yet do not have any other way to make their voice heard or their demand taken seriously? How do you comment on all the terrorist activities since the September 11 attack to the U.S.?
 - 4. The after class Discussion
- 1) "I do not work for use, but for wonder." Do you support this view of science for science's sake? Should scientists mainly aim at those "purposeful effort"?

- 2) In order to make their voice heard, many small nations and nationalities resort to terrorism. Is it a necessary approach for them to get powerful? Discuss with your partners after class.
 - 5. 扩展阅读 Internet resources *Prizes* by Erich Segal

第八单元

Psychologically Speaking

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

Sigmund Freud

The First World War (1914-1918)

Puritan:

"Quaker"

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

1. 语言难点:confess,claim, in some/great measure, respect, respectable, respectful, respected, respecting, respective, with honors,

Idiomatic expressions: to fool around, to behave oneself, out with it, for certain, stuff and nonsense, to go separate ways, all things considered, to put one on one's honor, to run of f with sb., to go off with another man, in some measure, to have control over sth,. at a cost, to like nothing better than, the sooner the better, to live in a fool's paradise, a clue to sth., for all one knows, to beat about the bush, to wander over a place, to speak of sb./sth., to open one's eyes to sth., to be killed in action, to decide on, to hang around one's neck, It is no use doing sth, There is no point/use (in) doing sth., have difficulty/ trouble/ a hard time (in) doing sth., What is the use/ point/ good (of) doing sth., It is no use / point doing sth.等词汇和短语

2. 派生词构词法:

Prefix - fore-

Suffix - -able

Suffix – -ish

- 3. 语法: Grammar Focus: if-clause, Adverbial clause of condition
- 4. 课文释义

What was the experiment the psychologist was trying to make? Was he happy with the result of the play?

What did he want to prove?

How should we understand the title of the play?

5. 语篇分析

Plot: The conflict between Mrs. Kent and Eve and the fight of two men over Mrs. Kent with a happy ending.

Setting: A living room of an American middle-class family, at the end of 1930s.

Protagonists: Mrs. Kent, Mr. Kent, Eve Kent, and Professor Charles Waring.

Theme: People usually value more what they don't have or what they are about to lose

forever.

Textual Structure schedule.

Part 1 (Paras. I—12): Introduction of a middle-class family in America.

Part 2 (Paras. 12-31): The conflict between Mrs. Kent and Eve Kent.

Part 3 (Paras. 32-52): The visit of Professor Waring and his plan.

Part 4 (Paras. 53—32 [text B]): The conflict between Mr. Kent and Professor Waring.

Part 5 (Paras. 33—44 [text B]): The happy ending of the play.

二、修辞分析

Understatement:

三、写作风格分析

- 1. situational comedy:
- 2. Classic Unities (Three Unities)

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

What is so great about being married?

Why can't cohabitation be the same?

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 戏剧表演: 课文场景再现
- 2.相关信息了解; Psychoanalysis
- 3.小组讨论:

What's the importance of psychoanalysis?

Experimental marriage is a good way to the successful marriage.

4. 语言技能训练:同义词、形近词辨析、语法结构与语法练习

Discussion:

how should we look at the young people's views about the conventional way of life in general? How should we understand the title of the play?

5. 扩展阅读

Lucretia Govedare

第九单元

Text A Quick Fix Society 背景知识(0.5 小时)

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

Pennsylvania Dutch town

- 1) Location:
- 2) People Amish:
- 3) Beliefs:
- 4) Life style:

Fast roads in America

Cliff's Notes:

Iceberg principle:

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

- 1. 语言难点: contract, condense, compress; defer, postpone, delay; slide, slip, glide; guarantee (be guaranteed to), put away, can't wait to do sth., stuff...with, to save up for, to help out, to save sb the trouble of doing sth., off the rack/off the peg, on the rack, not agree with sb, m ore often than not, to get over with, to go back to,pastoral, refreshed, revitalize, consist of, save up for 等词汇和短语
 - 2. 派生词构词法: super-, pre-, -centenary
 - 3. 语法: Grammar Focus: V-ing form; attributive modifier
 - 4. 课文释义
 - 1) What is the meaning of "Quick Fix"?
- 2) We took the Pennsylvania Turnpike and a couple of interstates. (para.1) What are they? Why did they take the turnpike and interstates?
- 3) For four hours, our only real amusement ··· hold still again? (para.1) Did they have any fun on the way? Paraphrase the sentence.
- 4) We toured a Civil War battlefield ··· get killed in the vain attempt. (para. 2) Analyze the grammatical structure of the sentence
- 5) And we returned home refreshed, revitalized, and reeducated. (para.2) Why did they say so? Paraphrase the sentence.

Part two

Questions:

- 1) Americans understood the principle of deferred gratification. (para.4) What is "deferred gratification" ?
 - 2) This general impatience, the "I-hate-to-wait" attitude, als infected every level of our lives. (para.
- 5) Paraphrase the whole sentence.

- 3) And if our fast food doesnt agree with us. (para.5) What does "agree" mean here?
- 4) Even our personal relationships have become compressed. (para.6) How can human relationships be compressed? What does the author mean?
 - 5) We replace them with something called "quality time". (para.6)Explain "quality time".

Part three

Questions:

1) But I am saying that all of us ... out of control. (para. 8)

Why did the author say she wrote this article? Was she suggesting we stop using all time-saving techniques and products?

5. 语篇分析

Theme: Let's slow down and enjoy what nature offers us and what mankind has left us and rediscover life.

Structure Analysis

Introduction (para.1-3) Her ride on fast roads and her return trip of a country road

Body (para.4-6) Now instead of later

Faster instead of slower

Superficially instead of thoroughly

Conclusion (para.7-8) Slow down and rediscover life

二、修辞分析

Writing Technique:

- 1. Comparison-contrast:
- 2. Examples:
- 3. Rhetorical Questions:
- 4. Repetition of structure and words:
- 5. alliteration

三、写作风格分析

language and style: Informal essay

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. The definition of quick fix society
- 2. Contrast between the past and the present

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 语言技能训练: 用 pastoral, refreshed, revitalize, consist of, save up for 等词及相关短语写一篇 短文; 同义词、形近词辨析、复杂结构与语法练习
 - 2. 小组讨论

What is behind quick fix society?

What are the advantages of "quick fix society"?

What are the disadvantages of "quick fix society"?

Do you want a fast paced life or slow paced one?

3. 主题讨论:

The quick fix society in China and the traditions which have lost in the process

4. Assignment:

Debate: Does the fast paced society benefit us more?

Pro.: The fast paced society benefit us more.

Con.: The fast paced society doesn't benefit us more.

5. 扩展阅读

.Internet resources

Three Days to See by Helen Keller

第十单元

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Background information:

The US Money

Gypsies

Lifestyles in America: Lost Generation, The beat generation, Hippie, Yuppie;

Variety Store

Beauty Salon

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

- 1. 语言难点: ambition, conscience, dump, errand, expand, indulge, lean, lumpy, miserly, onrush, sentimental, threadbare, transform, urge, worldly add up to, be better off without, be through, go to ruin, hard cash, kick up one's heels, make no mention of, put/set/turn one's mind to sth.
 - 2. 派生词构词法: Prefix—em, Root—form, Suffix—ish;
 - 3. 语法: Grammar Focus: Purpose Adverbial

Purpose is expressed by the infinitive:

The infinitive alone

In order/ so as + infinitive

Infinitive + noun + preposition

Clauses of purpose:

so that + will/would or can/could + infinitive

so that/ in order that + may/might or shall/should + infinitive

- 4. 课文释义
- 5. 语篇分析

Theme: By describing the differences of the two sisters' different lifestyles and experiences from childhood to old age, the author seems to suggest that an exciting life does not necessarily come together with financial security. Instead it depends totally on one's attitude to life.

Structure

Part 1 (Para. 1): The two sisters' contrasting financial conditions in old age.

Part 2 (Paras. 2-19): Recall on every earlier crucial stage of their lives.

Part 3 (Paras. 20-34): Their reunion in old age and similar opinions they share on life.

二、修辞分析

Parody

Synecdoche

Comparison and Contrast

三、写作风格分析

Both formal and informal expressions, colloquial style are used in the story.

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

Where does the climax of the story lie?

From whose point of view is the story written, Lottie's or Bess's?

What does "the end" imply?

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 语言技能训练: 用所学相关短语写一篇题为 Money 短文(Everyone needs money,It is very useful; There are certain things that money cannot buy; Money should be made good use of);同义词、形近词辨析、复杂结构与语法练习
 - 2. 小组讨论

Which lifestyle do you prefer, Lottie's or Bess's?

A wise man once said that happiness is somewhere between too much and too little. Do you agree?

Compare your lifestyle with that of your parents. Can you find something touching in your comparison?

3. 主题讨论:

Money Can't Buy Everything

4. Assignment: Topics for Debating:

Money is the root of all evils.

Happy is he who owes nothing.

Wealth makes worship.

第十一单元

You have to get me out of here

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge:

Author, Lissa Hall Johnson (1955—),

Colorado

Telluride

Rocky Mountain

California

Ophir Wall

I.V.

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

1. 语言难点: altitude, bump, clench, discipline, distract, emergency, endurance, exhaustion, initial, notorious, resemble, sensation, stabilize, stagger, surgery, a matter of, be attached to, blossom into, hold in, presence of mind, see through, take command, wear off,

medical terms: vein, artery, nerve endings, emergency-room staff, surgery action verbs: bump, land, leap to one's feet, struggle down the trail, stagger

- 2. 派生词构词法: Prefix—milli- Root—dur Suffix—-en
- 3. 语法: Misrelated participles

课文释义

Is rock climbing an exciting sport? Is it risky? What kind of accident can happen?

What kind of a person was Katie?

What was she doing when the accident took place?

What injury happened to her?

How did she direct her own rescue?

Why was the doctor surprised to find her lower leg warm?

What kind of a person do you think Ric was?

What made they two come together?

5. 语篇分析

Theme of the Text: Katie Kemble's story not only tells us how a young woman directed her won rescue, but shows what people should do to survive in critical situations.

Structure of the Text

Part 1 (Paras. 1—3): Katie, paired with Ric, was ready for the climbing of Ophir Wall.

Part 2 (Paras.4-27): After severely hurt, Katie firmly and successfully directed her rescue.

Part 3 (Paras.26-38): Katie got her chance of using the leg again and the experience bound Ric together with her in their life.

二、修辞分析

Narration:

Description:

Exposition:.

Argumentation:

三、写作风格分析

A third-person narrative

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. Dangerous Sports
- 2. Emergencies & First Aid Procedures

综合实践内容(4小时)

- 1. 语言技能训练:用所学知识及相关短语写一篇短文,叙述骨折之后的急救措施;同义词、 形近词辨析、复杂结构与语法练习
 - 2. 小组讨论

Add more to the list of dangerous sports.

skydiving, scuba diving, potholing, parachuting, bungee jumping

Are they the sports for you?

Are they dangerous?

Why are there still a lot of people trying them?

What are they good for?

If you bungee jump once, would you like to try it again?

3. 主题讨论:

first aid procedures:

4. Assignment:

Describe rock climbing as a sport.

Describe Katie's accident.

Describe what kind of person Ric is.

Is courage only to be found in wars? How is it displayed in everyday life?

What do you think are the sources of courage?

Camping is the ideal way of spending a holiday.

The only way to travel is on foot

第十二单元

背景知识(0.5 小时)

Background information:

Author, Norman Cousins (1915—1990)

Bird's Eye View

Tribalism

World Population

Globalization

语言功能与文学鉴赏内容(3.5 小时)(课堂讲授)

一、语言与语篇

- 1. 语言难点: comparative, comprehend, confession, destiny, hostile, mutuality, occupy, persist, preference, reference, respond, similarity, superficial, supreme, vital, in those respects, all but, wipe out, give way to, take in, in a certain perspective, come forward, in terms of,
 - 2. 派生词构词法: Prefix—mis, Root—press, Suffix—ship
 - 3. 语法: Uses of the infinitive
 - 4. 课文释义
 - 5. 语篇分析

Theme of the Text: To prepare ourselves for this new world, we must all be re-educated so that we will be able to understand that there are more similarities than differences among peoples. The differences are superficial and insignificant whereas the similarities are essential and fundamental. These similarities enable all of us to be equal members in this global village and to live happily with mutual respect.

Structure of the Text

Part 1 (*Paras. 1—7*): The old education focusing on nations' differences should give way to the new one emphasizing the similarities.

Part 2 (*Para. 8*): We should respect all human beings because human life is such a rare occurrence.

Part 3 (*Para. 9*): However different peoples may be, they are united in their humanness, in their basic human faculties and gifts.

Part 4 (*Paras. 10—11)*: They are also united in their needs.

二、修辞分析

Repetition

三、写作风格分析

主题内容(2小时)(课堂讲授)

- 1. According to the author, tribalism "had taken refined forms". How do you understand its "refined forms"?
- 2. Will local cultures inevitably fall victim to this global "consumer" culture? Will English eradicate all other languages? Will consumer values overwhelm people's sense of community and social solidarity? Or, on the contrary, will a common culture lead the way to greater shared values and political unity?
 - 3. Globalization: Threat or Opportunity?

综合实践内容(4小时)

1. 语言技能训练: 同义词、形近词辨析、复杂结构与语法练习

2. 小组讨论

Topics for Debating:

The global village needs a world governance.

Moral cultivation is more important than knowledge learning for a college student.

Science is a threat to humanity.

3.主题讨论:

Topics for Debating:

What does the author think of the differences between races and nations? What is your opinion?

Do you agree that tribalism is standing in our way to progress today?

What do geography, anthropology and many other courses usually tell us about the differences between races and nations?

Are they important according to the author?

How should we be re-educated to adapt to the new world according to the author?

In which aspects does the author base his arguments? Elaborate each point.

4. Writing

Should the similarities between nations outweigh the differences?

State your point of view.

Elaborate your grounds.

End with a natural conclu

《综合英语(三)》 教学大纲

欧小琪 编写

目 录

前 言	4
一、课程简介和目的	4
二、课程教学要求	
三、课程教学内容	
四、测试与评估	
五、教学参考书	
Lesson One: Your College Years	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions: V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Summary of the Text:	
VII. Further Discussion:	
VIII. Difficulties:	
IX: Notes:	
Lesson Two: Discovery of a Father	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Summary of the Text:	
VII. Further Discussion:	
VIII. Difficulties:	
IX: Notes:	
Lesson Three: Michael Dell's Two-Billion-Dollar Dream.	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	14
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	15
VI. Summary of the Text:	15
VII. Further Discussion:	15
VIII. Difficulties:	15
IX: Notes:	
Lesson Four: Wisdom of Bear Wood.	16
I. Teaching Aim:	16
II. Time Allotment:	16
III. Cultural note:	16
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	17
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	17
VI. Summary of the Text:	
VII. Further Discussion:	
VIII. Difficulties:	
IX: Notes:	
Lesson Five: Twelve Angry Men (Part One).	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III Cultural note:	18

IV. Pre-reading Questions:	 	20
V. Detailed Study of the Text: 1. W		
diverge, vote, abstain, verdict, s		
VI. Summary of the Text:		
VII. Further Discussion:		
IX: Notes:		
Lesson Six: Twelve Angry Men (Part Two)		
I. Teaching Aim:		
II. Time Allotment:		
III. Cultural note:		
IV. Pre-reading Questions:		
V. Detailed Study of the Text:		
VI. Summary of the Text:		
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VII. Further Discussion:		
VIII. Difficulties:		
IX: Notes:		
Lesson Seven: The Rivals		
I. Teaching Aim:		
II. Time Allotment:		
III. Cultural note:		
IV. Pre-reading Questions:		
VI. Summary of the Text:		
VII. Further Discussion:		
VIII. Difficulties:		
IX: Notes:		
Lesson Eight: "We're Only Human"		
I. Teaching Aim:		
II. Time Allotment:		
III. Cultural note:		
IV. Pre-reading Questions:		
V. Detailed Study of the Text:		
VI. Summary of the Text:		
VII. Further Discussion:	 	27
VIII. Difficulties:	 	27
IX: Notes:	 	27
Lesson Nine: A Dill Pickle	 	28
I. Teaching Aim:	 	28
II. Time Allotment:	 	28
III. Cultural note:	 	28
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	 	29
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	 	29
VI. Summary of the Text:	 	29
VII. Further Discussion:	 	29
VIII. Difficulties:	 	29
IX: Notes:	 	29
Lesson Ten: Diogenes and Alexander		
I. Teaching Aim:		
II. Time Allotment:		
III. Cultural note:		
IV. Pre-reading Questions:		
V. Detailed Study of the Text:		
VI. Summary of the Text:		
VII. Further Discussion:		
VIII Difficulties:		32

IX: Notes:	32
Lesson Eleven: Silent Spring.	33
I. Teaching Aim:	33
II. Time Allotment:	33
III. Cultural note:	33
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	34
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	34
VI. Summary of the Text:	34
VII. Further Discussion:	34
VIII. Difficulties:	34
IX: Notes:	34
Lesson Twelve: The Needs that Drive Us All	36
I. Teaching Aim:	36
II. Time Allotment:	36
III. Cultural note:	36
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	39
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	39
VI. Summary of the Text:	39
VII. Further Discussion:	39
VIII. Difficulties:	39
IX. Notes:	39
Lesson Thirteen: In My Day	40
I. Teaching Aim:	40
II. Time Allotment:	40
III. Cultural note:	40
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	41
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	41
VI. Summary of the Text:	41
VII. Further Discussion:	41
VIII. Difficulties:	41
IX Notes:	41

前言

一、课程简介和目的

高等学校英语专业本科 4 年的教学过程分为两个阶段,即:基础阶段(一年级和二年级)和高年级阶段(三年级和四年级)。基础阶段的主要教学任务是传授英语基础知识,对学生进行全面的、严格的基本技能训练,培养学生实际运用语言的能力、良好的学风和正确的学习方法,为进入高年级打下扎实的专业基础。高年级阶段的主要教学任务是继续打好语言基本功,学习英语专业知识和相关心业知识,进一步扩大知识面,增强对文化差异的敏感性,提高综合运用英语进行交际的能力。

"综合英语"是高等学校英语专业本科基础阶段的一门专业必修课,为期 2 学年,即 4 学期。 累计 432 学时,共计 24 学分。每学期为 108 学时,6 学分。

"综合英语"是一门综合英语技能课程,其主要目的在于培养和提高学生综合运用英语的能力。 主要通过语言基础训练与篇章讲解分析,使学生逐步提高语篇阅读理解能力,了解英语各种文体的 表达方式和特点,扩大词汇量和熟悉英语常用句型,具备基本的口头与笔头表达能力。教师应鼓励 学生积极参与课堂的各种语言交际活动以获得基本的交际技能,并达到《英语专业教学大纲》所规 定的听、说、读、写、译等技能的要求,为以后的高年级阶段打好扎实的专业基础。另外,学生还 应该熟悉中国文化传统,具有一定的艺术修养;熟悉英语国家的地理、历史、发展现状、文化传统、 风俗习惯;具有较多的人文知识和科技知识;具有较强的汉语口头和书面表达能力;具有较强的创 新意识和一定的创新能力。

二、课程教学要求

根据高等学校英语专业英语教学大纲,英语专业本科生的入学要求以及本科基础阶段第一、二 学年的具体教学要求如下:

项目	入学要求	第一学年要求	第二学年要求
语音	能熟练地运用拼读规则 和音标读生词;能比较流 利地朗读没有生词、难度 相当于高三英语课文的 材料,口齿清楚,语音、 语调大体正确。	能自觉地模仿和纠音,正确掌握多音节单词、复合词和句子的常见重音模式;初步掌握朗读和说话的节奏感,并注意轻重变化对意义表达的影响;初步掌握语流中的语音变化规律、连续、辅音爆破和语音同化的技巧以及陈述句、疑问句和祈使句的语调。	发音正确;较好地掌握 朗读和说话的节奏感; 掌握语流中的语音变化 规律、连续、辅音爆破 和语音同化等技巧以及 陈述句、疑问句和祈使 句的语调;初步掌握语 段中语音轻重和新旧信 息传递之间的关系。
语法	能识别词类; 区分名词的 可数性和不可数性、可数 名词的单、复数形式; 基 本掌握各种代词的形式 与用法、基数词和序数 词、常用介词和连词、形	掌握主谓一致关系、表语 从句、宾语从句、定语从 句和状语从句等句型、直 接引语和间接引语的用 法、动词不定式和分词的 用法、各种时态、主动语	熟练掌握主语从句、同位语从句、倒装句和各种条件句;初步掌握句子之间和段落之间的衔接手段。

	容词和副词的句法功能、比较级和最高级的构成及基本句型、冠词的一般用法;了解动词的主要种类、时态、语态及不定式和分词的基本用法、句子种类、基本句型和基本构词法。	态、被动语态和构词法。	
词汇	认知词汇不少于 2,000 个;掌握 1,200 个左右 的常用词和一定数量的 习惯用语及固定搭配,并 能在口笔语中运用;认识 740个左右的单词和一定 数量的习惯用语及固定 搭配,能根据上下文的提 示理解其含义。	通过基础英语课、阅读课和其分途径认知词汇达4,000-5,000个(其中含中学已学2,000个),正确而熟练地使用其中的2,000-2,5000个及其最基本的搭配。	通过基础英语课、阅读课和其他途径认知词汇5,500-6,500个(含第二级要求的4,000-5,000个),正确而熟练地运用其中的,3,000-4,000个及其最基本的搭配。
听力	听懂教师的课堂用语以 及对课文内容所作的解 释; 听懂他人以较慢的语 速谈论日常生活; 听懂基 本没有生词、题材熟悉、 难度略低于高三所学课 文的语段, 理解正确率达 到 70%。	听懂英勇语国家人士所作的难度不超过所学语言知识的讲座,掌握中心大意,理解主要内容,并能辨别说话人的态度和语气。听懂 VOA 慢速新闻广播和文化节目,抓住主要内容。能在 15 分钟内听写根据已学知识编写而成或选用的录音材料(词数 150 个左右,念四遍,语速为每分钟 100 个单词),错误率不超过 10%	听懂英语国家人士关于 日常生活和社会生活的 谈话;听懂中等难度(如 TOEFL中的短文)的领会 作者的短天意,领有 作者的态度、感情和正常 速度和BBC新闻节目的 主要内容。能大体辨别 连要内容。能大体辨别 英语、英语、英语、共和亚英语、共和亚英语、共和亚英语、能在 15 分钟内听写根据已学知识编写本生的记录为 200 个左右、语速为每时 120 个单间的录音材料,错误率不超过 8%。
口语	能熟练地就课文内容进 行问答,并进行简单的讨 论;经过准备,能简单而 连贯地复述听过的或读 过的语段;能就日常生活 的话题进行初步的交际;	能就所听到的语段进行 问答和复述;能就日常生 活话题进行交谈;做到正 确表达思想,语音、语调 自然,无重大语法错误, 语言基本得体。	能在一般社交场合与英语国家人士交谈,做到正确表达思想、语音乐、语调自然,无重大语法错误。,语言基本得体。

	能清楚而连贯地讲述学 生熟悉的题材和课文内 容,长度不少于八句。		
阅读	能以每分钟 60 个单词的速度阅读生词率不超过3%的人物传记、故事、科普短文等,理解正确率达到70%;能读懂简单的应用文;能掌握所读材料的主要内容和中心思想。	能阅读难度相当于Thirty-Nine Steeps(简写本)的浅显材料以及Reader's Digest,阅读速度为每分钟70-120个单词,理解中心大意,抓住主要情节或论点。	能读懂难度相当于美国 Newsweek 的国际新闻报 道;能读懂难度相当于 Sons and Lovers 的文 学原著。要求在理解的 基础上抓住要点,并能 运用正确观点评价思想 内容。阅读速度为每分 种120-180个单词,理 解准确率不低于70%。能 在5分钟内速读1,000 词左右、中等难度的文 章,掌握文章的大意。
写作	能根据提示,在 20 分钟 内写出 100 个单词左右 的短文,无严重语法错 误,意义表达清楚;能改 写课文内容;能书写简单 的书信、便条和通知等应 用文,格式和行文无严重 错误,书写规范。	能在 30 分钟内写出长度 为 120-150 个单词的短 文,内容切题,条理清楚, 语言正确;能改写或缩写 课文内容;能正确书写便 条和通知等应用文。	能根据作文题目、提纲 或图表、数据等,在30 分钟内写出长度为150- 200个单词左右的短文, 内容切题,结构严谨, 条理清楚,语法正确, 语言能顺,表达得体; 并能根据提示在10分钟 内写出长度为60个单词 左右的应用文。
翻译	能将内容不超过高三课 文难度的短语和句子译 成汉语,要求理解正确、 语言通顺。	能独立完成课程中的各 种翻译练习,要求理解准 确、语言通顺。	能独立完成课程中的各 种翻译练习,要求译文 忠实于原文、表达流畅。
工具书使用	能比较熟练地使用中小型英汉词典,掌握词语的 正确发音、意义和基本用 法。	能熟练地使用《英汉大词 典》等英汉词典和简易的 英 英 词 典 (如 Oxford Advanced English Dictionary 以 及 Longman Dictionary of Contemprary English), 独立解决语言问题。	能熟练地使用各种英汉 词典和部分英英词典 (如 Collins Cobuild College English Dictionary 和 Random House College Dictionary),独立解 决语言问题和部分知识 方面的疑难问题。
文化素	对中国文化有一定的了 解;有较扎实的汉语基本	熟悉中国文化传统,具有一定的艺术修养; 熟悉英语国家的地理、历史、发展现状、文化传统、风俗	

功; 对英美等英语国家的 地理历史和发展现状有 一定的了解; 掌握基本的 数理化知识。 习惯;具有较多的人文知识和科技知识;具有较强的汉语口头和书面表达能力;具有较强的创新意识和一定的创新能力。

三、课程教学内容

授课教师根据以上英语专业本科生的入学要求以及本科基础阶段第一、二学年的具体教学要求,系统的组织"综合英语"课程的教学内容和活动,确保学生全面地系统地掌握英语语音、词汇和语法、听力、口语、阅读、写作和翻译等语言知识和技能,帮助学生学会使用各种高级工具书,同时要比较全面地介绍中西文化以提高学生的文化素养。

本课程以课本一课为单元,每单元大概用时6岁时。(由于TEM4考试,第4岁期上半学期每单元大概用时8岁时,其中包括语法、词汇和作文的讲座,以及TEM4考试的真题练习。)每单元具体教学环节大致如下:

一) 课程所用教材:杨立民主编,《现代大学英语》精读 1-4 册,外语教学研究出版社,2001。综合英语课程 I、II、III、IV 使用的教材分别为高等学校英语专业用书《现代大学英语》第 1-4 册。每册书共有十五课。每课由课文》(TEXT A)、课文》(TEXT B)、练习(More Work on the Text)三大部分组成。练习(More Work on the Text)包括 Oral Work,Vocabulary,Grammar 和Written Work。

本环节重点为课文 A (TEXT A):

- 1. Warm up
- 2. Text explanation
- 3. Vocabulary Study
- 4. Quiz

课文B(TEXT B)和练习(More Work on the Text)为学生自学,教师统一课堂答疑解决学生学习问题。

本环节学时分配大约为:每周5-6课时一篇课文。

二) 补充阅读和听力材料:这些材料应该适合学生现阶段语言程度,有关课文 A(TEXT A)的主题,或者有助于学生掌握各种学习技能和听说读写译等语言技能,也可以是有关英语国家的人文和科技知识的材料。这些材料在题材和体裁方面,应该具有生动性、多样性和实用性。可用作课文 A(TEXT A)环节的补充材料,也可用作组织课堂语言活动的材料,还可以用作课外阅读作业。本环节学时分配大约为:30-60分钟左右。

三) 各种课堂语言活动。综合英语课程作为综合语言技能课,应该精心设计和组织一些单一或综合的听说读写译的课堂语言活动,以便培养学生的实际综合应用语言的能力。

本环节学时分配为: 15-60 分钟。

四) 作业。

四、测试与评估

本课程采取闭卷考试为主,结合平时课堂表现和作业成绩的评测方式。本课程的最终总评成绩 大概包括以下部分:

1. 课堂出勤 (Class attendance)

- 2. 课前口语操练 (Presentation)
- 3. 测验和作业 quizzes/assignments
- 4. 期中考试 (Mid-term exam)
- 5. 期末考试 (Final exam)

总评成绩=70%期末考试 + 20%期中考试 + 10%平时成绩

五、教学参考书

Roach, Peter (2000). English Phonetics and Phonology: A Practical Course. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

陈汉生(2001)。《新编高等院校英语专业四级考试指南》。上海:上海外语教育出版社。

章振邦(1995)。《新编英语语法教程》。上海:上海外语教育出版社。

Swan, Michael (1986, 5th Chinese edition). 《英语用法指南》。北京:外语教学与研究出版社。

WEEK 1 - 2

Lesson One: Your College Years

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To introduce Erickson's '8 Stages of Psychosocial Development' and some special psychological terms.
 - 2. To help students to develop their personal thinking on some important issues discussed in the text.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author Bob Hartman.

Bob Hartman is a popular children's writer and performance storyteller, a regular at festivals including the Spring Harvest Christian festival in the UK and the Edinburgh International Book Festival. He also works as a youth pastor for a Baptist church in Pittsburgh. His books include the best-selling *Lion Storyteller Bible, The Lion Storyteller Bedtime Book*, and the highly acclaimed *Wolj Who Criea Boy.* Total sales of his books for Lion are now in excess of one million copies.

- 2. Brief introduction to Eric H. Erickson.
- 1) **Eric H. Erickson** is best known for '8 Stages of Psychosocial Development' and 'Identity Crisis' and has been called "father of psychosocial development" and "the architect of identity"
 - 2) Read the article "Erikson's Eight Stages of Human Development".
 - IV. Pre-reading Questions:
 - 1. Which is more important, nature or nurture?
 - 2. Do you agree with the statement "adolescence is a time of 'storm and strife'"? Why or Why not?
 - 3. What developmental changes have you experienced since you entered our university?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
- 1. Words: identity, endeavour, perceive, endowment, counsel, excessive, inhibition, dismayed, internalize
- 2. Phrases and expressions: to occur to sb, to dawn on sb, in/with relation to sth, to relate sth and/to/with, stressed (out), to be prejudiced against, in a good/bad,/favourable light, by design

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. What is the purpose of education?
- 2. What are your goals for the college years?

VIII. Difficulties:

To introduce some special technical terms and help students to grasp the meaning of the text...

IX: Notes:

WEEK 2 - 3

Lesson Two: Discovery of a Father

I. Teaching Aim:

- 1. To introduce some background information of the story.
- 2. To help students to appreciate the author's skills in portraying characters and arranging the plot.
- 3. To ask the students to analyse the possible themes of the text.

II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

1. Introduction to the author Sherwood Anderson.

Sherwood Anderson (September 13, 1876 – March 8, 1941) was an American writer, mainly of short stories, most notably the collection *Winesburg, Ohio*. His influence on American fiction was profound; his literary voice can be heard in Ernest Hemingway, William Faulkner, Thomas Wolfe, John Steinbeck, and others.

2. American Civil War

The **American Civil War** (1861–1865) was a major war between the United States (the "Union") and eleven Southern slave states which declared that they had a right to secession and formed the Confederate States of America, led by President Jefferson Davis. The Union included free states and border states and was led by President Abraham Lincoln and the Republican Party. Republicans opposed the expansion of slavery^{[1][2][3]} into territories owned by the United States, which increased Southern desires for secession. However, Republicans rejected any right of secession. Fighting commenced on April 12, 1861, when Confederate forces attacked a United States (federal) military installation at Fort Sumter in South Carolina, the first state to secede.

During the first year, the Union assumed control of the border states and established a naval blockade as both sides raised large armies. In 1862 large, bloody battles such as Shiloh and Antietam were fought, causing massive casualties unprecedented in U.S. military history largely as a result of incompatibility between new weapons (including guns with rifling) and old battlefield tactics such as charges. In September 1862, Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation made the freeing of slaves in the South a war goal and gave a higher moral cause to the war, despite opposition from Northern Copperheads who tolerated secession and slavery. Emancipation reduced the likelihood of intervention from Britain and France on behalf of the Confederacy. In addition, the goal also allowed the Union to recruit African-Americans for reinforcements, a resource that the Confederacy did not dare exploit until it was too late. The border states and War Democrats opposed emancipation at first, [4] but gradually accepted it as part of total war needed to save the Union. European immigrants joined the Union Army in large numbers too. 23.4% of all Union soldiers were German-Americans; about 216,000 were born in Germany. [5] In the East, Confederate general Robert E. Lee assumed command of the Army of Northern Virginia and rolled up a series of

victories over the Army of the Potomac, but his best general, Thomas Jonathan "Stonewall" Jackson, was killed at the Battle of Chancellorsville in May 1863. Lee's invasion of the North was repulsed at the Battle of Gettysburg in Pennsylvania in July 1863; he barely managed to escape back to Virginia. The Union Navy captured the port of New Orleans in 1862, and Ulysses S. Grant seized control of the Mississippi River by capturing Vicksburg, Mississippi in July 1863, thus splitting the Confederacy.

By 1864, long-term Union advantages in geography, manpower, industry, finance, political organization and transportation were overwhelming the Confederacy. Grant fought a number of bloody battles with Lee in Virginia in the summer of 1864. Lee's defensive tactics resulted in extremely high casualties for Grant's army, but Lee lost strategically overall as he could not replace his casualties and was forced to retreat into trenches around his capital, Richmond, Virginia. Meanwhile, General William Sherman, the leader of the Union Military Division of the Mississippi, captured Atlanta, Georgia during his March to the Sea, during which he destroyed a hundred-mile-wide swath of Georgia. In 1865, the Confederacy collapsed after Lee surrendered to Grant at Appomattox Court House. All slaves in the Confederacy were freed by the Emancipation Proclamation, which stipulated that slaves in Confederate-held areas, but not in border states or in Washington, D.C., were free. Slaves in the border states and Union-controlled parts of the South were freed by state action or by the Thirteenth Amendment, although slavery effectively ended in the U.S. in the spring of 1865.

The full restoration of the Union was the work of a highly contentious postwar era known as Reconstruction. The war produced about 970,000 casualties (3% of the population), including approximately 620,000 soldier deaths—two-thirds by disease. The war accounted for more casualties than all other U.S. wars combined. The causes of the war, the reasons for its outcome, and even the name of the war itself are subjects of lingering controversy today. The main results of the war were the restoration and strengthening of the Union (mainly by permanently ending the issue of secession), and the end of slavery in the United States. About 4 million black slaves were freed in 1865. Based on 1860 census figures, 8% of all white males aged 13 to 43 died in the war, including 6% in the North and an extraordinary 18% in the South. [8]

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What kind of parents do you wish to have? Give your reasons.
- 2. What do you expect of an ideal father-son relationship?

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

- 1. Words: broke, credit, windbag, lick, shot, smash, slap, bitter, jerk
- 2. Phrases and expressions: or something, back of, to loaf (about/around), to fool around, to liven (sth/sb) up, to be quits, to call it quits, to smash sth to pieces, down-and-out, you bet, to hush sth up, what's up, to strike out, to be up to sth

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

1. In this story, the author's father revealed his character through the eyes of his son, a young

schoolboy. Now if you are to give a brief sketch of this person, what would you say?

VIII. Difficulties:

- 1. To introduce the elements of a short story and help students to appreciate the story fully.
- 2. To make students aware of the differences between the formal and informal style of language.

IX: Notes:

WEEK 3 - 4

Lesson Three: Michael Dell's Two-Billion-Dollar Dream

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To help students to master some useful words and expressions about business and trade.
- 2. To help them to develop their personal thinking on the message of Dell's success story.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Michael Dell's Biography

Michael Saul Dell (born February 23, 1965 in Houston, Texas) is a successful businessman. He attended the University of Texas at Austin intending to become a physician. While in university, he started a computer company called PC's Limited in his dormitory room. He had his first encounter with a computer at the age of 15, when he broke down a brand new Apple computer and rebuilt it, just to see if he could.

Dell began the business manufacturing personal computers with some radical ideas, including maintaining no finished-goods inventories and practically no component inventories, building only to order, and selling and delivering the completed PC units direct to customers (**direct sales**). The company became successful enough that Dell dropped out of college at the age of 19 to run the business full-time. In 1987, PC's Limited changed its name to Dell Computer Corporation, and in 2003, Dell, Inc. The company became the most profitable PC manufacturer in the world, with sales of \$35 billion and profits of \$2 billion in 2002.

On March 4, 2004, Michael Dell stepped down as CEO of Dell but stayed as Chairman of the Board, while Kevin Rollins, then President and COO, became President and CEO.

Accolades (= praises) for Dell include: "Entrepreneur of the Year" from Inc. magazine; "Man of the Year" from PC Magazine; "Top CEO in American Business" from Worth Magazine; "CEO of the Year" from Financial World and Industry Week magazines.

In the 2005 publication of the Forbes 400, Dell was listed as the 4th richest man in the United States and the 18th richest in the world with a net worth of around \$18 billion. Dell resides in Austin, Texas with his wife, Susan, and their four children.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What do you know about Michael Dell?
- 2. What is your understanding of success?
- 3. What qualities do you expect of a successful person?

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

- 1. Words: quota, inventory, feature, find, lifetime, quarter, grip, fast, under, frantic, stripped-down, top, down/up
- 2. <u>Phrases and expressions</u>: to soup sth up, with a vengeance, to come/get to grips with, to come out of, to pan out, to entitle sb to sth, to be entitled to sth, deep down

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. What lessons can we draw from Michael Dell's story?
- 2. Do you agree with Michael Dell that "every time you have a crisis, something good comes out of it"? Why or why not?

VIII. Difficulties:

To ask students to talk about the key qualities of successful people and make sure they have got some lessons from Michael Dell's success story.

IX: Notes:

WEEK 5-6

Lesson Four: Wisdom of Bear Wood

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To help students to understand the key words and expressions of the text.
- 2. To ask students to share their understanding of friendship.
- 3. To help students to develop their personal thinking on the message of the story.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

1. Introduction to the author Michael Welzenbach.

Michael Welzenbach (1954—2001) was an art critic as well as a poet and novelist. He wrote some of the most stimulating criticisms of art and music for the *Washington Post*.

- 2. Quotations on friendship:
- 1) "A real friend is one who walks in when the rest of the world walks out."
- 2) A man should choose a friend who is better than himself. There are plenty of acquaintances in the world; but very few real friends.
- 3) In poverty and other misfortunes of life, true friends are a sure refuge. The young they keep out of mischief; to the old they are a comfort and aid in their weakness, and those in the prime of life they incite to noble deeds.
- 4) "A friendship can weather most things and thrive in thin soil; but it needs a little mulch of letters and phone calls and small, silly presents every so often just to save it from drying out completely."
 - 5) "He who has a thousand friends

Has not a friend to spare,

While he who has one enemy

Shall meet him everywhere."

- 6) The making of friends who are real friends, is the best token we have of a man's success in life.
- 7) My father always used to say that when you die, if you've got five real friends, then you've had a great life.
- 8) When we honestly ask ourselves which person in our lives mean the most to us, we often find that it is those who, instead of giving advice, solutions, or cures, have chosen rather to share our pain and touch our wounds with a warm and tender hand. The friend who can be silent with us in a moment of despair or confusion, who can stay with us in an hour of grief and bereavement, who can tolerate not knowing, not curing, not healing and face with us the reality of our powerlessness, that is a friend who cares.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What is your understanding of friendship? What are the main ingredients of true friendship?
- 2. Have you heard of/read about a story of an enduring and rewarding friendship? Share it with your classmates if you have.

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

- 1. <u>Words</u>: wrench, patchwork, roam, twitter, rustle, accumulate, frail, wary, sense, wistful, brim, munch, essence, eye, regard, sting, legacy
- 2. Phrases and expressions: to verge on sth, on/to the verge of sth/doing sth, to rocket to sth, to keep yourself to yourself, to be attached to sb/sth, at sb's ease, to put/set sb at ease, to be warned against, to come by (somewhere), to be inclined to do sth, to incline to/towards sth, as it were, to stop by (somewhere), in time, odds and ends

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. Do you agree that people who are very different in age can develop a rewarding friendship? Give your reasons.
 - 2. What is the theme of the story?

VIII. Difficulties:

To ask the students to analyse the possible themes of the text.

IX: Notes:

WEEK 6 - 7

Lesson Five: Twelve Angry Men (Part One)

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To introduce the playwright and the background information of the play
- 2. To help students to master some words or expressions used in a criminal court.
- 3. To help students to learn about the American judicial system.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author Reginald Rose.

Reginald Rose (December 10, 1920 – April 19, 2002) was an American film and television writer most widely known for his work in the early years of television drama.

Born in Manhattan, Rose attended Townsend Harris High School and briefly attended City College, now part of the City University of New York, before serving in the U.S. Army in 1942-46, where he became a first lieutenant. He sold his first teleplay, *Bus To Nowhere*, in 1950 to CBS's live dramatic anthology program *Studio One*, for which he wrote *Twelve Angry Men* four years later. This latter drama, set entirely in a room where a jury is deliberating the fate of a man accused of manslaughter, was inspired by Rose's service on just such a trial.

The Internet Movie Database quotes Rose's memories of this experience: "It was such an impressive, solemn setting in a great big wood-paneled courtroom, with a silver-haired judge, it knocked me out. I was overwhelmed. I was on a jury for a manslaughter case, and we got into this terrific, furious, eighthour argument in the jury room. I was writing one-hour dramas for *Studio One* then and I thought, wow, what a setting for a drama."

Rose received an Emmy for his teleplay and an Oscar nomination for his 1957 feature-length film adaptation. Rose wrote for all three of the major broadcast networks of the 1950-1980 period. He created and wrote for *The Defenders* in 1961, a weekly courtroom drama that won two Emmy awards for dramatic writing. He also was involved in screenwriting for films; he made four movies with the British producer Euan Lloyd: *The Wild Geese, The Sea Wolves, Who Dares Wins* and *Wild Geese II.* Rose was married twice, to Barbara Langbart in 1943, with whom he had four children, and to Ellen McLaughlin in 1963, with whom he had two children. He died in 2002 from complications of heart failure.

Rose's work is marked by its treatment of controversial social and political issues. His realistic approach helped create the slice of life school of television drama which was particularly influential in the anthology programs of the 1950s.

2. The Judicial Process in the U.S.

The Judicial Process in the U.S.

1) Introduction to the U.S. Judicial Process

We have created this mock trial website to help illustrate in a fun interactive manner how the U.S. legal system works and the important role played by the people who serve on juries. Our legal system cannot work if citizens don't participate. If you do not support the legal system by participating in it, then everyone suffers the consequences of a system in which only a few people determine what is right and wrong. Jury service is a crucial part of our system of justice. Americans expect our courts to decide fairly and are justly upset, when this does not happen, but try to imagine a world where judgements are rendered without citizen input and you expect the decision to be unfair.

At Anderson Kill & Olick, we believe that all of us, need to contribute to our country by performing our civic obligations. One of our very important civic obligations is to participate as jurors in the legal system when called upon to serve. In providing this mock trial outline, we hope in some small measure to help educate students about our system of justice and the importance of jury service.

2) The American Legal System

As former colonists of Great Britain, the Founding Fathers of the United States adopted much of the legal system of Great Britain. We have a "common law," or law made by courts rather than a monarch or other central governmental authority like a legislature. The jury, a panel of ordinary citizens chosen to decide a case, is an integral part of our common-law system.

Use of juries to decide cases is a distinguishing feature of the American legal system. Few other countries in the world use juries as we do in the United States. Over the centuries, many people have believed that juries in most cases reach a fairer and more just result than would be obtained using a judge alone, as many countries do. Because a jury decides cases after "deliberations," or discussions, among a group of people, the jury's decision is likely to have the input from many different people from different backgrounds, who must as a group decide what is right.

Juries are used in both civil cases, which decide disputes among private citizens, and criminal cases, which decide cases brought by the government alleging that individuals have committed crimes. Juries are selected from the U.S. citizens and summoned (required by court order to appear for jury selection). "Panels," or consisting of set numbers, of jurors are called for each case requiring a jury.

The judge assigned to the case oversees the selection of jurors to serve as the jury for that case. In some states, prospective jurors are questioned by the judge; in others, they are questioned by the lawyers representing the parties under rules dictated by state law.

3) The Parties to a Civil Trial:

Plaintiff. The plaintiff is the person who begins the suit. In the complaint, the plaintiff states, or alleges, that he or she was injured by the conduct of another. The plaintiff usually is represented by a lawyer.

Defendant. The defendant is the individual sued by the plaintiff. The defendant usually is also represented by a lawyer. The defendant disputes the statements, or allegations, in the plaintiff's complaint or may admit the allegations, but argue that he or she has a valid defense to the claims such as self defense.

The Judge. The judge decides which disputed facts (evidence), may be presented to the jury. The judge also tells the jury in "jury instructions" what the applicable law is. The judge decides the issues of law (see the glossary) in the case.

The Jury. The jury is a group of ordinary citizens selected to decide the case. A jury usually is made up of a group of six or twelve individuals, depending on state law. In most states, a jury must reach a unanimous verdict. That is, all members of the jury must agree with the decision. Some states allow for less than a unanimous verdict in some civil cases. If less than the required number of jurors agree, then the jury is a "hung jury." That means that the jury was unable to reach a decision. In that case, the case can be tried again.

Witnesses. Witnesses must have specific knowledge of what happened. Witnesses are generally not allowed to present hearsay testimony (such as gossip). Expert witnesses may not know the specific facts in the case but may use their specialized knowledge to help the jury understand complex evidence, such as the degree of intoxication that results from drinking certain amounts of liquor.

The Bailiff. The bailiff is a court officer charged with keeping order in the court and helping the jury. A bailiff also may oversee custody of prisoners while in court during criminal cases.

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. What do you know about the American jury system?
- 2. What do you think of the title of the play "Twelve Angry Men"?

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

- 1. <u>Words</u>: refute, flimsy, pass, *cross-examine, plain, diverge, vote, abstain, verdict, split*
- 2. Phrases and expressions: to take a preliminary vote, to sit on court, how com, to kick sb around, to serve a term, to mix sb up, to get somewhere / anywhere / nowhere, to get sb nowhere / not get sb anywhere, to provoke sb into doing sth, breaking point, to miss the point, breeding ground, You can say that again, to spill (sth) out, to tear sth into small pieces, to get to the point, to jam sth into, to pull a trick on sb, to call for a vote, to get at sth
 - VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

- VII. Further Discussion:
- 1. What is your opinion of the American jury system? Do you think it is infallible, fair and free of bias? Why or why not?

VIII. Difficulties:

To introduce the cultural information about the American legal system.

IX: Notes:

WEEK 7 - 8

Lesson Six: Twelve Angry Men (Part Two)

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To introduce some information about the film "Twelve Angry Men".
- 2. To ask students to work out the characters and backgrounds of the twelve jurors.
- 3. To help them to develop their personal thinking on the message of the play.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. The film "Twelve Angry Men"

12 Angry Men (released in the UK as **Twelve Angry Men**) is a drama film produced in 1957 by first time director Sidney Lumet based on the play 12 Angry Men by Reginald Rose. It is about a jury member who must try to persuade the other 11 members to acquit the suspect on trial on the basis of reasonable doubt. The film is notable for its use of a single set: with the exception of three minutes of screen-time split between the beginning and the end and two short scenes in an adjoining washroom, the entire movie takes place in the jury room.

The ensemble cast includes Henry Fonda, Lee J. Cobb, Ed Begley, John Fiedler, E.G. Marshall, Jack Warden, Ed Binns, Martin Balsam, Jack Klugman, George Voskovec, Robert Webber, and Joseph Sweeney (his last appearance in motion pictures).

Critical responses

On its first release, 12 Angry Men received critical acclaim. A. H. Weiler of The New York Times wrote "It makes for taut, absorbing, and compelling drama that reaches far beyond the close confines of its jury room setting." His observation of the 12 men was that "their dramas are powerful and provocative enough to keep a viewer spellbound." However, it was not a popular success: the advent of color and widescreen productions resulted in the film receiving a disappointing box office performance.

Today, the film is viewed as a "classic" and is highly regarded from both a critical and popular viewpoint: Roger Ebert lists it as one of his "Great Movies," and it has been consistently ranked in the top 14 of the Internet Movie Database Top 250 List. It also has a 97% rating on both critics and users polls at the site Rotten Tomatoes. The American Film Institute named Juror #8, played by Henry Fonda, the 28th greatest movie hero of the 20th century, named *12 Angry Men* the 42nd most inspiring film, and recently, named it the 87th best film of the past hundred years.

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. What do you know about the film "Twelve Angry Men"?

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

- 1. Words: stamp, sadist, commotion, alibi, acquittal, lousy
- 2. Phrases and expressions: to beat it, to bear sb/sth out, (really) take the biscuit [UK]/ (really) take the cake [US], slip through sb's fingers, to pull the switch, to lunge at, don't give me that, to take sb's chances, to go along with sth/sb, to break the tie, a show of hands, to bring sth up, to gamble on sth, to keep (sb/sth) out of sth, to toss and turn, to get on to/onto sth, twenty-twenty vision, to twist and turn

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. Do you find it strange that the truth is sometimes in the hands of one person? Why is it so easy for people to go along with the crowd? What lesson should we draw from this?
 - 2. What is your opinion of the film "Twelve Angry Men"? Give your comments.

VIII. Difficulties:

- 1. To help students to work out the characters and backgrounds of the twelve jurors.
- 2. To ask the students to analyse the possible themes of the play.

IX: Notes:

WEEK 9 - 10

Lesson Seven: The Rivals

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To help students to learn about the style and tone of the language used by the two characters.
- 2. To ask students to work on the characters of the two.
- 3. To help them to develop their personal thinking on the message of the story.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author Martin Armstrong.

Martin Armstrong

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Martin Donisthorpe Armstrong (1882-1974) was an English writer and poet, known for his stories. He was born in Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and educated at Charterhouse and Pembroke College, Cambridge. He served in World War I in the British Army in France; he was included in the final *Georgian Poetry* anthology.

He married in 1929 Canadian writer Jessie McDonald after she had divorced Conrad Aiken, making Armstrong the step-father of the young Joan Aiken. He appears in disguised form as a character in Conrad Aiken's *Ushant*.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. How do you understand the title of this article?
- 2. Have you ever had any interesting experiences of traveling on train?

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

- 1. Words: stir, resume, puff, exertion, betray, infallibly, buzz, burst, languid, nettle, weary, gather, detachment, launch, snap, airy, reticence
- 2. Phrases and expressions: **to** make a fool of yourself, in that event, your /sb's due, to count on sb, to make a point of doing sth, to say the least, to the best of my recollection, for that matter, what of it, to make no reference to sth, not in the least, to take sb aback, to be given to sth, I take it, to turn sb out, to bubble with, to land sb in sth, to work sb up

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. The story was obviously a battle of wits, and there was a lot of fencing and rivalry. In view of Mr. Harraby-Ribston's and Mr. Crowther's confessions in the end of the story, who do you think finally won this battle of wits? Give your reasons.
 - 2. What is the message of the text?

VIII. Difficulties:

To help students to appreciate the quick wit displayed by both characters and the charm of the English language used in their verbal fencing.

IX: Notes:

WEEK 10 - 11

Lesson Eight: "We're Only Human"

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To introduce the author and the background information of the essay.
- 2. To help students to understand the main points of the essay.
- 3. To help them to develop their personal thinking on the message of the essay.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author Laura Schlessinger.

Laura Catherine Schlessinger (born January 16, 1947) is an American cultural and conservative commentator, best known as host of the popular **Dr. Laura** radio advice call-in show. The show is nationally syndicated and runs three hours a day on weekdays.

Schlessinger is an outspoken critic of immoral practices that she feels have become too prevalent in contemporary American culture. These include sex outside of marriage (sometimes referred to by her as "fooling around;" Schlessinger also often refers to women who have sex outside of marriage as "unpaid whores"), living together before marriage (referred to by her as "shacking up"), intentional single parenthood, re-marrying after a divorce while children from a prior marriage are still under the age of 18, daycare in lieu of a parent staying home to raise their children, the viewing of pornography, the allowing of a schedule arrangement in which neither parent is home when children arrive home from school, marrying too quickly or out of desperation, permissive parenting (also known as *laissez-faire parenting*), abortion, euthanasia, easy or no-fault divorce, and same-sex marriage. Her radio program often features short editorial monologues on these and other social and political topics, followed by her characteristically direct responses to callers' questions and moral dilemmas. Certain aspects of feminism are often discussed on her show (Dr. Laura was a self-claimed feminist in the 1970s).

She has also authored numerous self-help books, including the best-selling *Ten Stupid Things Women Do to Mess Up Their Lives*, and several religious books. *The Proper Care and Feeding of Husbands* has been her most successful. Her books are both controversial and popular.

2. The biblical story of Adam and Eve.

When God created man, he formed him from dust and breathed into his nostrils to bring him to life. Then he planted a garden in Eden and put the man there. Out of the ground, he made every tree pleasant to see and good for food. In the midst of garden, he made the tree of life and the tree of knowledge of good and evil. He took the man and put him in the Garden of Eden to till it and keep it.

Then he warned the man that if he eats from the tree of knowledge of good and evil, he will die the same day.

When God made the serpent, he made him more cunning than any other wild creature.

The serpent asked the woman if she is forbidden to eat from the trees in the garden. The woman responds that she and the man may eat any of the fruits, but if they either touch or eat the fruit in the midst of the garden, they will die. The serpent tells her she will not die. For God knows that if she eats the special fruit, she will be like God, knowing good and evil.

Seeing that the fruit was good for food, pleasant to see, and offered wisdom, she ate some and gave some to her husband to eat. Then their eyes opened and they were embarrassed at their nakedness. They covered themselves with aprons sewn out of fig leaves.

In the cool of the day, when they heard God walking nearby, the man and his wife hid among the trees. When God called for them, they came out of hiding. The man said he hid out of fear of being be seen naked.

God asked the man, who told him he was naked and did he eat from the forbidden tree. The woman, you gave to be with me, gave me the fruit and I ate it, said the man.

When God asked the woman what she had done, she blamed the serpent for tricking her. The serpent wasn't asked.

God curses the serpent above all other animals. He is to crawl on his belly and eat dust for the rest of his life. The woman and the serpent will hate each other, and so will their offspring. The man will bruise the serpent's head and the serpent will bruise his heel.

God multiplied the woman's pain during childbirth, yet she shall desire her husband and he shall to rule over her.

For listening to his wife and for eating the fruit, God cursed the ground, making Adam have to work the land for his food for the rest of his life.

God calls Adam's wife, Eve, because she was the mother of all living. He makes garments of animal skins to cover them up.

To the other gods, God says the man has become like us, knowing good and evil. If he eats from the tree of life, he will live forever too.

God sent the man away from the Garden of Eden to till the ground from which he was taken. At the east of the garden, he placed cherubim and a flaming sword to guard the way to the tree of life.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What do you think of the title of this article?
- 2. What is your definition of humanity? In what ways are human beings different from other beings?
- 3. Are you afraid of making mistakes? Why or why not?
- 4. What do you think of the idiom "To err is human, to forgive divine"?

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

- 1. <u>Words</u>: acknowledge, causation, quiver, blueprint, elevate, clash, invoke, peer, retort, forgo, altruism, self-indulgence, initiative, sustained, leap, exhilarated, context, vibrancy, espouse, conscience, transgression, contortion, empathy, identification, discreet, perk
- 2. Phrases and expressions: reciprocal benefits, to come in, brute force/strength, to go into sth, to carry on, to grapple with sth, to move in, against (all) (the) odds, an

escape clause, in this/that regard

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. What is more important, nature or nurture? Is human behavior biologically determined or completely shaped by environment? Or is it the result of the exercise of our free will?
 - 2. What kind of attitude should we adopt towards "mistakes"?

VIII. Difficulties:

- 1. To ask the students to discuss the main arguments the author made in the essay
- 2. To paraphrase some difficult sentences.

IX: Notes:

WEEK 11 - 12

Lesson Nine: A Dill Pickle

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To give some information about the author and her writing skills..
- 2. To ask students to analyse the possible themes of the short story.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author Katherine Mansfield and her writings.

Katherine Mansfield (1888-1923) - Pseudonym of Kathleen Murry, original name Kathleen Mansfield Beauchamp

1888–1923, b. New Zealand, British author, regarded as one of the masters of the short story.

New Zealand's most famous writer, who was closely associated with D.H. Lawrence and something of a rival of Virginia Woolf. Mansfield's creative years were burdened with loneliness, illness, jealousy, alienation - all this reflected in her work with the bitter depiction of marital and family relationships of her middle-class characters. Her short stories are also notable for their use of stream of consciousness. Like the Russian writer Anton Chekhov, Mansfield depicted trivial events and subtle changes in human behavior.

Mansfield was greatly influenced by Anton Chekhov, sharing his warm humanity and attention to small details of human behavior. Her influence on the development of the short story as a form of literature was also notable. Among her literary friends were Aldous Huxley, Virginia Woolf, who considered her overpraised, and D.H. Lawrence, who later turned against Murray and her. Mansfield's journal, letters, and scrapbook were edited by her husband.

A talented cellist, she did not turn to literature until 1908. Her first volume of short stories, *In a German Pension* (1911), was not remarkable and achieved little notice, but the stories in *Bliss* (1920) and *The Garden Party* (1922) established her as a major writer. Later volumes of stories include *The Dove's Nest* (1923) and *Something Childish* (1924; U.S. ed. *The Little Girl*, 1924). Her collected stories appeared in 1937. *Novels and Novelists* (1930) is a compilation of critical essays. After an unhappy first marriage, she married John Middleton Murry, an editor and critic, in 1918. During the last five years of her life she suffered from tuberculosis and succumbed to the disease at the age of 35. Mansfield's stories, which reveal the influence of Chekhov, are simple in form, luminous and evocative in substance. With delicate plainness

they present elusive moments of decision, defeat, and small triumph. After her death Murry culled a number of books from her notebooks, editing her poems (1923, new ed. 1930), her journals (1927), her letters (1928), and a collection of unfinished pieces from her notebooks (1939).

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What is your definition of true love?
- 2. What do you think of an ideal marriage?
- V. Detailed Study of the Text:
- 1. <u>Words</u>: exasperate, haunt, flap, hover, slumber, to, purr, scrape, egotist, engrossed, astounded
- 2. Phrases and expressions: to light (sth) up, like a maniac, out of pro portion (to sth), to prick (sth) up, to make a grimace, to let sth go/pass, to breathe/say a word

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. Which of them is more emotionally involved in the past memories, Vera or the man? Give reasons for your answer.
- 2. Do you agree with the man that both he and Vera are such hopeless egoists that they haven't a corner in their hearts for anybody else? Why or why not?
 - 3. What do you think of the ending of the story? Why does Vera leave the man all of a sudden?
 - 4. What do you think are the possible themes of the text.

VIII Difficulties:

To help students to appreciate the author's skills in portraying characters.

IX: Notes:

WEEK 13 - 14

Lesson Ten: Diogenes and Alexander

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To introduce the author and give some background information about the essay.
- 2. To help students understand the main points of the essay.
- 3. To help them to develop their personal thinking on the message of the essay.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author Gibert Highet.

Gilbert Highet, Scottish-American classicist, academic, writer, intellectual, critic, and literary historian, born June 22, 1906, in Glasgow, Scotland; died 1978.

Life

Gilbert Highet is best known as a mid-20th-century teacher of the humanities in the United States. He graduated from St. John's College of Oxford University in 1932 and was a member of the faculty of St. John's for six years. In 1938 he accepted a permanent position at Columbia University, where he taught from 1937 to 1971, except for a period of military service in the British Army from 1943 to 1946. Though not at Columbia when Humanities A was created, he enthusiastically embraced the course and is still identified with it.

Highet devoted most of his energy to teaching, but he also aspired to raise the level of mass culture and achieved broader influence by publishing essays and books, hosting his own radio program, acting as a judge for the Book-of-the-Month Club, and serving on the editorial board of *Horizon* magazine. Prof. Highet was named Anthon Professor of Latin Language and Literature in 1950. He and his wife, Helen MacInnes (1907-1985), a librarian from Glasgow whom he married in 1932 and who went on to write a number of best-selling popular suspense and espionage novels, became naturalized citizens of the United States in 1951.

On education

Like others teaching at Columbia at this time -- Lionel Trilling, Mark Van Doren, Eric Bentley, Ernest Nagel -- Gilbert Highet conceived of his work as the fostering of a tradition. "These are not books, lumps of lifeless paper, but 'minds' alive on the shelves," Highet wrote. He believed that "The chief aim of education is to show you, after you make a livelihood, how to enjoy living; and you can live longest and best and most rewardingly by attaining and preserving the happiness of learning."

As a scholar in an era in which parliamentary democracy, Communism, and fascism vied for supremacy, he believed it was the duty of the intellectual to support freedom and defend pluralism. "The aim of those who try to control thought is always the same," he wrote. "They find one single explanation

of the world, one system of thought and action that will (they believe) cover everything; and then they try to impose that on all thinking people."

Above all, he was devoted to learning from the past. "History is a strange experience," he wrote in the introduction to an essay on Byzantium. "The world is quite small now; but history is large and deep. Sometimes you can go much farther by sitting in your own home and reading a book of history, than by getting onto a ship or an airplane and traveling a thousand miles. When you go to Mexico City through space, you find it a sort of cross between modern Madrid and modern Chicago, with additions of its own; but if you go to Mexico City through history, back only 500 years, you will find it as distant as though it were on another planet: inhabited by cultivated barbarians, sensitive and cruel, highly organized and still in the Copper Age, a collection of startling, of unbelievable contrasts." Ernie Seckinger has called Highet "the Harold Bloom of his day, only nicer." Highet tended to be critical of contemporary literature, attributing to it decadent qualities.

2. Brief introduction to Diogenes of Sinope (c. 412-c. 323 B.C.), a Greek philosopher.

One of the most interesting philosophers in the ancient world was the Greek thinker known as **Diogenes the Cynic**.

Diogenes was born in Sinope, an Ionian colony on the Black Sea. His father was responsible for the minting of coins and when Diogenes took to adulterating the coins with base metals he was banished from the city. He went to Athens with his slave Manes. Soon after, Manes fled. When Diogenes was advised to chase his runaway slave he replied, "It would be absurd if Manes can live without Diogenes, but Diogenes cannot get on without Manes".

In Athens Diogenes sought Antisthenes as his mentor. Antisthenes ordered him away and eventually beat him with his staff. Diogenes is quoted as saying, "Strike, for you will find no wood hard enough to keep me away from you, so long as I think you've something to say." The persistance of Diogenes broke the resistance of Antisthenes.

Diogenes left behind him no system of philosophy. After the example of his school, he was more attentive to practical than to theoretical wisdom.

Diogenes taught that people should behave as simple as possible, almost like animals, because civilization brought complications and unhappiness. Diogenes uttered some profound pieces of wisdom: "He has the most who is most content with the least," and "Dogs and philosophers do the greatest good and get the fewest rewards."

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What do you know about Diogenes' philosophy of life?
- 2. What is your understanding of "freedom"?
- 3. What do you think of social progress and civilization?

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

- 1. Words: lunatic, scant, satirize, convert, expound, complexity, extravagance, elaborate, procure, stamp, imprint, totter, chivalrous, automaton, emulate, fiery, kennel, titter, quffaw, nudge
 - 2. Phrases and expressions: to know of sb/sth, look over sth, a corps of

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. Do you agree with Diogenes that the richer one is, the more enslaved one becomes? Why or why not?
- 2. What do you think Diogenes and Alexander had in common? How would you contrast Diogenes and Alexander?
 - 3. Why did Alexander say that if he were not Alexander, he should be Diogenes?
 - 4. What have you learnt from this text?

VIII. Difficulties:

- 1. To help students understand Diogenes' philosophy of life and ask them to discuss the possible themes of the essay.
 - 2. To introduce a strategy commonly used in essay-writing contrast...

IX: Notes:

WEEK 14 - 15

Lesson Eleven: Silent Spring

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To introduce the author and her book *Silent Spring* and give some background information of the essay.
 - 2. To explain some difficult sentences of the text.
 - 3. To help students develop their personal thinking on the message of the essay.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author Rachel Carson.

Rachel Carson (1907 – 1964), writer, scientist, and ecologist, grew up simply in the rural river town of Springdale, Pennsylvania. Her mother bequeathed to her a life-long love of nature and the living world that Rachel expressed first as a writer and later as a student of marine biology. Carson graduated from Pennsylvania College for Women (now Chatham College) in 1929, studied at the Woods Hole Marine Biological Laboratory, and received her MA in zoology from Johns Hopkins University in 1932.

She was hired by the U.S. Bureau of Fisheries to write radio scripts during the Depression and supplemented her income writing feature articles on natural history for the Baltimore Sun. She began a fifteen-year career in the federal service as a scientist and editor in 1936 and rose to become Editor-in-Chief of all publications for the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service.

She wrote pamphlets on conservation and natural resources and edited scientific articles, but in her free time turned her government research into lyric prose, first as an article "Undersea" (1937, for the Atlantic Monthly), and then in a book, Under the Sea-Wind (1941). In 1952 she published her prizewinning study of the ocean, The Sea Around Us, which was followed by The Edge of the Sea in 1955. These books constituted a biography of the ocean and made Carson famous as a naturalist and science writer for the public. Carson resigned from government service in 1952 to devote herself to her writing.

She wrote several other articles designed to teach people about the wonder and beauty of the living world, including "Help Your Child to Wonder," (1956) and "Our Ever-Changing Shore" (1957), and planned another book on the ecology of life. Embedded within all of Carson's writing was the view that human beings were but one part of nature distinguished primarily by their power to alter it, in some cases irreversibly.

Disturbed by the profligate use of synthetic chemical pesticides after World War II, Carson reluctantly changed her focus in order to warn the public about the long term effects of misusing pesticides. In *Silent Spring* (1962) she challenged the practices of agricultural scientists and the government, and called for a change in the way humankind viewed the natural world.

Carson was attacked by the chemical industry and some in government as an alarmist, but courageously spoke out to remind us that we are a vulnerable part of the natural world subject to the same damage as the rest of the ecosystem. Testifying before Congress in 1963, Carson called for new policies to protect human health and the environment.

Rachel Carson died in 1964 after a long battle against breast cancer. Her witness for the beauty and integrity of life continues to inspire new generations to protect the living world and all its creatures.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What do you know about Rachel Carson? What contribution did she make to modern environmental movement?
 - 2. What environmental issues are people struggling to overcome in this modern age?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
- 1. Words: harmony, drift, blaze, flame, flicker, feed, sink, spell, sweep, throb, stricken, mould, span, impetuous, deliberate, futile, transient, catch, crossfire, bounds, intermingle, adapt, hitchhike, contend, potent, indiscriminate
- 2. <u>Phrases and expressions</u>: a blaze of sth, feed on/off sth, tamper with sth, find your/its way (to /into ...), gear sth to/towards sb/sth, set the scene/stage (ALSO the scene/stage is set), damp sth down

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. Why was Silent Spring so effective in arousing public concern over environment?
- 2. What is your opinion of the development of science and technology?
- 3. What attitude should man adopt towards nature? What do you think of man's war against nature?

VIII. Difficulties:

- 1. To help students learn about the structure of the essay.
- 2. To paraphrase some difficult sentences of the text.

IX: Notes:

WEEK 15 - 16

Lesson Twelve: The Needs that Drive Us All

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To introduce the author and some background information of the essay.
- 2. To help students to understand the main points of the essay.
- 3. To help them to develop their personal thinking on the message of the essay.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author William Glasser.

William Glasser, M.D. is an American psychiatrist born in Cleveland, Ohio in 1925, and developer of Reality Therapy and Choice Theory. His ideas, which focus on personal choice, personal responsibility and personal transformation, are considered controversial by mainstream psychiatrists, who focus instead on classifying psychiatric syndromes, and who often prescribe psychotropic medications to treat mental disorders. Dr. Glasser is also notable for applying his theories to broader social issues, such as education, management, and marriage, to name a few. Glasser notably deviates from conventional psychologists by warning the general public about the potential detriments caused by the profession of psychology in its traditional form. Glasser advocated the consideration of mental health as a public health issue.

Life and education

William Glasser was educated at Case Western Reserve University (Ohio, U.S.), where he received a B.S in 1945 and a M.A. in clinical psychology in 1948. He received his M.D. in 1953 and completed a psychiatric residency between 1954 and 1957 at UCLA and at the Veterans Administration Hospital of Los Angeles. He was board-certified in psychiatry in 1961. The University of San Francisco awarded Dr. Glasser an honorary degree in 1990. In 2003 he received the American Counseling Association's Professional Development Award; in 2004, the ACA's "A Legend in Counseling Award;" in 2005 the Master Therapist designation by the American Psychotherapy Association and the Life Achievement Award by the International Center for the Study of Psychiatry and Psychology..

Work

A practising psychiatrist, he has also authored and co-authored numerous books on mental health, counseling, and the improvement of schools, teaching, and several publications advocating a public health approach to mental health versus the prevailing "medical" model.

During his early years as a psychiatrist at the Veterans Administration Hospital in LA, he met Dr. G. L. Harrington, an older psychiatrist who Glasser credits as his "mentor." Glasser founded *The Institute for Reality Therapy* in 1967, which was renamed *The Institute for Control Theory, Reality Therapy and*

Quality Management in 1994 and later *The William Glasser Institute* in 1996. The institute is located in Chatsworth, California, and has branch institutes throughout the world.

By the 1970s Dr. Glasser called his body of work Control Theory. By 1996, the theoretical structure evolved into a comprehensive body of work renamed **Choice Theory**, mainly because of the confusion with perceptual control theory by William T. Powers, developed in the 1950s.

Reality Therapy in the UK

The Institute for Reality Therapy UK (IRT UK), with its own administration executive, co-ordinates the faculty workshops and practicums in the United Kingdom on behalf of the WGI, leading up to, and including Reality Therapy Certification (RTC). The IRT UK strives to promote and develop Choice Theory, Reality Therapy and Lead Management in the UK, offering guidance and support to its membership made up of a body of like-minded individuals, committed to their own personal and professional advancement. Support is offered by a team of training and practicum supervisors. Members of the Institute subscribe to the 'ethos' that Choice Theory, Reality Therapy and Lead Management guide and support our relationships both on a personal and professional basis, and that Reality Therapy should be taught with integrity and adherence to fundamental concepts as describe by Dr. William Glasser and others who write, teach and are associated with the WGI.

2. 3. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow is known for establishing the theory of a hierarchy of needs, writing that human beings are motivated by unsatisfied needs, and that certain lower needs need to be satisfied before higher needs can be satisfied. Maslow studied exemplary people such as Albert Einstein, Jane Addams, Eleanor Roosevelt, and Frederick Douglas rather than mentally ill or neurotic people. This was a radical departure from two of the chief schools of pyschology of his day: Freud and B.F. Skinner. Freud saw little difference between the motivations of humans and animals. We are supposedly rational beings; however, we do not act that way. Such pessimism, Maslow believed, was the result of Freud's study of mentally ill people. "The study of crippled, stunted, immature, and unhealthy specimens can yield only a cripple psychology and a cripple philosophy" (*Motivation and Personality*). Skinner, on the other hand, studied how pigeons and white rats learn. His motivational models were based on simple rewards such as food and water, sex, and avoidance of pain. Say "sit" to your dog and give the dog a treat when it sits, and-after several repetitions—the dog will sit when you command it to do so. Maslow thought that psychologists should instead study the playfulness, affection, etc., of animals. He also believed that Skinner discounted things that make humans different from each other. Instead, Skinner relied on statistical descriptions of people.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs was an alternative to the depressing determinism of Freud and Skinner. He felt that people are basically trustworthy, self-protecting, and self-governing. Humans tend toward growth and love. Although there is a continuous cycle of human wars, murder, deceit, etc., he believed that violence is not what human nature is meant to be like. Violence and other evils occur when human needs are thwarted. In other words, people who are deprived of lower needs such as safety may defend themselves by violent means. He did not believe that humans are violent because they enjoy violence. Or that they lie, cheat, and steal because they enjoy doing it.

According to Maslow, there are general types of needs (physiological, safety, love, and esteem) that must be satisfied before a person can act unselfishly. He called these needs "deficiency needs." As long as

we are motivated to satisfy these cravings, we are moving towards growth, toward self-actualization. Satisfying needs is healthy, blocking gratification makes us sick or evil. In other words, we are all "needs junkies" with cravings that must be satisfied and should be satisfied. Else, we become sick.

Needs are prepotent. A prepotent need is one that has the greatest influence over our actions. Everyone has a prepotent need, but that need will vary among individuals. A teenager may have a need to feel that he/she is accepted by a group. A heroin addict will need to satisfy his/her cravings for heroin to function normally in society, and will not worry about acceptance by other people. According to Maslow, when the deficiency needs are met:

At once other (and higher) needs emerge, and these, rather than physiological hungers, dominate the organism. And when these in turn are satisfied, again new (and still higher) needs emerge, and so on. As one desire is satisfied, another pops up to take its place.

Physiological Needs

Physiological needs are the very basic needs such as air, water, food, sleep, sex, etc. When these are not satisfied we may feel sickness, irritation, pain, discomfort, etc. These feelings motivate us to alleviate them as soon as possible to establish homeostasis. Once they are alleviated, we may think about other things.

Safety Needs

Safety needs have to do with establishing stability and consistency in a chaotic world. These needs are mostly psychological in nature. We need the security of a home and family. However, if a family is dysfunction, i.e., an abusive husband, the wife cannot move to the next level because she is constantly concerned for her safety. Love and belongingness have to wait until she is no longer cringing in fear. Many in our society cry out for law and order because they do not feel safe enough to go for a walk in their neighborhood. Many people, particularly those in the inner cities, unfortunately, are stuck at this level. In addition, safety needs sometimes motivate people to be religious. Religions comfort us with the promise of a safe secure place after we die and leave the insecurity of this world.

Love Needs

Love and belongingness are next on the ladder. Humans have a desire to belong to groups: clubs, work groups, religious groups, family, gangs, etc. We need to feel loved (non-sexual) by others, to be accepted by others. Performers appreciate applause. We need to be needed. Beer commercials, in addition to playing on sex, also often show how beer makes for camaraderie. When was the last time you saw a beer commercial with someone drinking beer alone?

Esteem Needs

There are two types of esteem needs. First is self-esteem which results from competence or mastery of a task. Second, there's the attention and recognition that comes from others. This is similar to the belongingness level, however, wanting admiration has to do with the need for power. People who have all of their lower needs satisfied, often drive very expensive cars because doing so raises their level of esteem. "Hey, look what I can afford-peon!"

Self-Actualization

The need for self-actualization is "the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming." People who have everything can maximize their potential. They can seek knowledge, peace, esthetic experiences, self-fulfillment, oneness with God, etc. It is

usually middle-class to upper-class students who take up environmental causes, join the Peace Corps, go off to a monastery, etc.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What is your understanding of the basic human needs? Do you agree that the love of fun is also a basic human need? Why or why not?
 - 2. What do you know about Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - 1. Words: destiny, humility, tribute, pervasive, coercive, payoff, stifle, frivolous
- 2. <u>Phrases and expressions</u>: attach sth to sth, be a tribute to sth/sb, get across sth or get sth across, band together, an eternity, branch out

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. Why is it important for us to understand human drives?
- 2. How do you understand the author's real purpose for writing this article?
- 3. What do you think of William Glasser's influence on education?

VIII. Difficulties:

- 1. To introduce some strategies commonly used in essay writing coherence, logical connection and clarity,
 - 2. To paraphrase some difficult sentences of the text.

IX. Notes:

WEEK 17 - 18

Lesson Thirteen: In My Day

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To introduce the author and some background information of the essay.
- 2. To help students to understand the main points of the essay.
- 3. To help them to develop their personal thinking on the message of the essay.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises and classroom activities—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author Russel Baker.

Russell Wayne Baker (born August 14, 1925) is an American Pulitzer Prize-winning writer known for his satirical commentary and self-critical prose, as well as for his autobiography, *Growing Up*.

His career

Baker was the eldest of three children born to Benny and Lucy Elizabeth Baker in Morrisonville, Virginia His first sister, Doris, was born in 1927, and after three years his second sister Audrey was born. Unfortunately, due to being desperately poor during the great depression, his mother had to make a heartbreaking decision and gave Audrey up for adoption to her brother-in-law and his wife . Baker's father had died of diabetes by this point when Russell was five, so his mother had to move the family to Belleville, New Jersey to live with her brother and sister-in-law. Later they moved to urban Baltimore where he graduated from the Baltimore City College high school in 1943 and received his B.A. from the School of Arts & Sciences at Johns Hopkins University in 1947. At the age of eleven as a self-professed bump on a log, he made the decision to become a writer since he figured "what writers did couldn't even be classified as work". He went on to become an essayist, journalist, and biographer, as well as the host of the PBS show Masterpiece Theatre from 1992 to 2004. Two-time Pulitzer Prize winner, Russell Baker, was the author of the nationally syndicated "Observer" column for the New York Times from 1962 to 1998. In addition, the noted journalist, humorist, essayist, and biographer has written or edited seventeen books. Baker's first Pulitzer was for distinguished commentary for his "Observer" columns (1979) and the second one was for his autobiography, Growing Up (1982). He wrote a sequel to his autobiography in 1989, called The Good Times.

In addition to his regular column and numerous books, Baker has also edited the anthologies *The Norton Book of Light Verse* (1986) and *Russell Baker's Book of American Humor* (1993). In 1993, he replaced Alistair Cooke to become the regular host of the PBS television series, Masterpiece Theatre until his own retirement in 2004. During his long career, Baker was a regular contributor to national periodicals such as The New York Times Magazine, Sports Illustrated, Saturday Evening Post, and McCalls. While still hosting Masterpiece Theatre, he moved to Leesburg, Virginia (not far from his birthplace) where he remains.

2. Quotes on old age:

The tragedy of old age is not that one is old, but that one is young.

OSCAR WILDE, The Picture of Dorian Gray

The complete life, the perfect pattern, includes old age as well as youth and maturity. The beauty of the morning and the radiance of noon are good, but it would be a very silly person who drew the curtains and turned on the light in order to shut out the tranquillity of the evening. Old age has its pleasures, which, though different, are not less than the pleasures of youth.

W. SOMERSET MAUGHAM, The Summing Up

I truly believe that age -- if you're healthy -- age is just a number.

HUGH HEFNER, interview, Apr. 8, 2006

As we grow older, we must discipline ourselves to continue expanding, broadening, learning, keeping out minds active and open.

CLINT EASTWOOD

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. What do you know about the problems of old age? Are you afraid of aging? Why or why not?
- 2. What is your understanding of generation gap?
- V. Detailed Study of the Text:
- 1. Words: manage, issue, caution, hurl, ill-informed
- 2. <u>Phrases and expressions</u>: speak one's mind, hurl something/somebody + adv./prep., every cloud has a silver lining, amount to, pep talk, (reach) the end of the line/road
 - VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

- VII Further Discussion:
- 1. What should we do about the generation gap?
- 2. How do you understand the author's purpose for writing this article?
- VIII. Difficulties:
- 1. To paraphrase some difficult sentences of the text.
- 2. To ask the students to analyse the possible themes of the text.
- IX. Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

WEEK 18

Final Exam Revision

《综合英语(四)》 教学大纲

于中华 编写

目 录

刖	4
一、课程简介和开设目的:	4
二、课程教学要求:	
三、课程教学内容:	
四、具体教学安排	
Lesson One Thinking as a Hobby	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Summary of the Text:	
VII. Further Discussion:	
VIII. Difficulties:	
IX: Notes:	
X. Supplementary Reading	
Lesson Two Waiting for the Police.	
I	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Summary of the Text:	
VII. Further Discussion:	
VIII. Difficulties:	
IX: Notes:	
X. After-reading activity	
Lesson Three Why Historians Disagree	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	11
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	11
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	12
VI. Summary of the Text:	12
VII. Further Discussion:	12
VIII. Difficulties:	12
IX: Notes:	
X. supplementary reading:	
Lesson Four A Drink in the Passage	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Summary of the Text:	
VII. Further Discussion:	
VIII. Difficulties:	
IX: Notes:	
Lesson Five Man of the Moment.	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	17

III. Cultural note:	17
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	17
V. Structure of the text:	17
VI. Detailed Study of the Text:	18
VI. Summary of the Text:	18
VII. Further Discussion:	
VIII. Difficulties:	
IX: Notes:	
X. After-reading Activity:	
Lesson Six Groundless Beliefs	
I. Activities:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Literary Knowledge:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VII. Topics for further discussion:	
VII. Difficulties:	
IX: Notes:	
X. supplementary reading:	
Lesson Seven Spring Sowing.	
I. Teaching Aims:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions: V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
•	
VI. Further Discussion:	
VII. Difficulties:	
IX. Notes:	
Lesson Eight Globalization's Dual Power	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI. Topics for further discussion:	
VIII. Difficulties:	
IX. Notes:	
Lesson Nine Against All Odds.	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Structure of the text:	
VI. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VII. Further Discussion:	
VIII. Difficulties:	
IX. Notes:	
Lesson Ten The Telephone.	
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	
III. Cultural note:	
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	
V. Structure of the text:	
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	
VI Further Discussion.	28

VII. Difficulties:	28
IX. Notes:	29
Lesson Eleven Lions and Tigers and Bears	
I. Teaching Aim:	30
II. Time Allotment:	30
III. Background Knowledge:	30
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	30
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	30
VI. Complimentary Reading:	30
VII. Further Discussion:	30
Lesson Twelve Soldier's Heart	32
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	32
III. A Brief introduction to the author himself:	32
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	32
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	32
VI. Further Discussion:	
Lesson Thirteen How Do We Deal with the Drug Problem?	34
I. Teaching Aim:	
II. Time Allotment:	34
III. A Brief introduction to the author himself:	34
IV. Pre-reading Questions:	34
V. Detailed Study of the Text:	34
VI. Further Discussion and writing:	35
五、测试与评估	
六、教学参考书	35

前言

一、课程简介和开设目的:

高等学校英语专业本科四年的教学内容分为两个阶段,即:基础阶段(一年级和二年级)和高级阶段(三年级和四年级)。基础阶段的主要教学任务是传授英语语言文化的基础知识,对学生进行全面的、严格的基本技能训练,培养学生实际运用语言的能力、良好的学风和有效的学习方法,为高年级的学习打下扎实的专业基础。高级阶段的主要教学任务是继续加强语言文化的基知识,把英语专业和相关专业的知识向纵深方向发展,进一步拓宽知识面,培养学生对英语语言国家以及异国文化进行表层和深层解读和阐释的能力。在对语言文字和文化元素的掌握和应用都有所拓宽和加深的基础上,提高学生运用英语进行综合交际的能力。

"综合英语"是高等学校英语专业本科基础阶段的一门专业必修课,为期两学年,即四个学期。 累计 432 学时,共计 24 学分。每学期为 108 学时,6 学分。

"综合英语"是一门综合技能课程,其主要目的在于培养和提高学生综合运用英语语言的能力。通过语言基础训练与篇章讲解分析,该课程会帮助学生逐步提高语篇阅读理解能力,了解英语各种文体的表达方式和特点,扩大词汇量和熟悉英语常用句型,具备基本的口头与笔头表达能力。教师应鼓励学生积极参与课堂的各种语言交际活动以获得基本的交际技能,并达到《英语专业教学大纲》所规定的听、说、读、写、译等技能要求,为以后高年级阶段专业课学习打好扎实的基础。另外,学生还应该熟悉中国文化传统,具备一定的艺术修养,所谓知己才能知彼。熟悉英语语言国家的地理、历史、发展现状、文化传统、风俗习惯等,对文化元素有宽度和深度的认识;具有一定的人文知识和科技知识,具有较强的用英语进行口头和书面表达的能力,具有较强的创新意识和一定的创新能力。

二、课程教学要求:

根据高等学校英语专业教学大纲,英语专业本科生在入学阶段以及基础阶段第一、二学年的具体教学要求如下:

在语音方面,学生入学阶段应该能够熟练地运用发音规则和音标准确地读出生词;比较流利地朗读没有生词、难度相当于高三英语课文的材料,口齿清楚,语音、语调大体正确;经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够自觉地模仿和纠音,正确掌握多音节单词、复合词和句子的常见重音模式,初步掌握朗读和说话的节奏感并注意轻重变化对意义表达的影响,初步掌握语流中的语音变化规律、连续、辅音爆破和语音同化的技巧以及陈述句、疑问句和祈使句的语调;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够做到针对大部分常用词汇发音正确,较好地掌握朗读和说话的节奏感,掌握语流中的语音变化规律、连续、辅音爆破和语音同化等技巧以及陈述句、疑问句和祈使句的语调,初步掌握语段中语音轻重和新旧信息传递之间的关系。在语法方面,学生入学阶段应该能够识别词类,区分名词的可数性和不可数性、可数名词的单、复数形式,基本掌握各种代词的形式与用法、基数词和序数词、常用介词和连词、形容词和副词的句法功能、比较级和最高级的构成及基本句型、冠词的一般用法,了解动词的主要种类、时态、语态及不定式和分词的基本用法、句子种类、基本句型和基本构词法;经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够掌握主谓一致的关系、表语从句、宾语从句、定语从句和状语从句等句型、直接引语和间接引语的用法、动词不定式和分词的用法、各种时态、主动语态、被动语态和构词法;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该熟练掌握主语从句、同位语从句、倒装句和各种条件句,初步掌握句子之间和段落之间的衔接手段。在词汇方面,学生入学阶段认知的

词汇应该不少于 2,000 个,掌握 1,200 个左右的常用词和一定数量的习惯用语及固定搭配,并能 在口笔语中运用,认识740个左右的单词和一定数量的习惯用语及固定搭配,能根据上下文的提示 理解其含义:经过第一学年的学习,通过基础英语课、阅读课和其它课外阅读等途径认知词汇达 4, 000-5,000 个(其中含中学已学的2,000个),正确而熟练地使用其中的2,000-2,500个词汇 及其最基本的搭配:经过第二学年的学习,通过基础英语课、阅读课和其他途径认知词汇5,500-6, 500个(含第二级要求的4,000-5,000个),正确而熟练地运用其中的3,000-4,000个词汇及 其最基本的搭配。 在听力方面, 学生入学阶段应该能够听懂教师的课堂用语以及对课文内容所作的 解释,听懂较慢语速的日常对话,听懂基本没有生词、题材熟悉、难度略低于高三所学课文的语段, 理解正确率达到70%;经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够听懂英语国家人士所作的难度不超过所 学语言知识的讲座,掌握中心大意,理解主要内容,并能辨别说话人的态度和语气,能够听懂 VOA 慢速新闻广播和文化节目,抓住主要内容。能在15分钟内听写根据已学知识编写而成或选用的录 音材料(词数 150 个左右,朗读四遍,语速为每分钟 100 个单词),错误率不超过 10%;经过第二 年的学习,学生应该能够听懂英语国家人士关于日常生活和社会生活的谈话,听懂中等难度(如 TOEFL 中短文)的听力材料,理解大意,领会作者的态度、感情和真实意图,听懂 VOA 正常速度和 BBC 新闻节目的主要内容。能大体辨别各种英语变体(如美国英语、英国英语、澳大利亚英语), 能在 15 分钟内听写根据已学知识编写或选用的词数为 200 个左右、语速为每分钟 120 个单词的录 音材料,错误率不超过8%。在口语表达方面,学生入学阶段应该能够熟练地就课文内容进行问答, 并进行简单的讨论,经过准备,能简单而连贯地复述听过的或读过的语段,能就日常生活的话题进 行初步交际,能清楚而连贯地讲述学生熟悉的题材和课文内容,长度不少于八句:经过第一学年的 学习,学生应该能够就所听到的语段进行问答和复述,能就日常生活话题进行交谈,做到正确表达 思想,语音、语调自然,无重大语法错误,语言基本得体;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够在 一般社交场合与英语国家人士交谈,做到正确的表达思想、语音、语调自然,无明显的语法错误, 语言用词基本得体。在阅读方面,学生入学阶段应该能够以每分钟60个单词的速度阅读生词率不 超过3%的人物传记、故事、科普短文等,理解正确率达到70%,能读懂简单的应用文,能掌握所读 材料的主要内容和中心思想;经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够阅读难度相当于 Thirty-Nine Steeps (简写本) 的较为浅显的文字材料,阅读速度为每分钟 70-120 个单词,理解中心大意,抓住 主要情节或论点;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够读懂难度相当于美国 Newsweek 的国际新闻 报道,能读懂难度相当于 Sons and Lovers 的文学原著,能在理解的基础上抓住要点,并能运用正 确观点评价思想内容,阅读速度为每分种 120-180 个单词,理解准确率不低于 70%。能在 5 分钟内 速读 1,000 词左右、中等难度的文章,掌握文章的大意。在写作方面,学生入学阶段应该能够根 据提示,在 20 分钟内写出 100 个单词左右的短文,无严重语法错误,意义表达清楚,能改写课文 内容,能书写简单的书信、便条和通知等应用文,格式和行文无严重错误,书写规范:经过第一学 年的学习,学生应该能够在30分钟内写出长度为120-150个单词的短文,内容切题,条理清楚, 语言正确。能改写或缩写课文内容,能正确书写便条和通知等应用文;经过第二学年的学习,学生 应该能够能根据作文题目、提纲或图表、数据等,在30分钟内写出长度为150-200个单词左右的 短文,内容切题,结构严谨,条理清楚,语法正确,语言通顺,表达得体,并能根据提示在10分 钟内写出长度为60个单词左右的应用文。在翻译方面,学生入学阶段应该能够将内容不超过高三 课文难度的短语和句子译成汉语,要求理解正确、语言通顺:经过第一学年的学习,学生应该能够 独立完成课程中的各种翻译练习,理解准确、语言通顺;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够独立 完成课程中的各种翻译练习,要求译文忠实于原文、表达流畅。在使用工具书的能力方面,学生入 学阶段应该能够比较熟练地使用中小型英汉词典,掌握词语的正确发音、意义和基本用法;经过第 一学年的学习,学生应该能够熟练地使用《英汉大词典》等英汉词典和简易的英英词典(如 0xford

Advanced English Dictionary 以及 Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English),独立解决语言问题;经过第二学年的学习,学生应该能够熟练地使用各种英汉词典和部分英英词典(如 Collins Cobuild College English Dictionary 和 Random House College Dictionary),独立解决语言问题和部分知识方面的疑难问题。在文化素养方面,学生入学阶段应该对中国文化有一定的了解,有较扎实的汉语基本功,对英美等英语国家的地理、历史和发展现状有一定的了解,掌握基本的数理化知识;经过两年的学习,学生应该熟悉中国文化传统,具有一定的艺术修养,熟悉英语国家的地理、历史、发展现状、文化传统、风俗习惯,具有一定的人文知识和科技知识,具有较强的汉语和英语的口头和书面表达能力,具有较强的创新意识和一定的创新能力。

三、课程教学内容:

授课教师根据以上英语专业本科生的入学阶段以及本科基础阶段第一、二学年的具体教学要求,系统的组织"综合英语"课程的教学内容和活动,确保学生全面、系统地掌握英语语音、词汇和语法、听力、口语、阅读、写作和翻译等语言知识和技能,帮助学生学会使用各种高级工具书,同时要比较全面地介绍中西文化以提高学生的文化素养。

课程所用教材: 杨立民主编 《现代大学英语》精读 1-4 册,外语教学研究出版社,2001。综合英语课程 I、II、III、IV 使用的教材分别为高等学校英语专业用书《现代大学英语》1-4 册。每册书共有十五课。每课由课文 A(TEXT A)、课文 B(TEXT B)、练习(More Work on the Text)三大部分组成。练习(More Work on the Text)包括 Oral Work,Vocabulary,Grammar 和 Written Work。

本课程以教材一课为单元,每单元大概用时8学时。每单元具体教学环节大致如下:

1、课文 A 和课文 B, 其中以课文上(TEXT A)为主,课堂教学设计为: Warm up, Text explanation, Vocabulary Study 和 Quiz 四个部分;课文 B (TEXT B)和练习 (More Work on the Text)为学生自学,教师统一课堂答疑解决学生学习问题。

本环节学时分配大约为: 6 课时。

2、补充阅读和听力材料:这些材料应该适合学生现阶段语言程度,有关课文 A (TEXT A)的主题,或者有助于学生掌握各种学习技能和听说读写译等语言技能,也可以是有关英语国家的人文和科技知识的材料。这些材料在题材和体裁方面,应该具有生动性、多样性和实用性。可用作课文 A (TEXT A)环节的补充材料,也可用作组织课堂语言活动的材料,还可以用作课外阅读作业。

本环节学时分配大约为: 1课时。

3、各种课堂语言活动。综合英语课程作为综合语言技能课,应该精心设计和组织一些单一或 综合的听说读写译的课堂语言活动,以便培养学生的实际综合应用语言的能力。

本环节学时分配为: 1课时。

4、作业。

四、具体教学安排

综合英语(一)(第1学期)

WEEK 1—2

Lesson One Thinking as a Hobby

I. Teaching Aim:

- 1. understand the meaning of the title. The author regards "thinking" as a "hobby" to express the idea that thinking is not just for professional thinkers like philosophers. It is something all educated people should enjoy doing.
- 2. To introduce some strategies commonly used in fiction writing and help students divide the story into parts, considering the setting, plot and etc.
 - 3. To help students to develop their personal thinking on the messages of the text.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

Introduction to the author: William Golding

William Golding (1911-1993) - in full Sir Willam Gerald Golding, an English novelist, who received the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1983. The choice was unexpected, because the internationally famous novelist <u>Graham Greene</u> (1904-1991) was considered the strongest candidate from the English writers. In many novels Golding has revealed the dark places of human heart, when isolated individuals or small groups are pushed into extreme situations. His work is characterized by exploration of 'the darkness of man's heart', deep spiritual and ethical questions.

William Golding was born in the village of St. Columb Minor in Cornwall. Golding started writing at the age of seven, but following the wishes of his parents, he studied first natural sciences and then English at Brasenose College, Oxford. Golding's first book, a collection of poems, appeared in 1934, a year before he received his B.A. in English and a diploma in education.

From 1935 to 1939, Golding worked as a writer, actor, producer, and a settlement house worker. In 1939 he moved to Salisbury, where he began teaching English and philosophy at Bishop Wordsworth's School.

During World War II, Golding served in the Royal Navy in command of a rocket ship. Demobilised in 1945, Golding returned to writing and teaching, with a dark view of the European civilization. Recalling later his war experiences, he remarked that "man produces evil, as a bee produces honey."

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. Was it hard for you to leave home for the first time in your life?
- 2. Did you feel you were a stranger the first day you arrived?
- 3. Did you find the university just as you had imagined? In what way it was, and in 4. 4. what way it wasn't? (Were you disappointed when you found it wasn't as good as you had imagined?)

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1) How would you describe the author's style? Is it formal or informal? Is it serious or humorous? Is it an anecdotal account of personal experience or close-reasoned essay? Why does the author use the first person in his narration? Do you think it suits his purpose for writing this article?
- 2) Why does the author begin by describing the three statuettes in his school headmaster's office? How is it related to the rest of the article?
- 3) The author says that all grade-one thinkers must develop a coherent system for living. What dose he mean by this? Why coherent? Does he say what his beliefs, values, and ideas are about some of the most important problems in our life?

VIII. Difficulties:

To get to know the strategy commonly used in fiction-writing—humor

IX: Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

X. Supplementary Reading

"Words to live by" ---- from Reader's Digest (1998, June)

WEEK 2-3

Lesson Two Waiting for the Police

I

- 1. To introduce some strategies commonly used in fiction writing and help students divide the story into parts, considering the setting, plot and etc.
 - 2. To help students get to know the role of each character playing in the story.
 - 3. To help students get to know the writing skills of the text.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

- III. Cultural note:
- 1. Introduction to the author: J. Jefferson Farjeon (1883—1956) J.Jefferson Farjeon was born in London, one of a family of four, all of whom were writers. He is best known for his mystery stories and was one of the first modern authors to mix romance and humor with crime.
 - 2. supplementary reading: A Man Who Had No Eyes

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What can be said about the setting of the story?
- 2. Where did it take place? At what time of the day did it take place?
- 3. Why are they waiting for the police? What happened?
- 4. Who do you think is the most impressive character? Why?
- V. Detailed Study of the Text:
- VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. What alibis did everyone give?
- 2. What was the end of the story? Do you think Mr. Penbury and Miss Wicks had conspired together? Which of the twodo you think is smarter?
- 3. What is your comment on the language of the story? Is there anything about the language that you find interesting?
- 4. Have you read anything that has/have surprise ending? Can you name any writers who is good at giving surprise ending?

VIII. Difficulties:

To get students to know the strategy used in fiction-writing—humor;

To get students to know: the characteristics of each character; the conflicts of the story; the climax and the surprise ending of the story

IX: Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

X. After-reading activity

A part of a series pictures is given to the students. Ask them to write a short story with a reasonable or surprise ending as a homework.

WEEK 3-4

Lesson Three Why Historians Disagree

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. To introduce some strategies commonly used in fiction writing and help them divide the story into parts, considering the setting, plot and etc.
 - 2. To help them to develop their personal thinking on the messages of the story.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

What is history?

What follows are a series of quotations about history and the historian's craft.

"'History,' Stephen said, 'is a nightmare from which I am trying to awake." James Joyce

"History . . . is indeed little more than the register of the crimes, follies, and misfortunes of mankind." *Edward Gibbon*

"There is properly no history; only biography." *Ralph Waldo Emerson*

"To each eye, perhaps, the outlines of a great civilization present a different picture. In the wide ocean upon which we venture, the possible ways and directions are many; and the same studies which have served for my work might easily, in other hands, not only receive a wholly different treatment and application, but lead to essentially different conclusions." *Jacob Burckhardt*

"History is the witness that testifies to the passing of time; it illuminates reality, vitalizes memory, provides guidance in daily life, and brings us tidings of antiquity." *Cicero*

"An historian should yield himself to his subject, become immersed in the place and period of his choice, standing apart from it now and then for a fresh view." *Samuel Eliot Morison*

"History is *for* human self-knowledge. Knowing yourself means knowing, first, what it is to be a person; secondly, knowing what it is to be the kind of person you are; and thirdly, knowing what it is to be the person *you* are and nobody else is. Knowing yourself means knowing what you can do; and since nobody knows what they can do until they try, the only clue to what man can do is what man has done. The value of history, then, is that it teaches us what man has done and thus what man is." *R. G. Collingwood*

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What does a good history book tell us, apart from dates, names, events, and statistics?
- 2. What is the purpose of studying history?
- 3. Do you like history? Why or why not?

- 4. Do historians usually agree in their descriptions and explanations of historical events?
- 5. Can you give a few examples to show that they can disagree sharply in spite of the fact that they are dealing with the same historical facts?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. What is a historian supposed to do? What would you say are the most important characteristics of a good historian?
- 2. Why do historians disagree? What controversies have excited Chinese historians concerning either ancient or recent history?
- 3. Do you think that history is a science? There are also people who basically take history as part of literature, with a lot of historical anecdotes to give us useful moral lessons. Do you agree with that?
- 4. The title of the text is "Why Historians Disagree?". Do you think that the analyses only apply to historians? Why do people disagree in general?

VIII. Difficulties:

To understand the arguments of the text.

To learn the language style and the structure of the text.

IX: Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

X. supplementary reading:

UFO—A Second Look (from Reader's Digest, 1999, May)

WEEK 5-6

Lesson Four A Drink in the Passage

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1.To introduce some strategies commonly used in fiction writing and help students divide the story into parts, considering the setting, plot and etc.
 - 2. Ask the students to analyse the possible themes of the text.
 - 3. Paraphrase some difficult sentences.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

Apartheid in South Africa

The term *apartheid* (from the Afrikaans word for "apartness") was coined in the 1930s and used as a political slogan of the National Party in the early 1940s, but the policy itself extends back to the beginning of white settlement in South Africa in 1652. After the primarily Afrikaner Nationalists came to power in 1948, the social custom of apartheid was systematized under law.

The implementation of the policy, later referred to as "separate development," was made possible by the Population Registration Act of 1950, which put all South Africans into three racial categories: Bantu (black African), white, or Coloured (of mixed race). A fourth category, Asian (Indians and Pakistanis), was added later. The system of apartheid was enforced by a series of laws passed in the 1950s: the Group Areas Act of 1950 assigned races to different residential and business sections in urban areas, and the Land Acts of 1954 and 1955 restricted nonwhite residence to specific areas. These laws further restricted the already limited right of black Africans to own land, entrenching the white minority's control of over 80 percent of South African land. In addition, other laws prohibited most social contacts between the races; enforced the segregation of public facilities and the separation of educational standards; created race-specific job categories; restricted the powers of nonwhite unions; and curbed nonwhite participation in government.

The Bantu Authorities Act of 1951 and the Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act of 1959 furthered these divisions between the races by creating ten African "homelands" administered by what were supposed to be reestablished "tribal" organizations. The Bantu Homelands Citizenship Act of 1970 made every black South African a citizen of one of the homelands, effectively excluding blacks from South African politics. Most of the homelands, lacking natural resources, were not economically viable and, being both small and fragmented, lacked the autonomy of independent states.

Though the implementation and enforcement of apartheid was accompanied by tremendous suppression of opposition, continual resistance to apartheid existed within South Africa. A number of black political groups, often supported by sympathetic whites, opposed apartheid using a variety of tactics, including violence, strikes, demonstrations, and sabotage - strategies that often met with severe reprisals

by the government. Apartheid was also denounced by the international community: in 1961 South Africa was forced to withdraw from the British Commonwealth by member states who were critical of the apartheid system, and in 1985 the governments of the United States and Great Britain imposed selective economic sanctions on South Africa in protest of its racial policy.

As antiapartheid pressure mounted within and outside South Africa, the South African government, led by President F. W. de Klerk, began to dismantle the apartheid system in the early 1990s. The year 1990 brought a National Party government dedicated to reform and also saw the legalization of formerly banned black congresses and the release of imprisoned black leaders. In 1994 the country's constitution was rewritten and free general elections were held for the first time in its history, and with Nelson Mandela's election as South Africa's first black president, the last vestiges of the apartheid system were finally outlawed.

Nelson Mandela

Mandela's words, "The struggle is my life," are not to be taken lightly.

Nelson Mandela personifies struggle. He is still leading the fight against apartheid with extraordinary vigour and resilience after spending nearly three decades of his life behind bars. He has sacrificed his private life and his youth for his people, and remains South Africa's best known and loved hero.

Mandela has held numerous positions in the ANC: ANCYL secretary (1948); ANCYL president (1950); ANC Transvaal president (1952); deputy national president (1952) and ANC president (1991).

He was born at Qunu, near Umtata on 18 July 1918.

His father, Henry Mgadla Mandela, was chief councillor to Thembuland's acting paramount chief David Dalindyebo. When his father died, Mandela became the chief's ward and was groomed for the chieftainship.

Mandela matriculated at Healdtown Methodist Boarding School and then started a BA degree at Fort Hare. As an SRC member he participated in a student strike and was expelled, along with the late Oliver Tambo, in 1940. He completed his degree by correspondence from Johannesburg, did articles of clerkship and enrolled for an LLB at the University of the Witwatersrand.

In 1944 he helped found the ANC Youth League, whose Programme of Action was adopted by the ANC in 1949.

Mandela was elected national volunteer-in-chief of the 1952 Defiance Campaign. He travelled the country organising resistance to discriminatory legislation.

He was given a suspended sentence for his part in the campaign. Shortly afterwards a banning order confined him to Johannesburg for six months. During this period he formulated the "M Plan", in terms of which ANC branches were broken down into underground cells.

By 1952 Mandela and Tambo had opened the first black legal firm in the country, and Mandela was both Transvaal president of the ANC and deputy national president.

A petition by the Transvaal Law Society to strike Mandela off the roll of attorneys was refused by the Supreme Court.

In the 'fifties, after being forced through constant bannings to resign officially from the ANC, Mandela analysed the Bantustan policy as a political swindle. He predicted mass removals, political persecutions and police terror.

For the second half of the 'fifties, he was one of the accused in the Treason Trial. With Duma Nokwe, he conducted the defence.

When the ANC was banned after the Sharpeville massacre in 1960, he was detained until 1961 when he went underground to lead a campaign for a new national convention.

Umkhonto we Sizwe (MK), the military wing of the ANC, was born the same year. Under his leadership it launched a campaign of sabotage against government and economic installations.

In 1962 Mandela left the country for military training in Algeria and to arrange training for other MK members.

On his return he was arrested for leaving the country illegally and for incitement to strike. He conducted his own defence. He was convicted and jailed for five years in November 1962. While serving his sentence, he was charged, in the Rivonia trial, with sabotage and sentenced to life imprisonment.

A decade before being imprisoned, Mandela had spoken out against the introduction of Bantu Education, recommending that community activists "make every home, every shack or rickety structure a centre of learning".

Robben Island, where he was imprisoned, became a centre for learning, and Mandela was a central figure in the organised political education classes.

In prison Mandela never compromised his political principles and was always a source of strength for the other prisoners.

During the 'seventies he refused the offer of a remission of sentence if he recognised Transkei and settled there.

In the 'eighties he again rejected PW Botha's offer of freedom if he renounced violence.

It is significant that shortly after his release on Sunday 11 February 1990, Mandela and his delegation agreed to the suspension of armed struggle.

Mandela has honorary degrees from more than 50 international universities and is chancellor of the University of the North.

In a life that symbolises the triumph of the human spirit over man s inhumanity to man, Nelson Mandela accepted the 1993 <u>Nobel Peace Prize</u> on behalf of all South Africans who suffered and sacrificed so much to bring peace to the land.

He was inaugurated as the first democratically elected State President of South Africa on 10 May 1994 - June 1999

Nelson Mandela retired from Public life in June 1999. He currently resides in his birth place - Qunu, Transkei

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1) What is the setting of this story? What do you know about South Africa? What do you know about the situation in South Africa at the time the story was written?
 - 2) Who was Edward Simelane? What had he done to win the one-thousand-pound prize?
- 3) How come that such an important honor was given to a black sculptor in a country of notorious racial prejudice?

4) How do you understand Simelane's talk about the cognac he was drinking with the author? Why did he say that it was the first time he had had such a glass? What was so special about the glass? Why did he say that it was also the first time he had drunk cognac so slowly? And why did he say that in Orlando they had to develop a throat of iron?

VIII. Difficulties:

To understand and learn to use a strategy commonly used in fiction-writing—flashback.

IX: Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

X. supplementary reading:

A Good Friend of Mine ---- from Reader's Digest, 1999, August

WEEK 6-7

Lesson Five Man of the Moment

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. understand the background information of the play and the playwright
- 2. learn to appreciate the author's skills in portraying characters and arranging the plot
- 3. explain or translate some difficult or useful expressions and sentences in the text
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

Quotations:

- 1. The trouble with most folks is not so much their ignorance, as their "knowing" so many things which ain't so. A. E. Mander
- 2. Every argument that has been used to justify the teaching of grammar may be applied with greater cogency to the teaching of logic. If it is desirable that a person shall speak correctly, it is much more desirable that he shall think correctly. A. E. Mander
- 3. Most men, when they think they are thinking, are merely rearranging their prejudices. **Knute Rockne**
- 4. The prejudices of ignorance are more easily removed than the prejudices of interest; the first are blindly adopted, the second willingly preferred. **George Bancroft**
 - 5. Nothing is so firmly believed as that which is least known. Michel de Montaigne
 - 6. Everyone is a prisoner of his own experiences. Edward R. Murrow
- 7. Every argument that has been used to justify the teaching of grammar may be applied with greater cogency to the teaching of logic. If it is desirable that a person shall speak correctly, it is much more desirable that he shall think correctly. --Ballard
 - IV. Pre-reading Questions:
 - 1. In your opinion, what is "groundless beliefs"?
 - 2. What may cause the "groundless beliefs"?
- 3. Is it really the case that out attitude towards a belief is often influenced by out attitude towards the person the belief originates from or is associated with?
 - V. Structure of the text:
 - 1. para 1 -- What is groundless beliefs
 - 2. para 2-24-- Major sources of groundless beliefs
 - 1) originally form their beliefs as a result of what others say; (para
 - 2) accepting others' opinions before having power of questioning; (para 1)

- 3) influenced by social environment; (para 3)
- 4) parroting ideas they prefer; (para 4)
- 5) tend to follow customs and tradition; (para 5-13)
- 6) tend to hold beliefs for the sake of self-interest; ((para 14-16)
- 7) driven by desire; (para 17)
- 8) driven by sentimental association; (para 18-19)
- 9) influenced by fashion and becomes fixed once formed. (para 20-24)
- 3. para 25-- We should think critically and test our beliefs
- VI. Detailed Study of the Text:
- VI. Summary of the Text:

Let the students have a discussion and summarize the text within 200 words in class.

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. The author's style was described as "wildly funny and deeply tragic". How did the author weave the two seemingly opposite elements into this story? What is funny and what is tragic? Is the story more funny or more tragic?
 - 2. Do social success and moral integrity usually go together? Give examples to illustrate your point.

VIII. Difficulties:

Understand the sarcasm or irony in the following sentences:

- 1. You haven't been disagreeing with my husband, have you? (para 34)
- 2. It's just so rare… I suppose that' s called being successful. (para 68)
- 3. I've never laid a finger on her, have I? (para 119)
- 4. We could sprinkle rum babas on the surface. That'll bring her up···(para 135)
- 5. Nobody would miss her except the national union of bakers. (para 139)

IX: Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

X. After-reading Activity:

Role play: 1.If you were Douglas, how would you retell the story to your wife?

2.If you were Trudy, how would you report to the police?

WEEK 7-8

Lesson Six Groundless Beliefs

I. Activities:

- 1. Warming up
- 2. Text Explanation: a) Introduction of Sci-fi, and relevant knowledge of plays
- b) Word Study
- 3. Exercises
- 4. Group Discussion
- 5. Quiz

II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Literary Knowledge:

- 1. Science fiction:
- 2. elements of a play:
- 3. language features of a play:

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. Have you read or seen any sci-fi novels or movies? What are they? (They might say 'yes', and possible names are "Jurassic Park", "Star Wars", "The Matrix", "Man in Black", "Terminator II, III", "E.T.", "The Lord of Ring" etc.)
 - 2. Do you like sci-fis? Why do many people like sci-fi?
 - 3. What do you think the language of play?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:

VII. Topics for further discussion:

- 1) What is the author taking about here? Why do you think he wrote this article?
- 2) What does the author say we must do from now on when we come across propositions? Why does he say that we will quite likely find many of them groundless? What does he mean by "groundless"? how should truth be grounded, according to the author?
- 3) The author ends the article by urging us readers to get at the truth at all costs. What costs does he have in mind?
 - 4) What do you think of this article? Have you learned anything from it on the problem of beliefs?
 - 5) What seems to be the purpose of this essay?

VIII. Difficulties:

Get to know Mr. Mander's lists of sources human beings' groundless beliefs:

- influenced by fashion and becomes fixed once formed.
- originally form their beliefs as a result of what others say;
- accepting others' opinions before having power of questioning;
- tend to hold beliefs for the sake of self-interest;
- driven by sentimental association;
- parroting ideas they prefer;
- influenced by social environment;
- tend to follow customs and tradition;
- driven by desire

IX: Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

X. supplementary reading:

WEEK 9-10

Lesson Seven Spring Sowing

- I. Teaching Aims:
- 1. Incorporate the questions on P.166 while going over the text, invite Ss's analysis of those points.
- 2. Reading comprehension of the details of the text, make use of the questions on P.167
- 3. This is an elegant piece of writing (according to the teacher's book). Point out the relatively formal style for a narrative piece, the large number of verbs used in this short piece. Quite brief/concise in its narrative style.
- 4. Point out the two metaphors: gardening and leadership, the beautiful tomato plant and Mandela's relationship with Winnie.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

Introduction to the author: Liam O'Flaherty (1896—1984)

LIAM O' FLAHERTY was a child of the nineteenth century, and a man of the twentieth. He is considered one of the most important modern Anglo-Irish authors together with James Joyce. Born in rural poverty, he died in urban comfort. Passionate in his love of nature, he abhorred everything brutish in man. An exquisite writer of short stories about man and beast on Ireland's western seaboard, ironically he is best known for The Informer, his novel of squalid Communist intrigue in the back streets of Dublin (thanks largely to the famous film version by his cousin John Ford). Yet Famine, calmly dispassionate on the horrors of the Great Hunger, is regarded by all his readers as his greatest work. He was a man with a divided nature; even the Gaelic language of his childhood village was not the language his father wanted in the home. Solitary, he tried for many years to gain a foothold in crowded Hollywood. An individualist to the core, spontaneous and restless, by inclination a wanderer, he espoused the fervent Communism so typical of those early twentieth-century writers who were filled with generosity and purity of heart; he was still reading Sartre and Le Drapeau Rouge in the last years of his life. Yet it was a cause that failed him, as it did so many other admirers of Lenin and Trotsky. In touch to his nerve ends with the tides and eddies of creation, he loathed with great bitterness all organised religion, yet spent years studying for the priesthood. In the end he died with the blessing of a priest, reconciled with God if not with the institution he had so long rejected.

O'Flaherty was a strange, often contradictory man, unique among his contemporaries in Irish literature. In his writings we can see the beginnings of much that is now being done in both Gaelic and Irish literature. Though often neglected in the sweep of modern Anglo-American criticism, he was widely appreciated on the continent; and his own love of France and admiration for Russian literature suggest that he was more truly a European writer. From the dying remnants of an ancient culture, from the shattered

fragments of a modern life, he composed the unities of his art.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What do you make out about the background of the story?
- 2. where is the story set?
- 3. What time is it supposed to happen?
- 4. According to your knowledge, what changed have taken place in social ethics since our grandfathers' time? Is there anything that remains unchanged:?

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

VI. Further Discussion:

- 1. Why is it that the two of them feel particularly excited this day? Why is it so important? Is it just the fact that it is spring sowing, the day that is going to determine, at least partly, what kind of a harvest they are going to have? Is there anything symbolic about this day?
- 2. What do you think is the main strength of the story? A gripping plot? An intriguing portrayal of the characters?
- 3. What values and moral principles are being idealized here? Is it still the same today? Do you agree that the traditional work ethic is out of date? Are such qualities as hard work, diligence, thrift, responsibility, discipline, simple and honest living, rugged individualism and self-reliance, etc still valued?
- 4. What changes have taken place in social ethics since our grandfathers' time? Is there anything that remains unchanged? Is our interest in this kind of story about the past simply a matter of idle curiosity?

VII. Difficulties:

Study the uses of "as" in the sentences below:

- 1. They are in silence, sleepy and yet on fire with excitement, for it was the first day their first spring sowing as man and wife/ (para. 3)
 - 2. Mary... thought of as many things as there are in life...(para 3)
 - 3. and somehow, as they embraced, all their irritation and sleepiness left them. (para. 4)
- 4. and there was a big red heap of fresh seaweed lying in a corner by the fence to be spread under the seed as they were laid. (para. 6)
- 5. then Martin cut the sod, and pressing the spade deep into the earth with his foot, he turned up the first sod with a crunching sound as the grass roots were dragged out of the earth (papa. 13)

IX. Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

WEEK 10-11

Lesson Eight Globalization's Dual Power

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. have a general understanding of the development of globalization;
- 2. explain the terms related to globalization, such as trade liberalization, tariffs;
- 3. identify the driving force, the advantages and disadvantages of globalization;
- 4. correctly useful expressions and phrases introduced in class.
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

About Globalization:

At its most basic, there is nothing mysterious about globalization. The term has come into common usage since the 1980s, reflecting technological advances that have made it easier and quicker to complete international transactions—both trade and financial flows. It refers to an extension beyond national borders of the same market forces that have operated for centuries at all levels of human economic activity—village markets, urban industries, or financial centers.

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Markets promote efficiency through competition and the division of labor—the specialization that allows people and economies to focus on what they do best. Global markets offer greater opportunity for people to tap into more and larger markets around the world. It means that they can have access to more capital flows, technology, cheaper imports, and larger export markets. But markets do not necessarily ensure that the benefits of increased efficiency are shared by all. Countries must be prepared to embrace the policies needed, and in the case of the poorest countries may need the support of the international community as they do so.

Nationalism is not to be confused with patriotism. Both words are normally used in so vague a way that any definition is liable to be challenged, but one must draw a distinction between them, since two different and even opposing ideas are involved. By "patriotism" I mean devotion to a particular place and a particular way of life, which one believes to be the best in the world but has no wish to force on other people. Patriotism is of its nature defensive, both militarily and culturally. Nationalism, on the other hand, is inseperable from the desire for power. The abiding purpose of every nationalist is to secure more power and more prestige, not for himself but for the nation or other unit in which he has chosen to sink his own individuality.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. Why does the author say that "globalization is a double-edged sword?" What examples can you give to elaborate his point?
 - 2. What seems to a discouraging question in the 21st century?
 - 3. What is the nature of market?
 - 4. What is the characteristic of economic history?
 - 5. Why did the US support trade liberalization during the Cold War?
 - 6. What is the direct result of trade liberalization in industrialized countries?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - VI. Topics for further discussion:
 - 1) How does the author define globalization? How does he explain the function of the market?
- 2) Why does the author say that in some respects globalization is merely a trend word for an old process?
- 3) The author said that after World War II, the market growth re-accelerated, driven by political pressures and better technology. What does he mean?
- 4) One remarkable fact of globalization is no doubt the establishment of the European Union. Do you know the ideas underlining the efforts to bring all European nations into a common market? Who were the original masterminds? To what extent have they succeeded?
- 5) What are the two problems in the author's opinion that can neutralize the potential benefits of globalization and make it highly risky? Why does he say that the global economy is now prone to harsher boom-bust cycles?
- 6) What other problems may threaten the future of globalization? What does the author mean when he says that the world economy is now flying on a single engine?
 - 7) Is globalization a good thing or a bad thing?
 - 8) Will globalization simply mean Americanization?
 - 9) Does Globalization Increase Poverty and Inequality?
 - 10) How can poor countries catch up with the rich countries more quickly through globalization?

VIII. Difficulties:

To understand the meaning of "globalization".

To learn from author that what globalization can bring us.

IX. Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

WEEK 11-12

Lesson Nine Against All Odds

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1.Understand suspense
- 2. Work out the plot of the story and analyze the characters in the story, especially General Zaroff
- 3.Learn some key words and useful expressions
- II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

Introduction to the author: Richard Connell (1893—1949)

<u>Richard Connell</u> was born In Dutchess County, New York in 1893. He began covering baseball games for his father's newspaper at age ten and was editing the paper at age sixteen. He served in World War I, and then lived in various European countries. After settling in Beverly Hills, California, Connell began writing short stories. Connell passed away in 1949.

"The Most Dangerous Game," an adventure tale that pits two notorious hunters against one another in a life-and-death competition, is the story for which Richard Connell is best remembered. First published in 1924, the story has been frequently anthologized as a classic example of a suspenseful narrative loaded with action. Connell's story raises questions about the nature of violence and cruelty and the ethics of hunting for sport.

"The Most Dangerous Game" gained favorable recognition upon its initial publication in 1924, winning the prestigious O. Henry Memorial Award for short fiction. Its popularity was further established when the first film version of the story was produced in 1932. Alternately known as *The Most Dangerous Game* and *The Hounds of Zaroff*, the film tampered notably with Connell's plot, particularly in the introduction of a female character. The story's theme, that of the hunter becoming the hunted, has become a popular one in other books and films since Connell's version appeared.

- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. Did you find the story frightening? Why or why not?
- 2. Where is the story set? Do you know anything about it? What is the difference between this island and one like, say, Bermuda? If the island were inhabited, would the story be as scary?
 - 3. If we make a film based on this story, whom will you choose to play these two roles and why?
 - 4. Describe Rainsford and General Zaroff. In your imagination, what do they look like?
 - V. Structure of the text:
 - 1. Part I. (Para. 1—14): Zaroff "invites" Rainsford to join his hunting game.
 - 2. Part II (Para 15-21): the first round, in which General Zaroff can easily kill Rainsford and end the

fame, but he decides to save Rainsford for another day.

- 3. Part III (Para 22—28): the second round, in which Rainsford scores a point, General Zaroff is slightly injured.
 - 4. Part IV (Para. 29—32): the third round, in which Zaroff loses his best hound.
 - 5: Part V (Para. 33—38): the fourth round, in which Zaroff loses Ivan.
 - 6: Part VI (Para.39—46): the last battle between Zaroff and Rainsford.
 - VI. Detailed Study of the Text:

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. Do you think Rainsford's attitude towards hunting changes through the story? What do you think will happen after Rainsford takes a good rest at Zaroff's place?
 - 2. What are the two different ways of interpreting the title?
- 3. What do you think motivates General Zaroff to play this dangerous game? What does he care about most in life? What is his attitude toward life in general?
- 4. What makes Rainsford feel somewhat confident that the General will not be able to track him? Does the General have any serious difficulty following the trail? How does Rainsford make his narrow escape?
 - 5. What do you think of the General as a hunter? How would you compare him at Rainsford?
- 6. Why does Rainsford jump far into the see? To swim away form the island? To commit suicide? What is the end of the story? Who wins the duel?
- 7. What do you think is the moral of this story if there is any? Why is the story given the title "The Most Dangerous Game"?
 - 8. Does this story show what elements a typical story should have?

VIII. Difficulties:

Get students know what happened before the story began:

- 1. Ship-trap island
- 2. Rainsford's conversation with Whitney. Their views on whether animals have understanding
- 3. Rainsford's theory of the hunters and the huntees
- 4. Rainsford and Zaroff's conversation before Rainsford says he wants to leave.

IX. Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

WEEK 13-14

Lesson Ten The Telephone

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. understand the relevant background of the text, the writer (Anwar F. Accawi);
- 2. understand the text (main idea, writer's purpose, useful words/phrases/sentence patterns, figures of speech),
- 3. learn the narrative techniques; the skillful description; writing skills such as paragraph development and transitional devices;
- 4. learn how to use the key phrases and expressions (e.g. Word Study), synonyms, antonyms, etc. and sentence patterns in the text and review various ways of comparison and exemplification;
 - 5. explain or translate some difficult or useful expressions and sentences in the text.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Cultural note:

Brief introduction to the text:

The telephone is one of the most wonderful inventions of all times. With the arrival of more sophisticated means of telecommunications, it still remains an important instrument in our daily life. The text describes, from a little boy's perspective, how the telephone affected people's way of life in a Lebanese mountain village. The essay raises the question of what attitude we should adopt toward new things, whether we should welcome them or boycott them. The question is not so easy to answer, but the writer's conclusion seems to be that whether you like it or not, you cannot stop a good thing coming into people's lives. Like globalization, any invention is a double-edged sword. The coming of the telephone left Magdaluna desolate (negative effect), but it broke the seclusion of the village. We cannot resist a good thing because it might have some negative effects, just as we cannot throw the baby out with the bath water.

The present essay is included in our textbook mainly for two reasons:

First, most of the articles we read before are written by either American or British writers. It is not reasonable that because we are English learners, our cultural knowledge should be limited to countries like the US, the UK or Canada. We should also know something about African and Middle-East countries. This essay gives us an opportunity to have a glimpse of the Lebanese culture.

Second, anything new is controversial. Any invention, like globalization we discussed before, is a double-edged sword. It brings both positive and negative effects on the life of people. So the attitude we should assume toward the new is worth consideration and discussion.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

1. How did the people in the village of Magdaluna know when to sow seed and when to harvest crops? How did they keep track of time?

- 2. Which year, according to the author, is one of the best years of his childhood? Why? What does that reflect?
- 3. Where did the men in Magdaluna use to gather before the telephone came? Why was that place so attractive? Where did they go after the telephone was installed?
 - 4. Did the author like the telephone or not?
- 5. Why did the narrator say that the year of the drought was one of the best years for him personally? What interesting things happened that year which he remembered so vividly as a boy?

V. Structure of the text:

- 1. Part I: (Para. 1-10) the village life before the advent of the telephone natural, primitive, dull and secluded
 - 2. Part II: (Para. 11- 18) the installation of the telephone
 - 3. Part III: (Para. 19 -25) the effects brought about by the telephone on the small village

V. Detailed Study of the Text:

VI. Further Discussion:

- 1) What is this article about? Why is it given this title? Who is the narrator? Do you think it a good idea to have the narration given by a little boy in the first person? What is the general tone used in this article? Is the narration given in a serious or humorous vein?
- 2) What do you make of the fact that the people in the village had no calendar and clock and had no need for them? What kind of society is it that does not need so much to keep track of the hours, days, months, and years?
- 3) What was the general life pattern for the villagers? Was it an exciting life? What were considered important events? Did the mention of earthquakes, droughts, floods, locusts and pestilences reveal anything about the times and conditions?
- 4) Do you think the narrator liked the fact that everybody was leaving the village for foreign countries where they believed they would find jobs and a better life? What do you think is his feeling toward the death of traditional society?
- 5) Should we always embrace the new because what is new always means progress, and what is progress is good?
- 6) Why is it that people are often so nostalgic? Do you think it is a good thing for people to remember the past with fondness?
- 7) In what ways has the advent of the telephone affected the small village? What do you think is the author's attitude towards those changes?

VII. Difficulties:

To learn the figure of speech (es) in the following sentence:

- **1.** We knew what to do and when to do it, just as the Iraqi geese knew when to fly north, driven by the hot wind that blew in from the desert. (p. 1) (simile)
 - 2. ... when the heavens were shut for months ... (p. 9) (metaphor)
 - **3.** ... I wriggled my way through the dense forest of legs to get a firsthand look at the action. (p. 17)

(metaphor)

- **4.** Her house was an island of comfort, an oasis for the weary village men, exhausted from having so little to do. (p. 20) **(metaphor)**
- **5.** Magdaluna became a skeleton of its former self, desolate and forsaken, like the tombs, a place to get away from. (p. 24) **(metaphor and simile)**

IX. Notes:

The students have almost achieved what we were planning to achieve. Remember to review some language points and questions for understanding.

WEEK 14-15

Lesson Eleven Lions and Tigers and Bears

I. Teaching Aim:

- 1. understand the meaning of the title. What are their social associations to you at first reading? What is your new understanding after a second-time reading?
- 2. To introduce some strategies commonly used in travel writing and help students divide the description into parts, considering the scenes, events, people, history, and etc.
 - 3. To help students to develop their personal thinking on the messages of the text.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. Background Knowledge:

In New York City, the streets are numbered from the south end and the avenues are numbered from the east, the 1st Avenue to the 12th Avenue. The Central Park is located in the center of the city. It extends from the 59th street to the 110th street between 5th and 8th Avenues. It is 2.5 miles long and a half mile wide and covers an area of 840 acres.

The present article was included in *The Best American Travel Writing* (2000). It is different from other travel writings in that he combines many elements together in this article: the description of his adventure, famous events and people he heard or read about; the architecture and beautiful scenery in the park, and esp. the crimes the park has witnessed and the fear inspired by them. While reading, we should notice how he cleverly weaves those elements together in order to appreciate the richness of his writing.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. What is the meaning of the title?
- 2. Why do you think the author uses this title?
- 3. Why did he decide to visit Central Park at night?
- V. Detailed Study of the Text:
- VI. Complimentary Reading:

VII. Further Discussion:

- 1. Could you roughly recount the history of the park or the changes experienced by the park since its construction in 1857 to modern times, based on the fragmentary information given in the text?
 - a. 1857- built for the wealthy. Two elements: French and British

- b. 1900s 1930s: more popular, enjoyed by the immigrants
- c. 1934- expanded, more recreational facilities included
- purposeful, efficient, American
- d. 1960s- crime rate increasing, dangerous
- 2. What do you think is the author's attitude towards the park? Does he fear it or love it or have a mixed feeling for it?

fear; appreciation; national pride; love

WEEK 15-16

Lesson Twelve Soldier's Heart

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. Understand the meaning of the title and define the genre of the text.
- 2. To introduce the background knowledge of the author, including his life, his experiences, his writings and etc. Divide the text into parts, make clear of the structure.
 - 3. To help students to develop their personal thinking on the messages of the text.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

III. A Brief introduction to the author himself:

Louis Simpson was born in Jamaica, West Indies, in 1923. He emigrated to the US at the age of 17, studied at Columbia University, then served in WWII with the 101st Airborne Division on active duty in France, Holland, Belgium, and Germany. After the war he continued his studies at Columbia and at the university of Paris. While living in France he published his first book of poems, the Arrivistes (1949). He worked as an editor in a publishing house in New York, then earned a Ph.D. at Columbia and went on to teach at Columbia, the University of California at Berkeley, and the State University of New York at Stony Brook.

IV. Pre-reading Questions:

- 1. Where did the author go when he was discharged from the army? What happened to him that made it necessary for other people to send him to a hospital?
- 2. What was the hospital like? How did the author describe the doctors, nurses and guards working there?
- 3. What did the author do when he was discharged from the hospital? Did he go back to the university right away?
 - 4. How did the author become a writer? What did he often write about?
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - 1. language points
 - 2. Text Organization

Part I $(1 \sim 3)$: his experience in the Battle of Normandy

Part (4~11): his days in Kings Park

Part (12~15): his days as a Lost Man

Part ($16 \sim 27$): his return to the university, deciding to take up writing about war, even though other people were indifferent to this topic

VI. Further Discussion:

- 1. What is the author's general attitude toward war?
- 2. What did the war he fought in mean to him?
- 3. What specific aspects about the war did he find so difficult to forget?
- 4. What was his general opinion of the men and women he was working with at the university?
- 5. Why did he feel that way?

WEEK 17-18

Lesson Thirteen How Do We Deal with the Drug Problem?

- I. Teaching Aim:
- 1. Understand the meaning of the title and define the genre of the text.
- 2. To introduce the background knowledge of the author, including his life, his experiences, his writings and etc. Divide the text into parts, make clear of the structure.
- 3. To help students to develop their further thinking on some social issues, especially some sensitive ones.
 - II. Time Allotment:

Text—6 hours

Exercises—2 hours

- III. A Brief introduction to the author himself:
- IV. Pre-reading Questions:
- 1. Introduce to your classmates the drugs mentioned in our text: marijuana, heroin, cocaine and methamphetamine. How do they look, how are they used and what harms do they work on the users?
- 2. What are the causes for drug addiction (teenagers, adults, etc)? What are the harms that can be worked on the addicts (physical, family life, career, social, etc)? You may refer to Text B for examples.
 - V. Detailed Study of the Text:
 - 1. language points
 - 2. Argumentation Organization
 - 1) Drugs

Part I (1): stating his proposition to legalize drugs

Part II $(2 \sim 10)$: giving supporting ideas

- a. The author has tried almost every drug and is addicted to none.
- b. A man has the right to do what he wants.
- c. Any sane person will not become a drug addict.
- d. Forbidden fruit is always delicious.
- e. There will be no crimes, no costs for law enforcement. (That is also why people refuse to legalized drugs.)
 - 2) The Trouble with Legalizing Drugs
- Part I (11 \sim 15): The author first acknowledges that legalization has some immediate effects and there are some people who advocate legalizing drugs.
 - Part II ($16 \sim 18$): He points out that legalization has an ugly gaping hole.
- Part III ($19 \sim 20$): He observes that neither legalization nor further criminalization can solve the drug problem satisfactorily and completely.

3) Legalize? No. Deglamorize

Part I ($21 \sim 26$): Similar to the previous article, the author first acknowledges the immediate effects of drug legalization and then points out that it will eventually lead to catastrophe.

Part II ($27 \sim 31$): The author believes that the basic cause of drug addiction is cultural, so his proposed solution is to deglamorize.

Part III (32): summary

VI. Further Discussion and writing:

"Following alcohol, marijuana is the second most popular drug with youth. It consists of the leaves, flowers, stems, and seeds of the cannabis plant, which are dried and chopped into small amounts. Commonly referred to as grass, pot, weed, Acapulco Gold, ganja, and smoke, marijuana is usually smoked in hand-rolled cigarettes called "joints," and has a strong, pungent odor when smoked. Once the marijuana cigarette is partially smoked, it is often held by a small clip called a "roach clip."

In low doses, marijuana can induce restlessness, a dreamy state of relaxation, red or bloodshot eyes, and increased appetite. Stronger doses can cause shifting sensory images, rapidly fluctuating emotions, a loss of self-identity, fantasies, and hallucinations or image distortions."

Read the passage above, share with your partners your new thinking on drug abusing and the prevention of that among youngsters. Then write a passage about it.

Revision

五、测试与评估

本课程采取闭卷考试为主,结合平时课堂表现和作业成绩的评测方式。本课程的最终总评成绩 大概包括以下部分:

- 1. 课堂出勤(Class attendance) (5%)
- 2. 课前口语操练(Presentation)(5%)
- 3. 测验和作业 quizzes/assignments (5%)
- 4. 口语考试(Oral test) (5%)
- 5. 期中考试 (Mid-term exam) (20%)
- 6. 期末考试 (Final exam) (70%)

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《英语听力(一)(二)(三)(四)》 教学大纲

高 静 编写

目 录

前	言		111
	_	、概述	111
	二	、课程教学目的和基本要求	111
	三	、课程主要内容及学时分配	112
	四	、具体内容:	112
For	the first	academic year	113
Prep	paratory .		114
Less	son 1		114
	Prepara	tory	114
	Lesson	Two	114
	Le	sson One	115
	Le	sson Seven	115
For	the secon	nd academic year	123
		Two	
	Le	sson Seven	125
	We	eek Nine & Ten	127
	Le	sson Thirteen	127

前言

一、概述

为指导我校英语专业"英语听力"课程教学,特制订本教学大纲。大纲的各项规定可以作为英语本科专业基础阶段"英语听力"课程教学安排、教材选用与教学质量检查的依据。课程的教学方法直接关系到学生英语听力能力的培养与提高。由于听力是接受性机能的特点,课堂教学应以学生为主体、教师为引导,在训练学生听力技能的同时,注重培养学生的听力技巧和学习能力。在教学中要开展形式多样的教学活动,精听和泛听相结合。在加强基础训练的同时,采用问答、讨论等多种方式,充分调动学生学习的积极性,激发学生的学习动机。同时,要注意教学方法的多样性,要根据不同的教学对象、教学内容、教学目的和要求,选择相应的教学方法。课堂教学要与学生的课外学习相结合。学生应在教师的指导下有目的、有计划进行听力训练,如补充其它听力材料,收听英语广播等。课外学习应以课堂教学的内容为基础,激发学生的学习兴趣,以及培养学生的学习能力。教学手段的现代化关系到人才培养的质量。教师应熟练运用听力室卡带听力系统的各种功能,合理运用影碟机,投影仪等电教设备,同时积极探索和开发计算机辅助教学。运用现代化,多元化的教学模式提高教学效率、培养学生有效的学习方法。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程为专业基础课,是一门培养学生听力能力的课程。听力是英语四项基本技能之一。本课程的任务是通过多种形式、多种内容的听力训练,使学生的听力能力由初等水平逐渐提高到中高级水平,同时也为培养学生的英语交际能力奠定一个良好的基础。本大纲的教学对象是我校非英语专业本科生。学生入学时应掌握基本的英语语音和语法知识,学会使用 3000 个单词和 400-500 个习惯用语和固定搭配,且已在听、说、读、写、等方面受过一定的训练。本课程的教学目的是通过专门系统的听力技能训练,促进学生听力发展,为培养学生全面的英语交际能力奠定良好的听力基础。同时,引导学生形成良好的学风和正确的学习方法,为进入高年级打下扎实的专业基础。通过本课程的学习,学生应该具备听懂美语、英国英语一般题材、正常速度、听力材料的能力。能够基本在理解听力材料的基础上,掌握如要点记录等技能。同时,通过本课程的学习,学生应熟悉各种英语变体,了解英美国家的基本的文化历史背景。

具体来说,经过第一学年的听力训练,学生应能达到下列要求:

- 1、听懂英语国家人士所作的难度不超过所学语言知识的讲座和日常生活的简单交谈,要求学生能够掌握中心大意,理解主要内容,并能辨别说话人的态度和语气。
 - 2、听懂 VOA 慢速新闻广播和文化节目,抓住主要内容。
- 3、能在 15 分钟内听写根据已学知识编写而成或选用的录音材料(词数 150 个左右,念四遍,语速为每分钟 100 个单词),错误率不超过 10%

经过第二学年的听力训练,学生应能达到下列要求:

- 1、听懂英语国家人士关于日常生活和社会生活的谈话,听懂中等难度(如 TOEFL 中的短文)的听力材料,理解大意,领会作者的态度、感情和真实意图。
- 2、听懂 VOA 正常速度和 BBC 新闻节目的主要内容。能大体辨别各种英语变体(如美国英语、英国英语、澳大利亚英语):
- 3、能在 15 分钟内听写根据已学知识编写或选用的词数为 200 个左右、语速为每分钟 120 个单词的录音材料,错误率不超过 8%。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程教学安排为两学年,一学年主要教学内容是帮助学生逐渐学会通过听来获取英语的素材的听力技能。具体训练内容包括学会辨音,即学会分辨容易混淆的音素、单词和结构;学会对简单的语言信息作出判断和分析,包括对数词、简单句、简单对话、短文的听力训练;学会记录简单的英语会话,包括单词、句子、短文的听写练习。

第二学年主要教学内容是进一步强化学生听力技能。具体训练内容包括提高学生抓住大意、听取细节的能力,并能逐渐学会辨别讲话人的态度和语气的谈话和小故事;听懂英语国家广播节目的内容,包括演讲,新闻和电影和电视片段的听力训练;学会用英语作笔记的短文听写练习。同时,第二学年还包括专业四级考试的专项听力训练材料。

本课程总学时为276,每周4学时。

测试与评估是了解学生英语水平、评估教学质量、促进教学改革的重要手段。本门课程采用形成性考核和终结性考试相结合的方式。形成性考核包括对学生在学期中各学习阶段学习成果的测试,作业完成情况和课堂表现;终结性考试每学期安排一次至两次,统一命题,测试内容结合所学教材,应包括教学大纲规定的、学生在各个学习阶段必须掌握的听力技能。测试应具有科学性、客观性和可行性,尽量做到信度和效度有机结合。

- 1. 坚持以"听"为主。听力课是一门实践性很强的课程,在课堂上,教师应该抓紧时间,让学生最大限度地受到听力强化训练,让学生学会在听的过程中去获取语言的信息。
- 2. 听力和其他技能训练相结合。是相辅相成的。听力是英语四项基本技能之一,它和其它技能是相辅相成的。在课堂听力训练中,要灵活采用一些跟读、模仿、问答、讨论和卷面练习等口笔头训练形式。
- 3、精听和泛听相结合。教学过程中,应该根据听力教材的难易程度以及学生的反应情况对教 学作具体的安排,做到有精有泛。精听的内容可反复听,泛听的内容掌握大意即可。
- 4、注重听力技巧的培养。学生不能满足于只是听懂材料,应有意培养他们如概括大意、推想 含意、预测问题、要点记录等听力技巧。
- 5、课堂教学和课外听力训练相结合。想提高听力水平,课堂的听力训练时间远远不够。应为 学生提供足够的课下听力材料,并指导学生养成收听收看英语广播电视的习惯,尽可能多的让他们 的耳朵接触英文材料。
- 6、做好语言知识储备。鼓励学生阅读有关英语国家社会文化的书籍,为听力训练做必要的背景知识准备。

推荐课外听力材料

张民伦,《英语听力入门 2000》,华东师范大学出版社 www.bbc.co.uk 英国广播公司网站中世界报道部分 China Radio International 中国国际广播电台英语广播 Voice of America 美国之音国际英文电台

四、具体内容:

For the first academic year

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of Listening I, the students will be able to understand VOA special English program and lectures by English speakers, which is at the level equivalent to what they have learned. They will be able to grasp the main idea, identify the attitude and tone of speakers, and have dictation within 15 minutes of narration (consisting of about 150 words and read four times at the speed of 100 words per minute) with mistakes no more than 10 percent of the narration.

Specific objectives:

The students will be able to retain chunks of language in short-term memory; discriminate among the distinctive sounds in the new language; recognize stress and rhythm patterns, tone patterns, intonational contours; recognize reduced forms of words; distinguish word boundaries; recognize typical word-order patterns; recognize vocabulary; detect key words, such as those identifying topics and ideas; deduce meaning from context; recognize grammatical word classes, basic syntactic patterns, and cohesive devices; and detect sentence constituents, such as subject, verb, object, prepositions, and the like.

Course Materials:

Listen to This: I (by Qixin He) will be focused on, supplemented with Step By Step I & II, English songs, movies with simple language, current radio programs and some other audio-video materials. The students will listen to some English songs with words simple and clear, and asked to write down all the words. They will also see some films and will be given the scripts, so as to learn natural English and culture, and develop the receptive skill of deducing meaning from the context. Current radio programs will sometimes be given to students to keep them in touch with the world current affairs and get familiar with broadcasting English. Step By Step I & II is also required for home assignments.

Class Requirements:

ATTENDANCE: Full attendance will conduce to successful completion of this class. Student absence can have a major effect on your own performance. You should provide written proof to verify your excused absence. Anyone who is late for more than 15 minutes will be regarded as absent.

HOMEWORK: The homework will be checked when you come to class next time.

PERFORMANCE: All students are expected to participate actively in language practice. Your class participation and performance will be evaluated and a final score will be given.

Grading:

For the first semester:

Class participation: 10% Homework: 10% Quizzes: 10% Final: 70% For the second semester:

Class participation: 10%
Quizzes and homework: 10%
Mid-term exam: 30%
Final exam: 50%

Week	UINT TITLE	LANGUAGE POINTS	Skills
Week One	Preparatory Lesson 1 Introduction, Identifying the meaningful segments	I. Numbers, Dates, Addresses, abbreviations, contractions II.Dialogues (1-5) III. Dictation of words: singular and plural forms of nouns	Helps students learn to identify the meaningful segments (nouns, verbs, numbers, pronouns, interrogative pronouns, adverbs, prepositional phrases, etc.), offers students practice to familiarize themselves with different components of English sentences and differentiate some confusing sounds
	Preparatory Lesson Two	I. Numbers, Letters,TimesII. Dialogues (1-6)III. Dictation of words:	
	Preparatory Lesson Three	I. A. Numbers B. Easy way Shopping List II.A. Dialogues (1-4) B. Monologue III. Dictations of Words	
Week Two	Preparatory Lesson Four	I. Numbers II. Dialogues (1-4) III. Dictation of words:	
Week Three	Preparatory Lesson Five Test	I. Money II. Dialogues (1-4) IV. Dictation of Sentences:	

	T	I Di-1 (1.10)	II-1 41
	Lesson One	I. Dialogues (1-10) II.A. Discussion	Helps the students identify key
	One		words with the hope that they
		B. Interview	will be able to select key words
		III. Dictations (1-2)	on the own eventually.
Week Four	Lesson Two	I. Dialogues (1-10)	
		II.A. Conversation	Differentiating some confusing
		B. Story	sounds
		III. Dictations (1-2)	
	Lesson Three	I. Dialogues (1-10)	
		II. A. Discussion	
		B. Interview: Too old	
		at Twenty	
		III. Dictations (1-2)	
Week Five	Lesson Four	I. Dialogues (1-4)	
		II. Conversation (1-3)	
		III. Dictations (1-2)	
	Lesson Five	I. Dialogues (1-4)	
		II. A. Word Exercises	
		B. Discussion	
		C. Interview: Too old	
		at Twenty	
		III. Dictations (1-2)	
Week Six	Lesson Six	I. Dialogues (1-14)	
		II.Telephone Conversations	
		(1-2)	
		III. Dictations (1-2)	
	Lesson	I. Dialogues (1-15)	
	Seven	II.A. Problems	
		B. Monologue	
		C. Telephone	
		Conversations	
		III. Dictations (1-2)	
Week Seven	Lesson Eight	I. Dialogues (1-6)	
		II.A. Likes and Dislikes	
		(1-8)	
		B. window-shopping C.	
		Discussion	
		III. Dictations (1-2)	

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	Lesson Nine	I. Dialogues (1-15)	
		II.A. An Invitation to a	
		Volleyball Match	
		B. Telephone Conversation	
		C. Monologues (1-3)	
		III. Dictations (1-2)	
		IV. Song	
Week Eight	Mid-term Exam		
	Lesson Ten	I. A. Dialogues (1-5)	Identifying major points
		B. Hotel English	Understanding main ideas
		II.A. Discussion	The listening focus is the
		B. Forum	identification of major points
		III. Spot Dictations (1-2)	and main ideas, which is based
Week Nine	Movie	Sound of Music	on the skill of key words
	Lesson Eleven	I. A. Dialogues (1-6)	identification.
		B. Restaurant English	
		Dialogues (1-3)	
		II.A. Telephone	
		Conversation	
		B. Discussion	
		C. Monologue	
		D. Music or Money	
		III. Dictations (1-2)	
Week Ten	Lesson Twelve	I. A. Dialogues (1-6)	
		B. Restaurant English	
		Dialogues (1-3)	
		II.A. Description	
		B. Conversation	
		C. A Party	
		III. Dictations (1-5)	
	Lesson	I. A. Dialogues (1-4)	
	Thirteen	B. Restaurant English	
		Dialogues (1-3)	
		II.A Discussing Past Events	
		B. Telephone Conversation	
		C. Conversation at Perfect	
		Partners Ltd.	
		III. Dictations: A Letter	

Week Eleven	Lesson	I. Dialogues (1-8)	
&Twelve	Fourteen	II.A. Telephone	
		Conversations (1-3)	
		B. Shopping	
		III. Dictations (1-16)	
	Lesson Fifteen	I. Dialogues (1-9)	Drawing inference
		II.A. Quick Lunch	
		B. Dinner	Exercises in these five units
		C. Interview	direct at logical guesswork about
		E. Why Can't I Do What	settings and relationships
		I Like?	between people.
		III. Dictation	
	Movie		Help the students develop their
Week Thirteen &	Lesson Sixteen	I. Dialogues (1-8)	ability of relevant thinking as
Fourteen		II.A. Snack Bar	their linguistic skills.
		B. Hotel English Dialogues	
		(1-5)	
		C. Parties	
		D. Discussions	
		III. Dictations (1-9)	
	Lesson	I. Dialogues (1-6)	
	Seventeen	II.A. Restaurant English	
		Dialogues (1-3)	
		B. In the Cinema	
		C. A Science Fiction Story	
		III. Dictation	
	Lesson	I. Dialogues (1-8)	
	Eighteen	II.A. Interview	
		B. Discussion	
		C. Past Mistakes	
		D. Monologue	
		III. Dictation	
Week Fifteen &	Lesson	I. Dialogues (1-9)	
Sixteen	Nineteen	II.A. News	
		B. AT the Airport	
		C. Past Experiences	
		D. Monologue 1	
		F. Monologue 2	
		III. Dictation	

Lesson Twenty	I. Dialogues (1-9)	
	II.A. Preferences	l
	B. Telephone Call	l
	C. Old Arthur	l
	D. Dangerous Illusions	l
	III. Dictation	l
Lesson Twenty-	I. Dialogue (1-6)	l
One	II.A. Intentions	l
	B. Annual Presentation	l
	C. Discussions (1-2)	l
	D. Telephone Conversation	l
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Second semester:

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	Lesson Twenty-	I. Dialogues (1-4)
Week One & Two	Two	II.A. Presenting Tour
		Packages
		B. Discussing a Holiday
		C. Obtaining Information
		D. A Bus Tour
		E. Tour of London
		III. Dictation]
		IV. Introduction of Hotels
		and Motels; Travel
	Lesson Twenty-	I. A. Dialogues (1-2)
	Three	B. Corney Restaurant Jokes
		II.A. On a London Bus
		B. At the Travel Agency
		C. At the Customs
		D. The Smuggler
		D. Missing Children
		III. Dictation

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	Lesson Twenty-	I. A. Calculations	
	Four	B. Numbers and Symbols	
		C. Asking for Advice	
		II.A. Telegram	
		B. Interview Appointment	
		C. Henry	
		D. Radio Talk	
		E. Mr. Pollard and the	
		Solicitor	
		G. Monologue	
		III. Dictation	
		IV. Introduction of Lawyers	
Week Three &	Lesson Twenty-	I. A. Numbers	
Four	Five	B. Dialogues (1-2)	
		II. A. Memories	
		B. Married life	
		C. Superstitions	
		D. Ghost	
		E. A Strange Story	
		III. Dictation	
		IV. Introduction of	
		Superstitions	
	Lesson Twenty-	I. A. Dates	
	Six	B. Years	
		C. Telephone Numbers	
		D. Abbreviations	
		II. A. Different Opinions	
		about Women	
		B. George	
		C. Shoplifting	
		D. Discussion	
		III. Dictation	
		IV. Introduction of	
		Women's Struggle for Equal	
		Rights	
		11151110	

	Lesson Twenty-	I. A. Announcement	
	Seven	B. Telephone Message	
	Seven	II. A. Changes	
		B. Bus Conductor Wins	
		Fortune on Pools	
		C. Cooking	
		How to Use a Camera	
		D. How to Use a Camera	
		E. Monologue	
		III. Dictation	
Week Five & Six	Test		
	Lesson Twenty-	I. Functions and happenings	
	Eight	(1-7)	
	_	II. A. Kinds of People	
		B. Career Woman and	
		Marriage	
		C. The Uncle I Hardly Knew	
		D. Bargains	
		III. A. A Mugging	
		B. Bank Robbery	
		IV. Introduction of Judo	
Week Seven &	Lesson Twenty-	I. Airport Announcements	
Eight	Nine	(1-6)	
		II. A. At the Lost Property	
		Office	
		B. Questions of Conscience	
		C. Earthquake	
		III. A. Who Needs Friends	
		Like This	
		B. A Day off Work	
	Movie		
Week Nine & Ten	Mid-term Exam		
WEEK THILE & TELL	who-term Exalli		

	Lesson Thirty	I. Telephone Conversations (1-4) II. A. Offers B. Dreams (1-3) C. A Japanese Girl III. A. The Appointment B. Legal Advice C. Police Station IV. Introduction of Police	
Week Eleven	Lesson Thirty-One	I. Dialogues (1-4) II. A. Probability B. Job Hunting C. The Movies D. Radio Program III. A. A Little Crime B. Psychiatrist IV. Introduction of Driver's Education	
Week Twelve	Lesson Thirty-Two	I. News Items (1-2_ II. A. Accommodation B. Schedule in the Nursing Home C. Free Samples D. Murders in the House III. A. Banking B. How to Advertise for a Bank IV. Introduction of Banking	
Week Thirteen	Lesson Thirty-Three	I. News Items (1-3) II. A. Eskimos B. Shoplifting C. Frogs D. Newspaper Editors III. A. A Tour of the Airport B. Lost Handbag IV. Introduction of Newspapers	

Week Fourteen	Lesson	I. Talking about Videos (1-6)	
Week Pourteen	thirty-four	II. A. Discussion	
	tim ty-10ui	B. Roommates	
		C. Gardening	
		D. Violence in Sport	
		E. Films	
		III. A. Boat Trip	
		B. Interview	
		IV. Introduction of Boxing	
	Lesson Thirty-	I. A. Tastes in Common	
Week Fifteen	Five	B. Monologue	
		II. A. Recipe	
		B. Waiting	
		C. Hiking	
		D. Giving Directions	
		III. A. Burglary	
		B. The Empty Chair	
Week Sixteen	Lesson Thirty-	I. A. Making a Reservation	
	Six	B. Vet	
		II. A. Monologue	
		B. Wrinkles	
		C. Shopping	
		III. A. Success and Failure	
		B. Elvis Presley	
		IV. Introduction of	
		Veterinarians	

For the second academic year

Course Objectives:

Upon completion of Listening II, the students will be able to understand VOA program and lectures on culture and daily life by English speakers, which is at the level equivalent to the Minitalks section of TOEFL. They will be able to better understand the main idea, grasp the arguments or plots, infer and analyze the materials, and discern the attitude, emotion and intentions of speakers. The students will also be able to take notes in English, or have dictation within 15 minuets of materials (consisting of around 150-180 words, and read four times at the speed of 120 words per minuet) with mistakes of less than 8 percent of the materials.

Course Materials:

Listen to This: II (by Qixin He) will be focused on, supplemented with Step By Step III an IV, audio materials for the national college English examination IV. Up-to-date radio programs English movies, some other audio-video materials will also make up some of the in-class time to expose the students to natural speed language as much as possible. Some materials from Step By Step III an IV are also required for home assignments.

Class Requirements:

ATTENDANCE: Full attendance will conduce to successful completion of this class. Student absence can have a major effect on your own performance. You should provide written proof to verify your excused absence. Anyone who is late for more than 15 minutes will be regarded as absent.

HOMEWORK: The homework has to be finished before the students come to class next time.

PERFORMANCE: All students are expected to participate actively in language practice. Students class participation and performance will be evaluated and a final score will be given.

Grading

Class participation: 10%
Quizzes and homework: 10%
Mid-term exam: 30%
Final exam: 50%

The First Semester 64 hr

Week One & Two	Lesson One	IV. 1. This Is Your Life! 2. What Are your Ambitions? V. In Your Own Words VI. 1. Study Skills Learning to Predict 2. Dictation	In the first six lessons, the students will be trained for the skill of predicting in English what that person is going to say next, which are probably not the exact words. Predicting will help the students better understand the materials. Elements helpful for predict: the students' knowledge about the background of the material; intonation; and semantic markers
	Lesson Two	V. 1. Film Editing 2.A Vision of the Future VI. 1. American Indians 2. New Australians VII. 1. Learning to Predict 2. Dictation IV. Introduction of American Indians	
	Lesson Three	III. 1. I Don't See It That Way 2. Marriage Customs IV. 1. At the Dentist's 2. Hiccups V. 1. Learning to Predict 2. Dictation IV. Introduction of Marriage	
Week Three & Four	Lesson Four	 I. 1. Weather Forecast 2. The 5 O' Clock News II. 1. What Do You Like for Entertainment? 2. Are You a Heavy Smoker? III. 1. Learning to Predict 2. Dictation IV. Introduction of Smoking and Health 	

	Lesson Five	I. 1. An Unpleasant Trip	
		2. At the Travel Agency	
		II. A Saturday Afternoon	
		III. 1. Learning to Predict	
		2. Dictation	
	Lesson Six	I. 1. In the Path of the	
		Earthquake	
		2. A Funny Thing Happened	
		to Me	
		II. Consolidation: A	
		Very Beautiful Story	
		III. 1. Learning to	
		Predict	
		2. Dictation	
		IV. Enjoy Your English	
Week Five & Six	Lesson	I. 1. Learning a Foreign	Lesson seven to twelve are
	Seven	Language	designed to train students for the
		2. In the Library	skill of rephrasing sentences for
		II. 1. United World Colleges	note-taking. Some techniques
		2. I Remember	are introduced
		III.1. Study Skills: Learning	
		to Rephrase	
		2. Dictation	
		IV. Introduction of Credit	
		Card	
	Lesson Eight	I. 1. Twins	
		2. Genetic Make-up	
		II. 1. Can I Take a	
		Message?	
		2. Night Flight	
		III. 1. Learning to	
		Rephrase 2. Dictation IV. Introduction of Multiple Birth	

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			Lesson Nine	I. Willing to Train	
				II.1. How Do Others Think	
				of My Job?	
				2. Job Stereotypes	
				III. 1. Learning to Rephrase	
				2. Dictation	
				IV. Introduction of Barter	
Week	Seven	&	Lesson Ten	I. 1. News Summary I	
Eight				2. News Summary II	
				II. 1. British Newspapers	
				2. Eccentricity	
				III. 1. Learning to Rephrase	
				2. Dictation	
			Lesson Eleven	I. 1. A Way of Life	
				2. Do It Yourself	
				II. My first Job	
				III. 1. Learning to Rephrase	
				2. Dictation	
				IV. Introduction of Landsat	
				System Update	
			Lesson Twelve	IV. Dustbin Day Robbery	
				V. 1. Crime	
				2. Shop-Lifter	
				VI. 1. Learning to Rephrase	
				2. Dictation	
				VII. Enjoy Your English	
				VIII.Introduction of	
				Discovering the Anasazi	

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Week Nine &	Lesson	IV. 1. Guess What People	T 1 6 11.
Ten	Thirteen	Are Talking About	In lessons from thirteen to
		2.Nice to See You!	Eighteen, the students will learn
		V. 1. What Do You Like	how to recognize the main idea
		About Your Job?	for notetaking.
		2. What Do You Think of	
		Yourself?	
		VI. Study Skills	
		Recognizing the Main Idea	
	Lesson	I. News Summary	
	Fourteen	II.1. Bearded Lady	
		2. At a Youth Centre	
		III. Recognizing the Main	
		Idea	
	Lesson Fifteen	V. 1.Capital Punishment	
Week Eleven &		2. A New Way of Life	
Twelve		VI. 1. The Work of	
1 Weive		Sigmund Freud	
		2. Cheese	
		III. Recognizing the Main	
	I G. (Idea	
	Lesson Sixteen	I. Men and Women	
		II.1. The Suffragette	
		Movement	
		2. Sex Discrimination	
		III. Recognizing the Main	
		Idea	
		IV. Introduction of suffrage	
	Lesson	I. 1. News in Brief	
	Seventeen	2. Old Age and Health	
		II.1. At a Small Restaurant	
		2. The Tree Climbers of	
		Pompeii	
		III. Recognizing the Main	
		Idea	
Week Thirteen and	Lesson	I. Energy Crisis	
Fourteen	Eighteen	II.1. The Years to Come (1)	
		2. The Years to Come (II)	
		III. Recognizing the Main	
		Idea	
		IV. Enjoy Your English	

	Lesson	I. 1. Estate Agent	
	Nineteen	2. Jazz Singer	In lessons from nineteen to
		II.1. Setting Up a Home	Twenty-three, the students will
		Computer	learn how to recognize the main
		2. My Computer Makes Me	ideas and supporting details, and
		Sick	how to using abbreviations for
		VII. Study Skills	shorthand notetaking. Some
		Main Ideas and Supporting	abbreviations will be studies.
		Details	Kinds of abbreviations: field
	Lesson	I. 1. Fixing an Appointment	abbreviations, commonly
	Twenty	2. Last of the Airships?	understood abbreviations, and
		II. 1. Looking for a Flat	personal abbreviations
		2. Moving In	
		III. Main Ideas and	
		Supporting Details	
		IV. Introduction of airship	
Week Fifteen and	Lesson Twenty	I. 1. Talking About	
Sixteen	One	Television	
		2. Games	
		II. Olympics	
		III. Main Ideas and	
		Supporting Details	
		IV. Introduction of Tennis	
	Lesson Twenty	IV. Class in Britain and	
	Two	America	
		V. 1. Autobiography:	
		Seminole Girl (I)	
		2. Autobiography: Seminole	
		Girl (II_	
		III. Main Ideas and	
		Supporting Details	
	Lesson Twenty	I. 1. Finding a Job	
	Three	2. Hypnosis	
		II. Getting a Job	
		III. Main Ideas and	
		Supporting Details	

The second semester

Week one	Lesson Twenty Four	I. 1. I. Q. Tests 2. Why Is It Good for Children to Read? II. 1. What Is a Koto? (I) 2. What Is a Koto? (II) VI. Main Ideas and Supporting Details VII. Enjoy Your English	The students will continue to study the skills of notetaking. On the basis of the skills learn in the first semester, the students will be required to focus on the training for the skill of outlining in this semester. Some techniques will be introduced.
Week Two	Lesson Twenty	I. The Lucky Story of the	A 4.4% - n = 11-
	Five	Holiday Money II. 1. Parking in London 2. Mummy Dust III. Study Skills Outlining – the Standard Topic Outline Form	Additionally, some supplementary materials will be provided in class to prepare the students for the national exam.
Week Three	Lesson Twenty	I. Sport in Britain	
week Tillee	Six Six	II. 1. A Post-Industrial Society (I) 2. A Post- Industrial Society (II) III. Outlining – the Standard Topic Outline Form	
Week Four & Five	Lesson Twenty	I. Holistic Medicine	
	Seven	 II.I. Psychology of Clothes 2. fashion Model III. Outlining – the Standard Topic Outline Form 	
	Supplementary		
	materials		
Week Six & Seven	Lesson Twenty Eight	I. Interviews II.News Report: Election Review III. Outlining—the Standard Topic Outline Form	
	Supplementary materials		
Week Eight & Nine	Lesson Twenty	I. The Sad Life of an Old	
2.5.1.2.2.2.5.1.0.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1	Nine	Man II. News Report: A New Victim in LA III. Outlining – the	
		Standard Topic Outline Form	

	Ι		
	Supplementary		
	materials		
Week Ten	Lesson Thirty	I. An alarming Experience	
		on the Road	
		II. News Report: Air	
		Controllers Removed from	
		Job for Drug Use	
		III. Outlining – the	
		Standard Topic Outline Form	
		IV. Enjoy Your English	
Week Eleven	Lesson Thirty	I. Graphology	
	One	II.News Report: Smoking	
		Harms Baby During	
		Pregnancy	
		III. Outlining	
Week Twelve	Lesson	How to Keep Fit	
	thirty-two	New Report: Neo-Nazi	
		Outlining	
Week Thirteen	Lesson Thirty	I. A Coincidence in New	
	Three	York	
		II. News Report: Election in	
		Mexico	
		III.Outlining	
Week Fourteen	Lesson Thirty	I. Interpreting Hands	
	Four	II.News Report:	
		Negotiations in the	
		Philippines	
		III. Outlining	
Week Fifteen	Lesson Thirty	I. The Unfortunate Story of	
	Five	the Lost Money	
		II.News Report: Drive-in	
		Theatres in Trouble	
		III. Outlining	
Week Sixteen	Lesson Thirty	I. Home Computers	
	Six	II.News Report: Miami Has	
		Become a Dangerous Place	
		III. Outlining	
		IV. Enjoy Your English	

《英语口语(一)(二)(三)(四)》 教学大纲

吴康平 编写

目 录

前 言			133
		概述	
	Ξ,	课程教学目的和基本要求	133
	三、	课程主要内容及学时分配	133
	四、	相关教学环节	133
		参考书目	
Chapte	er I	Introduction	135
Chapte	er	II Introduction	139
Chapte	er]	III Introduction	143
Chapte	er i	IV Introduction	147

前言

一、概述

口语为外国语学院一、二年级学生的专业必修课。

口语是英语学习中一项十分重要的功能,为让学生了解各个不同话题的表达,并由浅入深地提高口语能力,特制定此大纲指导课堂教学工作,使学生能够分阶段有系统地提高口语能力。作为一门单项技能训练课,口语课的任务是让学生在课堂上开口自己讲英语,教师主要组织活动,辅导训练。因而课程主要围绕学生课堂上和课堂下的练习展开。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

口语课程的教学目的包括:

- 1、培养学生良好的口头表达习惯;
- 2、提高口头表达和交际能力;
- 3、加深他们对英、美国家政治、经济、文化各方面的了解和认识;
- 4、学生能够在一般的社交场合与英语国家人士进行交谈,表达思想,能够做到语音语调自然,

无重大语法错误,语言基本得体。

口语课程教学基本要求包括:

- 1. 能利用已掌握的英语比较清楚地表达自己的思想,在遇到想不起的单词或没有把握的结构时能用交际策略绕过难点达到交际的目的。
- 2. 能准确掌握诸如询问、请求、建议、忠告等交际功能。在不同的场合,对不同的人用恰当、 得体的语言形式去体现不同的交际功能。
 - 3. 逐步达到英语口头表达方面准确与流利的结合;语音、语调流畅、自然。 能系统、深入、连贯地发表自己的见解;能与外宾进行流利而得体的交流。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程教学安排为两学年,分四个学期。第一学年着重培养学生在日常生活中的交际能力和叙

述能力。第二学年着重培养学生就社会生活话题进行交谈和连贯表达的能力。

本课程共128学时。分四个学期开设,每学期周学时为2。

四、相关教学环节

主要教学形式:

本着系统性、整体性、层次性、目的性和开放性的原则,在教学中采用教师为主导、学生为主

体的教学模式,注重,培养学生的系统思维能力和实际解决问题的能力,采用启发式、讨论式、发现式和研究式的教学方法,充分调动学生的积极性,发挥学生的能动性和创造性。充分利用现代化的教学手段,开发新的教学资源,最大限度地提高教学效率和效果。

另外,提供视听材料,通过"视"、"听"、"说"的结合,以直接画面和情节内容为基础展开有针对性的口语训练,运用复述、总结、对话、口头概述、即席演讲等活动形式,提高口头表达能力。

- 1. 表达模式: 通过简短的对话展示语言功能的不同表达方式;
- 2. 口语技能训练: 通过大量的口语技能训练和语言实践活动,巩固和扩展所学语言功能的常用句型,强化交际技能;
- 3. 话题讨论: 通过对不同话题的讨论加深对英、美等主要英语国家文化背景和生活习俗的了解, 学会在具体语境中进行正确得体的交际。

课外活动:

为体验真实交际的语言环境,要采取多种措施克服不利条件,创造"虚拟"语言环境。引导学生 开展丰富多彩的英语课外活动,以便提高学生参加口语练习的兴趣和积极性。具体做法有:

(1) 组织英语角

去英语角的人通常互不熟悉各自的情况,在英语角学生容易克服心理障碍。

(2) 帮助学生结成交谈对子或学习小组

鼓励学生找一个或多个和自己英语水平差不多的同学结成对子或学习小组,进行日常对话、复述各人看过的故事、广播中听到的新闻等。

(3) 组织英语演讲、英语晚会

通过朗读比赛、讲故事比赛、歌曲演唱会、演讲比赛等多种活动,使学生有更多的运用英语的机会,提高学生开口说英语的兴趣。

五、参考书目

吴福祯(1993),《英语初级口语》。外语教学与研究出版社。

吴福祯(1993),《英语中级口语》。外语教学与研究出版社。

吴福祯(1993),《英语高级口语》。外语教学与研究出版社。

Chapter I Introduction

In the semester, students are required to make simple dialogues by using simple words. They are going to read and listen to some materials about the daily life. They are required to develop the ability of retelling them and answer the questions on the reading materials. The reading materials are about dinner, holidays, parties, invitation, communication, movies, shopping, hospital and travel, etc. Attention should be paid to their pronunciation, intonation and grammar.

32 teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Week 1

Topic:

Age; Going to see a doctor; Birthday party

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 2

Topic:

In a shop; Asking one's way

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 3

Topic:

Summer plans; How to make others happy?

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Topic:

Sports; Diet

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 5

Topic:

Beautiful clothes; How to take a bus?

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 6

Topic:

Visiting a historical site; Description of a person or a thing

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 7

Topic:

Gift; A car

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 8

Topic:

Receiving a mail; Running a restaurant

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.

- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Topic:

School life; Holidays

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 10

Topic:

A good lesson to teach; Honesty

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 11

Topic:

People's Routine life; Trying to find one's way

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 12

Topic:

At a barber's; At Christmas time

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 13

Topic:

Baby-sitter; Dinner

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 14

Topic:

A shopping list; Behavior in the public area

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 15

Topic:

Sandwiches; Party

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Discussion

Week 16

In class final Examination

Chapter II Introduction

In this semester, students are required to make simple dialogues of their own. After doing some preparation, they should make short presentation about the familiar topics in their daily life.

32 teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Week 1

Topic:

Friendship and love

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on the following topic: Friendship or Love

Week 2

Topic:

The relationship between parents and children

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on the following topic: My Parents

Week 3

Topic:

Social Morality

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on My Idea about People's Manner in the Public

Week 4

Topic:

Friendship

Exercises:

I. Answer the questions on the texts.

- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on How to Communicate with Others?

Topic:

Personality

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on Personality and Life

Week 6

Topic:

Living styles

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on The Living Styles I Like.

Week 7

Topic:

Hobbies and interests

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on My Hobby

Week 8

Topic:

Experiences

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on How to Face a Failure?

Week 9

Topic:

Sports

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on My Favorite Sport

Week 10

Topic:

Part-time job

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on My View on Students' Part-time Job

Week 11

Topic:

Study Methods

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on How to Study Efficiently

Week 12

Topic:

Health

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on Doing Morning Exercises

Week 13

Topic:

Transportation

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on the Public Transportation of Beijing

Topic:

School Library

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on How to Make Full Use of the Library

Week 15

Topic:

Vacation

Exercises:

- I. Answer the questions on the texts.
- II. Describe the picture in the Text with the help of the given words and expressions.
- III. Retell the story of the text.
- IV. Presentation on My Plan for the Summer Vacation

Week 16

In-class final Examination

Chapter III Introduction

In this semester, students are required to make simple dialogues of their own. After doing some preparation, they should be able to make short presentation about the familiar topics in their daily life and do some discussion

	presentation about the familiar topics in their daily life and do some discussion
	on the social problems.
	32 teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.
Week	1

Week 1

Topic:

Watching TV

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: My Idea about Watching TV

Week 2

Topic:

Pets

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Are Pets Good for Mankind?

Week 3

Topic:

Going abroad

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: What is the Best Way to Improve Yourselves?

Week 4

Topic:

Criticism

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Is Criticism Good to People?

Topic:

Examinations

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Are Examinations Necessary?

Week 6

Topic:

Population

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Is It Good to Control Population growth?

Week 7

Topic:

Book Knowledge

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Should Students only Learn from Books?

Week 8

Topic:

Tourism

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: How to Develop Tourism?

Week 9

Topic:

Work to Live or Live to Work?

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: My Opinion on Work to Live

Week 10

Topic:

Who Knows Best: the older generation or the younger generation?

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Who Knows Best?

Week 11

Topic:

Smoking

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Should Smoking be Prohibited?

Week 12

Topic:

Money

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Is Money the most Important Thing the Life?

Week 13

Topic:

Relationship between Men and Women

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Should Men and Women be Treated Equally?

Week 14

Topic:

Private Cars

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Should Private Cars be Restricted?

Week 15

Topic:

Marriage

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important language points.
- II. Make a summary of the text by using the chosen language points.
- III. Presentation on the following topic: Is Romantic Love the Most Important for Marriage?

Week 16

In-class final Examination

Chapter IV Introduction

In this semester, students are required to make short presentation about the familiar topics in their daily life, and social phenomena, after preparation. Students should be able to communicate with the native speakers of English. Their ideas should be properly expressed in English. Their ability to agree or

disagree with other people's opinions should be developed.
32 teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.
Week 1
Topic:
Where to Live?
Exercises:
I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
III. Make an argument about the topic: Living in City or in Countryside
Week 2
Topic:
Fashion
Exercises:
I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
III. Make an argument about the topic: Does Fashion Contribute to the Society?

Week 3

Topic:

Divorce

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
- III. Make an argument about the topic: Does Divorce Represent Social Progress?

Week 4

Topic:

Domestic Violence

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.

III. Make an argument about the topic: Whose Is Responsible for Domestic Violence?

Week 5

Topic:

Capital Punishment

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
- III. Make an argument about the topic: Should Capital Punishment be a Major Deterrent to Crime?

Week 6

Topic:

Advertisement

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
- III. Make an argument about the topic: Advertisements: Positive or Negative Role

Week 7

Topic:

Love Affairs on Campus

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
- III. Make an argument about the topic: The Influence of Love Affairs on College Students

Week 8

Topic:

Computer Games

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
- III. Make an argument about the topic: My Idea about Computer Games

Week 9

Topic:

Environment

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
- III. Make an argument about the topic: Environment Decides Our Future

Week 10

Topic:

Employment

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
- III. Make an argument about the topic: Which one to choose: a job you like or a job with a good pay?

Week 11

Topic:

How to Ask Questions?

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
- III. Make a presentation.

Week 12

Topic:

How to Answer Questions?

Exercises:

- I. Read the text and underline the important expressions.
- II. Make a summary about the text by using the expressions.
- III. Make a presentation.

Week 13

Topic:

Mock Trial

Exercises:

- I. Read the case.
- II. Discuss the case in groups.

Week 14

Topic:

Mock Trial

Exercises:

- I. Playing Roles
- II. Rehearse the trial.

Week 15

Topic:

Mock Trial

Week 16

In-class final Examination

《英语阅读(一)(二)》教学大纲

王增森 编写

目 录

前 言	153
一、概述	
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	153
三、 课程主要内容及学时分配	154
Unit One The Belated Father	155
Unit Two The Antislavery Movement	156
Unit Three God in the Door Way	157
Unit Four Laughing in English	158
Unit Five The Sounds of the City	159
Unit Six Eye Contact	160
Unit Seven The End of the Road	161
Unit Eight Bill Gates: the Henry Ford of the PC Industry	162
Unit Nine Shame	163
Unit Ten When Bright Girls Decide That Math is "a Waste of Time"	164
Unit Eleven The Face of Homelessness: An Official Report	165
Unit Twelve Fear of Dearth	166
Unit thirteen Why We Really Watch Made-for-TV Movies	167
Unit Fourteen The Future of Reading	168
Unit Fifteen The Media's Image of Arabs	169
Unit Sixteen Leaving Home for Carlesle Indian School	

前言

一、概述

英语泛读是是英语专业学生的一门专业基础课。英语阅读主要是评析等方面的能力,扩大词汇量,拓宽知识面,吸取广泛的信息,提高思想和文化素养;了解和掌握阅读中的理论和技巧,培养学生的语言能力,并灵活运用各种技巧和能力进行各种形式的阅读,如事实性阅读,评判性阅读,鉴赏性阅读以及快速阅读等。提高阅读速度,增强语感,培养阅读兴趣。通过学习,使学生有机会通过大量阅读实践,逐步掌握所学的阅读技巧,全面提高阅读理解能力。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

1. 提高阅读能力

英语专业本科生应当获得怎样的阅读能力?

- 1) 每分钟 200 左右单词的阅读速度;
- 2) 短文章看完后都能立刻总结归纳出主题思想,长文章或书籍在阅读完后能够简洁、准确地 用自己的语言写出概要。
 - 2. 扩充知识面

合格的英语专业本科生应该大体阅读完毕英美文学经典名著,并广泛涉猎法律、经济、理工等 各类学科。能在规定时间内准确理解英语原文,会欣赏,能使用,并有至少200万的阅读量。

3. 课堂上强化短时间阅读的效率:

提高学生的阅读速度,增加学生在短时间内获取的信息量,必须经过强化训练。

泛读课的基本目的,就应该是提高学生的阅读速度。没有相当速度保证的阅读,是低效率的。 低效率的阅读,是失败的阅读。

为实现提高速度这一目标,应该强制学生在短时间内完成阅读一定量的文字。并通过表扬先进,激励后进的方法,使先进学生尽力提高,后进学生知耻奋进。

4. 课外保证较大的阅读量

大一第一学期的新生,每月至少阅读 10 万单词,应该是个比较理想的阅读量;大一第二学期的学生,每月至少阅读 20 万单词,应该是个比较理想的阅读量。

5. 学生课上总结所读内容

重视学生当堂总结能力的培养是提高学生阅读时选择重点的一个重要方法。让学生总结所读内容的大体框架,指出最吸引他/她的地方,并向同学推荐。

6. 课上课下交流,互相帮助,互相提高

学生课上总结所读内容时,要求其他学生注意听讲,一方面记下讲话人所讲书名、作者、内容,以便于课后借阅,另一方面,通过别人的讲述,对所讲述的书或文章有一个粗略了解,同时,注意讲话人的表达,在讲话人讲完之后,由其他学生点评,帮助讲话人提高总结能力和讲话能力。

纲举目张。确定目标和实现方法,具体的实施则无需详细规定。所以,选用什么教材,并不是 至关重要。

仅以上海上海交通大学出版的《高级英语阅读教程》教材所选文章为工具,具体说明教学方法。

三、 课程主要内容及学时分配

每课由学生自己讲述所读内容加上老师和学生的点评、从教材所选优秀文章一篇后由学生阅读然后师生共同分析(学生第一学期只分析文章的主题思想——main idea,第二学期分析文章的主题思想和写作技巧——main idea + writing skills)与点评两大部分组成。学生讲述和师生分析点评占一节,阅读文章并分析点评占一节。

Unit One The Belated Father

1. Writing style

An interesting story as introduction + a brief summary of a phenomenon + a new trend against the old tradition

2. Main idea

Traditional fathers are always busy and not good at "fathering", while the new generation of fathers in modern society aspires to be "working fathers"—good at both work and fathering.

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Two The Antislavery Movement

1. Writing style

A striking event + the hero of the event (advocate of antislavery movement) + background and events of the movement + the other advocate

2. Main idea

In the 1800s, American blacks strived for freedom under the encouragement and advocation of activists against the oppression of South whites

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces like The Little Woman and Gone with the Wind

Unit Three God in the Door Way

1. Writing style

A thrilling story of Santa Claus as introduction + "I" was afraid of Santa Claus for "He is god" but "I" had done bad things + "we" were afraid between the two worlds in Israel when love came for what reasons?

2. Main idea

As we have done bad things, we are afraid of God.

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces like The Bible

Unit Four Laughing in English

1. Writing style

The wrong way of English teaching in Japan + try a different way of bringing students into the American style of learning English and expressing ideas by nearing the cultural gaps.

2. Main idea

Learn a foreign language in the foreign way.

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Five The Sounds of the City

1. Writing style

Comparison of New Yorkers and visitors in terms of their senses of sounds from night to day time.

2. Main idea

Various sounds in big cities like New York

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Six Eye Contact

1. Writing style

An interesting story as introduction + different cultures have different understandings + a new trend in Western Culture

2. Main idea

Different cultures and subcultures have different understandings of eye contact

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Seven The End of the Road

1. Writing style

Description of personal experience to enhance credibility + analysis of opposite ideas + draw conclusions and then give supporting arguments

2. Main idea

Travel can help people see scenes, understand others and reduce misconceptions, and understand ourselves.

3. Words and expressions

The word of "end" here means "purpose", and "road" here means "travel". The author plays paronomasia on his readers.

4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Eight Bill Gates: the Henry Ford of the PC Industry

1. Writing style

The author describes Bill Gates' characteristics through a comparison between Bill and Henry Ford by pointing out their common features.

2. Main idea

The reasons for the success of Bill Gates (Why Bill is called the Henry Ford of the PC Industry)

- Both of them are technically gifted, self-centered, eccentric, ahead of their times and took advantage of that.
 - Determination to do the business in a long term
 - Both love yes men and women but quickly correct their mistakes
 - 3. Words and expressions

The word of "end" here means "purpose", and "road" here means "travel". The author plays paronomasia on his readers.

4. Extra reading: Biographies about Bill Gates and Henry Ford

Unit Nine Shame

1. Writing style

Unexpected ending -the end of the story echoes the beginning.

2. Main idea

How did a black kid lose his face before his beloved girl and feel ashamed.

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Ten When Bright Girls Decide That Math is "a Waste of Time"

1. Writing style

Begins the article with an interesting story as introduction + a phenomenon or problem and its reasons + proposed solution

2. Main idea

The reasons for girls to give up math as a social phenomenon and the solution of the problem.

- Social stereotypes
- Their own conceptions
- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Eleven The Face of Homelessness: An Official Report

1. Writing style

Social phenomenon + analysis of the reasons + solution of the problem

2. Main idea

The reasons for the ever increasingly more serious problem of homelessness and proposed solution of the problem.

- Crisis poverty
- Chronic disabilities
- Unsatisfactory homelessness release efforts
- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Twelve Fear of Dearth

1. Writing style

Strong sentimental words to arouse readers' interest + analysis of reasons for people's enthusiasm for jogging + surprising ending

2. Main idea

The real reason for people to choose to jog in my heart is penance.

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit thirteen Why We Really Watch Made-for-TV Movies

1. Writing style

Pull in the readers with talking with readers' life + analysis of reasons for people to love watching TV movies

2. Main idea

The reasons for people to love watching made-for-TV movies.

- Stories beyond the watchers' reach
- Hit close to home to the watchers
- The movies are attention-arousing in a very short time
- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Fourteen The Future of Reading

1. Writing style

Cite the figures of a serious problem, illiteracy rate, as introduction + the problem before the arts of reading + analysis the categories of reading styles + the future reading style

2. Main idea

Traditional arts of reading are confronted with problems under the new trend and how the future reading would be.

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Fifteen The Media's Image of Arabs

1. Writing style

Ugly stereotypes of Arabs and personal experience to attract the readers' attention

2. Main idea

The media have long been accustomed to describing Arabs as ugly creatures.

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

Unit Sixteen Leaving Home for Carlesle Indian School

1. Writing style

Citing a special depicted scene as introduction to the description of the miserable life of Indian kids in the boarding school + further personal experience

2. Main idea

The former boarding school system had very negative effect on the mind of Indian native kids.

- 3. Words and expressions
- 4. Extra reading: Original Classics and masterpieces

《英语阅读(三)、(四)》教学大纲

张立新 编写

目 录

前 言	173
一、概述	173
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	173
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	
Unit One Roger and Molly	
Unit Two: The Roots of My Ambition	
Unit Three: New Technologies	
Unit Four : Dream Children: A Reverie	
Unit Five : The Million-Pound Note	
Unit Six : Jyre Eyre	
Unit Seven : Inaugural Address	
Unit Eight : In My Day	
Unit Nine : Those Crazy Ideas	192
Unit Ten : Jeff Peters as a personal Magnet	193
Unit Eleven : I Have a Dream	195
Unit Twelve : Leeds Trams	197
Unit Thirteen :Between Two Worlds	198
Unit Fourteen :Father Sews on a Button	199
Unit Sixteen; Another American Tragedy	201
英语阅读(四) Unit One What Life Means to Me	202
Unit Two What Life Means to Me (II)	203
Unit Three Why I Write	204
Unit Four Playhouse Memoranda	205
Unit Five Two Casts of Mind	206
Unit Six The Black and White Truth about Basketball	207
Unit Seven Araby	209
Unit Eight How should One Read a Book	210
Unit Nine Impressions of America	211
Unit Ten On Going a Journey	212
Unit Eleven Long Walk to Forever	213
Unit Twelve Grant and Lee	214
Unit Thirteen A Modest Proposal	215
Unit Fourteen So Long, So Long!	216
Unit Fifteen If I were a Freshman Again	217

前言

一、概述

英语阅读是是英语专业学生的一门专业基础课。教材采用上海交通大学出版的《高级英语阅读 教程》上册和中册。针对阅读课教学的自身特点,课堂教学应贯穿以学生为主体、教师为主导的教学模式。在讲解阅读技巧的同时应辅以大量的阅读实践,在大量的阅读过程中体会并掌握各种阅读方法,达到逐渐提高阅读理解能力与阅读速度的目的。在加强训练的同时,采用启发式、讨论式、发现式和研究式的教学方法,充分调动学生学习的积极性,激发学生的学习动机,最大限度地让学生参与学习的全过程。指导学生利用现有图书资料和网上信息获取知识。通过大量系统的阅读培养和提高学生的阅读理解、评析等方面的能力,扩大词汇量,拓宽知识面,吸取广泛的信息,提高思想和文化素养;了解和掌握阅读中的理论和技巧,培养学生的语言能力,并灵活运用各种技巧和能力进行各种形式的阅读,如事实性阅读,评判性阅读,鉴赏性阅读以及快速阅读等。提高阅读速度,增强语感,培养阅读兴趣。通过学习,使学生有机会通过大量阅读实践,逐步掌握所学的阅读技巧,全面提高阅读理解能力,扩大词汇量,拓宽知识面,吸取广泛的信息,提高思想和文化素养。课堂教学应贯穿以学生为主体、教师为主导的教学模式。在讲解阅读技巧的同时应辅以大量的阅读实践,在大量的阅读过程中体会并掌握各种阅读方法,达到逐渐提高阅读理解能力与阅读速度的目的。在加强训练的同时,采用启发式、讨论式、发现式和研究式的教学方法,充分调动学生学习的积极性,激发学生的主动性。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

以教材为主,通过题材广泛、体裁多样、知识性与趣味性并重的阅读材料,培养阅读技能及良好的阅读习惯,扩充词汇量,提高阅读速度与理解能力,拓宽知识面,逐步掌握篇章概括方法,全面提高阅读能力。讲练结合,阅读难度相当于大学四级的英文材料,理解大意,领会要点并掌握有关细节,根据上下文和构词法知识推测和判断词义,拓宽阅读面,扩大阅读量,配合精读,逐步培养学生在阅读过程中的分析、归纳、综合和推断的能力,着重篇章结构分析、大意理解和概括,并为进一步提高专业英语水平打下一定的基础。能基本阅读英语国家报刊杂志的一般性题材的文章,阅读速度达到每分钟 80 词,在快速阅读篇幅较长的材料时,阅读速度达到每分钟 120 词,能在阅读材料时进行寻读或略读。能够基本读懂自己专业方面的综述性文献,并能正确理解中心大意,抓住主要事实和有关细节。通过本课程的学习,使学生逐步掌握基本的阅读技能,扩大词汇量,提高阅读速度和阅读理解能力。英语阅读课的目的在于培养学生的英语阅读能力和提高学生的阅读速度;培养学生细致观察语言的能力以及假设判断、分析归纳、推理检验等逻辑思维能力;提高学生的阅读技能,包括略读、寻读、细读、评读等能力;并通过阅读训练帮助学生扩大词汇量,增强语感,不断积累各种语言知识,加深文化沉淀。

泛读(二)属基础阶段教学,为二年级的必修课。原则上为一年,既二个学期。

课程要求学生掌握以下几方面的内容:

- (1) 基本的阅读与理解技巧(猜测词义、找段落及文章主题句、文章题材分析、文章写作手法分析、难句理解、推断作者的立场及态度等)。
 - (2) 必要的背景知识。
- (3) 就阅读材料的内容进行讨论,勤于思考,善于总结,并能掌握所读材料的主要内容和中心思想。

- (4) 逐步提高对各种体裁的快速阅读能力(计时性阅读)。
- (5) 通过阅读课的学习,认知词汇达到 2,500--4,000(其中含中学已学 2,000 个),正确而熟练地使用其中的 1,500--2,000 个及其最基本的搭配。

作业可以采用读书报告,读后感,文章改写与缩写,翻译、回答问题等形式。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

每课由课文 $A(TEXT\ A)$ 、课文 $B(TEXT\ B)$ 、练习三大部分组成。本环节重点为课文 $A(TEXT\ A)$:

Warm up

Text explanation

Vocabulary Study

First Semester

Quiz

课文 B(TEXT B)和练习(More Work on the Text)为学生自学,教师统一课堂答疑解决学生学习问题。

4 学时

本课程共分为两个学期完成,每周四学时,第一学期、第二学期分别为72学时

英语阅读(三)	
Unit One	4 学时
Roger and Molly	
Unit Two	4 学时
The roots of My Ambition	
Unit Three	4 学时
New Technologies	
Unit Four	4 学时
Dream Children: A Reverie	
Unit Five	4 学时
The Million-Pond Note	
Unit Six	4 学时
Jane Eyre	
Unit Seven	4 学时
Inaugural Address	
Unit Eight	4 学时
In My Day	
Unit Nine	4 学时
Those Crazy Ideas	
Unit Eleven	4 学时
I Have a Dream	
Unit Twelve	4 学时
Leeds Trams	
Unit Thirteen	4 学时
Between Two Worlds	

Unit Fourteen

Father Sews on a Button	
Unit Fifteen	4 学时
The Ponds	
Unit Sixteen	4 学时
Another American Tragedy	
Review	8 学时
Second Semester	
ф m.	
中册 Unit One	4 学时
	4 子門
What Life Means to Me(1) Unit Two	4 学时
	4 子門
What Life Means to Me(2)	4 学时
Unit Three	4 字的
Why I Write	4 24 n. l
Unit Four	4 学时
Playhouse Memoranda	4 24 n.t
Unit Five	4 学时
Two Casts of Mind	4 24 11.1
Unit Six	4 学时
The Black and White about Basketball	4 24 n.t
Unit Seven	4 学时
Araby	4 <u>24 n.t.</u>
Unit Eight	4 学时
How Should One Read a Book	4 <u>24 n.t.</u>
Unit Nine	4 学时
Impressions of America	4 244 rs. k
Unit Eleven	4 学时
On Walk to Forever	4 MARL
Unit Twelve	4 学时
Grant and Lee	4 MARL
Unit Thirteen	4 学时
A Modest Proposal	4 MARL
Unit Fourteen	4 学时
So Long, So Long	₄ ∆VZ.ne.J:
Unit Fifteen	4 学时
If I Were a Freshman Again	, M2 = 1
Unit Sixteen	4 学时
The Villain In the Atmosphere	
Review	8 学时

Unit One Roger and Molly

1. About the author:

Elizabeth Gaskell 1810-1865. Elizabeth Gaskell was born in 1810 as Elizabeth Stevenson to a former Unitarian(一神论者) minister as his youngest daughter in London in 1810. After the loss of her mother at the age of one, she was brought up by her aunt, Hannah Lamb, who lived in Knutsford, a country town in the suburb of Manchester.

Elizabeth shared her father's religious beliefs and attended the local Unitarian chapel (教堂) and taught Sunday School. At the age of eighteen, Elizabeth's brother, John Stevenson was lost at sea. The news devastated her father and he went into a deep depression that he would never awake from. Elizabeth returned to her father's household in London where she nursed him until his death in 1829.

A distant relative, William Turner, a Unitarian minister in Newcastle, invited Elizabeth to live with his family. Elizabeth's was deeply influenced by Turner's religious beliefs and charitable works. On a visit to Turner's daughter, who lived in Manchester, Elizabeth met William Gaskell, a minister at their local Unitarian chapel. They quickly developed a close friendship and were married on August 30th, 1832.

Most of William Gaskell's parishioners(教区居民) were textile workers and Elizabeth was deeply shocked by the poverty she witnessed in Manchester. Elizabeth, like her husband, became involved in various charity work in the city.

At the age of thirty-four, she lost her nine-month-old son. Mary Barton (1848), which was written in the effort to forget her grief, marked her debutdebut[]n.v.初次登场, 开张 as a novelist. The novel also served to address key social issues such as urban poverty, Chartism and the emerging trade union movement. Gaskell's novel shocked Victorian society, however it was greatly admired by other writers and she began to associate with <u>Charles Dickens</u>, W. M. Thackeray, <u>Charlotte Bronte</u>, and <u>George Eliot</u>. Dickens was so impressed that he arranged for Gaskell's next novel, Cranford, to be serialized in his journal, Household Words (1851-1853).

Gaskell would write 48 more works including Ruth (1853), North and South (1855), Sylvia's Lovers (1863), Wives and Daughters(1866), and approximately forty shorter fictions such as Cranford (1853) and Cousin Phillis (1863). In her books Gaskell expressed a deep sympathy for the poor and suggested the need for large-scale social reform. Gaskell also wrote an acclaimed biography of <u>Charlotte Bronte</u>. This also created controversy and some allegedly 依其申述 libellous 损害名誉的 statements involving Charlotte's brother Bramwell had to be removed before The Life of <u>Charlotte Bronte</u>(1857) could be published.

Elizabeth Gaskell passed away suddenly 1865 in the company of her daughters at the age of fifty-five in the country house she purchased in Hampshire.

Wives and Daughters

Novel by Elizabeth Gaskell, first published serially in the Cornhill Magazine (August 1864-January 1866) and then in book form in 1866; it was unfinished at the time of her death in November 1865. Known as her last, longest, and perhaps finest work, it concerns the interlocking 连锁 fortunes of several families in the country town of Hollingford. Wives and Daughters chronicles the maturation 成熟 of Molly Gibson, a sincere young woman whose widowed father, the town doctor, marries Hyacinth Kirkpatrick, a charming but petty 卑鄙的 widow and former governess in the household of Lord Cumnor.

Although Molly resents her stepmother, she befriends her stepsister Cynthia, who is secretly engaged to Lord Cumnor's land agent, Mr. Preston. Molly is warmly received at the home of Squire Hamley and his disabled wife. The Hamleys' two sons are Osborne, a clever but shallow man who marries unwisely and dies young, and Roger, an honest scientist who eventually marries Molly after being engaged to Cynthia, who ultimately weds a London barrister.

Text B.

Willa Cather

Willa Cather was born on December 7, 1873 in Back Creek Valley (a small farming community close to the Blue Ridge Mountains) in Virginia. She was the eldest child of Charles Cather, a deputy Sheriff, and Mary Virginia Boak Cather. The family traces its ancestors to Ireland, from which they settled in Pennsylvania in the 1750's.

In 1883 the Cather family moved to join Willa's grandparents William and Caroline and her uncle George in Webster County, Nebraska. At the time her family included Willa's two brothers Roscoe and Douglass, a sister Jessica and her grandmother Rachel Boak who lived with them. A year later they moved to Red Cloud, a nearby railroad town, where her father opened a loan and insurance office. The family never became rich or influential, and Willa attributed their lack of financial success to her father, whom she claimed placed intellectual and spiritual matters over the commercial. Her mother was a vain woman, mostly concerned with fashion and trying to turn Willa into "a lady", in spite of the fact that Willa defied the norms for girls and cut her hair short and wore trousers. While living in the town Willa met Annie Sadilek, whom she later used for the Antonia character in My Antonia. Many of Willa's characters are inspired by people she met in her youth. Another notable example is Olive Fremstad, an opera singer, who inspired the character Thea Kronborg in The Song of the Lark.

Willa graduated from Red Cloud High School in 1890. She soon moved to the state capitol in Lincoln in order to study for the entrance at the University of Nebraska. At this time Willa was actually interested in studying medicine. In Red Cloud she had spent time with and learned from a local doctor, and she dreamed of becoming a physician. But, when one of Willa's stories for a writing class got published, she discovered a passion for writing had been fermenting within her. In college, Willa spent time editing the school magazine and publishing articles and play reviews in the local papers. In 1892 she published her short story "Peter" in a Boston magazine, a story that later became part of her novel My Antonia. After graduating in 1895, she returned to Red Cloud until she was offered a position editing Home Monthly in Pittsburgh.

While editing the magazine, she wrote short stories to fill its pages. Between 1901 and 1906, Willa worked as a high school English teacher. During this time she wrote the stories that would be published in her first collection, called the Troll Garden (1905). These stories brought her to the attention of S.S. McClure, owner of one of the most widely read magazines of the day. In 1906 Cather moved to New York to join McClure's Magazine, initially as a member of the staff and ultimately as its managing editor. During this time she met Sara Orne Jewett, a woman from Maine who inspired her to later write about Nebraska. In 1912, after five years with McClure's, she left the magazine to have time for her own writing. After the publication of Alexander's Bridge, also in 1912, Cather visited the Southwest where she was fascinated by the Anasazi cliff dwellings.

In 1913 <u>O Pioneers</u> was published and in 1917 she wrote <u>My Antonia</u> while living in New Hampshire. By 1923 she had won the Pulitzer Prize for her One of Ours, and in this year her modernist

book <u>A Lost Lady</u> was published. At the time her novels focused on the destruction of provincial life and the death of the pioneering tradition.

Perhaps overwhelmed by so much success, Cather suffered a period of despair reflected in the darker tones of the novels written during this period. Despite her problems, she wrote some of her greatest novels during this period, such as <u>The Professor's House</u> (1925), My Mortal Enemy (1926), and <u>Death Comes for the Archbishop</u> (1927).

From early on in her career, Cather was blessed not only with widespread popular success, but also with astonishing critical success. Each of her books was met with widespread praise and admiration. This pattern began to change in the 1930s with the advent of Marxist Criticism. Marxist critics suggested that Cather did not understand or show concern for modern social issues, and they made fun of the romanticism which infused her stories. Whether or not Cather was affected by such criticism, these years were made more difficult by the death of her mother, brothers and her good friend Isabelle McClung. Cather maintained an active writing career, publishing novels and short stories for many years until her death on April 24, 1947. At the time of her death, she ordered her letters burned. Though thousands of letters escaped destruction, Cather's will prevents their publication. Willa Cather was buried in New Hampshire; in Red Cloud, the Willa Cather Pioneer Memorial Foundation was created to honor her memory.

My Antonia

First published in 1918, My ?ntonia is a modernist novel. Modernism was a literary movement that began at the very end of the nineteenth century and continued until the end of the 1930s. It reached its peak during the 1920s, and it was characterized by a tone of experimentation. Authors innovated with narrative voice and structure, often foregoing linear plots in favor of more creative forms of narration. There was also a greater emphasis on a character's interiority?his thoughts, motivations, and unique consciousness. While My ?ntonia follows a conventional plot structure (with the exception of the frame narrative of the introduction), it is full of the rich, complex symbols and detailed character development that characterizes the modernist novel.

Modernism was a movement that encompassed both sides of the Atlantic (hence the term Anglo-American modernism). However, My Antonia presents a distinctly American vision of modernism. Often, modernist works evoke a sense of disillusionment with modern society, a feeling of fragmentation and despair at the increasing trends towards industrialization and urbanization. At other times, they present an idealized view of pre-industrialized, still innocent society (a literary trend called primitivism). My ?ntonia follows the second path and offers a vision of the idyllic world of the American West. Although by the time of the novel's publication, the frontier had already been mostly settled, Cather idealizes the American frontier and depicts it as a perfect alternative to the modern, corrupt world that we now live in. Cather glorifies frontier values of independence, hard work, and asceticism, and she implicitly contrasts it to the competition and isolation of modern society. Because Cather praises the country in favor of the city, the novel can also be considered a pastoral novel.

While <u>Willa Cather</u> lived a very discreet life, modern biographers note that her long-time companion was a woman, in what was most likely a lesbian relationship. At the time of the novel's publication, it probably would have been scandalous for her to have written My?ntonia in the voice of a woman. It is interesting to think about the novel in the context of Cather's biography and to consider how it might have been different had she written in a voice closer to her own.

Jim Burden: The narrator of the novel, Jim comes to Nebraska as a young child to live with his grandparents on the frontier. The novel is the story of his relationship with an immigrant girl Ántonia, who he idealizes and admires.

Grandfather: Jim's grandfather is a solemn, kindly man with simple religious beliefs. He has lived on the frontier for ten years when Jim comes to live with him and later moves the family to Black Hawk.

Grandmother: Jim's grandmother is a very generous and tolerant woman, even though she does not always agree with or understand the customs of her Bohemian neighbors.

Ántonia Shimerda: A few years older than Jim, Ántonia arrives with her family in Nebraska at the same time as Jim. She is a strong and independent young girl who is proud to work her family's farm, even though it makes her seem masculine to Jim. After having a child out of wedlock, she stays in the country and remarries, having many children.

Mr. Shimerda: Ántonia's father used to be an educated musician back in his native Bohemia and is unhappy in his new country, where he knows nothing about farming. He loves Ántonia dearly but kills himself in the middle of the family's first winter in America.

Mrs. Shimerda: Ántonia's mother is a boastful and demanding woman, even though her family is poor in America. Her household habits appall Jim's grandmother.

Ambrosch Shimerda: Ántonia's brother is kind of a brute, although his religious piety comes out after his father's suicide. He makes Ántonia work the land and is sometimes stingy about supporting her.

Russian Peter and Pavel: These two bachelors live and work together. They become friends with the Shimerdas because they speak a similar dialect. After Pavel dies and tells a shocking story on his deathbed, Peter is brokenhearted and moves away.

Lena Lingard: One of the "hired girls" (immigrant girls who work for wages in Black Hawk (Lena has a bad reputation when she is growing up. Jim dates her for awhile during college, and afterwards Lena becomes a very successful dressmaker and moves to San Francisco.

Wick Cutter: A very stingy and lecherous man, Wick Cutter hires girls, such as Ántonia, to work in his house and tries to sleep with them. He and his wife fight constantly about money, and he eventually kills her and then himself in order to prevent her from inheriting any money.

Gaston Cleric: Gaston is Jim's instructor and mentor in college, and the two spend a lot of time in conversation. Jim eventually follows Gaston to Harvard to finish his studies. At the end of the novel, Jim mentions in passing that Gaston died of pneumonia.

At the age of ten, <u>Jim Burden</u> travels by cross-country train to live with his grandparents on the Nebraska frontier. He has just recently lost both his parents, and he is accompanied by a farmhand named Jake. On the same train is a Bohemian family that barely speaks English and that is going to the same place. When Jim arrives at the station, he is greeted by Otto Fuchs, an Austrian desperado cowboy.

Jim's grandparents are kindly people with simple religious beliefs and very generous natures. Jim enjoys the wide expanses of the frontier, with all its insects, prairie dogs, and vegetation. At this point in the year it is still summer. Soon the Burdens go to meet their Bohemian neighbors, the Shimerdas, who were forced to pay too much for their farm by the only other Bohemian man in the country, Peter Krajiek. Jim meets Mr. Shimerda, an educated musician who is very kindly; Mrs. Shimerda, a shrewish woman who is complaining and demanding; the oldest son Ambrosch, who is a stubborn, stingy brute; Marek, a mentally challenged boy; and Yulka, a young and pretty girl. The oldest daughter Ántonia also comes running up to him, grabs his hand, and they go sprinting into the fields.

Ántonia and Jim instantly become friends, and they spend a lot of time together outdoors, with Jim teaching her English. The Shimerdas are not doing very well in their new country, but they do become friends with two Russian men, Peter and Pavel. The Burdens try to help out as much as they can. One day during the end of summer, Jim kills a huge snake and impresses Ántonia, who had been treating him with condescension.

Soon, winter comes. Jim gets very sick, and Pavel dies, after unburdening his heart with a horrible story from his past. Mr. Shimerda becomes depressed after Peter moves away. The Burdens celebrate Christmas at home and make presents for each other since they cannot get into town to purchase some. Mr. Shimerda comes to thank the Burdens for his family's gifts and ends up spending the day with them.

In the middle of the biggest snowstorm in ten years, Mr. Shimerda shoots himself after arranging himself neatly in the barn. Jake suspects that Krajiek killed Mr. Shimerda, but nothing is ever proven. The day afterwards, Jim is left in the house by himself, and he senses Mr. Shimerda's spirit resting on his way back to his homeland. The Shimerdas insist that Mr. Shimerda be buried at the corner of their property, where eventually a crossroads will be. The funeral ceremony is very moving though somewhat disorganized.

Afterwards, the Burdens and other neighbors make a concerted effort to help the Shimerdas. Ántonia begins farming in the fields like a man and gives up going to school. Jim is resentful that Ántonia no longer spends as much time with him, and the Burdens and the Shimerdas get into a little feud because of Ambrosch's bad behavior. The Shimerdas do not act very grateful for the help that they receive from their friends. Eventually, however, everyone is reconciled.

After three years in the country, Jim's grandparents move to the town of Black Hawk so that Jim can go to school. Ántonia also comes into town to work for the Harlings in their home. Other immigrant country girls also start working in the town, and they become known as the hired girls. Jim spends a lot of time with Ántonia and the Harling children, who form a happy household. Dancing becomes the craze in Black Hawk, and Ántonia starts going all the time. When the Harlings ask her to stop going because she is getting a bad reputation, Ántonia quits and starts working for Wick Cutter, a notorious philanderer. During this time Jim is antisocial and only spends time with Ántonia and the other hired girls. He studies a lot in preparation for college and wants to leave Black Hawk as soon as possible.

At college in Lincoln, Jim becomes very close to his Latin instructor and mentor <u>Gaston Cleric</u>. They spend a lot of time talking intimately, although Jim realizes that he is not an academic as Gaston is. One day <u>Lena Lingard</u>, one of the hired girls, comes to visit him, and they start going to plays together. They spend a lot of time together, even though two other men in Lena's building are in love with her. Gaston Cleric notices that Jim is being lax in his schoolwork and asks him to follow him to Harvard. Jim agrees and says goodbye to Lena.

Two years later, before entering law school, Jim returns to Black Hawk, where he hears about Ántonia. Apparently Ántonia had gotten pregnant and was engaged to be married to Larry Donovan. She followed him to Denver, but he ran off soon after she arrived. She returned to her family's farm where she had her child, avoided people, and worked the land. Jim goes to visit her and tells her how much she means to him. She is a little surprised that Jim is not disappointed in her. Jim promises to return again to visit.

He doesn't return until twenty years have passed after hearing that Ántonia has gotten married to a man named Anton Cuzak and now has about ten or eleven children. He is a little nervous about seeing

how age has affected her. When he arrives on the Cuzak farm, he is greeted by many of her children. Ántonia doesn't immediately recognize him, but is very excited when she does. She shows him all around the farm, which is full of life. There are kids, trees, vegetation, and food everywhere they go, and everyone seems happy and content. Jim is happy to see Ántonia looking so well and sleeps in the barn with two of the boys.

The next day he meets Cuzak, who was away on a small vacation. Jim likes Cuzak immediately and sees that Cuzak and Ántonia's marriage is one of equality and mutual contentment. Cuzak tells Jim how much he loves Ántonia, and the next day Jim leaves. He promises to go hunting with Ántonia's sons and returns to Black Hawk for the day. There he finds the old dirt road that used to go to his grandparents' farm, and he thinks about how that road was the road of Destiny and how now he has returned full circle back to where he started.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Two: The Roots of My Ambition

1. About the author:

Russell Baker (born 1925), U.S. writer. Insightful, satirical commentary won Russell Baker a wide readership and several journalism prizes, yet Baker's story of his own life struck many readers as melancholy and self-critical. The "good times," as he defined them, occurred at the start of his career, and thereafter he seemed to be trying to live up to unreachably high standards. Russell Baker has been charming readers for years with his astute political commentary and biting cerebral wit. The noted journalist, humorist, essayist, and biographer has written or edited seventeen books, and was the author of the nationally syndicated "Observer" column for the New York Times from 1962 to 1998. Called by Robert Sherrill of the Washington Post Book Word, "the supreme satirist of this half-century," Baker is most famous for turning the daily gossip of most newspapers into the stuff of laugh-out-loud literature. John Skow, of Time described Baker's work as "funny, but full of the pain and absurdity of the age. . .he can write with a hunting strain of melancholy, with delight, or. . .with shame or outrage." Baker received his first Pulitzer Prize for distinguished commentary in 1979, in recognition of his "Observer" column.

"For a look at how we live now. . . .Baker has no superiors, and few peers." - Joe Mysak of Spectator Baker received his second Pulitzer Prize in 1983 for his autobiography, Growing Up (1983). With a moving mix of humor and sadness, Baker insightfully recounts the struggles he and his mother endured in depression-era Virginia, New Jersey, and Baltimore after his father passed away. The book's greatest achievement is Baker's portrayal of his mother, a driven woman haunted by poverty and dreams of her son's success. "I would make something of myself," he wrote, "and if I lacked the grit to do it, well then she would make me make something of myself." Mary Lee Settle of the Los Angeles Times Book Review called Growing Up, "a wondrous book, funny, sad, and strong. . .(with scenes) "as funny and touching as Mark Twain's." Jonathan Yardley of Washington Post Book World declared that "Baker has accomplished the memoirist's task: to find shape and meaning in his own life, and to make it interesting and pertinent to the reader. In lovely, haunting prose, he has told a story that is deeply in the American grain."

In addition to his regular column and numerous books, Baker has also edited the anthologies, The Norton Book of Light Verse (1986) and Russell Baker's Book of American Humor (1993). Since 1993, he has been the regular host of the PBS television series, Masterpiece Theatre. Baker is a regular contributor to national periodicals such as The New York Times Magazine, Sports Illustrated, Saturday Evening Post, and McCalls. One of his columns, How to Hypnotize Yourself into Forgetting the Vietnam War, was dramatized and filmed by Eli Wallach for PBS.

Two-time Pulitzer Prize winner, Russell Baker, was the author of the nationally syndicated "Observer" column for the New York Times from 1962 to 1998. In addition, the noted journalist, humorist, essayist, and biographer has written or edited seventeen books. Baker's first Pulitzer was for distinguished commentary for his "Observer" columns (1979) and the second one was for his autobiography, Growing Up (1983). He wrote a sequel to his autobiography in 1989, called The Good Times.

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to national periodicals such as The New York Times Magazine, Sports Illustrated, Saturday Evening Post, and McCalls.

Most Famous Works

Growing Up (1982)

"Observer" -- syndicated column

Quotes:

66So there he is at last. Man on the moon. The poor magnificent bungler! He can't even get to the office without undergoing the agonies of the damned, but give him a little metal, a few chemicals, some wire and twenty or thirty billion dollars and, vroom! there he is, up on a rock a quarter of a million miles up in the sky. 99

66Life is always walking up to us and saying, Come on in, the living's find, and what do we do? Back off and take its picture.

66Happiness is a small and unworthy goal for something as big and fancy as a whole lifetime, and should be taken in small doses. 99

66The goal of all inanimate objects is to resist man and ultimately defeat him.

66It seems to be a law in American life that whatever enriches us anywhere except in the wallet inevitably becomes uneconomic.**99**

Text B.

O'Flaherty, Liam

O'Flaherty, Liam 1897–1984, Irish novelist, b. Aran Islands, Co. Galway. Many of his realistic novels have a compassionate interest in troubled people caught in the turbulence of his homeland, such as The Informer (1925), successfully filmed in 1935; The Black Soul (1924); Mr. Gilhooley (1926); and The Assassin (1928). Famine (1937), Land (1946), and Insurrection (1951) are novels of 19th-century Ireland. He also wrote notable short stories, as well as autobiographical works, Two Years (1930) and Shame the Devil (1934).

See studies by J. Zneimer (1970) and J. H. O'Brien (1973).

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Three: New Technologies

- 1.Explain the text
- 2.Do the Exercises
- 3. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Four: Dream Children: A Reverie

1. About the author

Charles Lamb

Charles Lamb (1775-1834), English essayist and poet, most famous for his collection Essays of Elia (1823, 1833). The poem "The Old Familiar Faces" and the essay "Dream Children" are among his most popular works.

Lamb was born in London on February 10, 1775. He studied at Christ's Hospital where he formed a lifelong friendship with <u>Samuel Taylor Coleridge</u>. When he was twenty years old Lamb suffered a period of insanity. His sister, Mary Ann Lamb, had similar problems and in 1796 murdered her mother in a fit of madness. Mary was confined to an asylum but was eventually released into the care of her brother.

Lamb became friends in London with a group of young writers who favored political reform including <u>Percy Bysshe Shelley</u>, William Hazlitt and Leigh Hunt. In 1796 Lamb contributed four sonnets to Coleridge's Poems on Various Subjects (1796). This was followed by Blank Verse (1798) and Pride's Cure (1802).

Tales from Shakespeare (1807) which he wrote in collaboration with his sister and The Adventures Of Ulysses (1808) were valuable retellings of classic works for children. Lamb's critical comments in Specimens of English Dramatic poets who lived about the time of Shakespeare (1808) are among the classics of English criticism.

Lamb worked for the East India Company in London for 33 years but managed to contribute articles to several journals and newspapers including the London Magazine, The Morning Chronicle, The Morning Post and The Quarterly Review.

Charles Lamb died on 29 December, 1834.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Five: The Million-Pound Note

1. About the author

Mark Twain was born Samuel Langhorne Clemens in Florida, Missouri, in 1835, and grew up in nearby Hannibal, a small Mississippi River town. Hannibal would become the model for St. Petersburg, the fictionalized setting of Twain's two most popular novels, The Adventures of Tom Sawyer and The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn. The young Clemens grew up in a prosperous family—his father owned a grocery store as well as a number of slaves—but he was sent out to work at the age of twelve after his father's death. As a young man, he traveled frequently, working as a printer's typesetter and as a steamboat pilot. In this latter profession he gained familiarity with the river life that would furnish much material for his writing. He also gained his pen name, Mark Twain, which is a measure of depth in steamboat navigation.

Twain enlisted in the Confederate militia in 1861, early in the Civil War, but he soon left to pursue a career in writing and journalism in Nevada and San Francisco. His articles and stories became immensely popular in the decades that followed. On the strength of this growing literary celebrity and financial success, he moved east in the late 1860s and married Olivia Langdon, the daughter of a prominent Elmira, New York, family. Twain and Langdon settled in Hartford, Connecticut; there Twain wrote The Adventures of Tom Sawyer, which he published in 1876. Twain proceeded to write, among other things, The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn (1884) and two sequels to The Adventures of Tom Sawyer: Tom Sawyer Abroad (1894) and Tom Sawyer, Detective (1896). He died in 1910, one of America's most beloved humorists and storytellers.

While The Adventures of Tom Sawyer retains some of the fragmented, episodic qualities of Twain's earlier, shorter pieces, the novel represents, in general, a significant literary departure for Twain. He toned down the large-scale social satire that characterized many of his earlier works, choosing instead to depict the sustained development of a single, central character. Twain had originally intended for the novel to follow Tom into adulthood and conclude with his return to St. Petersburg after many years away. But he was never able to get his hero out of boyhood, however, and the novel ends with its protagonist still preparing to make the transition into adult life.

Twain based The Adventures of Tom Sawyer largely on his personal memories of growing up in Hannibal in the 1840s. In his preface to the novel, he states that "[m]ost of the adventures recorded in this book really occurred" and that the character of Tom Sawyer has a basis in "a combination . . . of three boys whom I knew." Indeed, nearly every figure in the novel comes from the young Twain's village experience: Aunt Polly shares many characteristics with Twain's mother; Mary is based on Twain's sister Pamela; and Sid resembles Twain's younger brother, Henry. Huck Finn, the Widow Douglas, and even Injun Joe also have real-life counterparts, although the actual Injun Joe was more of a harmless drunk than a murderer.

Unlike Twain's later masterpiece, The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, The Adventures of Tom Sawyer concerns itself primarily with painting an idyllic picture of boyhood life along the Mississippi River. Though Twain satirizes adult conventions throughout The Adventures of Tom Sawyer, he leaves untouched certain larger issues that The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn explores critically. The Adventures of Tom Sawyer never deals directly with slavery, for example, and, while the town's dislike

of Injun Joe suggests a kind of small-town xenophobia (fear of foreigners or outsiders), Injun Joe's murders more than justify the town's suspicion of him. Because it avoids explicit criticism of racism, slavery, and xenophobia, the novel has largely escaped the controversy over race and language that has surrounded The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. To this day, The Adventures of Tom Sawyer remains perhaps the most popular and widely read of all Twain's works.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Six: Jyre Eyre

1. About the author

Charlotte Brontë was born in Yorkshire, England on April 21, 1816 to Maria Branwell and Patrick Brontë. Because Charlotte's mother died when Charlotte was five years old, Charlotte's aunt, a devout Methodist(卫理会), helped her brother-in-law raise his children. In 1824 Charlotte and three of her sisters—Maria, Elizabeth, and Emily—were sent to Cowan Bridge, a school for clergymen's daughters. When an outbreak of tuberculosis(肺结核) killed Maria and Elizabeth, Charlotte and Emily were brought home. Several years later, Charlotte returned to school, this time in Roe Head, England. She became a teacher at the school in 1835 but decided after several years to become a private governess instead. She was hired to live with and tutor the children of the wealthy Sidgewick family in 1839, but the job was a misery to her and she soon left it. Once Charlotte recognized that her dream of starting her own school was not immediately realizable, however, she returned to working as a governess, this time for a different family. Finding herself equally disappointed with governess work the second time around, Charlotte recruited her sisters to join her in more serious preparation for the establishment of a school.

Although the Brontës' school was unsuccessful, their literary projects flourished. At a young age, the children created a fictional world they named Angria, and their many stories, poems, and plays were early predictors of shared writing talent that eventually led Emily, Anne, and Charlotte to careers as novelists. As adults, Charlotte suggested that she, Anne, and Emily collaborate on a book of poems. The three sisters published under male pseudonyms: Charlotte's was Currer Bell, while Emily and Anne wrote as Ellis and Acton Bell, respectively. When the poetry volume received little public notice, the sisters decided to work on separate novels but retained the same pseudonyms. Anne and Emily produced their masterpieces in 1847, but Charlotte's first book, The Professor, never found a willing publisher during her lifetime. Charlotte wrote Jane Eyre later that year. The book, a critique of Victorian assumptions about gender and social class, became one of the most successful novels of its era, both critically and commercially.

Autobiographical elements are recognizable throughout Jane Eyre. Jane's experience at Lowood School, where her dearest friend dies of tuberculosis, recalls the death of Charlotte's sisters at Cowan Bridge. The hypocritical religious fervor of the headmaster, Mr. Brocklehurst, is based in part on that of the Reverend Carus Wilson, the Evangelical(福音派) minister who ran Cowan Bridge. Charlotte took revenge upon the school that treated her so poorly by using it as the basis for the fictional Lowood. Jane's friend Helen Burns's tragic death from tuberculosis recalls the deaths of two of Charlotte's sisters, Maria and Elizabeth, who succumbed(感染) to the same disease during their time at Cowan Bridge. Additionally, John Reed's decline into alcoholism and dissolution(分散) is most likely modeled upon the life of Charlotte Brontë's brother Branwell, who slid into opium and alcohol addictions in the years preceding his death. Finally, like Charlotte, Jane becomes a governess—a neutral vantage(有利) point from which to observe and describe the oppressive social ideas and practices of nineteenth-century Victorian society. The plot of Jane Eyre follows the form of a Bildungsroman <德 n.教育小说(源于德国文学中一种传统的小说类型,以描述主人公成长过程为主题), which is a novel that tells the story of a child's maturation and focuses on the emotions and experiences that accompany and incite his or her growth to adulthood. In Jane Eyre, there are five distinct stages of development, each linked to a

particular place: Jane's childhood at Gateshead, her education at the Lowood School, her time as Adele's governess at Thornfield, her time with the Rivers family at Morton and at Marsh End (also called Moor House), and her reunion with and marriage to Rochester at Ferndean. From these experiences, Jane becomes the mature woman who narrates the novel retrospectively (回忆).

But the Bildungsroman plot of Jane Eyre, and the book's element of social criticism, are filtered (过滤) through a third literary tradition—that of the Gothic horror story. Like the Bildungsroman, the Gothic genre originated in Germany. It became popular in England in the late eighteenth century, and it generally describes supernatural experiences, remote landscapes, and mysterious occurrences, all of which are intended to create an atmosphere of suspense (悬念) and fear. Jane's encounters with ghosts, dark secrets, and sinister (险恶) plots add a potent (有效) and lingering sense of fantasy and mystery to the novel.

After the success of Jane Eyre, Charlotte revealed her identity to her publisher and went on to write several other novels, most notably Shirley in 1849. In the years that followed, she became a respected member of London's literary set. But the deaths of siblings (姐妹)Emily and Branwell in 1848, and of Anne in 1849, left her feeling dejected(灰心) and emotionally isolated. In 1854, she wed the Reverend Arthur Nicholls, despite the fact that she did not love him. She died of pneumonia (肺炎), while pregnant, the following year.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Seven: Inaugural Address

1. About the author

On November 22, 1963, when he was hardly past his first thousand days in office, John Fitzgerald Kennedy was killed by an assassin's bullets as his motorcade wound through Dallas, Texas. Kennedy was the youngest man elected President; he was the youngest to die.

Of Irish descent, he was born in Brookline, Massachusetts, on May 29, 1917. Graduating from Harvard in 1940, he entered the Navy. In 1943, when his PT boat was rammed and sunk by a Japanese destroyer, Kennedy, despite grave injuries, led the survivors through perilous waters to safety.

Back from the war, he became a Democratic Congressman from the Boston area, advancing in 1953 to the Senate. He married Jacqueline Bouvier on September 12, 1953. In 1955, while recuperating from a back operation, he wrote Profiles in Courage, which won the Pulitzer Prize in history.

In 1956 Kennedy almost gained the Democratic nomination for Vice President, and four years later was a first-ballot nominee for President. Millions watched his television debates with the Republican candidate, Richard M. Nixon. Winning by a narrow margin in the popular vote, Kennedy became the first Roman Catholic President.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Eight: In My Day

1. About the author

Baker was born in Morrisonville, <u>Virginia</u>. He received his <u>B.A.</u> from the Krieger School of Arts & Sciences at <u>Johns Hopkins University</u> in <u>1947</u>. He went on to become an <u>essayist</u>, <u>journalist</u> and <u>biographer</u>, as well as the host of the <u>PBS</u> show <u>Masterpiece Theatre</u> from <u>1992</u> to <u>2004</u>.

Two-time Pulitzer Prize winner, Russell Baker, was the author of the nationally syndicated "Observer" column for the New York Times from 1962 to 1998. In addition, the noted journalist, humorist, essayist, and biographer has written or edited seventeen books. Baker's first Pulitzer was for distinguished commentary for his "Observer" columns (1979) and the second one was for his autobiography, Growing Up (1983). He wrote a sequel to his autobiography in 1989, called The Good Times.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Nine: Those Crazy Ideas

1. About the author

Isaac Asimov (c. January 2, 1920 – April 6, 1992), IPA: / ai zək æzi mɔ f/, originally Исаак Озимов but now transcribed into Russian as Айзек Азимов) was a Russian-born American author and biochemist, a highly successful and exceptionally prolific writer best known for his works of science fiction and for his popular science books. Asimov wrote or edited more than 500 volumes and an estimated 90,000 letters or postcards, and he has works in every major category of the Dewey Decimal System except Philosophy. Asimov is widely considered a master of the science-fiction genre and, along with Robert A. Heinlein and Arthur C. Clarke, was considered to be one of the "Big Three" science-fiction writers during his lifetime. Asimov's most famous work is the Foundation Series; his other major series are the Galactic Empire series and the Robot series, both of which he later tied into the Foundation Series. He also wrote mysteries and fantasy, as well as a great amount of non-fiction. Asimov wrote the Lucky Starr series of books using the pen name Paul French.

Most of Asimov's popularized science books explain scientific concepts in a historical way, going back as far as possible to a time when the science in question was at its simplest stage. He often gives nationalities, birth dates and death dates for the scientists he mentions, as well as <u>etymologies</u> and pronunciation guides for technical terms. Examples of this style include his Guide to Science, the three-volume set Understanding Physics, and Asimov's Chronology of Science and Discovery.

Asimov was a long-time member and Vice-President of Mensa International, albeit reluctantly; he described them as "intellectually combative". He took more joy in being president of the American Humanist Association. The asteroid 5020 Asimov, the magazine Asimov's Science Fiction and two different Isaac Asimov Awards are all named in his honor.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Ten: Jeff Peters as a personal Magnet

1. About the author

O Henry

O. Henry (1862-1910) was born William Sydney Porter in Greenboro, North Carolina. His father, Algernon Sidney Porter, was a physician. When William was three, his mother died, and he was raised by his parental grandmother and paternal aunt. William was an avid reader, but at the age of fifteen he left school, and then worked in a drug store and on a Texas ranch. He continued to Houston, where he had a number of jobs, including that of bank clerk. After moving in 1882 to Texas, he worked on a ranch in LaSalle County for two years. In 1887 he married Athol Estes Roach; they had one daughter and one son.

In 1894 Porter started a humorous weekly The Rolling Stone. It was at this time that he began heavy drinking. When the weekly failed, he joined the Houston Post as a reporter and columnist. In 1894 cash was found to have gone missing from the First National Bank in Austin, where Porter had worked as a bank teller. When he was called back to Austin to stand trial, Porter fled to Honduras to avoid trial. Little is known about Porter's stay in Central America. It is said, that he met one Al Jennings, and rambled in South America and Mexico on the proceeds of Jenning's robbery. After hearing news that his wife was dying, he returned in 1897 to Austin. In 1897 he was convicted of embezzling money, although there has been much debate over his actual guilt. Porter entered in 1898 a penitentiary at Columbus, Ohio.

While in prison, Porter started to write short stories to earn money to support his daughter Margaret. His first work, 'Whistling Dick's Christmas Stocking' (1899), appeared in McClure's Magazine. The stories of adventure in the U.S. Southwest and in Central America gained an immediately success among readers. After doing three years of the five years sentence, Porter emerged from the prison in 1901 and changed his name to O. Henry. According to some sources, he acquired the pseudonym from a warder called Orrin Henry. It also could be an abbreviation of the name of a French pharmacist, Eteinne-Ossian Henry, found in the U.S. Dispensatory, a reference work Porter used when he was in the prison pharmacy.

O. Henry moved to New York City in 1902 and from December 1903 to January 1906 he wrote a story a week for the New York World, also publishing in other magazines. Henry's first collection, CABBAGES AND KINGS, appeared in 1904. The second, THE FOUR MILLION, was published two years later and included his well-known stories 'The Gift of the Magi' and 'The Furnished Room'. THE TRIMMED LAMP (1907) explored the lives of New Yorkers and included 'The Last Leaf' - the city itself Henry liked to call 'Bagdad-on the-Subway.' In one of his stories, 'One Dollar's Worth', O. Henry deals with the judicial system. Judge Derwent receives a letter from an ex-convict, in which the writer, 'Rattlesnake' threatens his daughter and the district attorney, Littlefield. A young Mexican, Rafael Ortiz, is accused of passing a counterfeit silver dollar, made principally of lead. Rafael's girl, Joya Treviñas, tells Littlefield that he is innocent - she was sick, and needed medicine, and that was the reason why Rafael used the dollar. Littlefield refuses to help, and Joya says that "it the life of the girl you love is ever in danger, remember Rafael Ortiz." When he drives out of the town with Nancy Derwent, they meet Mexico Sam, the writer of the letter. He starts to shoot them from distance with his rifle. Littlefield can't hurt him with his own gun which has only tiny pellets. Then he remembers Joya's words, and manages hit Mexico Sam, who falls from his horse dead as a rattlesnake. Next morning in the court he tells: "I shot him,' said the district attorney, 'with Exhibit A of your counterfeiting case. Lucky thing for me - and somebody else

- that it was as bad money as it was! It sliced up into slugs very nicely. Say, Kil, can't you go down to the jacals and find where that Mexican girl lives? Miss Derwent wants to know."

Henry's best known work is perhaps the much anthologized 'The Ransom of Red Chief' (see Howard Hawks and Nunnally Johnson), published in the collection Whirligigs in 1910. O. Henry's humorous, energetic style shows the influence of Mark Twain and Ambrose Bierce. The story tells about two kidnappers, who make off with the young son of a prominent man. They find out that the child is a real nuisance. In the end they agree to pay the boy's father to take him back. - "Sam," says Bill, "I suppose you'll think I'm a renegade. but I couldn't help it. I'm a grown person with masculine proclivities and habits of self-defense, but there is a time when all systems of egotism and predominance fail. The boy is gone. I sent him home. All is off. There was martyrs in old times," goes on Bill, "that suffered death rather than give up the particular graft they enjoyed. None of 'em ever was subjugated to such supernatural tortures as I have been. I tried to be faithful to our articles of depredation; but there came a limit."

HEART OF THE WEST (1907) presented western stories, of which 'The Last of the Troubadours' J. Frank Dobie named "the best range story in American fiction." 'The Caballero's Way' featured as a character the Cisco Kid. During his life time, O. Henry published 10 collections and over 600 short stories. His last years were shadowed by alcoholism, ill health, and financial problems. He was a fast writer, like the Russian Anton Checkhov (1860-1904), but drinking on average two quarts of whiskey daily, did not improve the quality of his work. In 1907 O. Henry married Sara Lindsay Coleman, also born in Greensboro. The marriage was not happy, and they separated a year later. O. Henry died of cirrhosis of the liver on June 5, 1910, in New York. Three more collections, SIXES AND SEVENS (1911), ROLLING STONES (1912) and WAIFS AND STRAYS (1917), appeared posthumously. In 1918 the O. Henry Memorial Awards were established to be given annually to the best magazine stories, the winners and leading contenders to be published in an annual volume.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Eleven: I Have a Dream

1. About the author

Martin Luther King

The Nobel Peace Prize 1964

Martin Luther King, Jr., (January 15, 1929-April 4, 1968) was born Michael Luther King, Jr., but later had his name changed to Martin. His grandfather began the family's long tenure as pastors of the Ebenezer Baptist Church in Atlanta, serving from 1914 to 1931; his father has served from then until the present, and from 1960 until his death Martin Luther acted as co-pastor. Martin Luther attended segregated public schools in Georgia, graduating from high school at the age of fifteen; he received the B. A. degree in 1948 from Morehouse College, a distinguished Negro institution of Atlanta from which both his father and grandfather had been graduated. After three years of theological study at Crozer Theological Seminary in Pennsylvania where he was elected president of a predominantly white senior class, he was awarded the B.D. in 1951. With a fellowship won at Crozer, he enrolled in graduate studies at Boston University, completing his residence for the doctorate in 1953 and receiving the degree in 1955 In Boston he met and married Coretta Scott, a young woman of uncommon intellectual and artistic attainments. Two sons and two daughters were born into the family.

In 1954, Martin Luther King accepted the pastorale of the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama. Always a strong worker for civil rights for members of his race, King was, by this time, a member of the executive committee of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the leading organization of its kind in the nation. He was ready, then, early in December, 1955, to accept the leadership of the first great Negro nonviolent demonstration of contemporary times in the United States, the bus boycott described by Gunnar Jahn in his presentation speech in honor of the laureate. The boycott lasted 382 days. On December 21, 1956, after the Supreme Court of the United States had declared unconstitutional the laws requiring segregation on buses, Negroes and whites rode the buses as equals. During these days of boycott, King was arrested, his home was bombed, he was subjected to personal abuse, but at the same time he emerged as a Negro leader of the first rank.

In 1957 he was elected president of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, an organization formed to provide new leadership for the now burgeoning civil rights movement. The ideals for this organization he took from Christianity; its operational techniques from Gandhi. In the eleven-year period between 1957 and 1968, King traveled over six million miles and spoke over twenty-five hundred times, appearing wherever there was injustice, protest, and action; and meanwhile he wrote five books as well as numerous articles. In these years, he led a massive protest in Birmingham, Alabama, that caught the attention of the entire world, providing what he called a coalition of conscience, and inspiring his "Letter from a Birmingham Jail", a manifesto of the Negro revolution; he planned the drives in Alabama for the registration of Negroes as voters; he directed the peaceful march on Washington, D.C., of 250,000 people to whom he delivered his address, "I Have a Dream", he conferred with President John F. Kennedy and campaigned for President Lyndon B. Johnson; he was arrested upwards of twenty times and assaulted at

least four times; he was awarded five honorary degrees; was named Man of the Year by Time magazine in 1963; and became not only the symbolic leader of American blacks but also a world figure.

At the age of thirty-five, Martin Luther King, Jr., was the youngest man to have received the Nobel Peace Prize. When notified of his selection, he announced that he would turn over the prize money of \$54,123 to the furtherance of the civil rights movement.

On the evening of April 4, 1968, while standing on the balcony of his motel room in Memphis, Tennessee, where he was to lead a protest march in sympathy with striking garbage workers of that city, he was assassinated.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Twelve: Leeds Trams

1. About the author

In August 1960, Bennett, along with <u>Dudley Moore</u>, <u>Jonathan Miller</u>, and <u>Peter Cook</u>, achieved instant fame by appearing at the <u>Edinburgh Festival</u> in the <u>satirical</u> revue <u>Beyond the Fringe</u>. After the Festival, the show continued in <u>London</u> and <u>New York</u>. He also appeared in <u>My Father Knew Lloyd George</u>. Bennett's first stage play, Forty Years On, was produced in <u>1968</u>. He has written many short stories.

Many of Bennett's characters are unfortunate and downtrodden, as in the <u>Talking Heads</u> series of monologues for television which were later performed at the <u>Comedy Theatre</u> in London in 1992. This was a sextet of poignantly comic pieces, each of which portrayed several stages in the character's decline from their initial state of denial or ignorance of their predicament, through their slow realization of the hopelessness of their situation, to a typically bleak Bennett conclusion. A second set of six followed a decade later. He has written candidly and movingly of the mental illness that afflicted his mother and other family members.

Many of his plays draw on his background in Leeds and while he is celebrated for his acute observations of northern speech, the range and daring of his work is often undervalued – his television play The Old Crowd, for example includes shots of the director and technical crew, while his stage play The Lady in the Van includes two characters named Alan Bennett. The Lady in the Van was based on his experiences with a tramp called Miss Shepherd who lived on Bennett's driveway in a dilapidated van for fifteen years.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Thirteen: Between Two Worlds

1. About the author

William Edward Burghardt DuBois, to his admirers, was by spirited devotion and scholarly dedication, an attacker of injustice and a defender of freedom.

A harbinger of Black nationalism and Pan-Africanism, he died in self-imposed exile in his home away from home with his ancestors of a glorious past—Africa.

Labeled as a "radical," he was ignored by those who hoped that his massive contributions would be buried along side of him. But, as Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. wrote, "history cannot ignore W.E.B. DuBois because history has to reflect truth and Dr. DuBois was a tireless explorer and a gifted discoverer of social truths. His singular greatness lay in his quest for truth about his own people. There were very few scholars who concerned themselves with honest study of the black man and he sought to fill this immense void. The degree to which he succeeded disclosed the great dimensions of the man."

His Formative Years

W.E.B. DuBois was born on February 23, 1868 in Great Barrington, Massachusetts. At that time Great Barrington had perhaps 25, but not more than 50, Black people out of a population of about 5,000. Consequently, there were little signs of overt racism there. Nevertheless, its venom was distributed through a constant barrage of suggestive innuendoes and vindictive attitudes of its residents. This mutated the personality of young William from good natured and outgoing to sullen and withdrawn. This was later reinforced and strengthened by inner withdrawals in the face of real discriminations. His demeanor of introspection haunted him throughout his life.

While in high school DuBois showed a keen concern for the development of his race. At age fifteen he became the local correspondent for the New York Globe. And in this position he conceived it his duty to push his race forward by lectures and editorials reflecting upon the need of Black people to politicized themselves.

DuBois was naturally gifted intellectually and took pleasurable pride in surpassing his fellow students in academic and other pursuits. Upon graduation from high school, he, like many other New England students of his caliber, desired to attend Harvard. However, he lacked the financial resources to go to that institution. But with the aid of friends and family, and a scholarship he received to Fisk College (now University), he eagerly headed to Nashville, Tennessee to further his education.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Fourteen: Father Sews on a Button

1. About the author

Clarence Day

Clarence Shepherd Day, Jr. (<u>November 18</u>, <u>1874</u> - <u>December 28</u>, <u>1935</u>) was an <u>American</u> author. He was born in <u>New York City</u>. He graduated from <u>Yale University</u> in 1896. The following year, he joined the New York Stock Exchange, and became a partner in his father's Wall Street brokerage firm. Day enlisted in the <u>Navy</u> in 1898, but developed crippling <u>arthritis</u> and spent the remainder of his life as a semi-invalid.

Day's most famous work is the autobiographical <u>Life with Father</u> (1935), which detailed humorous episodes in his family's life, centering on his dominating father, during the 1890s in New York City. Scenes from the book, along with its 1932 prequel, God and my Father, and its posthumous 1937 sequel, Life with Mother, were the basis for a 1939 play by Howard Lindsay and Russell Crouse, which became one of Broadway's longest-running, non-musical hits. In 1947 - the year the play ended on Broadway - William Powell and Irene Dunne portrayed Day's parents in the film of the same name. Life with Father co-starred a young Elizabeth Taylor and an even younger Martin Milner (later one of the two police-officer stars of the 1968 TV series Adam-12), and received Oscar nominations for cinematography, art direction, musical score and best actor (Powell). Life with Father also became a popular 1953-1955 television sitcom.

Day was a vocal proponent of giving women the right to vote, and contributed satirical cartoons for U.S. suffrage publications in the 1910s. According to James Moske, an archivist with the New York Public Library who arranged and catalogued the library's Clarence Day Papers, a survey of Day's early short stories and magazine columns reveals "he was fascinated by the changing roles of men and women in American society as Victorian conceptions of marriage, family, and domestic order unraveled in the first decades of the twentieth century."

A long-time contributor to The New Yorker magazine, Day sometimes wrote using the pseudonym B. H. Arkwright.

Day's "In the Green Mountain Country" recounted the 1933 death and funeral of U.S. president Calvin Coolidge. His essay collection, The Crow's Nest, received a favorable review in The Nation magazine by the prominent U.S. academician Carl Van Doren; a revised edition with new essays, poems and drawings was published after Day's death under the title After All.

Day achieved lasting fame in literary circles for his comment, "The world of books is the most remarkable creation of man. Nothing else that he builds ever lasts. Monuments fall, nations perish, civilizations grow old and die out; and, after an era of darkness, new races build others. But in the world of books are volumes that have seen this happen again and again, and yet live on, still young, still as fresh as the day they were written, still telling men's hearts of the hearts of men centuries dead."

Day died in New York City shortly after finishing "Life with Father," without ever getting to experience its success on Broadway or in Hollywood.

His uncle, Benjamin Day, was the inventor of the Benday printing process.

2.Explain the text

3.Do the Exercises

4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Sixteen; Another American Tragedy

1. About the author

Born in London in 1901, John Collier was privately educated by his uncle Vincent Collier, a novelist. When, at the age of 18 or 19, Collier was asked by his father what he had chosen as a vocation, he replied, "I want to be a poet." His father indulged him: over the course of the next ten years, Collier lived on an allowance of two pounds a week, plus whatever he could pick up by writing book reviews and acting as a cultural correspondant for a Japanese newspaper. During this time, being not overly burdened by any financial responsibilities, he developed a penchant for games of chance, conversation in cafes, and visits to picture galleries. He never attended a university.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

英语阅读(四)

Unit One What Life Means to Me

1. About the author

Jack London:

Jack London was born in San Francisco on January 12, 1876, the illegitimate son of Flora Wellman, the rebellious daughter of an aristocratic family, and William Chaney, a traveling astrologer who abandoned Flora when she became pregnant. Eight months after her son was born, Flora married John London, a grocer and Civil War veteran whose last name the infant took. London grew up in Oakland, and his family was mired in poverty throughout his youth. He remained in school only through the eighth grade but was a voracious reader and a frequent visitor to the Oakland Public Library, where he went about edu-cating himself and laying the groundwork for his impending literary career.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Two What Life Means to Me (II)

1. About the author

Childhood

Kate O'Flaherty was born February 8, <u>1851</u> in St. Louis, Missouri, <u>United States</u>. Her father, Thomas O'Flaherty, was a very successful businessman who had immigrated from <u>Galway</u>, <u>Ireland</u>. Her mother, Eliza Faris, was a well-connected member of the French <u>Creole</u> community, and her maternal grandmother, Athena'ise Charleville, was of French descent.[1]

Kate's father died in <u>1855</u>, when Kate was four. As a founder of the <u>Pacific Railroad</u>, he was aboard the inaugural trip when a bridge across the <u>Gasconade River</u> collapsed. Thomas was among the fatalities. That same year, Kate entered the St. Louis <u>Academy of the Sacred Heart</u>.

Her father's death led to the young Kate developing a close relationship with both her mother and great-grandmother. She also became an avid reader of fairy tales, poetry, religious allegories, as well as classic and contemporary novels. Sir <u>Walter Scott</u> and <u>Charles Dickens</u> were among her favorite authors.

<u>1863</u> was a bad year for Kate's family: her great-grandmother died, as did her half brother, George. A <u>Confederate</u> soldier, he died of <u>typhoid fever</u> as a prisoner of war. Kate dropped out of regular schooling and became even further engrossed in her world of books.

In <u>1865</u>, she re-enrolled in formal schooling, returning ultimately to the Sacred Heart Academy. She began keeping a <u>commonplace book</u>. She graduated from Sacred Heart Academy in <u>1868</u>, but did not achieve any particular distinction--except as a master storyteller.

Early adulthood

In her late teens Kate became a high-society belle in St. Louis, where she was known for her wit, and devoted much time to music. On a trip to New Orleans, Louisiana, she met and was greatly influenced by an independent woman singer and actress. Her experiences in New Orleans were the basis of "Emancipation: A Life Fable". During these years, she began to question the authority of the Roman Catholic Church, especially in matters concerning gender roles: she felt that it held down women.

Kate married Oscar Chopin on <u>June 9</u>, <u>1870</u> in St. Louis, Missouri. Chopin was a member of the St. Louis French Creole community. They honeymooned in Germany, Switzerland, and France, but returned to America early because of the outbreak of the <u>Franco-Prussian War</u>.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Three Why I Write

1. About the author

Gorge Orwell:

Blair was born on June 25, 1903 in Motihari, Bengal (modern Bihar), in India, when it was part of the British Empire under the British Raj. There, Blair's father, Richard Walmesley Blair, worked for the opium department of the Civil Service. His mother, Ida Mabel Blair (née Limouzin), brought him to England at the age of one. He did not see his father again until 1907, when Richard visited England for three months before leaving again. Eric had an older sister named Marjorie, and a younger sister named Avril. He would later describe his family's background as "lower-upper-middle class". [3]

Education

At the age of five, Blair was sent to a small <u>Anglican</u> parish school in <u>Henley-on-Thames</u>, which his sister had attended before him. He never wrote of his recollections of it, but he must have impressed the teachers very favourably, for two years later, he was recommended to the headmaster of one of the most successful preparatory schools in England at the time: <u>St. Cyprian's School</u>, in <u>Eastbourne</u>, <u>Sussex</u>. Blair attended St Cyprian's on a scholarship that allowed his parents to pay only half of the usual fees. Many years later, he would recall his time at St Cyprian's with biting resentment in the essay "<u>Such</u>, <u>Such</u> <u>Were the Joys</u>". However, in his time at St. Cyprian's, the young Blair successfully earned scholarships to both <u>Wellington</u> and <u>Eton</u>.

After a year at Wellington, Blair moved to Eton, where he was a <u>King's Scholar</u> from <u>1917</u> to <u>1921</u>. Later in life he wrote that he had been "relatively happy" at Eton, which allowed its students considerable independence, but also that he ceased doing serious work after arriving there. Reports of his academic performance at Eton vary; some assert that he was a poor student, while others claim the contrary. He was clearly disliked by some of his teachers, who resented what they perceived as disrespect for their authority. During his time at the school, Blair made lifetime friendships with a number of future British intellectuals such as <u>Cyril Connolly</u>, the future editor of the Horizon magazine, in which many of Orwell's most famous essays were originally released.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Four Playhouse Memoranda

1. About the author

Charles Lamb (<u>10 February 1775</u> — <u>27 December 1834</u>) was an <u>English essayist</u>, best known for his <u>Essays of Elia</u> and for the children's book <u>Tales from Shakespeare</u>, which he produced along with his sister, Mary Lamb (1764–1847).

Lamb was the youngest child of John Lamb, a lawyer's clerk. He was born in Crown Office Row, Inner Temple, London, and spent his youth there, later going away to school at Christ's Hospital. There he formed a close friendship with Samuel Taylor Coleridge which would last for many years. After leaving school in 1789 at age 14, "an inconquerable impediment" in his speech disqualified him for a clerical career. For a short time he worked in the office of Joseph Paice, a London merchant, and then for twenty-three weeks, until 8 February 1792, he held a small post in the Examiner's Office of the South Sea House. Its subsequent downfall in a pyramid scheme after Lamb left would be contrasted to the company's prosperity in the first Elia essay. On April 5, 1792 he went to work in the Accountant's Office for British East India Company, the death of his father's employer having ruined the family's fortunes.

Charles and his sister Mary both suffered periods of mental illness, and Charles spent six weeks in a psychiatric hospital during 1795. He was, however, already making his name as a poet. On September 22, 1796, a terrible event occurred. Mary, "worn down to a state of extreme nervous misery by attention to needlework by day and to her mother at night," was seized with acute mania and stabbed her mother to the heart with a table knife. With the help of friends he succeeded in obtaining his sister's release from what would otherwise have been lifelong imprisonment, on the condition that he take personal responsibility for her safekeeping. In 1799, John Lamb died, leaving Charles Lamb (age 24) to carry on as best he could. Mary came to live again with him in Pentonville. In 1800 they set up a shared home at Mitre Court Buildings in the Temple, where they lived until 1809.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Five Two Casts of Mind

1. About the author

Bill Ouchi was born and raised in Honolulu, Hawaii. He earned a B.A. from Williams College (1965), and a Ph.D. in Business Administration from the University of Chicago. He has been a faculty member of the Anderson School of Management at University of California, Los Angeles for many years.

Ouchi first came to prominence for his studies of the differences between Japanese and American companies and management styles. His first popular book in 1981 summarized his observations. "Theory Z: How American Management Can Meet the Japanese Challenge" made the 'best-seller' lists, and remained there for five months. His second book, "The M Form Society: How American Teamwork Can Recapture the Competitive Edge", examined various techniques implementing that approach.

Ouchi also came up with his 3 approaches to control in an organization's management:

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Six The Black and White Truth about Basketball

1. About the author

Jeff Greenfield is CNN's senior political analyst and a contributor to The Situation Room, American Morning and Paula Zahn Now. He has been at the forefront of providing his in-depth insight and analysis on the inner workings of the 2004 political campaigns, including the Democratic National Convention in Boston, the Republic National Convention in New York and the presidential and vice-presidential debates.

Previously, Greenfield, along with CNN's Judy Woodruff, Bernard Shaw and political analyst Bill Schneider, hosted the network's nightly special election program during the 37 days as the presidential election story and the Florida recount unfolded. From this experience, he also penned Oh Waiter! One Order of Crow! (Putnam Publishing Group), chronicling the events of Election Night 2000 and beyond.

Since joining the network in January 1998, Greenfield has reported on and provided analysis for a wealth of stories ranging from the impeachment and trial of President Clinton to the public reaction to the death of John F. Kennedy Jr. He has guest hosted for Larry King Live and moderated CNN's heralded town hall meetings, such as Listening after Littleton and Investigating the President: Media Madness? Greenfield reported live for CNN from the 2000 Republican and Democratic conventions and served as a panelist in the WCBS New York Senate debate between Hillary Rodham Clinton and Rep. Rick Lazio.

In addition to his work on television, Greenfield writes a column for TIME magazine. He has contributed articles to The New York Times Magazine, Esquire and National Lampoon and has authored or co-authored nine books, including Television: The First 50 years and The Real Campaign. His first novel, The People's Choice, was published in 1995 and was named one of The New York Times' notable books of the year. Director Penny Marshall has purchased the motion picture rights to this political satire.

Before joining CNN, Greenfield was ABC News' political and media analyst for 14 years. Greenfield appeared regularly on Nightline and served as an essayist on World News Sunday. During political seasons, his reports from the convention floors and his election-night analyses were a regular feature of ABC's campaign coverage. In addition to his campaign reporting, Greenfield has covered media stories ranging from the growth of cable television to the transition to digital television. From the Iran-Contra hearings to the Robert Bork and Clarence Thomas Supreme Court confirmation battles, he has reported on virtually every major domestic political story during his career.

Before ABC News, Greenfield was a media critic for CBS News' coverage of the 1980 Republican and Democratic national conventions and the 1980 presidential elections. Before joining CBS, he was an analyst for two Public Broadcasting Service programs, Firing Line, with William F. Buckley, and We Interrupt This Week. From 1968 to 1970, he served as chief speechwriter for New York Mayor John V. Lindsay, and from 1967 to 68, he was a senate aide and speechwriter for Sen. Robert F. Kennedy.

Greenfield has garnered a number of awards, including the 2002 Quill Award for Professional Achievement and three Emmy Awards for his contributions to Nightline's South Africa specials in 1985 and 1990 and for a 1992 primetime special on Ross Perot.

Greenfield has a bachelor's degree with honors from the University of Wisconsin and graduated with honors from Yale Law School with a bachelor of legal letters degree.

2.Explain the text

3.Do the Exercises

4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Seven Araby

1. About the author

James Joyce

James Augustine Aloysius Joyce (<u>Irish</u> Seamus Seoighe; <u>2 February 1882 – 13 January 1941</u>) was an <u>Irish</u> writer and poet, widely considered to be one of the most influential writers of the 20th century. He is best known for his landmark novel <u>Ulysses</u> (1922). His other major works are the <u>short story</u> collection <u>Dubliners</u> (1914), the novels <u>A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man</u> (1916) and <u>Finnegans Wake</u> (1939).

Although most of his adult life was spent outside the country, Joyce's Irish experiences are essential to his writings and provide all of the settings for his fiction and much of their subject matter. His fictional universe is firmly rooted in <u>Dublin</u> and reflects his family life and the events and friends (and enemies) from his school and college days. Due to this, he became both one of the most cosmopolitan and one of the most local of all the great <u>English language modernists</u>.

Life and writing

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Eight How should One Read a Book

1.About the author

Virginia Woolf (née Stephen) (<u>January 25</u>, <u>1882</u> – <u>March 28</u>, <u>1941</u>) is a British novelist who by reputation is regarded as one of the foremost <u>modernist literary</u> figures of the <u>twentieth century</u>. Though she is commonly regarded by many as <u>feminist</u>, it should be noted that she herself deplored the term, as she felt it suggested an obsession with women and women's concerns. She preferred to be referred to as a <u>humanist</u> (see <u>Three Guineas</u>).

Between the <u>World Wars</u>, Woolf was a significant figure in <u>London</u> literary society and a member of the <u>Bloomsbury Group</u>. Her most famous works include the novels <u>Mrs. Dalloway</u>, <u>To the Lighthouse</u>, <u>Orlando</u>, and her essay <u>A Room of One's Own</u>.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Nine Impressions of America

1. About the author

Oscar Wilde

Oscar Fingal O'Flahertie Wills Wilde (born October 16, 1854 in Dublin, Ireland – died November 30, 1900 in Paris, France) was an Irish playwright, novelist, poet, short story writer and Freemason. Known for his barbed and clever wit, he was one of the most successful playwrights of late Victorian London, and one of the greatest celebrities of his day. As the result of a famous trial, he suffered a dramatic downfall and was imprisoned after being convicted of "gross indecency" - a euphemism for homosexual acts.

Birth and early life

Wilde was born into an <u>Anglo-Irish</u> family, at 21 Westland Row, <u>Dublin</u>, to Sir <u>William Wilde</u> and his wife <u>Jane Francesca Elgee</u>. Jane was a successful writer and an Irish <u>nationalist</u>, known also as 'Speranza', while Sir William was Ireland's leading ear and eye surgeon, and wrote books on <u>archaeology</u> and <u>folklore</u>. He was a renowned philanthropist, and his dispensary for the care of the city's poor, in <u>Lincoln Place</u> at the rear of <u>Trinity College</u>, <u>Dublin</u>, was the forerunner of the Dublin Eye and Ear Hospital, now located at Adelaide Road.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Ten On Going a Journey

1. About the author

William Hazlitt

William Hazlitt (10 April 1778 – 18 September 1830) was an English <u>writer</u> remembered for his humanistic <u>essays</u> and <u>literary criticism</u>, often esteemed the greatest English literary critic after <u>Samuel Johnson</u>. Indeed, Hazlitt's writings and remarks on Shakespeare's plays and characters are rivaled only by those of Johnson in their depth, insight, originality, and imagination.

Hazlitt came of <u>Irish Protestant</u> stock, and of a branch of it which moved in the reign of <u>George I</u> from the county of <u>Antrim</u> to <u>Tipperary</u>. His father went to the <u>University of Glasgow</u> (where he was contemporary with <u>Adam Smith</u>), graduated in about <u>1761</u>, became a <u>Unitarian</u>, joined their ministry, and crossed over to <u>England</u>; being successively pastor at <u>Wisbech</u> in <u>Cambridgeshire</u>, at Marshfield in <u>Gloucestershire</u>, and at <u>Maidstone</u>. At Wisbech he married Grace Loftus, daughter of a farmer. Of their many children, only three survived infancy.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Eleven Long Walk to Forever

1. About the author

Nelson Mandela

Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela (IPA [roli'+a+a]) (born July 18, 1918) was the first President of South Africa to be elected in fully-representative democratic elections. Before his presidency he was a prominent anti-apartheid activist and leader of the African National Congress. He was tried and imprisoned for his involvement in underground armed resistance activities. The armed struggle was a last resort; he had remained steadfastly committed to non-violence. Through his 27-year imprisonment, much of it spent in a cell on Robben Island, Mandela became the most widely known figure in the struggle against South African apartheid. Although the apartheid regime and nations sympathetic to it considered him and the ANC to be communists and terrorists, the armed struggle was an integral part of the overall campaign against apartheid. The switch in policy to that of reconciliation, which Mandela pursued upon his release in 1990, facilitated a peaceful transition to fully-representative democracy in South Africa.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Twelve Grant and Lee

1. About the author

Bruce Catton (October 9, 1899 — August 28, 1978) was a journalist and a notable <u>historian</u> of the <u>American Civil War</u>. He won a <u>Pulitzer Prize</u> for history in <u>1954</u> for A Stillness at Appomattox, his study of the final campaign of the war in <u>Virginia</u>.

Catton was known as a <u>narrative historian</u> who specialized in popular histories that emphasized the colorful characters and vignettes of history, in addition to the simple dates, facts, and analyses. His works, although well-researched, were generally not presented in a rigorous academic style, supported by footnotes. In the long line of Civil War historians, Catton is arguably the most prolific and popular of all, with <u>Shelby Foote</u> his only conceivable rival. Oliver Jensen, who succeeded him as editor of American Heritage magazine, wrote: "There is a near-magic power of imagination in Catton's work that seemed to project him physically into the battlefields, along the dusty roads and to the campfires of another age."

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Thirteen A Modest Proposal

1. About the author

Jonathan Swift (November 30, 1667 – October 19, 1745) was an Anglo-Irish priest, satirist, essayist, political pamphleteer, and poet, famous for works like Gulliver's Travels, A Modest Proposal, A Journal to Stella, The Drapier's Letters, The Battle of the Books, and A Tale of a Tub. Swift is probably the foremost prose satirist in the English language, although he is less well known for his poetry. Swift published all of his works under pseudonyms — such as Lemuel Gulliver, Isaac Bickerstaff, M.B. Drapier — or anonymously.

Biography

Jonathan Swift was born at No. 8, Hoey's Court, Dublin, and was the second child and only son of Jonathan and Abigail Erick (or Herrick) Swift, who were English immigrants. Jonathan arrived seven months after his father's untimely death. Most of the facts of Swift's early life are obscure, confused and sometimes contradictory. It is widely believed that his mother returned to England when Jonathan was still very young, leaving him to be raised by his father's family. His uncle Godwin took primary responsibility for the young Jonathan, sending him to Kilkenny Grammar School with one of his cousins (also attended by the philosopher George Berkeley).

In 1682 he attended Dublin University (<u>Trinity College, Dublin</u>), receiving his B.A. in 1686. Swift was studying for his Masters when political troubles in Ireland surrounding the <u>Glorious Revolution</u> forced him to leave for England in 1688, where his mother helped him get a position as secretary and personal assistant of Sir <u>William Temple</u> at Moor Park. Temple was an English diplomat who, having arranged the <u>Triple Alliance of 1668</u>, retired from public service to his country estate to tend his gardens and write his memoirs. Growing into confidence with his employer, Swift "was often trusted with matters of great importance." Within three years of their acquaintance, Temple had introduced his secretary to <u>William III</u>, and sent him to London to urge the King to consent to a bill for triennial Parliaments.

When Swift took up his residence at Moor Park, he met <u>Esther Johnson</u>, then 8 years old, the fatherless daughter of one of the household servants. Swift acted as her tutor and mentor, giving her the nickname "Stella" and the two maintained a close, but ambiguous, relationship for the rest of Esther's life.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Fourteen So Long, So Long!

1. About the author

George Bernard Shaw

George) Bernard Shaw^[1] (<u>Dublin</u>, 26 July 1856 – 2 November 1950 in Hertfordshire) was an <u>Irish playwright</u> based in the <u>United Kingdom</u>. He was uniquely the winner of the <u>Nobel Prize in Literature</u> (in 1925) and an <u>Academy Award for Writing Adapted Screenplay</u> (in 1938 for <u>Pygmalion</u>). After those of <u>William Shakespeare</u>, Shaw's plays are among the most widely produced in English-language theatre. His career started with frustration and near poverty. Neither music criticism (written under the name of a family friend) nor a telephone company job lasted very long, and only two of the five novels Shaw wrote between 1879 and 1883 found publishers: Cashel Byron's Profession (1882), a novel about prizefighting as an occupation that anticipates the theme of prostitution as an antisocial profession in the play Mrs. Warren's Profession (1893), and An Unsocial Socialist (1883). By the mid-1880s Shaw discovered the writings of Karl Marx and turned to socialist polemics and critical journalism. He also became a firm (and lifelong) believer in vegetarianism, a spellbinding orator, and tentatively, a playwright. He was the force behind the newly founded (1884) Fabian Society, a middle-class socialist group that aimed at the transformation of English government and society. Through the Fabian Society's founders, Sidney and Beatrice Webb, Shaw met the Irish heiress Charlotte Payne-Townshend, whom he married in 1898.

- 2.Explain the text
- 3.Do the Exercises
- 4. Let the students read text B by themselves

Unit Fifteen If I were a Freshman Again

1. About the author

Daniel Goleman

Daniel Goleman (born 1946, Stockton, California) is the author of the international best-seller Emotional Intelligence, and the book Social Intelligence. He has a Ph.D. from Harvard, where he has also given classes.

Goleman has written for the New York Times, editing its science page and specializing in psychology and brain sciences.

Following publication of his first book, Goleman founded the Emotional Intelligence Consortium and published several other books in that area.

More information is available at Daniel Goleman's website, http://www.danielgoleman.info.

2.Explain the text

3.Do the Exercises

4. Let the students read text B by themselves

四、1. 阅读书目:除教材的阅读材料,还要每学期阅读原著3部,文学名著节选本6种以及下列几份报纸和刊物。

China Daily

Beijing Review

Outlook English Magazine

21st Century

- 2、阅读理解
- 3、阅读速度:普速: 120-180个单词/分钟,快速: 五分钟阅读 1000 左右单词。
- 4、阅读量
- 5、词汇量
- 6、阅读技巧的掌握
- 7、教材

《高级英语阅读教程》王松年主编

上海交通大学出版社,2005年版。

8、参考书目

《新编英语泛读教程》1—4 王守仁等 南京大学

上海外语教育出版社

《高校英语专业四级考试指南》朱嫣华 上外教育出版社

《英语快速阅读》汪士彬 南开大学

《大学英语泛读 4》张砚秋主编者按 上外教育出版社

《大学英语快速阅读 4》上外教育出版社

《文化与交际》胡文仲,外语教学与研究出版社,1994.

《英语词汇的奥秘》,蒋争中国国际广播出版社,1995.

《英语学习背景知识》,何田北京大学出版社,1995.

《英语阅读的方法与技巧》,杜学增,外语教学与研究出版社,1997.

《英语国家社会与文化入门》,朱永涛,高等教育出版社,2000.

《英语阅读技能培养与实践》,段维彤,天津大学出版社,2004.

《初级英语写作(一)、(二)》教学大纲

李 立 编写

目 录

前	前 言2		
	— ,	概述	221
	Ξ,	课程教学目的和基本要求	221
	三、	课程主要内容及课时分配	221
	四、	相关教学环节	222
	五、	使用教材	222
Chapter I Introduction to Elementary English Writing			223
Chapter II Manuscript Form			226
Chapter III Diction			229
Chapter IV The Sentence			233
Chapter V The Paragraph			236
Chapter VI The Whole Composition			240
Chapter VII Punctuation			246

前言

一、概述

初级英语写作(A Course for Elementary English Writing)是为外国语学院英语专业本科生第

2、3 学期开设的一门专业必修课。

在我国日益融入全球化进程的今天,英语书面交际能力在对外交流中占据着越来越重要的地位。这种重要性表现在对书面交际的需求日益增加、对写作能力的要求日益提高两个方面。英语书面交流,不仅要求使用语法正确、句子通顺、结构完整的英语表达思想,更重要的是要从中西文化差异、思维方式差异和表达习惯差异的角度出发,学会针对不同对象和目标,运用不同的语言达到交际和沟通的目的。

《高等学校英语专业英语教学大纲》对本科生大一、大二的英语写作能力提出了明确而量化的要求。与此同时,近年英语专业四级统测的作文题目越来越向测试学生使用英语表达创造性思维的方向发展。

全球化发展大环境的需求和《教学大纲》对英语写作提出的新要求,从两个不同侧面为初级英语写作教学指明了方向。英语专业初级写作教学的基本任务和目标,应该是帮助学生了解中西方思维、表达方式的差异,学会使用西方人更习惯因而更容易接受的方式表达思想,成功而又创造性地进行书面交流。本课程大纲就是在这样的方针指导下编写完成的。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程旨在使学生 1)了解英语写作的基本知识,让学生树立英语书面表达的信心, 2)用英语连贯性地表达思想,以及 3)了解增强文章可读性的方法手段,如有意识地使用关联词汇、几种吸引读者的开头及接尾的语言形式、长短句的有机结合以及平行结构的巧妙运用等。

本课程要求学生完成以下三个方面并以此综合评分:(1)上课出勤及课堂讨论(40%);(2)作业(20%)和(3)期末考试(40%).

三、课程主要内容及课时分配

本课程主要包括措辞、造句、组段、谋篇及标点等,讲述英语写作的基本知识,让学生树立英语表达的信心。这是写作课必不可少的热身阶段。

课程安排:本课程以每周一次(2课时)计,每学期 36 学时,包括 2 学时期中考试及 14 学时作业讲评。共上两个学期。

四、相关教学环节

本课程以任务教学法的方式分别训练学生的写作技能,并紧扣《教学大纲》对专业四级的写作 要求,分不同步骤训练学生在措辞、造句、组段、谋篇及标点等方面的基本能力,为写好英语文章 奠定坚实的基础。

写作涉及的问题很多,除了语言各方面的问题外,还有思想内容和所用材料、组织条理、书写格式等等,都需要仔细考虑,认真对待。在语言方面,教师应帮助学生在已有的基础上,不断提高表达思想的准确性与鲜明性,逐渐使他们感觉到英语的极强的表达力,从而喜欢琢磨如何写好文章。在内容方面,应要求言之有物,观点正确,条理清楚。在书写格式上,也要严格的要求。所以写作训练是全面的训练,不仅有助于提高语言水平,还有助于提高观察分析、逻辑思考的能力,有助于培养严谨的工作作风。

课堂工作主要有两项:一是讲解,包括做练习;一是学生作业讲评。两项工作所用时间可能要 大致相等。如学生隔周做一次作业,则两项工作隔周轮换是恰当的。

作业讲评,如能抓住重点,对学生会有很大的帮助。所谓要点,就是恰当的表达思想,而不是从表面上看句子结构或用词是否正确。在学生作业中会发现一些句子,本身并没有错,但表达思想不准确、不生动或没有突出重点,或与上下句联系不紧密。在课堂上讨论这样的句子比简单地指出语法错误或用词错误更有启发性,更能促使学生研究写作方法。当然语法与用词问题也需要提出来。还有全篇的组织、重点,以及格式、体例等问题,都可以讨论。至于观点问题,有时比较复杂,在课后和学生个别谈谈可能效果更好。

五、使用教材

丁往道、吴冰等主编,1994,《英语写作手册》,北京外语教学与研究出版社出版。

Chapter I Introduction to Elementary English Writing

Contents:

- 1.1 Introduction to Elementary English Writing
- 1.2 Group discussion
- 1.3 Class activities
- 1.4 Assignment

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

1.1 Introduction to Elementary English Writing

Course Goals:

This course is designed to help students to recognize good writing and to improve their own writing. It aims to increase each student's understanding of the considerations that they should take into account when they write. It also aims to help students erase bad habits that they may have developed, and to help students develop the ability to edit, revise, and improve their own work.

Summary of the Course:

- 1. Make sure students understand the following generally accepted principles of writing well in English.
 - Words:
 - Omit unnecessary words.
- Eliminate unnecessarily long words or fancy, pretentious words when a shorter, more natural word will do.
 - Verbs are the most important words.
 - Nouns are the next most important words.
- Do not overuse nouns at the expense of verbs. When using nouns, aim for the specific over the general, the definite over the vague, and the concrete over the abstract.
- Adjective and Adverbs are less important than verbs and nouns, but when used well, they create distinctions in meaning. Use carefully to add precision. Most good writers use adjectives and adverbs sparingly.

Sentences:

- A. Use the active voice unless you have a good reason for using the passive voice.
- B. Use parallel construction to improve the flow of ideas and heighten their impact.
- C. Vary the length and patterns of your sentences.
- D. Connect up your sentences using the transitional devices described in paragraph 5 above.
- E. Place emphatic words at the end of the sentence (if not at the end, then at the beginning, but not in the middle).

- F. Eliminate slang and clichés.
- G. Make subject and verb agree, maintain consistency of verb tense (do not move in and out of present and past tense).
 - H. Keep related words together.

Paragraphs:

- A. Each paragraph should express one main idea.
- B. A topic sentence usually introduces the main idea.
- C. The paragraph must have unity.
- D. The main idea of the paragraph must be adequately supported by sentences that explain, elaborate, or illustrate the main idea.
 - E. The paragraph must have coherence.
- F. The paragraph usually ends with a concluding sentence. This sentence draws the elaboration to a close and provides a transition to the next paragraph.
- 2. Have students apply generally accepted principles of writing well to their own work. Students will have ample opportunities to write and rewrite. They will also be given paragraphs and sentences that need revision in order to further develop their ability to identify and correct typical writing problems. Particular attention will be given to the following:
 - Writing paragraphs that are 1) adequately developed, 2) coherent, and 3) unified
 - Constructing sentences that are well designed and easy to follow
 - Making effective words choices

Grades:

Grades will be determined as follows:

Class attendance and participation in classroom activities – 40%

Written essay on topic selected by the teachers – 20%

 $Final\ Exam-40\%$

Reference Books:

The Elements of Style, William Strunk, Jr. & E.B. White

Writing Well, Donald Hall

Effective Writing, Jean Witlow

College Writing Skills, John Langan

Sentence Skills for Writers, John Langan & Sharon Winstanley

Writing from Sources, George Braine & Claire May

Legal Writing, Marjorie Rombauer

American Business English, Karen H. Bartell

Chartbook - Understanding and Using English Grammar, Betty Schrampfer Azar

Independent Writing, Teresa D. O'Donnell

Business Across Cultures (Effective Communication Strategies), Laura M. English & Sarah Lynn

A Writer's Companion, Richard Marius

1.2 Group discussion

Discuss the following Questions in small groups:

- 1) What are the differences between speaking and writing?
- 2) What is the difference between western and Chinese patterns of thought? How does this affect their writing?
- 3) What is meant by the idea that western writing is more objective than Chinese writing? Give examples from your own experience.
 - 4) What is plagiarism?
 - 5) Why would a westerner feel uncomfortable with the Chinese use of the imperative?

1.3 Class activities

Each group chooses a reporter to summarize the group discussion in class.

1.4 Assignment

Do you agree with the differences between Chinese and western writing discussed in this part? Can you think of any other differences? Write a 200-300 word essay expressing your views.

Chapter II Manuscript Form

Contents:

- 2.1 Arrangement
- 2.2 Word division
- 2.3 Capitalization
- 2.4 Punctuation
- 2.5 Handwriting
- 2.6 Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

As you are learning to write, you should have a clear idea of what is good manuscript form. You should do everything--writing the title, leaving margins, indenting, capitalizing, and dividing words--according to generally accepted rules. Whenever you write something, work carefully, write neatly and clearly, and try to make as few mistakes as possible. Before handing in your essay or exercise, proofread it once or twice, because you may need to make some final corrections and changes. If you always work in this way, you are sure to make progress.

2.1. Arrangement

You had better write on every other line, and write on only one side of the paper if it is thin.

Leave a margin on each side of the paper--about two centimetres at the top and a centimetre and a half at the left, the right and the bottom.

Write the title in the middle of the first line. Capitalize the first and last words of the title and all other words (including words following hyphens in compound words) except articles, coordinating conjunctions (and, or, but, nor, for), short prepositions, and the to in infinitives.

No period is used at the end of a title. Use a question mark if the title is a direct question, but do not use one if it is an indirect question. Use quotation marks with quotes or titles of articles; and underline names of books.

Indent the first line of every paragraph, leaving a space of about four or five letters.

For paging use Arabic numerals without parentheses or periods in the upper right-hand corner of all pages. The first page need not be marked.

Do not begin a line with a comma, a period, a semicolon, a colon, a question mark or an exclamation mark. Do not end a line with the first half of a pair of brackets, quotation marks, or parentheses. The hyphen that indicates a divided word is put at the end, not at the beginning, of a line.

2.2 Word Division

When you write near the edge of the paper, take a look at the space left. If it is not enough for the word you are going to write, you have to decide whether to divide the word or to write it on the next line. Never squeeze a word into the margin.

The general principle is to divide a word according to its syllables. Pay attention to the following:

- One-syllable words like through, march, brain and pushed cannot be divided.
- Do not write one letter of a word at the end or at the beginning of a line, even if that one letter makes up a syllable, such as a lone, trick y.
 - Do not put a two-letter syllable at the beginning of a line, like hat ed, cab in.
 - Avoid separating proper names of people or places, like China, Aus. ten.
 - Divide hyphenated words only at the hyphen: father-in-law, empty-handed.
 - Do not divide words in a way that may mislead the reader: pea·cock, re·ally.
 - Do not divide the last word on a page. Instead, write the whole word on the next page.
- Divide words with prefixes or suffixes between the prefix or suffix and the base part of the word: re-state-ment, un-relent-ing.
- Divide two-syllable words with double consonants between the two consonants: strug-gle, shat-ter.
 - Dividing words is not always easy. When in doubt, consult a dictionary.

2.3 Capitalization

Capitals are used mainly at three places: the first words of sentences, key words in titles, and proper names.

Not only a complete sentence, but a sentence fragment treated as a sentence, should begin with a capital letter.

The first word of quoted speech (words put between quotation marks) is capitalized. If a quoted sentence is broken into two parts and put in two pairs of quotation marks, the second part does not begin with a capital letter unless the first word is a proper noun or an adjective derived from a proper noun.

Common nouns that are parts of proper names are capitalized.

Words derived from proper names are usually capitalized.

But proper names or their derivatives may become common nouns, verbs or adjectives.

2.4 Punctuation

How to use different punctuation marks will be discussed in detail in Part Ten. The following are a few basic rules which all students learning to write should remember:

- Use a period (full stop) at the end of a complete sentence, however short it is.
- Do not use a comma to join two coordinate clauses; use a comma and a conjunction, or a semicolon.
- Make your commas different from your periods. A comma has a little tail (,); a period is a dot
 (.), not a tiny circle (o), which is used in written Chinese.
- Use a question mark at the end of a direct question; do not use one at the end of an indirect question.
- Use the exclamation mark only after an emphatic interjection or words that express very strong emotion. Do not overuse it.

• Put direct speech between quotation marks. The subject and verb that introduce a quotation may be put before, after, or in the middle of the quotation.

2.5 Handwriting

Write carefully so that your handwriting can be read easily. Be sure to make your capitals a little bigger and higher than your small letters, make your a's different from your o's, and your n's different from your u's, dot your i's and j's, and cross your t's. Leave a little space (about one letter) after a comma and a slightly bigger space (about two letters) after a period.

When you want to cross out a word, do not use brackets to enclose it, but draw a thick line across it. When you want to add a word, write it above, not below, the line of words you have written with a clear sign showing where it is to be inserted.

There are two common ways of writing the letters: one is to form loops and the other is to print (to write without joining the letters). Both are good, but you had better stick to one of the two styles.

2.6 Assignment

Do Exercises I – IV on page 8 of A Handbook of Writing.

Chapter III Diction

Contents:

- 3.1 Levels of Words
- 3.2 The Meaning of Words
- 3.3 General and Specific Words
- 3.4 Idioms
- 3.5 Figures of Speech
- 3.6 Dictionaries
- 3.7 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Eight teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

Diction is the choice and use of words.

3.1 Levels of Words

The words that are often used may be divided, from a stylistic point of view, into three types: **formal, common,** and **colloquial**.

Formal words may also be called learned words, or literary words, or "big" words. They mainly appear in formal writing, such as scholarly or theoretical works, political and legal documents, and formal lectures and addresses. Many such words contain three or more than three syllables; most of them are of Greek or Latin origin. They are seldom used in daily conversation, except for special purposes.

There are words which are mainly used in informal or familiar conversation. They seldom appear in formal writing, and in literary works their main use is to record people's thoughts and dialogues. They are usually short words of one or two syllables and most of them are of Saxon origin (i.e., not borrowed from Greek, Latin, or French). We may call them **colloquial words**, such as guts (meaning courage), guy (man), and hassle (bother).

Thus there are three levels of words, with the formal or learned at the top, the colloquial at the bottom, and the common in the middle. Common words are good for all kinds of writing; formal words are as a rule seldom used in informal writing, while colloquial words are seldom used in formal writing, unless for some special purpose or effect.

These are all words of standard English, which is used by all educated speakers of the language. There are words which are used only by special groups of people for special effect. Among these are **slang words, dialectal words** and certain words that are often used by uneducated-speakers.

Slang words are highly informal; they may be vivid and interesting, but they may, when used inappropriately, make the writer or speaker sound offensive or funny.

3.2 The Meaning of Words

The meaning of a word has two aspects: denotative and connotative. A word's denotation is what it literally means, as defined by the dictionary; its connotation is the feeling or idea suggested by it.

Generally speaking, words of Anglo-Saxon origin are more informal than those of Latin or French origin.

Some synonyms have different collocations.

3.3. General and Specific Words

Comparatively speaking, some words are more general or more specific in meaning than others. Professionals, for instance, is more general than scientists, doctors, teachers, lawyers, journalists, etc., all of which are more specific. But scientists may be called a general word when compared with physicists or chemists, which, in turn, is more general than biochemists.

Although both general and specific words are useful, a student learning to write should make an effort to master and use specific words wherever possible. Specific words help to make writing clear, exact, vivid, and striking, for they are more informative and expressive than general words.

3.4 Idioms

An idiom is a fixed group of words with a special meaning which is different from the meanings of the words that form it. To "read a book", for instance, is not an idiom, for the meaning of the phrase is the meanings of the three words put together, and "a book" can be replaced by other words like "a newspaper" or "a novel". To "read between the lines" is different. The four words that form the phrase give no hint as to what it means and none of the words can be changed to form another understandable phrase.

English is rich in idioms.

Idioms are frequently used in speech and writing. They help to make one's language sound natural and idiomatic. But in using them foreign learners of English should remember the following two points: (1) most idioms are informal or colloquial in style and can be used in conversation; but a few are slang and should be used with care, such as all balled up, meaning troubled or confused, and to cough up, meaning to produce something; (2) many idioms have become cliches and are no longer fresh or interesting, such as armed to the teeth and as good as gold, and should be used sparingly.

3.5 Figures of Speech

Words used in their original meanings are used literally, while words used in extended meanings for the purpose of making comparisons or calling up pictures in the reader's or listener's mind are used figuratively. In "a colorful garden" the word colorful is used in its literal sense, but in "a colorful life" and "a colorful career" the word is used in its figurative sense. Neither life nor career has any color; colorful here has a new extended or figurative meaning: exciting, interesting, and rich in variety. The word suggests a comparison between life or career and something that has different colors, like a garden, and because of this association the word is more impressive than a word used in its literal sense, such as interesting and exciting.

There are various ways of using words figuratively. They are called **figures of speech**. Among the most common of them are:

3.5.1. Simile

It is a comparison between two distinctly different things and the comparison is indicated by the word as or like.

3.5.2. Metaphor

It is the use of a word which originally denotes one thing to refer to another with a similar quality. It is also a comparison, but the comparison is implied, not expressed with the word as or like.

Metaphors are used not only after verb to be, and not only nouns can be used metaphorically.

A metaphor or a simile has to be fresh to be effective. One that has been frequently used over a long period of time will become dull and stale, and cease to function as a metaphor or simile. "The leg of a table" must have been a metaphor when it was first used, but today we feel that leg is used in its literal sense.

3.5.3. Personification

It is to treat a thing or an idea as if it were human or had human qualities. In poetry personification is very common.

3.5.4. Metonymy

It is substituting the name of one thing for that of another with which it is closely associated. Thus the crown can stand for a king, and the White House for the American government, the bottle for wine or alcohol, and the bar for the legal profession. When metonymy is well used, brevity and vividness may be achieved.

3.5.5. Synecdoche

When a part is substituted for the whole or the whole is substituted for a part, synecdoche is applied.

Metonymy and synecdoche are similar as both involve substitution. Sometimes they can hardly be distinguished from metaphor, which in a way is also substitution.

3.5.6. Euphemism

It is the substitution of a mild or vague expression for a harsh or unpleasant one.

3.5.7. Irony

It is the use of words which are clearly opposite to what is meant, in order to achieve a special effect..

3.5.8. Overstatement and understatement

In overstatement the diction exaggerates the subject, and in understatement the words play down the magnitude or value of the subject. Overstatement is also called hyperbole.

Both aim at the same effect: to make the statement or description impressive or interesting.

3.5.9. Transferred Epithet

An epithet is an adjective or descriptive phrase that serves to characterize somebody or something. A transferred epithet is one that is shifted from the noun it logically modifies to a word associated with that noun.

3.5.10. Oxymoron

In oxymoron apparently contradictory terms are combined to produce a special effect.

3.5.11. Alliteration

It refers to the appearance of the same initial consonant sound in two or more words. Alliteration is often used in poetry to give emphasis to words that are related in meaning

3.6 Dictionaries

3.6.1. Using Dictionaries

A foreign learner of English needs to keep a good dictionary handy when he reads or writes. It will help him a great deal in learning and using words.

3.6.2. Some Good Dictionaries

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE),

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (ALD)

Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language (WNWD)

Collins Dictionary of the English Language (CDEL)

Dictionaries of idioms

Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs

Dictionaries of collocations.

Dictionaries of Synonyms and Thesauri.

3.7. Assignment

Do Exercises I –V on pages 36—40 of A Handbook of Writing.

Chapter IV The Sentence

Contents:

- 4.1. Complete Sentences and Sentence Fragments
- 4.2. Types of sentences
- 4.3. Effective sentences
- 4.4. Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Ten teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

4.1. Complete Sentences and Sentence Fragments

A grammatically complete sentence is one that contains at least a subject and a predicate (or finite) verb; if the verb is transitive, there must be an object; if the verb is a link-verb, there must be a predicative or complement:

Attributes and adverbials, though they are not essential elements of a sentence, help to make the meaning clear or complete.

A complete sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a period. Again, this simple rule is important for beginners to remember, for in Chinese writing commas may be used to separate complete sentences. The use of a comma in place of a period, a semicolon, a colon, or a dash in English writing is called the comma fault, which Chinese students should be on guard against.

4.2 Types of Sentences

4.2.1. Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, and Exclamatory Sentences

According to their use, sentences are declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory. A declarative sentence makes an assertion or a statement. An interrogative sentence asks a question. An imperative sentence expresses a command or a request. An exclamatory sentence expresses a strong feeling or emotion, such as surprise, pain, or joy.

4.2.2. Simple, Compound, Complex, and Compound-Complex Sentences

According to their structure, sentences are simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex.

A simple sentence has only one subject and one predicate-verb, but it may contain more than one object, attribute or adverbial. A sentence with two or more subjects or predicate-verbs like "He and his brother went to town and bought a pile of books" is called a simple sentence in some grammar books and a compound one in others. Short simple sentences are usually emphatic; they have special clarity, and provide variety when used with longer sentences.

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses (or simple sentences) related to each other in meaning, and linked by a coordinating conjunction(and, but, or, etc.) or by a semicolon without a conjunction. Coordinated ideas should be compatible and roughly equal in importance, or take shape one by one in orderly sequence.

A complex sentence contains one main (or principal) clause and one or more dependent (or subordinate) clauses, with a connective word denoting the relation between the two parts. The dependent clause may play the part of a subject, an object, a predicative, an attribute, or an adverbial in the main clause. As a rule, the major idea is expressed in the main clause and the idea or ideas of lesser importance in the subordinate clauses.

A compound-complex sentence contains at least two main clauses and at least one dependent clause--a combination of a compound and a complex sentence.

Long complex sentences express complex ideas clearly and accurately, for they have room for all kinds of modifiers. The last two sentences of the first passage and the first and third sentences of the second are good examples.

4.2.3. Loose, Periodic, and Balanced Sentences

From a rhetorical point of view, sentences are loose, periodic, or balanced. A loose sentence puts the main idea before all supplementary information; in other words, it puts first things first, and lets the reader know what it is mainly about when he has read the first few words. The reverse arrangement makes a periodic sentence: the main idea is expressed at or near the end of it, and it is not grammatically complete until the end is reached. The reader does not know what it is mainly about until he finishes reading it.

Loose sentences are easier, simpler, more natural and direct; periodic sentences are more complex, emphatic, formal, or literary.

Balanced sentences are impressive because of the contrast, and pleasing to hear because of the rhythm. They are mainly used in formal writing, like expository and argumentative prose, and speeches.

4.2.4. Short and Long Sentences

Short sentences are usually emphatic, whereas long sentences are capable of expressing complex ideas with precision, because it may contain many modifiers. Short sentences are suitable for the presentation of important facts and ideas, and long sentences for the explanation of views and theories, or the description of things with many details.

Various sentence structures have been discussed. The basic principle is that the structure should fit the idea being expressed. In other words, the idea determines the choice of the structure, not the other way round.

4.3. Effective Sentences

4.3.1. Unity

Unity is the first quality of an effective sentence. A unified sentence expresses a single complete thought. It does not contain ideas that are not closely related, nor does it express a thought that is not complete by itself.

4.3.3. Conciseness

A sentence should contain no unnecessary words. If the idea is fully expressed, the fewer words are used, the better. Wordiness only obscures, instead of clarifying, the idea. But one often uses more words than necessary, so it is a good habit to reread what has been written to see if there are words that can be deleted without affecting the meaning expressed. Compare the following:

4.3.4. Emphasis

When there is an important idea, it should be expressed with emphasis. In speech people use various ways for this purpose, such as speaking loudly, or slowly, saying very short Sentences, or using a gesture. In writing there are also ways for placing emphasis on sentences or words that should be emphasized.

(1) Emphatic Sentences

In a passage there may be sentences which are more important than others because they convey more important ideas than others do. Such sentences may be emphasized in the following ways:

Short sentences. It has been mentioned that short sentences are more emphatic than long ones, especially at the beginning or end of a paragraph, or in the midst of long sentences.

Sentence fragments. They are also called one-member sentences. They are emphatic because they contain only the few words that express the main idea.

Inverted sentences. They are emphatic because their unusual word order draws the reader's attention.

Parallel constructions and balanced sentences.

Periodic sentences. Their climactic word order makes them emphatic.

Imperative and exclamatory sentences. They are naturally emphatic.

Rhetorical questions. They are questions in form but emphatic statements in meaning.

Negative-positive statements. They first point out what is not the truth, and then what is. The contrast makes them emphatic.

Sentences with repeated words or phrases.

(2) Emphasis within the Sentence

Very often a part of a sentence, whether it is a word or a phrase, should be given emphasis because it is where the main point of the sentence is. Various ways can be used to achieve this.

Placing. The beginning and the end, especially the end, of a sentence are the two places that attract the reader's attention. If possible, important words should be put there.

Repetition. Unnecessary repetition adds nothing new to the meaning of a sentence; therefore it should be avoided. But sometimes, in a proper context repeating a word or an idea in different words may be a means of emphasis.

The verb and the active voice. When describing actions, one had better use verbs instead of nouns denoting actions, for verbs are generally more vivid and emphatic than nouns.

Subordination. This means putting a minor idea in a dependent element of the sentence so as to give the main idea a prominent position.

A series of short sentences, if related in meaning, may be combined with the main idea properly emphasized.

Emphatic words and phrases. There are words and phrases that may be used to emphasize other words.

Alliteration. It means the appearance of the same consonant sound at the beginning of two or more words.

4.3.5. Variety

Variety is essential to good writing. A series of sentences of the same structure and length, beginning with the same noun or pronoun as the subject, would sound monotonous.

Variety is achieved when short sentences are used in between long ones, simple sentences in between compound and complex ones, periodic sentences in between loose ones. An occasional question, command, or exclamation among statements may also be helpful.

4.4. Assignment

Do Exercises I –VII on pages 72—80 of A Handbook of Writing.

Chapter V The Paragraph

Contents:

- 5.1 Effective Paragraphs
- 5.2 Ways of Developing Paragraphs
- 5.3 Assignment

Time Allotment:

Twenty teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

A paragraph is a unit of thought; it is at once a unit in itself and part of a larger whole, that is, the essay.

A paragraph is like a mini-essay; it should be unified, coherent and well developed. A paragraph is unified when all the sentences in the paragraph are focused on one central thought or on a single topic; when the writer wishes to introduce a new thought or topic, he should begin a new paragraph. A paragraph is coherent when it develops naturally and smoothly, and one sentence leads logically to another. There are many ways to develop a paragraph, for example, by process, by cause and effect, by comparison and contrast, etc.

Paragraphs vary in length. In a short expository essay of about 600 words, the average paragraph may be about 100 words, or between four and eight sentences. Ultimately, the length of the paragraph depends on its topic, its position in the essay and its role in the development of the thesis statement. Paragraphs in books are usually longer than those in newspapers. A long paragraph expresses a complex idea, and a short one makes a major transition, an emphatic statement, or a summary. An experienced writer varies the length of his paragraphs to avoid monotony.

5.1. Effective Paragraphs

5.1.1. Unity

Unity of a paragraph is concerned with its content. If all the sentences in the paragraph lead to one central theme, the paragraph is unified. The central theme is usually summarized in what is called the topic sentence. It often appears at the beginning of the paragraph; however, it may also be found in the middle or at the end of a paragraph.

5.1.2. Coherence

Coherence of a paragraph is concerned with its form, or its organization. The sentences in a paragraph should be arranged in a clear, logical order, and the transitions should be smooth and natural. As a result, the reader finds it easy to follow the writer's train of thought and understand what he is talking about.

5.1.3. Transition

Coherence may not be perfect even if the writer arranges his sentences in a clear, logical order. He has to use good transitions so that one sentence runs smoothly to another.

The following ways may help the writer to produce a fluent paragraph:

A. Using parallel structures;

- B. Repeating words or word groups;
- C. Using pronouns to refer to nouns in preceding sentences;
- D. Being consistent in the person and number of nouns and pronouns, and the tense of verbs.

Using transitional expressions

- 1) Connectives and transitional phrases for spatial development: above, before me, here, on the left, across from, below, in the distance, on the right, adjacent to, beyond, nearby, opposite to, also, further, next to, on top of, up, down, close to, beneath, under, around, near to, over
- 2) Connectives and transitional phrases for chronological development: first, second, etc. soon, eventually, in the meantime, then, thereupon, at the same time, next, thereafter, after, an interval, now, after, presently, later, afterward, somewhat, later, finally, at last
- 3) Connectives and transitional phrases for analytical development: first, second, etc. now, for this purpose, but, as a result, furthermore, finally, at last, moreover, also, consequently, likewise, another, for example, next, yet, for instance, on the contrary, once, in addition, in summary, such, in this case, on the other hand, then, otherwise, in conclusion, thus, in closing, therefore

4) Connectives and transitional phrases for comparisons:

another, furthermore, moreover, equally important, too, also, at the same time, besides, then, accordingly, in fact, in addition to, like, likewise, similarly, just as... so, in the same way

5) Connectives and transitional phrases for contrasts:

on the contrary, different from/in contrast, on the other hand, despite, in spite of, yet, but, whereas, unlike, nevertheless, not only..., but also, here..., three years ago..., today, this..., that, the former..., the latter, then..., now, the first ..., whereas, the some..., others, second, on the one hand ..., on once..., now, the other

5.2. Ways of Developing Paragraphs

5.2.1. Planning a Paragraph

Paragraphs need to be planned. First, think of the topic or theme or main idea, and express it in a complete sentence (topic sentence). Then think of the details or examples or facts that may be used to support or explain the main idea. Arrange them in logical order, and you have a rough plan of the paragraph.

5.2.2. Development by Time

In telling a story or recounting an event, the easiest and clearest way is to describe things in order of time: earlier things are mentioned before later things, the first thing first and the last thing last. This method is also called chronological sequencing.

5.2.3. Development by Process

When you have to explain how something is done, you usually follow a chronological sequence and give a step-by-step description. As the steps must occur one after another, the exact order in which they are carried out is most important. In giving instructions, imperative sentences and sentences with the indefinite pronoun you as the subject are often used. The present tense should be used if the instructions are still applicable.

5.2.4. Development by Space

Before we begin to describe a place, whether it is a large country or a small room, we have to decide on the order in which to name the different parts or details. For this we should find out the space relationships between them and arrange our description accordingly. It would only confuse the reader to mention them in a haphazard way.

5.2.5. Development by Example or Generalization

Supporting a topic sentence with examples or illustrations makes a general statement specific and easy to understand. An illustration is a case, a specimen, an instance. Vivid illustrations light up abstract ideas and make them clear, interesting, memorable, or convincing.

Illustrations may be a single example or a series of examples.

5.2.6. Development by Comparison and Contrast

The method of comparison and contrast is often used. We compare the present and the past of China, the cultures of the East and the West, Chinese and English. By comparing and contrasting we may get a clearer picture of things.

Strictly speaking, a comparison points out the similarities between two or more persons or things of the same class, while a contrast, the differences between them. In practice, however, comparison and contrast often appear together, because people generally compare two things that are similar in certain ways and different in others.

There are two major ways of organizing paragraphs of comparison and contrast. One way is to examine one thing thoroughly and then examine the other. In this way, the aspects examined in the two things should be identical and in the same order. This method is called block comparison or block contrast. The other way is to examine two things at the same time, discussing them point by point. This method is called alternating comparison or alternating contrast.

Alternating contrast is used when you want to point out several differences between two things or people without discussing them in great detail. You merely point out a special feature of one item and then state how the other item differs from it in that aspect.

Analogies are especially helpful in explaining abstract ideas, for they relate ideas that cannot be experienced through the senses of sight, smell, hearing, touch, or taste, to a sense experience, thus making the ideas easy to understand.

5.2.7. Development by Cause and Effect

In our daily conversation, questions with why are often asked and answered. This shows that causal analysis is very common; it is something we are familiar with.

Sound reasoning or logic is naturally the most important quality of any causal analysis. But it is not always easy to explain causes and effects clearly and logically. One reason for this is that an effect may have many causes and a cause may have many effects. So we must be thorough in our discussion and careful in our selection of details.

5.2.8. Development by Classification

To classify is to sort things into categories according to their characteristics. We classify many things: trees, rivers, cities, companies, college students. We group things according to their similarities and differences. If we classify rivers, we separate them into wide ones, narrow ones, long ones, short ones, deep ones, shallow ones. Apples may be classified according to size, place of origin, color, price, or quality.

Essential to a good classification is parallelism. If we classify types of sports, we may speak of track and field events, swimming, ball games, gymnastics, etc. If we classified sports into jumping, ball games, running, floor exercise and backstroke, we would violate parallelism, for ball games should be considered

a general category, while jumping and running are subcategories of the track and field events; gymnastics is a general category, and floor exercise a particular form of it. In short, in a good classification the parts must be parallel, and they should add up to the whole subject.

5.2.9. Development by Definition

Sometimes, to avoid confusion or misunderstanding, we have to define a word, term, or concept which is unfamiliar to most readers or open to various interpretations.

There are three basic ways to define a word or term: to give a synonym, to use a sentence (often with an attributive clause), and to write a paragraph or even an essay. We are using the first method when we say, for instance, "To mend means to repair," or "A fellow is a man or a boy." Ink may be defined in a sentence: "Ink is colored water which we use for writing." But a synonym or a sentence cannot give a satisfactory definition of an abstract term whose meaning is complex. We have to write a paragraph or an essay with examples or negative examples (what the term does not mean), with analogies or comparisons, with classification or cause-and-effect analysis.

When we give a definition, we should observe certain principles.

First, we should avoid circular definitions. "Democracy is the democratic process" and "An astronomer is one who studies astronomy" are circular definitions. When words are defined in terms of themselves, no one's understanding is improved.

Second, we should avoid long lists of synonyms if the term to be defined is an abstract one. When a paragraph begins with "By imagination, I mean the power to form mental images of objects, the power to form new ideas, the gift of employing images in writing, and the tendency to attribute reality to unreal things, situations and states," the reader knows the writer is picking up words and expressions from a dictionary, indiscriminately blasting a load of abstract terms at the reader in the hope that one will hit.

Third, we should avoid loaded definitions. Loaded definitions do not explain terms but make an immediate appeal for emotional approval. A definition like "By state enterprise I mean high cost and poor efficiency" is loaded with pejorative emotional connotation. Conversely, "By state enterprise I mean one of the great blessings of democratic planning" is loaded with favorable emotional connotation. Such judgments can be vigorous conclusions to a discussion, but they lead to argument, not clarification, when offered as definitions.

5.2.10. Development by a Combination of Methods

We have discussed quite a few methods for developing paragraphs. Sometimes only one of them is used in a paragraph, but often two or three of them are used in the same paragraph. Writers may find it necessary to use a combination of methods in order to present their ideas in an impressive and convincing manner.

5.3 Assignment

Do Exercises I—XI on pages 109—143 of A Handbook of Writing.

Chapter VI The Whole Composition

Contents:

- 6.1 Steps in Writing a Composition
- 6.2 Organization
- 6.3 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Twenty teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

The basic aim of a writing course is to develop the ability to write whole compositions (or essays, theses, papers). Students attending this course are generally asked to write short compositions of 500 to 1,000 words on their lives, studies, experiences and views on questions they are interested in. They are seldom or never asked to write fiction, drama or poetry. In other words, their compositions will mainly be prose dealing with facts. In the following pages we shall first discuss the necessary steps in writing a composition, and then the four common types of compositions students should learn to write.

6.1. Steps in Writing a Composition

6.1.1. Planning a Composition

One should not begin writing a composition without sufficient preparation. Writing is like building. Before beginning to build a house, the workers usually have a plan before them and have prepared enough material. A writer should also work out a plan and collect enough material before he writes the first sentence of his composition.

When a topic is assigned, the student should first try to think of as many relevant facts as he can and write them down on a piece of paper (without caring about the form and order of the items). At the same time, he should try to find a proper thesis or theme. The thesis of a composition is its main point or its central idea. It is the conclusion that should be drawn from the facts to be presented in the composition. After that, he should look at the list of facts again, eliminate those unnecessary or unimportant ones, rearrange them in a logical order, and write an outline.

6.1.2. Types of Outlines

An outline like the above one subdivides the controlling idea or thesis of the essay into smaller parts, which are then developed into separate paragraphs. Roman and Arabic numerals and letters of the alphabet are generally used to number and order ideas as in the following:

Thesis (controlling idea)

- I. Introduction
- II. Main idea
- A. Sub-idea
- B. Sub-idea
- 1. Supporting detail
- 2. Supporting detail
- a. Fact 1

- b. Fact 2
- III. Main idea
- A. Sub-idea
- B. Sub-idea
- 1. Supporting detail
- 2. Supporting detail
- 3. Supporting detail
- C. Sub-idea
- IV. Conclusion

There are two commonly used types of outlines: **the topic outline** and **the sentence outline**. All entries in a topic outline consist of nouns and their modifiers, or their equivalents, that is, gerund phrases or infinitive phrases, whereas the entries in a sentence outline are complete sentences. A topic outline is brief and clear, and it gives an instant overview of the entire paper. A sentence outline, on the other hand, provides a more detailed plan of the paper. Compare the following two outlines for a paper on foreign trade:

6.1.2.1. A Topic Outline

Thesis: Foreign trade is beneficial to and indispensable for all nations.

- I . Introduction: the foundation of foreign trade
- II. The necessity of visible trade
- A. Lack of certain commodities
- B. Insufficiency of particular items
- C. Comparative advantage in certain items
- D. Latest innovations and different styles of commodities
- E. The importance of a favorable balance of trade
- III. The necessity of invisible trade--exchange of services between nations
- A. Transportation
- B. Insurance
- C. Tourism
- D. Technology
- IV. Conclusion: the purpose of foreign trade and the importance of the balance of payments

6.1.2.2. A Sentence Outline

Thesis: Foreign trade is beneficial to and indispensable for all nations.

- I. Introduction: the utilization of different economic resources and the development of different skills form the foundation of foreign trade
 - II. Trade in commodities (visible trade) is necessary between nations.
 - A. No nation has all the commodities it needs.
 - B. A nation may not have enough of certain commodities.
 - C. A nation may sell certain commodities at a profit.
 - D. Latest innovations and different styles of commodities may make foreign trade necessary.
- E. All nations strive to maintain a favorable balance of trade so as to be assured of the means to buy necessary goods.
 - III. Exchange of services between nations (invisible trade) is part of foreign trade.

- A. Nations vie in providing transportation for foreign trade.
- B. Prudent exporters purchase insurance for their cargoes.
- C. Tourism brings a nation huge profits.
- D. Technology is also exported and imported.
- IV. Conclusion: the purpose of foreign trade is to earn money for necessary imports and it is important to keep the balance of payments.

The following are a few rules for writing outlines:

- (1) Avoid single subdivisions. If there is a major point marked "I", there must be at least another marked "II"; if there is an "A", there must be a "B", and so on.
- (2) Avoid mixing types. A topic outline is written all noun phrases, and a sentence outline in sentences. Do not mix these two types.
- (3) Use parallel structures for the headings of the same rank. Make sure subheads of like rank are of equal importance and are related to the heading and arranged in logical order.
- (4) Make sure the thesis is a complete declarative sentence the affirmative; do not use a question, a phrase or a dependent clause.

6.1.3. Writing the First Draft

Now that the outline is ready, the writer can begin to write the composition itself. But it would be over-optimistic to presume that he will have no more trouble and will be able to finish the whole thing at one stroke. Most probably he will meet with many difficulties in the process of writing and find it slow and tiring work. He need not be disappointed, though. Even an experienced writer may find it hard to organize and express his ideas well.

It is necessary to write a first draft, in which there should be enough space between lines for future corrections and improvements. While writing the draft, the writer need not be afraid of departing from the outline at one place or another. But he had better stop to revise his outline or work out a new one if he finds his original outline entirely impracticable.

6.1.4. Revising the First Draft

This is an important step but it is often neglected. When pressed for time, students will start copying the first draft as soon as it is written. Thus there cannot be much improvement.

If possible, a student should write the first draft one or two days before the time when he has to hand in the composition to the teacher. He will then have enough time for revising the draft, and be able to examine it more objectively.

When he is writing the first draft, his attention is focused on turning his ideas into words. It will be only natural that some of his sentences are not very well formed and some of his words not very well chosen. It is also possible that whole paragraphs are not properly organized. At places he may make grammar or spelling mistakes. Revision, therefore, is absolutely necessary. Nearly all good writing is the result of much revision.

While revising a composition, the student should keep in mind that revision does not mean a simple correction of mistakes in grammar, spelling, punctuation, and other mechanics.

The following checklist may be of help:

I. Content: Look at the essay/composition as a whole.

A. What is the topic of the essay/composition? Does the draft fulfill the assignment (e. g. mode of development or type of composition)?

- B. Is the thesis clear? Is it supported by enough facts (details, examples, reasons, etc.)?
- C. Is there irrelevant material that should be removed?
- D. Is the logic sound? Are there gaps in the logic?
- **II. Organization:** Look at the arrangement of the material.
- A. Does the introductory paragraph lead to the main point of the paper?
- B. Does each paragraph have a separate central idea? Does it relate to the essay's main idea or to the previous paragraph? Are there proper transitions between sections? Are the paragraphs arranged in climactic order?
- C. Does the concluding paragraph give the reader a clear impression of what the paper intends to say?

III. Sentences:

- A. Is each sentence clearly related to the sentence that precedes it and to the sentence that follows?
- B. Are there unnecessary sentences that may be removed?
- C. Are there structural mistakes?
- D. Are there wordy and redundant sentences?
- E. Is there variety in sentence type?

IV. Diction:

- A. Are there words that are not appropriate for the topic or the style of the whole essay (e. g. too colloquial or too formal)?
- B. Are there words or phrases which are directly translated from Chinese but which may mean something different in English?
- C. Are there collocations which may be incorrect because they are taken from Chinese (e. g. a big rain)?

The list does not include questions concerning mistakes in grammar, spelling, punctuation, and other mechanics, because students are generally mindful of such mistakes.

6.1.5. Making the Final Copy

After the draft is carefully revised, a clean final copy has to be made. The student should follow the specifications about the manuscript form that his teacher has given him, or follow the rules of manuscript form given in Part One of the book if his teacher has not given directions to the contrary.

The very last step in writing a composition, a step that should never be forgotten, is to check the final copy. In doing so the writer is likely to find that he has made careless mistakes in grammar and spelling, and he may also want to change a word here and there.

6.2. Organization

6.2.1. Some Principles

Like a paragraph, a composition must have unity. All the facts and all the ideas in an essay should contribute to the presentation of its thesis or central thought. Irrelevant things, however interesting they are, should be excluded. A speaker may be allowed to digress from his main subject for a little while, but a writer is not given such freedom.

A composition consists of several paragraphs, each of which has one central thought. They must be arranged in some kind of order, so that one paragraph leads naturally to another to form an organic whole. What the order should be depends on the nature of the subject, or the type of essay to be written. One possible method is to arrange the paragraphs according to the importance of the ideas they express,

putting the more important after the less important, and the most important at the end of the essay, so as to bring about a climax.

Proportion is as important to an essay as it is to a painting. Main facts or ideas deserve full treatment; minor ones should be gown en less space. The essential part of an essay is the body or the middle part. To give this part about seven or eight-tenths of the total space will be just right. The beginning and the end, though important, have to be short.

6.2.2. The Beginning

Most, if not all, essays are made up of a beginning, a middle, and an end. The beginning (the introduction) rouses the reader's interest in and secures his attention to the subject matter of the essay or provides necessary background information. The middle (the body) gives a clear and logical presentation of the facts and ideas the writer intends to put forth. The end (the conclusion) winds up the essay often with an emphatic and forceful statement to influence the reader's final impression of the essay and shows the implication or consequences of the argument.

To the writer the beginning is often the hardest part of an essay, because he has to decide from what point to start, and in what direction to go. There is no single way to begin all essays.

(1) A quotation

Hegel, the German philosopher, says, "We learn from history that men never learn anything from history." This wry remark has been confirmed time and again by historical events, one of which is Hitler's invasion of the Soviet Union. He must have utterly forgotten or will be fully ignored the great disaster Napoleon brought upon himself by attacking Russia early in the nineteenth century.

(2) Figures or statistics

The attack on the Soviet Union was the largest and fiercest of all that Hider had launched. He threw in 190 divisions, 3,000 tanks, over 5,000 planes, and altogether 5.5 million men.

(3) A question or several questions

What made Hitler decide to leave Britain alone for the time being and turn east to attack the Soviet Union? What made him so sure of a quick victory in that vast country where Napoleort had lost almost all his troops?

(4) The time and place of the event to be described

On the morning of June 22,1941, along the entire 1,800 kilometer-long Soviet frontier, from the Baltic to the Black Sea, the fascist German forces attacked.

(5) Relevant background material

By the middle of 1941, Hitler had occupied fourteen European countries. All the manpower and resources of these countries, from France to Poland, from Norway to Greece, were at his disposal. It seemed to him that the time had come for his greatest venture--the invasion of the Soviet Union.

(6) An analogy

A traditional story describes a foolish man lifting a rock too heavy for him and having his own feet squashed. Hitler was like that foolish man, but he was different in that, before he destroyed himself, he destroyed millions of other people.

(7) A definition

Fascism can be defined as the use of brutal force in enslaving the people at home and the people of foreign countries. Fascism is oppression and aggression.

These beginnings may be appropriate for an expository essay. For narrative and descriptive writing there are many other possible ways, such as the description of a person's appearance, of a place, of a scene, etc., a dialogue, or an anecdote.

It is even sometimes practicable to write the introduction after the middle and end of the essay have been written.

6.2.3. The End

The end of an essay is important because it is often the part that gives the reader the deepest impression. Not every essay needs a separate concluding paragraph. For a short composition, the last paragraph of the body, even the last sentence of that paragraph, may serve as the end, so long as it can give the reader a feeling of completeness. A composition of over 1,000 words may require a concluding paragraph that summarizes the main points to help the reader to remember them. But if the points are arranged in a climactic sequence, the last point, which is the most important one, is good enough to be the end--a new paragraph would only weaken the climax.

Concluding paragraphs should be short, forceful, substantial, and thought-provoking, made up mainly of restatements or summaries of the points that have been discussed. No new ideas should be introduced in a concluding paragraph.

Sometimes it is good to link the concluding paragraph to the introductory. If, for instance, a question is raised in the introductory paragraph, an answer should be given in the concluding paragraph.

Chapter VII Punctuation

Contents:

- 7.1 A brief overview of punctuation
- 7.2 End punctuation
- 7.3 Comma
- 7.4 Other types of punctuation

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

7.1 A brief overview of punctuation

When we are talking with someone, we use our voice and our delivery to **punctuate**: we pause for a short time (commas) or for a longer time (semicolons and periods); we shout (exclamation marks); or we query (question marks). When we write, our punctuation substitutes for our body language: they help us make sure our writing will make sense to our readers.

The major function of punctuation is to make writing clearer and easier to read. Beyond showing where pauses or stops would occur in speech, they indicate logical relations that would otherwise be hard for a reader to make out. For example, parentheses, brackets, dashes, and commas all signal a pause, but they suggest different relations between main and subordinate material. The only way to make sure that our punctuation marks are working with our meaning, not against it, is to master the rules.

Before we discuss **individual punctuation** marks in detail, a brief review of the relationship among the four punctuation marks which are used most often (period, semicolon, colon, and comma) may facilitate understanding. These marks can be ranked in order of their relative strengths as follows:

- Period.
- Semicolon.
- Colon.
- Comma.

7.2 End punctuation

The three marks of end punctuation- period, question mark and exclamation mark--work like a red traffic light by signaling a complete stop.

7.2.1. Period

Periods are used at the ends of all sentences except those that are interrogative or exclamatory. They have the following principal uses:

- To end a statement.
- To end a polite command
- To end an indirect question.
- To punctuate abbreviations.

Something to note

- If a statement ends with an abbreviation, the period at the end of the sentence is not doubled.
- If an abbreviation occurs in the middle of a sentence, it retains its period. The period may even be followed by another punctuation mark.
 - To express decimals.
- To indicate the omission of words. Three spaced periods are used to indicate the omission of words. If the omission occurs at the end of a sentence, a fourth period is added to mark the end of the sentence.

7.2.2. Question mark

A question mark ends all interrogative sentences. It has the following principal uses:

- To end a direct question.
- To end any expression intended as a question, whether the form is interrogatory or not. (The use of a non-interrogative form to ask a question is seldom seen in any writing except in a reproduction of conversation.)
 - Enclosed in parenthesis to express doubt

7.2.3. Exclamation mark

The **exclamation mark** is used after a word, phrase, or sentence to indicate intense feeling or forceful utterance.

7.3 Comma

The **comma** is especially important because it is the main device by which the grouping of words, phrases, and clauses is indicated. It is the most frequently used--and misused--punctuation mark in English. Unlike the period, the **comma signal's** a brief pause. Thus, the comma works like a blinking yellow traffic light, for which you slow down without coming to a dead stop.

The comma has the following principal uses:

- Use commas to separate items in a-series of three or more.
- Place a comma between independent clauses when they are joined by these transition words: and, nor, for, or, but, yet, so, etc.
 - Use commas to set off an appositive or a term of direct address.
- Use commas to set off an adverbial clause preceding its principal clause, or an adverbial phrase at the beginning of a clause.
- Use commas to set off independent elements, participial phrases, gerund phrases, and other such constructions at the beginning of a sentence.
- Use commas to set off a conjunctive adverb (however, moreover, therefore, etc.) when it comes within the clause to which it applies. When it comes at the beginning of a clause, it may or may not be followed by a comma but will always be preceded by a period or semicolon.
- Use commas to set off any mildly parenthetical element if it seems desirable to set it apart from the rest of the sentence.
- Use commas to set off a term such as namely or that is, used to introduce an example or a list. (The mark that precedes such an expression depends on the sentence structure.)
 - Use commas to set off non-restrictive clauses.
 - Use commas to set off a word or phrase that is placed in an abnormal position in a sentence.
 - Use commas to set off a direct quotation.

- Use commas to separate two or more adjectives preceding a noun. (The comma before the last adjective is omitted, however, if that adjective is so closely associated with the noun that the two merge into a single thought unit.) Likewise, use a comma to separate two or more adverbs that modify the same verb.
 - Use commas to separate items in dates, places, and numbers.

7.4 Other types of punctuation

7.4.1. Semicolon

The **semicolon** is a more powerful link than the comma. Remember that we can use a comma followed by a conjunction to link independent clauses, but we can use a semicolon alone to perform the same task. In fact, the primary task of the semicolon is linking independent clauses. The semicolon joins two closely related statements within the same sentence. It shows that two statements within one sentence are intimately related in meaning. We can think of **a semicolon** as the center point on a balance because semicolons usually mark off or link items of equal grammatical weight.

The **semicolon** has the following principal uses:

- Use a semicolon to join independent clause closely related to each other in thought. The semicolon tells us to read the linked clauses as a pair.
- Use a semicolon to replace the conjunction-comma combination (, and , , nor, , for , , or , , but , , yet , , so) that joins two independent ideas.
- Use a semicolon to join independent clauses connected by words or phrases such as however, therefore, nevertheless, nonetheless, moreover, conversely, consequently, furthermore, instead, accordingly, hence, other' wise, and so on. (Words such as these are called conjunctive adverbs when they are used to link sentences.)
 - Use a semicolon to separate elements in a series when these elements contain internal commas

7.4.2. Colon

A **colon** is used to introduce a list or a quotation. It may also be used to clarify the preceding clause or illustrate a point in the preceding clause.

Use a colon after an independent clause to introduce a list, a direct quotation, or an explanation.

Use a colon between two phrases, clauses, or even sentences when the second is actually the equivalent of the first. In this use it conveys a meaning similar to that of namely or that is.

Use a colon to separate hours and minutes, to end the salutation of a business letter, and to introduce a subtitle.

7.4.3. Ouotation marks

Quotation marks- which always appear in pairs- highlight whatever appears between them. Conventionally, double marks (" ") are used around direct discourse and titles.

Quotations marks have the following principal uses.

Use quotation marks to indicate someone's exact words, whether written, spoken, or thought.

Use quotation marks to enclose titles of short poems, articles, short stories--in general, the titles of writings that are not printed as independent publications

Use quotation marks to indicate formal definitions or words not to be taken at face value.

Use quotation marks to enclose the names of ships, trains, airplanes, and the like, and to enclose words used as words. (Italics are used more frequently.)

7.4.4. Dash and parentheses

We can use four punctuation marks to add nonessential material to our sentences: quotation marks, commas, dashes, and parentheses. We are already familiar with the first two. The other two are **dash and parentheses.**

7.4.4.1. Dash

If we are typing, the dash is two hyphens with no space. **Dashes** are used to mark a break in thought or an abrupt shift in emphasis. The dash has the following principal uses.

- Use a dash to introduce a word, phrase, or clause that summarizes or restates what came just before.
 - Use a pair of dashes to enclose a series of items separated by commas.
- Use a dash or a pair of dashes to set off from the rest of the sentence a climatic or emphatic
 - Use a pair of dashes to show an interruption in dialogue
 - Use dashes to set off items, phrases, or credit lines.
 - Use dashes to mark off questions and answers.

7.4.4.2. Parentheses

Like dashes, **parentheses** are used to enclose an interruption to a sentence. The difference between them is a matter of tone: dashes SHOUT-- they serve to draw the reader's attention to the material they enclose--but **parentheses** (which should be used sparingly) "whisper." The words between the parentheses are supplementary, intended to comment on or clarify a point. Occasionally, entire sentences are placed in parentheses to signal to a reader that additional information is being provided.

Use **parentheses** sparingly; substitute paired commas in those cases in which we want an additional comment to be more closely linked to the main flow of the sentence.

Parentheses have the following principal uses:

Use parentheses to define terms that a reader cannot be expected to know.

Use parentheses to note a point that we would like a reader to consider, even though it is not essential to the gist of our text

Use parentheses to enclose reference data in a research paper.

7.4.5. Brackets

Brackets have the following principal uses.

• Use brackets to mark off material that is inserted into a quotation for the purpose of clarity or to produce a grammatically correct sentence.

Use

brackets around parenthetical material within parentheses.

7.4.6. Hyphen

The **hyphen**, a humble but much-used mark, either divides syllables or links words. It has the following uses.

- Use a hyphen at the end of a line when lack of space makes it necessary to break a word and complete it on the line below. The break must come at the end of a syllable. It is best, when possible, to avoid breaking a word where only two letters would either precede or follow the hyphen.
 - Use hyphens to link various kinds of compound words and expressions.

• Use hyphens to link prefixes and suffixes to base words; to create compound phrases; to prevent from being misread.

7.4.7. Ellipsis mark

The three spaced periods that form an ellipsis mark indicate a gap in a sentence. Either the writer has left something out or wanted an idea to seem to trail away. **Ellipsis marks** (or ellipses, for short) have the following uses:

- Use ellipses to indicate that material has been left out of a direct quotation. This material may be a word, a phrase, a complete sentence, or more.
 - Use ellipses to indicate any gap or pause in a sentence, not necessarily in quoted material.
 - Use ellipses to suggest an action that is incomplete or continuing.

7.4.8. Slash

The **slash** has the following uses:

- Use a slash to indicate alternative words of equal weight.
- Use a slash to indicate lines of poetry when they are not indented, but are run into the text. Be sure to put a space before and after the slash.
- Use a slash to separate the numerator from the denominator when fractions are written in a sentence.
 - Use a slash to mean "per" in the sentence.

7.4.9. Apostrophe

The **apostrophe** has two different functions, it indicates possession (ownership), and it indicates omission of a letter or of letters (in contractions). It has the following uses.

- Use an apostrophe to indicate possession\
- Use an apostrophe to indicate omission.
- Use-'s to form the plural of lowercase letters, abbreviations containing periods, and words used as examples of words.
 - · add x's
 - · compare I. D.'s
 - $\cdot \ too \ many \ no's$

《高级英语写作(一)、(二)》教学大纲

李 立 编写

目 录

253
253
253
253
254
254
255
257
261
264
269
272
276
279
283
286
290
294
298
301
304

前言

一、概述

《高级英语写作教程》(A Course for Advanced English Writing)是为外国语学院英语专业本科 生第 4、5 学期开设的一门专业必修课。

在我国日益融入全球化进程的今天,英语书面交际能力在对外交流中占据着越来越重要的地位。这种重要性表现在对书面交际的需求日益增加、对写作能力的要求日益提高两个方面。高层次的书面交流,不仅要求使用语法正确、句子通顺、结构完整的英语表达思想,更重要的是要从中西文化差异、思维方式差异和表达习惯差异的角度出发,学会针对不同对象和目标,运用不同的语言达到交际和沟通的目的。

《高等学校英语专业英语教学大纲》对本科生大三、大四的英语写作能力提出了明确而量化的要求。与此同时,近年英语专业八级统测的作文题目越来越向测试学生使用英语表达创造性思维的方向发展。

全球化发展大环境的需求和《教学大纲》对英语写作提出的新要求,从两个不同侧面为高级英语写作教学指明了方向。英语专业高级写作教学的基本任务和目标,应该是帮助学生了解中西方思维、表达方式的差异,学会使用西方人更习惯因而更容易接受的方式表达思想,成功而又创造性地进行书面交流。本课程大纲就是在这样的方针指导下编写完成的。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程旨在使学生 1)用英语连贯性地表达思想,2)了解不同体裁的英语写作,掌握不同体 裁的结构特点及写作风格,以及3)了解并练习英语实用文体写作。

本课程要求学生完成以下三个方面并以此综合评分:(1)上课出勤及课堂讨论(30%);(2)作业(40%)和(3)期末考试(30%).

三、课程主要内容及课时分配

本课程分两大部分。

第一部分包括描写文、叙述文、论说文等各种不同体裁的写作。每讲分两部分。第一部分详细 解释该体裁的结构特点和写作策略等。第二部分是范文选读,通过阅读该体裁的名家佳作数篇,使 学生了解不同体裁的写作风格,最后布置适量的练习。 第二部分是实用性写作,包括书信(私人信件和商务信件)、简历和应聘信以及备忘录等写作, 这些都是学习英语写作的学生应掌握的写作技巧。

课程安排:本课程以每周一次(2课时)计,每学期36学时,包括2学时期中考试及16学时作业讲评。共上两个学期。

四、相关教学环节

本课程以任务教学法的方式分别训练学生的语言技能、不同体裁文章、实用交际文种等的写作基本方法,并紧扣《教学大纲》对专业六级和八级的写作要求,分不同步骤训练学生撰写各种正式文种,提高学生使用英语的能力,为写好毕业论文奠定坚实的基础。

本课程应该注意两个重点。一是教材内容本身,特别要注重培养学生掌握符合英语习惯的篇章 结构和表达方式;二是对学生作文的课堂讲评。学生在完成有针对性的写作任务后,教师要从篇章 结构、逻辑思维、语言连贯、选词得当等方面进行课堂讲评,让学生了解怎样从宏观和微观两方面 体现英语表达的习惯,提高书面交际的能力与效果。

另外,教师在讲授过程中还应当强调学生对课文的预习、要启发学生独立思考和判断的学习主动性。教师的讲授主要在于分析和引导,帮助学生深化对文章的理解。做练习的方法与步骤以学生课外完成、课堂讨论、教师归纳总结的方式进行。

五、使用教材

丁往道、吴冰等主编,1994,《英语写作手册》,北京外语教学与研究出版社出版。

Chapter I Introduction to Advanced English Writing

Contents:

- 1.1 Introduction to Advanced English Writing
- 1.2 Class discussion
- 1.3 Group discussion
- 1.4 Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

1.1 Introduction to Advanced English Writing

- Course Description: This course will consist of two parts. Part One is intended as a review of the present writing skills, which students have already had. Part Two, as a supplement to and extension of composition courses, will introduce and describe different writing styles and practical writing.
- Course Objectives: The aims of the course are: (1) to enable students to express themselves coherently in English; (2) to instruct and support students in producing different styles of writing; and (3) to teach and help students in practical writing.
 - **Teaching Arrangements:** With 2 periods per week, this course is scheduled for 2 semesters.
- **Teaching Methods:** Much of the class time will be spent in lecturing sessions, discussions and workshops. Students will be given due instructions and guidance to the process of different styles of writing

Class sessions:

Introduction to the Advanced English Writing Class

Planning an Essay

Description

Narration

Argumentation

Illustration

Definition

Classification

Mid-term test

Comparison and Contrast

Understanding Cause and Effect

Process of Analysis

Writing Letters

Writing Resumes and Cover Letters

Writing Memo

Punctuation

Revision

Course Requirements: Assessment will be based on (1) your regular participation in class lectures and group discussions (30%); (2) Assignments (40%) and (3) Final exam (30%).

Reference Books:

丁往道、吴冰等,1994,《英语写作手册》,北京,外语教学与研究出版社。

1.2 Class discussion

Discuss the following topics in class: Why is writing so important? What is good writing?

1.3. Group discussion

Work in 4 or 5, discuss the following questions:

When was the last time you wrote in English? How did it go? Were you happy with the result? What was the easy part? What was the more difficult part? What do you think makes good writing in English? What do you think are the differences between writing in Chinese and writing in English?

Do you agree with the statement that writing abilities in Chinese and English can be mutually enhancing? Why (not)? Can they also work to your disadvantage? For example, your English writing may sound somewhat Chinese-ish or your Chinese writing may sound somewhat English-ish. How to overcome this?

Are you confident that you will be able to reach your goal of significantly improving your English writing abilities? What are your strengths and what are your weaknesses? How to make the best use of your strengths and how to work to overcome your weaknesses?

Do you want to join the debate whether it is possible or desirable for a non-native speaker to think in English directly? Have you ever dreamed in English? Has it ever happened to you that when you woke up in the morning you still remembered what you had said in English in the dream?

1.4 Assignment

Write a paper about 200 - 300 words about the differences between Chinese writing and western writing.

Further Reading

祁寿华,2001,《高级英语写作指南》,上海,上海外语教育出版社。

Chapter II Planning an Essay

Contents:

- 2.1 Choosing and limiting a topic
- 2.2 Determining your purpose
- 2.3 Gathering Material
- 2.4 Writing a thesis statement
- 2.5 Outlining an essay
- 2.6 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Six teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

2.1 Choosing and limiting a topic

Many of the topics you write about in college will be assigned by your teacher. In such cases, make sure that you know exactly what the subject or question demands.

Sometimes you will be allowed to choose a topic at your will. The only thing you need to do is to think hard and keep the following **guidelines** in mind. Then you are sure to think out a good topic:

Choose a topic that **interests you** and about which you either have some knowledge or can acquire it without much trouble.

Choose a topic which is **small enough** to handle in the usual essay of 500 to 700 words. Broad topics like "love", "happiness" and "war" would have to be narrowed down and restricted to be discussed adequately in a theme of this length.

Choose a topic which will **be interesting to your readers.** An elaborate description of your dog, while fascinating to you, might not hold your readers 'interest.

Try to avoid topics that have been written to death unless you have something **fresh and new** to say. Otherwise, you will bore your readers.

After you have decided on a subject, your next job is to reduce it to manageable proportions. You cannot cover everything related to this topic, because it will be too vague and general.

2.2 Determining your purpose

Once you've limited your subject, you need set your **purposed** that is, you should decide how you will communicate with your readers. You cannot hope to write a coherent essay until you **set your purpose**, because it is the purpose that gives the focus to your essay. It determines what you include and what you leave out; in other words, it controls the content of your writing. The purposes of writing can be classified into three:

To entertain or please the reader by making the subject enjoyable.

To inform or instruct the reader by conveying or explaining the meaning of certain information.

To persuade the reader by convincing him or her to follow a certain course of action.

In your writing, you will find that these purposes often overlap, with the result that you will sometimes entertain your readers as you inform, or inform as you try to persuade. Nevertheless, each piece of effective writing has a main or dominant purpose. If it does not, it will be like a boat without a rudder, drifting without direction.

The best way to avoid confusion of purpose is to formulate a statement of purpose before writing. This is a sentence that states your purpose in relation to your readers and your subject. It helps you keep in mind your central idea and the response you want from your readers.

2.3 Gathering Material

Having selected a topic and determined your purpose, you are now ready to take the next step before writing your essay: gathering material.

To develop your topic, you need to gather ideas, facts, examples, and details. There are several techniques for collecting ideas about the topic. In your practice, you can choose any one of these techniques.

2.3.1 Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a pre-writing technique that is very helpful in generating ideas on a specific topic. When you are assigned a topic for an essay, write down anything and everything that the topic brings to mind. Write for a few minutes, putting down all the words and phrases that come to mind. Don't stop to correct your grammar and spelling--you are trying to get as many ideas down as quickly as possible. **Brainstorming** involves the listing of words and phrases rather than complete sentences. As you brainstorm, you will see divisions and aspects of the subject that you had not anticipated, and soon your paper will be filled with a list of ideas connected with your topic. Many of those ideas will not be usable, of course, but many will fit your needs. The point is to let your imagination race ahead unhampered.

2.3.2 Free-writing

Free-writing is another technique used in pre-writing. It means jotting down in rough sentences or phrases everything that comes to mind without worries about grammar, spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, sequence, or word choice until you get some ideas down on the page. The following steps are the procedure you take in free-writing.

Write your subject at the top of the page.

Start writing. Don't worry about sentence structure. Ramble as much as you like.

Keep up this pace for a specified length of time. Spend about four or six minutes writing.

Write whatever comes into your mind.

After your time is up, take a look at the **ideas and expressions** you have discovered.

2.3.3 Clustering

Clustering is a technique used for generating ideas through a visual representation or scheme. This method is useful for understanding the relationship between the topics and sub-topics of your chosen subject. Clustering is particularly useful in narrowing down a topic. To create your own cluster, use the following steps:

Put the subject in the center of a page. Circle or underline it.

As you think of other ideas, link the new ideas to the central circle with lines.

As you think of ideas that relate to the new ideas, add to those in the same way.

The result will look like a web on your page. Locate clusters of interest to you, and use the terms you attached to the key ideas as departure points for your paper. Clustering helps to discover new ideas on the topic. It is especially useful in determining the relationship between ideas. It makes you see links between sub-topics. You may identify specific ideas that might provide a thesis if your main topic is too broad. You will be able to distinguish how the ideas fit together, especially where there is an abundance of ideas.

2.4 Writing a thesis statement

After looking over your list of ideas, ask yourself what you want to say about them. What are you really trying to tell your readers about the topic? The answer to that question is expressed in the thesis statement, a sentence containing the main idea and purpose of the essay.

The thesis statement contains two parts: the topic and your assertion or view of the topic--what you intend to say about the topic. Thus, the effect of the new freeway on my hometown is a topic; the new freeway running through my hometown has transformed a sleepy little community is a thesis statement.

The thesis statement is similar to the topic sentence in that it contains an expression of an attitude, opinion, or idea about a topic; unlike the topic sentence, however, the thesis statement is broader and expresses the controlling idea for the entire essay. In fact, each of the developmental paragraphs should have a controlling idea that echoes or relates to the controlling idea in the thesis statement.

A good thesis has the following characteristics:

The thesis statement should be expressed in a complete sentence.

A thesis statement expresses an opinion, attitude, or idea; it does not simply announce the topic the essay will develop.

A thesis statement should express an opinion; it should not express a fact. Since it expresses an attitude, opinion, or idea about a topic, it is really a statement that someone could disagree with.

A thesis statement should express only one idea toward one topic; if a thesis statement contains two or more ideas, the essay runs the risk of lacking unity and coherence.

2.5 Outlining an essay

The last step before writing your essay is to **organize and arrange the ideas** you have collected in your gathering material stage according to your purpose and thesis statement. You try to achieve the most logical and attractive effect, yet you must recognize the boundaries you have to work within. The most interesting and exciting ideas will not be worth much in an essay if your readers can not follow them. This means that all of your facts, details, impressions, and examples have to be organized in a plan that makes sense to your readers.

Outlining is central to writing a good essay. An outline lets you see, and work on, the bare bones of a paper, without the distraction of a clutter of words and sentences. It develops your ability to think in a clear and logical manner, helps you organize your thoughts beforehand. Outlining provides a quick check on whether your essay will be unified. It also suggests right at the start whether your writing will be adequately supported, and shows you how to plan a well-organized writing.

2.6 Writing Assignment

Write down everything you can about a social issue for four minutes such as unemployment, China's entry into WTO and going abroad. Then underline three or four best ideas.

Write a thesis statement for each of the following subjects.

- (1) The worst experience I ever had.
- (2) Why I choose my major?
- (3) Life in the city and countryside

Chapter III Description

Contents:

- 3.1 Understanding the Description
- 3.2 Strategies for writing a descriptive essay
- 3.3 Model essays
- 3.4 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

3.1 Understanding the Description

Descriptive writing can be compared to a good photograph: it presents a clear picture of an object, a person, or a scene. But **good description** goes a step further. It appeals to the reader's sense of sound, smell, touch, taste, and sight. It is filled with details that help to create a dominant impression; it has a focus.

3.1.1. Structure of a descriptive essay

In a descriptive essay, the introduction, Body, and conclusion all work together to bring a subject to life. The introduction captures the reader's attention. The thesis statement expresses one main impression of the subject. The body of supporting paragraphs brings the picture to life through specific details and words that appeal to the senses. The conclusion reinforces the overall impression by summarizing the specific details or by making a vivid comparison.

3.1.2. Features of a descriptive essay

A descriptive essay has one, clear dominant impression, a mood or atmosphere that reinforces your writing purpose.

A descriptive essay can be objective or subjective, giving the author a wide choice of tone, diction and attitude.

The purpose of a purely descriptive essay is to involve the reader enough so he or she can actually visualize the things being described.

The language of a descriptive essay also depends, to great extent, on whether your purpose is primarily objective or subjective.

3.2. Strategies for writing a descriptive essay

3.2.1. Focus on a dominant impression

Try giving all the details first; the **dominant impression** then is built from these details. Check your details to be sure that they are consistent with the dominant impression. The dominant impression of your description should be the heart of the person, place, or scene you are attempting to describe. You must carefully select details to support the **dominant impression**, omit details which are incongruent with the dominant impression. Although descriptive essays often imply, rather than explicitly state, the dominant

impression, that impression should be unmistakable. Unless the description is objective, you must be sure that the dominant impression conveys an attitude.

3.2.2. Organize the descriptive details

Select the organizational pattern that best supports your dominant impression. The paragraphs in **a descriptive essay** are usually sequenced spatially (from top to bottom, interior to exterior, near to far) or chronologically (as the subject is experienced in time). The paragraphs can also be ordered emphatically (ending with your subject's most striking elements) or by sensory impression (first smell, then taste, then touch, and so on).

3.2.3. Use vivid language and varied structure

Often the general statements at the beginning and end of a descriptive paragraph tell the reader something about the subject. In the body of the paragraph, however, the specific details show rather than tell, letting the reader's senses and imagination create a fresh experience. The words you select must create in the readers' minds the same picture that you have in yours.

- i) You should use concrete sensory details in subjective description.
- ii) You should use figurative language.
- iii) You should vary sentence structure.

3.2.4. Use transitions in descriptive essays

In a descriptive essay, transitional words and phrases guide the reader from one detail to another in space, time, or some other logical order. Use transitional words and phrases such as above, beside, farther, inside, next to, outside, and under to clarify relationships between objects.

3.3. Model essays

Glories of the Storm

It begins when a feeling of stillness creeps into my consciousness. Everything has suddenly gone quiet. Birds do not chirp. Leaves do not rustle. Insects do not sing.

The air that has been hot all day becomes heavy. It hangs over the trees, presses the heads of the flowers to the ground, sits on my shoulder. With a vague feeling of uneasiness I move to the window. There, in the west, lies the answer--cloud has piled to form a ridge of mammoth white towers, rearing against blue sky.

Their piercing whiteness is of brief duration. Soon the marshmallow rims flatten to anvil tops, and the clouds reveal their darker nature. They impose themselves before the late-afternoon sun, and the day darkens early. Then a gust of wind whips the dust along the road, chill warning of what is to come.

In the house a door shuts with a bang, curtains billow into the room. I rush to close the windows, empty the clothesline, secure the patio furnishings. Thunder begins to grumble in the distance.

The first drops of rain are huge. They split into the dust and imprint the windows with individual signatures. They plink on the vent pipe and plunk on the patio roof. Leaves shudder under their weight before rebounding, and the sidewalk wears a coat of shinny spots.

The rhythm accelerates; plink follows plunk faster and faster until the sound is a roll of drums and the individual drops become an army marching over fields and rooftops. Now the first bolt of lightening stabs the earth. It is heaven's exclamation point. The storm is here!

In spite of myself, I jump at the following crack of thunder. It rattles the windowpane and sends the dog scratching to get under the bed. The next bolt is even closer, it raises the hair on the back of my neck, and I take an involuntary step away from the window.

The rain now becomes a torrent, flung capriciously by a rising wind. Together they batter the trees and level the grasses. Water streams off roofs and out of rain spouts. It pounds against the window in such a steady wash that I am sightless. There is only water. How can so much fall so fast? How could the clouds have supported this vast weight? How can the earth endure beneath it?

Pacing through the house from window to window, I am moved to open-mouthed wonder. Look bow the lilac bends under the assault, how the day lilies are flattened, how the hillside steps are a new-made waterfall! Now hailstones thump upon the roof. They bounce white against the grass and splash into the puddles. I think of the vegetable garden, the fruit tree, the crops in the fields; but, thankfully, the hailstones are not enough in numbers or size to do real damage. Not this time.

For this storm is already beginning to pass. The tension is released from the atmosphere, the curtains of rain let in more light. The storm has spent most of its energy, and what is left will be expanded on the countryside to the east.

I am drawn outside while the rain still falls. All around, there is cool and welcome feeling. I breathe deeply and watch the sun's rays streak through breaking clouds. One ray catches the drops that form on the edge of the roof, and I am treated to a row of tiny, quivering colors--my private rainbow.

I pick my way through the wet grass, my feet sinking into the saturation soil. The creek in the gully runs bank-full of brown water, but the small lakes and puddles are already disappearing into the earth. Every leaf, brick, shingle and blade of grass is fresh-washed and shining.

Like the land, I am renewed, my spirit cleansed, I feel an infinite peace. For a time I have forgotten the worries and irritations I was nurturing before. They have been washed away by the glories of the storm.

3.4. Writing Assignment

Describe a storm from another point of view, that's to say, employ a different dominant impression. You can emphasize its violence, beauty or evil. You can also describe a snow, or a hot day. Try to use your language and various sentence structures to create vividness.

Chapter IV Narration

Contents:

- 4.1 Understanding the Narration
- 4.2. Strategies for writing a narrative essay
- 4.3 Model essays
- 4.4 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

4.1 Understanding the Narration

4.1.1. Structure of narration

Narration is the kind of writing you do when you want to tell your readers how something happened. Your purpose in telling a story may be to illustrate a point, persuade, or entertain, but all good narrative essays follow a basic pattern. The introduction presents a thesis, an overall theme for the story. Then the story unfolds, usually in chronological order, with sufficient detail and description that your readers can experience the events along with you. The conclusion brings the story to a satisfying end and reinforces its point.

4.2. Strategies for writing a narrative essay

4.2.1. Decide on your point of view

All stories have a narrator, the person who tells the story. If you, as narrator, tell a story as you experienced it, the story is written in the **FIRST-PERSON point of view** or **SUBJECTIVE point of view**.

The point of view you should use will depend on the intent of your narration. Telling your own story will necessarily entail the use of the subjective point of view; telling someone else's, the objective.

4.2.2. Identify your purpose

The story you tell must have a **clear purpose**; it must have a point. Good narration not only tells who did what to whom, where, when, and how. It also states or clearly implies why the event or incident is significant. The subject of your essay is the point you are making, not the story you are telling. Your purpose also decides your focus.

The significance of the event, the specific point you want to make about it, is the essay's thesis, and can be either implicitly or explicitly expressed. As in other essays, this thesis should serve to focus your narration. When recounting your narration, be sure readers are clear about your narrative point, or thesis.

4.2.3. Develop only those details that advance the narrative point

When deciding what to include in your narration, you can answer the standard journalistic questions: Who? What? When? Where? Why? How? Most readers will want to know what happened, when it happened, where it happened, why it happened, how it happened, and who was involved. The unrelated details should be eliminated. In addition to determining your significant details, you must determine

which of these details require major emphasis, and which require minor emphasis. For some narrations, who and where may deserve extended treatment, while the why, when, and how need less development. Yet other narrations may involve detailed discussion of the why. The selecting of details and their different treatment is determined by the purpose of your narration and your audience.

4.2.4. Organize the narrative sequence

Once the **details** are selected, they need to be arranged in an appropriate and effective way. Every narrative begins somewhere, presents a span of time, and ends at a certain point. There are three ways to arrange the details:

Chronological order.

Flashback.

Flash-forward.

4.2.5. Make the narrative easy to follow

Make sure that your opening paragraph introduces **the scene and major characters** fully enough that your readers are not confused. In your closing paragraph, draw the strings together to leave your readers with a feeling of satisfactory closure. Describing each distinct action in a separate paragraph helps readers grasp the flow of events. You should be sure to use time signals when narrating a story. Words like now, then, next, after, and later ensure that your readers will not get lost as the story progresses.

4.2.6. Make the narrative vigorous and immediate

A compelling narrative provides an abundance of specific details, making readers feel as if they are experiencing the story being told. Readers must be able to see, hear, touch, smell, and taste the event you are narrating. Three devices can be adopted to achieve this effect.

- Using sensory description.
- Dialogue.
- Varied sentence structure.

4.2.7. Keep verb terse consistent

In writing narratives, knowing whether to use the past or present tense is important. In most narrations, the past tense predominates, enabling the writer to span a considerable period of time. Although rarely used, the present tense can be powerful for events of short duration--a wrestling match or a medical emergency, for instance. A narrative in the present tense prolongs each moment, intensifying the reader's sense of participation. Whichever tense you choose, avoid shifting midstream- starting in the past tense and switching to present tense.

4.3. Model essays

Shame

Dick Gregory

I never learned hate at home, or shame, I had to go to school for that. I was about seven years old when I got my first big lesson. I was in love with a little girl named Helene Tucker, a light-complicated little girl with pigtails and nice manners. She was always clean and she was smart in school. I think I went to school mostly to look at her. I brushed my hair and even got me a little old handkerchief. It was a lady's handkerchief, but I didn't want Helene to see me wipe my nose on my hand. The pipes were frozen again, there was no water in the house, but I washed my socks and shirt every night. I'd get a pot, and go over to Mr. Ben's grocery store, and stick my pot down into his soda machine, and scoop out some chopped ice.

By evening the ice melted to water for washing. I got sick a lot that winter because the fire would go out at night before the clothes were dry. In the morning I'd put them on, wet or dry, because they were the only clothes I had.

Everybody's got a Helene Tucker, a symbol of everything you want. I loved her for her goodness, her cleanliness, her popularity. She'd walk down my street and my brothers and sisters would yell, "Here comes Helene," and I'd rub my tennis sneakers on the back of my pants and wish my hair wasn't so nappy and the white folks' shirt fit me better. I'd run out on the street. If I knew my place and didn't come too close, she'd wink at me and say hello. That was a good feeling. Sometimes I'd follow her all the way home, and shovel the snow off her walk and try to make friends with her Momma and her aunts. I'd drop money on her stoop late at night on my way back from shinning shoes in the taverns. And she had a Daddy, and he had a good job. He was a paper hanger.

I guess I would have gotten over Helene by summertime, but something happened in that classroom that made her face hang in front me for the next twenty-two years. When I played the drums in high school it was for Helene and when I broke track records in college it was for Helene and when I started standing behind microphones and heard applause I wished Helene could hear it, too. It wasn't until I was twenty-nine years old and married and making money that I really got her out of my system. Helene was sitting in that classroom when I learned to be ashamed of myself.

It was on a Thursday. I was sitting in the back of the room, in a seat with a chalk circle drawn around it. The idiot's seat, the troublemaker's seat.

The teacher thought I was stupid. Couldn't read, couldn't do arithmetic. Just stupid. Teachers were never interested in finding out that you couldn't concentrate because you were so hungry, because you hadn't had any breakfast. All you could think about was noontime, would it ever come? Maybe you could sneak into the cloakroom and steal a bite of some kid's lunch out of a coat pocket. A bite of something. Paste. You can't really make a meal out of paste, or put it on bread for a sandwich, but sometimes I'd scoop a few spoonfuls out of the paste jar in the back of the room. Pregnant people get strange tastes. I was pregnant with poverty. Pregnant with dirt and pregnant with smells that made people turn away, pregnant with cold and pregnant with shoes that were never bought for me, pregnant with five other people in my bed and no Daddy in the next room, and pregnant with hunger. Paste doesn't taste too bad when you're hungry.

The teacher thought I was a troublemaker. All she saw from the front of the room was a little black boy who squirmed in his idiot's seat and made noises and poked the kids around him. I guess she couldn't see a kid who made noises because he wanted someone to know he was there.

It was on a Thursday, the day before the Negro payday. The eagle always flew on Friday. The teacher was asking each student how much his father would give to the Community Chest. On Friday night, each kid would get the money from his father, and on Monday he would bring it to the school. I decided I was going to buy me a Daddy right then. I had money in my pocket from shinning shoes and selling papers and whatever Helene Tucker pledged for her Daddy I was going to top it. And I'd hand the money right in. I wasn't going to wait until Monday to buy me a Daddy.

I was shaking, scared to death. The teacher opened her book and started calling our names alphabetically.

"Helene Tucker?"

"My Daddy said he'd give two dollars and fifty cents."

"That's very nice, Helene. Very, very nice indeed."

That made me feel pretty good. It wouldn't take too much to top that. I had almost three dollars in dimes and quarters in my pocket. I stuck my hand in my pocket and held onto the money, waiting for her to call my name. But the teacher closed her book after she called everybody else in the class.

I stoop up and raised my hand.

"What is it now?"

"You forgot me."

She turned toward the blackboard. "I don't have time to be playing with you, Richard."

"My Daddy said he'd ..."

"Sit down, Richard, you are disturbing the class."

"My daddy said he'd give... fifteen dollars."

She turned around and looked mad. "We are collecting this money for you and your kind, Richard Gregory. If your Daddy can give fifteen dollars you have no business being on relief."

"I got it right now, I got it right now, and my Daddy gave it to me to turn in today, my Daddy said...

"And furthermore," she said, looking right at me, her nostrils getting big and her lips getting thin and her eyes open wide, "we know you don't have a Daddy."

Helene Tucker turned around, her eyes full of tears. She felt sorry for me. Then I couldn't see her too well because I was crying, too.

"Sit down, Richard."

And I always thought the teacher kind of liked me. She always picked me to wash the blackboard on Friday, after school. That was a big thrill, it made me feel important. If I didn't wash it, come Monday the school might not function right.

"Where are you going, Richard?"

I walked out of school that day, and for a long time I didn't go back very often. There was shame there.

Now there was shame everywhere. It seemed like the whole world had been inside that classroom, everyone had heard what the teacher had said, and everyone had turned around and felt sorry for me. There was shame in going to the Worthy Boys Annual Christmas Dinner for you and your kind, because everybody knew what a worthy boy was. Why couldn't they just call it the Boys Annual Dinner, why'd they have to give it a name? There was shame in wearing the brown and orange and white plaid mackinaw the welfare gave to 3,000 boys. Why'd it have to be the same for everybody so when you walked down the street the people could see you were on relief? It was a nice warm mackinaw and it had a hood, and my Momma beat me and called me a little rat when she found out I stuffed it in the bottom of a pail full of garbage way over on Cottage Street. There was shame in running over to Mister Ben's at the end of the day and asking for his rotten peaches, there was shame in asking Mrs. Simmons for a spoonful of sugar, there was shame in running out to meet the relief truck. I hated that truck, full of food for you and your kind. I ran into the house and hid when it came. And then I started to sneak through alleys, to take the long way home so people going into Whitens Eat Shop wouldn't see me. Yeah, the whole world heard the teacher that day, we all know you don't have a Daddy.

4.4. Writing assignment

Decide on a story you would like to tell. If you have trouble thinking of a story, consider the following subject areas:

- (1) An incident in school
- (2) An unusual outing
- (3) The time you learned an important lesson
- (4) A memorable gathering

Chapter V Argumentation

Contents:

- 5.1 Types of Argumentation
- 5.2 Strategies for writing an argumentative essay
- 5.3 Model Essays
- 5.4 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

5.1 Types of Argumentation

An essay that presents an argument is designed to influence people to believe something or to behave in a specific way. There are **two basic types of arguments**. One type is designed to convince readers to **accept a particular point of view**. Another type of argument is designed to **convince readers to take a certain action or to do something.** Essays that present this type of argument might urge an uncompromising action against fake goods for the benefit of customers. An effective argumentative essay needs to meet the following specific requirements.

- It introduces and explains the problem or issue, sometimes tracing its causes,
- In some cases it states the possible positions to be taken on the problem.
- It states the position that this essay will take.
- It offers proof that the position taken in this essay is reasonable to hold.
- It anticipates objections to this specific position and refutes them.
- It affirms this position and makes a final appeal.

5.2 Strategies for writing an argumentative essay

5.2.1. Identifying the controversy

The first step in writing argumentative essay is to identify the controversy over the issue and your position.

Then you must formulate your proposition in your thesis statement. The thesis statement in an argumentative essay must not be a statement of fact; it must be a proposition the reader can differ. An effective thesis statement for an argumentative essay should:

- Provide a clear, specific statement of your viewpoint.
- State the main ideas you will use to support your argument.
- Tell why the topic is important.

5.2.2. Providing strong support for the thesis

Convincing evidence is a crucial part of an argumentative essay. As in any effective essay, the evidence must be **unified**, **adequate**, **specific**, **accurate and representative**. Although the number of points varies with the topic, you should try to develop more than two in order to be convincing. Brainstorming is a particularly helpful way of gathering strong evidence. \

Supporting evidence might consist of personal experiences or observations, statistics, facts, examples or authoritative quotations.

- Personal observation or experience.
- Statistics.
- Examples.
- Experts' views.

5.2.3. Acknowledging and refuting differing viewpoints.

If your essay has a clear thesis and strong supporting evidence, you have taken important steps toward a convincing essay. However, because argumentation focuses on controversial issues, you should also **consider contrary points of view**. To deal with the different viewpoints effectively, you need to go through RAISE-AND-COUNTER- OBJECTIONS process. First you state what the **opposition** would say in response to your argument, raising the objection. Second, make this objection less compelling in some way. Make sure that opposition arguments are stated briefly and refuted at length, so that your readers know that you do not support the opposition's points. If the different viewpoint is really valid, concede that point. It does little good in an argument to ignore any valid points the other side may have. You can concede them and then go on to show that your points are more important anyway.

5.2.4. Organizing an argumentative essay

- Introduction
- Evidence.
- Refutation.
- Conclusion.

5.3 Model Essays

I Wish They'd Do It Right

Jane Doe

My son and his wife are not married. They have lived together for seven years without the benefit of license. Though occasionally marriage has been a subject of conjecture, it did not seem important until the day they announced, jubilantly, that they were going to have a child. It was happy news. I was ready and eager to become a grandmother. Now, I thought, they will take the final step and make their relationship legal.

I was apprised of the Lamaze method of natural childbirth. I was prepared by Leboyer for birth without violence. I admired the expectant mother's discipline. She ate only organic foods, abstained from alcohol, avoided insecticides, smog and trauma. Every precaution was taken to insure the arrival of a healthy, happy infant. No royal birth had been prepared for more auspiciously. All that was lacking was legitimacy.

Finally, when my grandson was two weeks old, I dared to question their intentions.

"We don't believe in marriage," was all that was volunteered.

"Not even for your son's sake?" I asked. "Maybe he will."

Their eyes were impenetrable, their faces stiffened to masks. "You wouldn't understand,' I was told.

And I don't Surely they cannot believe they are pioneering, making revolutionary changes in society. That frontier has long been tamed. Today marriage offers all the options. Books and talk shows have surfeited us with the freedom offered in open marriage. Lawyers, psychologists and marriage counselors

are growing rich executing marriage contracts. And divorce, should it come to that, is in most states easy and inexpensive.

On the other hand, living together out of wedlock can be economically impractical as well as socially awkward. How do I present her--as my son's roommate? His spouse? His spice, as one facetious friend suggested? Even my son flounders in these waters. Recently, I heard him refer to her as his girl friend. I cannot believe that that description will be endearing to their son when he is able to understand.

I have resolved that problem for myself, bypassing their omission, introducing her as she is, as my daughter-in-law. But my son, in militant support of his ideology, refutes any assumption, however casual, that they have taken vows.

There are economic benefits which they are denying themselves. When they applied for housing in the married-students dormitory of the university where he is seeking his doctorate, they were asked for their marriage certificate. Not having one, they were forced to find other, more expensive quarters off campus. Her medical insurance, provided by the company where she was employed, was denied him. He is not her husband. There have been and will be other inconveniences they have elected to endure.

Their son will not enjoy the luxury of choice about the inconveniences and scurrility to which he will be subject from those of his peers and elders who dislike and fear society's nonconformists.

And if in the future, his parents should decide to separate, will he not suffer greater damage than the child of divorce, who may find comfort in the knowledge that his parents once believed they could live happily ever after, and committed themselves to that idea? The child of unwed parents has no sanctuary. His mother and father have assiduously avoided a pledge of permanency, leaving him drifting and insecure.

I know my son is motivated by idealism and honesty in his reluctance to concede to what he considers mere ceremony. But he is wise enough to know that no one individual can fight all of society's foibles and frauds. Why does he persist in this, a battle already lost? Because though he rejects marriage, California, his residence, has declared that while couples living together in imitation of marriage are no longer under the jurisdiction of the family court, their relationship is viewed by the state as an implicit contract somewhat like a business agreement. This position was mandated when equal property rights were granted a woman who had been abandoned by the man she had lived with for a number of years.

Finally, the couple's adamancy has been depriving to all the rest of the family. There has been no celebration of wedding or anniversaries. There has been concealment from certain family elders who could not cope with the situation. Its irregularity has put constraint on the grandparents, who are stifled by one another's possible embarrassment or hurt.

I hope that one day very soon my son and wife will acknowledge their cohabitation with a license. The rest of us will not love them any more for it. We love and support them as much as possible now. But it will be easier and happier for us knowing that our grandson will be spared the continued explanation and harassment, the doubts and anxieties of being a child of unmarried parents.

5.4 Writing Assignment

- 1. Recently, a hot issue has arisen in China as to whether college students should be allowed to get married as long as they reach the legal age. Write an essay to defend your proposition.
- 2. Write an essay about whether college education prepares students well to melt into the society or not. Provide convincing evidence to support your proposition.

Chapter VI Illustration

Contents:

- 6.1 Nature of illustration
- 6.2 Strategies for writing an illustrative essay
- 6.3 Model Essays
- 6.4 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

6.1 Nature of illustration

Illustration is to simply use examples to develop ideas. Many of the essays you write in college will be developed by illustration. For making a statement clear and supporting a generalization, examples are powerful tools. They will help you turn an otherwise abstract and general idea into one that is concrete, specific, and easily recognized by your readers. In fact, illustration can be used as the primary method to develop a thesis.

6.2 Strategies for writing an illustrative essay

6.2.1. Establishing the writing purpose

Once you have chosen a topic, **establish your writing purpose**. The purpose of essays that use examples is usually either to inform or to persuade. If your purpose is to inform, you might supply examples to clarify your point or increase readers' understanding of a difficult or unfamiliar topic. If your purpose is to persuade, you might use examples to prove a statement you make or to convince people of the urgency of your argument.

6.2.2. Writing a thesis statement

After you have generated some ideas, become familiar with your topic, and established your writing purpose, write **a thesis statement**. The thesis statement will help you develop and structure your essay. In an essay that uses examples, **the thesis statement** should do one or more of the following:

- State the central point you will discuss.
- Clarify the purpose of your essay.
- Present your perspective on the topic.

The thesis statement should clearly indicate why the examples are being introduced. Writing a thesis statement will also help you generate appropriate examples.

6.2.3. Developing the content

Once you determine a topic and a central point for your essay, start **developing your examples**. An essay developed by illustration may be based on one detailed example, or it may be developed by a series of examples that support the thesis statement. In either case, you must follow certain guidelines..

• Examples should be related to the point being made, and they should be typical and representative of the type under discussion.

- The best examples are often taken from your own experience.
- Don't present your examples in a haphazard, random order. Follow a plan.

6.2.4. Organizing the essay developed by illustration

The **organization** of an essay developed by **illustration** is relatively straightforward. Your introduction usually contains your thesis statement, and the body of the essay presents a series of examples to support it. The conclusion reinforces the thesis. A typical essay would be like this.

- opening paragraph, introduction (with thesis statement)
- supporting paragraphs: examples (usually with more than one paragraph)
- concluding paragraph, reinforcement of the thesis.

6.2.5. Setting the tone

The tone of an essay that uses examples should be consistent with the topic.

6.3 Model essays

Courtship through the Ages

James Thurber

Surely nothing in the astonishing scheme of life can have nonplussed Nature so much as the fact that none of the females of any of species she created really cared very much for the male, as such. For the past ten million years Nature has been busily inventing ways to make the male attractive to the female, but the whole business of courtship, from the marine annelids up to man, still lumbers heavily along, like a complicated musical comedy. I have been reading the sad and absorbing story in Volume 6 (Cole to Dama) of the Encyclopedia Britannica. In this volume you can learn about cricket, cotton, costume designing, crocodiles, crown jewels, and Coleridge, but none of this subject is so interesting as the Courtship of animals, which recounts the sorrowful lengths to which all males must go to arouse the interest of a lady.

We all know, I think, that Nature gave man whiskers and a mustache with the quaint idea in mind that these would prove attractive to the female. We all know that, far from attracting her, whiskers and mustaches only made her nervous and gloomy, so that man had to go in for somersaults, tilting with lances, and performing feats of parlor magic to win her attention; he also had to bring her candy, flowers, and the furs of animals. It is common knowledge that in spite of all these "love displays" the male is constantly being turned down, insulted, or thrown out of the house. It is rather comforting, then, to discover that the peacock, for all his gorgeous plumage, does not have a particularly easy time in courtship; none of the males in the world do. The first peahen, it turned out, was only faintly stirred by her suitor's beautiful train. She would often go quietly to sleep while he was whisking it around. The Britannica tells us that the peacock actually had to learn a certain little trick to wake her up and revive her interest: he had to learn to vibrate his quills so as to make a rustling sound. In ancient times man himself, observing the ways of the peacock, probably tried vibrating his whiskers to make a rustling sound; if so, it didn't get him anywhere. He had to go in for something else; so, among other things, he went in for gifts. It is not unlikely that he got this idea from certain flies and birds who were making no headway at all with rustling sounds.

One of the flies of the family Empidae, who had tried everything, finally hit on something pretty special. He contrived to make a glistening transparent balloon which was even larger than himself. Into this he would put sweetmeats and tidbits and he would carry the whole elaborate envelope through the air to the lady of his choice. This amused her for a time, but she finally got bored with it. She demanded silly

little colorful presents, something that you couldn't eat but that would look nice around the house. So the male Empis had to go around gathering flower petals and pieces of bright paper to put into his balloon. On a courtship flight a male Empis cuts quite a figure now, but he can hardly be said to be happy. He never knows how soon the female will demand heavier presents, such as Roman coins and gold collar buttons. It seems probable that one day the courtship of the Empidae will fall down, as man's occasionally does, of its own weight.

The bowerbird is another creature that spends so much time courting the female that he never gets any work done. If all the male bowerbirds became nervous wrecks wi'thin the next ten or fifteen years, it would not surprise me. The female bowerbird insists that a playground be built for her with a specially constructed bower at the entrance. This bower is much more elaborate than an ordinary nest and is harder to build; it costs a lot more, too. The female will not come to the playground until the male has filled it up with a great many gifts: silvery leaves, red leaves, rose petals, shells, beads, berries, bones, dice, buttons, cigar bands, Christmas seals, and the Lord knows what else. When the female finally condescends to visit the playground, she is in a coy and silly mood and has to be chased in and out of the bower and up and down the playground before she will quit giggling and stand still long enough even to shake hands. The male bird is, of course, pretty well done in before the chase starts, because he has worn himself out hunting for eyeglass lenses and begonia blossoms. I imagine that many a bowerbird, after chasing a female for two or three hours, says the hell with it and goes home to bed. Next day, of course, he telephones someone else and the same trying ritual is gone through with again. A male bowerbird is as exhausted as a night-club habitue before he is out of his twenties.

The male fiddler crab has a somewhat easier time, but it can hardly be said that he is sitting pretty. He has one enormously large and powerful claw, usually brilliantly colored, and you might suppose that all he had to do was reach out and grab some passing cutie. The very earliest fiddler crab may have tried this, but, if so, they got slapped for their pains. A female fiddler crab will not tolerate any caveman stuff; she never has and she doesn't intend to start now. To attract a female, a fiddler crab has to stand on tiptoe and brandish his claw in the air. If any female crab in the neighborhood is interested--and you'd be surprised how many are not--she comes over and engages him in light badinage, for which he is not in the mood. As many as a hundred females may pass the time of day with him and go on about their business. By nightfall of an average courting day, a fiddler crab who has been standing on tiptoe for eight or ten hours waving a heavy claw in the air is in pretty sad shape. As in the case of the male of all species, however, he gets out of bed next morning, dashes some water on his face, and tries again.

The next time you encounter a male web-spinning spider, stop and reflect that he is too busy worrying about his love life to have any desire to bite you. Male web-spinning spiders have a tougher life than any other males in the animal kingdom. This is because the female web-spinning spiders have very poor eyesight. If a male lands on a female's web, she kills him before he has time to lay down his cane and gloves, mistaking him for a fly or a bumblebee who has tumbled into her trap. Before the species figured out what to do about this, millions of males were murdered by ladies they called on. It is the nature of spiders to perform a little dance in front of the female, but before a male spinner could get near enough for the female to see who he was and what he was up to, she would lash out at him with a flat-iron or a pair of garden shears. One night, nobody knows when, a very bright male spinner lay awake worrying about calling on a lady who had been killing suitors right and left. It came to him that this business of dancing as a love display wasn't getting anybody anywhere accepts the grave. He decided to go in for web- twitching,

or strand-vibrating. The next day he tried it on one of the nearsighted girls. Instead of dropping in on her suddenly, he stayed outside the web and began monkeying with one of its strands. He twitched it up and down and in and out with such a lilting rhythm that the female was charmed. The serenade worked beautifully; the female let him live. The Britannica's spider-watcher, however, report that this system is not always successful. Once in a while, even now, a female will fire three bullets into a suitor or run him through with a kitchen knife. She keeps threatening him from the moment he strikes the first low notes on the outside strings, but usually by the time he has got up to the high notes played around the center of the web, he is going to town and she spares his life.

Even the butterfly, as handsome a fellow ash is, can't always win a mate merely by fluttering around and showing off. Many butterflies have to have scent scales on their wings. Hepialus carries a powder puff in a perfumed pouch. He throws perfume at the ladies when they pass. The male tree cricket, Oecanthus, goes Hepialus one better by carrying a tiny bottle of wine with him and giving drinks to such doxies as he has designs on. One of the male snails throws darts to entertain the girls. So it goes, through the long list of animals, from the bristle worm and his rudimentary dance steps to man and his gift of diamonds and sapphires. The golden-eye drake raises a jet of water with his feet as he flies over a lakes Hepialus has his power puff, Oecanthus his wine bottle, man his etchings. It is a bright and melancholy story, the age-old desire of the male for the female, the age-old desire of the female to be amused and entertained. Of all the creatures on earth, the only males who could be figured as putting any irony into their courtship are the grebes and certain other diving birds. Every now and then, with a mighty "Whoosh!" he pops out suddenly a few feet from his girl friend, splashing water all over her. She seems to be persuaded that this is a purely loving display, but I like to think that the grebe always has a faint hope of drowning her or scaring her to death.

I will close this investigation into the mournful burdens of the male with Britannica's story about a certain Argus pheasant. It appears that the Argus displays himself in front of a female who stands perfectly still without moving a feather.... The male Argus the Britannica tells about was confined in a cage with a female of another species, a female who kept moving around, emptying ashtrays and fussing with lampshades all the time the male was showing off his talents. Finally, in disgust, he stalked away and began displaying in front of his water trough. He reminds me of a certain male (Homo sapiens) of my acquaintance who one night after dinner asked his wife to put down her detective magazine so that he could read a poem of which he was very fond. She sat quietly enough until he was well into the middle of the thing, intoning with great ardor and intensity. Then suddenly there came a sharp, disconcerting slap! It turned out that all during the male's display, the female had been intent on a circling mosquito and had finally trapped it between the palms of her hands. The male in this case did not stalk away and display in front of a water trough; he went over to Tim's and had a flock of drinks and recited the poem to the fellas. I am sure they all told bitter stories of their own about how their displays had been interrupted by females. I am also sure that they all ended up saying "Honey, Honey, Bless Your Heat."

6.4 Writing Assignment

Write an essay on the topic. Love is blind.

Chapter VII Definition

Contents:

- 7.1 Nature of definition
- 7.2 Strategies for writing a definition essay
- 7.3 Model Essays
- 7.4 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

7.1 Nature of definition

The purpose of **providing definitions** to develop essay content is to explain the meaning of a word or term in order to make a point. It involves extended definition which goes far beyond the concise, formal definition that appears in a dictionary. It explores the nature of something, including the aspects, significances, nuances, or complexities that are not part of what a dictionary takes in. It supplies supporting information such as examples, descriptions or comparison and contrast.

Some essays that provide definitions are serious efforts to illustrate a certain type of person or a certain trait (freedom, well-educated person). Other essays may be humorous (idleness). The approach you take will depend on your topic, your purpose for writing, and your thesis statement.

7.2 Strategies for writing a definition essay

7.2.1. Establishing the writing purpose and tone

The **purpose** of an essay that uses definitions is usually to inform or to persuade. A straightforward definition of the word conservation, for instance, or a humorous definition of boredom will inform readers about the meaning of the term. A definition of freedom can be written to persuade readers to support your viewpoint.

Just as your purpose in writing will vary, so will your **tone**. A strictly informative definition will generally assume a detached, objective tone. (Apathy is an emotional state characterized by listlessness and indifference.) By way of contrast, a definition essay with a persuasive intention might be urgent in tone. (To combat students' apathy, we must design programs that engage students in campus life)

7.2.2. Writing a thesis statement

A good way to **generate** a thesis statement about a word or term you are defining is to look up the word or term in the dictionary. The dictionary can help you think about your topic in a clear, organized way. It also tells your readers the boundaries or limits of your definition. Remember that if you plan to cite the dictionary definition, do not quote it word for word, which will make your writing boring and dull. Avoid trying openings like the dictionary says or according to Webster's. Such weak starts lack imagination. Instead, you can write a paraphrase, a re-statement of the definition in your own words. **A thesis statement** for an essay that provides a definition to develop content should do one or more of the following:

- state the term or idea that you will define;
- put the term in an appropriate defining class;
- explain how the term differs from other members of the defining class;
- State why defining the term or idea is useful or necessary.

7.2.3. Developing the content

Once you have chosen a term to define and have identified a defining class and differentiating features for the term, explore strategies you can use to support your thesis statement. There is no customary pattern to **develop a definition essay.** It depends, in a great part; on what is being defined and what you intend to say about it.

But before writing the supporting paragraph(s), try to ask yourself the following questions, which are of great help to generate your idea:

- What are some examples of it? (Example)
- How many kinds are there? (Classification)
- What are its parts? (Division)
- What is it similar to or different from? (Comparison and contrast)
- How is it done? How does it work? (Processes)
- What causes it? What are its results or effects? (Cause and effect)
- What are some examples of socialization in our culture? (Example)
- What are the parts or divisions of the socializations? (Classification)
- How is the socialization process similar to or different from other human behavior or processes?
 (Comparison and contrast)
 - How does the socialization process start? How does it work? What are its stages? (Processes)
 - What causes it? What are its effects? (Cause and effect)

7.2.4. Planning the structure

In an essay that provides a definition to develop content, the structure will depend on the strategies you have chosen to develop your definition. You may use any of the following methods or a combination of these methods to **structure** a definition essay:

- Example paragraphs.
- Order of importance or interest.
- Chronological order.
- Point-by-point pattern.

7.3 Model essays

Bookworms Are for Real

Bookworm is the name given to the larva (wormlike early stage) of several kinds of moths or beetles that feed on the binding and paste of books. Human bookworms, unlike their worm counterparts, feed on the words and ideas contained in books. Human bookworms probably get their not-so- attractive name because of the one trait they share with wormy bookworms-- the fact that they spend most of their time around books. The lowly name given to book lovers is a hint of the way they are often viewed by others.

Many people think of bookworms as passive, dull, even lazy--a lot like a real worm. The only reason they move is to turn a page. People who view bookworms as passive don't realize how rapidly bookworms' minds are moving and how far these "passive" folk are traveling. Through their reading,

bookworms encounter other cultures, witness events that took place hundreds of years ago, and gain insight into controversial issues.

Because reading is such an individual pastime, human bookworms often seem as solitary as their worm namesakes. Unfortunately, many nonreaders assume that because bookworms spend so much time alone, they are disconnected and antisocial. Many human bookworms, however, are not at all isolated., disconnected, or antisocial. Though bookworms may spend large amounts of time glued to the pages of a book, they are connected to the universe in extremely responsible ways. Many bookworms use what they have learned from books to do a lot of good in the world. Some do volunteer work. Others choose careers they have read about, such as medicine or teaching, that help improve people's way of life.

Like the creatures they were named for, bookworms don't seem to lead very glamorous lives. Don't be too hasty in judging bookworms by their appearance, though. For one thing, bookworms are usually interested in more than one subject and therefore are more interesting to talk to than someone who focuses on only one special interest. Spending a little time coaxing a bookworm to talk instead of read might not be as boring as you think. After all, as any bookworm could tell you, you cannot judge a book by its cover.

7.4 Writing Assignment

Write an essay on the topic: A well-mannered person.

Chapter VIII Classification

Contents:

- 8.1 Nature of classification
- 8.2 Strategies for writing a classification essay
- 8.3 Model Essays
- 8.4 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

8.1 Nature of classification

Classification is the division of a topic into smaller groups according to the common features in order to make a central point. It means sub-dividing a subject into its types, kinds, divisions, or groups. The essential characteristic of a logical classification is the use of some distinguishing features to separate one set of items from another. A type or group can have no meaning if its members do not share some common traits or features not present in others. Classification enables us to see things clearer--to identify the pattern behind seemingly random events or occurrences.

8.2 Strategies for writing a classification essay

8.2.1. Establishing the writing purpose

Most topics can be classified in many different ways. How you **classify** a topic depends: on your **purpose** because you classify information in order to make a point. The **purpose** of a classification essay can be to inform or to persuade. Essays that use classification for informative purposes often help readers make choices about a topic. Essays that use classification for a persuasive purpose often present information to persuade readers to consider the writer's viewpoint on a topic

8.2.2. Selecting a principle of classification consistent with your purpose.

By the **principle of classification**, we mean the distinguishing features used to determine membership in its types, kinds, or groups. To be meaningful, a classification must group elements according to some principles, which provide the logic for the classification.

As we have mentioned above, most elements can be classified according to more than one principle. So the principles of classification used in each essay depend **on your purpose**. The **principles** you select must help meet your overall purpose and reinforce your central point.

When you write your classification, you might think first of a principle of classification, then go on to decide what elements fit this classification. But more often you should list the elements to be classified along with their characteristics. Studying this list can lead you to discover a principle of classification you had not considered before. Furthermore, by this way, your principles of classification will emerge from the elements under consideration rather than be imposed upon them.

8.2.3. Creating categories

Once you are given a topic, you will **create categories** by organizing like elements according to a common feature. Decide how to organize elements of your topic into categories. If your topic is about how college students pay their tuition, you might create categories such as students who depend on their family for support, students who pay their tuition by doing part-time jobs, students who apply for a bank loan or borrow from friends and relatives. With your categories created, identify common features of each category..

The categories of a classification must not overlap or contain items already contained within another entry. No important category should be left out. You need to check to see if the classification includes all of the members of the group. To avoid oversimplifying the analysis, therefore, it is generally a good idea to divide the group into more than two categories.

8.2.4. Writing a thesis statement

After you create categories for a classification and identify common features, write a thesis statement. The thesis statement will help you develop and structure your essay. A thesis statement for an essay using classification should do one or more of the following:

- state your topic and the categories of classification
- present the common features that are the basis of the classification
- explain why the classification is important
- identify relationships between categories

8.2.5. Developing the content

After deciding on the principle of classification, dividing the group into categories, and writing the thesis statement, you need to discuss each of those categories. In the developmental paragraphs it is useful to devote one paragraph to each category. When discussing the category, include the following points:

- Identify the group.
- Describe or define the category.
- Give examples..
- Distinguish this category from the other categories.

8.2.6. Organizing the classification essay

The most common way to organize the **classification essay** is the opening paragraph normally states the thesis and lets the reader know the categories or classes by which the subject is divided or classified. The paragraphs comprising the body of the essay present each category or class in turn, and the conclusion reinforces the thesis statement.

Here is an outline for a classification essay:

- Opening paragraph.
- Body paragraphs: Present different categories.
- Concluding paragraph. Conclusion.

8.3 Model essays

The Plot against People

Russell Baker

Inanimate objects are classified scientifically into three major categories-- those that break down, those that get lost, and those don't work.

The goal of all inanimate objects is to resist man and ultimately to defeat him, and the three major classifications are based on the method each objects uses to achieve its purpose. As a general rule, any object capable of breaking down at the moment when it is most needed will do so. The automobile is typical of the category.

With the cunning peculiar to its breed, the automobile never breaks down while entering a filling station which has a large staff of idle mechanics. It waits until it reaches a downtown intersection in the middle of the rush hour, or until it is fully loaded with family and luggage on the Ohio Turnpike. Thus it creates maximum inconvenience, frustration, and irritability, thereby reducing its owner's lifespan.

Washing machines, garbage disposals, lawn mowers, furnaces, TV sets, tape recorders, slide projectors all are in league with the automobile to take their turn at breaking down whenever life threatens to flow smoothly for their enemies.

Many inanimate objects, of course, find it extremely difficult to break down. Pliers, for example, and gloves and keys are almost totally incapable of breaking down. Therefore, they have had to evolve a different technique for resisting man. They get lost. Science has still not solved the mystery of how they do it, and no man has ever caught one of them on the act. The most plausible theory is that they have developed a secret method of locomotion which they are able to conceal from human eyes.

It is not uncommon for a pair of pliers to climb all the way from the cellar to the attic in its single-minded determination to raise its owner's blood pressure. Keys have been known to burrow three feet under mattresses. Women's purses, despite their great weight, frequently travel through six or seven rooms to find hiding space under a couch.

Scientists have been struck by the fact that things that break down virtually never got lost, while things that get lost hardly ever break down. A furnace, for example, will invariably break down at the depth of the first winter cold wave, but it will never get lost. A woman's purse hardly ever breaks down; it almost invariably chooses to get lost.

Some persons believe this constitutes evidence that inanimate objects are not entirely hostile to man. After all, they point out, a furnace could infuriate a man even more thoroughly by getting lost than by breaking down, just as a glove could upset him far more by breaking down than by getting lost. Not everyone agrees, however, that this indicates a conciliatory attitude. Many say it merely proves that furnaces, gloves, and pliers are incredibly stupid.

The third class of objects--those that don't work--is the most curious of all. These include such objects as barometers, car clocks, cigarette lighters, flashlights and toy-train locomotives. It is inaccurate, of course, to say that they never work. They work once, usually for the first few hours after being brought home, and then quit. Thereafter, they never work again.

In fact, it is widely assumed that they are built for the purpose of not working. Some people have reached advanced ages without ever seeing some of these objects--barometers, for example--in working Order.

Science is utterly baffled by the entire category. There are many theories about it. The most interesting holds that the things that don't work have attained the highest state possible for an inanimate object, the state to which things that break down and things that get lost can still only aspire.

They have truly defeated man by conditioning him never to expect anything of them. When his cigarette lighter won't light or his flashlight fails to illuminate, it does not raise his blood pressure. Objects that don't work have given man the only peace he receives from inanimate society.

8.4 Writing Assignment

Write an essay on one of the following topics.

- (1) sleepers in class
- (2) shoppers

Chapter IX Contrast and Comparison

Contents:

- 9.1 Nature of contrast and comparison
- 9.2 Strategies for writing comparison-contrast essay
- 9.3 Model Essays
- 9.4 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

9.1 Nature of contrast and comparison

When we **compare and contrast** two or more things, we are identifying and examining their **similarities and differences**, and we are placing two or more things side by side to determine in what ways they are alike and in what ways they are different. While comparison refers to similarities and contrast refers to differences, in common usage an essay that looks at both likenesses and differences is also known as a comparison essay.

9.2 Strategies for writing a comparison-contrast essay

9.2.1. Clarifying your writing purpose

When writing, remember that comparison-contrast is not an end in itself.

That is, your objective is not to turn an essay into a mechanical list of "how A differs from B". Like other patterns of essay development, comparison and contrast is a strategy for making a point or meeting a larger purpose.

A **comparison-contrast** essay can serve a variety of purposes:

- It may clarify the unknown by placing it next to something more familiar to determine in what ways the two are alike and in what ways they are different.
- Sometimes, the purpose of a comparison and contrast essay is to lend a fresh insight into something familiar.
- More frequently, the purpose of comparison-contrast is to evaluate the subject's pros and cons, to reach a conclusion or make a judgment or demonstrate that one thing is superior to another.
 - A comparison and contrast essay can sometimes serve to bring things into sharper focus.

9.2.2. Devise a strong thesis

An essay developed primarily through comparison and contrast should be focused by a solid thesis which will help you develop and structure your essay. The thesis statement should:

- State the topic of your comparison and contrast.
- Mention the points of comparison and contrast you will discuss.
- Explain whether you will focus on similarities or differences or both.

9.2.3. Selecting details

Once you have clarified the essay's purpose and thesis, you need to decide which points to select and which aspects of the subjects to compare or contrast. The points selected must be able to support your thesis

While **selecting points** to compare and contrast, keep in mind that there must be balance among the points you discuss. This means that any point you discuss for one subject should also be mentioned for the other, Of course, this need of balance does not mean that you must treat a point with exactly the same degree of development for each subject. You may develop some individual points in subject A in greater detail while just use two or three sentences to describe the same points in subject B. You may also detail either the comparison or the contrast. As long as everything treated is developed adequately, there is no need to ensure that everything is developed equally.

As you select your details, be careful that you do not point to comparisons and contrasts that are so obvious that they do not need to be mentioned.

9.2.4. Arranging details

Whether your essay points to similarities or to differences, or to both, several organizational strategies are available to you.

- i) Subject-by-subject arrangement.
- ii) Point-by-point arrangement.
- iii) A combination of both patterns.

9.2.5. Using transitions that clearly draw a comparison or contrast

Strict **comparisons** are drawn by using such words and phrases as: like, similar to, in comparison, likewise. **Contrasts** are linked by using transitions: in contrast, yet, however, but, on the other hand, on the contrary, although, and otherwise. These transitions are especially crucial in an essay using comparison-contrast. By indicating clearly when subjects are being compared or contrasted, the transitions help weave the discussion into a coherent whole. Any comparison or contrast may be given a graceful and elegant turn if you are deft in the use of these transitions.

9.3 Model essays

A Fable for Tomorrow

Rachel Carson

There was once a town in the heart of American where all life seemed to live in harmony with its surroundings. The town lay in the midst of a checkerboard of prosperous farms, with fields of grain and hillsides of orchards where, in spring, white clouds of bloom drifted above the green fields. In autumn, oak and maple and birch set up a blaze of color that flamed and flickered across a backdrop of pines. Then foxes barked in the hills and deer silently crossed the fields, half hidden in the mists of the fall mornings.

Along the roads, laurel, viburnum and alder, great ferns and wildflowers delighted the traveler's eye through much of the year. Even in winter the roadsides were places of beauty, where countless birds came to feed on the berries and on the seed heads of the dried weeds rising above the snow. The countryside was, in fact, famous for the abundance and variety of its bird life, and when the flood of migrants was pouring through in spring and fall people traveled from great distances to observe them. Others came to fish the streams, which flowed clear and cold out of the hills and contained shady pools where trout lay. So it had been from the days many years ago when the first settlers raised their houses, sank their wells, and built their barns.

Then a strange blight crept over the area and everything began to change. Some evil spell had settled on the community: mysterious maladies swept the flocks of chickens; the cattle and sheep sickened and died. Everywhere was a shadow of death. The farmers spoke of much illness among their families. In the town the doctors had become more and more puzzled by new kinds of sickness appearing among their patients. There had been several sudden and unexplained deaths not only among adults but even among children, who would be stricken suddenly while at play and die within a hours.

There was a strange stillness. The birds, for example--where had they gone? Many people spoke of them, puzzled and disturbed. The feeding stations in the backyards where deserted. The few birds seen anywhere were moribund; they trembled violently and could not fly. It was a spring without voices. On the mornings that had once throbbed with the dawn chorus of robins, catbirds, doves, jays, wrens, and scores of other bird voices there was now no sound; only silence lay over the fields and woods and marsh.

On the farms the hens brooded, but no chicks hatched. The farmers complained that they were unable to raise any pigs--the litters were small and the young survived only a few days. The apple trees were coming into bloom but no bees droned among the blossoms, so there was no pollination and there would be no fruit.

The roadsides, once so attractive, were now lined with browned and withered vegetation as though swept by fire. There, too, were silent, deserted by all living things. Even the streams were now lifeless. Anglers no longer visited them, for all the fish had died.

In the gutters under the eaves and between the shingles of the roofs, a white granular powder still showed a few patches; some weeks before it had fallen like snow upon the roofs and the lawns, the fields and streams.

No witchcraft, no enemy action had silenced the rebirth of new life in the stricken world. The people had done it themselves.

This town does not actually exist, but it might easily have a thousand counterparts in America or elsewhere in the world. I know of no community that has experienced all the misfortunes I describe. Yet every one of these disasters has actually happened somewhere, and many real communities have already suffered a substantial number of them. A grim specter has crept upon us almost unnoticed, and this imagined tragedy may easily become a stark reality we all shall know.

9.4 Writing assignment

Write an essay on the topic: Luxury and necessity.

Chapter X Understanding Cause and Effect Analysis

Contents:

10.1 Nature of cause and effect analysis

10.2 Strategies for using cause-effect analysis in an essay

10.3 Model Essays

10.4 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

10.1 Nature of cause and effect analysis

A **cause-effect** analysis essay either explains cause or predicts effect or both.

Explaining cause means analyzing the reason underlying an event that has already occurred, such as Why does college tuition continue to rise? Predicting effect means gauging the consequences of an event that has yet to occur. Whether writing a cause or effect depends on your purpose, and most essays follow one of these plans:

- They begin with a situation (the effect) and then examine the probable cause.
- They begin with the cause and then speculate on its likely effect.

10.2 Strategies for using cause-effect analysis in an essay

10.2.1. Establishing your writing purpose

The **purpose** of a cause-effect essay can be to inform, persuade, or share. If you write about how one of your former teachers' attitudes to you affects you, your purpose can be to share your feelings and experiences.

10.2.2. Writing a thesis statement

After establishing your writing purpose, **write a thesis statement**. It will help you develop and structure your cause-effect analysis. The **thesis statement** should cover one or more of the following.

- Describe the central point you will discuss.
- Explain whether your focus will be on causes, effects, or both.
- State the basic causes or effects and the order in which they will be presented.

10.2.3. Developing content

When you select details for a cause-effect analysis, look for subtle or underlying causes as well as obvious causes. Obvious causes are those that are directly related to the effects. While increasing cars may be an obvious cause, there may be more subtle, or less direct, causes for such problem, including inadequate roads and highways, the drivers' ignorance of traffic rules, etc. Similarly, overcrowded traffic can have obvious effects such as traffic jam as well as subtle effects such as accident and pollution. When you **develop details** for your cause-effect analysis, be sure to report the underlying causes and effects as well as the obvious ones.

One way to develop details for a cause-effect analysis is to think of each cause and effect as a generalization that must be supported with adequate details. Illustration, narration, process analysis and other **development patterns** can also be employed to support your generalization.

10.2.4. Planning the structure

Whether your essay moves from an effect to a cause or from a cause to an effect, its organization will be similar. Your introduction should contain a thesis statement which identifies the causes and alludes to its effect, or specifies an effect and refers to its causes; the paragraphs in the body of the essay present the causes or the effects, and the conclusion reinforces the thesis.

If your essay will treat the causes of a problem, your introduction in the opening paragraph can provide a summary of the chief effects.

The causes and effects in a cause-effect analysis are usually presented in the body paragraphs of the essay. If you are presenting only causes or only effects, you can devote a separate paragraph to each cause or effect. If you are presenting both causes and effects, you can present the causes in one or more paragraphs and the effects in one or more paragraphs.

The concluding paragraph can be handled in one of the two ways:

- Summing up.
- Suggesting a solution.

10.2.5. Organizing details

- i) Progressive order.
- ii) Chronological order.
- iii) Categorical order

10.2.6. Using transitions to link cause and effect relationships

In an essay that provides **a cause and effect analysis**, use transitional words and phrases such as. as a result, due to, because of, consequently, finally, for this reason, therefore, thus, etc, to clarify **cause and effect relationships**. Transitions can highlight the connection between one event and its cause or effect. Transitions like moreover or in addition can signal the presentation of additional evidence to support a cause and effect relationship. A transition like however can caution readers that some details will contradict or disprove an idea.

10.2.7. Setting the tone

In an essay that employs a cause and effect analysis, your tone should be reasonable but convincing. To present an appropriate tone, use qualifying statements where necessary. Qualifying words and phrases include sometimes, maybe, probably, most likely, I believe, or in my opinion. These phrases are sometimes necessary to make a statement accurate.

10.3 Model essays

Fear of Dearth

Carll Tucker

I hate jogging. Every dawn, as I thud around New York City's Central Park reservoir, I am reminded of how much I hate it. It's so tedious. Some claim jogging is thought conductive; others insist the scenery relieves the monotony. For me, the pace is wrong for contemplation of either ideas or vistas. While jogging, all I can think about is jogging--or nothing. One advantage of jogging around a reservoir is that there's no dry-shortcut home.

From the listless looks of some fellow trotters, I gather I am not alone in my unenthusiasm. Bill-paying, it seems, would be about as diverting. Nonetheless, we continue to jog; more, we continue to choose to jog. From a practically infinite array of opportunities, we select one that we don't enjoy and can't wait to have done with. Why?

For any trend, there are as many reasons as there are participants. This person runs to lower his blood pressure. That person runs to escape the telephone or a cranky spouse or a filthy household. Another person runs to avoid doing anything else, to dodge a decision about how to lead his life or a realization that his life is leading nowhere. Each of us has his carrot and stick. In my case, the stick is my slackening physical condition, which keeps me from beating opponents at tennis whom I overwhelmed two years ago. My carrot is to win.

Beyond these disparate reasons, however, lies a deeper cause. It is no accident that now, in the last third of the 20th century, personal fitness and health have suddenly become a popular obsession. True, modern man likes to feel good, but that hardly distinguishes him from his predecessors.

With Zany myopia, economists like to claim that the deeper cause of everything is economic. Delightfully, there seems no marketplace explanation for jogging. True, jogging is cheap, but then not jogging is cheaper. And the scant and skimpy equipment which jogging demands must make it a marketer's least favored form of recreation.

Some scout-masterish philosophers argue that the appeal of jogging and other body-maintenance programs is the discipline they afford. We live in a world in which individuals have fewer and fewer obligations. The working week has shrunk. Weekend worship is less compulsory. Technology gives us more free time. Satisfactorily filling free time requires imagination and effort. Freedom is a wide and risky river; it can drown the person who does not know how to swim across it. The more obligations one takes on, the more time one occupies, the less threat freedom poses. Jogging can become an instant obligation. For a portion of his day, the jogger is not his own man; he is obedient to a regimen he has accepted.

Theologists may take the argument one step further. It is our modern irreligion, our lack of confidence in any hereafter, that makes us anxious to stretch our mortal stay as long as possible. We run, as the saying goes, for our lives, hounded by the suspicion that these are the only lives we are likely to enjoy.

All of these theorists seem to me more or less right. As the growth of cults and charismatic religions and the resurgence of enthusiasm for the military draft suggest, we do crave commitment. And who can doubt, watching so many middle-aged and older persons torturing themselves in the name of fitness, that we are unreconciled to death, more so perhaps than any generation in modern memory?

But I have a hunch there's a further explanation of our obsession with exercise. I suspect that what motivates us even more than a fear of death is a fear of dearth. Our era is the first to anticipate the eventual depletion of all natural resources. We see wilderness shrinking; rivers losing their capacity to sustain life; the air, even the stratosphere, being loaded with potentially deadly junk. We see the irreplaceable being squandered, and in the depths of our consciousness we are fearful that we are creating an uninhabitable world.

We feel more or less helpless and yet, at the same time, desirous to protect what resources we can. We recycle soda bottles and restore old buildings and protect our nearest natural resource- our physical health- in the almost superstitious hope that such small gestures will help save an earth that we are

blighting. Jogging becomes a sort of penance for our sins of gluttony, greed, and waste. Like a hairshirt or a bag of nails, the more one hates it, the more virtuous it makes one feel.

That's why we jog. Why I jog is to win at tennis.

10.4 Writing assignment

Write an essay on the topic: If I had a second life, I wanted to be a man / woman.

Chapter XI Process Analysis

Contents:

- 11.1 Nature of process analysis
- 11.2 Strategies for writing a process analysis essay
- 11.3 Model Essays
- 11.4 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

11.1 Nature of process analysis

A **process analysis** essay explains how to do something or tells how something works. It presents, in the order in which they must happen, the steps or stages necessary to perform a task or achieve a goal. Basically, there are two types of process analysis essays: those that instruct or direct and those that explain or analyze. **Directional process analysis** essays tell how to do something. A process analysis essay that explains or analyzes a process tells how something works, how something happened, or how something is or was done. This type of essay has a purpose different from a directional process analysis essay. Its main purpose is to inform, explain, or analyze. The reader is gaining an understanding of the process; he or she does not necessarily expect to be able to **re-create the process.**

11.2 Strategies for writing a process analysis essay

11.2.1. Establishing writing purpose

When given a topic, you should decide whether **your purpose** is to explain how something works or happens or to tell how to do something. The kind of process analysis chosen is closely related to the point of view you choose in writing the essay. When the process analysis is directional, you adopt the second person. If the process analysis has **an informational purpose**, you tend not to use the second person. There are other options. You can use the first person or the third-person singular or plural.

11.2.2. Writing a thesis statement

The **thesis statement** in a process analysis should do more than announce your subject. It should do one or more of the following.

- state the process you are describing
- preview the steps of the process you will present
- clarify the purpose of the process

11.2.3. Selecting Details

The **primary details** in a process analysis will be the steps performed in the process. You need to be careful enough not to omit any steps; otherwise your readers may be confused and unable to perform the process. However, providing the steps alone may not be enough, you need to explain how the steps are performed.

In addition to explaining how steps are performed, you need to explain why, particularly if you think the importance of the step tends to be ignored or the step is often skipped It is necessary for you to explain that sending such a note impresses the personnel director with your courtesy and follow-through.

Sometimes it is necessary for you to explain what should not be done, especially when you fear the readers will do something especially unnecessary or incorrect. Again when explaining how to hunt a satisfying job, you may caution your readers not to smile too much, for too much smile can create a frivolous or insincere image.

11.2.4. Arranging the details

When you are explaining how to do something with the anticipation that the reader can perform the process and get the same results, it is important that the steps be discussed in the order that they occur; in other words, **the steps should be arranged** in chronological order. The only time to break from chronological order is when you explain some unfamiliar term or give some word of advice or caution.

When your essay serves an informational purpose, you can sometimes choose your own order. 11.2.5. Opening and closing the process analysis effectively

An essay developed primarily through process analysis should have a strong beginning. The introduction should state the process to be described and imply whether the essay has an informational or directional intent. If you are afraid that your readers are indifferent to your subject, use the introduction to motivate them, telling how important the subject is. If you think your readers may be worried that your subject is complex or obscure, the introduction is the perfect spot to reassure them that the process being described is not beyond them.

Most **process analysis essays** do not end as soon as the last step in the sequence is explained. The final paragraph' may summarize the main steps in the process--not by repeating the steps mechanically, but by rephrasing and condensing them in several concise sentences. The conclusion can also emphasize the significance of the process, recall what may have been said in the introduction about the importance of the subject. Or the essay can end by echoing the note of reassurance that may have been included at the beginning.

11.3 Model essays

Camping Out

Ernest Hemingway

Thousands of people will go into the bush this summer to cut the high cost of living. A man who gets his two week's salary while he is on vacation should be able to put those two weeks in fishing and camping and be able to save one week's salary clear. He ought to be able to sleep comfortably every night, to eat well every day and to return to the city rested and in good condition.

But if he goes into the woods with a frying pan, an ignorance of black flies and mosquitoes, and a great and abiding lack of knowledge about cookery the chances are that his return will be very different. He will come back with enough mosquito bites to make the back of his neck look like a relief map of the Caucasus. His digestion will be wrecked after a valiant battle to assimilate half-cooked or charred grub. And he won't have had a decent night's sleep while he has been gone.

He will solemnly raise his right hand and inform you that he has joined the grand army of never-agains. The call of the wild may be all right, but it's a dog's life. He's heard the call of the tame with both ears. Waiter, bring him an order of milk toast.

In the first place he overlooked the insects. Black flies, no-see-urns, deer fliers, gnats and mosquitoes were instituted by the devil to force people to live in cities where he could get at them better. If it weren't for them everybody would live in the bush and he would be out of work. It was a rather successful invention.

But here are lots of dopes that will counteract the pests. The simplest perhaps is oil of citronella. Two bits 'worth of this purchased at any pharmacist's will be enough to last for two weeks in the worst fly and mosquito-ridden country.

Rub a little on the back of your neck, your forehead and your wrists before you start fishing, and the blacks and skitters will shun you. The odor of citronella is not offensive to people. It smells like gun oil. But the bugs do hate it.

Oil of pennyroyal and eucalyptol are also much hated by mosquitoes, and with citronella they form the basis for many proprietary preparations. But it is cheaper and better to buy the straight citronella. Put a little on the mosquito netting that covers the front of your pup tent or canoe tent at night, and you won't be bothered.

To be really rested and get any benefit out of a vacation a man must get a good night's sleep every night. The first requisite for this is to have plenty of cover. It is twice as cold as you expect it will be in the bush four nights out of five, and a good plan is to take just double the bedding that you think you will need. An old quit that you can wrap up in is as warm as two blankets.

Nearly all outdoor writers rhapsodize over the browse bed. It is all right for the man who knows how to make one and has plenty of time. But in a succession of one-night camps on a canoe trip all you need is level ground for your tent floor and you will sleep all right if you have plenty of covers under you. Take twice as much cover as you think that you will need, and then put two-thirds of it under you. You will sleep warm and get your rest.

When it is clear weather you don't need to pitch your tent if you are only stopping for the night. Drive four stakes at the head of your made-up bed and drape your mosquito bar over that, then you can sleep like a log and laugh at the mosquitoes.

Outside of insects and burn sleeping the rock that wrecks most camping trips is cooking. The average tyro's idea of cooking is to fry everything and fry it good and plenty. Now, a frying pan is a most necessary thing to any trip, but you also need the old stew kettle and the folding reflector baker.

A pan of fried trout can't be bettered and they don't cost any more than eve. But there is a good and bad way of frying them.

The beginner puts his trout and his bacon in and over a brightly burning fire, the bacon curls up and dries into a dry tasteless cinder and the trout is burned outside while it is still raw inside. He eats them and it is all right if he is only out for the day and going home to a good meal at night. But if he is going to face more trout and bacon the next morning and other equally well- cooked dishes for the remainder of two weeks he is on the pathway to nervous dyspepsia.

The proper way is to cook over coals. Have several cans of Crisco or Cotosuet or one of the vegetable shortenings along that are as good as lard and excellent for all kinds of shortening. Put the bacon in and when it is about half cooked lay the trout in the hot grease, dipping them in corn meal first. Then put the bacon on top of the trout and it will baste them as it slowly cooks.

The coffee can be boiling at the same time and in a smaller skillet pancakes being made that are satisfying the other campers while they are waiting for the trout.

With the prepared pancake flours you take a cupful of pancake flour and add a cup of water. Mix the water and flour and as soon as the lumps are out it is ready for cooking. Have the skillet hot and keep it well greased. Drop the batter in and as soon as it is done on one side loosen it in the skillet and flip it over. Apple butter, syrup or cinnamon and sugar go well with the cakes.

While the crowd have taken the edge from their appetites with flapjacks the trout have been cooked and they and the bacon are ready to serve. The trout are crisp outside and firm and pink inside and the bacon is well done-- but not too done. If there is anything better than that combination the writer has yet to taste it in a lifetime devoted largely and studiously to eating.

The stew kettle will cook you dried apricots when they have resumed their predried plumpness after a night of soaking, it will serve to concoct a mulligan in, and it will cook macaroni. When you are not using it, it should be boiling water for the dishes.

In the baker, mere man comes into his own, for he can make a pie that to his bush appetite will have it all over the product that mother used to make, like a tent. Men have always believed that there was something mysterious and difficult about making a pie. Here is a great secret. There is noting to it. We've been kidded for years. Any man of average office intelligence can make at least as good a pie as his wife.

All there is to a pie is a cup and a half of flour, one-half teaspoonful of salt, one-half cup of lard and cold water. That will make pie crust that will bring tears of joy into your camping partners' eyes.

Mix the salt with the flour, work the lard into the flour, make it up into a good workmanlike dough with cold water. Spread some flour on the back of a box or something flat, and pat the dough around a while. Then roll it out with whatever kind of round bottle you prefer. Put a little more lard on the surface of the sheet of dough and then slosh a little flour on and roll it up and then roll it out again with the bottle.

Cut out a piece of the rolled out dough big enough to line a pie tin. I like the kind with holes in the bottom. Then put in your dried apples that have soaked all night and been sweetened, or your apricots, or your blueberries, and then take another sheet of the dough and drape it gracefully over the top, soldering it down at the edges with your fingers. Cut a couple of slits in the top dough sheet and prick it a few times with a fork in an artistic manner.

Put it in the baker with a good slow fire for forty-five minutes and then take it out and if your pals are Frenchmen they will kiss you. The penalty for knowing how to cook is that the others will make you do all the cooking.

It is all right to talk about roughing it in the woods. But the real woodsman is the man who can be really comfortable in the bush.

11.4 Writing Assignment

Write an essay on the topic: How to do shopping in Shanghai (or Beijing, or any provincial town).

Chapter XII Writing Letters

Contents:

- 12.1 Types of letters
- 12.2 Parts of a letter
- 12.3 Differences between personal letters and business letters
- 12.4 Forms of layout for a letter
- 12.5 Writing Assignment

Time Allotment:

Six teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

Letter writing has been used for centuries in communicating across the great oceans, as well as many other facets of communication. **Letter writing** has a way of bringing people together, but it can also destroy relationships and people. That is why it is so important to make sure that what is written on paper comes across just as the writer means it. The following is some basic knowledge about letter writing.

12.1 Types of letters

12.1.1. Personal letters

Personal letters refer to a variety of genres that are used for written communication between individuals, connected with information about the matters that interest both sides, usually private matters. The function of the personal letters may be only to convey personal feelings, greetings, attitudes, aiming at improving personal relationships, or just providing information on a particular subject, or to persuade the other to take a certain stand or action.

Personal letters are generally short and concise, but there is no set of requirements for length, and some are indeed very long.

Personal letters are generally informal in nature, but informality varies greatly. It depends on the relationship between the writer and the recipient. In letters between very intimate friends, contractions and colloquialisms are quite permissible. However, the slangy and vulgar words should be avoided.

Personal letters can be typed out, but are very often hand-written on paper of various kinds.

12.1.2. Business letters

A business letter initiates or transacts business. It asks someone to do something for you: fill an order, handle a complaint, give you a job, furnish information, answer a claim, or correct a mistake. Regardless of its purpose, a business letter requires the same kind of exactness and clarity that all good writing does. It must be clear, well-organized, interesting, and grammatically correct.

Business letters are usually polite in tone, exact and concise in wording, and their style is usually formal.

12.2 Parts of a letter

All letters have seven major parts: the heading, the inside address, the salutation, the body, the complementary closing, the signature and the envelope. In addition, many letters contain subject, reference, enclosure, postscript and distribution notations.

12.2.1. Heading

The heading, consisting of the address of the writer and the date of the letter, usually goes at the upper right-hand side of a letter. It may either take the block style or the indented style. It may or may not have end punctuation. If you are using printed letterhead stationery, add only the date two spaces below the letterhead.

When writing the heading, there are some points to note:

- Notice that the order of the address is as follows: number of house, name of street, town or city, area, country. Never write your own name at the top of the letter.
 - Pay special attention to punctuation.
- Note that the abbreviation for street in English is St. not Str. Other abbreviations are: Rd. (Road), Sq. (Square), Ave. (Avenue), Pl. (Place). Words like Drive or Lane are not abbreviated.
 - The date is written in full, i. e.: 9th Feb., 2003.
- The name of the country may be left out of your address only when you are writing to someone who lives in your own country.
 - In personal letters, only the date will suffice.

12.2.2. Inside address

It is the name and the address of the person or the institution to which the letter is written. You should use an appropriate title of address, and it should be typed out flush left with margin, above the salutation. When you do not know to whom you are writing, you can address the letter to an office or a position: Office of Administration, Director of Personnel, and Manager. In personal letters, this part is often omitted.

12.2.3. Salutation

The **salutation** is a greeting to the recipient of the letter and it is on the left margin, two lines below the inside address. You may include the conventional **Dear** in the salutation, but more and more writers use just the name of the person to whom they are writing. If you do not know who will read the letter, start with **Gentlemen** or **Dear Sirs** or **Dear Madams.** In circumstances when you need to make a general announcement, you can use the formal greeting **to whom it (this) may concern**. When the marital status of a woman recipient is not known, you should use **Ms.** to address her.

In personal letters, you should use the first or whatever name you usually call the recipient face to face, but in business letters, use the last name in salutation. In personal letters the salutation is often followed by a **comma**, but a **colon** is customary in business correspondence.

This is where the message of the letter is conveyed. The information here should be arranged to highlight important information. Keep paragraphs short and chunk the important points you want to make--giving each major idea its own paragraph. In this part, all paragraphs should begin flush with the left margin (the block style) or begin with an equal indention (the indented style). You should single-space the paragraphs, and double-space between them.

12.2.4 Complementary closing

The closing, like the greeting, is a conventional expression.

Notice that only the first letter in the closing is capitalized and the phrase is followed by a comma.

12.2.5. Signature

The letter is signed in ink just beneath the closing. Because **signatures** can be hard to read, the writer's name is typed below the signature. A title or a position is often included.

12.2.6. Enclosure(s) and postscript

At the very bottom of the letter, two lines below the typed signature and flush left, the initials of the writer of the letter (in capitals) are followed by a colon and the initials of the typist (in lower case); these initials are unnecessary when the writer and typist are one. If you have enclosed some additional documents in the envelope with the letter, add the word Enclosure(s) or Enc. just beneath the copy notation so that people handling the letter would know that something more is to go in the envelop. If you happen to have something to say after you have finished the letter, you may begin with P. S., which stands for "postscript", followed by what you want to add.

12.2.7. Envelope

The **envelope** includes the inside address found on the letter plus the writer's return address. Put down the inside address (the name and address of the recipient) in the middle part of the envelope and the return address (the name and address of the writer) in the upper left corner. Please note: in the address, the house number comes first, name of the road second, and the name of the city third in the next line, instead of the other way round as in Chinese- the order of city-street-house number. If the letter is an international one, it is better to put down the name of the country.

12.3 Differences between personal letters and business letters

There are **some differences between personal letters and business letters**, which can be seen from their classification made above. Another important point about their difference lies in the form, which, although partly stated in the above block italic sentences, can be systemized.

12.4 Forms of layout for a letter

There are three common forms of layout in use. true block, modified block, and indented block. These forms are the most widely used and accepted. Since all are acceptable, the form to be used should be left to the discretion of the writer/sender.

12.5 Writing Assignment

1. Write business letters of between 80 to 100 words on the subjects given below.

- (1) Write a letter to a tourist agency on behalf of a club you belong to. You want to know whether it will be possible for twenty members of your club to travel by coach and whether the agency can make arrangements for transport, accommodation, etc.
- (2) You ordered a new car from Shanghai GM Corporation but when it arrived you discovered that there was no spare wheel in the boot. Write a letter pointing this out and requesting that a spare wheel be sent immediately.
- (3) The BBC has invited comments on one of its programs from listeners abroad. Write a letter in reply to this request.
 - (4) Write a letter placing an order for a magazine which is published abroad.
 - 2. Write personal letters on the subjects given below.

- (1) You received a present of some money from a relative. Write a letter thanking him or her for the present and saying what you intend to do with it.
 - (2) Write a letter refusing an invitation to a party and explaining why you cannot go.
 - (3) Write a letter to an old person of eighty congratulating on his birthday.
- (4) You have just heard that one of your friends has had an accident and is in hospital. Write a letter wishing him a speedy recovery and telling him that you hope to be able to visit him soon.

Chapter XIII Writing a Resume and a Cover Letter

Contents:

- 13.1 Function of a resume
- 13.2 Parts of a resume
- 13.3 Sample resumes
- 13.4 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Six teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

13.1 Function of a resume

When you apply for a job, you will use your summarizing and writing skills to prepare an effective resume and application letter. You will use your **resume and application letter** to introduce yourself to potential employers.

The **resume** is a brief (usually one-page) record or summary of your experience (that is, your personal background) and your qualifications for a job. Written before your application letter, the resume provides background information to support your letter. In turn the application letter will emphasize specific parts of your resume and will discuss how your background is suited to that job. The resume gets you the interview, not the job.

As for employers, when you give them a resume, they look for an obvious and persuasive answer to this question. What can you do for us? They expect a **resume:**

- to look good (conservative and tasteful, on high-quality paper).
- to read easily (headings, typeface, spacing, and punctuation that provide clear signals), and
- to provide information the employer needs to make an interviewing decision.

13.2 Parts of a resume

A resume may be tailored for a specific job or employer; a standard resume would usually include the following sections:

- Personal information.
- Career objective.
- Educational background.
- Work experience.
- Special skills, activities, and honors. Include special competencies that make you a desirable candidate, such as proficiency in a foreign language, ability to operate equipment, or skills in unusual procedures or techniques.
 - References.

Despite some variation in format, a resume should be clear to read and present an attractive image. It is important to highlight the features which will interest the reader. Here are some tips.

Capitalize the main headings to make them stand out on the page.

- Condense information, using phrases rather than complete sentences.
- Give the easily-understood equivalent qualifications when applying for a post abroad.
- Don't try to cram too much material onto a page. Sufficient white space is necessary.

13.3 Sample resumes

ERIC KURLAND

27 Hawkins Avenue

Clarksboro, New Jersey 08020

Home.. 312-555-1815

Professional objective

Seek responsible position where strong analytical and computer skills are needed to solve complex business problems

Education

1999 to present: Rowan University, Glassboro,

New Jersey 08020 Degree: B.S. (in June)

Major courses

Introduction to Computer Science

Programming Languages

Assembly Language

Operating Systems

Related courses

Introduction to Discrete Mathematics

Calculus

Logic

Business Management

Business Law

Organizational Behavior

Work experience

2000 to present: As a salesperson at Radio Shack, I am involved in sales, inventory control, repairs and customer relations. I have designed a computer program that our store uses to demonstrate the multimedia aspects of personal computer.

1997 -- 2000: My temporary jobs included word processing secretary, theater usher, and child care aide.

Special skills

I am experienced in the following computer languages: C-4--4-, Visual Basic, Pascal, and COBOL. I have sales experience, am good with figures, and detail-oriented, relate easily to people, have initiative, and am dependable.

References

My references are available on request from Rowan University Placement Office, Glassboro, New Jersey 08028

(Note: This resume is accompanied by the sample Cover Letter 1 given below)

13.4 Writing Assignment

- 1. Send a resume and an application letter in reply to the following advertisement. You may invent any names, experience and qualification you consider relevant to the application.
 - 2. Assume that this advertisement has appeared in your school newspaper:

Chapter XIV Writing Memos

Contents:

14.1 Layout of a Memorandum

14.2 Sample memos

14.3 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

14.1 Layout of a Memorandum

A **memo** (**short for memorandum**) is the most commonly used form of written communication in business. It is different from a business letter. The principal difference between the two is really only a matter of audience: a memo is an **INTERNAL correspondence** written to your fellow employees, a letter is an **EXTERNAL correspondence** written to someone outside your company or organization. A memo reflects this difference in its routine information. Instead of the return and the inside addresses, salutation, complementary close, and signature found on a letter, a memo provides this "sender-receiver" information in abbreviated form at the very beginning of its first page.

Memos are used at all levels of an organization. They are sent by bosses to their staff, for example, to instruct or inform them. They are sent by one colleague to another, perhaps to request a favor or to make suggestions. They are also used by junior staff to report upwards, for example, on the progress of a project.

The pre-set format of most memoranda makes them somewhat easier to write than business letters. The following is the typical memo layout.

As you can see, memos are divided into two parts. **The top part**, sometimes separated from the bottom by a horizontal line, contains details which allow the receiver to learn, at a glance, the identity of the sender and to get a basic idea of the contents of the message. The standard components of the top part of the message are:

14.1.1. To

Remember: This refers to the person you are sending your memo to. In memos, you can either use the name of the person or their position in the organization, or both.

Which one you choose largely depends on your position in the organization, and the relationship between you and the receiver.

The choice is also affected by the size and style of the organization. Members of less formal, small organizations are far more likely to refer to each other by name in their memos.

Lastly, it is also affected by the content of the memo. If you are writing a memo which requires the receiver to exercise power because of their position, then it is logical to address the memo to that position, rather than to the person.

14.1.2. From

Remember: This refers to the person who is sending the memo. The same comments as were made about the "To:" section of the memo layout apply to the "From:" section. Think about:

- your position in the organization.
- the relationship between you and the receiver.
- the size and style of the organization.
- the content of the memo.

The use of first names is restricted to extremely informal memos.

14.1.3. Date

Remember:

- The date should either be written Day-Month-Year (e. g. , 12 June 1998) or Month-Day-Year (e. g. , June 12, 1998).
- Do not use an abbreviated form of the date, abbreviated ordinal numbers such as 1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc., or shortened spellings of months.
 - Do not use a comma to separate the month and year if you use the Day- Month-Year format.

14.1.4. Subject

Remember: Your subject line should be clear and easy to understand. A good subject line directs the reader's attention to what the writer thinks is important information, and helps to focus the purpose of the message, e. g.:

Subject: Persistent late arrival by shop floor staff

14.1.5. Miscellaneous notes

There are certain other things you should remember about the layout of memoranda.

- Firstly, unlike letters and faxes, you do not need to use a salutation (e. g., DearMr. Hong...) in a memo. However, many people still prefer to use a salutation.
 - Similarly, it is not necessary to write a formulaic closing phrase.
- Usually, there is no signature at the end of a memo. This might be replaced by a clearly written version of your name, your initials, or nothing at all.
- Information about other people who need to receive the message (to whom copies are being sent) comes at the top of the message, rather than at the end as in business letters. The letters "cc" are written under the "To:" portion of the message, and these are followed by a list of names. With memos, each copy has a different name highlighted, and the copies are distributed.

14.2 Sample memos

Sample 1 Sharing Information

TO: Project Sponsors FROM: Keith Brown DATE: March 12, 2001

SUBJECT: Absence from Office

I will be away from the office Wednesday, March 10, through Friday, April 26. It is important that during my absence you continue to present projects for signing. I will review all projects submitted to me prior to my departure. Please submit as many as possible before I leave.

Projects and other documents that require my signature should be processed as normal while I am gone. Ethel and Carlo will see that Jack Cornwall signs the documents.

Sample 2 Giving Instructions

TO: Production Supervisor FROM: General Manager DATE: March 22, 2000

SUBJECT: Richmond Project

Unexpected cost and a declining market have made it necessary to review current works in progress to identify those unlikely to succeed. Those so identified are to be terminated and the production money reallocated to more promising projects. The Richmond Project was one of those identified as unlikely to succeed.

Stop all work immediately on the Richmond Project.

Sample 3 Compliments

TO: Textbook Production Team

FROM: Robert R. Wolf DATE: 07/25/2002 SUBJECT: Well Done

Everyone who has seen it has been extremely impressed by the textbook you produced. Our director of marketing said, "The textbook is beautiful. More books that look like this and we can't be stopped. Please extend my sincerest thanks to your staff for this outstanding job."

Outstanding is right.

Sample 4 Requesting Action

TO: John Langan

FROM: Andrew Radford, Dean of English Department

DATE: 11/15/2001

SUBJECT: Secretary Replacement

Linda Baker, my current secretary, has been promoted to the position of assistant bookkeeper effective 11/20/2001.

Would you please immediately begin the necessary paperwork to obtain a replacement for her?

Thank you.

As you can see from the above samples, the memos should be written as short as possible without being abrupt.

14.3 Writing Assignment

- 1. John Nelson will be showing a film on plant safety to 90 staff members next week. Since the projection room will hold 60 people comfortably, he writes his memo to the three supervisors of the plant about his plan. Suppose you were John Nelson, write a memo.
- 2. Suppose you were in charge of the shipping at Lianhua Chain Stores. Please write a memo to your manager informing him of the arrival of some newly-imported goods at Wusong Port and your plan for shipping them.

3. Suppose you were the president of a large firm. Write a memo announcing the promotion of an employee named Lisa Reiters to other members of the firm.

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另外:

《高等学校英语专业高年级英语教学大钢》(试行本) 外语教学与研究出版社

《翻译理论与技巧(一)》教学大纲

黄宜思 编写

目 录

前	言		307
		、概述	307
	三	、课程教学目的和基本要求	307
	三	、课程主要内容及学时分配	308
	四	、相关教学环节	308
Chapter I Introduction			310
Chapter II Methods and Means			315
Chapter III Translation service and ways of thinking			323

前言

一、概述

翻译理论与技巧为外国语学院三年学生的专业必修课。

由于翻译是一项极为复杂的活动,具有跨学科的特点,它本身的特点表明它不仅仅是一种语言现象,因而不可能囿于语言学的范畴。翻译理论研究需要寻找其他的途径与支点。翻译学而翻译理论本身更是一个综合的、开放的系统,它与许多学科和艺术的门类息息相通、除了语言学、还有哲学、文艺学、美学、社会学、符号学,乃至数学、逻辑学等等。因而制定本大纲有助于帮助学习者更好地了解翻译与其它人文学科的关系,了解翻译研究不仅是多些学科之间交叉的问题,更应从相关学科的各种理论中获得启示并汲取其精华。

翻译理论与技巧课程将简要介绍中、西方翻译史和理论,通过基础理论教育使学生初步掌握翻译技能,并能有效运用翻译技巧,提高翻译的综合操作能力和汉语表达水平。课程围绕英汉语言的对比与翻译,分阶段(理解、翻译、校对等三个阶段)层次(词、句、语篇)介绍各种变通手段的应用。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

翻译理论与技巧课程的教学目的包括:

- 1、简要介绍中、西方翻译史和翻译理论;
- 2、通过基础理论教学,对初学者进行翻译技能意识启蒙;
- 3、帮助学生掌握并有效地运用翻译技巧,减少实践环节中的盲目性;
- 4、帮助学生培养一种精细研读的治学态度和从大处着跟、小处着手的综合操作能力,同时提

高学生的汉语表达水平。

翻译课程的设置从内容上可分为两类,一是实践课程,二是理论课程。实践课程和理论课均为必修课,大多为有关语种的互译课程,具有语种的特殊要求。翻译研究课程涵盖面非常广,包括翻译史、翻译基础理论、翻译批评、翻译文化研究、文学翻译理论(包括中西译史译论的比较研究)、科技翻译、法律翻译等。着重研究语言的翻译原理、性质、标准、规律、目的论、审美论、价值论、方法论等。

翻译课是一门对翻译适行介绍,研究其规律并进而指导实践的课程。它所涉及的层面、需要探讨的问题很多,如翻译标准、英汉语言、文化对比在翻译中的应用,翻译的基本原则,翻译技巧、翻译评议等诸多方面,内容涉及语言学、语义学、语用学、文化学、美学、修辞学等多学科领域。这就要求学生在实践中把握理论与实践的契合点,做到对基础理论有全面、充分的了解;在实践中有深透的理论、技巧以及变通手段引导。这确实是每位翻译教学人员应该孜孜以求的。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

涉及英译汉和汉译英两大部分,可以分开,也可放在一起讲。如按学期划分,第五学期主要讲 英译汉,第六学期侧重汉译英。主要涉及三层次和几种具体译法:

第一层 词层:英汉词义差异与英词汉译的基本手法和注意事项

这一节重点讲解英汉翻译词语处理方法,包括推演法、<u>引伸法、移植法、替代法、释义法</u>、融合法、音译法。其中 项为重点讲解、强化训练内容。

第二层 句层:从英汉造句手法的对比看英语长句、难句的汉译处理技法

这一节着重讲解英汉翻译的结构处理技巧。依据英语重形合而严谨、汉语重义合而简约的基本特点,在处理英句汉译时势必要打破原文营造学手法构筑的空间框架(architectural style),将原句各组成部分按照汉语的编年史手法(Chronicle style)造句规律重新安排,即按时间、逻辑顺序重新配置。介绍英句汉译的基本程序法:

六步法。主要讲解的枝法有:顺译法、切分法、倒译法、包孕法、拆离法,重组法。

第三层 语篇层:从具汉修辞对比看英汉翻译中各种变通手段的综合运用

这一节综述第一、二节中的内容,从语篇高度,依据汉语修辞特点,从斟酌译词、词类转换,灵活安排句式,掌握增减等几个方面进行综合分析。注重语篇信息的向心性,增强学生翻译运作中的整体篇章意识,做到既见树木又见林。

四、相关教学环节

在翻译活动中,对原文意义的传达是最基本的问题之一,任何翻译行为的实质都是不同语言之间的"意义对应转换",是否工于达意也是衡量翻译作品成功与否的重要标准,因而,意义可以说是翻译理论的核心问题;从一种语言到另一种语言,意义如何确立、如何转换及转换的程度、限度等也一直是翻译理论界长期思考和探索的重要课题。

各种理论、技巧讲解结合课堂实践、重点译例分析和佳作赏析。具体翻译研究(翻译技巧或方法,属实用研究)、抽象翻译研究(翻译理论研究,属基础理论研究)、翻译文化研究(翻译史,翻译与文化的相互作用)。

佳译赏析,包括学生的优秀译文赏析基本上贯穿了这两个学期的教学活动。目的是有针对性地 巩固学生的翻译基本技能,调动他们约积极性和参与意识,增强信心,提高赏析能力。

翻译评论活动是以 3—4人为单位,就某一原文材料,拿出自己译文在组内交流,然后推出一篇代表译文在课堂上与其他组的代表交流。如此比较揣摩,互相讨论以加深同学们对一些理论、技巧的理解和驾驭意识,提高翻译水平。

Chapter I Introduction

Introduction of the course. Miscellaneous.

Techniques of English-Chinese translation dealt in this semester.

Outlines of Chinese history in translation.

Three levels of translation

Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Section One

Introduction of the course

Translating is a complex and fascinating task. In fact, it is probably the most complex type of event in the history of language communication. And yet, translating is so natural and easy that children seem to have no difficulty in interpreting for their immigrant parents. These children normally do very well until they have gone to school and have learned about nouns, verbs, and adverbs. Then they often seem tongue-tied because they try to match the words and grammar rather than the content.

Because of experience in learning a foreign language in school, most persons assume that literalness in translating means faithfulness to the text, even though close, literal renderings are often seriously misleading.

Because of the many discrepancies between meanings and structures of different languages, some persons have insisted that translating is impossible, and yet more and more translating is done and done well. Those who insist that translating is impossible are usually concerned with some of the more marginal features of figurative language and complex poetic structures. The use of figurative language is universal, but the precise figures of speech in one language rarely match those in another.

Examples:

Acquiring is easy. Owning is hard.

He is the last lord kelso's grandson.

He smoked two years ago.

Translation Work

- 1. Today scientists describe the universe in terms of two basic partial theories the general theory of relativity and quantum mechanics. They are the great intellectual achievements of the first half of this century.
- 2. And there was the possibility that a small electrical spark might accidentally bypass the most carefully planned circuit.
- 3. If a heavy body is to be lifted to certain height, work must be done, or energy expended, equal to the weight of the body multiplied by the height through which it is raised.

- 4. Conversion to electric power represents a practical means of transferring geothermal energy. However, the price of the conversion is a substantial loss of energy, and further loss occurs in transmission and the subsequent use of it.
- 5. The same ozone that helpfully blocks ultraviolet light in the stratosphere can seriously damage your respiratory system when it is at ground level where it can be inhaled.

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Section Two

Outlines of Chinese history in translation

It can be divided into four periods, namely the post-history period up till Han Dynasty; the period between Han and the First Opium War; the period between the Opium War and the May-Fourth Movement; and the period after the May-Fourth Movement. Introduction of eminent translators and their theories of translation as:

The three characters 信达雅 (faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance) formulated by Yan Fu, who made contributions to the Enlightenment of the bourgeoisie in China. In his *Introdnetory Remarks* to his translation are thought of and supported as the one and only maxim all translators must observe.

In his essay *On Translation* he declares that translation is an art whose success depends upon one's artistic talent and enough training. Besides these, there are no set rules for translation and there is no short cut for art.

And by contrast, Fraster Tytler's (England 1749 – 1814) 3 principles of translation:

- 1. The translation should give a complete transcript of the idea of the original work.
- 2. The style and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original.
- 3. The translation should have the ease of the original composition.

Translation Work

- 1. In ancient Rome, a scholar known as Pliny the Elder wrote about a treatment for boils. He told a patient to take nine grains of barley, trace a circle around the boil three times with each grain, then throw the barley into the fire with the left hand for a immediate cure.
- 2. There, in the corner room on the sixteenth floor of the hospital, as I kept company with the memory or the spirit or perhaps only the ghost of John F. Kennedy, I knew that what matters are the consolations of life.
- 3. Europe is not large. Even with European Russia, it contains hardly more than 6 percent of the earth's land surface, occupying about the same area as the United States mainland plus Alaska. It is only a little larger than Australia. It is physically separated from Africa by the Mediterranean Sea, although the Mediterranean historically has been as much a passageway as a barrier. A truer barrier emerged when the Sahara Desert dried up only a few thousand years ago, so that northern Africa might be said to belong as

much to southern Europe, or culturally to the Middle East, as it does to sub-Saharan Africa. The physical separation of Europe from Asia is even less clear. The conventional boundary has been the Ural Mountains in Russia, but they are low and wide, are not an impressive chain, and do not stretch far enough to make an adequate boundary. The Russians themselves do not recognise any official distinction between European and Asian Russia.

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Section Three

Principle, nature and object of translation

Principle, nature and object of translation are introduced in relation to those who established recognition in their study.

Fraster Tytler's (England 1749 – 1814) 3 principles of translation:

- 1. The translation should give a complete transcript of the idea of the original work.
- 2. The style and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original.
- 3. The translation should have the ease of the original composition.

By translation here we specifically mean translating, the process of translation, in which something is translated, instead of the work translated. So far as the definition of translation is concerned, of course, it is very easy for us to copy one from a dictionary; that is, a rendering from one language into another, but that seems to be too general and simple. Various definitions have been given to translation.

The following is just some of them:

Translation is a science.

Translation is an art

Translation is a craft.

Translation is a skill.

Translation is an operation.

Translation is a language activity.

Translation is communicating.

All the definitions mentioned above maybe taken for reference because each of them is true when looked at from a certain angle.

We say that translation is a science as well as an art. To say it is a science because it has its own laws and methods. Take the translation between English and Chinese for example. If we want to translate well, we must be entirely familiar with the content of the original and all the knowledge it concerns. To say it is an art because it needs intelligent creativity and imagination to make good translation. In addition, we should have a comparatively comprehensive and thorough study of English and Chinese so that we may do our work with high proficiency.

Translation Work

- 1. If there is anything in the world that a young man should be more grateful for than another, it is the poverty which necessitates starting life under very great disadvantage.
- 2. There is no living plant or animal, be it ever so common, that will not repay study, and provide, if intelligently observed, quite an interesting story.
- 3. One hundred years after Napoleon's stay in Egypt in 1798-99, which opened Egypt's eye to the world, the Egyptian political leader Mustapha struggled against the British occupiers.
- 4. Tolerance is one trait shared by all the Asian belief, except those which have their origin in the Judaco-Christian and Islamic heritages. In Asia, a person's intolerance towards other religions is more often than not considered proof of his spiritual unfitness. As a general opinion, the various main religions are like five fingers in one hand.
- 5. Michael Jordan, a basketball player in whom commentators have discerned aristocratic qualities and supernatural power, has retired from the game that made him one of the world's best known and best paid sportsmen, earning a reputed \$36 million a year.

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Section Four

Three basic levels in translation

<u>Lexical level</u> (mainly proper wording, conversion of part of speech, proper addition and omission. etc.)

Example:

... Stone walls do not a prison make, Nor iron Bars a cage

Minds innocent and quiet take, That for an hermitage...

<u>Syntax level</u> (seek for proper expressions from the angle of sentence, subdivision, making differences between the two languages; sentence order and differences between clauses and attributions etc. proper subdivision.)

Example:

I rode to work on a motorcycle.

The chance that a boy who is content with the way things are done now will develop into a leader is pretty slim.

<u>Textual level</u> (View the translation work from the angle of rhetoric for proper expressions and structures. Higher and more comprehensive.)

Example:

Brezhnev joked and clowned, constantly playing up to the vast audience that, just as in Germany the month before, was largely hidden and invisible behind the television screens for safety reasons.

Translation Work

- 1. I had read too many novels and had learned much at school not to know a good deal about love, but I thought it was a matter that only concerned young people. I could not conceive that a man with a beard, who had sons as old as I, could have any feelings of that sort.
- 2. Though not all companies are advocates of a slash-and-burn philosophy, there is no clean way to downsize and come out looking like a responsible corporate citizen. The downsizing company looks and smells like a company that is struggling and retrenching, not like a winner that you would want to patronize.
- 3. Industries in the midst of competitive or technological upheaval are characterized by a large number of new core concepts, breakthroughs, or transformational innovations. New core concepts or theories of business often come from entrepreneurs who bypass the established channels dominated by current players.
- 4. Forward transactions can be used to cover otherwise existing exchange risks of importers who are expected to pay proceeds of goods in foreign currency on a future date with a rate firmly quoted today.

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Chapter II Methods and Means

Methods of expression

Disposition of words and phrases

Parts of speech

Context and translating

Division and subdivision in sentence and paragraph

Eighteen teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Section One

Paradox in translation

Translation techniques that are not absolute, and should be always use with contextual awareness. At the same time, we must admit that the languages in which various peoples think and express their thoughts are quite different in characteristics and usage. This is the problem that troubles the translators, including the veteran ones. No smatters can solve such a difficult problem. If one wants to be a qualified translator, one should, first of all, have a penetrating study and careful comparison of the similarities and differences between these two languages so that one may find the corresponding laws and methods in the translation between them, do translation effectively and ensure the quality of translation. Besides, sufficient practice and appreciating good translation will help in acquiring this.

Translation Work

- 1. Who has not admired the artifices and delicate approaches with which women "prepared" their friends for bad news?
- 2. Seek not proud riches, but such as you may get justly, use soberly, distribute cheerfully, and leave contentedly.
- 3. But the new emphasis on examining how the dynamics of the brain shape our intellect and emotions means that good employees will in the future spend more time helping their less well adjusted professional staff break away from the learned behavior that shapes their performance at work.
- 4. The Orphanage is high in the Carolina Mountains. Sometimes in winter the snowdrifts are so deep that the institution is cut off from the village below, from all the world. Fog hides the mountain peaks, the snow swirls down the valleys, and a wind blows so bitterly that the orphanage boys who take the milk twice daily to the baby cottage reach the door with fingers stiff in an agony of numbness.
- 5. With cellphones and beepers people make themselves instantly accessible to everyone at all times, and it's the person who refuses to be on call, rather that the intruding caller, who is considered rude.

Further Reading

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Section Two

Lexical level—disposition of words

Is translating simply the act of transferring the meaning of a text from one language into another or does it depend on some theory of interlingual similarities? Proper wording.

Even the translation of the title of an essay of a book may shoe the translator's artistic level. Some titles are translated well, and some not. For instance, the free translation of the title of the novel *Oliver Twist* by Charles Dickens as 《雾都孤儿》 and that of the title of the play *Hamlet* by William Shakespeare as 《王子复仇记》 seem quite satisfactory, for the former gives the reader a vivid image of both the hero and the background of the story. and the latter tells him what the story is about, although there is nothings to blame in the translation of 《奥利佛·退斯特》 and 《哈姆雷特》.

From the above mentioned examples we can see that translation demands a broad and profound knowledge. In other words, a translator should have an understanding of the literature and art, rhetoric and aesthetics; otherwise he can hardly accomplish the task of reproduction of the original.

Translation Work

- 1. Taken together, the chapters in this book reinforce a single, timeless message: the importance of providing the tools and conditions that liberate people to use their brainpower to make a difference in a world of constant challenge and change.
- 2. Fox began making expensive event films last year, and its first big gamble paid off handsomely. The \$70 million sci-fi fantasy "Independence Day" grossed more than \$800 million around the world, inspiring talk of a turn-around at the studio after years of lacklustre box-office returns.
- 3. In medieval times, when map-makers ran out of known world before they ran out of parchment, they wrote in the legend, "Here be dragons." It was a clear and unambiguous warning to back off.
- 4. The Blue Nile pours very quietly and uneventfully out of Lake Tana in the northern highlands of Ethiopia. There is no waterfall or cataract, no definite current, nothing in fact to indicate that a part at least of this gently moving flow is embarked upon a momentous journey to the Mediterranean, 2,750 miles away... A few miles downstream from the lake the water begins to boil turbulently over rocks and shallows which are impossible to navigate with any safety; and so the traveler must take to mules and follow the river as close to its banks as the thick scrub will allow him.

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Section Three

Lexical level—converting of part of speech

"It often take as long as 10 days or even a whole month to establish a term in translation after

repeated consideration and hesitation." This is a famous remark made many years ago by Yan Fu (1853 - 1921), and all the veteran translators, I think, must have sheared the same feeling—with him. Even Lenin and Lu Xun were no exceptions. Once, in order to find out a satisfactory explanation of a specific term, the former searched a minutely defined dictionary for as many as five times and the latter often broke into a cold sweat when he came across something difficult to translate. From this we can imagine how difficult it is to put a complete literary work into another language. The difficulty in translation just lies in the fact that both the content and the style are already existent in the original and as a result, you will have to do your best to reproduce them as they are in quite a different language. However great obstacles are there in the work you are going to deal with, you can do nothing but manage to overcome them one by one. Sometime you are even forced to produce coining. So we can see translation is really a tough work.

The converting includes: noun-verb; adjective-verb, adverb-none; verb-none; adverb-verb etc.

Translation Work

- 1. Employers can find recruits among past and present employees as well as their friends and relatives.
- 2. The introduction last year of pocket-size organizers and half a dozen handhelds that do everything from Windows to the Web, instantly made using a laptop for the odd message and to-do list seem like overkill.
- 3. In a year when so many people lamented the decline in moral values or made excuses for bad behavior, Pope John Paul II forcefully set forth his vision of the good life and urged the world to follow it. For such rectitude or recklessness, as his detractors would have it he is the TIME's Man of the Year 1994.
- 4. The change-adept organization is predicated on a logic of flexible work assignments, not of fixed job responsibilities. To promote innovation and responsiveness, two of today's competitive imperatives, managers need to see this new organization as a cluster of activity sets, not as a rigid structure. The work of leadership in this new corporation will be to organize both sequential and synchronous projects of varying length and breadth, through which varying combinations of people will move, depending on the tasks, challenges, and opportunities facing the area and its partners at any given moment.

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Section Four

Syntax level—collocation and connotation

What is it for anything to have a *meaning* at all, in the way, or in the sense, in which words or sentences or signals have meaning? What is it for a particular sentence to have the meaning or meanings it does have? What is it for a particular phrase, or a particular word, to have the meaning or meanings it does

have? These are obviously connected questions. Any account we give of meaning in general (in the relevant sense) must have particular meanings; and we must acknowledge, as two complementary truths, first, that the meaning of a sentence in general depends, in some systematic way, on the meanings of the words that make it up and, second, that for a word to have a particular meaning is a matter of its making a particular systematic contribution to the meanings of the sentences in which it occurs.

Continue with basic translation skills and connotation and collocation .

It has to be noted that ordinary words are much subtler in their uses, and mark many more distinctions, than philosophers have realized; and that facts of perception, as discovered by, for instance, psychologists but also as noted by common people, are much more diverse an complicated than has been allowed for.

If language is to lead at all to understanding, there must be rules concerning the relations between the signs on the one hand and on the other hand there must be a stable correspondence between signs and impressions. In their childhood individuals connected by the same language grasp these rules and relations mainly by intuition. When man becomes conscious of the rules concerning the relations between signs the so-called grammar of language is established. Introduction of dynamic equivalence.

Translation Work

- 1. It was our view that the United States could be effective in both the tasks outlined by the President—that is, of ending hostilities as well as of making a contribution to a permanent peace in the Middle East—if we conducted ourselves so that we could remain in permanent contact with all elements in the equation.
- 2. The method normally employed for free electrons to be produced in electron tubes is thermionic emission, in which advantage is taken of the fact, if a solid body is heated sufficiently, some of the electrons that it contains will escape from its surface to the surrounding space.
- 3. World War II was, however, more complex than World War I, which was a collision among the imperialist powers over the spoils of markets, resources and territories.
- 4. This dual quality of being sensitive to, and curious about, small accidental occurrences, and of possessing a frame of reference capable of suggesting their true significance, is probably what Pasteur meant when he said "Chance benefits only the prepared mind".

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Section Five

Textual level—adjustment of syntactic components

The system applied to transformational grammar can be analysed into three major components: the syntactic, phonological and semantic components. The transformationalists combine phrases into larger units called kernel sentences. Then, they rearrange the order of the items in a kernel sentence, or combine two or more kernls to form more complicated sentences called transformations. Most of the sentences in English are transformations, "Single-base transformations operate upon a kernel string of elements

underlying a sentence, Double-base transformations operate upon two or more strings to produce an output sentence." Though Noam Chomsky and his colleagues are not directly, concerned with the applications of their theoretical research, transformational grammar has been widely applied to the specification of the language required by the analysis phase of machine translation.

Translation Work

- 1. The revolt in America offered a dramatic judgment on the old colonial system, convincing some, in England and elsewhere, that the empires for which they had long been struggling were hardly worth acquiring, since colonies in time, in the words of Turgot, fell away from the mother country "like ripe fruit." The idea spread, since trade between Britain and America continued to prosper, that one could do business with a country without exerting political influence or control, and this idea became fundamental to the coming movement of economic liberalism and free trade. By coincidence, the book that became the gospel of the free trade movement, Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations, was published in England in the year 1776. The American example was pointed to by other peoples wishing to throw off colonial status--first by the Latin Americans, then by the peoples of the older British dominions, and, finally, in the twentieth century, by those of Asia and Africa also. In Europe, the American example encouraged the type of nationalism in which subjugated nations aspire to be free. And at home the Revolution did much to determine the spirit and method by which the bulk of the North American continent was to be peopled and the attitudes for which the United States, when it became a leading power a century and a half later, was to stand before the world.
- 2. There are few circumstances among those which make up the present condition of human knowledge, more significant of the backward state in which speculation on the most important subjects still lingers, than the little progress which has been made in the decision of the controversy respecting the criterion of right and wrong.

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Section Six

Context and translating—sentence order

Due to the difference in the nature of the two languages (Chinese and English) more often than not we have to rearrange sentence order in our translation. Just some examples to show the usual way of word order in the two languages:

He witnessed ①the sixth ②post-war ③economic crisis of ④serious consequence ⑤that prevailed in various field ⑥in the USA.

他亲眼目睹了⑥美国②战后①第六次④后果严重⑤波及各个领域的③经济危机。

Different order in attribution:

英文: (定语)1次第、2时间、3本质、★中心词、4判断性、5陈述性、6国别

中文: 6国别、2时间、1次第、4判断性、5陈述性、3本质、★中心词

Translation Work

- 1. Unit trust scheme means any arrangement made for the purpose, or having the effect, of providing, for a person having funds available for investment, facilities for the participation by the person as a beneficiary under a trust, in any profits or income arising from the acquisition, holding, management or disposal of any property pursuant to the trust.
- 2. Where by virtue of this Article, the Subcontractor is required to effect and maintain insurances and/or to allow the Contractor to take out insurances in the Subcontractor's name, then at any time until such obligation has been fully performed, the Subcontractor shall produce to the Contractor's satisfactory evidences thereof in the form required by the Contractor (such as copy of cover notes), including evidences that payment of the corresponding premiums have been made, and in the event of his failing to do so, the Contractor may himself effect such insurance and recover the cost of so doing from the Subcontractor.

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Section Seven

Adjustment of syntactic components concise and expressiveness

As generally accepted, there are three things to be distinguished in all speech and language activities. He called them expression, suppression and impression, Expression is what the speaker or writer gives, suppression is what he: does not give, and impression is what the hearer or reader receives. It is important to notice that an impression is often produced not only by what is expressed, but also by what is suppressed. It is equally important to notice that repetition and ellipsis could strengthen the impression of what one says or writes, Hence the effect of forcibleness and impressiveness.

Translation Work

There are many shades in the danger of adventures and gales, and it is only now and then that there appears on the face of facts a sinister violence of intention--that indefinable something which forces it upon the mind and the heart of a man, that this complication of accidents or these elemental furies are coming at him with a purpose of malice, with a strength beyond control, with an unbridled cruelty that means to tear out of him his hope and his fear, the pain of his fatigue and his longing for rest: which means to smash, to destroy, to annihilate all he had seen, known, loved, enjoyed, or hated; all that is priceless and necessary--the sunshine, the memories, the future,--which means to sweep the whole precious world utterly away from his sight by the simple and appalling act of taking his life.

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Section Eight

Three steps in the process of translating

Comprehending: The translator should read the whole peace of the writing very carefully, try to grasp the ideological content the author wants to express and make clear not only the literal meaning but also the implication between the lines.

Comprehension is not made word by word or even sentence by sentence. It is possible only in the condition of context. Vocabulary and grammar are not sufficient in doing so. In addition to what we see superficially form the authors writing, we need also to know the background of it, and we are also to use the information form the text, our background knowledge and common sense comprehensively to form a correct understanding.

Rendering: The translator must have a good grasp of the author's portrayal of the characters and style of writing. only thus can he have a reliable basis for his choice of words and making of sentences. Both the choice of word and arrangement of word and sentences are based on the comparatively satisfactory reproduction of the original image and style. In this case, even the same words could be rendered in deferent ways. According to Eugene Nida, We make "dynamic equivalence" out of them. Examples owing to the fact that not all the usage of the language are alike.

Checking may not be the correct word. Counter-checking or reconfirmation might be better. By the third step we actually mean: 1. by re-reading what you write in the second stage, find ways to improve your wording and check misunderstanding if any. 2. It is not merely a repetition of the second step. We need to do as objectively, and as critical as possible in this step. It is related to the second step but subjected to the result of counter-check.

And there is also difference in "reference system." The first interpreting is based on the source language context, but the second is based on the receptor language context. You have to check it for logic reasoning, idiomatic expression, common sense and elegance etc.

Translation Work

I had been taught that I "had to" be unhappy sometimes because it is "good" or productive to be unhappy. Our culture supports this notion. Unhappiness is the mark of a "thinking, feeling" man; it is the mark of sensitivity. It is also considered by many to be the only "reasonable" and "human" response to a difficult and problematic society. The expression "happy idiot" is not just a casual comment but a suspicion that happiness and idiocy are almost identical. I adopted these beliefs and many others, never considering or testing their validity in my mind.

The more questions I asked of myself the more amazed I was to see how often I used unhappiness as a condition I promised myself if I did not get what I wanted or expected. If my lover or mate was uncaring, I'd be miserable (misery was a proof of my involvement and caring). If I did not reach my goal, I'd be angry with myself for failing. To give my wanting extra importance, I made my happiness conditional on getting. If I didn't get what I said I needed—love, money, security—then I would become unhappy. It's a self-fulfilling prophecy.

And yet, I now know it doesn't have to be that way. If my wife and I had been unhappy about our son,

we would not have been able to help him. He would not have improved and so we would have become more unhappy. But by accepting and doing and not judging the situation we were able to reach an "unreachable" child. People who initially use unhappiness as a whip to push themselves can learn that happy people do not stop moving! And doing something out of happiness does not cause inactivity. On the contrary, it usually increases our mobility and effectiveness. Instead of fighting fears and running from pain, we can see what we want and can move toward it with great ease.

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Chapter III Translation service and ways of thinking

Practice of Proofreading

Some mistakes liable to Chinese students

Spirit or Form?

Language and culture

Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Section One

Practice of Proofreading: Some mistakes liable to Chinese students

And it is not surprising that the most serious mistakes in translation are made because of ignorance about the views and values of other cultures.

Perhaps the most serious misconception about culture is the idea that each language more or less controls the way people think, sometimes expressed as "We think the way we think because we talk the way we talk." It is true that the particular structures of a language (sounds, lexemes, syntax, and discourse patterns) may reflect to a certain degree the way people think and they may be said to form "the ruts or paths for thinking," but they do not determine what or how people must think. Languages are too open-ended and human imagination is too creative to ever be rigidly ruled by the regulations of syntax or of any other feature of language.

Without the knowledge of the beliefs and practices of other cultures a translator's perspective of the world is tragically restricted. Differences in culture almost automatically mean differences in language. What is excellent for one language-culture does not lit easily into the patterns of other cultures.

Translation Work

Translating political thesis and news report in addition to the translation of legal writings. Such examples as:

A person to whom this section applies shall not, directly or indirectly, except for the purposes of this Act, or for the purposes of the performance or exercise of the functions or power of the Director or otherwise in connection with the performance of the person's duties under this Act, and either while the person is or after the person ceases to be a person to whom this section applies:

- (a) make a record of any information; or
- (b) divulge or communicate to any person any information; being information obtained by the person in the course of performing duties under this Act.

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Section Two

Translation works appreciation

Translation appreciation as well as comparison of different versions. Translation work.

The term "appropriation" underlines two additional features. One of the aims of all hermeneutics is to struggle against cultural distance. This struggle can be understood in purely temporal terms as a struggle against secular estrangement, or in more genuinely hermeneutical terms as a snuggle against the estrangement from meaning itself, that is, from the system of values upon which the text is based. In this sense, interpretation "brings together," "equalizes," renders "contemporary and similar," thus genuinely making one's own what was initially alien.

Translating stories and essays. Pay close attention to stylistic features of a source text since these reveal the subtle associative (connotative) values being communicated by the author.

Translation Work

Man, though he has great variety of thoughts, and such, from which others, as well as himself, might receive response and delight; yet they are all within his own breast, invisible and hidden from others. It is necessary that man should find out some external sensible signs, whereof those invisible ideas, which his thoughts are made up for, might be made known to others. Thus we may conceive how words which were be nature so well adapted to that purpose, come to be made use of by men, as the signs of their ideas; not by any natural connection that there is between particular articulate sounds and certain ideas, for then there would be but one language amongst all men; but by a voluntary imposition, whereby such a word is made arbitrarily the mark of such an idea.

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Section Three

Spirit or Form?

Language represents the culture because the words refer to the culture, as the beliefs and practices of a society, but the representation is never complete or perfect. Changes in language inevitably tend to lag behind changes in culture, but there are also aspects of culture that are so taken for granted that people simply do not feel the need for terminology to talk about what is completely obvious.

Translation Work

Comedy is a game played to throw reflections upon social life, and it deals with human nature in the drawing room of civilized men and women, where we have no dust of the struggling outer world, no mire,

no violent crashes, to make the correctness of the representation convincing. Credulity is not wooed through the impressionable senses, nor have we resort to the small circular glow of the watchmaker's eye to raise in bright relief minutest grains of evidence for the routing of incredulity. The Comic Spirit conceives a definite situation for a number of characters, and rejects all accessories in the exclusive pursuit of them and their speech. For, being a spirit, he hunts the spirit in man; vision and ardor constitute his merit; he has not a thought of persuading you to believe in him. Follow and you will see. But there is a question of the value of a run at his heels.

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Section Four

Domestication and foreignization

Domestication as well as foreignization, of literature work and essays. Stylish translation.

Facts:

According to the Revised Edition of *A Dictionary of Literary Terms* (J. A. Cuddon, 1979), style is "the characteristic manner of expression in prose or verse; how a particular writer says things. The analysis and assessment of style involves examination of a writer's choice of words, his figures of speech, the devices (theoretical and otherwise), the shape of his sentences (whether they be loose or periodic), the shape of paragraphs — indeed, of every conceivable aspect of his language and the way in which he uses it." Style may be compared to "the tone and voice of the writer himself, which is as much peculiar to him as his laugh, his walk, his handwriting and expressions on his face."

Disputes over the method of literal translation and that of free translation have a long history in China. The first dispute took place in the course of translating the Sanskrit Buddhist scriptures into Chinese. Dao'an (道安 314-385), one of the well-known monks of the Qian Qin State during the East Jin Dynasty; was the representative of those who firmly advocated literal translation. Although he knew nothing of Sanskrit and did not take part 'in translation personally, yet he was in charge of the work and put forth the criteria for the translators to follow. Since he feared that free translation might not be true to the original, he advocated strict literal translation so as to be faithful to the content. Works done under his direction were typical of word-for-word translation in which no alteration was made except accidental changes in word order.

Translation Work

Language and culture always play important role in translation. Translation work in comparison with some reference translation. Summary and briefing for test. Compare such paragraphs as:

The eloquent apologist seemed firmly to expect, and almost ventured to promise, that the establishment of Christianity would restore the innocence and felicity of the primitive age; that the worship of the true God would extinguish war and dissension among those who mutually considered

themselves as the children of a common parent; that every impure desire, every angry or selfish passion, would be restrained by the knowledge of the gospel; and that the magistrates might sheath the sword of justice among a people who would be universally actuated by the sentiments of truth and piety, of equity and moderation, of harmony and universal love.

And

又听说道:"你不谢他,我想么回他呢?况且他再三再四的说了,若设谢的,不许我给你呢。"半晌,又听说道:"也罢。拿我这个给他,算谢他的罢。----你要告诉别人呢?须得起个誓。"又听说道:"我要告诉人,嘴上就长一个疗,日后不得好死!"又听说道:"嗳哟,咱们只顾说,看仔细有人来悄悄在外头听见!不如把这槅子都推开了,就是人见咱们在这里,他们只当我说玩话儿呢。走到跟前,咱们也看的见,就别说了。"

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目 录

前	言		329
	<u> </u>	、概述	329
		、课程教学目的和基本要求	329
	三	、课程主要内容及学时分配	329
	<u>四</u> .	、相关教学环节	330
Chapter I Introduction			331
Ch	apter	II Commonly Used Methods	334
Ch	apter	III Translation service and ways of thinking	340

前言

一、概述

翻译理论与技巧(二)为外国语学院三年学生第二学期开设的专业必修课。

承接翻译理论与技巧(一)的内容,在学生掌握了一些语言之间转换的基本规律后,翻译理论与技巧(二)除着重要介绍汉译英的翻译技巧外,还通过基础理论介绍和与翻译相关的英、汉两种语言上的对比,使学生初步掌握汉译英的翻译技能,并能有效运用翻译技巧,提高翻译的综合操作能力和汉语表达水平。介绍各种变通手段的应用。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

翻译理论与技巧(二)的课程教学目的包括:

- 1、英译汉总结,期末试卷分析。
- 2、简要介绍比较语言学中与翻译有关的内容;通过基础理论教学,对初学者进行翻译技能意识启蒙;
 - 3、帮助学生掌握并有效地运用翻译技巧,减少实践环节中的盲目性;
- 4、从汉译英的不同要求出发,介绍汉语成语以及一些相对固定的词语的译法,以 提高学生的实际操作能力。

从课程的设置上看,仍旧分为两类,一是实践课程,二是理论课程。实践课程和理论课均为必修课,理论部分包括翻译基础理论、翻译批评、翻译文化研究、文学翻译理论(包括中西译史译论的比较研究),同时更多侧重普通翻译的研究,包括科技翻译、法律翻译等。

翻译理论与技巧(二)仍然是一门介绍翻译手段,研究其规律并进而指导实践的课程。它所涉及的层面、需要探讨的问题涉及翻译标准、英汉语言、文化对比及其在翻译中的应用,除讲述翻译的基本原则、翻译技巧、翻译评议等以外,还涉及语言学、语义学、语用学、文化学、美学、修辞学等多学科领域。要求学生在实践中把握理论与实践的契合点,做到对基础理论有全面、充分的了解;在实践中有深透的理论、技巧以及变通手段引导。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

按学期划分,翻译理论与技巧(二)的主要重点是汉译英。在学生掌握了英汉语言

之间转换的基本规律后,做以下语言比较分析:

汉语	英语
1. 修饰语必须前置,因而句子不能太长。	1. 修饰语可以后置,因而句子可以比较

句子短有其语法结构上的原因。

- 2. 当句子扩展为语段时,不能形成环套式 连接,必须断句另起。这是汉语语段以流散铺|接,不必断句另起。这是英语语段以组织结构 排为显著特征的结构上的原因。
- 3. 汉语语段呈流散铺排延伸, 疏放相连比 较挥洒自如,从总体构筑形式上看,是单层面 连,因而使形式呈外显(overt),比较易于把握 的,其句法功能是隐含的(covert)。
 - 4. 重意合(parataxis)而形散神聚。

- 长。句子长有其语法结果上的原因。
- 2. 当句子扩展为语段时,能形成环套式连 严谨为显著特征的结构上的原因。
- 3. 英语语段呈环扣式多层面延伸,以形相 句子结构上的发展层次和关系。
- 4. 重形合(hypotaxis), 在词语形态一级即 有表现, 语段重形式连接。

课时安排仍以基本技巧和变通手段为主要讲解内容。这一部分占总课时的百分之六

十。

四、相关教学环节

在翻译活动中,对原文意义的传达是最基本的问题之一,任何翻译行为的实质都是不同语言之 间的"意义对应转换",是否工于达意也是衡量翻译作品成功与否的重要标准,因而,可以说汉译 英的核心问题仍然是,意义如何确立、如何转换及转换的程度、限度等。汉、英翻译练习及课堂讲 解占有相当的比例:各占三分之一左右的课时。在汉英翻译课上还适当增加基于语料库的汉、英常 用词语对照的内容。

各种理论、技巧讲解结合课堂实践、重点译例分析和佳作赏析。包括学生的优秀译文赏析基本 上贯穿了两个学期的教学活动。目的是有针对性地巩固学生的翻译基本技能,调动他们约积极性和 参与意识,增强信心,提高赏析能力。

翻译评论活动是以 3—4人为单位,就某一原文材料,拿出自己译文在组内交流, 然后推出一篇代表译文在课堂上与其他组的代表交流。如此比较揣摩,互相讨论以加 深同学们对一些理论、技巧的理解和驾驭意识,提高翻译水平。

Chapter I Introduction

Introduction of the course. Miscellaneous.

Characteristics of English and Chinese

Analyzing the similarities and differences of the two languages as a guide to Chinese-English translation.

Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Section One Introduction of the course

About this semester:

This semester will focus on the practice translation from Chinese into English. The differences, however, between the two languages will be emphasized as well to serve as a guide to the course. A language is always a part of a culture and the meaning of any text refers directly or indirectly to the corresponding culture. Ultimately words only have meaning in terms of the corresponding culture.

Sufficient exercises are necessary in getting the idea though that translation means translating the meaning, and to make the trainees more qualified. Difficulties in Chinese-English translation are different form English-Chinese translating, though some basic skills can be adopted by both. And the focus of attention for a translator is the texts, because these are the basic and ultimate units that carry meaning.

Course requirements:

Students will have some translating assignment in this semester. The sentences or paragraphs for practice are carefully selected to train the students' proper rendering. In many instances it is also important to define the meanings of terms on the basis of contrasts and comparisons with the meanings of related words within the same paradigmatic set. The assignment will be graded as part of their assessment.

Mid-term examination is, as a rule, to be held in between the eighth and tenth week.

They will be assessed on the following:

Class attendance 20% Translation assignment 20% Examination 60%

Further Reading

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陈宏薇, 1998, 《汉英翻译基础》, 上海: 上海外语教育出版社。
范仲英, 1994, 《实用翻译教程》, 北京: 外语教学与研究出版社。
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Section Two

Semantic field and info-distribution

Semantic field and info-distribution. Closely related to the techniques of English-Chinese translation course of last semester. A follow-up of proper arrangement of sentences.

Intelligible semantic field as in: There are few circumstances among those which make up the present condition of human knowledge, more significant of the backward state in which speculation on the most important subjects still lingers, than the little progress which has been made in the decision of the controversy respecting the criterion of right and wrong.

Translation Work

- 1. 此物生南国。
- 2. 他从没有出过国门。
- 3. 美国是世界经济超级大国之一。
- 4. 发达国家有保护主义倾向,发展中国家也有保护主义倾向,因为贸易界没有圣贤。
- 5. 大沼泽地(Everglades)国家公园是美国最大的荒原。
- 6. 国将不国,何以为家?

Further Reading

方梦之,1999,《翻译新论与实践》,青岛:青岛出版社。 冯庆华,1997,《实用翻译教程》,上海:上海外语教育出版社。

Section Three

Characteristics of English and Chinese

The English language is an inflected language, a supple and variegated language. It has developed a vocabulary of great richness. Though its inflections are fewer than such language as German, its syntactic rules are probably as intricate as those of any other European language. Its verbal system presents great complexities, making for subtle distinctions. It favors sibilants over other sounds, and yet possesses a wide phoneme repertory.

In the other hand, the Chinese language is called insolating language. As its name suggests, it dose not have grammatical rules as intelligible and systematic as that of English. Without inflection, Chinese language is more paratactic in structures and free in expression.

We are not to make an across-the-board survey of the characteristics of the two languages, which would obviously fall out of the scope of this course. What we are interested in is no more than the few things in which the Chinese translators and interpreters usually find some difficulty.

Translation Work

- 1. 他就着油灯读信。
- 2. 花生仁儿就酒挺不错。
- 3. 稍等一会儿,我就来。
- 4. 她十三岁就参加革命了。
- 5. 她要是不来,我就代他在会上发言。

- 6. 她身体本来就不好, 高烧几天以后更虚弱了。
- 7. 以前我们班就他一个人会用计算机,现在大家都会了。
- 8. 我就不信我学不会这门技术。
- 9.那人就是他哥哥。
- 10.你就是送给我,我也不要。
- 11.两国代表就共同关心的问题交换了意见。

Further Reading

冀一志,1994,"从跨文化角度看习语翻译",《文化与语言》(王福祥、吴汉樱编)。 郭著章、李庆生,1996,《英汉互译实用教程》(修订本),武汉:武汉大学出版社。

Section Four

Basic differences between the two languages

By analyzing the similarities and differences of the two languages, we are able to make translation smooth. As a guide to the theory itself, the analysis will lead to advantages and disadvantages of the two languages as far as translation is concerned. As already noted in the first term, some people have thought that each language is so distinct that there is no valid way in which the discourses of one language can be translated into another. But at least ninety percent of the fundamental structures of all languages are quite similar, and language universals far outweigh the divergences.

Translation Work

- 1. 你的月票还能使用三天。
- 2. 我们必须削减开支, 以使收支平衡。
- 3. 中国是世界上历史最悠久的国家之一。
- 4. 坚持社会主义道路,坚持改革开放。
- 5. 全国各族人民都必须以宪法为根本活动准则。
- 6. 中国人民为争取独立和解放进行了前仆后继的英勇斗争。
- 7. 国营经济是社会主义全民所有制经济,是国民经济中的主导力量。国家保障国营经济的巩固和发展。

Further Reading

李瑞华, 1996, 《英汉语言文化对比研究》, 上海: 上海外语教育出版社。

连淑能, 1993, 《英汉对比研究》, 北京: 高等教育出版社。

Chapter II Commonly Used Methods

Basic sentence structures

Typical Chinese sentences rendering into English

Techniques of Chinese-English translation dealt in this semester.

Sixteen teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Section One

Five basic sentence structures

Five basic sentence structures:

- 1. S Vi: Marry teaches. (He lives here)
- 2. S V link P: Marry is a teacher. (We must keep in touch.)
- 3. S Vmonot Od: She teaches English. (He put the book on the self.)
- 4. S Vdit Oi Od: She teaches us English. (S V Oi He made for the door.)
- 5. S Vcomplex-t Od Co: We found her a good teacher. (The cold weather kept us indoors.)

Translation Work

- 1. 全国人民代表大会代表,非经全国人民代表大会会议主席团许可,在全国人民代表大会闭 会期间非经全国人民代表大会常务委员会许可,不受逮捕或者刑事审判。
- 2. 当前最重要的任务是发展国民经济,提高人民生活水平。为了实现这个目标,我们必须改革旧的经济体制,以便进一步提高生产力。我们应当向世界敞开大门,以便学习其他国家先进的科学技术。只要我们坚持改革、开放政策,就一定能把我国建设成强大的社会主义国家。
- 3. 在我们这个时代,任何人要想在社会上起到他所希望的作用,就必须接受必要的教育,随着科学技术的进步,即使在小学,现在也开设了越来越多的课程。与过去的教育相比,现代教育更强调其实用方面。

Further Reading

刘宓庆, 1999, 《当代翻译理论》, 北京: 中国对外翻译出版公司。

刘重德, 1998, 《英汉语比较与翻译》, 青岛出版社。

Section Two Conversion of sentence structure

那个地方 明年 5 月以前 1000 万元 调查研究 快

(用)这种方法

能解决这个难题。

巧干

从王教授那里

把技术人员的积极性调动起来

如果运用科学的方法

人人都动手而不是坐而论道

at that place.

before next May.

with ten million yuan.

through investigation and study.

if at a high speed.

We (You, One) can solve

(in) this way.

this problem (or: This

by working ingeniously.

problem can be solved)

with the help from Professor Wang.

by bringing into play the positive factor of the technical staff.

by adopting a scientific method.

When (if) all bear a hand instead of indulge in empty talk.

Translation Work

- 1. 在举世瞩目的第 23 届奥运会上,我国体育建儿赛出风格,赛出水平。赢得了精 神文明和运动成绩双丰收,改变了旧中国在奥运会的零分纪录,是我国体育史上具有历史意义的重大突破。
- 2. 禁止在公共场所吸烟的规定有益于保障人民群众的身心健康, 提倡社会公德,减少吸烟造成的危害。我们应积极宣传吸烟有害健康和在公共场所禁止吸烟的有关规定。

Further Reading

陆国强,1999,《英汉和汉英语义结构对比》,上海:复旦大学出版社。 杨自俭,2000,《英汉语比较与翻译》(3),上海:上海外语教育出版社。

Section Three

Typical Chinese sentences rendering into English

Typical Chinese (ancient Mandarin) sentences rendering into English, with an eye to the Chinese sentence structure of 'topic' and 'rheme' in comparison to that of English.

These concerns focus on the behavior of human organisms, and conclusions are arrived at on the basis of empirically observed overt processes. When a philosopher inquires into how a word means, he is interested in understanding the logical structures and relations that make meaning possible. He may want to know what sort of "entity" a meaning is as distinct from the word that means, the speaker that means by the word, the object meant by the word, and the hearer to whom the word means. He may want to know the nature of the relations that exist between these factors that are involved in the communication of meaning.

Translation Work

1. 我们要分批确定近期工作的重点。

- 2. 天津港保税区己成为中国进一步扩大改革开放的新窗口。港内水域宽阔,水深浪静,万顿轮通行无阻,五万顿轮可乘潮自由进出。
- 3. 沙市电冰箱厂是国家轻工业部定点厂。这家工厂只有几年的历史;可产品已经进入国际市场。

Further Reading

张经浩,1996,《译论》,长沙:湖南教育出版社。 肖君石,汉英、英汉翻译初探.北京:商务印书馆,1982

Section Four

How to make idiomatic English sentences

How to make idiomatic English sentences form the angle of hypotaxis of English and parataxis of Chinese.

The notion of reference, in particular, has always fascinated linguists, logicians, and philosophers. The linguist studies it as he must study any pervasive feature of language. The logician studies it, not only because he must be interested in pervasive features of natural languages if his artificial ones are to be of relevance, but also because of the numerous paradoxes of reference, of which more later Philosophers are interested in reference for other reasons. In referring, words relate directly, so to speak, to the world; and any thesis about reference is also going to be a thesis about what there is in existence to refer to. To deny, for example, that "the average man, or virtue," refer is to deny that there exist such entities as the average man or the universal virtue.

Translation Work

- 1. 西湖如镜面, 千峰凝翠, 洞壑幽深, 风光绮丽。
- 2. 在四川西部,有一处美妙的去处。它依山旁水,树木苍翠,花香袭人,鸟声婉转,流水潺潺,它就是松潘县的黄龙。
- 3. 张家界以水显幽。这里,石缝间的山泉,幽谷中的潜流,汇成五条溪流、四处白沙泉水、两处悬岩飞瀑,蜿蜒曲折,东流而下,与红岩绿树相辉映,构成一幅天然的山水画。
- 4. 座座岛屿玲珑小巧,紧密相连,像一串珍珠组成项链,环绕着半岛边缘。到上珊瑚礁红,椰树成片,沙滩如银,景色如诗如画。

Further Reading

包惠南,2001,《文化语境与语言翻译》,北京:中国对外翻译出版公司。金隄,1990,On Translation.北京:中国对外翻译出版公司。

Section Five

Connotation and collocation

Rules or conventions govern human practices and purposive human activities. So we should ask what purposive activities are governed by these conventions. What are these rules for doing? And the very simple thought I spoke of which underlies the suggested type of analysis is that these rules are, precisely, rules for communicating, rules by the observance of which the utterer may achieve his purpose, fulfil his

communication-intention; and that this is their essential character. That is, it is not just a fortunate fact that these rules allow of use for this purpose; rather, the very nature of the rules concerned can be understood only if they are seen as rules whereby this purpose can ix achieved.

Examples:

大国有大国的问题,而小国有小国的有利条件。

A big nation has its problems while a small nation has its advantages.

我不喜欢白信封,我喜欢花的。

I don't like white envelopes, I like colored ones.

正式合同 formal contract

正式批准 official approval

正式签署 duly sign

基本建设 capital construction

基本物资 essential commodity

基本工业 primary industry

基本价格 base price

基本工资 basic wage

基本利益 fundamental interest

基本险 with particular average (WPA)

基本条款 condition clause

基本设施 infrastructure

基本信用证 overriding credit

基本数据 benchmark data

Translation Work

- 1. 在建设有中国特色社会主义理论的指导下,我们党形成了社会主义初级阶段的基本路线, 这就是: 领导和团结全国各族人民,以经济建设为中心,坚持四项基本原则,坚持改革开放,自力 更生,艰苦创业,为把我国建设成为富强、民主、文明的社会主义现代化强国而奋斗。
- 2. 近几个月来,党中央,国务院着重抓了三件大事:一是做出深化改革,加强和改善国民经济宏观调控的决策,主要运用经济手段解决经济发展中出现的一些突出矛盾和问题,现在已经取得初步成效:二是从总体上系统而全面地研究加强加快建设社会主义市场经济体制问题,着重研究了金融、财政、税收、国有资产管理、投资体制和外贸体制等方面的配套改革措施,准备近期在这些方面迈出重大的改革步伐;三是部署反腐败斗争,推进廉政建设。

Further Reading

张卫族,中国人使用英语常见错误分析.北京:华夏出版社,1994秦乃瑞,崔鸣秋.英汉俚谚合璧。北京:新世界出版社,1990

Section Six Language materials

As suggested in the	last section follow	ving language material	c are introduced:
As suggested in the	iast section, follow	ing language material	s are minoduced.

立足当前、着眼长远	Stay firmly rooted in the present while looking	
	ahead to the future	
建立县、乡、村三级医	set up a system of medical care that spans the	
疗卫生服务体系	three levels of county, township and village	
重点贫困县	designated poverty-stricken counties	
利率形成和传导机制	interest rates setting and transmission	
	mechanisms	
放宽市场准入	ease market access	
规范医院、医生的医疗	standardize the medical practices of hospitals	
和用药行为	and doctors including the way they prescribe drugs	
普法教育	enhance legal awareness	

Translation Work

- 1. 目前我国农业的劳动生产率和商品率都比较低,抵御自然灾害的能力还很薄弱,特别是人 多耕地少的矛盾将越来越突出。
- 2. 我国现在正值生育高峰,人口增长过快,不但将影响人均收入的提高,而且粮食和住宅供应、教育和劳动就业需要的满足,都将成为严重的问题,甚至可能影响社会的安定。
- 3. 在自然科学方面,我们比较落后,特别要努力向国外学习,但是也要有批判地学,不可盲目地学。
- 4. 进一步落实党的民族政策,坚持和完善民族区域自治制度,发展平等、团结、互助的社会主义民族关系。

Further Reading

林佩汀,中英对译技巧. 北京: 学习出版有限公司

钱歌川,翻译漫谈;翻译的技巧. 北京:中国对外翻译公司,1980

Section Seven Several Basic means

Introduce such basic means as:

- 1. Corresponding sentence patterns
- 2. Rearrangement of word order
- 3. Conversion of part of speech
- 4. Proper addition and omission
- 5. Necessary repetition

etc.

Translation Work

50 年来,中国政法大学在中央主管部门及社会各界的关心支持下,以"厚德、明法、格物、致公"为校训,以"推动中国社会政治进步和法制昌明"、建设"社会主义法治国家"为理想,严谨治学,砥砺人才,在教学、科研和学科建设等各个方面都形成了自己的办学特色,在法学领域具有突出的整体优势,被认为是中国法学教育的最高学府和对外交流的总代表。中国政法大学是我国高素质政法人才的培养中心,50 年来,学校共为社会各界输送优秀毕业生 10 万余名,其中绝大部

分已成为国家公安、检察、审判、司法行政及政府机关、经济实体的骨干力量和法学教学科研的中坚,据不完全统计,全国具有高等学历的司法工作者中,约有1/10来自于中国政法大学。

Further Reading

《中国翻译》编辑部编辑. 中译英技巧文集. 北京: 中国对外翻译出版公司, 1992 Newmark, Peter. 1988. A Textbook of Translation, Prentice Hall.

Section Eight

Value of translation

One of the most surprising paradoxes of translation in that there is never a complete perfect or timeless translation. Both language and culture are always in the process of change. Furthermore, language is an open system with overlap meanings and fuzzy boundaries --- the bane of logicians but the delight of poet. The indeterminacy of language is part of the price of that must be paid for creativity and for the new insights which come through symbolic reinterpretation of human experience.

As already noted in the former term, some people have thought that each language is so distinct that there is no valid way in which the discourses of one language can be translated into another. But at least ninety percent of the fundamental structures of all languages are quite similar, and language universals far outweigh the divergences.

Translation Work

- 1. 香港特别行政区将保持自由港和独立关税地区的地位。
- 2. 改革开放也使民族精神获得了新的解放。
- 3. 中国人口的80%在农村,如果不解决这80%的人的生活问题,社会就不会是安定的。
- 4. 加强同发展中国家的团结与合作是中国外交政策的基本立足点。
- 5. 不搞改革,不坚持开放,我们制定的战略目标就不可能实现。这是一个关,这个关必须过。

Further Reading

刘宓庆, 1998, 《文体与翻译》, 中国对外翻译出版公司。

Baker, M. 1992. In Other Words. Routledge.

Chapter III Translation service and ways of thinking

Cross cultural linguistics and translation

Translation works appreciation

Translating scientific document

Translating legal document

Twelve teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Section One

Cross cultural linguistics and translation

Differences in culture almost automatically mean differences in language. What is excellent for one language-culture does not lit easily into the patterns of other cultures.

Since culture is defined succinctly as "the totality of beliefs and practices of a society," nothing is of greater strategic importance than the language through which its beliefs are expressed and transmitted and by which most interaction of its members takes place.

The relation between language and culture would not constitute such serious difficulties for cross-cultural understanding if it were not for the numerous misconceptions about language and its function within a society. Perhaps the most serious misconception is the idea that each language more or less controls the way people think, sometimes expressed as "We think the way we think because we talk the way we talk." It is true that the particular structures of a language (sounds, lexemes, syntax, and discourse patterns) may reflect to a certain degree the way people think and they may be said to form "the ruts or paths for thinking," but they do not determine what or how people must think. Languages are too open-ended and human imagination is too creative to ever be rigidly ruled by the regulations of syntax or of any other feature of language.

Translation Work

- 1. 美国内部对中国的政策究竟怎么样,我们还需要观察。
- 2. 外商投资企业生产的出口产品,除国家另有规定的产品之外,免征关税。
- 3. 土地使用权有偿转让是通过土地使用权有偿出让和土地使用权转让进行房地产经营的经济活动。
 - 4. 保护、发展和合理利用野生动物、野生植物资源。
 - 5. 已经对环境造成污染和其他公害的单位,应当按照谁污染谁治理的原则,制定规划。
- 6. 地方各级人民代表大会代表任期,从每届本级人民代表大会举行第一次会议开始,到下届 本级人民代表大会举行第一次会议为止。

Further Reading

杜承南、文军,1994,《中国当代翻译百论》,重庆:重庆大学出版社。

单其昌, 《汉英翻译技巧》, 北京: 外语教学与研究出版社, 1992。

Dinguaney, A. and Maier, C. (eds.) 1995. Between Languages and Cultures: Translation and Cross-cultural Texts. University of Pittsburgh Press.

Section Two

Some mistakes liable to Chinese students

And it is not surprising that the most serious mistakes in translation are made because of ignorance about the views and values of other cultures.

Focus:

二人酒肆饮酒,酒毕,久坐不去。主人厌倦,假看天色曰:"雨要来了。"二人曰:"雨即来了,如何去得?少待雨过再去。"主人又曰:"如今雨又过了。"其人曰:"雨即过了。怕它怎的。"

Translation Work

- 1. 外籍职工的工资、薪金所得,减半征收所得税。
- 2. 外国人申请各项签证,应当提供有效护照,必要时提供有关证明。
- 3. 常务委员会根据工作需要,设立办事机构。
- 4. 争议双方没有在合同中订立仲裁条款,事后又未达成书面仲裁协议的,可以根据我国的有 关法律向人民法院起诉。
 - 5. 自然保护区的划定和管理,按照国务院有关规定办理。
- 6. 为了通过商谈妥善解决两岸同胞交往中所衍生的具体问题,一九九二年十一月,海峡两岸 关系协会与台湾的海峡交流基金会达成在事务性商谈中各自以口头方式表述"海峡两岸均坚持一个 中国原则"的共识.。

Further Reading

汪福祥, 1998, 汉译英难点解析 500 例. 北京: 外文出版社。

陆国强, 1999, 《英汉和汉英语义结构对比》, 上海: 复旦大学出版社。

Section Three

Translation works appreciation

Appreciating good translation work such as: The Red Mansion Dream, Story of Three Nations with different translators and different editions.

那黛玉倚着床栏杆,两手抱着膝,眼睛含着泪,好似木雕泥塑的一般,直坐到二更多天,方才 睡了。一宿无话。

HAWKES:

She sat, motionless as a statue, leaning against the back of the bed, her hands clasped about her knees, her eyes full of tears, It had already been dark for some hours when she finally lay down to sleep.

Our story passes over the rest of that night in silence.

YANG:

Dai-yu leaned against her bed-rail, clasping her knees. Her eyes were brimming with tears. There she stayed motionless as a statue, not lying down until after the second watch.

Translation Work

划然长啸,草木震动,山鸣谷应,风起水涌。予亦悄然而悲。肃然而恐,凛乎其不可留也。反而登舟,放乎中流,听其所止而休焉。

Further Reading

居祖纯, 1998, 《汉英语篇翻译》, 北京: 清华大学出版社。

冀一志, 1994, "从跨文化角度看习语翻译", 《文化与语言》(王福祥、吴汉樱编)。

Section Four

Translating stories and essays

Translating stories and essays. Pay close attention to stylistic features of a source text since these reveal the subtle associative (connotative) values being communicated by the author.

One paradox represents the most widespread view that a translator should first produce a more or less literal rendering of the source text and then proceed to improve it stylistically. Style, as some translation theorist put it, is not "the frost on the cake," but an integrated part of the process of inter-lingual communication. It must be built into the text right from the beginning. It's usually better to aim first at a stylistically satisfactory rendering of the source text and then review it carefully for to "tighten up" by analyzing and testing the correspondences. A few errors in the correspondence of lexical meaning are much more excusable than missing the sprit and aesthetic character of the source text.

Translation Work

自从新加坡放宽了到中国旅游探亲的限制以后,新加坡掀起了旅游中国的热潮。新加坡不少旅行社刊登大幅广告,组织前往中国的旅游团。新加坡报纸还为此出版中国旅游特辑,介绍中国各地的旅游景点和名胜古迹。据初步统计,举行中国之旅的旅行社,大小达三十家。

新加坡《联合早报》不久前前刊登中国旅游特辑,图文并茂地详细介绍了北京的万里长城:南京的石头城、明孝陵、紫金山、西安的半坡村;四川的娥眉山;安徽的黄山等旅游胜地。

新加坡报纸说,中国是世界四大文明古国之一,地大物博,拥有茂密的森林,壮丽的山河,犹如利剑直插云霄的高峰、雄伟壮丽的瀑布、秀丽的湖泊及富有中华文化光辉的名胜古迹,令世界各国人们神住。

但是,更重要的是,中国具有五千年的历史,遗留下无数的历史文物、珍珠宝藏、古迹、名胜、宫殿及数不尽的雄伟建筑,令人惊叹不已。这种种原因都促使中国成为许多人梦寐以求的旅游胜地。

Further Reading

杨宪益, 戴乃迭. 1959, 《中国小说史略》(英文版). 北京: 外文出版社。

Schult, Rainer and John Biguenet. (eds.) 1992. Theories of Translation: An Anthology of Essays from Dryden to Derrida, Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.

Section Five

Translating scientific document

Translating scientific documents and every day Chinese (application, invitation, recommendation, etc.)

It is important to note that an original text is sometimes (but by no means always) misrepresented under the influence of the translators personal opinion. In extreme cases, the translation becomes a deliberate distortion of the original. In 1934 Shakespeare's tragedy Coriolanus was staged at the Comedy

Francaise in Paris in a new translation by the French nationalist Rene-louis Piachaud. By dint of numerous departure from the English text the translator endowed Coriolanus with the features of a perfect reactionary dictator who perish in an unequal combat against democracy. Thanks to this translation the old English play become a battle flag of French traction movement. The dreams of firm dictatorship and the destruction of the revolutionary plebes which were cherished by the French rentiers but threatened be the "Red Menace" found perfect reflection in this modernized translation of Shakespeare. The audience decoded the play as a broadside against the contemporary political condition of France, and since its very first performance the theater has always been divided into two sides. While Coriolanus's curse on rabble evoke ardent applause from the stall, the galleries whistled it down in a frenzy.

Translation Work

北京鑫贸实业(集团)总公司,是注册资金一亿元人民币,现有职工四百余人,以经营房地产为主的集体所有制企业。公司总裁杜杰遵照党的十五大精神,狠抓员工的精神文明建设,坚持"依法明理、诚信待人"的经营司训,坚持严格、高效、科学的管理方式,率领包括一大批高级教育、金融、工程、技术、法律及擅长整体经济运作经营的管理人员,形成了巨大的凝聚力和向心力。

当公司走上不断发展壮大的良性运行轨道后,继续奉行"勇开拓,不求归谁所有,广发展,只图为民所用"的经营理念,艰苦奋斗,励精图志,开发了温馨公寓、景山学校分部、平坊新村、王府俱乐部,并合作开发了"王府花园"等项目。以其规模大、档次高、效益好而誉满京城,创下了三年建成四十余万平方米王府大社区的奇迹。得到北京市政府领导和各界人士的高度赞扬。

Further Reading

刘巩, 1983, 科技英语惯用结构. 兰州: 甘肃人民出版社。 陆国强, 1999, 《英汉和汉英语义结构对比》,上海: 复旦大学出版社。

Section Six

Translating legal document

Translation of legal document (contract, protocol regulations, etc.) in comparison with some reference translation. Miscellaneous; comprehensive review for the final examination; basic skills and well as artful respect of translation.

Translation Work

第三章 合同的履行和违反合同的责任

第十六条 合同依法成立,即具有法律约束力。当事人应当履行合同约定的义务,任何一方不得擅自变更或者解除合同。

第十七条 当事人一方有另一方不能履行合同的确切证据时,可以暂时中止履行合同,但是应 当立即通知另一方;当另一方对履行合同提供了充分的保证时,应当履行合同。当事人一方没有另 一方不能履行合同的确切证据,中止履行合同的,应当负违反合同的责任。

Further Reading

孙万彪,2001,《法律翻译教程》,上海:上海外语教育出版社。

Snell-Hornby, M. 1988. Translation Studies: An Integrated Approach. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

《高级英语(一)(二)》教学大纲

辛衍君 编写

目 录

前	言		.347
	—,	概述	.347
	Ξ,	课程教学目的和基本要求	.347
	三、	课程主要教学内容及学时分配	.347
	四、	相关教学环节	.347
	五、	考核方法	.347
	六、	教学方法和手段	.347
第一	一学期 (耄	女材:张汉熙主编《高级英语》第一册,外语教学与研究出版社)	.348
第一	学期 (参	b材, 张汉熙主编《高级英语》第一册 外语教学与研究出版社)	357

前言

一、概述

高级英语是英语专业高年级必修课程。从课程的属性来说,可视为基础阶段的综合英语课程的深入和延伸。因此它也是高等院校英语专业本科教学中必不可少的重要主干基础课程。该课程内容丰富,涉及题材广泛,语言及文化深度较深。通过该课程的学习,英语专业学生在阅读理解、语法修辞及写作等综合能力将得到很好地训练和提高。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

该课程使学生在预习的环节掌握独立阅读、查找资料以及建立笔记的技巧;在课堂教学环节准确掌握课文内容;逐步提升对英语篇章结构的分析能力;培养对英语写作技巧和修辞手段的欣赏能力;在课后练习环节学生开始练习词语释义,即用英语解释英语短语或句型转换。逐步培养对语言与文化之间的关系的敏感性。此外,加强构词法的学习以及同义词的辨析。

三、课程主要教学内容及学时分配

本课程安排在专业三年级开设(两学期)。第一学期: 张汉熙主编的《高级英语》第一册(Advanced English (Revised Edition) Book 1, Hanxi Zhang, Foreign Languages Teaching and Research Press, 1995.)。第二学期: 张汉熙主编的《高级英语》第二册(Advanced English (Revised Edition) Book 2, Hanxi Zhang, Foreign Languages Teaching and Research Press, 1995.)。上下学期共 36 周,周 2 学时,总课时 72 学时。每学期学习 6-8 个单元,以背景知识介绍、 相关文化知识介绍及课文讲解为主,平均每个单元约需 4-6 学时。

四、相关教学环节

该课程的课堂教学环节包括篇章结构的分析、文章内容和语言点的精讲和精练、修辞手段的欣赏、分组讨论与口语训练等等;课后练习环节包括课后拓展阅读、翻译、写作训练等等。

五、考核方法

平时成绩 10%, 期中考试 20%, 期末考试 70%。

六、教学方法和手段

根据各单元的实际情况采用灵活多样的教学方式,如启发式、讨论式、研究式和互动式等。此外本课程还辅以多媒体课件,增强视听感受,激发学生的学习积极性。

本大纲撰写人员为辛衍君。

第一学期 (教材:张汉熙主编《高级英语》第一册,外语教学与研究出版社)

Unit One: Middle Eastern Bazaar

1. Background Information (pictures and description)

- (1). Middle Eastern Countries
- (2). Architecture of Gothic Style

2. Pre-reading Questions

- (1). What is a bazaar in your mind?
- (2). Can you name some of the Middle Eastern countries and in which such bazaars are likely to be found?

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). penetrate
- (2). muted
- (3). Sepulchral
- (4). fade
- (5). follow suit
- (6). peculiarity
- (7). The shop-keepers speak in a slow, measured tone, and the buyers, overwhelmed by the sepulchral atmosphere, follow suit.
 - (8). Bargaining is the order of the day
- (9). It is a point of honor with the customer not to let the shopkeeper guess what it is she really likes and wants until the last moment.
- (10). The seller, on the other hand, makes a point of protesting that the price he is charging is depriving him of all profit, and that he is sacrificing this because of his personal regard for the customer.
 - (11). at regular intervals
 - (12). bold
 - (13). pungent
 - (14). honey comb
 - (15). accessory of the apparatus mentioned in the article
 - (16). different sounds in this article
 - (17). shovel sth into/onto

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). making effective use of specific verbs
- (2). using adjectives accurately
- (3).using five human senses---hearing, smelling, seeing, tasting and touching to make the description vivid
 - (4).using rhetorical devices properly
- (5).using rhetorical (simile \metaphor \assonance \onomatopoeia) devices properly .- -Find relative sentences of those rhetorical devices...?

5, Oral Work on Class

- (1). Summary of the Text
- (2). What scene do you find most picturesque in the bazaar? Why?

6, Written Work after Class

(1).Describe the shopping mall you have ever been to.

Unit Two: Hiroshima-the "Liveliest" City in Japan

1. Background Information (pictures and description)

- (1). Hiroshima
- (2). Manhattan Project

2. Pre-reading Questions

- (1). Why the writer use the adjective "liveliest" to describe the Japan city?
- (2). Can you explain the Manhattan project?

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). slide, slip, glide
- (2). reportorial
- (3). to be of oblivious of
- (4). façade
- (5). lurch
- (6). intermezzo
- (7). usher
- (8). embankment
- (9). moor
- (10). the strange emotion which had overwhelmed me at the station returned.
- (11). I cautiously backed away and headed toward the far side of the room.
- (12). I was just about to make my little bow of assent, when the meaning of these last words sank in, jolting me out of my bad service.
 - (13). jolt
 - (14). heinous
 - (15). I must confess that I did not expect a speech about oysters here.
 - (16). on the part of
- (17). There are two different schools of thought in this city of oysters, one that would like to preserve traces of the bomb, and the other that would like to get rid of everything, even the monument that was erected at the point of impact.

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). making effective use of specific verbs
- (2). using adjectives accurately
- (3). metaphor
- (4). understand the writer's true meaning and emotion

5, Oral Work on Class

(1). Please discuss what harms the war affects the city "Hiroshima"? Or do you really think that Hiroshima is the liveliest city in Japan? Why?

(2). Can you imagine what the really liveliest city look like?

6. Work after Class

(1). Read the text fluently and retell it.

Unit Three: Ships in the Desert

1.Background Information (pictures and description)

- (1). Environmental Crisis
- (2). the Aral Sea
- (3) Clean Air Act

2. Pre-reading Questions

- (1). What do you think of the world environment at present?
- (2). Can you give out some typical images of environmental destruction?

3. Detailed Study of the Text(analyze the structure of some long and complicated sentences and. understand the scientific matters connected with ecological environment)

- (1). I was standingon a good day.
- (2). the prospects of a good catch looked bleak
- (3). pick up speed
- (4). rendezvous point
- (5). ice runway
- (6). Snowmelt
- (7). Amazon rainforest
- (8). Assault
- (9). noctilucent cloud
- (10). Paddy
- (11). biomass
- (12). manifestation
- (13). distraction
- (14). skirmish
- (15). at stake
- (16). equilibrium
- (17). surge

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). making effective use of specific verbs
- (2). understatement
- (3). metaphor

5, Oral Work on Class

- (1.) What is the purpose of a piece of exposition?
- (2). How to write a piece of exposition by give examples?

6. After Class Task

Translate long and complicated sentences

Unit Four: Everyday Use

1. Background Information (pictures and description)

- (1). about the author
- (2). What is the brief scenario of the novel Everyday Use?

2. Pre-reading Questions

(1). What do the old quilts symbolize?

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). way
- (2). tottering
- (3). a sweet gum tree
- (4). august
- (5). dimwit
- (6). kinky
- (7). furtive
- (8). trip over
- (9). salt-lick shelters
- (10). churn
- (11). Maggie's brain's like an elephant's
- (12). She held the quilts securely in her arms, stroking them.
- (13). She'd probably be backward enough to put them to everyday use.
- (14). Stumped
- (15). When I looked at her like that something hit me in the top of my head and ran down to the soles of my feet.
 - (16). Just when I'm in church and the spirit of God touches me and I get happy and shout.

4、 Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). making effective use of specific verbs
- (2). using adjectives accurately
- (3).using rhetorical devices properly

5, Oral Work on Class

- (1). Summary of the Text
- (2). Perform a play according to the text

6. After Class Task

(1). Please read the whole novel Everyday Use

Unit Five: Speech on Hitler's Invasion of the U.S.S.R

1. Background Information (pictures and description)

- (1). Introduction to Sir Winston Churchill (1874-1965)
- (2). The historical background of this speech

2. Pre-reading Questions

(1). What was Churchill's purpose to deliver this speech?

- 3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)
- (1). this changed conviction into certainty
- (2). I had not the slightest doubt where our duty and our policy lay
- (3). Nor indeed what to say
- (4). presently... with detailed news
- (5). had surprised a large portion
- (6). I suppose they will be rounded up in hordes
- (7). the following account...may be of interest
- (8). go all out
- (9). the same would be true of the U.SA
- (10). revert
- (11).I asked whether for him the arch anti-Communist, this was not bowing down in the House of Rimmon
 - (12). If Hitler invaded Hell I would make...
 - (13). The Nazi regime is devoid of all theme and principle except appetite and racial domination
 - (14). But all this fades away...
 - (15). Clanking
 - (16). Dandified
 - (17). Glare
 - (18).be resolved
 - (19.) rid the earth of...
 - (20). If Hitler imagines...woefully mistaken
 - (21). Divergence
 - (22). On the contrary... from his tyranny
 - (23).moralise
 - (24).hearth and home

4、 Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). repetitions and parallel structures to achieve emphasis
- (2). periodic sentences, rhetorical questions, and inverted sentences to make his speech vivid and forceful.

5. Oral Work on Class(group discussion)

- (1). What was Churchill's reaction to the news of Hitler's invasion of Russia?
- (2). What policy did Churchill declare Britain would pursue?
- (3). What, according to Churchill, was Hitler's motive in invading Russia?

6. Written Work after Class

(1). Write a summary of the speech within 200 words

Unit Six: Blackmail

1. Background Information (pictures and description)

- (1). about the novel hotel from which the text is extracted
- (2). about the author

2. Pre-reading Questions

- (1). Why is the text titled with Blackmail?
- (2). What are the characteristics of the text's language?

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). The muted buzzer
- (2). Cruelly instructed
- (3). Piggy
- (4). Sardonic, sarcastic, satirical, ironical
- (5). An appreciative chuckle
- (6). Jaguar
- (7). It pays to check
- (8). Bit off the end
- (9). In the last few minutes the conversation had become as seemingly casual as if the discussion were of some minor domestic matter and not survival itself.
 - (10). Fancy jaguar
 - (11). Cluck his tongue reprovingly
 - (12). Take off home
- (13). Every repair shop in Louisiana's been told to holler 'cops' the minute a car needing fixin' like yours comes in
 - (14). There must be no mistake, no vacillation or dallying because of her own smallness of mind.
 - (15). Square one's shoulders
 - (16). Look-see
 - (17). Take on a musing note
 - (18). Get around to
 - (19). Highway patrol
 - (20). bulged

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). The accurate use of synonymies and antonyms
- (2). metaphor

5. Oral Work on Class(group discussion)

- (1). What made the Duchess jump to the conclusion that Ogilvie had come to blackmail them?
- (2). Why couldn't the Duchess get her car repaired discreetly in New Orleans?
- (3). Why did the Duchess offer Ogilvie twenty-five thousand dollars instead of the ten thousand the detective asked for?

6. Written Work after Class

(1). Write a summary of the speech within 200 words

Unit Seven: The Age of Miracle Chips

1. Background Information (pictures and description)

- (1). *Time*
- (2). Byzantine art

(3). Oxford tutorial

2. Pre-reading Questions

- (1). What is the significance of the computer revolution?
- (2). What role will computers play in education?

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1).excerpt
- (2). drudgery
- (3).snugly
- (4). groovy
- (5).array
- (6). capricious
- (7). astray
- (8). elicit
- (9). ubiquitous
- (10). accrue
- (11). soporific
- (12). benign

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). antonomasia
- (2). metaphor
- (3). alliteration

5. Oral Work on Class

(1). Is the computer a humanizing or dehumanizing factor?

6. Written Work after Class

(1). The Role of Computer in Our Modern Life.

Unit Eight: An Interactive Life

1. Background Information (pictures and description)

- (1). Victoria's Secret
- (2). Home Shopping Network

2. Pre-reading Questions

(1). What will an interactive life of the future be like? Describe some of its possible features?

${f 3}$, Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). Arcade
- (2). Fibre-optic cable
- (3). Computer screen fronting
- (4). Cellular
- (5). Corral
- (6). Rope in
- (7). Unimedia
- (8). Artificial intelligence

- (9). Keep tabs on
- (10). Electronic butler
- (11). Sounds great in theory, but even the truest believers have a hard time when it comes to nailing down specifics about how it will actually work.
- (12). "Interactivity" may be the biggest buzzword of the moment, but "convergence" is a close second.
 - (13). Fell over oneself
 - (14). Binary formatting
 - (15). Levy a fee for services used
- (16). Who will protect the privacy of consumers whose shopping, viewing and recreational habits are all fed into one cable-phone company data bank?
 - (17). At this point, so much is still speculation.

4、 Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). making effective use of specific verbs
- (2). Alliteration

5. Oral Work on Class

(1). Summary of the Text

6, Written Work after Class

(1). Write down your imagination about the interactive life in your mind

Unit Nine: Mark Twin-Mirror of America

1. Background Information

(1). Mark Twain and his works

2. Pre-reading Questions

(1). Why is Mark Twain one of America's best-loved authors??

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). Mirror of America
- (2). as adventurous, patriotic, romantic, and humorous as anyone has ever imagined
- (3). obsessed with the frailties of the human race
- (4). the new American experience
- (5). the climax of westward expansion
- (6).the difference between what people claim to be and what they really are
- (7). succumbed to the epidemic of gold and silver fever

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). Antithesis
- (2). Alliteration
- (3). Personification

5, Oral Work on Class

- (1). Give a brief account of Mark Twain's experience before he became a writer.
- (2). Why did the author adopt Mark Twain' as his pen name?

6. After Class Task

(1). Translate the last paragraph into Chinese

Unit Ten: The Trial That Rocked the World

1. Background Information (pictures and description)

- (1). About the author John Scopes, Henry Louis Mencken and William Jennings
- (2). Generally introduce the United States Law and concerned glossaries.

2. Pre-reading Questions

- (1). What do you think of the struggles between fundamentalists and modernists? What did that show?
- (2). What have you learned about the law and legal procedures in the U.S.? Do you think them sensible?

3. Detailed Study of the Text(analyze the structure of some long and complicated sentences and. understand the scientific matters connected with ecological environment)

- (1). Rock
- (2). Buzz
- (3). Sweltering
- (4). Reassuring arm
- (5). Erupt
- (6). Adhere to
- (7). Old Testament
- (8). There is never a duel with the truth.
- (9). So has every other teacher
- (10). Two of my pupils testified, ginning shyly at me, that I had taught them evolution, but added that they had not been contaminated by the experience.
 - (11). Sprout
 - (12). Evangelist
 - (13). Exhort
 - (14). The spectators chuckled and Bryan warmed to his work
 - (15). Brandish
 - (16). Denounce
- (17). The oratorical storm that Clarence Darrow and Dudley Field Malone blew up in the little court in Dayton swept like a fresh wind through the schools and legislative offices of the Unite States, bringing in its wake a new climate of intellectual and academic freedom that has grown with the passing years.
 - (18). Hail

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). periodic sentences, rhetorical questions, and inverted sentences to make his speech vivid and forceful.
 - (2). Antonomasia
 - 5. Oral Work on Class
 - (1). Paraphrase some difficult sentences
 - 6. Written Work after Class
 - (1). Complete the text's exercise as the homework

第二学期 (教材:张汉熙主编《高级英语》第一册,外语教学与研究出版社)

Unit One: Face to Face with Hurricane Camille

1, Additional Background Information

- (1). Hurricane; typhoon; cyclone
- (2). Salvation Army
- (3). Red Cross

2. Introduction to the Passage

(1). Type of literature: A piece of narration

A piece of narration includes character (protagonist/antagonist) ,action (incidents, events, etc.) ,conflicts (suspense, tension) ,climax and denouement

(2). Organization of the text: introduction, development, climax and conclusion

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). pummel
- (2). demolish
- (3).gruff
- (4). Come by
- (5). Wind and rain now whipped the house
- (6). As the wind mounted to a roar, the house begin leaking.
- (7) .water inched its way up the steps
- (8).one wall began crumbling on the marooned group
- (9).trail away

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). elliptical and short, simple sentences to achieve certain effect
- (2). transferred epithet
- (3). Personification
- (4). simile

5. Grammar

- (1). run-on sentences
- (2). sentence fragments
- (3). dangling modifiers
- (4). illogical or faulty parallelism
- (5). unnecessary shifts in point of view

6. After Class Task

(1). Write a short narration of around 300words relating your experience of a natural disaster.

Unit Two: Marrakech

1, Additional Background Information

(1). George Orwell

- (2). Morocco
- (3). Marrakech

2. Introduction to the Passage

- (1). Type of literature: a piece of exposition .The purpose of a piece of exposition:
- to inform or explain
- (2). The Ways of developing the thesis of a piece of exposition are comparison, contrast, analogy, identification, illustration, analysis and definition, etc

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1).wail
- (2). derelict
- (3).bump
- (4). sidle
- (5). frenzied
- (6).cunning
- (7) .a white skin
- (8).eroded
- (9). The plough is a wretched wooden thing, so frail that one can easily carry it on one's shoulder.
- (10).squash
- (11).not hostile, not contemptuous, not sullen, not even inquisitive.

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). rhetorical questions
- (2). repetition
- (3). metaphor
- (4). simile
- (5). elliptical sentences

5. Oral Work on Class

(1). What can you infer about the author's political attitude from this essay?

6. After Class Task

(1). Writing a short composition describing the present economic and living condition in China.

Unit Three: Pub Talk and King's English

1. Background Information

- (1).pub/pub-friends
- (2). Dumas/Three Musketeers
- (3). Carlyle
- (4). Charles Lam

2. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1).deserve the name of
- (2). Make a point
- (3).get out of bed on the wrong side
- (4). We ought to think ourselves back into the shoes of the Saxon peasant.

- (5). The phrase has been used a little pejoratively and even facetiously by the lower classes.
- (6).be on the rocks
- (7). turn up one's nose at sth
- (8). be on wings

4、 Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). metaphor
- (2). mixed metaphor
- (3). simile

5. Oral Work on Class

- (1). What according to the writer makes a good conversation? What spoil it?
- (2) What is the attitude of the writer towards "the King's English?

6. After Class Task

(1). Translate 9-11 paragraphs into Chinese

Unit Four: Inaugural Address

1. Background Information

- (1). John F Kennedy
- (2). His assassination
- (3).Inaugural address
- (4).Cold war period: socialist camp vs. capitalist camp

2. Introduction to the Passage

- 1. Type of literature: political speech
- 2. The object of a political speech is -to explain, to convince and to persuade.

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). We observe today not a victory ... as well as change.
- (2). If a free society ... who are rich.
- (3). We renew our pledge of support ... may run.
- (4).though embattled we are...and war itself
- (5).forge

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). In this speech Kennedy Employed suitable rhetorical devices and words to create the desired emotional impact
 - (2). He also used clear order and appropriate tone to the different groups he is addressing.
 - (3). Kennedy employed Biblical style deliberately in this article.
 - (4). metaphor
 - (5). antithesis
 - (6). parallelism
 - (7). repetition

5, Oral Work on Class

(1). Give examples to show that Kennedy is very particular and careful in his choice and use of words.

6. Translation Exercises after Class

(1). Translate paragraphs 23-26 into Chinese.

Unit Five: Love Is a Fallacy

1. Background Information

- (1). What is Logical fallacies?
- (2). What are they?
- -Dicto Simpliciter
- -Hasty Generalization
- -Poisoning the Well
- -Ad Misericordiam

2. Introduction to the Passage

This piece is a narrative writing, which has a very fast pace with a racy dialogue and is full of American colloquialism and slang.

3. Language Points and Difficult Sentences

- (1). We observe today not a victory ... as well as change.
- (2). If a free society ... who are rich.
- (3). We renew our pledge of support ... may run.
- (4).though embattled we are...and war itself
- (5).forge

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). metaphor
- (2). rhetorical questions
- (3). antithesis
- (4). transferred epithet
- (5). metonymy
- (6). litotes
- (7). ellipsis
- (8).synecdoche
- (9). inversion
- (10).simile
- (11).mixed metaphor
- (12).hyperbole

5. Oral Work on Class

(1). What, according to the writer, is the purpose of this essay? Do you agree?

6. Written Work after Class

(1). Some Successful Study Methods

Unit Six: Disappearing through the Skylight

1, Additional Background Information

- (1). Lysenko, Picasso, Dada, Leonardo
- (2). Ford Motor Company

2. Introduction to the Passage

- (1). Introduction about the author and the text
- 3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)
- (1). Extra
- (2). In the middle distance
- (3). Circuits
- (4). Silicon
- (5). Truss
- (6). Geodesic dome
- (7). Lunar Landers
- (8). Neoclassic
- (9). Terminal
- (10). As the corollary of science, technology also exhibits the universalizing tendency.
- (11). Children who grow up in this world therefore experience it as a sameness rather than a diversity, and because their identities are shaped by this sameness, their sense of differences among cultures and individuals diminishes.

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). The usage of metaphor
- (2). Analogies
- (3). rhetorical questions,
- (4). repetition
- (5). balanced structure

5, Oral Work on Class

- (1). Give examples to show the relationship between culture and technology
- 6. Work after Class
- (1). Review the text and finish the exercise

Unit Seven: The Libido for the Ugly

- 1. Background Information
- (1). Mencken
- (2). Encyclopedia of World Biography

2. Introduction to the Passage

(1). This text is a piece of subjective, impressionistic or emotional description. The writer describes what he sees, hears, smells, feels or tastes, and it often includes his emotional reactions to the physical sensations of the experience.

3. Language Points and Difficult Sentences

- (1). Libido
- (2). Express
- (3). Alley cat

- (4). Unbroken ugliness
- (5). Agonizing ugliness
- (6). Sheer revolting monstrousness
- (7). Dormer-window
- (8). Leprous
- (9). Mortal eye
- (10). What I allude to is the unbroken and agonizing ugliness, the sheer revolting monstrousness, of every house in sight.
 - (11). Grotesquerie
 - (12). Diabolical
 - (13). Insensate
 - (14). Border upon

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). Specific and concrete words that appeal to the reader's sense of sight, smell, sound, taste and touch
 - (2). The dominant impression, hyperboles, exaggeration.

5. Oral Work on Class

(1). Can you give some examples how the writer makes use of sarcasm, ridicule and irony to taunt and jeer?

6. Written Work after Class

(1). Complete the translation exercise after the text

Unit Eight: The Worker as Creator or Machine

1. Background Information

- (1). The writer Fromm and his masterpiece
- (2). Drucker, Publications, Taylor

2. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). Ulterior
- (2). Protestant countries
- (3). Inner-worldly ascetism
- (4). Put a premium on
- (5). Human problem of industry
- (6). Cold dollars and cents
- (7). One speaks...all spontaneity
- (8). It is hostility toward work which is much less conscious than our craving for laziness and inactivity.
 - (9). Gadget

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). rhetorical questions
- (2). mixed metaphor
- (3). elliptical sentences

5. Oral Work on Class

(1). How does the human alienation that accompanies technological development isolate the workman from the finished product?

6. After Class Task

(1). Writing a short composition describing the present relationship between the human beings and the modern technology

Unit Nine: The Ones Who Walk away from Omelas

1. Background Information

- (1). The writer Le Guin
- (2). Allegory

2. Introduction to the Passage

(1). Omelas is a fictional city of happiness envisaged by the writer. She describes emotionally and colorfully the city of Omelas and its citizens but it is a piece of allegorical description

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). Bright-towered by the sea
- (2). Rigging
- (3). Restive
- (4). Singularly
- (5). Puritanical
- (6). Arcane
- (7). Amiable and benign
- (8). This is the treason of the artist: a refusal to admit the banality of evil and the terrible boredom of pain
 - (9). Excrement
 - (10). Poignant
 - (11). Profundity

4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). transferred epithet
- (2). elliptical and short, simple sentences to achieve certain effect
- (3). Simile

5. After Class Task

(1). Translate Paragraph 8 into Chinese discriminate the synonyms in the text

Unit Ten: The Sad Young Men

1, Additional Background Information

(1). About Horton, Stearns, Stein, and Hemingway

2. Introduction to the Passage

(1). This is a piece of expository writing by two American writers explaining a certain period in American literary and social history.

(2). "Sad Young Men" has the same meaning with "The Lost Generation", because they were critical and rebellious. However, they were never lost because they were also creative and productive.

3. Detailed Study of the Text(difficult sentences and language points)

- (1). Nostalgic
- (2). Deliciously illicit thrill
- (3). Speakeasy
- (4). Puritan morality
- (5). Fashionable experimentations in amour
- (6). Sheik
- (7). Flapper
- (8). See in perspective
- (9). Gentility
- (10). Impersonality
- (11). By the middle of the decade, the "wild party" had become as commonplace a factor in American life as the flapper, the Model T, or the Dutch Colonial home in Floral Heights
 - (12). Orgy
 - (13). Faddishness
- (14). In no sense a movement in itself, the "lost generation" attitude nevertheless acted as a common denominator of the writing of the times.

. 4. Effective Writing Skills and Rhetorical Devices

- (1). rhetorical questions
- (2). parallelism
- (3). metaphor
- (4). antithesis
- (5). elliptical sentences

5, Oral Work on Class

(1). Why were the younger generation of the 1920s thought to be wild? And what is the truth?

6. Translation Exercises after Class

(1). Translate paragraph 6 into Chinese

《日语(一)(二)》教学大纲

崔延花 编写

目 录

前	吉	2
	一、教材	2
	二、课程教学目的和基本要求	2
	三、课程主要内容及学时分配	2
	四、相关教学环节	2
第二	二外語(日本語)一部分	
	第一回 五十音图	
	第二回 长音、拗音、拗长音、拗拨音、拗 促音 以及	
	第一课 李さんは中国人です。	
	第二课 これは本です。	
	第三课 ここはデパートです。	
	第四课 部屋に机といすがあります。	
	第五课 森さんは7時に起きます。	
	第六课 吉田さんは来月中国へ行きます。	
	第七课 李さんは毎日コーヒーを飲みます。	
	第八课 李さんは日本語で手紙を書きます。	
	第九课 四川料理は辛いです。	
	第十课 京都の紅葉は有名です。	
	第十一课 小野さんは歌が好きです。	
	第十二课 李さんは森さんより若いです。	
	第十三课 机の上に本が3冊あります。	
	第十四课 昨日デパートへ行って、買い物しました。	
	第十五课 小野さんは今新聞を読んでいます。	
	第十六课 ホテルの部屋は広くて明るいです。	
第一	二外語(日本語)二部分	
> 3 —	第十七课 私は新しい洋服が欲しいです。	
	第十八课 携帯電話はとても小さくなりました。	
	第十九课 部屋のかぎを忘れないでください。	
	第二十课 スミスさんはピアノを弾くことができます。	
	第二十一课 わたしはすき焼きを食べたことがあります。	
	第二十二课 森さんは毎晩テレビを見る。	
	第二十三课 休みの日、散歩したり買い物に行ったりします。	
	第二十四课 李さんはもうすぐ来ると思います。	
	第二十五課 これは明日会議で使う資料です。	
	第二十六課 自転車に二人で乗るのは危ないです。	
	第二十七課 子供の時、大きな地震がありました。	
	第二十八課 馬さんはわたしに地図をくれました。	
	第二十九課 電気を消せ	
	第三十課 もう 11 時だから寝よう	
	第三十一課 このボタンを押すと、電源が入ります	
	第三十二課 今度の日曜日に遊園地へ行くつもりです。	
	第三十三課 電車が急に止まりました	
	第三十四課 壁にカレンダーが掛けてあります	
		,

前言

在国际经济全球化的趋势下,各国之间的交流不断深化。尤其是我国与近邻的日本在经济、科技、文化等方面的交流与合作发展迅速,规模不断扩大,形成了中日友好关系的有力基础。

中日两国在各方面的广泛交流与日本在华企业的良好发展促使日语人才需求持续增长,也给懂 日语的学生提供了良好的就业环境。本课程以不具备任何日语基础的英语专业学生为对象,为在已 掌握一门外国语的语言的基础上,作为第二外语学习日语,提供学习机会与环境。

一、教材

新版标准日本语初级上、下册(部分)(人民教育出版社)

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程的学习主要分为两个阶段。

第一阶段为语音阶段, 注重发音准确, 文字书写正确。

第二阶段为句型练习结合会话练习,在牢固掌握句型的同时,设定日常生活中所遇到的各种各样的场面进行会话练习。并结合听力练习掌握正确的发音和音调。通过上述两阶段的学习,最终达到能够初步掌握日语的基本句型,形成自学中级日语的能力,为进一步学习日语打下良好的基础。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

学习语音阶段:配合大量的典型单词与句子进行发音练习,并对日语单词、句子与外来语的发音规律作简单总结。(第一周---第二周)

学习语法与句型阶段:结合教材教授基本的、使用频率高的日语句型、词汇、表现形式。(第 三周---第十八周)

在教学中注重设定使用日语的场面和情形,培养学生从初级阶段开始用日语进行简单交流的意识与能力,提高学生的学习热情和增强学生的自信心。在会话的练习过程中,注意会话表现的简洁,使用性高和日语表达自然等方面,提高会话的实际运用能力。

重视日语学习初级阶段的听力培养,课堂上多使用日语,并结合课本进行听力练习。本课程教授时间为18周,每周4节课。教学进度为每周1课。

四、相关教学环节

语音、语法知识的教授采用教师主讲的教学方式。在单词、句型、表现形式的教授上采取师生互动式教学方式,设计生活场面、游戏等让学生尽可能使用日语。例如,初次见面时的 会话、商场购物、问路、指路等等。通过让学生观看介绍日本风光、风俗、日常生活的 VCD,学唱日语歌曲,提高学生的学习兴趣,使学生不仅在语言学习上获得收益,而且又可以多方面地了解日本,感受日本。

初級上冊

第二外語(日本語)一部分

日语的发音

第一回 五十音图

- 1. 清音的发音及书写(平假名与片假名)
- 2. 浊音、半浊音的发音及书写
- 3. 拨音、促音

第二回 长音、拗音、拗长音、拗拨音、拗促音以及

日语口语中的语音变化及外来语的发音

- 1. 拗长音、拗拨音、拗促音
- 2. 元音无声化
- 3. 外来语

参考書籍:《掌握日语发音》赵秀娟编著 世界图书出版公司 2006年1月版

进入单词、句型学习

第一课 李さんは中国人です。

- 1. 私は王です。
 - 名は名です。
 - *助詞 ~は
 - *助詞 ~です
 - *助詞 名+の+名
- 2. 森さんは学生ではありません。
 - 名 は 名 ではありません。
 - *助詞 ではありません
 - *~さん 王さん・田中さん
- 3. あなたは小野さんですか。
 - 名は名ですか。

*助詞 ~ですか

* はい、~

いいえ、~

4. 李さんは JC 企画の社員です。

名の名

第二课 これは本です。

1. これは本です。

「これ、それ、あれ」の使い分け

- 誰ですか/何ですか それは何ですか。
 あの人は誰ですか。
- 3. 私の鍵

田中さんの車

名の名

4. この本はわたしのです。

「この、その、あの」と「これ、それ、あれ」の使い分け

- 5. どれ・どの
- 6. 100 以下の数字

第三课 ここはデパートです。

1. ここはデパートです。

(ここ・そこ・あそこ) は 名 です

- *ここ、そこ、あそこ
- *どこ
- *こちら、そちら、あちら
- *どちら
- 2. 食堂はデパートの七階です。

|名| は |名(場所)|です。

- 3. トイレはどこですか。
 - 名 は どこですか。
 - 会社はどちらですか。
 - *どこ、どちら
- 4. ここは JC 企画のビルです。

あそこも JC 企画のビルです。

名も 名です

- 5. かばん売り場は1階ですか、二階ですか。
 - 名 は 名 ですか、名 ですか。
- 6. 名 はいくらですか。
- 7. 100 以上の数字

第四课 部屋に机といすがあります。

- 1. 部屋に机といすがあります。
- 2. 机の上に猫がいます。

|名(場所)|に||名(物/人)|があります/います。

3. 売店は駅の外にあります。

吉田さんは庭にいます。

名 (物/人) は名 (場所) にあります/います。

4. 時計と眼鏡

名 と 名

- 5. 上/下/前/後ろ/隣/中/外
- 6. ね(確認)
- 7. 教室に誰もいません。

疑問詞 も 動(否定)

第五课 森さんは7時に起きます。

- 1. 今 4時です。
 - 今 ~時~分です。

時刻・曜日・その他の時間の表し方を導入

- 2. 森さんは7時に起きます
- 3. 森さんは先週休みました。
- 4. わたしは昨日働きませんでした。

動 ます・ません・ました・ませんでした

- 5. 名(時間) に 動
- 6. 名 (時間) から名 (時間) まで 動
- 7. いつ 動 ますか。
- 小野さんは今日は休みますか。
 は(対比)

第六课 吉田さんは来月中国へ行きます。

1. 吉田さんは来月中国へ行きます。

名(場所)へ動

2. 李さんは先月北京から来ました。

名(場所)から 動

3. 小野さんは友達と帰りました。

名(人)と動

4. 森さんは東京から広島まで新幹線で行きます。

名(交通機関)で動

名(場所)から 名(場所)まで 動

5、わたしの部屋には電話がありません。

(に・で・へ・から・まで・と) +は

6. 暦

第七课 李さんは毎日コーヒーを飲みます。

1. 李さんは毎日コーヒーを飲みます。

名 を 動

2. 李さんは図書館で勉強します。

名(場所)で動

3. わたしは毎朝パンかお粥を食べます。

名か名

4. コーラとケーキをください。

名 をください

第八课 李さんは日本語で手紙を書きます。

1. 李さんは日本語で手紙を書きます。

名(工具)で動

2. わたしは小野さんにお土産をあげます。

名1(人) は 名2(人) に 名3(物)を あげます

3. わたしは小野さんに辞書をもらいました。

名1(人) は <u>名2(人)</u> に 名3(物) を もらいます

4. 李さんは明日長島さんに会います。

名(人)に会います

5. よ (注意)

すみません、李さんはいますか。 ——もう帰りましたよ。

6. もう①

昼ごはんを食べましたか。 ——ええ、もう食べました。

第九课 四川料理は辛いです。

1. 四川料理は辛いです。

名 は 一類形 です

- 2. このスープはあまり熱くないです。
 - 一類形の述語に当たる場合の否定形
- 3. 旅行はとても楽しかったです。
 - 一類形の述語に当たる場合の過去形
- 4. 中国は広い国です。

一類形+名

5. を→は

この本は李さんにもらいました。

6. このスープはあまり熱くないです。試験はあまり難しくありませんでした。あまり[一類形・動(否定)]

7. 程度を表す副詞

第十课 京都の紅葉は有名です。

1. 京都の紅葉は有名です。

名 は 二類形です・でした

- 2. この通りはにぎやかではありません。
 - 名 は 二類形 ではありません・ではありませんでした
- 3. 奈良は静かな町です。

名 は 二類形な 名です。

4. 昨日は日曜日でした。

名 でした

5. 横浜はどんな町ですか。

どんな 名

- 6. **どうですか**
- 7. でも・そして

第十一课 小野さんは歌が好きです。

1. 小野さんは歌が好きです。

名1 は 名2 が 形 です

2. スミスさんは韓国語が分かります。

名1 は 名2 が 分かります/できます

3. 吉田さんは時々中国や韓国へ行きます。

名や名

4. 森さんはお酒が好きですから、毎日飲みます。

(原因、理由)

~から

だから

- 5. 頻度を表す副詞
- 6. どうしてですか

第十二课 李さんは森さんより若いです。

1. 李さんは森さんより若いです。

名1 は 名2 より 形 です

2. 日本より中国のほうが広いです。

名1 より 名2 のほうが 形 です

3. 神戸は大阪ほどにぎやかではありません。

名1 は 名2 ほど <u></u>一類形 くないです

二類形 ではありません

4. スポーツの中でサッカーがいちばん面白いです。

|名1||の中で||名2||が||一番||形||です

5. 日本語と英語とどちらが難しいですか。

|名1| と |名2| とどちらが |形| ですか。

6. この中でどの料理がいちばんおいしいですか。

どの 名 /いつ/どれ/だれ/何が一番 服 ですか。

第十三课 机の上に本が3冊あります。

1. 机の上に本が3冊あります。

名(数量) + 動

2. 李さんは毎日7時間働きます。

名(時間) + 動

3. 李さんは1週間に2回プールへ行きます。

名(時間) に 名(回数) + 動

- 4. 動詞のます形
- 5. 午後郵便局へ荷物を出しに行きます。

名(場所) へ 動 に 行きます/来ます

6. このケーキは3個で500円です。

名(数量) + で

第十四课 昨日デパートへ行って、買い物しました。

1. 昨日デパートへ行って、買い物しました。

動詞のて形

動 て 動 (相次いで発生①)

2. 李さんは毎晩ラジオを聞いてから寝ます。

動 てから 動 (相次いで発生②)

3. ここに住所と名前を書いてください。

動 て ください

4. 李さんは毎朝7時に家を出ます。

名(場所) を 動 (経過)(離れる)

第十五课 小野さんは今新聞を読んでいます。

1. 小野さんは今新聞を読んでいます。

動 て います ① (動作中)

2. ここで写真を撮ってもいいですか。

動 ても いいです

3. 飛行機の中でタバコを吸ってはいけません。

動 ては いけません

4. 日曜日、小野さんは公園でボートに乗りました。

名(附着点)に動

5. 李さんは病院に行きます。

名(目的地) に動

第十六课 ホテルの部屋は広くて明るいです。

1. ホテルの部屋は広くて明るいです。

|一類形 て |一類形 (並列①)

2. このコンピュータの操作は簡単で便利です。

二類形 で 二類形 (並列②)

3. スミスさんは旅行会社の社員で、営業部の部長です。

名1 で 名2 (並列3)

4. 森さんは車を持っています。

動 て います(結果状態)

5.3ヶ月パソコンを練習しましたが、まだ、あまりできません。

文 が 文 (逆接)

6. まだ+ 動(否定)

第二外語(日本語)二部分

第十七课 私は新しい洋服が欲しいです。

- 1. わたしは新しい洋服が欲しいです。
 - 名 が 欲しいです
- 2. わたしは映画が見たいです。
 - 名 を 動 たいです
- 3. いっしょにお茶を飲みませんか。
 - 動 ませんか
- 4. ちょっと休みましょう。
 - 動 ましょう
- 5. 何でもいいです。
 - 疑問詞 + でも
- 6. ね (話を和らげる) まず恋人が欲しいですね。

第十八课 携帯電話はとても小さくなりました。

- 1. 携帯電話はとても小さくなりました。
 - 一類形 なります
- 2. テレビの音を大きくします。
 - 一類形 します
- 3. 息子は医者になりました。
 - |二類形/名 になります
- 4. 部屋をきれいにしてください。
 - 二類形/名 にします
- 5. 部屋は広いほうがいいです。
 - 一類形/二類形 ほうがいいです。
- 6. 自動詞と他動詞

第十九课 部屋のかぎを忘れないでください。

1. 部屋のかぎを忘れないでください。

動詞の ない形

動ないでください。

- 2. 李さんは今日早く帰らなければなりません。
 - 動 なければなりません
- 3. 明日は残業しなくてもいいですよ。
 - 動 なくてもいいです
- 4. あの人が吉田課長ですよ。

名1 が 名2 です

第二十课 スミスさんはピアノを弾くことができます。

1. スミスさんはピアノを弾くことができます。

動詞の基本形

名(人) は 動(基本形) ことができます

- 2. わたしの趣味は切手を集めることです。
 - 名 は 動(基本形) ことです
- 3. こちらへ来る前に、電話をかけてください。

動(基本形) 前に、~

4. 冬休み、どこかへ行きたいです。

疑問詞 + か

5. ~よね

手作りの餃子の皮はおいしいですよね。

第二十一课 わたしはすき焼きを食べたことがあります。

1. わたしはすき焼きを食べたことがあります。

動詞のた形

動(た形) ことがあります

2. 李さんは会社が終わった後で、飲みに行きます。

動(た形) 後で、~

3. もっと野菜を食べたほうがいいですよ。

動(た形) ほうがいいです

4. 窓を閉めましょうか。

動ましょうか(提案)

第二十二课 森さんは毎晩テレビを見る。

- 1. 森さんは毎晩テレビを見る。
 - 敬体•簡体

動詞の簡体

- 2. 昨日はとても忙しかった。
 - 一類形容詞の述語形式における簡体
- 3. コンピュータは簡単ではない。
 - 二類形容詞の述語形式における簡体
- 4. 今日は曇りだ。

名詞の述語形式における簡体

5. 昨日の試験、どうだった?

——ちょっと難しかったけど、まあまあできたよ。

来週送別会をするけど、都合はどうかな?

文 けど、文 (逆接・下地)

第二十三课 休みの日、散歩したり買い物に行ったりします。

1. 小野さんは休みの日、散歩したり買い物に行ったりします。

動 たり 動 たり します

2. 日本語の先生は中国人だったり日本人だったりです。

一類形 かったり 一類形 かったりです

3. わたしは今年の夏、北京へ行くかどうか分かりません。

文 +か

文 +かどうか

4. かぎがどこにあるか教えてください。

疑問文 +か

第二十四课 李さんはもうすぐ来ると思います。

1. 李さんはもうすぐ来ると思います。

文(簡体) と思います

2. 陳さんはパーティーに行くと言いました。

名(人) は 文(簡体) と言いました。

3. すみません、頭が痛いんです。

~のです/んです どうして ~のですか/んですか

4. 東京タワーへ行きたいんですが、どうやって行きますか。

文 が、文 (下地)

(初級下冊)

第二十五課 これは明日会議で使う資料です。

1. これは明日会議で使う資料です。

動(簡体) + 名

文(動詞簡体) + 名

2. わたしが明日乗る飛行機は中国航空です。

文(動詞簡体) + 名 は 名/形 です

3. 中国で買った CD を友達に貸しました。

文(動詞簡体) + 名 を/に/から 動 ます

4. 操作が簡単なパソコンが欲しいです。

文(一類形/二類形/名) + 名

第二十六課 自転車に二人で乗るのは危ないです。

1. 自転車に2人で乗るのは危ないです。

文(動詞簡体) +の+は 形 です

2. 手紙を出すのを忘れました。

文(動詞簡体) +の+を 動

3. 明日の朝は大雨になるでしょう。

文(簡体)でしょう(推測)

4. 森さんは今日会社を休むかもしれません。

文(簡体) かもしれません

第二十七課 子供の時、大きな地震がありました。

- 1. 子供の時、大きな地震がありました。
- 2. 映画を見る時、いつも一番後ろの席に座ります。

文(簡体) + 時

3. 李さんはテレビを見ながら食事をしています。

動 ながら

4. 李さん、明日パーティーに行くでしょう?

文(簡体) でしょう?(確認)

5. 洋子さんはアルバイトをしながら学校に通っています。

動 ています

6. 仕事で、楊さんと会っていたんですよ。

名で

名 と会います

第二十八課 馬さんはわたしに地図をくれました。

1. 馬さんはわたしに地図をくれました。

名1(人) は 名2(人) に 名3(物) をくれます

2. 森さんはお年寄りの荷物を持ってあげました。

動 てあげます

3. 森さんは李さんに北京を案内してもらいました。

動 てもらいます

4. 女の人が私の財布を拾ってくれました。

動 てくれます

第二十九課 電気を消せ

1. 電気を消せ。

動詞の命令形

2. 次の文章を読んで、質問に答えなさい。

動 なさい

3. ここに車を止めるな。

動(基本形) な(禁止)

4. このマークは「タバコを吸うな」という意味です。

|名1|| は |名/文 + という + |名2|| です

5. もうちょっと急いで

動 て/ 動 ないで

6. それはフジという花です。

|名1| + という + |名2|

第三十課 もう 11 時だから寝よう

- もう11時だから寝よう。 動詞の意志形
- 2. 今日、会社を休もうと思います。

動(意志形) と思います

3. 明日、病院へ行こうと思っています。

動(意志形) と思っています

4. 荷物が重いので、宅配便で送ります。

文1 ので 文2

第三十一課 このボタンを押すと、電源が入ります

1. このボタンを押すと、電源が入ります。

文1(動詞基本形/ない形) と 文2

2. そのパソコンは、たまにフリーズすることがあります。

動(基本形/ない形)ことがあります

3. 馬さんはとても上手にレポートをまとめました。

形容詞の副詞的使い方

4. 李さんは来るでしょうか。

文(簡体) でしょうか

第三十二課 今度の日曜日に遊園地へ行くつもりです。

1. 今度の日曜日に遊園地へ行くつもりです。

動(基本形ない形)) つもりです

2. 明日、友達と映画を見に行くことにしました。

動(基本形ない形)) ことにします(しました)

3. 来月から給料が上がることになりました。

動(基本形ない形)) ことになりました

4. 馬さんの息子さんは今年小学校に入学するそうです。

文(簡体) そうです

第三十三課 電車が急に止まりました

1. 電車が急に止まりました。

自動詞と他動詞②

2. 部屋の電気が消えています。

自動 ています

3. 森さんはボーナスを全部使ってしまいました。

動 てしまいます

4. このケーキはとてもおいしそうです。

動 / 形 そうです

第三十四課 壁にカレンダーが掛けてあります

1. 壁にカレンダーが掛けてあります。

他動 てあります

2. お客さんが来る前に、部屋を掃除しておきます。

動 ておきます

3. 太田さんは中国語で手紙を書いてみました。

動 てみます

4. 日本へ留学するために、お金をためています。

文1 (基本形) ために 文2 ① 目的

名 +の+ために、文

① 目的

《日语(三)(四)》教学大纲

崔延花 编写

目 录

前	늘 티	2
	一、教材	2
	二、课程教学目的和基本要求	2
	三、课程主要内容及学时分配	2
	四、相关教学环节	2
第二	二外語(日本語)三部分	3
	第三十五課 明日雨が降ったら、マラソン大会は中止です	3
	第三十六課 遅くなって、すみません	3
	第三十七課 優勝すれば、オリンピックに出場することができます	3
	第三十八課 戴さんは英語が話せます	4
	第三十九課 眼鏡をかけて本を読みます	4
	第四十課 これから友達と食事に行くところです	4
	第四十一課 李さんは部長にほめられました	5
	第四十二課 テレビをつけたまま、出かけてしまいました	5
	第四十三課 陳さんは、息子をアメリカに留学させます	6
	第四十四課 玄関のところにだれかいるようです	6
	第四十五課 少子化が進んで、日本の人口はだんだん減っていくでしょう	6
	第四十六課 これは柔らかくて、まるで本物の毛皮のようです	7
	第四十七課 周先生は明日日本へ行かれます	
	第四十八課 お荷物は私がお持ちします	8
第_	二外語(日本語)四部分	9
	第一課	
	第二課	9
	第三課	
	第四課	
	第五課	
	第六課	
	第七課	
	第八課	
	第九課	
	第十課	
	第十一課	
	第十二課	
	第十三課	
	第十四課	
	第十五課	
	第十六課	
	第十七課	
	第十八課	
	第十九課	
	第二十課	
	第二十一課	
	第二十二課	11

前言

在国际经济全球化的趋势下,各国之间的交流不断深化。尤其是我国与近邻的日本在经济、科技、文化等方面的交流与合作发展迅速,规模不断扩大,形成了中日友好关系的有力基础。

中日两国在各方面的广泛交流与日本在华企业的良好发展促使日语人才需求持续增长,也给懂日语的学生提供了良好的就业环境。本课程是以学完第二外语(日语)一、二的英语专业学生为对象设置的选修课,目的在于使学生进一步巩固所学知识,顺利完成初级到中级的过渡。

一、教材

新版标准日本语初级下册(部分)、中级上册、中级下册(部分)(人民教育出版社)

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程的教学目的主要在于提高学生的会话能力和阅读能力。

学生通过实用性强、有故事情节和场景的会话,学习典型的表达方式和会话流程,提高交际能力。通过叙述性短文巩固句型语法讲解中所学的知识点,提高阅读能力,了解日本的生活文化。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

学习语言打好基础至关重要。本课程第一阶段首先要学习初级下册的剩余内容,为顺利进入中级日语的学习打下良好的基础。该阶段的内容以句型语法讲解为主。第二阶段的内容是中级上册和下册的部分内容。该阶段通过"会话"和"课文"学习典型的表达方式和会话流程,提高阅读能力。在句型和语法部分重视与汉语相近似形式的使用区别,对应新日本语能力测试2级的语法点进行讲解。

本课程教授时间为18周,每周4节课。教学进度为每周1课。

四、相关教学环节

语法知识的教授采用教师主讲的教学方式。在单词、句型、表现形式的教授上采取师生互动式教学方式,设计生活场面、游戏等让学生尽可能使用日语。通过让学生观看介绍日本风光、风俗、日常生活的 VCD,学唱日语歌曲,提高学生的学习兴趣,使学生不仅在语言学习上获得收益,而且又可以多方面地了解日本,感受日本。

第二外語(日本語)三部分

初級下冊

第三十五課 明日雨が降ったら、マラソン大会は中止です

1. 明日雨が降ったら、マラソン大会は中止です。

文1 たら、文2

2. 日本へ帰っても、中国語の勉強を続けてください。

文1 ても、 文2

3. 今年の夏休みは3日だけです。

名 だけ

4. 会議室には李さんしかいません。

名 しか +否定形式

5. その計算は子供でもできます。

名 でも (極端的な例を示す)

第三十六課 遅くなって、すみません

1. 遅くなって、すみません。

文1 て、 文2 (原因、理由)

文1 で、 文2 (原因・理由)

2. この写真はパスポートの申請に使います。

名に(用途・基準)

動(基本形) のに (用途・基準)

3. 張さんは毎日お酒を飲んでばかりいます。

名 ばかり 動

動(て形) ばかりいます

4. 空港の入り口に警官が立っているのが見えます。

文(動詞簡体) のが +見えます/聞こえます

第三十七課 優勝すれば、オリンピックに出場することができます

1. 優勝すれば、オリンピックに出場することができます。

ば形

文1 ば、 文2

2. 天安門へ行くなら、地下鉄が便利ですよ。

文1(簡体) なら、文2

3. 映画でも見に行きませんか。

名 でも (例を示す)

4. パーティーで、戴さんとか楊さんとか、いろいろな人に会いました。

名1 とか 名2 とか

文1 とか 文2 とか

第三十八課 戴さんは英語が話せます

1. 戴さんは英語が話せます。

可能形

2. よく見えるように、大きく書きました。

文(基本形/ない形) ように、文

3. けがが治って、歩けるようになりました。

文(基本形/ない形) ようになります

4. 陳さんは毎日、英字新聞を読むようにしています。

文(基本形/ない形) ようにします

第三十九課 眼鏡をかけて本を読みます

1. 眼鏡をかけて本を読みます。

文1 て + 文2

文1 ないで + 文2

2. 道路工事のために、道が込んでいます。

文 1 (簡体) ために、文 2 ② (原因・理由)

名 +の+ために、 文 ② (原因・理由)

- 3. 李さんは急いで帰っていきました。
- 4. 去年、日本で歌舞伎を見てきました。

動 ていきます/きます

第四十課 これから友達と食事に行くところです

1. これから友達と食事に行くところです。

動(基本形) ところです

- 2. 森さんは会議の資料をそろえているところです。
 - 動 ているところです
- 3. 馬さんは、今、空港に着いたところです。
 - 動 たところです
- 4. このモノレールは去年開通したばかりです。
 - 動 たばかりです
- 5. この本は、昨日読み始めたばかりです。
 - 動 始めます/出します
- 6. 古い建物を修理しながら使い続けていました。
 - 動続けます
- 7. その本はもう読み終わりました。
 - 動 終わります

第四十一課 李さんは部長にほめられました

1. 李さんは部長にほめられました。

受身

名 は(名に) 動 (ら)れます

- 2. 馬さんは森さんにカメラを壊されました。
 - 名 は 名 に 名 を 動 (ら)れます
- 3. 陳さんは飼っていた小鳥に逃げられました。
 - |名| は |名| に |動| (ら) れます
- 4. 2010 年に上海で万博が開かれます。
 - 名 が/は 動 (ら)れます
- 5. この車は日本の有名なデザイナーによって設計されました。
 - 名 は 名 によって 動 (ら)れます

第四十二課 テレビをつけたまま、出かけてしまいました

1. テレビをつけたまま、出かけてしまいました。

 文 1 (動た形/ない形)
 まま、文 2

 名
 +の+まま、文

- 2. 目覚ましをかけておいたのに、今朝は起きられませんでした。
 - 文1(簡体) のに、 文2
- 3. 会議は5時ままでですから、もうすぐ終わるはずです。

文(簡体) はずです

4. 張さんは入院中ですから、旅行に行くはずがありません。

文(簡体) はずがありません

第四十三課 陳さんは、息子をアメリカに留学させます

1. 陳さんは、息子をアメリカに留学させます。

使役

名 は 名 を 自動 (さ)せます

2. 部長は太田さんにレポートを書かせました。

名 は 名 に 名 を 他動 (さ)せます

3. 疲れました。少し休ませてください。

動 (さ) せてください

4. このボールペンはとても書きやすいです。

動 やすいです/にくいです

第四十四課 玄関のところにだれかいるようです

1. 玄関のところにだれかいるようです。

文(簡体) ようです ① 推測

|名| +の+ようです ① 推測

2. 小野さんは森さんが好きみたいです。

文(簡体) みたいです ① 推測

3. 今度の社員旅行は韓国へ行くらしいです。

文(簡体) らしいです (推測)(伝聞)

4. 昼ごはんを食べ過ぎました。

動詞/一類形/二類形 過ぎます

5. この暑さはいつまで続くんでしょう。

一類形 +さ

第四十五課 少子化が進んで、日本の人口はだんだん減っていくで しょう

- 1. 少子化が進んで、日本の人口はだんだん減っていくでしょう。
 - 動 ていきます/きました(持続)(変化)
- 2. ずっと本を読んでいたので、目が疲れてきました。

動 てきました (現れる)

3. おいしいし、手軽だし、わたしは冷凍食品をよく食べます。

文1 し、文2 し、文3

4. この本は読めば読むほどおもしろいです。

動/一類形 ば 動/一類形 ほど 文

5. 空港から市内までのアクセスがよくなりました。

(で/ヘ/から/まで/と) +の

第四十六課 これは柔らかくて、まるで本物の毛皮のようです

1. これは柔らかくて、まるで本物の毛皮のようです。

名+の / 動(簡体) ようです ② 比喩

名 / 動(簡体) みたいです ② 比喩

2. この着物はいかにも日本らしい柄ですね。

名1 + らしい + 名2 (典型的)

3. 明日の9時までにこの書類を完成させなければなりません。

名(時間) までに

4. わたしが留学している間に、家の周りもずいぶん変わりました。

名+の / 動(簡体) +間/間に

5. この牛乳、変な味がするけど、いつ買ったの?

名 のような味/においがします

第四十七課 周先生は明日日本へ行かれます

1. 周先生は明日日本へ行かれます。

敬語

尊敬語

動(ら)れます

2. お客様はもうお帰りになりました。

お+一類動/二類動 になります

3. どうぞお座りください。

お+一類動/二類動 ください

ご+ 三類動詞の漢字の部分 ください

4. 先生、何を召し上がりますか。

尊敬語の特殊形式

第四十八課 お荷物は私がお持ちします

1. お荷物は私がお持ちします。

謙遜語

お+一類動/二類動しますご+三類動詞の漢字の部分します

- 2. 明日、私がそちらへ伺います。
- 3. コピーは私がいたします。
- 4. 黄教授に論文を見ていただきました。

謙遜語の特殊形式

- 5. この服、ちょっと小さいので、取り替えていただけますか。
 - 動ていただけますか。(お願い ③)
- 6. 早速、資料を届けさせていただきます。
 - 動 (さ)せていただきます
- 7. すみません、この近くにコンビニがありますか。

―――はい、ございます。

ございます/ 名 でございます

第二外語(日本語)四部分

中級上冊

第一課

会話 出会い ●搭话・打招呼

テキスト 日本の鉄道

第二課

会話 あいさつ●开始交谈・结束交谈

テキスト あいさつの時の礼儀

第三課

会話 顔合わせ●自我介绍

テキスト 名字

第四課

会話 東京本社 ●转述信息

テキスト 近年サラリーマン事情

第五課

会話 商品紹介●转换话题

テキスト 日本語の語彙

第六課

会話 先輩●传递信息

テキスト 「はしの文化」さまざま

第七課

会話 打ち合わせ●确认、反问疑问句

テキスト 電子メールの作法

第八課

第九課

会話 トラブル●抗议 テキスト イタリア旅行

第十課

会話 スケジュール● 预定旅店テキスト 温泉大国、日本

第十一課

会話 若者の意識●判断的表达方式 テキスト 漫画とアニメ

第十二課

会話 最終日●邀请─接受 邀请─拒绝 テキスト 方言と共通語

第十三課

会話 スピーチの依頼●请求 テキスト 日本の人口が減っている――少子化

第十四課

会話 恩師●拜访人家 テキスト 日本の就職活動

第十五課

会話 同級生●餐馆用语 テキスト 日本レストラン事情

第十六課

会話 結婚披露宴●祝福、致辞

テキスト 変わる結婚式

第十七課

会話 日本取材の成果●称赞・谦虚

テキスト 北京の顔

第十八課

会話 売り込み●协调意见分歧

テキスト 手紙

第十九課

会話 クレーム●道歉

テキスト 「水道水」の話

第二十課

会話 希望の灯●鼓励

テキスト 太極拳で広がる交流

第二十一課

会話 広州で●商店用语

テキスト 中国茶の歴史

第二十二課

電話●打电话•转达口信

テキスト デジタルカメラ新製品紹介

《口译》教学大纲

王增森 编写

目 录

前 言			477
	—,	概述	477
	Ξ,	课程教学目的和基本要求	477
	三、	课程主要内容及学时分配	478
	四、	相关教学环节	478
Chapte	Chapter One General Introduction		
Chapter T	Chapter Two Note-taking		
Chapter Three Dissolution and Reorganization of Sentence Structures			
Chapter Four			487

前言

一、概述

口译是通选课,主要选修学生为外国语学院英语专业大三学生。

由于口译课是一门实践性很强而理论性相对不强的课程,是学生在老师指导下,在具有一定翻译技巧的基础上进行翻译活动,对学生的反应速度、知识结构、语言表达、发声、笔记速度和技巧等方面都有极高的要求。它本身的特点表明它不可能囿于单纯的理论解释,而需要更多地将时间花在学生具体的操练和教师实际的纠正上。

由于该课程的特点,要求学生在具有一定的翻译理论与实践(笔译)的基础,所以该课程授课过程中将不再简单重复翻译理论和一般笔译技巧,而是侧重于口译技能的培训。

前期授课内容将分为三大块:记忆强化、笔记技巧、句子结构处理,后期授课将在完成上述技巧训练后,将进入分专题的训练课。选材内容,除了强调政法大学的法律背景,还要考虑到学生毕业后的实际需求,对各领域的内容有所取舍,经贸类内容应是重点。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

口译课的教学目包括:

使学生了解口译活动的基本过程、口译过程中大脑的反应(包括抗疲劳训练)、对笔记的要求、 各类句式的处理、各类意外情况的处置、以及基本的社交礼仪(着装、提前到场、文具准备)等。

口译课的基本要求:

- 1. 讲清楚会议现场对口译人员业务素质和心理素质的要求,使学生具备相应的工作能力,同时使学生具备灵活处置自身身体状况及工作环境引起的各类意外的能力;
 - 2. 讲解具备超强记忆的必要性、训练学生强化记忆:
 - 3. 讲解笔记的基本技巧、笔记的作用、笔记与强化记忆之间的关系:
 - 4. 讲解并训练各类句式的处理:顺译、倒译、存储、概括、省略、补充、猜测等
- 5. 讲解各领域语言的特点(特别是法律语言与一般语言在行文上的区别,措辞上的严苛性与特殊性、句式上的特殊性)
- 6. 向学生说明,不是每个人都适合做口译,但是每个人都可以学习口译。增强个人信心、强 化抗挫折能力是学习口译的必须过程。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

涉及英译汉和汉译英两大部分,可以分开,也可放在一起讲。但由于时间限制,本科阶段的口译课只有一个学期,无法对学生进行系统、专业化的训练,所以只能在课上有选择地讲解和训练,然后给学生布置作业,课下练习。须保证学生课下所用时间为课上时间的三倍,以便巩固课上内容。主要涉及两大层次和几种具体译法:

第一层 词层:英汉词义差异与英词汉译的基本手法和注意事项

词的翻译应该在笔译课程上学习过。口译中,对词的翻译没有特殊要求。

第二层 句层:从英汉造句手法的对比看英语长句、难句的汉译处理技法,以及汉语句子在汉译英中的处理。涉及各类句式的处理技巧:顺译、倒译、存储、概括、省略、补充、猜测等

本课程总课时为 36 课时,词层分配 4 个学时,句子练习分配 8 学时,笔记技巧分配 8 学时,综合分题材练习 16 课时。

四、相关教学环节

口译技能的掌握不是一朝一夕的事情,需要长时间的强化训练。建议学生课下一定要结成学习 小组,互相帮助,轮流充当讲话人和译员角色,在批评中相互提高。

学生要有实践机会、要多做观摩。

另外,只有做到某个领域的"专家",才会真正做到自如应付。"万金油"式的翻译是没有出 路的。

SYLLABUS

The Course of Interpretation

Chapter One General Introduction

Introduction of the course

Circumstances where interpretation is needed and the interpreter's duties

Psychical preparation for learning interpretation

Strong memory

Note-taking symbols and skills

Etiquette and preparatory work

Time:Two hours

Many universities have opened the course of interpretation to meet the rising demand for interpretation service in the market. In the past, only on formal political occasions was interpretation needed, but China's reform and opening-up has diversified the market demand. Relatively small organs, including some small and medium-sized business enterprises employ interpreters in/for their work.

The course of interpretation is characterized by its difficulty for beginners. Students with "sufficient" psychical preparation always have the strong sense of setbacks when they start to learn the "oral translation" even though they have made remarkable achievements in their study of written translation.

Good interpreters are "tough species" among all the language learners for their tough mind, intense aspiration for success, broad range of knowledge and high adaptability to unexpected circumstances in their work.

Interpretation or "oral translation" is far different from "written translation" in terms of dissolution and reorganization of sentences in the target language, which is displayed in the note-taking methods and delivery of "meaning groups" to the recipients. Various symbols have been designed by interpreters as "reminders" for their almost strangled brains. No set of "interpretation note-taking symbols" is without exception acceptable to every practitioner in the business. That is the reason why one interpreter's notes are thoroughly unreadable to his colleagues.

Strong memory, compared with the note-taking skills, is more important to a competent interpreter.

The term of etiquette refers to, in the writer's mind, timely appearance to the conference occasion (in most cases earlier appearance to be acquainted with the speakers), formal addresses and efficient communication with the conference organizers and their work staff.

Effective secretarial work is a must for the interpreter's success.

• A ten-minute record of speeches for familiarizing the students with the requirement for interpreters' memory, note-taking skills and delivery of "meaning groups".

Chapter Two Note-taking

Note-taking symbols Structures of notes Time: Eight hours

Section One Note-taking symbols Four hours

No set of "interpretation note-taking symbols" is without exception acceptable to every practitioner in the business. That is the reason why one interpreter's notes are thoroughly unreadable to his colleagues.

Every learner should design one set of symbols.

My symbols are just for the learners' reference.

The table of symbols (hand-written on paper)

Further training:

Both Chinese and English paragraphs from the latest conferences for exercise.

Section Two

Structures of notes

Four hours

Reasonable structures of notes can help the interpreter recall what has been put down while maintaining the "steady delivery of meaning groups".

Usually, the most reasonable structures of notes are those that are organized as "terraces".

The following can be taken as an example,

• Europe is not large. Even with European Russia, it contains hardly more than 6 percent of the earth's land surface, occupying about the same area as the United States mainland plus Alaska. It is only a little larger than Australia.

≈> Au

• It is physically separated from Africa by the Mediterranean Sea, although the Mediterranean historically has been as much a passageway as a barrier. A truer barrier emerged when the Sahara Desert dried up only a few thousand years ago, so that northern Africa might be said to belong as much to southern Europe.

The layers of the structures indicate the status of the ingredients or the meaning groups.

Further training:

Both Chinese and English paragraphs from the latest conferences for exercise.

Chapter Three Dissolution and Reorganization of Sentence Structures

Original sequence of sentence components

Preservation or storage

Omission

Summarization

Adding and replacement

Time: 10-14 hours

Section One

Original sequence of sentence components

Two hours

In their work, no interpreter wishes to spend the precious time and energy on the readjustment of the sequence of sentence components. Then the most convenient way to save time and energy is to translate the sentence components as "meaning groups" according to the order of their appearance.

• Europe is physically separated from Africa by the Mediterranean Sea, although the Mediterranean historically has been as much a passageway as a barrier. A truer barrier emerged when the Sahara Desert dried up only a few thousand years ago, so that northern Africa might be said to belong as much to southern Europe as it does to sub-Saharan Africa.

§ "Standard translation"

尽管地中海历史上既是障碍,又是通道,欧洲与非洲之间还是被地中海隔开。更为真实的障碍则是仅仅几千年前,撒哈拉沙漠完全干旱之后才出现的,所以,非洲北部可以说是属于非洲撒哈拉以北的部分,也可以说是属于南欧。

§ "Original sequence translation"

欧洲与非洲之间被地中海隔开,<u>尽管地中海历史上是通道,但更是障碍</u>。更为真实的障碍<u>的出现</u>,则是仅仅几千年前,撒哈拉沙漠完全干旱之后。所以,非洲北部可以说是属于南欧,<u>就像说它</u>是属于非洲撒哈拉以北的部分一样。

Pay attention to the underlined parts.

Further training:

Both Chinese and English paragraphs from the latest conferences for exercise.

Section Two

Preservation or storage

Two hours

Sometimes, an interpreter has to preserve one or more parts of a sentence or a meaning unit when listening and delivering the speaker's "meanings" for later use. Under such a case, note is taken sometimes.

• Europe is physically separated from Africa by the Mediterranean Sea, although the Mediterranean historically has been as much a passageway as a barrier. A truer barrier emerged when the Sahara Desert dried up only a few thousand years ago, so that northern Africa might be said to belong as much to southern Europe as it does to sub-Saharan Africa.

In Chinese, the meaning of although can be expressed by "尽管……但是" with the part following although is put at the beginning of a sentence instead of the end.

§ 尽管地中海历史上既是障碍,又是通道,欧洲与非洲之间还是被地中海隔开。更为真实的障碍的出现,则是仅仅几千年前,撒哈拉沙漠完全干旱之后。所以,非洲北部可以说是属于南欧,就像说它是属于非洲撒哈拉以北的部分一样。

See the red part of these sentences. If you want to keep the translated part as a standard expression of the target language, you will have to preserve "Europe is physically separated from Africa by the Mediterranean Sea" until you have finished your translation of "although the Mediterranean historically has been as much a passageway as a barrier".

Further training:

Both Chinese and English paragraphs from the latest conferences for exercise.

Section Three

Omission Two hours

A. Forced omission

Some speakers, especially a green corn or under an unexpected cut-short meeting scheme, will pour out "numerous" meaning units in a very limited duration of time. When this happens, the interpreter can not follow the speaker's steps, as is sure to occur in most cases. What is the interpreter's way out then? Reasonably omitting some of the "meaningless" expressions or those that are not so significant as others is a good way for rescuing the troubled interpreter.

• Europe is physically separated from Africa by the Mediterranean Sea, although the Mediterranean historically has been as much a passageway as a barrier. A truer barrier emerged when the Sahara Desert dried up only a few thousand years ago, so that northern Africa might be said to belong as much to southern Europe as it does to sub-Saharan Africa.

§欧洲与非洲之间还是被地中海隔开,尽管地中海历史上(既是障碍,又)是通道。更为真实的障碍的出现,则是仅仅几千年前,撒哈拉沙漠完全干旱之后。所以,非洲北部可以说是属于南欧(, 就像说它是属于非洲撒哈拉以北的部分一样。)

See the red parts. Occasionally, sacrifice of some "less important parts" is for the expression of the main ideas. Of course, no omission is allowed if time is not so limited for no one knows exactly what part is not "significant".

Basically, the sequence of the appearance of sentence components is not changed as in most "original sequence interpretation".

B. Necessary omission

And yet, I now know it doesn't have to be that way. If my wife and I had been unhappy about our son, we would not have been able to help him. He would not have improved and so we would have become more unhappy. But by accepting and doing and not judging the situation we were able to reach an "unreachable" child. People who initially use unhappiness as a whip to push themselves can learn that happy people do not stop moving! And doing something out of happiness does not cause inactivity. On the contrary, it usually increases our mobility and effectiveness. Instead of fighting fears and running from pain, we can see what we want and can move toward it with great ease.

See the red "it". When it is translated into Chinese, we don't have to translate it as "\(\vec{\vec{\vec{\vec{v}}}}\)" or replace it with "doing something out of happiness". We just translate the sentence "without paying attention" to "it", the Chinese version still works.

This is called necessary omission

Further training:

Both Chinese and English paragraphs from the latest conferences for exercise.

Section Four

Summarization

Two hours

To some extent, the technique of summarization is like omission, in which some minor parts are left untreated. But still there are some differences between them. This technique is not allowed to be used in normal translation. Urgent circumstances are exceptions of course.

Compared with the technique of omission, this is not so unforgivable.

• Europe is physically separated from Africa by the Mediterranean Sea, although the Mediterranean historically has been as much a passageway as a barrier. A truer barrier emerged when the Sahara Desert dried up only a few thousand years ago, so that northern Africa might be said to belong as much to southern Europe as it does to sub-Saharan Africa.

§ 欧洲与非洲之间被地中海隔开,尽管地中海历史上(既是障碍,又)是通道。<u>几千年前,更为真实的障碍出现了,(从此)北非可以说属于南欧</u>。[更为真实的障碍的出现,则是仅仅几千年前,撒哈拉沙漠完全干旱之后。所以,非洲北部可以说是属于南欧(,就像说它是属于非洲撒哈拉以北的部分一样。)]

See the underlined part.

The speaker's meaning is not changed, but the expression is much simpler now.

Further training:

Both Chinese and English paragraphs from the latest conferences for exercise.

Section Five Adding and replacement Two hours

Sometimes, the speaker's words can not be correctly understood if the interpreter follows the speaker too closely without replacing the pronouns that stand for a person, an object, an organ, or a move. Or, in other cases, some parts of a sentence are intentionally omitted by a speaker for brevity. For example, at the United Nations conferences, the full words are used when the United Nations is first mentioned, but when it is mentioned for the second or the third time, it may be replaced by "it", "this world organization" or "this organization". The Chinese listeners may be easily confused by the literal translation of these terms. The conference interpreters then need to replace them with "the United Nations", especially in English-Chinese translation.

See the example:

And yet, I now know it doesn't have to be that way. If my wife and I had been unhappy about our son, we would not have been able to help him. He would not have improved and so we would have become more unhappy. But by accepting and doing and not judging the situation we were able to reach an "unreachable" child. People who initially use unhappiness as a whip to push themselves can learn that happy people do not stop moving! And doing something out of happiness does not cause inactivity. On the contrary, it usually increases our mobility and effectiveness. Instead of fighting fears and running from pain, we can see what we want and can move toward it with great ease.

See the red "it". What does it stand for? If it is translated into Chinese as "\(\begin{align*}{c}\)", no one can see the speaker's perception. It is necessary to find out the original noun for a proper translation.

Further training:

Both Chinese and English paragraphs from the latest conferences for exercise.

Chapter Four

Legal materials

Business materials

Using the skills taught in the previous lectures

Time: Ten to sixteen hours

Training using materials from the legal and business fields.

All materials will be adopted from latest conferences.

《英国文学(一)(二)》教学大纲

张立新 编写

目 录

前 言			
一、概述	491		
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	491		
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	491		
Chapter I. Period I. The Britons And The Anglo-Saxons. To A.D. 1066	493		
Chapter II. Period II. The Norman-French Period. A.D. 1066 To About 1350			
Chapter III. Period III. The End Of The Middle Ages. About 1350 To About 1500			
Chapter IV. The Medieval Drama			
Chapter V. Period IV. The Sixteenth Century. The Renaissance And The Reign Of Elizabeth			
Chapter VI. The Drama From About 1550 To 1642			
Chapter VII. Period V. The Seventeenth Century, 1603-1660. Prose And Poetry			
Chapter VIII. Period VI. The Restoration, 1660-1700			
Chapter X. Period VIII. The Romantic Triumph, 1798 To About 1830			
Chapter XI. Period IX. The Victorian Period. About 1830 To 1901			

前言

一、概述

《英国文学》课是全国高校英语语言文学专业本科高年级阶段的专业必修课程。为指导英语专业本科四年制《英国文学》课程的教学,特制订本大纲。本大纲的编用,依据国家英语教学指导委员会编写的"英语专业高年级阶段教学大纲",结合我教研室的办学特点和学生的实际情况,其中所作的各项规定,是我系本课程组织教学、使用教材与检查教学质量的基本依据。本课程大纲的教学对象是本科四年制英语专业三、四年级学生,他们在学习本课程以前,已基本掌握和具备了英语语言文学的听、说、读、写、译的基本技能和基本的文学理论和文学常识。对英国文学史上的一些作家和文学流派,有所了解,具有一定的英语语言功底和阅读欣赏能力,且具有基本的写作能力和写作知识。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

研究英国文学的基本任务,在于理清并描述英国文学演变的过程,在于文学史料和文学理论的 有机结合,在于探讨文学的发生、发展的基本规律。

为了更好地指导英语专业本科四年制《英国文学》课程的教学,特制订教学大纲如下。教学之 各项规定,是该课程组织教学、使用教材和检查教学质量的根据。

本课程的教学任务和目的是:传授英国文学的基础知识,发掘英国文学演变的基本规律,树立 正确阅读英国文学方式方法。通过系统、全面的讲授和剖析,训练学生正确阅读和思考、鉴赏的能力,培养学生运用事实检验理论的才能,养成分析问题、解决问题的良好方法,为学生打下扎实、 牢固的英国文学史基础。

使学生了解和认识美国文学史上一些较有影响的作家的创作倾向、思想方法、在文学史上的地位和成就以及对本国文学乃至世界所产生的影响等等。在此基础上,使学生了解一些名家的代表作品的思想意义、文学价值、写作手法、语言技巧等,为学生毕业后的教学、研究打下基础。设置本课程,旨在使学生对英国文学形成和发展的全貌有一个大概的了解,丰富知识,提高语言能力。由于本课程以英国文学史为主线,以作家作品为重点,学生要仔细阅读有关文学史和原作品,通过阅读,把握英国文学形成和发展的主线,增强对英国文学作品的理解,特别是对作品中表现的社会生活和人物思想感情的理解,提高阅读文学作品的能力和鉴赏水平。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程共72课时,分配如下:

《英国文学(一)》

First Semester 36 hours

Chapter I. The Britons And The Anglo-Saxons. To A.D. 1066 2 课时

Chapter II. The Norman-French Period. A.D. 1066 To About 1350 2 课时

Chapter III. The End Of The Middle Ages. About 1350 To About 1500 2 课时

Chapter IV. The Medieval Drama 2 课时

Chapter V. The Sixteenth Century. The Renaissance And The Reign Of Elizabeth 8 课时

Chapter VI. The Drama From About 1550 To 1642

Chapter VII. The Seventeenth Century, 1603-1660. Prose And Poetry 4 课时

Chapter VIII. The Restoration, 1660-1700 4 课时

Chapter IX. The Eighteenth Century, The Beginnings Of Modern Romanticism 8 课时

4 课时

《英国文学(二)》

Second Semester 36 hours

Chapter X. Romanticism, 1798 To About 1830 10 课时

Chapter XI. The Victorian Period. About 1830 To 1901 10 课时

Chapter XII The Modern Period 1901 to 1945 10 课时

Chapter XIII After 1945 6课时

Chapter I. Period I. The Britons And The Anglo-Saxons. To A.D. <u>1066</u>

The present English race has gradually shaped itself out of several distinct peoples which successively occupied or conquered the island of Great Britain. The earliest one of these peoples which need here be mentioned belonged to the Celtic family and was itself divided into two branches. The Goidels or Gaels were settled in the northern part of the island, which is now Scotland, and were the ancestors of the present Highland Scots. On English literature they exerted little or no influence until a late period. The Britons, from whom the present Welsh are descended, inhabited what is now England and Wales; and they were still further subdivided, like most barbarous peoples, into many tribes which were often at war with one another. Though the Britons were conquered and chiefly supplanted later on by the Anglo-Saxons, enough of them, as we shall see, were spared and intermarried with the victors to transmit something of their racial qualities to the English nation and literature.

ANGLO-SAXON POETRY. THE EARLY PAGAN POETRY AND 'BEOWULF.'

'Beowulf' presents an interesting though very incomplete picture of the life of the upper, warrior, caste among the northern Germanic tribes during their later period of barbarism on the Continent and in England, a life more highly developed than that of the Anglo-Saxons before their conquest of the island. About King Hrothgar are grouped his immediate retainers, the warriors, with whom he shares his wealth; it is a part of the character, of a good king to be generous in the distribution of gifts of gold and weapons. Somewhere in the background there must be a village, where the bondmen and slaves provide the daily necessaries of life and where some of the warriors may have houses and families; but all this is beneath the notice of the courtly poet. The center of the warriors' life is the great hall of the king, built chiefly of timber. Inside, there are benches and tables for feasting, and the walls are perhaps adorned with tapestries. Near the center is the hearth, whence the smoke must escape, if it escapes at all, through a hole in the roof. In the hall the warriors banquet, sometimes in the company of their wives, but the women retire before the later revelry which often leaves the men drunk on the floor. Sometimes, it seems, there are sleeping-rooms or niches about the sides of the hall, but in 'Beowulf' Hrothgar and his followers retire to other quarters. War, feasting, and hunting are the only occupations in which the warriors care to be thought to take an interest.

THE ANGLO-SAXON VERSE-FORM. The poetic form of 'Beowulf' is that of virtually all Anglo-Saxon poetry down to the tenth century, or indeed to the end, a form which is roughly represented in the present book in a passage of imitative translation two pages below. The verse is unrimed, not arranged in stanzas, and with lines more commonly end-stopped (with distinct pauses at the ends) than is true in good modern poetry. Each line is divided into halves and each half contains two stressed syllables, generally long in quantity.

ANGLO-SAXON POETRY. THE NORTHUMBRIAN PERIOD. The Anglo-Saxons were for a long time fully occupied with the work of conquest and settlement, and their first literature of any importance, aside from 'Beowulf,' appears at about the time when 'Beowulf' was being put into its present form, namely in the seventh century. This was in the Northern, Anglian, kingdom of Northumbria (Yorkshire and Southern Scotland), which, as we have already said, had then won the political supremacy, and whose monasteries and capital city, York, thanks to the Irish missionaries, had become the chief centers of

learning and culture in Western Christian Europe. Still pagan in spirit are certain obscure but, ingenious and skillfully developed riddles in verse, representatives of one form of popular literature only less early than the ballads and charms.

Chapter II. Period II. The Norman-French Period. A.D. 1066 To About 1350

SOCIAL RESULTS OF THE CONQUEST. In most respects, or all, the Norman conquest accomplished precisely that racial rejuvenation of which, as we have seen, Anglo-Saxon England stood in need. For the Normans brought with them from France the zest for joy and beauty and dignified and stately ceremony in which the Anglo-Saxon temperament was poor--they brought the love of light-hearted song and chivalrous sports, of rich clothing, of finely-painted manuscripts, of noble architecture in cathedrals and palaces, of formal religious ritual, and of the pomp and display of all elaborate pageantry. In the outcome they largely reshaped the heavy mass of Anglo-Saxon life into forms of grace and beauty and brightened its duller surface with varied and brilliant colors. For the Anglo-Saxons themselves, however, the Conquest meant at first little else than that bitterest and most complete of all national disasters, hopeless subjection to a tyrannical and contemptuous foe. The Normans were not heathen, as the

'Danes' had been, and they were too few in number to wish to supplant the conquered people; but they imposed themselves, both politically and socially, as stern and absolute masters.

THE RESULT FOR POETRY. For poetry the fusion meant even more than for prose. The metrical system, which begins to appear in the thirteenth century and comes to perfection a century and a half later in Chaucer's poems combined what may fairly be called the better features of both the systems from which it was compounded. We have seen that Anglo-Saxon verse depended on regular stress of a definite number of quantitatively long syllables in each line and on alliteration; that it allowed much variation in the number of unstressed syllables; and that it was without rime.

RELIGIOUS LITERATURE. We may virtually divide all the literature of the period, roughly, into (1) Religious and (2) Secular. But it must be observed that religious writings were far more important as literature during the Middle Ages than in more recent times, and the separation between religious and secular less distinct than at present. The forms of the religious literature were largely the same as in the previous period.

Chapter III. Period III. The End Of The Middle Ages. About 1350 To About 1500

The middle of the fourteenth century was also the middle of the externally brilliant fifty years' reign of Edward III. In 1337 Edward had begun the terrible though often-interrupted series of campaigns in France which historians group together as the Hundred Tears' War, and having won the battle of Crecy against amazing odds, he had inaugurated at his court a period of splendor and luxury. The country as a whole was really increasing in prosperity; Edward was fostering trade, and the towns and some of the town-merchants were becoming wealthy; but the oppressiveness of the feudal system, now becoming outgrown, was apparent, abuses in society and state and church were almost intolerable, and the spirit which was to create our modern age, beginning already in Italy to move toward the Renaissance, was felt in faint stirrings even so far to the North as England.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER, 1338-1400. Chaucer (the name is French and seems to have meant originally 'shoemaker') came into the world probably in 1338, the first important author who was born and lived in London, which with him becomes the center of English literature. About his life, as about those of many of our earlier writers, there remains only very fragmentary information, which in his case is largely pieced together from scattering entries of various kinds in such documents as court account books and public records of state matters and of lawsuits. His father, a wine merchant, may have helped supply the cellars of the king (Edward III) and so have been able to bring his son to royal notice; at any rate, while still in his teens Geoffrey became a page in the service of one of the king's daughters-in-law. In this position his duty would be partly to perform various humble work in the household, partly also to help amuse the leisure of the inmates, and it is easy to suppose that he soon won favor as a fluent story-teller. He early became acquainted with the seamy as well as the brilliant side of courtly life; for in 1359 he was in the campaign in France and was taken prisoner. That he was already valued appears from the king's subscription of the equivalent of a thousand dollars of present-day money toward his ransom; and after his release he was transferred to the king's own service, where about 1368 he was promoted to the rank of esquire. He was probably already married to one of the queen's ladies-in-waiting. Chaucer was now thirty years of age, and his practical sagacity and knowledge of men had been recognized; for from this time on he held important public positions. He was often sent to the Continent--to France, Flanders, and Italy--on diplomatic missions; and for eleven years he was in charge of the London customs, where the uncongenial drudgery occupied almost all his time until through the intercession of the queen he was allowed to perform it by deputy. In 1386 he was a member of Parliament, knight of the shire for Kent; but in that year his fortune turned--he lost all his offices at the overthrow of the faction of his patron, Duke John of Gaunt (uncle of the young king, Richard II, who had succeeded his grandfather, Edward III, some years before). Chaucer's party and himself were soon restored to power, but although during the remaining dozen years of his life he received from the Court various temporary appointments and rewards, he appears often to have been poor and in need. When Duke Henry of Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt, deposed the king and himself assumed the throne as Henry IV, Chaucer's prosperity seemed assured, but he lived after this for less than a year, dying suddenly in 1400. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, the first of the men of letters to be laid in the nook which has since become the Poets' Corner.

Chapter IV. The Medieval Drama

THE MORALITY PLAYS. The Mystery Plays seem to have reached their greatest popularity in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. In the dawning light of the Renaissance and the modern spirit they gradually waned, though in exceptional places and in special revivals they did not altogether cease to be given until the seventeenth century. On the Continent of Europe, indeed, they still survive, after a fashion, in a single somewhat modernized form, the celebrated Passion Play of Oberammergau. In England by the end of the fifteenth century they had been for the most part replaced by a kindred species which had long been growing up beside them, namely the Morality Plays.

THE LATER INFLUENCE OF THE MEDIEVAL DRAMA. The various dramatic forms from the tenth century to the middle of the sixteenth at which we have thus hastily glanced--folk-plays, mummings and disguisings, secular pageants, Mystery plays, Moralities, and Interludes--have little but a historical importance. But besides demonstrating the persistence of the popular demand for drama, they exerted a permanent influence in that they formed certain stage traditions which were to modify or largely control the great drama of the Elizabethan period and to some extent of later times. Among these traditions were the disregard for unity, partly of action, but especially of time and place; the mingling of comedy with even the intensest scenes of tragedy; the nearly complete lack of stage scenery, with a resultant willingness in the audience to make the largest possible imaginative assumptions; the presence of certain stock figures, such as the clown; and the presentation of women's parts by men and boys. The plays, therefore, must be reckoned with in dramatic history.

Chapter V. Period IV. The Sixteenth Century. The Renaissance And The Reign Of Elizabeth

THE RENAISSANCE. The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries are the period of the European Renaissance or New Birth, one of the three or four great transforming movements of European history. This impulse by which the medieval society of scholasticism, feudalism, and chivalry was to be made over into what we call the modern world came first from Italy. Italy, like the rest of the Roman Empire, had been overrun and conquered in the fifth century by the barbarian Teutonic tribes, but the devastation had been less complete there than in the more northern lands, and there, even more, perhaps, than in France, the bulk of the people remained Latin in blood and in character. Hence it resulted that though the Middle Ages were in Italy a period of terrible political anarchy, yet Italian culture recovered far more rapidly than that of the northern nations, whom the Italians continued down to the modern period to regard contemptuously as still mere barbarians. By the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, further, the Italians had become intellectually one of the keenest races whom the world has ever known, though in morals they were sinking to almost incredible corruption. Already in fourteenth century Italy, therefore, the movement for a much fuller and freer intellectual life had begun, and we have seen that by Petrarch and Boccaccio something of this spirit was transmitted to Chaucer. In England Chaucer was followed by the medievalizing fifteenth century, but in Italy there was no such interruption.

SIR THOMAS MORE AND HIS 'UTOPIA.' Out of the confused and bitter strife of churches and parties, while the outcome was still uncertain, issued a great mass of controversial writing which does not belong to literature. A few works, however, more or less directly connected with the religious agitation, cannot be passed by.

More's most important work was his 'Utopia,' published in 1516. The name, which is Greek, means No-Place, and the book is one of the most famous of that series of attempts to outline an imaginary ideal condition of society which begins with Plato's 'Republic' and has continued to our own time.

Chapter V. Period IV. The Sixteenth Century. The Renaissance And The Reign Of Elizabeth (Page 2) 1579, Several general characteristics of Elizabethan literature and writers should be indicated at the outset.

1. The period has the great variety of almost unlimited creative force; it includes works of many kinds in both verse and prose, and ranges in spirit from the loftiest Platonic idealism or the most delightful romance to the level of very repulsive realism. 2. It was mainly dominated, however, by the spirit of romance (above, pp.

95-96). 3. It was full also of the spirit of dramatic action, as befitted an age whose restless enterprise was eagerly extending itself to every quarter of the globe. 4. In style it often exhibits romantic luxuriance, which sometimes takes the form of elaborate affectations of which the favorite 'conceit' is only the most apparent. 5. It was in part a period of experimentation, when the proper material and limits of literary forms were being determined, oftentimes by means of false starts and grandiose failures. In particular, many efforts were made to give prolonged poetical treatment to many subjects essentially prosaic, for example to systems of theological or scientific thought, or to the geography of all England. 6. It continued to be largely influenced by the literature of Italy, and to a less degree by those of France and Spain. 7. The literary spirit was all-pervasive, and the authors were men (not yet women) of almost every class, from

distinguished courtiers, like Ralegh and Sidney, to the company of hack writers, who starved in garrets and hung about the outskirts of the bustling taverns.

PROSE FICTION. The period saw the beginning, among other things, of English prose fiction of something like the later modern type. First appeared a series of collections of short tales chiefly translated from Italian authors, to which tales the Italian name 'novella' (novel) was applied. Most of the separate tales are crude or amateurish and have only historical interest, though as a class they furnished the plots for many Elizabethan dramas, including several of Shakspere's.

EDMUND SPENSER, 1552-1599. The first really commanding figure in the Elizabethan period, and one of the chief of all English poets, is Edmund Spenser. [Footnote: His name should never be spelled with a *c*.] Born in London in 1552, the son of a clothmaker, Spenser past from the newly established Merchant Taylors' school to Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, as a sizar, or poor student, and during the customary seven years of residence took the degrees of B. A. and, in 1576, of M. A. At Cambridge he assimilated two of the controlling forces of his life, the moderate Puritanism of his college and Platonic idealism. Next, after a year or two with his kinspeople in Lancashire, in the North of England, he came to London, hoping through literature to win high political place, and attached himself to the household of Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, Queen Elizabeth's worthless favorite.

'The Faerie Queene' in atmosphere and entire effect. Spenser himself is always the perfect gentleman of his own imagination, and in his company we are secure from the intrusion of anything morally base or mean. But in him, also, moral beauty is in full harmony with the beauty of art and the senses.

ELIZABETHAN LYRIC POETRY. 'The Faerie Queene' is the only long Elizabethan poem of the very highest rank, but Spenser, as we have seen, is almost equally conspicuous as a lyric poet. In that respect he was one among a throng of melodists who made the Elizabethan age in many respects the greatest lyric period in the history of English or perhaps of any literature. Still grander, to be sure, by the nature of the two forms, was the Elizabethan achievement in the drama, which we shall consider in the next chapter; but the lyrics have the advantage in sheer delightfulness and, of course, in rapid and direct appeal.

THE SONNETS. In the last decade, especially, of the century, no other lyric form compared in popularity with the sonnet. Here England was still following in the footsteps of Italy and France; it has been estimated that in the course of the century over three hundred thousand sonnets were written in Western Europe.

JOHN DONNE AND THE BEGINNING OF THE 'METAPHYSICAL' POETRY. The last decade of the sixteenth century presents also, in the poems of John Donne,

Chapter VI. The Drama From About 1550 To 1642

THE INFLUENCE OF CLASSICAL COMEDY AND TRAGEDY. In Chapter IV we left the drama at that point, toward the middle of the sixteenth century, when the Mystery Plays had largely declined and Moralities and Interlude-Farces, themselves decadent, were sharing in rather confused rivalry that degree of popular interest which remained unabsorbed by the religious, political, and social ferment. There was still to be a period of thirty or forty years before the flowering of the great Elizabethan drama, but they were to be years of new, if uncertain, beginnings.

THE CHRONICLE-HISTORY PLAY. About twenty years before the end of the century there began to appear, at first at the Court and the Universities, later on the popular stage, a form of play which was to hold, along with tragedy and comedy, an important place in the great decades that were to follow, namely the Chronicle-History Play. This form of play generally presented the chief events in the whole or a part of the reign of some English king.

CHRISTOPHER MARLOWE, 1564-1593. Peele and Greene were University men who wrote partly for Court or academic audiences, partly for the popular stage. The distinction between the two sorts of drama was still further broken down in the work of Christopher Marlowe, a poet of real genius, decidedly the chief dramatist among Shakspere's early contemporaries, and the one from whom Shakspere learned the most.

SHAKESPEARE, 1564-1616. William Shakspere, by universal consent the greatest author of England, if not of the world, occupies chronologically a central position in the Elizabethan drama. He was born in 1564 in the good-sized village of Stratford-on-Avon in Warwickshire, near the middle of England, where the level but beautiful country furnished full external stimulus for a poet's eye and heart. His father, John Shakspere, who was a general dealer in agricultural products and other commodities, was one of the chief citizens of the village, and during his son's childhood was chosen an alderman and shortly after mayor, as we should call it. But by

'Macbeth' and 'The Winter's Tale,' for example, vastly superior to 'Love's Labour's Lost'--all this evidence together enables us to arrange the plays in a chronological order which is certainly approximately correct. The first of the four periods thus disclosed is that of experiment and preparation, from about 1588 to about 1593, when Shakspere tried his hand at virtually every current kind of dramatic work. Its most important product is 'Richard III,' a melodramatic chronicle-history play, largely imitative of Marlowe and yet showing striking power. At the end of this period Shakspere issued two rather long narrative poems on classical subjects, 'Venus and Adonis,' and 'The Rape of Lucrece,' dedicating them both to the young Earl of Southampton, who thus appears as his patron. Both display great fluency in the most luxuriant and sensuous Renaissance manner, and though they appeal little to the taste of the present day

BEN JONSON. The second place among the Elizabethan and Jacobean dramatists is universally assigned, on the whole justly, to Ben Jonson, [Footnote: This name is spelled without the h.] who both in temperament and in artistic theories and practice presents a complete contrast to Shakspere. Jonson, the posthumous son of an impoverished gentleman-clergyman, was born in London in 1573. At Westminster School he received a permanent bent toward classical studies from the headmaster, William Camden, who was one of the greatest scholars of the time.

SUMMARY. The chief dramatists of the whole sixty years of the great period may be conveniently grouped as follows: I. Shakspere's early contemporaries, about 1580 to about 1593: Lyly, Peele, Greene, Kyd, Marlowe. II. Shakspere. III. Shakspere's later contemporaries, under Elizabeth and James I: Jonson, Chapman, Dekker, Heywood, Middleton, Marston, Beaumont and Fletcher, Webster. IV. The last group, under James I and Charles I, to 1642: Ford, Massinger, and Shirley.

Chapter VII. Period V. The Seventeenth Century, 1603-1660. Prose And Poetry

FRANCIS BACON, VISCOUNT ST. ALBANS, 1561-1626. [Footnote: Macaulay's well-known essay on Bacon is marred by Macaulay's besetting faults of superficiality and dogmatism and is best left unread.] Francis Bacon, intellectually one of the most eminent Englishmen of all times, and chief formulator of the methods of modern science, was born in 1561 (three years before Shakspere), the son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, Lord Keeper of the Great Seal under Queen Elizabeth and one of her most trusted earlier advisers. The boy's precocity led the queen to call him her 'little Lord Keeper.' At the age of twelve he, like Wyatt, was sent to Cambridge, where his chief impression was of disgust at the unfruitful scholastic application of Aristotle's ideas, still supreme in spite of a century of Renaissance enlightenment. A very much more satisfactory three years' residence in France in the household of the English ambassador was terminated in 1579

THE KING JAMES BIBLE, 1611. It was during the reign of James I that the long series of sixteenth century translations of the Bible reached its culmination in what we have already called the greatest of all English books (or rather, collections of books), the King James ('Authorized') version. In 1604 an ecclesiastical conference accepted a suggestion, approved by the king, that a new and more accurate rendering of the Bible should be made.

JOHN BUNYAN. Seventeenth century Puritanism was to find a supreme spokesman in prose fiction as well as in poetry; John Milton and John Bunyan, standing at widely different angles of experience, make one of the most interesting complementary pairs in all literature. By the mere chronology of his works, Bunyan belongs in our next period, but in his case mere chronology must be disregarded.

Chapter VIII. Period VI. The Restoration, 1660-1700

THE RESTORATION DRAMA. The moral anarchy of the period is most strikingly exhibited in its drama, particularly in its comedy and 'comedy of manners.' These plays, dealing mostly with love-actions in the setting of the Court or of fashionable London life, and carrying still further the general spirit of those of Fletcher and Shirley a generation or two earlier, deliberately ridicule moral principles and institutions, especially marriage, and are always in one degree or another grossly indecent. Technically they are often clever; according to that definition of literature which includes a moral standard, they are not literature at all. To them, however, we shall briefly return at the end of the chapter.

JOHN DRYDEN, 1631-1700. No other English literary period is so thoroughly represented and summed up in the works of a single man as is the Restoration period in John Dryden, a writer in some respects akin to Ben Jonson, of prolific and vigorous talent without the crowning quality of genius.

Chapter IX. Period VII. The Eighteenth Century, Pseudo-Classicism And The Beginnings Of Modern Romanticism

DANIEL DEFOE. The two earliest notable writers of the period, however, though they display some of these characteristics, were men of strong individual traits which in any age would have directed them largely along paths of their own choosing. The first of them is Daniel Defoe, who belongs, furthermore, quite outside the main circle of high-bred and polished fashion.

JONATHAN SWIFT. Jonathan Swift, another unique figure of very mixed traits, is like Defoe in that he connects the reign of William III with that of his successors and that, in accordance with the spirit of his age, he wrote for the most part not for literary but for practical purposes; in many other respects the two are widely different. Swift is one of the best representatives in English literature of sheer intellectual power, but his character, his aims, his environment, and the circumstances of his life denied to him also literary achievement of the greatest permanent significance.

ALEXANDER POPE, 1688-1744. The chief representative of pseudo-classicism in its most particular field, that of poetry, is Dryden's successor, Alexander Pope.

Pope was born in 1688 (just a hundred years before Byron), the son of a Catholic linen-merchant in London. Scarcely any other great writer has ever had to contend against such hard and cruel handicaps as he. He inherited a deformed and dwarfed body and an incurably sickly constitution, which carried with it abnormal sensitiveness of both nerves and mind.

SAMUEL JOHNSON, 1709-1784. To the informal position of dictator of English letters which had been held successively by Dryden, Addison, and Pope, succeeded in the third quarter of the eighteenth century a man very different from any of them, one of the most forcefully individual of all authors, Samuel Johnson. It was his fortune to uphold, largely by the strength of his personality, the pseudo-classical ideals which Dryden and Addison had helped to form and whose complete dominance had contributed to Pope's success, in the period when their authority was being undermined by the progress of the rising Romantic Movement.

THE ROMANTIC MOVEMENT. The reaction which was bound to accompany the triumph of Pseudo-classicism, as a reassertion of those instincts in human nature which Pseudo-classicism disregarded, took the form of a distinct Romantic Revival. Beginning just about as Pope's reputation was reaching its climax, and gathering momentum throughout the greater part of the eighteenth century, this

movement eventually gained a predominance as complete as that which Pseudo-classicism had enjoyed, and became the chief force, not only in England but in all Western Europe, in the literature of the whole nineteenth century. The impulse was not confined to literature, but permeated all the life of the time. In the sphere of religion, especially, the second decade of the eighteenth century saw the awakening of the English church from lethargy by the great revival of John and Charles Wesley, whence, quite contrary to their original intention, sprang the Methodist denomination. OLIVER GOLDSMITH. Next in order among the romantic poets after Gray, and more thoroughly romantic than Gray, was Oliver Goldsmith, though, with characteristic lack of the power of self-criticism, he supposed himself to be a loyal follower of Johnson and therefore a member of the opposite camp. Goldsmith, as every one knows, is one of the most attractive and lovable figures in English literature.

WILLIAM BLAKE. Still another utterly unworldly and frankly abnormal poet, though of a still different temperament, was William Blake (1757-1827), who in many respects is one of the most extreme of all romanticists. Blake, the son of a London retail shopkeeper, received scarcely any book education, but at fourteen he was apprenticed to an engraver, who stimulated his imagination by setting him to work at making drawings in Westminster Abbey and other old churches. His training was completed by study at the Royal Academy of Arts, and for the rest of his life he supported himself, in poverty, with the aid of a devoted wife, by keeping a print-and-engraving shop.

ROBERT BURNS. Blake, deeply romantic as he is by nature, virtually stands by himself, apart from any movement or group, and the same is equally true of the somewhat earlier lyrist in whom eighteenth century poetry culminates, namely Robert Burns. Burns, the oldest of the seven children of two sturdy Scotch peasants of the best type, was born in 1759 in Ayrshire, just beyond the northwest border of England. In spite of extreme poverty, the father joined with some of his neighbors in securing the services of a teacher for their children, and the household possessed a few good books, including Shakspere and Pope, whose influence on the future poet was great.

SAMUEL RICHARDSON. It is difficult, because of the sentimental nature of the period and the man, to tell the story of Richardson's career without an appearance of farcical burlesque. Born in 1689, in Derbyshire, he early gave proof of his special endowments by delighting his childish companions with stories, and, a little later, by becoming the composer of the love letters of various young women. His command of language and an insistent tendency to moralize seemed to mark him out for the ministry, but his father was unable to pay for the necessary education and apprenticed him to a London printer. Possessed of great fidelity and all the quieter virtues, he rose steadily and became in time the prosperous head of his own printing house, a model citizen, and the father of a large family of children.

HENRY FIELDING. Sharply opposed to Richardson stands his later contemporary and rival, Henry Fielding. Fielding was born of an aristocratic family in Somersetshire in 1707. At Eton School and the University of Leyden (in Holland) he won distinction, but at the age of twenty he found himself, a vigorous young man with instincts for fine society, stranded in London without any tangible means of support. He turned to the drama and during the next dozen years produced many careless and ephemeral farces, burlesques, and light plays, which, however, were not without value as preparation for his novels. Meanwhile he had other activities--spent the money which his wife brought him at marriage in an extravagant experiment as gentleman-farmer; studied law and was admitted to the bar; and conducted various literary periodicals.

THE OTHER SENTIMENTALISTS AND REALISTS. Richardson and Fielding set in motion two currents, of sentimentalism and realism, respectively, which flowed vigorously in the novel during the next generation, and indeed have continued, with various modifications, down to our own time.

HISTORICAL AND 'GOTHIC' ROMANCES. Stories which purported to reproduce the life of the Past were not unknown in England in the seventeenth century, but the real beginning of the historical novel and romance belongs to the later part of the eighteenth century. The extravagance of romantic writers at that time, further, created a sort of subspecies called in its day and since the 'Gothic' romance.

JANE AUSTEN. Much the greatest of this trio of authoresses is the last, Jane Austen, who perhaps belongs as much to the nineteenth century as the eighteenth. The daughter of a clergyman, she past an absolutely uneventful life of forty-two years (1775-1817) in various villages and towns in Southern England. She had finished her masterpiece, 'Pride and Prejudice,' at the age of twenty-two, but was unable for more than a dozen years to find a publisher for this and her other earlier works. When at last they were brought out she resumed her writing, but the total number of her novels is only six. Her field, also, is more limited than that of any other great English novelist; for she deliberately restricted herself, with excellent judgment, to portraying what she knew at first-hand, namely the life of the well-to-do classes of her own 'provincial' region.

Chapter X. Period VIII. The Romantic Triumph, 1798 To About 1830

SAMUEL TAYLOR COLERIDGE. The poets Wordsworth and Coleridge are of special interest not only from the primary fact that they are among the greatest of English authors, but also secondarily because in spite of their close personal association each expresses one of the two main contrasting or complementary tendencies in the Romantic movement; Coleridge the delight in wonder and mystery, which he has the power to express with marvelous poetic suggestiveness, and Wordsworth, in an extreme degree, the belief in the simple and quiet forces, both of human life and of Nature.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH, 1770-1850. William Wordsworth [Footnote: The first syllable is pronounced like the common noun 'words'] was born in 1770 in Cumberland, in the 'Lake Region,' which, with its bold and varied mountains as well as its group of charming lakes, is the most picturesque part of England proper. He had the benefit of all the available formal education, partly at home, partly at a 'grammar' school a few miles away, but his genius was formed chiefly by the influence of Nature, and, in a qualified degree, by that of the simple peasant people of the region.

'Lyrical Ballads,' published in 1800, a discussion which includes incidentally some of the finest general critical interpretation ever made of the nature and meaning of poetry. Wordsworth declared: 1. Since the purpose of poetry is to present the essential emotions of men, persons in humble and rustic life are generally the fittest subjects for treatment in it, because their natures and manners are simple and more genuine than those of other men, and are kept so by constant contact with the beauty and serenity of Nature.

ROBERT SOUTHEY. Robert Southey (1774-1843), a voluminous writer of verse and prose who from his friendship with Wordsworth and Coleridge has been associated with them as third in what has been inaptly called 'The Lake School' of poets, was thought in his own day to be their equal; but time has relegated him to comparative obscurity.

WALTER SCOTT. In the eighteenth century Scotland had contributed Thomson and Burns to the Romantic movement; now, early in the nineteenth, she supplied a writer of unexcelled and marvelous creative energy, who confirmed the triumph of the movement with work of the first importance in both verse and prose, namely Walter Scott. Scott, further, is personally one of the most delightful figures in English literature, and he is probably the most famous of all the Scotsmen who have ever lived.

Lord Byron, 1788-1824. Byron (George Gordon Byron) expresses mainly the spirit of individual revolt, revolt against all existing institutions and standards. This was largely a matter of his own personal temperament, but the influence of the time also had a share in it, the time when the apparent failure of the French Revolution had thrown the pronounced liberals back upon their own resources in bitter dissatisfaction with the existing state of society.

'Childe Harold' is the best of all Byron's works, though the third and fourth cantos, published some years later, and dealing with Belgium, the battle of Waterloo, and central Europe, are superior to the first two. Its excellence consists chiefly in the fact that while it is primarily a descriptive poem, its pictures, dramatically and finely vivid in themselves, are permeated with intense emotion and often serve only as introductions to passionate rhapsodies, so that the effect is largely lyrical.

PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY, 1792-1832. Shelley resembles Byron in his thorough-going revolt against society, but he is totally unlike Byron in several important respects. His first impulse was an unselfish love for his fellow-men, with an aggressive eagerness for martyrdom in their behalf; his nature was unusually, even abnormally, fine and sensitive; and his poetic quality was a delicate and ethereal lyricism unsurpassed in the literature of the world.

JOHN KEATS, 1795-1821. No less individual and unique than the poetry of Byron and Shelley is that of the third member of this group, John Keats, who is, in a wholesome way, the most conspicuous great representative in English poetry since Chaucer of the spirit of 'Art for Art's sake.' Keats was born in London in 1795, the first son of a livery-stable keeper. Romantic emotion and passionateness were among his chief traits from the start; but he was equally distinguished by a generous spirit, physical vigor (though he was very short in build), and courage.

Chapter XI. Period IX. The Victorian Period. About 1830 To 1901

LORD MACAULAY. The first great figure, chronologically, in the period, and one of the most clearly-defined and striking personalities in English literature, is Thomas Babington Macaulay, [Footnote: The details of Macaulay's life are known from the; famous biography of him by his nephew, Sir George Trevelyan.] who represents in the fullest degree the Victorian vigor and delight in material progress, but is quite untouched by the Victorian spiritual striving.

ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING AND ROBERT BROWNING. Robert Browning, Tennyson's chief poetic contemporary, stands in striking artistic contrast to Tennyson--a contrast which perhaps serves to enhance the reputation of both. Browning's life, if not his poetry, must naturally be considered in connection with that of Elizabeth Barrett Browning, with whom he was united in what appears the most ideal marriage of two important writers in the history of literature.

Charlotte Bronte (1816-1855). Miss Bronte, a product and embodiment of the strictest religious sense of duty, somewhat tempered by the liberalizing tendency of the time, was the daughter of the rector of a small and bleak Yorkshire village, Haworth, where she was brought up in poverty. The two of her sisters who reached maturity, Emily and Anne, both still more short-lived than she, also wrote novels, and Emily produced some lyrics which strikingly express the stern, defiant will that characterized all the children of the family. Their lives were pitifully bare, hard, and morbid, scarcely varied or enlivened except by a year which Charlotte and Emily spent when Charlotte was twenty-six in a private school in Brussels, followed on Charlotte's part by a return to the same school for a year as teacher. In 1847 Charlotte's novel 'Jane Eyre' (pronounced like the word 'air') won a great success. Her three later novels are less significant. In 1854 she was married to one of her father's curates, a Mr. Nicholls, a sincere but narrow-minded man. She was happy in the marriage, but died within a few months, worn out by the unremitting physical and moral strain of forty years.

CHARLES DICKENS. [Footnote: The life of Dickens by his friend John Forster is another of the most famous English biographies.] The most popular of all English novelists, Charles Dickens, was born in 1812, the son of an unpractical and improvident government navy clerk whom, with questionable taste, he later caricatured in 'David Copperfield' as Mr. Micawber. The future novelist's schooling was slight and irregular, but as a boy he read much fiction, especially seventeenth and eighteenth century authors, whose influence is apparent in the picaresque lack of structure of his own works. From childhood also he showed the passion for the drama and the theater which resulted from the excitably dramatic quality of his own temperament and which always continued to be the second moving force of his life. When he was ten years old his father was imprisoned for debt (like Micawber, in the Marshalsea prison), and he was put to work in the cellar of a London shoe-blacking factory. On his proud and sensitive disposition this humiliation, though it lasted only a few months, inflicted a wound which never thoroughly healed; years after he was famous he would cross the street to avoid the smell from an altogether different blacking factory, with its reminder 'of what he once was.' To this experience, also, may evidently be traced no small part of the intense sympathy with the oppressed poor, especially with helpless children, which is so prominent in his novels. Obliged from the age of fifteen to earn his own living, for the most part, he was

for a while a clerk in a London lawyer's office, where he observed all sorts and conditions of people with characteristic keenness.

WILLIAM M. THACKERAY. Dickens' chief rival for fame during his later lifetime and afterward was Thackeray, who presents a strong contrast with him, both as man and as writer.

Thackeray, the son of an East India Company official, was born at Calcutta in 1811. His father died while he was a child and he was taken to England for his education; he was a student in the Charterhouse School and then for a year at Cambridge. Next, on the Continent, he studied drawing, and though his unmethodical and somewhat idle habits prevented him from ever really mastering the technique of the art, his real knack for it enabled him later on to illustrate his own books in a semi-grotesque but effective fashion.

GEORGE ELIOT. The perspective of time has made it clear that among the Victorian novelists, as among the poets, three definitely surpass the others. With Dickens and Thackeray is to be ranked only 'George Eliot'

THOMAS HARDY. In Thomas Hardy (born 1840) the pessimistic interpretation of modern science is expressed frankly and fully, with much the same pitiless consistency that distinguishes contemporary European writers such as Zola. Mr. Hardy early turned to literature from architecture and he has lived a secluded life in southern England, the ancient Wessex, which he makes the scene of all his novels. His knowledge of life is sure and his technique in all respects masterly. He has preferred to deal chiefly with persons in the middle and poorer classes of society because, like Wordsworth, though with very different emphasis, he feels that in their experiences the real facts of life stand out most truly. His deliberate theory is a sheer fatalism--that human character and action are the inevitable result of laws of heredity and environment over which man has no control. 'The Return of the Native' (1878) and 'Far from the Madding Crowd' (1874) are among his best novels, though the sensational frankness of 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles' (1891) has given it greater reputation.

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Global war is one of the defining features of twentieth-century experience, and the first global war is the subject of one of this period's topics, "Representing the Great War." Masses of dead bodies strewn upon the ground, plumes of poison gas drifting through the air, hundreds of miles of trenches infested with rats—these are but some of the indelible images that have come to be associated with World War I (1914-18). It was a war that unleashed death, loss, and suffering on an unprecedented scale. How did recruiting posters, paintings, memoirs, and memorials represent the war? Was it a heroic occasion, comparable to a sporting event, eliciting displays of manly valor and courage? Or was it an ignominious waste of human life, with little gain to show on either side of the conflict, deserving bitterly ironic treatment? What were the differences between how civilians and soldiers, men and women, painters and poets represented the war? How effective or inadequate were memorials, poems, or memoirs in conveying the enormous scale and horror of the war? These are among the issues explored in this topic about the challenge to writers and artists of representing the unrepresentable.

Another of the twentieth century's defining features is radical artistic experiment. The boundary-breaking art, literature, and music of the first decades of the century are the subject of the topic "Modernist Experiment." Among the leading aesthetic innovators of this era were the composer Igor Stravinsky, the cubist Pablo Picasso, and thefuturist F. T. Marinetti. The waves of artistic energy in the avant-garde European arts soon crossed the English Channel, as instanced by the abstraction and

dynamism of Red Stone Dancer (1913-14) by the London-based vorticist sculptor Henri Gaudier-Brzeska. Other vorticists and modernists include such English-language writers as Ezra Pound, Wyndham Lewis, and Mina Loy, who also responded to the stimulus and challenge of the European avant-garde with manifestos, poems, plays, and other writings. This topic explores the links between Continental experiment and the modernist innovations of English-language poets and writers during a period of extraordinary ferment in literature and the arts. Another of the defining features of the twentieth century was the emergence of new nations out of European colonial rule. Among these nations, Ireland was the oldest of Britain's colonies and the first in modern times to fight for independence. The topic "Imagining Ireland" explores how twentieth-century Irish writers fashioned new ideas about the Irish nation. It focuses on two periods of crisis, when the violent struggle for independence put the greatest pressure on literary attempts to imagine the nation: in the aftermath of the Easter Rising of 1916 and the later outbreaks of sectarian violence from 1969 (known as the Troubles) in Northern Ireland. How do poems, plays, memoirs, short stories, and other literary works represent the bloodshed and yet the potential benefits of these violent political upheavals? Do they honor or lament, idealize or criticize, these political acts? And how do these literary representations compare with political speeches and treaties that bear on these defining moments in modern Irish history? "Imagining Ireland" considers these and other questions about literature and the making of Irish nationality, which continue to preoccupy contemporary writers of Ireland, Northern Ireland, and the Irish diaspora.

The following writers should be studied in detail.

D. H. Lawrence

James Joyce

Virginia Woolf

Evelyn Waugh

Graham Greene

George Orwell

Kingsley Amis

Anthony Powell

Anthony Burgess

Muriel Spark

William Butler Yeats

T. S. Eliot

W. H. Auden

George Bernard Shaw

Samuel Beckett

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《美国文学(一)(二)》教学大纲

张立新 编写

目 录

前 言	515
一、概述	515
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	515
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	515
Unit One: Early American and Colonial Period to 1776	518
Unit Two: Democratic Origins and Revolutionary Writers, 1776-1820	522
Unit Three: The Romantic Period, 1820-1860: Essayists and Poets	524
Unit Four: The Romantic Period, 1820-1860: Fiction	526
Unit Five: The Rise of Realism: 1860-1914	527
Unit Six: Modernism and Experimentation: 1914-1945	529
Unit Seven: American Poetry Since 1945: The Anti-Tradition	532
Unit Eight : American Prose Since 1945: Realism and Experimentation	534
Unit Nine: Southern Literature	539
Unit Ten: African American Literature	540
Unit Eleven: Jewish American Literature	541
四、Reference Books	541

前言

一、概述

美国是世界上最年轻的国家之一。在其短暂的历史上,涌现出无数有着深远影响的作家、文学运动或文学派别。美国文坛,流派众多。美国文学在短短时间内取得如此重大的成绩,成为学者关注的焦点和引人注目的问题。为指导英语专业本科四年制《美国文学》课程的教学,特制订本大纲。本大纲的编用,依据国家英语教学指导委员会编写的"英语专业高年级阶段教学大纲",结合我教研室的办学特点和学生的实际情况,其中所作的各项规定,是我系本课程组织教学、使用教材与检查教学质量的基本依据。本课程大纲的教学对象是本科四年制英语专业三、四年级学生,他们在学习本课程以前,对美国文学史上的一些作家和文学流派,有所了解,具有一定的英语语言功底和阅读欣赏能力,且具有基本的写作能力和写作知识。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程的教学任务和目的是: 使学生了解和认识美国文学史上一些较有影响的作家的创作倾向、思想方法、在文学史上的地位和成就以及对本国文学乃至世界所产生的影响等等。在此基础上,使学生了解一些名家的代表作品的思想意义、文学价值、写作手法、语言技巧等,为学生毕业后的教学、研究打下基础。美国文学的历史距今不过二百来年,和欧洲任何一个国家的文学史相比,它是历时最短而发展最快的。从本杰明•富兰克林到一次世界大战前的美国作家,为美国文学赢得了一定的荣誉。但真正为美国文学赢得世界荣誉的则是一战后崛起的一些作家。通过对美国各历史段代背景和重要作家及其代表作品的介绍,使学生了解美国文学发展的历史及各个时期的主要文学流派及其创作特点。通过文本学习提高学生的文学阅读、理解与鉴赏能力以及口头与书面表达等语言技能;并且通过大量阅读与讨论加强学生对文学本质的意识,提高他们的综合人文素质,增强他们对西方文学及文化的理解

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程共72课时,分配如下:

《美国文学(一)》

First Semester 36 hours

Unit One: Early American and Colonial Period to 1776 6 学时

- 1. Indian Literature
- 2. The Literature of Exploration
- 3. The Colonial Period in New England
- 4.William Bradford (1590-1657)
- 5.Anne Bradstreet (c. 1612-1672)
- 6.Cotton Mather (1663-1728)
- 7. Jonathan Edwards (1703-1758)

Unit Two: Democratic Origins and Revolutionary Writers, 1776-1820 6 学时

英语专业课程教学大纲	
1. The Background	
2. The American Enlightenment	
3. Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790)	
4. The Political Pamphlet: Thomas Paine (1737-1809)	
5. Neoclassism: Epic, Mock Epic, and Satire	
6. Writers of Fiction	
7.Charles Brockden Brown (1771-1810)	
8. Washington Irving (1789-1859)	
9.James Fenimore Cooper (1789-1851)	
Unit Tree: The Romantic Period, 1820-1860: Essayists ar	nd Poets 8 学时
1. The Background	
2. Transcendentalism	
2. Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882)	
3. Henry David Thoreau (1817-1862)	
4. Walt Whitman (1819-1892)	
5. The Brahmin Poets	
6. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807-1882)	
7. James Russell Lowell (1819-1891)	
8. Emily Dickinson (1830-1886)	
Unit Four: The Romantic Period, 1820-1860: Fiction	6 学时
1. The background	
2. The Romance	
3. Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804-1864)	
4. Herman Melville (1819-1891)	
<u>5.</u> Edgar Allan Poe (1809-1849)	
6. Harriet Beecher Stowe (1811-1896)	
Unit Five: The Rise of Realism: 1860-1914	10 学时
1. The Background	
2. Samuel Clemens (MARK TWAIN) (1835-1910)	
3. Frontier Humor and Realism	
4. Local Colorists	
5. Midwestern Realism	
6. Cosmopolitan Novelists	
7. Naturalism and Muckraking	
7. Stephen Crane (1871-1900)	
9 Jack London (1876-1916)	
10. Theodore Dreiser (1871-1945)	
11. The "Chicago School" of Poetry	
12. Edgar Lee Masters (1868-1950)	
13. Carl Sandburg (1878-1967)	

14. Edwin Arlington Robinson (1869-1935)

15. Two Women Regional Novelists

16. The Rise of Black American Literature

《美国文学(二)》

Second Semester 36 hours

Unit Six: Modernism and Experimentation: 1914-1945 8 学时

- 1. The Background
- 2. Modernism
- 3. Poetry 1914-1945: Experiments in form Poetry
- 4. Between the Wars
- 5. Prose Writing,1914-1945: American Realsm
- 6. Novels of Social Awareness
- 7. The Harlem Renaissance
- 8. Literary Cureents: The Fugitives and New Criticism
- 9. 20th Century American Drama

Unit Seven: American Poetry Since 1945: The Anti-Tradition 10 学时

- 1. The background
- 2. Traditionalism
- 2. Robert Lowell (1917-1977)
- 3. Idiosyncratic Poets
- 4. Experimental Poetry
- 5. The Black Mountain School
- 6. Beat Poets
- 8. The New York School
- 9. Surrealism and Existentialism
- 9. Women And Multiethnic Poets
- 10. Chicano/Hispanic/Latino Poetry
- 11. <u>African-American Poetry</u>

<u>Unit Eight: American Prose Since 1945: Realism and Experimentation 10 学时</u>

- 1. Background
- 2. The Realist Legacy and The Late 1940s
- 3. The Affluent but Alienated 1950s
- 4. The Turbulent But Creative 1960s
- 5. The 1970s and 1980s: New Directions
- 6. The New Regionalism
- 7. The 21st Century

Unit Nine: Southern Literature 4 学时

Unit Ten: African American Literature 2 学时

Unit Eleven: Jewish American Literature 2 学时

Unit One: Early American and Colonial Period to 1776

1. INDIAN LITERATURE

American literature begins with the orally transmitted myths, legends, tales, and lyrics (always songs) of Indian cultures. There was no written literature among the more than 500 different Indian languages and tribal cultures that existed in North America before the first Europeans arrived.

Tribes maintained their own religions -- worshipping gods, animals, plants, or sacred persons. Systems of government ranged from democracies to councils of elders to theocracies

(n.神权政治),. These tribal variations enter into the oral literature as well.

Still, it is possible to make a few generalizations. Indian stories, for example, glow with reverence for nature as a spiritual as well as physical mother. Nature is alive and endowed with spiritual forces; main characters may be animals or plants, often totems

(n.图腾), associated with a tribe, group, or individual. The closest to the Indian sense of holiness in later American literature is Ralph Waldo Emerson's transcendental "Over-Soul," which pervades all of life.

Examples of almost every oral genre can be found in American Indian literature: lyrics, chants, myths, fairy tales, humorous anecdotes, incantations (咒语), riddles, proverbs, epics, and legendary histories. Accounts of migrations and ancestors abound, as do vision or healing songs and tricksters' (巫师) tales.

The songs or poetry, like the narratives, range from the sacred to the light and humorous: There are lullables (摇篮曲), war chants, love songs, and special songs for children's games, gambling, various chores, magic, or dance ceremonials. Generally the songs are repetitive. Short poem-songs given in dreams sometimes have the clear imagery and subtle mood associated with Japanese haiku(俳句) or Eastern-influenced imagistic poetry. A Chippewa(齐佩瓦族) song runs:

A loon I thought it was

But it was

My love's

splashing oar.

Vision songs, often very short, are another distinctive form. Appearing in dreams or visions, sometimes with no warning, they may be healing, hunting, or love songs. Often they are personal, as in this Modoc song:

I

the song

I walk here.

Indian oral tradition and its relation to American literature as a whole is one of the richest and least explored topics in American studies. The Indian contribution to America is greater than is often believed. The hundreds of Indian words in everyday American English include "canoe," "tobacco," "potato," "moccasin,"(鹿皮鞋) "moose,"(驼鹿) "persimmon,"(柿子) "raccoon,"(浣熊) "tomahawk,"(战斧) and "totem." Contemporary Native American writing, discussed in chapter 8, also contains works of great beauty.

2. THE LITERATURE OF EXPLORATION

Had history taken a different turn, the United States easily could have been a part of the great Spanish or French overseas empires. Its present inhabitants might speak Spanish and form one nation with Mexico, or speak French and be joined with Canadian Francophone Quebec and Montreal.

Yet the earliest explorers of America were not English, Spanish, or French. The first European record of exploration in America is in a Scandinavian language. The Old Norse *Vinland Saga* recounts how the adventurous Leif Eriksson and a band of wandering Norsemen settled briefly somewhere on the northeast coast of America -- probably Nova Scotia, in Canada -- in the first decade of the 11th century, almost 400 years before the next recorded European discovery of the New World.

The first known and sustained contact between the Americas and the rest of the world, however, began with the famous voyage of an Italian explorer, Christopher Columbus, funded by the Spanish rulers Ferdinand and Isabella. Columbus's journal in his "Epistola," printed in 1493, recounts the trip's drama -- the terror of the men, who feared monsters and thought they might fall off the edge of the world; the near-mutiny (兵变); how Columbus faked the ships' logs (日志) so the men would not know how much farther they had travelled than anyone had gone before; and the first sighting of land as they neared America.

Bartolomé de las Casas is the richest source of information about the early contact between American Indians and Europeans. As a young priest he helped conquer Cuba. He transcribed Columbus's journal, and late in life wrote a long, vivid *History of the Indians* criticizing their enslavement by the Spanish.

Initial English attempts at colonization were disasters. The first colony was set up in 1585 at Roanoke, off the coast of North Carolina; all its colonists disappeared, and to this day legends are told about blue-eyed Croatan Indians of the area. The second colony was more permanent: Jamestown, established in 1607. It endured starvation, brutality, and misrule. However, the literature of the period paints America in glowing colors as the land of riches and opportunity. Accounts of the colonizations became world-renowned. The exploration of Roanoke was carefully recorded by Thomas Hariot in *A Briefe and True Report of the New-Found Land of Virginia* (1588). Hariot's book was quickly translated into Latin, French, and German; the text and pictures were made into engravings and widely republished for over 200 years.

The Jamestown colony's main record, the writings of Captain John Smith, one of its leaders, is the exact opposite of Hariot's accurate, scientific account. Smith was an incurable romantic, and he seems to have embroidered his adventures. To him we owe the famous story of the Indian maiden, Pocahontas. Whether fact or fiction, the tale is ingrained in the American historical imagination.

In the 17th century, pirates, adventurers, and explorers opened the way to a second wave of permanent colonists, bringing their wives, children, farm implements, and craftsmen's tools. The early literature of exploration, made up of diaries, letters, travel journals, ships' logs, and reports to the explorers' financial backers -- European rulers or, in mercantile England and Holland, joint stock companies -- gradually was supplanted by records of the settled colonies. Because England eventually took possession of the North American colonies, the best-known and most-anthologized colonial literature is English. As American minority literature continues to flower in the 20th century and American life becomes increasingly multicultural, scholars are rediscovering the importance of the continent's mixed ethnic heritage. Although the story of literature now turns to the English accounts, it is important to recognize its richly cosmopolitan beginnings.

3. THE COLONIAL PERIOD IN NEW ENGLAND

It is likely that no other colonists in the history of the world were as intellectual as the Puritans. Between 1630 and 1690, there were as many university graduates in the northeastern section of the United States, known as New England, as in the mother country -- an astounding fact when one considers that most educated people of the time were aristocrats who were unwilling to risk their lives in wilderness conditions. The self-made and often self-educated Puritans were notable exceptions. They wanted education to understand and execute God's will as they established their colonies throughout New England.

4. William Bradford (1590-1657)

William Bradford was elected governor of Plymouth in the Massachusetts Bay Colony shortly after the Separatists landed. He was a deeply pious, self-educated man who had learned several languages, including Hebrew, in order to "see with his own eyes the ancient oracles of God in their native beauty." His participation in the migration to Holland and the *Mayflower* voyage to Plymouth, and his duties as governor, made him ideally suited to be the first historian of his colony. His history, *Of Plymouth Plantation* (1651), is a clear and compelling account of the colony's beginning. His description of the first view of America is justly famous:

5.Anne Bradstreet (c. 1612-1672)

The first published book of poems by an American was also the first American book to be published by a woman -- Anne Bradstreet. It is not surprising that the book was published in England, given the lack of printing presses in the early years of the first American colonies. Born and educated in England, Anne Bradstreet was the daughter of an earl's estate manager. She emigrated with her family when she was 18. Her husband eventually became governor of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, which later grew into the great city of Boston. She preferred her long, religious poems on conventional subjects such as the seasons, but contemporary readers most enjoy the witty poems on subjects from daily life and her warm and loving poems to her husband and children. She was inspired by English metaphysical poetry, and her book *The Tenth Muse Lately Sprung Up in America* (1650) shows the influence of Edmund Spenser, Philip Sidney, and other English poets as well. She often uses elaborate conceits or extended metaphors. "To My Dear and Loving Husband" (1678) uses the oriental imagery, love theme, and idea of comparison popular in Europe at the time, but gives these a pious meaning at the poem's conclusion:

6.Cotton Mather (1663-1728)

No account of New England colonial literature would be complete without mentioning Cotton Mather, the master pedant. The third in the four-generation Mather dynasty of Massachusetts Bay, he wrote at length of New England in over 500 books and pamphlets. Mather's 1702 *Magnalia Christi Americana (Ecclesiastical History of New England)*, his most ambitious work, exhaustively chronicles the settlement of New England through a series of biographies. The huge book presents the holy Puritan errand into the wilderness to establish God s kingdom; its structure is a narrative progression of representative American "Saints' Lives." His zeal somewhat redeems his pompousness: "I write the wonders of the Christian religion, flying from the deprivations of Europe to the American strand."

7. Jonathan Edwards (1703-1758)

The antithesis of John Woolman is Jonathan Edwards, who was born only 17 years before the Quaker notable. Woolman had little formal schooling; Edwards was highly educated. Woolman followed his inner light; Edwards was devoted to the law and authority. Both men were fine writers, but they reveal opposite poles of the colonial religious experience.

Unit Two: Democratic Origins and Revolutionary Writers, 1776-1820

1. The background

The hard-fought American Revolution against Britain (1775-1783) was the first modern war of liberation against a colonial power. The triumph of American independence seemed to many at the time a divine sign that America and her people were destined for greatness. Military victory fanned nationalistic hopes for a great new literature. Yet with the exception of outstanding political writing, few works of note appeared during or soon after the Revolution.

2. THE AMERICAN ENLIGHTENMENT

The 18th-century American Enlightenment was a movement marked by an emphasis on rationality rather than tradition, scientific inquiry instead of unquestioning religious dogma, and representative government in place of monarchy. Enlightenment thinkers and writers were devoted to the ideals of justice, liberty, and equality as the natural rights of man.

3.Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790)

Benjamin Franklin, whom the Scottish philosopher David Hume called America's "first great man of letters," embodied the Enlightenment ideal of humane rationality. Practical yet idealistic, hard-working and enormously successful, Franklin recorded his early life in his famous *Autobiography*. Writer, printer, publisher, scientist, philanthropist, and diplomat, he was the most famous and respected private figure of his time. He was the first great self-made man in America, a poor democrat born in an aristocratic age that his fine example helped to liberalize.

4. THE POLITICAL PAMPHLET: Thomas Paine (1737-1809)

The passion of Revolutionary literature is found in pamphlets, the most popular form of political literature of the day. Over 2,000 pamphlets were published during the Revolution. The pamphlets thrilled patriots and threatened loyalists; they filled the role of drama, as they were often read aloud in public to excite audiences. American soldiers read them aloud in their camps; British Loyalists threw them into public bonfires.

5. NEOCLASSISM: EPIC, MOCK EPIC, AND SATIRE

Unfortunately, "literary" writing was not as simple and direct as political writing. When trying to write poetry, most educated authors stumbled into the pitfall of elegant neoclassicism. The epic, in particular, exercised a fatal attraction. American literary patriots felt sure that the great American Revolution naturally would find expression in the epic -- a long, dramatic narrative poem in elevated language, celebrating the feats of a legendary hero.

6.WRITERS OF FICTION

The first important fiction writers widely recognized today, Charles Brockden Brown, Washington Irving, and James Fenimore Cooper, used American subjects, historical perspectives, themes of change, and nostalgic tones. They wrote in many prose genres, initiated new forms, and found new ways to make a living through literature. With them, American literature began to be read and appreciated in the United States and abroad.

7. Charles Brockden Brown (1771-1810)

Brown used distinctively American settings. A man of ideas, he dramatized scientific theories, developed a personal theory of fiction, and championed high literary standards despite personal poverty. Though flawed, his works are darkly powerful. Increasingly, he is seen as the precursor of romantic writers like Edgar Allan Poe, Herman Melville, and Nathaniel Hawthorne. He expresses subconscious fears that the outwardly optimistic Enlightenment period drove underground.

8. Washington Irving (1789-1859)

The youngest of 11 children born to a well-to-do New York merchant family, Washington Irving became a cultural and diplomatic ambassador to Europe, like Benjamin Franklin and Nathaniel Hawthorne. Despite his talent, he probably would not have become a full-time professional writer, given the lack of financial rewards, if a series of fortuitous incidents had not thrust writing as a profession upon him. Through friends, he was able to publish his *Sketch Book* (1819-1820) simultaneously in England and America, obtaining copyrights and payment in both countries.

9.James Fenimore Cooper (1789-1851)

James Fenimore Cooper, like Irving, evoked a sense of the past and gave it a local habitation and a name. In Cooper, though, one finds the powerful myth of a golden age and the poignance of its loss. While Irving and other American writers before and after him scoured Europe in search of its legends, castles, and great themes, Cooper grasped the essential myth of America: that it was timeless, like the wilderness. American history was a trespass on the eternal; European history in America was a reenactment of the fall in the Garden of Eden. The cyclical realm of nature was glimpsed only in the act of destroying it: The wilderness disappeared in front of American eyes, vanishing before the oncoming pioneers like a mirage. This is Cooper's basic tragic vision of the ironic destruction of the wilderness, the new Eden that had attracted the colonists in the first place.

Unit Three: The Romantic Period, 1820-1860: Essayists and Poets

1. The background

The Romantic movement, which originated in Germany but quickly spread to England, France, and beyond, reached America around the year 1820, some 20 years after William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge had revolutionized English poetry by publishing Lyrical Ballads. In America as in Europe, fresh new vision electrified artistic and intellectual circles. Yet there was an important difference: Romanticism in America coincided with the period of national expansion and the discovery of a distinctive American voice. The solidification of a national identity and the surging idealism and passion of Romanticism nurtured (补养) the masterpieces of "the American Renaissance."

2. TRANSCENDENTALISM

The Transcendentalist movement was a reaction against 18th century rationalism and a manifestation of the general humanitarian trend of 19th century thought. The movement was based on a fundamental belief in the unity of the world and God. The soul of each individual was thought to be identical with the world -- a microcosm(微观世界) of the world itself. The doctrine of self- reliance and individualism developed through the belief in the identification of the individual soul with God.

2. Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882)

Ralph Waldo Emerson, the towering figure of his era, had a religious sense of mission. Although many accused him of subverting (搅乱) Christianity, he explained that, for him "to be a good minister, it was necessary to leave the church." The address he delivered in 1838 at his the Harvard Divinity School, made him unwelcome at Harvard for 30 years. In it, Emerson accused the church of acting "as if God were dead" and of emphasizing dogma while stifling the spirit.

3. Henry David Thoreau (1817-1862)

Henry David Thoreau, of French and Scottish descent, was born in Concord and made it his permanent home. From a poor family, like Emerson, he worked his way through Harvard. Throughout his life, he reduced his needs to the simplest level and managed to live on very little money, thus maintaining his independence. In essence, he made living his career. A nonconformist, he attempted to live his life at all times according to his rigorous principles. This attempt was the subject of many of his writings.

4. Walt Whitman (1819-1892)

Born on Long Island, New York, Walt Whitman was a part-time carpenter and man of the people, whose brilliant, innovative work expressed the country's democratic spirit. Whitman was largely self-taught; he left school at the age of 11 to go to work, missing the sort of traditional education that made most American authors respectful imitators of the English. *His Leaves of Grass* (1855), which he rewrote and revised throughout his life, contains "Song of Myself," the most stunningly original poem ever written by an American. The enthusiastic praise that Emerson and a few others heaped on this daring volume confirmed Whitman in his poetic vocation, although the book was not a popular success.

5.THE BRAHMIN POETS

*I*n their time, the Boston Brahmins (as the patrician, Harvard-educated class came to be called) supplied the most respected and genuinely cultivated literary arbiters of the United States. Their lives fitted a pleasant pattern of wealth and leisure directed by the strong New England work ethic and respect for learning.

Unit Four: The Romantic Period, 1820-1860: Fiction

1. The background

W alt Whitman, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Herman Melville, Edgar Allan Poe, Emily Dickinson, and the Transcendentalists represent the first great literary generation produced in the United States. In the case of the novelists, the Romantic vision tended to express itself in the form Hawthorne called the "Romance," a heightened, emotional, and symbolic form of the novel. Romances were not love stories, but serious novels that used special techniques to communicate complex and subtle meanings.

2. THE ROMANCE

The Romance form is dark and forbidding, indicating how difficult it is to create an identity without a stable society. Most of the Romantic heroes die in the end: All the sailors except Ishmael are drowned in Moby-Dick, and the sensitive but sinful minister Arthur Dimmesdale dies at the end of The Scarlet Letter. The self-divided, tragic note in American literature becomes dominant in the novels, even before the Civil War of the 1860s manifested the greater social tragedy of a society at war with itself.

3.Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804-1864)

Nathaniel Hawthorne, a fifth-generation American of English descent, was born in Salem, Massachusetts, a wealthy seaport north of Boston that specialized in East India trade. One of his ancestors had been a judge in an earlier century, during trials in Salem of women accused of being witches. Hawthorne used the idea of a curse on the family of an evil judge in his novel *The House of the Seven Gables*.

4. Herman Melville (1819-1891)

Herman Melville, like Nathaniel Hawthorne, was a descendant of an old, wealthy family that fell abruptly into poverty upon the death of the father. Despite his patrician upbringing, proud family traditions, and hard work, Melville found himself in poverty with no college education. At 19 he went to sea. His interest in sailors' lives grew naturally out of his own experiences, and most of his early novels grew out of his voyages. In these we see the young Melville's wide, democratic experience and hatred of tyranny and injustice. His first book, *Typee*, was based on his time spent among the supposedly cannibalistic but hospitable tribe of the Taipis in the Marquesas Islands of the South Pacific. The book praises the islanders and their natural, harmonious life, and criticizes the Christian missionaries, who Melville found less genuinely civilized than the people they came to convert.

5. Edgar Allan Poe (1809-1849)

Edgar Allan Poe, a southerner, shares with Melville a darkly metaphysical vision mixed with elements of realism, parody, and burlesque. He refined the short story genre and invented detective fiction. Many of his stories prefigure the genres of science fiction, horror, and fantasy so popular today.

Poe's short and tragic life was plagued with insecurity. Like so many other major 19th-century American writers, Poe was orphaned at an early age. Poe's strange marriage in 1835 to his first cousin Virginia Clemm, who was not yet 14, has been interpreted as an attempt to find the stable family life he lacked.

Unit Five: The Rise of Realism: 1860-1914

1. The Background

The U.S. Civil War (1861-1865) between the industrial North and the agricultural, slave-owning South was a watershed in American history. The innocent optimism of the young democratic nation gave way, after the war, to a period of exhaustion. American idealism remained but was rechanneled. Before the war, idealists championed human rights, especially the abolition of slavery; after the war, Americans increasingly idealized progress and the self-made man. This was the era of the millionaire manufacturer and the speculator, when Darwinian evolution and the "survival of the fittest" seemed to sanction the sometimes unethical methods of the successful business tycoon.

2. SAMUEL CLEMENS (MARK TWAIN) (1835-1910)

S amuel Clemens, better known by his pen name of Mark Twain, grew up in the Mississippi River frontier town of Hannibal, Missouri. Ernest Hemingway's famous statement that all of American literature comes from one great book, Twain's Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, indicates this author's towering place in the tradition. Early 19th-century American writers tended to be too flowery, sentimental, or ostentatious -- partially because they were still trying to prove that they could write as elegantly as the English. Twain's style, based on vigorous, realistic, colloquial American speech, gave American writers a new appreciation of their national voice. Twain was the first major author to come from the interior of the country, and he captured its distinctive, humorous slang and iconoclasm.

For Twain and other American writers of the late 19th century, realism was not merely a literary technique: It was a way of speaking truth and exploding worn-out conventions. Thus it was profoundly liberating and potentially at odds with society. The most well-known example is Huck Finn, a poor boy who decides to follow the voice of his conscience and help a Negro slave escape to freedom, even though Huck thinks this means that he will be damned to hell for breaking the law.

3. FRONTIER HUMOR AND REALISM

Two major literary currents in 19th-century America merged in Mark Twain: popular frontier humor and local color, or "regionalism." These related literary approaches began in the 1830s -- and had even earlier roots in local oral traditions. In ragged frontier villages, on riverboats, in mining camps, and around cowboy campfires far from city amusements, storytelling flourished. Exaggeration, tall tales, incredible boasts, and comic workingmen heroes enlivened frontier literature. These humorous forms were found in many frontier regions -- in the "old Southwest" (the present-day inland South and the lower Midwest), the mining frontier, and the Pacific Coast. Each region had its colorful characters around whom stories collected: Mike Fink, the Mississippi riverboat brawler; Casey Jones, the brave railroad engineer; John Henry, the steel-driving African-American; Paul Bunyan, the giant logger whose fame was helped along by advertising; westerners Kit Carson, the Indian fighter, and Davy Crockett, the scout. Their exploits were exaggerated and enhanced in ballads, newspapers, and magazines. Sometimes, as with Kit Carson and Davy Crockett, these stories were strung together into book form.

4. Edith Wharton (1862-1937)

Like James, Edith Wharton grew up partly in Europe and eventually made her home there. She was descended from a wealthy, established family in New York society and saw firsthand the decline of this

cultivated group and, in her view, the rise of boorish, nouveau-riche business families. This social transformation is the background of many of her novels.

Like James, Wharton contrasts Americans and Europeans. The core of her concern is the gulf separating social reality and the inner self. Often a sensitive character feels trapped by unfeeling characters or social forces. Edith Wharton had personally experienced such entrapment as a young writer suffering a long nervous breakdown partly due to the conflict in roles between writer and wife.

Wharton's best novels include *The House of Mirth* (1905), *The Custom of the Country* (1913), *Summer* (1917), *The Age of Innocence* (1920), and the beautifully crafted novella *Ethan Frome* (1911).

5. NATURALISM AND MUCKRAKING

W harton's and James's dissections of hidden sexual and financial motivations at work in society link them with writers who seem superficially quite different: Stephen Crane, Jack London, Frank Norris, Theodore Dreiser, and Upton Sinclair. Like the cosmopolitan novelists, but much more explicitly, these naturalists used realism to relate the individual to society. Often they exposed social problems and were influenced by Darwinian thought and the related philosophical doctrine of determinism, which views individuals as the helpless pawns of economic and social forces beyond their control.

6. Stephen Crane (1871-1900)

Stephen Crane, born in New Jersey, had roots going back to Revolutionary War soldiers, clergymen, sheriffs, judges, and farmers who had lived a century earlier. Primarily a journalist who also wrote fiction, essays, poetry, and plays, Crane saw life at its rawest, in slums and on battlefields. His short stories -- in particular, "The Open Boat," "The Blue Hotel," and "The Bride Comes to Yellow Sky" -- exemplified that literary form. His haunting Civil War novel, *The Red Badge of Courage*, was published to great acclaim in 1895, but he barely had time to bask in the attention before he died, at 29, having neglected his health. He was virtually forgotten during the first two decades of the 20th century, but was resurrected through a laudatory biography by Thomas Beer in 1923. He has enjoyed continued success ever since -- as a champion of the common man, a realist, and a symbolist.

7Jack London (1876-1916)

A poor, self-taught worker from California, the naturalist Jack London was catapulted from poverty to fame by his first collection of stories, *The Son of the Wolf* (1900), set largely in the Klondike region of Alaska and the Canadian Yukon. Other of his best-sellers, including *The Call of the Wild* (1903) and *The Sea-Wolf* (1904) made him the highest paid writer in the United States of his time.

Unit Six: Modernism and Experimentation: 1914-1945

1. The background

M any historians have characterized the period between the two world wars as the United States' traumatic "coming of age," despite the fact that U.S. direct involvement was relatively brief (1917-1918) and its casualties many fewer than those of its European allies and foes. John Dos Passos expressed America's postwar disillusionment in the novel *Three Soldiers* (1921), when he noted that civilization was a "vast edifice of sham, and the war, instead of its crumbling, was its fullest and most ultimate expression." Shocked and permanently changed, Americans returned to their homeland but could never regain their innocence.

Nor could soldiers from rural America easily return to their roots. After experiencing the world, many now yearned for a modern, urban life. New farm machines such as planters, harvesters, and binders had drastically reduced the demand for farm jobs; yet despite their increased productivity, farmers were poor. Crop prices, like urban workers' wages, depended on unrestrained market forces heavily influenced by business interests: Government subsidies for farmers and effective workers' unions had not yet become established. "The chief business of the American people is business," President Calvin Coolidge proclaimed in 1925, and most agreed.

2. MODERNISM

3. POETRY 1914-1945: EXPERIMENTS IN FORM

Ezra Pound (1885-1972)

Ezra Pound was one of the most influential American poets of this century. From 1908 to 1920, he resided in London, where he associated with many writers, including William Butler Yeats, for whom he worked as a secretary, and T.S. Eliot, whose *Waste Land* he drastically edited and improved. He was a link between the United States and Britain, acting as contributing editor to Harriet Monroe's important Chicago magazine *Poetry* and spearheading the new school of poetry known as Imagism, which advocated a clear, highly visual presentation. After Imagism, he championed various poetic approaches. He eventually moved to Italy, where he became caught up in Italian Fascism.

T.S. Eliot (1888-1965)

Thomas Stearns Eliot was born in St. Louis, Missouri, to a well- to-do family with roots in the northeastern United States. He received the best education of any major American writer of his generation at Harvard College, the Sorbonne, and Merton College of Oxford University. He studied Sanskrit and Oriental philosophy, which influenced his poetry. Like his friend Pound, he went to England early and became a towering figure in the literary world there. One of the most respected poets of his day, his modernist, seemingly illogical or abstract iconoclastic poetry had revolutionary impact. He also wrote influential essays and dramas, and championed the importance of literary and social traditions for the modern poet.

Robert Frost (1874-1963)

Robert Lee Frost was born in California but raised on a farm in the northeastern United States until the age of 10. Like Eliot and Pound, he went to England, attracted by new movements in poetry there. A charismatic public reader, he was renowned for his tours. He read an original work at the inauguration of President John F. Kennedy in 1961 that helped spark a national interest in poetry. His popularity is easy to

explain: He wrote of traditional farm life, appealing to a nostalgia for the old ways. His subjects are universal -- apple picking, stone walls, fences, country roads. Frost's approach was lucid and accessible: He rarely employed pedantic allusions or ellipses. His frequent use of rhyme also appealed to the general audience.

William Carlos Williams (1883-1963)

William Carlos Williams was a practicing pediatrician throughout his life; he delivered over 2,000 babies and wrote poems on his prescription pads. Williams was a classmate of poets Ezra Pound and Hilda Doolittle, and his early poetry reveals the influence of Imagism. He later went on to champion the use of colloquial speech; his ear for the natural rhythms of American English helped free American poetry from the iambic meter that had dominated English verse since the Renaissance. His sympathy for ordinary working people, children, and everyday events in modern urban settings make his poetry attractive and accessible. "The Red Wheelbarrow" (1923), like a Dutch still life, finds interest and beauty in everyday objects.

3.PROSE WRITING, 1914-1945: AMERICAN REALISM

A Ithough American prose between the wars experimented with viewpoint and form, Americans wrote more realistically, on the whole, than did Europeans. Novelist Ernest Hemingway wrote of war, hunting, and other masculine pursuits in a stripped, plain style; William Faulkner set his powerful southern novels spanning generations and cultures firmly in Mississippi heat and dust; and Sinclair Lewis delineated bourgeois lives with ironic clarity.

The importance of facing reality became a dominant theme in the 1920s and 1930s: Writers such as F. Scott Fitzgerald and the playwright Eugene O'Neill repeatedly portrayed the tragedy awaiting those who live in flimsy dreams.

F. Scott Fitzgerald (1896-1940),

Francis Scott Key Fitzgerald's life resembles a fairy tale. During World War I, Fitzgerald enlisted in the U.S. Army and fell in love with a rich and beautiful girl, Zelda Sayre, who lived near Montgomery, Alabama, where he was stationed. Zelda broke off their engagement because he was relatively poor. After he was discharged at war's end, he went to seek his literary fortune in New York City in order to marry her.

His first novel, *This Side of Paradise* (1920), became a best- seller, and at 24 they married. Neither of them was able to withstand the stresses of success and fame, and they squandered their money. They moved to France to economize in 1924 and returned seven years later. Zelda became mentally unstable and had to be institutionalized; Fitzgerald himself became an alcoholic and died young as a movie screenwriter.

Ernest Hemingway (1899-1961)

Few writers have lived as colorfully as Ernest Hemingway, whose career could have come out of one his adventurous novels. Like Fitzgerald, Dreiser, and many other fine novelists of the 20th century, Hemingway came from the U.S. Midwest. Born in Illinois, Hemingway spent childhood vacations in Michigan on hunting and fishing trips. He volunteered for an ambulance unit in France during World War I, but was wounded and hospitalized for six months. After the war, as a war correspondent based in Paris, he met expatriate American writers Sherwood Anderson, Ezra Pound, F. Scott Fitzgerald, and Gertrude Stein. Stein, in particular, influenced his spare style.

William Faulkner (1897-1962)

Born to an old southern family, William Harrison Faulkner was raised in Oxford, Mississippi, where he lived most of his life. Faulkner created an entire imaginative landscape, Yoknapatawpha County, mentioned in numerous novels, along with several families with interconnections extending back for generations. Yoknapatawpha County, with its capital, "Jefferson," is closely modeled on Oxford, Mississippi, and its surroundings. Faulkner re-creates the history of the land and the various races -- Indian, African-American, Euro-American, and various mixtures -- who have lived on it. An innovative writer, Faulkner experimented brilliantly with narrative chronology, different points of view and voices (including those of outcasts, children, and illiterates), and a rich and demanding baroque style built of extremely long sentences full of complicated subordinate parts.

4.NOVELS OF SOCIAL AWARENESS

S ince the 1890s, an undercurrent of social protest had coursed through American literature, welling up in the naturalism of Stephen Crane and Theodore Dreiser and in the clear messages of the muckraking novelists. Later socially engaged authors included Sinclair Lewis, John Steinbeck, John Dos Passos, Richard Wright, and the dramatist Clifford Odets. They were linked to the 1930s in their concern for the welfare of the common citizen and their focus on groups of people -- the professions, as in Sinclair Lewis's archetypal Arrowsmith (a physician) or Babbitt (a local businessman); families, as in Steinbeck's The Grapes of Wrath; or urban masses, as Dos Passos accomplishes through his 11 major characters in his U.S.A. trilogy.

5.20TH-CENTURY AMERICAN DRAMA

A merican drama imitated English and European theater until well into the 20th century. Often, plays from England or translated from European languages dominated theater seasons. An inadequate copyright law that failed to protect and promote American dramatists worked against genuinely original drama. So did the "star system," in which actors and actresses, rather than the actual plays, were given most acclaim. Americans flocked to see European actors who toured theaters in the United States. In addition, imported drama, like imported wine, enjoyed higher status than indigenous productions.

During the 19th century, melodramas with exemplary democratic figures and clear contrasts between good and evil had been popular. Plays about social problems such as slavery also drew large audiences; sometimes these plays were adaptations of novels like *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. Not until the 20th century would serious plays attempt aesthetic innovation. Popular culture showed vital developments, however, especially in vaudeville (popular variety theater involving skits, clowning, music, and the like). Minstrel shows, based on African-American music and folkways -- performed by white characters using "blackface" makeup -- also developed original forms and expressions.

Eugene O'Neill (1888-1953)

Eugene O'Neill is the great figure of American theater. His numerous plays combine enormous technical originality with freshness of vision and emotional depth. O'Neill's earliest dramas concern the working class and poor; later works explore subjective realms, such as obsessions and sex, and underscore his reading in Freud and his anguished attempt to come to terms with his dead mother, father, and brother. His play *Desire Under the Elms* (1924) recreates the passions hidden within one family; *The Great God Brown* (1926) uncovers the unconsciousness of a wealthy businessman; and *Strange Interlude* (1928), a winner of the Pulitzer Prize, traces the tangled loves of one woman. These powerful plays reveal different personalities reverting to primitive emotions or confusion under intense stress.

Unit Seven: American Poetry Since 1945: The Anti-Tradition

1. The background

A shift away from an assumption that traditional forms, ideas, and history can provide meaning and continuity to human life has occurred in the contemporary literary imagination throughout many parts of the world, including the United States. Events since World War II have produced a sense of history as discontinuous: Each act, emotion, and moment is seen as unique. Style and form now seem provisional, makeshift, reflexive of the process of composition and the writer's self-awareness. Familiar categories of expression are suspect; originality is becoming a new tradition.

2. TRADITIONALISM

T raditional writers include acknowledged masters of traditional forms and diction who write with a readily recognizable craft, often using rhyme or a set metrical pattern. Often they are from the U.S. Eastern seaboard or from the southern part of the country, and teach in colleges and universities. Richard Eberhart and Richard Wilbur; the older Fugitive poets John Crowe Ransom, Allen Tate, and Robert Penn Warren; such accomplished younger poets as John Hollander and Richard Howard; and the early Robert Lowell are examples. They are established and frequently anthologized.

2 JDIOSYNCRATIC POETS

P oets who have developed unique styles drawing on tradition but extending it into new realms with a distinctively contemporary flavor, in addition to Plath and Sexton, include John Berryman, Theodore Roethke, Richard Hugo, Philip Levine, James Dickey, Elizabeth Bishop, and Adrienne Rich.

Sylvia Plath (1932-1963)

Sylvia Plath lived an outwardly exemplary life, attending Smith College on scholarship, graduating first in her class, and winning a Fulbright grant to Cambridge University in England. There she met her charismatic husband-to-be, poet Ted Hughes, with whom she had two children and settled in a country house in England. Beneath the fairy-tale success festered unresolved psychological problems evoked in her highly readable novel *The Bell Jar* (1963). Some of these problems were personal, while others arose from repressive 1950s attitudes toward women. Among these were the beliefs -- shared by most women themselves -- that women should not show anger or ambitiously pursue a career, and instead find fulfillment in tending their husbands and children. Successful women like Plath lived a contradiction.

3.EXPERIMENTAL POETRY

The force behind Lowell's mature achievement and much of contemporary poetry lies in the experimentation begun in the 1950s by a number of poets. They may be divided into five loose schools, identified by Donald Allen in his *The New American Poetry* (1960), the first anthology to present the work of poets who were previously neglected by the critical and academic communities.

4. The Black Mountain School

The Black Mountain School centered around Black Mountain College an experimental liberal arts college in Asheville, North Carolina, where poets Charles Olson, Robert Duncan, and Robert Creeley taught in the early 1950s. Ed Dorn, Joel Oppenheimer, and Jonathan Williams studied there, and Paul

Blackburn, Larry Eigner, and Denise Levertov published work in the school's magazines, *Origin* and the *Black Mountain Review*. The Black Mountain School is linked with Charles Olson's theory of "projective verse," which insisted on an open form based on the spontaneity of the breath pause in speech and the typewriter line in writing.

5.WOMEN AND MULTIETHNIC POETS

W omen's literature, like minority literature and surrealism, first became aware of itself as a driving force in American life during the late 1960s. It flourished in the feminist movement initiated in that era.

Literature in the United States, as in most other countries, was long based on male standards that often overlooked women's contributions. Yet there are many women poets of distinction in American writing. Not all are feminists, nor do their subjects invariably voice women's concerns. More often than not, they are humanists. Also, regional, political, and racial differences have shaped their work and given them food for thought. Distinguished women poets include Amy Clampitt, Rita Dove, Louise Gl ck, Jorie Graham, Carolyn Kizer, Maxine Kumin, Denise Levertov, Audre Lorde, Gjertrud Schnackenberg, May Swenson, and Mona Van Duyn.

Unit Eight: American Prose Since 1945: Realism and Experimentation

1. Background

N arrative since World War II resists generalization: It is extremely various and multifaceted. It has been vitalized by international currents such as European existentialism and Latin American magical realism, while the electronic era has brought the global village. The spoken word on television has given new life to oral tradition. Oral genes, media, and popular culture have increasingly influenced narrative.

2.THE REALIST LEGACY AND THE LATE 1940s

A s in the first half of the 20th century, fiction in the second half reflects the character of each decade. The late 1940s saw the aftermath of World War II and the beginning of the Cold War.

World War II offered prime material: Norman Mailer (*The Naked and the Dead*, 1948) and James Jones (*From Here to Eternity*, 1951) were two writers who used it best. Both of them employed realism verging on grim naturalism; both took pains not to glorify combat. The same was true for Irwin Shaw's *The Young Lions* (1948). Herman Wouk, in *The Caine Mutiny* (1951), also showed that human foibles were as evident in wartime as in civilian life. Later, Joseph Heller cast World War II in satirical and absurdist terms (*Catch-22*, 1961), arguing that war is laced with insanity. Thomas Pynchon presented an involuted, brilliant case parodying and displacing different versions of reality (*Gravity's Rainbow*, 1973); and Kurt Vonnegut, Jr., became one of the shining lights of the counterculture during the early 1970s following publication of *Slaughterhouse-Five*; or, *The Children's Crusade* (1969), his antiwar novel about the firebombing of Dresden, Germany, by Allied forces during World War II (which he witnessed on the ground as a prisoner of war).

3.THE AFFLUENT BUT ALIENATED 1950s

The 1950s saw the delayed impact of modernization and technology in everyday life, left over from the 1920s -- before the Great Depression. World War II brought the United States out of the Depression, and the 1950s provided most Americans with time to enjoy long-awaited material prosperity. Business, especially in the corporate world, seemed to offer the good life (usually in the suburbs), with its real and symbolic marks of success -- house, car, television, and home appliances.

James Baldwin (1924-1987)

James Baldwin and Ralph Ellison mirror the African-American experience of the 1950s. Their characters suffer from a lack of identity, rather than from over-ambition. Baldwin, the oldest of nine children born to a Harlem, New York, family, was the foster son of a minister. As a youth, Baldwin occasionally preached in the church. This experience helped shape the compelling, oral quality of Baldwin's prose, most clearly seen in his excellent essays, such as "Letter from a Region Of My Mind," from the collection The *Fire Next Time* (1963). In this, he argued movingly for an end to separation between the races.

Baldwin's first novel, the autobiographical *Go Tell It On the Mountain* (1953), is probably his best known. It is the story of a 14-year-old youth who seeks self-knowledge and religious faith as he wrestles with issues of Christian conversion in a storefront church. Other important Baldwin works include

Another Country (1962), a novel about racial issues and homosexuality, and Nobody Knows My Name (1961), a collection of passionate personal essays about racism, the role of the artist, and literature.

Ralph Waldo Ellison (1914-1994)

Ralph Ellison was a midwesterner, born in Oklahoma, who studied at Tuskegee Institute in the southern United States. He had one of the strangest careers in American letters -- consisting of one highly acclaimed book, and nothing more. The novel is *Invisible Man* (1952), the story of a black man who lives a subterranean existence in a hole brightly illuminated by electricity stolen from a utility company. The book recounts his grotesque, disenchanting experiences. When he wins a scholarship to a black college, he is humiliated by whites; when he gets to the college, he witnesses the black president spurning black American concerns. Life is corrupt outside college, too. For example, even religion is no consolation: A preacher turns out to be a criminal. The novel indicts society for failing to provide its citizens -- black and white -- with viable ideals and institutions for realizing them. It embodies a powerful racial theme because the "invisible man" is invisible not in himself but because others, blinded by prejudice, cannot see him for who he is.

Flannery O'Connor (1925-1964)

Flannery O'Connor, a native of Georgia, lived a life cut short by lupus, a deadly blood disease. Still, she refused sentimentality, as evident in her extremely humorous yet bleak and uncompromising stories. Unlike Porter, Welty, and Hurston, O'Connor most often held her characters at arm's length, revealing their inadequacy and silliness. The uneducated southern characters who people her novels often create violence through superstition or religion, as we see in her novel *Wise Blood* (1952), about a religious fanatic who establishes his own church.

Sometimes violence arises out of prejudice, as in "The Displaced Person," about an immigrant killed by ignorant country people who are threatened by his hard work and strange ways. Often, cruel events simply happen to the characters, as in "Good Country People," the story of a girl seduced by a man who steals her artificial leg.

The black humor of O'Connor links her with Nathanael West and Joseph Heller. Her works include short story collections (A Good Man Is Hard to Find (1955) and Everything That Rises Must Converge (1965); the novel The Violent Bear It Away (1960); and a volume of letters, The Habit of Being (1979). Her Complete Stories came out in 1971.

Saul Bellow (1915-)

Born in Canada and raised in Chicago, Saul Bellow is of Russian-Jewish background. In college, he studied anthropology and sociology, which greatly influence his writing even today. He has expressed a profound debt to Theodore Dreiser for his openness to a wide range of experience and his emotional engagement with it. Highly respected, he received the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1976.

Bellow's early, somewhat grim existentialist novels include *Dangling Man* (1944), a Kafkaesque study of a man waiting to be drafted into the Army, and *The Victim* (1947), about relations between Jews and Gentiles. In the 1950s, his vision became more comic: He used a series of energetic and adventurous first-person narrators in *The Adventures of Augie March* (1953) -- the study of a Huck Finn-like urban entrepreneur who becomes a black marketeer in Europe -- and in *Henderson the Rain King* (1959), a brilliant and exuberant serio-comic novel about a middle-aged millionaire whose unsatisfied ambitions drive him to Africa. Bellow's later works include *Herzog* (1964), about the troubled life of a neurotic English professor who specializes in the idea of the Romantic self; *Mr. Sammler's Planet* (1970);

Humboldt's Gift (1975); and the autobiographical The Dean's December (1982).

Bernard Malamud (1914-1986)

Bernard Malamud was born in New York City to Russian-Jewish immigrant parents. In his second novel, *The Assistant* (1957), Malamud found his characteristic themes -- man's struggle to survive against all odds, and the ethical underpinnings of recent Jewish immigrants.

Malamud's first published work was *The Natural* (1952), a combination of realism and fantasy set in the mythic world of professional baseball. Other novels include *A New Life* (1961), *The Fixer* (1966), *Pictures of Fidelman* (1969), and *The Tenants* (1971). He also was a prolific master of short fiction. Through his stories, in collections such as *The Magic Barrel* (1958), *Idiots First* (1963), and *Rembrandt's Hat* (1973), he conveyed -- more than any other American-born writer -- a sense of the Jewish present and past, the real and the surreal, fact and legend.

Malamud's monumental work -- for which he was awarded the Pulitzer Prize and National Book Award -- is *The Fixer*. Set in Russia around the turn of the 20th century, it is a thinly veiled glimpse at an actual case of blood libel -- the infamous 1913 trial of Mendel Beiliss, a dark, anti-Semitic blotch on modern history. As in many of his writings, Malamud underscores the suffering of his hero, Yakov Bok, and the struggle against all odds to endure.

Isaac Bashevis Singer (1904-1991)

Nobel Prize-winning novelist and short story master Isaac Bashevis Singer -- a native of Poland who immigrated to the United States in 1935 -- was the son of the prominent head of a rabbinical court in Warsaw. Writing in Yiddish (the amalgam of German and Hebrew that was the common language of European Jewry over the past several centuries) all his life, he dealt in mythic and realistic terms with two specific groups of Jews -- the denizens of the Old World *shtetls* (small villages) and the ocean-tossed 20th-century emigrés of the pre-World War II and postwar eras.

J.D. Salinger (1919-)

A harbinger of things to come in the 1960s, J.D. Salinger has portrayed attempts to drop out of society. Born in New York City, he achieved huge literary success with the publication of his novel *The Catcher in the Rye* (1951), centered on a sensitive 16-year-old, Holden Caulfield, who flees his elite boarding school for the outside world of adulthood, only to become disillusioned by its materialism and phoniness.

When asked what he would like to be, Caulfield answers "the catcher in the rye," misquoting a poem by Robert Burns. In his vision, he is a modern version of a white knight, the sole preserver of innocence. He imagines a big field of rye so tall that a group of young children cannot see where they are running as they play their games. He is the only big person there. "I'm standing on the edge of some crazy cliff. What I have to do, I have to catch everybody if they start to go over the cliff." The fall over the cliff is equated with the loss of childhood and (especially sexual) innocence -- a persistent theme of the era. Other works by this reclusive, spare writer include *Nine Stories* (1953), *Franny and Zooey* (1961), and *Raise High the Roof-Beam, Carpenters* (1963), a collection of stories from *The New Yorker*. Since the appearance of one story in 1965, Salinger -- who lives in New Hampshire -- has been absent from the American literary scene.

Jack Kerouac (1922-1969)

The son of an impoverished French-Canadian family, Jack Kerouac also questioned the values of middle-class life. He met members of the "Beat" literary underground as an undergraduate at Columbia

University in New York City. His fiction was much influenced by the loosely autobiographical work of southern novelist Thomas Wolfe.

Kerouac's best-known novel, *On the Road* (1957), describes "beatniks" wandering through America seeking an idealistic dream of communal life and beauty. *The Dharma Bums* (1958) also focuses on peripatetic counterculture intellectuals and their infatuation with Zen Buddhism. Kerouac also penned a book of poetry, *Mexico City Blues* (1959), and volumes about his life with such beatniks as experimental novelist William Burroughs and poet Allen Ginsberg.

4.THE TURBULENT BUT CREATIVE 1960s

The alienation and stress underlying the 1950s found outward expression in the 1960s in the United States in the Civil Rights Movement, feminism, antiwar protests, minority activism, and the arrival of a counterculture whose effects are still being worked through American society. Notable political and social works of the era include the speeches of civil rights leader Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., the early writings of feminist leader Betty Friedan (*The Feminine Mystique*, 1963), and Norman Mailer's *The Armies of the Night* (1968), about a 1967 antiwar march.

Thomas Pynchon (1937-)

Thomas Pynchon, a mysterious, publicity-shunning author, was born in New York and graduated from Cornell University in 1958, where he may have come under the influence of Vladimir Nabokov. Certainly, his innovative fantasies use themes of translating clues, games, and codes that could derive from Nabokov. Pynchon's flexible tone can modulate paranoia into poetry.

All of Pynchon's fiction is similarly structured. A vast plot is unknown to at least one of the main characters, whose task it then becomes to render order out of chaos and decipher the world. This project, exactly the job of the traditional artist, devolves also upon the reader, who must follow along and watch for clues and meanings. This paranoid vision is extended across continents and time itself, for Pynchon employs the metaphor of entropy, the gradual running down of the universe. The masterful use of popular culture -- particularly science fiction and detective fiction -- is evident in his works.

Pynchon's work V is loosely structured around Benny Profane -- a failure who engages in pointless wanderings and various weird enterprises -- and his opposite, the educated Herbert Stencil, who seeks a mysterious female spy, V (alternatively Venus, Virgin, Void). The Crying of Lot 49, a short work, deals with a secret system associated with the U.S. Postal Service. Gravity's Rainbow (1973) takes place during World War II in London, when rockets were falling on the city, and concerns a farcical yet symbolic search for Nazis and other disguised figures. The violence, comedy, and flair for innovation in his work inexorably link Pynchon with the 1960s.

5.THE 1970s AND 1980s: NEW DIRECTIONS

B y the mid-1970s, an era of consolidation began. The Vietnam conflict was over, followed soon afterward by U.S. recognition of the People's Republic of China and America's Bicentennial celebration. Soon the 1980s -- the "Me Decade" -- ensued, in which individuals tended to focus more on more personal concerns than on larger social issues.

Toni Morrison (1931-)

African-American novelist Toni Morrison was born in Ohio to a spiritually oriented family. She attended Howard University in Washington, D.C., and has worked as a senior editor in a major Washington publishing house and as a distinguished professor at various universities.

Alice Walker (1944-)

Alice Walker, an African-American and the child of a sharecropper family in rural Georgia, graduated from Sarah Lawrence College, where one of her teachers was the politically committed female poet Muriel Rukeyser. Other influences on her work have been Flannery O'Connor and Zora Neale Hurston.

6.THE NEW REGIONALISM

There is nothing new about a regional tradition in American literature. It is as old as the Native American legends, as evocative as the works of James Fenimore Cooper and Bret Harte, as resonant as the novels of William Faulkner and the plays of Tennessee Williams. For a time, though, during the post-World War II era, tradition seemed to disappear into the shadows -- unless one considers, perhaps correctly, that urban fiction is a form of regionalism. Nonetheless, for the past decade or so, regionalism has been making a triumphant return in American literature, enabling readers to get a sense of place as well as a sense of time and humanity. And it is as prevalent in popular fiction, such as detective stories, as it is in classic literature -- novels, short stories, and drama.

American literature has traversed an extended, winding path from pre-colonial days to contemporary times. Society, history, technology all have had telling impact on it. Ultimately, though, there is a constant -- humanity, with all its radiance and its malevolence, its tradition and its promise.

7. 21ST Century

Unit Nine: Southern Literature

Faulkner was part of a <u>southern literary</u> renaissance that also included such figures as <u>Truman Capote</u> (1924-1984) and <u>Flannery O'Connor</u> (1925-1964). Although Capote wrote short stories and novels, fiction and nonfiction, his masterpiece was <u>In Cold Blood</u>, a factual account of a multiple murder and its aftermath, which fused dogged reporting with a novelist's penetrating psychology and crystalline prose. Another practitioner of the "nonfiction novel," <u>Tom Wolfe</u> (1931-) was one of the founders of "New Journalism," who honed his art in such essays as <u>The Kandy-Kolored Tangerine-Flake Streamline Baby</u> and <u>Radical Chic</u> before he moved on to book-length efforts, such as his history of the American manned space program <u>The Right Stuff</u> and probably his best-known novel <u>Bonfire of the Vanities</u>. Other writers steeped in the Southern tradition include <u>John Kennedy Toole</u> (1937–1969) and <u>Tom Robbins</u> (1936-).

Unit Ten: African American Literature

African American literature is <u>literature</u> written by, about, and sometimes specifically for <u>African-Americans</u>. The <u>genre</u> began during the 18th and 19th centuries with writers such as poet <u>Phillis Wheatley</u> and orator <u>Frederick Douglass</u>. Among the themes and issues explored in African American literature are the role of African Americans within the larger American society, <u>African American culture</u>, <u>racism</u>, <u>slavery</u>, and <u>equality</u>.

Before the <u>American Civil War</u>, African American literature primarily focused on the issue of <u>slavery</u>, as indicated by the popular subgenre of <u>slave narratives</u>. At the turn of the 20th century, books by authors such as <u>W.E.B. Du Bois</u> and <u>Booker T. Washington</u> debated whether to confront or appease <u>racist</u> attitudes in the United States.

Unit Eleven: Jewish American Literature

The <u>United States</u> has had a community and tradition of writing by <u>Jewish</u> immigrants and their descendants for a long time, although many writers have objected to being reduced to "Jewish" writers alone. Key modern writers with Jewish origins are <u>Saul Bellow</u>, <u>Philip Roth</u>, <u>Bernard Malamud</u>, <u>Grace Paley</u>, <u>Isaac Bashevis Singer</u>, <u>Chaim Potok</u>, <u>Isaac Asimov</u>, and <u>Woody Allen</u>, among others. <u>The New Yorker</u> has been especially instrumental in exposing many Jewish-American writers to a wider reading public.

四、Reference Books

- (1) 毛信德: 《美国小说史纲》
- (2) 杨岂深: 《美国文学选读》(上、下)
- (3) Fred:《美国文学简介》(英文)
- (4) Booz.Elizabeth B:《现代美国文学简介》(英文)
- (5) Cunliffe, Marcus:The Literature of the United States (上、下)
- (6) 常耀信《美国文学简史》(英文)

《英语国家概况》教学大纲

张立新 编写

目 录

前 言		545
一,	概述	545
Ξ,	课程教学目的和基本要求	545
三、	教学基本内容及学时分配:	545
Chapter One	The United States of America (10 学分)	546
Chapter Two	The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (8 学分)	555
Chapter Three	Canada (5 学分)	566
Chapter Four	Australia (5 学分)	569
Chapter Five	Ireland (5 学分)	571
Liter	rature and the arts	572
Chapter Six	New Zealand (3 学分)	574

前言

一、概述

《英语国家概况》是英语专业的选修课。本课分别介绍美国、英国、加拿大、爱尔兰、澳大利亚和新西兰六个国家的政治、经济、教育等诸方面概况。通过介绍这些英语国家的情况,使学生对这些国家有进一步的了解,培养学生分析问题的能力、独立思考的习惯和获取知识的途径和方法。《英语国家概况》并非如其他英语专业课那样旨在训练学生的听、说、读、写能力,而是需要学生了解并掌握大量的信息,因此,学生还应该关注当前发生的国际重大事件,并通过自己查找获取信息,在课堂上进行交流并讨论,老师起引导、补充和总结的作用。既能培养学生养成良好的学习习惯,又能提高学生运用语言的能力。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

介绍英国、美国等讲英语国家的地理概貌、历史背景、政治制度、经济概况、科学技术、文化传统、体育娱乐、宗教信仰、风俗习惯及社会生活的基本生活等方面的基本知识,有助于学生了解英语国家和民族的思维方式、价值观念及生活方式,更好地掌握和运用英语语言,加深对语言和文化的理解,增强对文化差异的敏感性,提高分析和评价能力,达到扩大知识面、巩固和提高英语水平之目的。

培养学生独立思考能力和客观分析问题的能力。对在不同的语言文化现象、不同的地理环境和不同的历史背景下所形成的不同的政治制度、经济制度及文化习俗能够正确评价和分析,使学生具备良好的文化素质、开阔的视野和宽大的胸怀。同时发展他们的语言运用能力,对中西文化差异所呈现出的不同的语言现象能够运用自如。

课程教学基本要求:

掌握英语国家(尤其英美两国)的地理特征、重大历史事件和政治经济制度;了解英语国家的历史、地理、政治、经济、文化、教育等诸方面的概况,了解英语国家的风土人情和生活习惯;能够运用图书馆、互联网和工具书查找教材上没有、不够详尽或当前发生的各种相关资料;熟练地运用英语表达所掌握的英语国家概况知识。

三、教学基本内容及学时分配:

《英语国家概况》共分六个部分,分别介绍美国、英国、加拿大、爱尔兰、澳大利亚和新西兰 六个国家的政治、经济、教育等诸方面概况。授课时间为一学期,共 36 个学时。由于课时有限, 同时还需增加大量课外读物,必要时还需分析当前发生的重大事件,所以授课不能拘泥于教材,但 又不能脱离教材。

The Contents

Chapter One The United States of America (10 学分)

Geography

The main land features of the United States tend to extend north-south across the country. The interior of the country is a vast lowland that stretches from the Gulf of Mexico to the Canadian border and then on to Alaska. It can be divided into three different regions--the Atlantic and Gulf coastal plains, the interior lowland and the Canadian Shield(地盾).

The Atlantic and Gulf coastal plains reach north along the east coast of the United States as far as the southern New England. These low plains extend well out under the ocean surface to form a continental shelf, which in places extends as much as 400 kilometers beyond the shore.

Northward is the interior lowland. This region is covered with a deep series of rocks, which are generally quite flat; mostly resulted from the local erosion or, in the North, of glacial debris of the Ice Age.

The structure of the Great Plains differs little from that of the interior plains. The sedimentary (沉积岩) beds dominate, most of the Black Hills of western South Dakota. While nearly horizontal(水平), the sedimentary beds do dip gently west to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, where the Colorado cities of Denver and Colorado Springs are located.

The Climate

Climatic patterns are a result of the interaction of three geographic controls. The first is latitude (纬度). The second control is based on the relationship between land and water. Land tends to heat and cool more rapidly than water,places far from large bodies of water experience greater seasonal extremes of temperature than do coastal communities. Parts of the northern Great Plains experience annual temperature ranges close to 65°C; annual differences of as much as 100°C (from 50°C to -50°C) have been recorded in some locations.

The western coast of continents is in the mid-latitudes. These locations have smaller temperature ranges as a result of what is called a maritime(海上) influence. Summer and winter extremes are moderated (温和) by the movement onshore of westerly wind systems from the ocean. Horizontal and vertical (垂直) ocean currents minimize seasonal variations in the surface temperature of the water. The moderated water temperature serves to reduce temperature extremes in the air above the surface.

The third prime geographic influence on climate is the relationship between elevation(高度) and temperature, with higher elevations cooler than lower elevations. As the air cools, the amount of moisture that it can hold is reduced. It causes the relative humidity (湿度) to reach 100 percent. The wettest area in North America is along the Pacific coast from Oregon to southern Alaska.

America's weather is affected markedly by the confrontation between polar (极地) continental air masses (usually cold, dry, and stable) and tropical maritime air masses (warm, moist, and unstable). The former push farthest south in winter, whereas the latter extend farthest north in summer. Most parts of America are subject to a generally westerly wind flow that tends to move weather systems eastward. The continental climate of the interior is thus pushed onto the East Coast.

History

Native Americans

The first American immigrants, beginning more than 20,000 years ago, were hunters and their families following animal herds from Asia to North America, across a land bridge where the Bering Strait is today. When Spain's Christopher Columbus "discovered" the New World in 1492, about 1.5 million Native Americans lived in what is now the continental United States, although estimates of the number vary greatly. Mistaking the place where he landed -- San Salvador (圣萨尔瓦多) in the Bahamas -- for the Indies, Columbus called the Native Americans "Indians."

During the next 200 years, people from several European countries followed Columbus across the Atlantic Ocean to explore America and set up trading posts and colonies. Native Americans suffered greatly from the influx (涌入) of Europeans. The transfer of land from Indian to European and later American hands was accomplished through treaties, wars and coercion (强迫), with Indians constantly giving way as the newcomers moved west. In the 19th century, the U.S. Government's preferred solution to the Indian "problem" was to force tribes to inhabit specific plots of land -- called reservations. Some tribes fought to keep from giving up land they had traditionally used. In many cases the reservation land was of poor quality, and Indians came to depend on government assistance. Poverty and joblessness among Native Americans still exist today.

The territorial wars, along with Old World diseases to which Indians had no built-up immunity, sent their population plummeting, to a low of 350,000 in 1920. Some tribes disappeared altogether. Nonetheless, Native Americans have proved to be resilient. Today they number about two million (0.8 percent of the total U.S. population). Only about one-third of Native Americans still live on reservations.

Countless U.S. place-names derive from Indian words, including the states of Massachusetts, Ohio, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri and Idaho. Indians taught Europeans how to cultivate crops that are now staples throughout the world, such as corn, tomatoes, potatoes and tobacco. Canoes, snowshoes and moccasins are among the Indians' many inventions.

The New Settlements

The first successful English colony was founded at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607. A few years later, English Puritans came to America to escape religious persecution(迫害) for their opposition to the Church of England. In 1620, the Puritans founded Plymouth Colony in what later became Massachusetts. Plymouth was the second permanent British settlement in North America and the first in New England.

In New England the Puritans hoped to build a "city upon a hill" -- an ideal community. Ever since, Americans have viewed their country as a great experiment, a worthy model for other nations to follow. The Puritans believed that government should enforce God's morality, and they strictly punished heretics (异教徒), adulterers (通奸者), drunks, and violators of the Sabbath (安息日). In spite of their own quest for religious freedom, the Puritans practiced a form of intolerant policy. In 1636 an English clergyman named Roger Williams left Massachusetts and founded the colony of Rhode Island, based on the principles of religious freedom and separation of church and state, two ideals that were later adopted by writers of the U.S. Constitution.

Colonists arrived from other European countries, but the English were far better established in America. By 1733 English settlers had founded 13 colonies along the Atlantic Coast, from New Hampshire in the North to Georgia in the South. Elsewhere in North America, the French controlled Canada and Louisiana, which included the vast Mississippi River watershed. France and England fought several wars during the 18th century, with North America being drawn into every one. The end of the Seven Years' War in 1763 left England in control of Canada and all of North America east of the

Mississippi.

The Founding of the Nation

In essence, the Constitution showed Americans' fear of excessive central power by dividing government into three branches -- legislative (Congress), executive (the president and the federal agencies), and judicial (the federal courts) -- and by including 10 amendments(补充) known as the Bill of Rights to safeguard individual liberties. Continued uneasiness about the accumulation of power manifested itself in the differing political philosophies of two towering figures from the Revolutionary period. George Washington, the war's military hero and the first U.S. president, headed a party favoring a strong president and central government; Thomas Jefferson, the principal author of the Declaration of Independence, headed a party preferring to give more power to the states, on the theory that they would be more accountable to the people.

Jefferson became the third president in 1801. Although he had intended to limit the president's power, political realities dictated otherwise. Among other forceful actions, in 1803 he purchased the vast Louisiana Territory from France, almost doubling the size of the United States. The Louisiana Purchase added more than 2 million square kilometers of territory and extended the country's borders as far west as the Rocky Mountains in Colorado.

The War Between the Brothers

In the first quarter of the 19th century, the frontier of settlement moved west to the Mississippi River and beyond. In 1828 Andrew Jackson became the first "outsider" elected president: a man from the frontier state of Tennessee, born into a poor family and outside the cultural traditions of the Atlantic seaboard.

Although on the surface the Jacksonian Era was one of optimism and energy, the young nation was entangled (卷入) in a contradiction. The ringing words of the Declaration of Independence, "all men are created equal," were meaningless for 1.5 million slaves. In 1820 southern and northern politicians debated the question of whether slavery would be legal in the western territories. Congress reached a compromise: Slavery was permitted in the new state of Missouri and the Arkansas Territory but barred everywhere west and north of Missouri. The outcome of the Mexican War of 1846-48 brought more territory into American hands -- and with it the issue of whether to extend slavery. Another compromise, in 1850, admitted California as a free state, with the citizens of Utah and New Mexico being allowed to decide whether they wanted slavery within their borders or not (they did not).

The Gilded Times

Abraham Lincoln was assassinated in 1865, depriving America of a leader uniquely qualified by background and temperament to heal the wounds left by the Civil War. His successor, Andrew Johnson, was a southerner who had remained loyal to the Union during the war. Northern members of Johnson's own party (Republican) set in motion a process to remove him from office for his weakness toward former Confederates. Johnson's removeal was an important victory for the principle of separation of powers: A president should not be removed from office because Congress disagrees with his policies, but only if he has committed, in the words of the Constitution, "treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors(行为不规)."

The Reform

While Americans were venturing(冒险) abroad, they were also taking a fresh look at social problems at home. Despite the signs of prosperity, up to half of all industrial workers still lived in poverty. New

York, Boston, Chicago, and San Francisco could be proud of their museums, universities, and public libraries -- and ashamed of their slums. The prevailing economic dogma(教义) had been laissez faire(自由竞争): let the government interfere with commerce as little as possible. About 1900 the Progressive Movement arose to reform society and individuals through government action. The movement's supporters were primarily economists, sociologists, technicians, and civil servants who sought scientific, cost-effective solutions to political problems.

World War I

When World War I erupted in Europe in 1914, President Woodrow Wilson urged a policy of strict American neutrality(中立). Germany's declaration of unrestricted submarine warfare against all ships bound for Allied ports undermined(削弱) that position. When Congress declared war on Germany in 1917, the American army was a force of only 200,000 soldiers. Millions of men had to be drafted, trained, and shipped across the submarine-infested(充满) Atlantic. A full year passed before the U.S. Army was ready to make a significant contribution to the war effort.

By the fall of 1918, Germany's position had become hopeless. Its armies were retreating in the face of a relentless American buildup. In October Germany asked for peace, and an armistice(停火) was declared on November 11. In 1919 Wilson himself went to Versailles(凡尔塞) to help draft the peace treaty. Although he was cheered by crowds in the Allied capitals, at home his international outlook was less popular. His idea of a League of Nations was included in the Treaty of Versailles, but the U.S. Senate did not ratify(支持) the treaty, and the United States did not participate in the league.

The Hardest Times

By 1932 thousands of American banks and over 100,000 businesses had failed. Industrial production was cut in half, wages had decreased 60 percent, and one out of every four workers was unemployed. That year Franklin D. Roosevelt was elected president on the platform of "a New Deal for the American people."

Roosevelt's self-confidence encouraged the nation. "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself," he said at his inauguration(就职演说). He followed up these words with decisive action. Within three months -- the historic "Hundred Days" -- Roosevelt had rushed through Congress a great number of laws to help the economy recover. Such new agencies as the Civilian Conservation Corps and the Works Progress Administration created millions of jobs by undertaking the construction of roads, bridges, airports, parks, and public buildings. Later the Social Security Act set up contributory old-age and survivors' pensions (养老金).

World War II

Again neutrality was the initial American response to the outbreak of war in Europe in 1939. But the bombing of Pearl Harbor naval base in Hawaii by the Japanese in December 1941 brought the United States into the war, first against Japan and then against its allies, Germany and Italy.

American, British, and Soviet war planners agreed to concentrate on defeating Germany first. British and American forces landed in North Africa in November 1942, proceeded to Sicily and the Italian mainland in 1943, and liberated Rome on June 4, 1944. Two days later -- D-Day -- Allied forces landed in Normandy. Paris was liberated on August 24, and by September American units had crossed the German border. The Germans finally surrendered on May 5, 1945.

The war against Japan came to a swift end in August of 1945, when President Harry Truman ordered the use of atomic bombs against the cities of Hiroshima(广岛) and Nagasaki(长崎). Nearly 200,000

civilians were killed. Although the matter can still provoke (引起) heated discussion, the argument in favor of dropping the bombs was that casualties on both sides would have been greater if the Allies had been forced to invade Japan.

The Cold War

A new international congress, the United Nations, came into being after the war, and this time the United States joined. Soon tensions developed between the United States and its wartime ally the Soviet Union. Although Soviet leader Joseph Stalin had promised to support free elections in all the liberated nations of Europe, Soviet forces imposed Communist governments in eastern Europe. Germany became a divided country, with a western zone under joint British, French, and American occupation and an eastern zone under Soviet occupation. In the spring of 1948 the Soviets sealed off (国困) West Berlin in an attempt to starve the isolated city into submission. The western powers responded with a massive airlift of food and fuel until the Soviets lifted the blockade in May 1949. A month earlier the United States had allied with Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and the United Kingdom to form the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)(北约).

The Only Power

After World War II the presidency had alternated between Democrats and Republicans, but, for the most part, Democrats had held majorities in the Congress -- in both the House of Representatives and the Senate. A string of 26 consecutive years of Democratic control was broken in 1980, when the Republicans gained a majority in the Senate; at the same time, Republican Ronald Reagan was elected president. This change marked the onset of a volatility(挥发性) that has characterized American voting patterns ever since.

Whatever their attitudes toward Reagan's policies, most Americans credited him with a capacity for instilling pride in their country and a sense of optimism about the future. If there was a central theme to his domestic policies, it was that the federal government had become too big and federal taxes too high.

The Government

The early American way of life encouraged democracy. The colonists were inhabiting a land of forest and wilderness. They had to work together to build shelter, provide food, and clear the land for farms and dwellings. This need for cooperation strengthened the belief that, in the New World, people should be on an equal footing, with nobody having special privileges.

The urge for equality affected the original 13 colonies' relations with the mother country, England. The Declaration of Independence in 1776 proclaimed that all men are created equal, that all have the right to "Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness."

The Declaration of Independence, and the Constitution after it, combined America's colonial experience with the political thought of such philosophers as England's John Locke to produce the concept of a democratic republic. The government would draw its power from the people themselves and exercise it through their elected representatives. During the Revolutionary War, the colonies had formed a national congress to present England with a united front. Under an agreement known as the Articles of Confederation, a postwar congress was allowed to handle only problems that were beyond the capabilities of individual states.

1.THE CONSTITUTION

The Articles of Confederation failed as a governing document for the United States because the states

did not cooperate as expected. When it came time to pay wages to the national army or the war debt to France, some states refused to contribute. To cure this weakness, the congress asked each state to send a delegate to a convention. The so-called Constitutional Convention met in Philadelphia in May of 1787, with George Washington presiding.

2.BILL OF RIGHTS

The Constitution written in Philadelphia in 1787 could not go into effect until it was ratified by a majority of citizens in at least 9 of the then 13 U.S. states. During this ratification process, misgivings arose. Many citizens felt uneasy because the document failed to explicitly guarantee the rights of individuals. The desired language was added in 10 amendments to the Constitution, collectively known as the Bill of Rights.

3.LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

The legislative branch -- the Congress -- is made up of elected representatives from each of the 50 states. It is the only branch of U.S. government that can make federal laws, levy federal taxes, declare war, and put foreign treaties into effect.

Members of the House of Representatives are elected to two-year terms. Each member represents a district in his or her home state. The number of districts is determined by a census, which is conducted every 10 years. The most populous states are allowed more representatives than the smaller ones, some of which have only one. In all, there are 435 representatives in the House.

Senators are elected to six-year terms. Each state has two senators, regardless of population. Senators' terms are staggered, so that one-third of the Senate stands for election every two years. There are 100 senators.

4.EXECUTIVE BRANCH

The chief executive of the United States is the president, who together with the vice president is elected to a four-year term. As a result of a constitutional amendment that went into effect in 1951, a president may be elected to only two terms. Other than succeeding a president who dies or is disabled, the vice president's only official duty is presiding over the Senate. The vice president may vote in the Senate only to break a tie.

The president's powers are formidable but not unlimited. As the chief formulator of national policy, the president proposes legislation to Congress. As mentioned previously, the president may veto any bill passed by Congress. The president is commander-in-chief of the armed forces. The president has the authority to appoint federal judges as vacancies occur, including justices of the Supreme Court. As head of his political party, with ready access to the news media, the president can easily influence public opinion.

5.JUDICIAL BRANCH

The judicial branch is headed by the U.S. Supreme Court, which is the only court specifically created by the Constitution. In addition, Congress has established 13 federal courts of appeals and, below them, about 95 federal district courts. The Supreme Court meets in Washington, D.C., and the other federal courts are located in cities throughout the United States. Federal judges are appointed for life or until they retire voluntarily; they can be removed from office only via a laborious process of impeachment and trial in the Congress.

The federal courts hear cases arising out of the Constitution and federal laws and treaties, maritime cases, cases involving foreign citizens or governments, and cases in which the federal government is itself a party.

7.POLITICAL PARTIES AND ELECTIONS

Americans regularly exercise their democratic rights by voting in elections and by participating in political parties and election campaigns. Today, there are two major political parties in the United States, the Democratic and the Republican. The Democratic Party evolved from the party of Thomas Jefferson, formed before 1800. The Republican Party was established in the 1850s by Abraham Lincoln and others who opposed the expansion of slavery into new states then being admitted to the Union.

The Democratic Party is considered to be the more liberal party, and the Republican, the more conservative. Democrats generally believe that government has an obligation to provide social and economic programs for those who need them. Republicans are not necessarily opposed to such programs but believe they are too costly to taxpayers. Republicans put more emphasis on encouraging private enterprise in the belief that a strong private sector makes citizens less dependent on government.

Culture

MOVIES

The American film critic Pauline Kael gave a 1968 collection of her reviews the title *Kiss Kiss Bang Bang*. By way of explanation, she said that the words, which came from an Italian movie poster, were "perhaps the briefest statement imaginable of the basic appeal of movies." Certainly, they sum up the raw energy of many American films.

If moving pictures were not an American invention, they have nonetheless been the preeminent American contribution to world entertainment. In the early 1900s, when the medium was new, many immigrants, particularly Jews, found employment in the U.S. film industry. Kept out of other occupations by racial prejudice, they were able to make their mark in a brand-new business: the exhibition of short films in storefront theaters called nickelodeons, after their admission price of a nickel (five cents). Within a few years, ambitious men like Samuel Goldwyn, Carl Laemmle, Adolph Zukor, Louis B. Mayer, and the Warner Brothers -- Harry, Albert, Samuel, and Jack -- had switched to the production side of the business. Soon they were the heads of a new kind of enterprise: the movie studio.

MUSIC

1).POP MUSIC

The first major composer of popular music with a uniquely American style was Stephen Foster (1826-1864). He established a pattern that has shaped American music ever since -- combining elements of the European musical tradition with African-American rhythms and themes. Of Irish ancestry, Foster grew up in the South, where he heard slave music and saw minstrel shows, which featured white performers in black make-up performing African-American songs and dances. Such material inspired some of Foster's best songs, which many Americans still know by heart: "Oh! Susanna," "Camptown Races," "Ring the Banjo," "Old Folks at Home" (better known by its opening line: "Way down upon the Swanee River").

2).JAZZ

W.C. Handy's "St. Louis Blues" is one of the most frequently recorded songs written in the 20th century. Of all those recordings, one stands out: Bessie Smith's 1925 version, with Louis Armstrong (1900-1971) accompanying her on the cornet -- a collaboration of three great figures (composer, singer, instrumentalist) in a new kind of music called jazz. Though the meaning of "jazz" is obscure, originally the term almost certainly had to do with sex. The music, which originated in New Orleans early in the 20th century, brought together elements from ragtime, slave songs, and brass bands. One of the

distinguishing elements of jazz was its fluidity: in live performances, the musicians would almost never play a song the same way twice but would improvise variations on its notes and words.

3).ROCK AND ROLL AND COUNTRY

By the early 1950s, however, jazz had lost some of its appeal to a mass audience. A new form of pop music, rock and roll, evolved from a black style known as rhythm and blues: songs with strong beats and often risqué lyrics. Though written by and for blacks, rhythm and blues also appealed to white teenagers, for whom listening to it over black-oriented radio stations late at night became a secret pleasure. To make the new music more acceptable to a mainstream audience, white performers and arrangers began to "cover" rhythm and blues songs -- singing them with the beat toned down and the lyrics cleaned up. A typical example is "Ain't That a Shame," a 1955 hit in a rock version by its black composer, Antoine "Fats" Domino, but an even bigger hit as a ballad-like cover by a white performer, Pat Boone.

THE MEDIA

The average American, according to a recent study, spends about eight hours a day with the print and electronic media -- at home, at work, and traveling by car. This total includes four hours watching television, three hours listening to radio, a half hour listening to recorded music, and another half hour reading the newspaper.

The central role of information in American society harks back to a fundamental belief held by the framers of the U.S. Constitution: that a well-informed people is the strongest guardian of its own liberties. The framers embodied that assumption in the First Amendment to the Constitution, which provides in part that "Congress shall make no law...abridging the freedom of speech or of the press." A corollary to this clause is that the press functions as a watchdog over government actions and calls attention to official misdeeds and violations of individual rights.

ATTS

1). The Globalization of Art

The disorder in the contemporary art world is actually a mirror of the larger upheavals being experienced by society at large. The end of the Cold War, the rise of global markets and the emergence of radically new forms of electronic communication have transformed contemporary life in the United States in ways that would have been unimaginable even 10 years ago. It should be no surprise that the art world reflects this state of radical transition.

In fact, one of the most striking developments in contemporary art can be tied directly to these larger social, political and economic currents. Just as the collapse of the Cold War has focused attention on parts of the globe that were overshadowed by the monumental battle between superpowers, so also, the art world has begun to widen its geographic focus. Art professionals can no longer limit their attention to developments in the United States and Europe. Now any serious study of contemporary art must embrace artists from all over the globe. Artists, curators, critics and collectors have begun to resemble cultural nomads, constantly on the move in search of new developments.

Education

MANY CHOICES

Almost 90 percent of American students below the college level attend public elementary and secondary schools, which do not charge tuition but rely on local and state taxes for funding. Traditionally, elementary school includes kindergarten through the eighth grade. In some places, however, elementary

school ends after the sixth grade, and students attend middle school, or junior high school, from grades seven through nine. Similarly, secondary school, or high school, traditionally comprises grades nine through twelve, but in some places begins at the tenth grade.

Most of the students who do not attend public elementary and secondary schools attend private schools, for which their families pay tuition. Four out of five private schools are run by religious groups. In these schools religious instruction is part of the curriculum, which also includes the traditional academic courses. (Religious instruction is not provided in public schools. The issue of prayer in public schools is discussed in chapter 4.) There is also a small but growing number of parents who educate their children themselves, a practice known as home schooling.

LOCIAL ISSUES IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

In addition to the challenge to be excellent, American schools have been facing novel problems. They must cope with an influx of immigrant children, many of whom speak little or no English. They must respond to demands that the curriculum reflect the various cultures of all children. Schools must make sure that students develop basic skills for the job market, and they must consider the needs of nontraditional students, such as teen-age mothers.

A SNAPSHOT OF AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION

The United States leads the industrial nations in the proportion of its young people who receive higher education. For some careers -- law, medicine, education, engineering -- a college education is a necessary first step. More than 60 percent of Americans now work in jobs that involve the handling of information, and a high school diploma is seldom adequate for such work. Other careers do not strictly require a college degree, but having one often can improve a person's chances of getting a job and can increase the salary he or she is paid.

Chapter Two The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (8 学分)

Geography

The island-group is made up of <u>more than 6,000 islands</u>, the two biggest being <u>Great Britain</u> and <u>Ireland</u>. Great Britain, to the east, covers 83,698 square miles (216,777 km²), over half of the total landmass of the group; Ireland, to the west, covers 32,589 square miles (84,406 km²). The other larger islands are situated to the north and west of the group, in the Hebrides and Shetland Islands.

The islands that constitute the British Isles include:

Great Britain

Northern Isles (including Orkney, Shetland and Fair Isle)

Hebrides (including the Inner Hebrides, Outer Hebrides and Small Isles)

Islands of the lower Firth of Clyde (including the Isle of Arran and Bute)

Anglesey (in Welsh Ynys Môn)

Farne Islands

Isles of Scilly

Isle of Wight

Portsmouth Islands (including Portsea Island and Hayling Island)

Islands of Furness

Isle of Portland

See also:

List of islands of England

List of islands of Scotland

List of islands of Wales

Ireland

<u>Ulster: Arranmore, Tory Island</u> <u>Northern Ireland: Rathlin Island</u>

Connacht: Achill Island, Clew Bay islands, Inishturk, Inishbofin, Inishark, Aran Islands Munster: Blasket Islands, Valentia Island, Cape Clear, Sherkin Island, Great Island

<u>Leinster</u>: <u>Lambay Island</u>, <u>Ireland's Eye</u> See also: List of islands of Ireland

Isle of Man

See also: List of islands of Isle of Man

The <u>Channel Islands</u> are sometimes stated as being in the British Isles [10], though geographically they are not part of the island group, being close to the coast of France.

The islands are at relatively low altitudes, with central Ireland and southern Great Britain particularly low lying. The <u>Scottish Highlands</u> in the northern part of Great Britain are mountainous, with <u>Ben Nevis</u> being the highest point in the British Isles at 1,344 <u>metres</u> (4,409 <u>ft</u>). Other mountainous areas include Wales and parts of the island of Ireland, but only seven peaks in these areas reach above 1,000 metres

(3,281 ft). Lakes on the islands are generally not large, although <u>Lough Neagh</u> in Northern Ireland is an exception, covering 147 square miles (381 km²); the largest freshwater body in Great Britain is <u>Loch Lomond</u> at 27.5 square miles (71.1 km²). Neither are rivers particularly long, the rivers <u>Severn</u> at 219 miles (354 km) and <u>Shannon</u> at 240 miles (386 km) being the longest.

The British Isles have a <u>temperate marine</u> climate, the <u>North Atlantic Drift</u> ("Gulf Stream") which flows from the <u>Gulf of Mexico</u> brings with it significant moisture and raises temperatures 11 degrees Celsius above the global average for the islands' latitudes. Winters are thus warm and wet, with summers mild and also wet. Most Atlantic <u>depressions</u> pass to the north of the islands, combined with the general <u>westerly circulation</u> and interactions with the landmass, this imposes an east-west variation in climate.

Geology

An interactive geological map is available.

The British Isles lie at the juncture of several regions with past episodes of <u>tectonic</u> mountain building. These <u>orogenic belts</u> form a complex geology which records a huge and varied span of earth history. Of particular note was the <u>Caledonian Orogeny</u> during the <u>Ordovician Period</u>, ca. 488-444 <u>Ma</u> and early <u>Silurian period</u>, when the <u>craton Baltica</u> collided with the <u>terrane Avalonia</u> to form the mountains and hills in northern Britain and Ireland. Baltica formed roughly the north western half of Ireland and Scotland. Further collisions caused the <u>Variscan orogeny</u> in the <u>Devonian</u> and <u>Carboniferous periods</u>, forming the hills of <u>Munster</u>, south-west England, and south Wales. Over the last 500 million years the land which forms the islands has drifted northwest from around 30°S, crossing the <u>equator</u> around 370 million years ago to reach its present northern latitude.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland consists of England (including the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man), Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The British landscape can be divided roughly into two kinds of terrain? highland and lowland. The highland area comprises the mountainous regions of Scotland, Northern Ireland, northern England and north Wales. Sandstone and limestone hills, long valleys and basins such as the Wash break up the lowland area on the east coast. Despite its small size, England is a country of much diversity.

London, the capital, draws increasing numbers of visitors, not only to the well-documented attractions of the West End with its theatres, cinemas, shopping streets, restaurants, hotels and nightclubs, but to its historic treasures such as Westminster Abbey, Big Ben, the Houses of Parliament and Buckingham Palace. In addition, London has the vast green spaces of Hampstead Heath, Hyde and Richmond parks; vibrant street markets in Camden, Brick Lane or Portobello Road and many distinctive old pubs.

A short drive away from London are the elegant southern coast resorts of Eastbourne and Brighton; the beautiful villages of the New Forest; historic religious centres such as Winchester, Canterbury or Salisbury. Cornwall and Devon continue to draw visitors with their rolling hills, beautiful stretches of coastline and picturesque fishing villages. Similarly, the honey-stoned cottages of Moreton-in-Marsh or Bourton-on-the-Water are picture-postcard material. Cumbria, more popularly known as 'The Lake District', has the stunning lakes of Windermere or Derwent Water and the cathedral city of Carlisle, close to Hadrian's Wall.

Scotland is a beautiful and sparsely populated country with rolling lowland, dramatic mountains, lochs and many offshore islands. Edinburgh is the capital and its Castle is not only Scotland's number one tourist attraction but also home to the Scottish Crown Jewels. Its vast profile sits at the head of the Royal Mile which stretches down to the Palace of Holyrood House, the Queen's official residence in Scotland. Edinburgh's cultural life, with its Festival as the highpoint of the year, features much theatre, music and dance unrivalled outside London. The Scottish highlands? the towns of Oban and Fort William and the islands of Skye and Mull? are a stunning wilderness of mountains and moorlands, lochs and rivers.

Wales is a country of great geographical variation with many long stretches of attractive and often rugged coastline. Cardiff is the principality's capital and principal seaport. The castle, much of which dates back to the Middle Ages, was extensively added to during the 19th century, thus creating a strongly Victorian Gothic result. Much of Wales has a strong non-conformist 'chapel' tradition. Llandudno, Rhyl, Pembrokeshire and Porthmadog are among the better-known resort areas.

Northern Ireland contains some beautiful scenery, from the rugged coastline in the north and northeast to the gentle fruit-growing regions of Armagh. To the southeast of the province, Belfast provides shopping and city entertainment in the shape of theatres, cinema, a wide range of restaurants, the Grand Opera House and all the other attractions of any capital city.

The rest of the British Isles comprises the Channel Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney (lying off the coast of Normandy).

History and Government

England before the English

Archaeological evidence indicates that what is now southern England was colonised by humans long before the rest of the British Isles due to its more hospitable climate between and during the various <u>ice</u> <u>ages</u> of the distant past. The first historical mention of the region is from the <u>Massaliote Periplus</u>, a sailing manual for merchants thought to date to the <u>6th century BC</u>, although cultural and trade links with the continent had existed for millennia prior to this. <u>Pytheas of Massilia</u> wrote of his trading journey to the island around <u>325 BC</u>. Later writers such as <u>Pliny the Elder</u> (quoting <u>Timaeus</u>) and <u>Diodorus Siculus</u> (probably drawing on <u>Poseidonius</u>) mention the tin trade from southern England but there is little further historical detail of the people who lived there.

Prehistory

At a time when the islands were still joined to continental Europe, <u>Homo erectus</u> brought <u>Palaeolithic</u> tool use to the south east of the modern British Isles some 750,000 years ago followed (about 500,000 years ago) by the more advanced tool use of <u>Homo heidelbergensis</u> found at <u>Boxgrove</u>. It appears that the <u>glaciation</u> of <u>ice ages</u> successively cleared all human life from the area, though human occupation occurred during warmer interglacial periods. Modern humans appear with the <u>Aurignacian</u> culture about 30,000 years ago, famously with the "<u>Red Lady of Paviland</u>" in modern Wales. The last ice age ended around 10,000 years ago, and <u>Mesolithic hunter-gatherers</u> spread to all parts of the islands by around 8,000 years ago, at a time when rising sea levels now cut off the islands from the continent. The immigrants came principally from the ice age refuge in what is now the <u>Basque Country</u>, with a smaller immigration from refuges in the modern <u>Ukraine</u> and <u>Moldavia</u>. Three quarters of the ancestors of people of the British Isles may have arrived in this wave of immigration.

The Anglo-Saxon Conquest of Celtic Britain

In the wake of the Romans, who had abandoned the south of the island by about <u>410</u> in order to concentrate on difficulties closer to home, present day England was progressively settled by successive and often complementary waves of <u>Germanic tribesmen</u>.

The prevailing view is that waves of Germanic people, <u>Jutes</u> together with large numbers of <u>Frisians</u>, <u>Saxons</u> from northern <u>Germany</u> and <u>Angles</u> from what is now southern <u>Denmark</u> - commonly known as Anglo-Saxons - who had been partly displaced on mainland <u>Europe</u>, invaded Britain in the mid <u>5th</u> <u>century</u> and again around the middle of the <u>6th century</u>. They came under military leaders and settled at first on the eastern shores. They are believed to have fought their way westward, looking for more land to cultivate, taking lowland and leaving less desirable lands in the hills to the Celtic Britons.

Romans and Anglo-Saxons

The oldest surviving historical records of the islands preserve fragments of the travels of the ancient Greek Pytheas around 320 BC and describe Great Britain and Ireland as the islands of Prettanike with their peoples the *Priteni* or *Pretani*, a name which may have been used in Gaul. A later variation on this term as the Cruithne would come to refer to certain groups. Ireland was referred to as Ierne (the sacred island as the Greeks interpreted it) "inhabited by the race of Hiberni", and Great Britain as insula Albionum, "island of the Albions". These terms without the collective name appear in the 4th century writings of Avienus which preserve fragments of the Massaliote Periplus of the 6th century BC. [11][12] Later scholars associated these tribal societies with the Celts the Ancient Greeks reported in what is now south-west Germany, and subgrouped their <u>Celtic languages</u> in the British Isles into the <u>Brythonic</u> languages spoken in most of Great Britain, and Goidelic in Ireland and the west of modern Scotland. They perceived these languages as arriving in a series of invasions, but modern evidence suggests that these peoples may have migrated from Anatolia around 7000 B.C. through southern and then western Europe. [13] Genetic evidence indicates that there was not a later large-scale replacement of these early inhabitants [14] and that the Celtic influence was largely cultural. In the Scottish highlands northwards the people the Romans called <u>Caledonians</u> or <u>Picts</u> spoke a language which is now unknown. It is also possible that southern England was settled by Belgic tribes.

The Romans

The Romans conquered and settled the major part of the British mainland between the first and fifth centuries AD, although their influence was limited in the northern and western regions. After their withdrawal (410-442), the island was invaded by Jutes, Saxons and Angles, who established seven kingdoms in the area south of Hadrian's Wall. Scotland and Wales remained Pictish/Celtic. By the early ninth century, Wessex had emerged as the dominant kingdom and was the spearhead of resistance to the Danish invasions, particularly during the reign of Alfred the Great.

National formation

The <u>Vikings</u> arrived in Britain and Ireland in the 790's with raids on <u>Lindisfarne</u>, <u>Iona</u>, and the west of Ireland. They provided another wave of immigration, settling in Orkney and Shetland and then <u>Western Isles</u>, <u>Caithness</u>, <u>Sutherland</u>, <u>Isle of Man</u>, <u>Galloway</u>, in various places around Ireland, <u>Northumbria</u>, <u>East Anglia</u> and <u>Mercia</u>. <u>Wessex</u> prevented the further expansion of the Vikings, and achieved a united <u>kingdom of England</u> in 927, which was then ruled by both English and Viking kings until <u>1066</u>. Further north, in 900 A.D. <u>Donald II</u> was the first <u>king of Alba</u> rather than king of the Picts. His successors

amalgamated all the kingdoms north of England into the kingdom of Alba and fixed its southern border on the <u>Tweed</u> in <u>1018</u>. Wales was divided into a number of British kingdoms, apart from one short period of unification, and also suffered from viking raids in the tenth century. <u>Ireland</u> was divided among around eighty to a hundred petty kingdoms grouped under larger regional kingdoms and then a weak <u>High King</u>. The Vikings founded <u>Dublin</u> in 852 and established several other coastal strongholds around Ireland. The Viking kingdom of Dublin went on to dominate much of Ireland, but their power was broken by <u>Brian</u> Boru in 1014 who effectively united Ireland, but only until his death.

England during the Middle Ages

The defeat of <u>King Harold Godwinson</u> at the <u>Battle of Hastings</u> in <u>1066</u> at the hands of William of <u>Normandy</u>, later styled <u>William I of England</u> and the subsequent <u>Norman takeover</u> of <u>Saxon England</u> led to a sea-change in the history of the small, isolated, island state. William ordered the compilation of the Domesday Book, a survey of the entire population and their lands and property for tax purposes.

William ruled over Normandy, then a powerful kingdom in France. William and his nobles spoke and conducted court in <u>Anglo-Norman</u>, in Normandy as well as in England. The use of the Anglo-Norman language by the aristocracy endured for centuries and left an indelible mark in the development of modern English.

The English Middle Ages were to be characterized by civil war, international war, occasional insurrection, and widespread political intrigue amongst the aristocratic and monarchic elite. England was more than self-sufficient in cereals, dairy products, beef and mutton. The nation's international economy was based on the wool trade, in which the produce of the sleepwalks of northern England was exported to the textile cities of Flanders, where it was worked into cloth. Medieval foreign policy was as much shaped by relations with Flemish textile industry as it was by dynastic adventures in western France. An English textile industry was established in the fifteenth century, providing the basis for rapid English capital accumulation.

The Tudor period in England (1485?1603)

Tudor England

The Wars of the Roses culminated in the eventual victory of the relatively unknown Henry Tudor, Henry VII, at the Battle of Bosworth Field in 1485, where the Yorkist Richard III was slain, and the succession of the Lancastrian House was ultimately assured. Whilst in retrospect it is easy for us to date the end of the Wars of the Roses to the Battle of Bosworth Field, Henry VII could afford no such complacency. Before the end of his reign, two pretenders would try to wrest the throne from him, aided by remnants of the Yorkist faction at home and abroad. The first, Lambert Simnel, was defeated at the Battle of Stoke (the last time an English King fought someone claiming the Crown) and the second, Perkin Warbeck, was hanged in 1499 after plaguing the King for a decade.

The Tudor period in England (1485?1603) witnessed several important developments: the re-establishment of central power, the break with Rome under Henry VIII, the beginnings of overseas expansion, the union of England and Wales and the flowering of Elizabethan and Jacobean drama. In retrospect, possibly the most important development was the remarkable growth of the power of Parliament. Accustomed since its slightly hazy beginnings in the baronial revolts of the 1260s to

representing grievances and ? particularly as a consequence of Edward III's urgent need for money to fight the French? granting taxation, the institution acquired a new purpose in the 1530s. Henry VIII used it as a vehicle for passing the Act of Supremacy and other legislation pertaining to the break with Rome, thus giving Parliament the prestige and self-confidence to interfere in and influence the affairs of state, which it never lost.

George III of the United Kingdom

George III (George William Frederick) (4 June 1738 – 29 January 1820) was King of Great Britain and King of Ireland from 25 October 1760 until 1 January 1801, and thereafter King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland until his death. He was concurrently Duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg, and thus Elector (and later King) of Hanover. The Electorate became the Kingdom of Hanover on 12 October 1814. George was the third British monarch of the big ass hole the House of Hanover, but the first to be born in Britain and use English as his first language. In fact, he never even visited Germany. During George III's reign, Britain lost many of its colonies in North America, which became the United States. Also during his reign, the realms of Great Britain and Ireland were joined together to form the United Kingdom.

The Stuarts and the Civil War

Elizabeth died without leaving any direct heirs. Her closest male Protestant relative was the king of Scotland, James VI, of the house of Stuart, so he became <u>James I of England</u>, the first king of the entire island of Great Britain, though he ruled England and Scotland separately. A number of assassination attempts were made on James, notably the <u>Main Plot</u> and <u>Bye Plots</u> of <u>1603</u>, and most famously, on <u>November 5</u>, <u>1605</u>, the <u>Gunpowder Plot</u>, by a group of Catholic conspirators, led by <u>Guy Fawkes</u>, which was stoked up and served as further fuel for antipathy in England to the Catholic faith.

The feudal system decayed and by the end of the sixteenth century was replaced by a system of centralised states. The English throne had come under the Welsh <u>Tudors</u>, who centralised government in England, <u>Ireland</u>, and <u>Wales</u>. In 1603 <u>James VI of Scotland</u> brought England and Scotland into <u>personal union</u> and promoted the existence of a modern British identity.

These changes happened at the same time as the <u>Protestant reformation</u> where the Roman Catholic church had been replaced by national churches to which all people were expected to adhere to. Failure to do so resulted in prosecution for <u>recusancy</u> and heavy fines, and recusants laid themselves open to accusations of treason and loss of land. By 1600 there was a wide range of religious belief within the islands from <u>Presbyterian</u> Calvinists (who were the majority in much of Scotland) and <u>Independents</u> to episcopal Calvinists (in the <u>Church of Ireland</u> and parts of Scotland) to Protestant Episcopalians that retained formal liturgy (especially the <u>Church of England</u>) to Roman Catholicism (which retained a large majority in Ireland).

Kingdom of Great Britain and social revolutions

The <u>1707</u> Act of <u>Union</u> united England and Scotland in the <u>Kingdom of Great Britain</u>. The next century saw the start of great social changes. <u>Enclosure</u> had been taking place over a long period in England, but the <u>agricultural revolution</u> accelerated the process by which land was privatised, commercialised, and intensively exploited, and caused it to spread throughout the British Isles. This resulted in the displacement of large numbers of people from the land and widespread hardship. In addition, the <u>industrial revolution</u> saw the displacement of cottage industries by large-scale factories and the rapid growth of industrial towns and cities. The <u>British Empire</u> grew substantially, stoking the growth

in industrial production, bringing in wealth, giving rise to large-scale emigration, and making <u>London</u> the largest city in Europe.

Colonial England

In 1607 England built an establishment in Virginia (Jamestown). This was the beginning of English colonization. Many English settled then in North America for religious or economic reasons. The English merchants holding plantations in the warm southern parts of America then resorted rather quickly to the slavery of Native Americans and imported Africans in order to cultivate their plantations and sell raw material (particularly cotton and tobacco) in Europe. The English merchants involved in colonization accrued fortunes equal to those of great aristocratic landowners in England, and their money which fueled the rise of the middle class permanently altered the balance of political power.

The Industrial Revolution

The late 18th and early 19th centuries saw considerable social upheaval as a largely agrarian society was transformed by technological advances and increasing mechanisation, which was the Industrial Revolution. Much of the agricultural workforce was uprooted from the countryside and moved into large urban centres of production, as the steam-based production factories could undercut the traditional cottage industries, due to economies of scale and the increased output per worker made possible by the new technologies. The consequent overcrowding into areas with little supporting infrastructure saw dramatic increases in the rise of infant mortality (to the extent that many Sunday schools for pre working age children (5 or 6) had funeral clubs to pay for each others funeral arrangements), crime, and social deprivation.

Recent history

The <u>Act of Union</u> of <u>1800</u> formally assimilated Ireland within the British political process, and created a new <u>state</u> "The <u>United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland</u>" with effect from <u>1 January</u> 1801, uniting England, Wales, Ireland and Scotland.

Since then England has not existed as an independent political entity, but as a country it has remained highly dominant in the <u>United Kingdom</u>. The majority of the political and economic leadership the UK is English. London has remained the economic and centre of Britain and one of the world's great cities.

During the early 19th century, the working classes began to find a voice. Concentrations of industry led to the formation of guilds and unions, which, although at first suppressed, eventually became powerful enough to resist.

The twentieth century

Prosperity increased through the 19th and into the 20th century, and politics became increasingly popular and democratic. The <u>Irish War of Independence</u> and subsequent <u>Irish Civil War</u> led to the <u>1922</u> formation of the <u>Irish Free State</u>, which was a <u>dominion</u> until becoming a <u>republic</u> in 1949. Six Irish counties remained part of the United Kingdom as <u>Northern Ireland</u>, initially with devolved government. Since then there have been extensive periods of <u>unrest</u>. Both the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland joined the European Economic Community (now the <u>European Union</u>) in 1973. Currently there are <u>devolved</u> governments in <u>Wales</u> and <u>Scotland</u>, though in Northern Ireland the <u>devolved assembly</u> is currently suspended.

Further waves of migration from Ireland to Great Britain took place during times of economic difficulty in the thirties, forties, and fifties, though since then it has grown more prosperous and its <u>Gross</u>

<u>Domestic Product</u> *per capita* now exceeds that of the United Kingdom. The end of the <u>British Empire</u> in the latter half of the 20th century saw the end of large-scale emigration; instead, there was immigration to Britain, especially from the <u>West Indies</u> and the Indian sub-continent, and recently to both Britain and Ireland from eastern <u>Europe</u>.

Sport and Culture

Despite the split between the <u>Republic of Ireland</u> and the <u>United Kingdom</u>, a limited number of sport or cultural events operate across the isles as a whole, especially where an all-Ireland team competes internationally. The <u>British and Irish Lions</u> is a <u>rugby union</u> team made up of players from the entire archipalego; they compete in tours of <u>Southern Hemisphere</u> rugby playing nations. Prior to 1979, the <u>Ryder Cup</u> was played between the <u>United States</u> and the British Isles, before it was expanded to include the whole of <u>Europe</u>. <u>Bowls</u> continues to have a British Isles championship.

There can also be strong links in cultural activities. For example, the <u>Mercury Music Prize</u> is handed out every year to the best album from a British or Irish musician or group, though other musical awards are considered on a national basis; for example, <u>U2</u> won the best international group award at the <u>2001</u> Brit awards.

Other organisations are sometimes organised across the islands; for example the **Samartitans**.

Sport & Activities - Great Britain

The United Kingdom has a wealth of sports and activities to offer visitors? from classic sporting events for spectators, to opportunities for numerous outdoor pursuits. It is well known that many popular sports originated in the UK. Football, cricket, rugby, golf and tennis, to name but a few, were invented here. These sports are still avidly followed and played by many enthusiasts. For more specific information on sport in the different areas of the UK, see the individual country sections.

Spectator sports: Football is the UK's most popular spectator sport. The season lasts from August to May, and matches are played mainly at weekends. Most football clubs sell tickets in advance, though for some clubs (eg Arsenal, Chelsea, Liverpool, Manchester United), games will be sold out months in advance. The main cricket (played strictly between April and September) and tennis tournaments are held in England, while rugby is particularly popular in Wales. Horse racing and motor racing are very popular throughout the UK, with the chance of making a fortune through the bookmakers being a major attraction. The best-known rowing and sailing regattas take place in England, and are regarded as important social events.

Golf: There are courses in every corner of the UK, from famous courses to more modest ones. A round at one of the more popular courses, such as the Old Course at St Andrews, needs to be booked well in advance.

Outdoor pursuits: Walking, mountaineering, caving, climbing and cycling are all easy to arrange. With the UK's countryside ranging from rolling fields and pleasant farmland to austere mountains, all kinds of walks are possible. There are 14 national parks and numerous other protected natural areas in England and Wales. Further information on national parks and specific paths can be found in the

individual country sections. Although nearly all land (including land in national parks) in the UK is privately owned, walkers have access to it along rights of way that are marked on maps and usually signposted. There are also areas where it is permissible to go beyond the rights of way, and these are known as 'open country'. An excellent series of maps is published by the Ordnance Survey, a government agency. Widely available and covering the whole of the UK except Northern Ireland (maps of which are published by the Ordnance Survey of Ireland), these come in different scales (1:50,000 and 1:25,000). There are many outdoor pursuits centres which offer tuition in mountaincraft and watersports and organise trips. Moreover, walking is a very popular activity in the UK, and there are several influential organisations that exist to promote the interests of walkers.

Public Holidays - Great Britain

Public Holidays: Below are listed Public Holidays for the January 2006-June 2007 period.

Jan 1-2 2006 New Year's Day. Apr 14 Good Friday. Apr 17 Easter Monday (*except Scotland*). May 1 Early May Bank Holiday. May 29 Spring Bank Holiday. Aug 28 Summer Bank Holiday (*except Scotland*). Dec 25 Christmas Day. Dec 26 Boxing Day.

Jan 1 2007 New Year's Day. Apr 6 Good Friday. Apr 9 Easter Monday (*except Scotland*). May 7 Early May Bank Holiday. May 28 Spring Bank Holiday.

United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland

The British Government: How Parliament Works

Information courtesy of The British Information Services

The Houses of Parliament

Parliament, Britain's legislature, is made up of the <u>House of Commons</u>, the House of Lords and the Queen in her constitutional role. They meet together only on occasions of symbolic importance such as the state opening of parliament, when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords. The agreement of all three elements is normally required for legislation, but that of the Queen is given as a matter of course to Bills sent to her.

Parliament can legislate for Britain as a whole, or for any part of the country. It can also legislate for the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man, which are Crown dependencies and not part of Britain. They have local legislatures which make laws on the island affairs.

As there are no legal restraints imposed by a written constitution, Parliament may legislate as it pleases, subject to Britain's obligations as a member of the European Union. It can make or change any law; and can overturn established conventions or turn them into law. It can even prolong its own life beyond the normal period without consulting the electorate. In practice, however, Parliament does not assert its supremacy in this way. Its members bear in mind the common law and normally act in accordance with precedent. The validity of an Act of Parliament, once passed, cannot be disputed in the law courts. The House of Commons is directly responsible to the electorate, and in this century the House of Lords has recognized the supremacy of the elected chamber. The system of party government helps to ensure that Parliament legislates with its responsibility to the electorate in mind.

The Functions of Parliament

The main functions of Parliament are:

to pass laws;

to provide, by voting for taxation, the means of carrying on the work of the government;

to scrutinize government policy and administration, including proposals for expenditure; and to debate the major issues of the day.

In carrying out these functions Parliament helps to bring the relevant facts and issues before the electorate. By custom, Parliament is also informed before all important international treaties and agreements are ratified. The making of treaties is, however, a royal prerogative exercised on the advice of the Government and is not subject to parliamentary approval.

The Meeting of Parliament

A Parliament has a maximum duration of five years, but in practice general elections are usually held before the end of this term. The maximum life has been prolonged by legislation in rare circumstances such as the two world wars. Parliament is dissolved and writs for a general election are ordered by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minister.

The life of a Parliament is divided into sessons. Each usually lasts for one year - normally beginning and ending in October or November. Ther are 'adjournaments' at night, at weekends, at Christmas, Easter and the late Spring Bank Holiday, and during a long summer break usually starting in late July. The average number of 'sitting' days in a session is about 160 in the House of Commons and about 145 in the House of Lords. At the start of each session the Queen's speech to Parliament outlines the Government's policies and proposed legislative program. Each session is ended by prorogation. Parliament then 'stands prorogued' for about a week until the new session opens.

Public Bills which have not been passed by the end of the session are lost.

The House of Lords

The House of Lords consists of:

all hereditary peers and peeresses of England, Scotland, Great Britain and the United Kingdom;

life peers created to assist the House in its judicial duties (Lords of Appeal or 'law lords');

all other life peers; and

the Archbiships of Canterbury and York, the Bishops of London, Durham and Winchester, and the 21 senior bishops of the Church of England.

Hereditary peerages carry a right to sit in the House provided holders establish their claim and are aged 21 years or over. However, anyone succeeding to a peerage many, within 12 months of succession, disclaim that peerage for his or her lifetime. Disclaimants lose their right to sit in the House but gain the right to vote and stand as candidates at parliamentary elections. Peerages, both hereditary and life, are created by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister. They are usually granted in recognition of service in politics or other walks of life or because one of the political parties wishes to have the recipient in the House of Lords. The House also provides a place in Parliament for people who offer useful advice, but do not wish to be involved in party politics. In addition, senior judges are given life peerages as Lords of Appeal.

In mid-1994 there were 1,198 members of the House of Lords, including the two archbishops and 24 bishops. There were 758 hereditary peers who had succeeded to their titles, 15 hereditary peers who had had their titles conferred on them, including the Prince of Wales, and 399 life peers, of whom 21 were 'law lords'. Peers who attend the House - the average daily attendance is some 380 - receive no salary for their parliamentary work, but can claim for expenses incurred in attending the House (for which there are maximum daily rates), and certain travelling expenses.

The House is presided over by the Lord Chancellor, who is ex-officio Speaker of the House.

The House of Commons

The House of Commons consists of 651 Members of Parliament (MPs) directly elected by voters in each of Britain's 651 parliamentary constituencies. At present there are 62 women, three Asian and three black MPs. Of the 651 seats, 524 are for England, 38 for Wales, 72 for Scotland and 17 for Northern Ireland.

General elections are held after a Parliament has been dissolved and a new one summoned by the Queen. When an MP dies or resigns, or is given a peerage, a by-election take place. Members are paid an annual salary of £33,189 - as of January 1995 - and an office costs allowance of up to £41,308. There are also a number of other allowances, including travel allowances, a supplement for London members and, for members with constituencies a long way from London, subsistence allowances and allowances for second homes. While we're on the subject of salaries, might as well list a few more. The salaries of misisters in the House of Commons range from £45,815 a year for junior ministers to £64,749 for Cabinet ministers. In the House of Lords salaries range from £38,894 for junior ministers to £52,260 for Cabinet ministers. The Prime Minister receives £78,292 and the Lord Chancellor £120,179. (The Leader of the Opposition receives £61,349 a year; two Opposition whips in the Commons and the Opposition Leader and Chief Whip in the Lords also receive salaries.)

Officers of the House of Commons

The chief officer of the House of Commons is the Speaker, elected by MPs to preside over the House. Other officers include the three Deputy Speakers who are elected by the House on the nomination of the Government but are drawn from the Opposition as well as the government party. They, like the Speaker, neither speak nor vote other than in their official capacity.

Permanent officers - who are not MPs - include the Clerk of the House of Commons, who is the principal adviser to the Speaker on the Commons' privileges and procedures, and the Serjeant-at-Arms, who waits on the Speaker, and is responsible for security. Other officers serve the House in the Library, and the Departments of the Official Report, Finance and Administration and Refreshment.

Parliamentary Procedure

Parliamentary procedure is based on custom and precedent. The system of debate is similar in both Houses. Every subject starts off as a proposal or 'motion' by a member. After debate, the Speaker or Chairman 'puts the question' whether to agree with the motion or not. The question may be decided without voting, or by a simple majority vote. The main difference of procedure between the two Houses is that the Speaker or Chairman in the Lords has no powers of order; instead such matters are decided by the general feeling of the House.

In the Commons the Speaker has full authority to enforce the rules of the House and must guard against the abuse of procedure and potect minority rights. The Speaker has discretion on whether to allow a motion to end discussion so that a matter may be put to the vote and has powers to put a stop to irrelevance and repetition in debate, and to save time in other ways. In cases of serious disorder the Speaker can adjourn or suspend the sitting. The Speaker can order members who have broken the rules of behavior of the House to leave the Chamber or can initiate their suspension for a period of days.

The Speaker supervises voting in the Commons and announces the final results. In a tied vote the Speaker gives a casting vote, without expressing an opinion on the merits of the question. The voting procedure in the House of Lords is broadly similar, although the Lord Chancellor does not have a casting vote.

Chapter Three Canada (5 学分)

History of Canada

First Peoples

Many <u>indigenous peoples</u> (both <u>First Nations</u> and <u>Inuit</u>) have inhabited the region that is now Canada for thousands of years and have their own diverse histories. Aside from <u>spiritual explanations</u> of indigenous origins, anthropologists continue to argue over various possible <u>models of migration</u> to modern day Canada, as well as their pre-contact populations. The <u>Inuit</u> are believed to have arrived entirely separately from other indigenous peoples around 1200. The indigenous peoples of Canada contributed significantly to the culture of the early European colonies and as such have played an important role in fostering a unique Canadian cultural identity.

European Contact

There are a number of reports of contact made before Columbus between the first peoples and those from other continents. The case of <u>Viking contact</u> is supported by the remains of a viking settlement in <u>L'Anse aux Meadows</u>, <u>Newfoundland</u>. This may well have been the place <u>Icelandic Norseman Leifur Eiríksson</u>, referred to as <u>Vinland</u> around the year 1000.

New France (Nouvelle-France) 1604-1763

After Champlain's founding of <u>Quebec City</u> in 1608 it became the capital of <u>New France</u>. While the coastal communities were based upon the <u>cod</u> fishery, the economy of the interior revolved around <u>beaver fur</u> which was the rage in Europe. French *voyageurs* would travel into the hinterlands and trade with the natives. The voyageurs ranged throughout what is today Quebec, Ontario, and Manitoba trading <u>guns</u>, <u>gun powder</u>, <u>textiles</u> and other European manufacturing goods with the natives for furs. The fur trade only encouraged a small population, however, as minimal labour was required. Encouraging settlement was always difficult, and while some immigration did occur, by 1759 New France only had a population of some 60,000.

Canada under British Imperial Control 1764-1867

With the end of the <u>Seven Years' War</u> and the signing of the <u>Treaty of Paris</u> on <u>February 10</u>, <u>1763</u>, France ceded almost all of its territory in North America. The new British rulers left alone much of the religious, political and social culture of the French-speaking <u>habitants</u>. Violent conflict would continue to arise during the next century, leading Canada into the War of 1812 and a pair of Rebellions in 1837.

Post-Confederation Canada 1867-1914

On July 1, 1867, with the passing of the British North America Act by the British Parliament, the Province of Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia became a federation, regarded as a kingdom in her own right. John A. Macdonald had spoken of "founding a great British monarchy" and wanted the newly country to be called the "Kingdom of Canada." Although Canada would maintain its monarch, officials at the Colonial Office in London, opposed this potentially "premature" and "pretentious" reference for a new country. They were also wary of antagonizing the United States which had emerged from the American Civil War as a formidable military power with unsettled grievances because of British support for the Confederate cause and thus opposed the use of terms such as kingdom or empire to describe the new country. As a result the term dominion was chosen to indicate Canada's status as a self-governing colony of the British Empire, the first time it would be so used in reference to a country.

Canada in World Wars and Interwar Years

Canada's participation in the <u>First World War</u> helped create a sense of independence from Britain. The high point of Canadian military achievement came at the <u>Battle of Vimy Ridge</u> on <u>April 9</u>, <u>1917</u>, during which Canadian troops captured a fortified German hill that had resisted British and French attacks earlier in the war. Vimy, as well as the success of the Canadian flying aces <u>William Barker</u> and <u>Billy Bishop</u>, helped to give Canada a new sense of identity. As a result of the war, the Canadian government became more assertive and less deferential to British authority, because many Canadians were dismayed by what they saw as British command failures.

History of Canada (1945-1960)

Canada's economy grew in the aftermath of the <u>Second World War</u>, and its policies increasingly turned to social welfare, including hospital insurance, old-age pensions, and veterans' pensions. The economic boom resulting from wartime investment led the independent <u>Dominion of Newfoundland</u> into a period of transition. In a controversial series of referendums held in 1948, Newfoundlanders eventually decided to join in confederation with Canada. At the same time, Canada's foreign policy during in the <u>Cold War</u> was deeply connected to that of its neighbour to the south, demonstrated by the establishment an air defence system with the United States, <u>NORAD</u>.

History of Canada (1960-1981)

In the 1960s, a <u>Quiet Revolution</u> took place in Quebec, increasing the tensions between <u>Québécois</u> nationalists and English Canada, until violence erupted during the 1970 <u>October Crisis</u>. During his long tenure in the office (1968–79, 1980–84), Prime Minister <u>Trudeau</u> attempted to reunify Canadian citizens.

History of Canada (1982-1992)

As the highlight of his 1980s years as prime minister, Trudeau brought about the <u>Patriation</u> of the Canadian Constitution in 1982, which gave Canada a <u>Charter of Rights</u> and final independence from Britain. Unfortunately, the negotiations led to renewed antagonism between Quebec and the rest of Canada, which later Prime Minister Mulroney's <u>Meech Lake Accord</u> failed to smooth over. During the same decade, Canada engaged in violent conflict both abroad in the <u>Gulf War</u> and at home, during the <u>Oka Crisis</u>. Also this period saw the <u>Mount Cashel Boys Home Scandal</u>.

History of Canada (1992-Present)

In the past decade and a half, Canada experienced the tenure of another one of the longest continuously serving prime ministers (<u>Jean Chrétien</u>), a second <u>Quebec referendum on sovereignty</u>, and the creation of a new territory, <u>Nunavut</u>. In 1993, the Canadian government set a target of 1% per capita population growth from immigration, <u>the highest per capita immigration rate in the world</u>. It should be noted, however, that by the standards of certain decades this is, in fact, a rather low rate of immigration. In 1913, for instance, Canada admitted 400,000 immigrants, equal to 5% of the population at the time.

Geography and climate

Canada occupies most of the northern portion of North America. It shares land borders with the contiguous United States to the south and with the US state of Alaska to the northwest, stretching from the Atlantic Ocean in the east to the Pacific Ocean in the west; to the north lies the Arctic Ocean. Since 1925, Canada has claimed the portion of the Arctic between 60°W and 141°W longitude; It is claim is not universally recognized. The northernmost settlement in Canada (and in the world) is Canadian Forces Station (CFS) Alert on the northern tip of Ellesmere Island—latitude 82.5°N—just 817 kilometres (450 nautical miles) from the North Pole. Canada is the world's second-largest country in total area, after

Russia.

Economy

Canada is one of the world's <u>wealthiest nations</u> with a high per capita income, a member of the <u>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</u> (OECD) and <u>Group of Eight</u> (G8). Canada is a <u>free market</u> economy with slightly more government intervention than the United States, but much less than most European nations. Canada has traditionally had a lower per capita gross domestic product (GDP) than its southern neighbour (whereas wealth has been more equally divided), but higher than the large western European economies.

Demographics

The <u>2001 national census</u> recorded 30,007,094 people; the population is currently estimated by <u>Statistics Canada</u> to be 32.623 million people. Population growth is largely accomplished through <u>immigration</u> and, to a lesser extent, natural growth. About three-quarters of Canada's population live within 160 kilometres (100 mi) of the U.S. border. A similar proportion live in <u>urban areas</u> concentrated in the <u>Quebec City-Windsor Corridor</u> (notably the <u>Toronto-Hamilton</u>, <u>Montreal</u>, and <u>Ottawa census metropolitan areas</u>), the BC <u>Lower Mainland</u> (<u>Vancouver</u> and environs), and the <u>Calgary-Edmonton Corridor</u> in Alberta.

Language

Canada's two official languages, <u>English</u> and <u>French</u>, are the <u>mother tongues</u> of 59.7% and 23.2% of the population, respectively. On <u>July 7</u>, <u>1969</u>, under the <u>Official Languages Act</u>, French was made commensurate to English throughout the federal government. This started a process that led to Canada redefining itself as an officially "<u>bilingual</u>" nation.

Chapter Four Australia (5 学分)

History

The first human habitation of Australia is estimated to have occurred between 42,000 and 48,000 years ago. [2] The first Australians were the ancestors of the current Indigenous Australians; they arrived via land bridges and short sea-crossings from present-day Southeast Asia. Most of these people were hunter-gatherers, with a complex oral culture and spiritual values based on reverence for the land and a belief in the Dreamtime. The Torres Strait Islanders, ethnically Melanesian, inhabited the Torres Strait Islands and parts of far-north Queensland; their cultural practices are distinct from those of the Aborigines.

Politics

The Commonwealth of Australia is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary system of government. Queen Elizabeth II is the Queen of Australia, a role that is distinct from her position as monarch of the other Commonwealth Realms. The Queen is nominally represented by the Governor-General at Federal level and by the Governors at State level. Although the Constitution gives extensive executive powers to the Governor-General, these are normally exercised only on the advice of the Prime Minister. The most notable exercise of the Governor-General's reserve powers outside the Prime Minister's direction was the dismissal of the Whitlam Government in the constitutional crisis of 1975.

States and territories

Australia consists of six states, two major mainland territories, and other minor territories. The states are New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria and Western Australia. The two major mainland territories are the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory. In most respects, the territories function similarly to the states, but the Commonwealth Parliament can override any legislation of their parliaments. By contrast, federal legislation overrides state legislation only with respect to certain areas as set out in Section 51 of the Constitution; all residual legislative powers are retained by the state parliaments, including powers over hospitals, education, police, the judiciary, roads, public transport and local government.

Foreign relations and the military

Over recent decades, Australia's foreign relations have been driven by a close association with the United States, through the ANZUS pact and by a desire to develop relationships with Asia and the Pacific, particularly through ASEAN and the Pacific Islands Forum.

Geography and climate

Australia's 7,686,850 <u>square kilometres</u> (2,967,909 <u>sq. mi</u>) landmass is on the <u>Indo-Australian Plate</u>. Surrounded by the <u>Indian</u>, <u>Southern</u> and <u>Pacific</u> oceans, Australia is separated from Asia by the <u>Arafura</u> and <u>Timor</u> seas. Australia has a total 25,760 <u>kilometres</u> (16,007 <u>mi</u>) of coastline and claims an extensive <u>Exclusive Economic Zone</u> of 8,148,250 square kilometres (3,146,057 sq. mi). This exclusive economic zone does not include the <u>Australian Antarctic Territory</u>.

Economy

Australia has a prosperous, Western-style <u>mixed economy</u>, with a per capita <u>GDP</u> slightly higher than the UK, <u>Germany</u> and <u>France</u> in terms of <u>purchasing power parity</u>. The country was ranked third in

the <u>United Nations'</u> 2005 <u>Human Development Index</u> and sixth in <u>The Economist</u> worldwide quality-of-life index 2005. In recent years, the Australian economy has been resilient in the face of global economic downturn. Rising output in the domestic economy has been offsetting the global slump, and business and consumer confidence remains robust. Current areas of concern to some economists include Australia's high <u>current account deficit</u> and also the high levels of net foreign debt owed by the private sector.

Demographics

Most of the estimated 20.6 million Australians are descended from nineteenth- and twentieth-century immigrants, the majority from <u>Great Britain</u> and <u>Ireland</u>. Australia's population has quadrupled since the end of <u>World War I, [211]</u> spurred by an ambitious <u>immigration</u> program. In 2001, the five largest groups of the 23.1% of Australians who were born overseas were from the <u>United Kingdom, New Zealand, Italy, Vietnam</u> and <u>China. [191]</u> Following the abolition of the <u>White Australia policy</u> in 1973, numerous government initiatives have been established to encourage and promote racial harmony based on a policy of <u>multiculturalism</u>.

Culture

The primary basis of Australian culture until the mid-20th century was <u>Anglo-Celtic</u>, although distinctive Australian features had been evolving from the environment and <u>indigenous</u> culture. Over the past 50 years, Australian culture has been strongly influenced by American popular culture (particularly television and cinema), large-scale immigration from non-English-speaking countries, and Australia's Asian neighbours. The vigour and originality of the arts in Australia — films, opera, music, painting, theatre, dance, and crafts — achieve international recognition.

Chapter Five Ireland (5 学分)

Geography

A ring of coastal mountains surrounds low central <u>plains</u>. The highest peak is <u>Carrauntuohill</u> (<u>Irish</u>: *Carrán Tuathail*), which is 1,041 m (3,414 feet). The island is bisected by the <u>River Shannon</u>, at 386 km (240 miles) the longest river in Ireland. The island's lush vegetation, a product of its mild climate and frequent but soft rainfall, earns it the <u>sobriquet</u> "Emerald Isle". The island's area is 84,412 km^{2[6]} (32,591 square miles).

Climate

Overall, Ireland has a mild, but changeable, climate all year. The island is not noted for its extremes. The warmest recorded air temperature was 33.3°C (91.94°F)at <u>Kilkenny Castle</u>, <u>County Kilkenny</u> on <u>26 June 1887</u>. The coldest air temperature was -19.1°C (-2.38°F) at <u>Markree Castle</u>, <u>County Sligo</u> on 16 January 1881. Precipitation falls throughout the year, but is light overall, particularly in the east of the country. The west of the country, however, tends to be wetter on average and prone to the full force of Atlantic storms, more especially in the late autumn and winter months, which occasionally bring destructive winds and high rainfall totals to these areas, as well as snow and hail. The regions of North <u>Galway</u> and East Mayo have the highest incidents of recorded lightning annually (5 to 10 days per year. [8]

History

Ireland was mostly ice-covered and joined by land to Britain and continental Europe during the last ice age. It has been inhabited for about 9,000 years. Stone age inhabitants arrived sometime after 8000 BC, with the culture progressing from Mesolithic to high Neolithic over the course of three or four millennia. The Bronze Age, which began around 2500 BC, saw the production of elaborate gold and bronze ornaments and weapons. The Iron Age in Ireland is associated with people now known as Celts.

Irish Independence: The Irish Free State, Éire, Ireland

The Anglo-Irish Treaty was narrowly ratified by the Dáil in December 1921 but was rejected by a large minority, resulting in the <u>Irish Civil War</u> which lasted until 1923. In 1922, in the middle of this civil war, the <u>Irish Free State</u> came into being. For its first years the new state was governed by the victors of the Civil War. However, in the 1930s <u>Fianna Fáil</u>, the party of the opponents of the treaty, were elected into government. The party introduced a new constitution in 1937 which renamed the state "<u>Éire</u> or in the English language, **Ireland**" (*preface to the Constitution*).

Northern Ireland

From its creation in 1921 until 1972, Northern Ireland enjoyed limited self-government within the United Kingdom, with its own parliament and prime minister. However, the <u>Protestant</u> and <u>Catholic</u> communities in Northern Ireland each voted almost entirely along <u>sectarian</u> lines, meaning that the government of Northern Ireland (elected by <u>"first past the post"</u> from 1929) was always controlled by the <u>Ulster Unionist Party</u>. Consequently, Catholics could not participate in the government, which at times openly encouraged <u>discrimination</u> in housing and employment.

Sport

Gaelic football and hurling are the most popular sports in Ireland.^[17] Along with Camogie, Ladies' Gaelic football, handball and rounders, they make up the national sports of Ireland, collectively known as Gaelic Games. All Gaelic games are governed by the Gaelic Athletic Association (GAA), with the exception of Ladies' Gaelic Football, which is governed by a separate organisation. The GAA is organised on an all-Ireland basis with all 32 counties competing; traditionally, counties first compete within their province, in the provincial championships, and the winners then compete in the All-Ireland senior hurling or football championships. The headquarters of the GAA (and the main stadium) is located at the 82,300^[18] capacity Croke Park in north Dublin. All major GAA games are played here, including the semi-finals and finals of the All-Ireland championships. All GAA players, even at the highest level, are amateurs and receive no wages.

Literature and the arts

For an island of relatively small population, Ireland has made a disproportionately large contribution to world literature in all its branches, mainly in English. Poetry in Irish represents the oldest <u>vernacular</u> poetry in Europe with the earliest examples dating from the 6th century; <u>Jonathan Swift</u>, still often called the foremost <u>satirist</u> in the <u>English language</u>, was wildly popular in his day (<u>Gulliver's Travels</u>, <u>A Modest Proposal</u>, etc.) and remains so in modern times amongst both children and adults. In more recent times, Ireland has produced four winners of the <u>Nobel Prize for Literature</u>: <u>George Bernard Shaw</u>, <u>William Butler Yeats</u>, <u>Samuel Beckett</u> and <u>Seamus Heaney</u>.

Music and dance

The Irish tradition of <u>folk music</u> and <u>dance</u> is also widely known. In the middle years of the 20th century, as Irish society was attempting to modernise, traditional music tended to fall out of favour, especially in urban areas. During the 1960s, and inspired by the American <u>folk music</u> movement, there was a revival of interest in the Irish tradition. This revival was led by such groups as <u>The Dubliners</u>, <u>The Chieftains</u>, the <u>Clancy Brothers</u>, <u>Sweeney's Men</u>, and individuals like <u>Seán Ó Riada</u> and <u>Danny O'Flaherty</u>. Irish and Scottish traditional music are similar.

Demographics

Ireland has been inhabited for at least 9,000 years, although little is known about the <u>paleolithic</u> or <u>neolithic</u> inhabitants of the island. Early historical and genealogical records note the existence of dozens of different peoples (Cruithne, Attacotti, Conmaicne, Eóganachta, Érainn, Soghain, to name but a few).

Transport

Air

The three most important international airports in the Republic are <u>Dublin Airport</u>, <u>Cork International Airport</u> and <u>Shannon Airport</u>. All provide extensive services to the UK and continental Europe, while Dublin and Shannon also offer a range of transatlantic services. The Irish national airline <u>Aer Lingus</u> and low-cost operator <u>Ryanair</u> are based at Dublin. Shannon was once an important stopover on the trans-Atlantic route for refuelling operations and, with Dublin, is still one of Ireland's two designated transatlantic gateway airports.

Rail

The <u>rail</u> network in Ireland was developed by various private companies, some of which received <u>British Government</u> funding in the late 19th century. The network reached its greatest extent by 1920. The <u>broad gauge</u> of 5 <u>foot 3 inches</u> (1,600 <u>mm</u>) was eventually settled upon throughout the island, although there were <u>narrow gauge</u> (3 ft / 91.4 <u>cm</u>) railways also. Ireland also has one of the largest <u>freight railways</u>

in <u>Europe</u>, operated by <u>Bord na Móna</u>. This company has a <u>narrow gauge</u> railway of 1,200 <u>miles</u> (1,930 km).

Economy

In the 1920s and early 1930s, the Republic of Ireland pursued a low-tax, low-spending policy under the government of W.T. Cosgrave and Cumann Na Gaehael, focused mainly on agriculture, livestock farming being of primary importance. The only notable expense the government went to during this time was for the rural electrification scheme, which saw £5,000,000 being spent (a colossal sum of money) constructing a hydroelectric dam on the river Shannon. During this time, 97% of trade was done with Britain.

Chapter Six New Zealand (3 学分)

History

New Zealand is one of the most recently settled major land masses. <u>Polynesian</u> settlers arrived in their <u>waka</u> some time between the <u>13th century</u> and the <u>15th century</u> to establish the <u>indigenous Māori culture</u>. New Zealand's <u>Māori name</u>, *Aotearoa*, is usually translated as "Land of the long white cloud", reputedly referring to the cloud the explorers saw on the horizon as they approached.

New Zealand was initially administered as a part of the colony of <u>New South Wales</u>, and it became a separate colony in November <u>1840</u>. The first capital was <u>Okiato</u> or old <u>Russell</u> in the <u>Bay of Islands</u> but it soon moved to Auckland.

Government

New Zealand is a <u>constitutional monarchy</u> with a <u>parliamentary democracy</u>. Under the New Zealand Royal Titles Act (1953), <u>Queen Elizabeth II</u> is <u>Queen of New Zealand</u> and is represented as <u>head of state</u> by the <u>Governor-General</u>, <u>Anand Satyanand</u>.

Foreign relations and the military

New Zealand maintains a strong profile on environmental protection, human rights and free trade, particularly in agriculture.

New Zealand is a member of the following geo-political organisations: APEC, East Asia Summit, Commonwealth of Nations, OECD and the United Nations. It has signed up to a number of free trade agreements, of which the most important is Closer Economic Relations with Australia.

Local government and external territories

The early European settlers divided New Zealand into <u>provinces</u>. These were abolished in <u>1876</u> so that government could be centralised, for financial reasons. As a result, New Zealand has no separately represented <u>subnational entities</u> such as provinces, states or territories, apart from its local government. The spirit of the provinces however still lives on, and there is fierce rivalry exhibited in sporting and cultural events.

Geography

New Zealand comprises two main islands (called the North and South Islands in English, *Te-Ika-a-Maui* and *Te Wai Pounamu* in <u>Māori</u>) and a number of <u>smaller islands</u>. The total land area, 268,680 <u>square kilometres</u> (103,738 <u>sq miles</u>), is a little less than that of Italy and <u>Japan</u>, and a little more than the <u>United Kingdom</u>. The country extends more than 1600 kilometres (1000 miles) along its main, north-north-east axis, with approximately 15,134 km of coastline.

Economy

New Zealand has a modern developed economy with an estimated GDP of \$97.39 billion (2005).

The country has a high standard of living with GDP per capita estimated at \$25,200 (comparative figures are Australia \$31,900 and United States \$41,800). The standard of living has also been measured in other forms, including being ranked 19th on the 2005 Human Development Index and 15th in The Economist's 2005 world-wide quality-of-life index.

Demographics

New Zealand has a population of about 4.1 million. About 80% [6] of the population are of European descent. New Zealanders of European descent are collectively known as Pākehā - this term is used

variously and some Māori use it to refer to all non-Māori New Zealanders. Most European New Zealanders are of British and Irish ancestry with smaller percentages of Dutch, South Slav or Italian ancestry. [7] Indigenous Māori people are the largest non-European ethnic group (the percentage of the population of full or part-Māori ancestry is 14.7%; those who checked Māori only are 7.9%).

Culture

Contemporary New Zealand has a diverse culture with influences from English, Scottish, Irish, and Māori cultures, along with those of other European cultures and – more recently – Polynesian (including Samoan, Tongan, Niuean, Cook Islands Māori, Tahitian, and Hawaiian), southern Asian (Indian), Southeast Asian (Filipino, Malaysian, Cambodian, and Vietnamese), and east Asian (Chinese, Korean, and Japanese) cultures.

Sports

New Zealand's national sport is <u>rugby union</u>, with other popular <u>sports</u> including, <u>cricket</u>, <u>netball</u>, <u>lawn bowling</u>, <u>soccer</u> (perhaps surprisingly, the most popular football code in terms of participation in New Zealand) and <u>rugby league</u>. Also popular are <u>golf</u>, <u>tennis</u>, <u>cycling</u>, <u>softball</u> (current Men's <u>International Softball Federation</u> World Champions, 1996, 2000, 2004) and a variety of <u>water sports</u>, particularly <u>surfing</u>, <u>sailing</u>, <u>whitewater kayaking</u>, <u>surf lifesaving skills</u> and <u>rowing</u>.

四、使用教材名称、作者及出版社:

自编

参考教材

1《英语国家概况》全国自学考试指定教材

出版社:外语教学与研究出版社

2《当代美国社会与文化》

编箸: 王恩铭

出版社: 上海外语教育出版社

3《当代美国社会与文化》

编著: 方鍵状, 王虹

出版社:上海外语教育出版社

4 〈〈英语国家社会与文化入门〉〉

(The Society and Culture of Major English-Speaking Countries)

朱永涛主编

高等教育出版社

An Outline Introduction to Britain and America

编著:来安方

出版社:河南教育出版社

《语言学概论》教学大纲

张连文 编写

目 录

前 言	579
一、概述	579
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	579
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	580
四、教学原则与方法	580
五、考核方式、成绩评定	581
Chapter 1 Invitation to Linguistics	582
Chapter 2 Speech Sounds	586
Chapter 3 Lexicon	591
Chapter 4 Syntax	595
Chapter 5 Meaning	604
Chapter 6 Language Processing in Mind	608
Chapter 7 Language, Culture and Society	612
Chapter 8 Language in Use	618
Chapter 9 Language and Computer	624
六、主要参考书目和论文	628

前言

一、概述

语言学是对人类语言的科学研究。没有哪个学科比语言学同人类的本质更接近了,它的研究对象是我们借以表达意义、认知思维的手段,也就是我们的思想得以形成和被理解的手段。语言学和语言学习不同,学习语言是一个语文学习,掌握语音语法词汇等基础知识,但是语言学是研究所有人类语言之后的普遍原则和规则。语言学研究已经从描写走向了解释,并且出现了理论和实证研究相结合的道路。理论语言学对语言现象理论上进行概括、解释,通常包括语音学、句法学、语义学、语用学、认识语法等交叉学科;应用语言学是研究语言在各个领域中实际应用的语言学分支学科,其研究范围分为语言教学、语言学和现代科技的结合、广义的社会语言学及语言规范和规划四个主要部分。

普通语言学是普通高等学校英语和汉语等专业的重要科目,也是外语和汉语专业的研究生首要的专业。其分支在语言专业的各个学科中是最多的。语言学中的句法学、语义学是整个语言学的核心,国外的著名大学都可以句法学、语义学和音系学开设语言学系,而且国内有英语语言文学博士点授予权的著名大学都以语言学作为重点学科和学术的核心。是国内各个重点大学研究生理论课程的首要学科,也是社会科学院等研究机构的重点学科。

培养外国语言文学专业的高年级学生具有一定的语言学基础理论、掌握了语言研究的科学方法对于把握语言的本质,掌握语言的规律,并了解语言演变的历史过程和语音、词汇、句法等的变异对于语言学习以及翻译、文学等的学习和研究具有相当重要的作用。语言学是研究生阶段的任何语言类专业的学生必须学习的课程。

我们以胡壮麟的《语言学教程》作为教材,因为此书最新版(2001)是经过多位编者的反复修改、广泛征求教学第一线的教师和研究者的意见的基础上再次修订的,其覆盖面广,能反映语言学的最新发展,也是国内目前比较权威的教科书,适合作为本科和研究生的基础教材。我们不局限于此教材的内容,结合其它国内外普通语言学专著的优点,展开对语言学的热点和专题讲授,增加研究生的知识广度和深度。对研究生语言学专业的学生进行形式语言学尤其形式语义学这样难度较大的学科的讲授,让他们熟悉国际上语言学研究的制高点,掌握科学的研究方法。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

教学目的: (1) 此课程培养学生理解语言学基本理论,力求贯通; (2) 学生通过学习本大纲规定的内容,了解和掌握普通语言学有关语音、形态、句法、语义、语用、语体、社会和心理的基本理论和语言研究的基本方法。(3) 掌握语言学研究的基本方法,学会运用理论解释语言现象; (4) 掌握语言学研究和理论的最新动态,熟悉国内外专业领域的理论和成果以及语言学分支的发展趋势,以及语言研究的热点和难点,学会从学术角度来分析实际语言问题,为更深入地独立研究语言学打下基础。培养学生的创新思维,有独立分析问题和解决问题的能力。

教学要求:(1)要求外语专业本科高年级学生掌握普通语言学的基本理论和各个分支流派的基本理论和语言研究的方法,要求学生学会运用理论分析实际语言问题;(2)要求研究生能够在掌握理论的基础上结合具体二级学科提出自己的分析框架和研究思路;要求研究生不仅要分析而且要解决实际语言问题,尤其在形式语言学和认知语言学这个语言学与其它学科群交叉的重要领域达到理论探讨和实证研究相结合来进行跨语言研究的更高目标培养;(3)为国家培养更多的、合格的、高

质量的掌握丰富语言学知识,能产生跨学科研究和应用的具有竞争力的外语专业人才。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

- 1、主要内容:介绍普通语言学的基本理论和研究方法,使学生掌握当代语言学的各个重要的 分支流派的学说,明确语言研究的目的;具体内容包括 13 章:第一章、语言研究的理据;语言的 定义;语言的起源;语言的功能;语言学的定义和理解;语言学的主要分支;第二章、言语声音, 主要是语音学和音系学的基本理论和应用; 区别性特征; 超音段音系尤其音节的分析和在文学和文 体学的应用分析;第三章、词汇;词汇的形式、意义、区分和分类;形态学;词汇的变化;词汇语 义学的基本知识和文献; 第四章、句法部分是重点,包括传统句法,结构分析方法,重要核心部分 是形式语言学的主流生成语法理论,其重点是"管约论"(GB)和"最简方案"(MP)研究的前沿和 热点问题: 功能方法主要是系统功能语法: 第五章、意义,包括所指理论,词汇语义,意义关系: 成分分析; 句子意义, 这是整个语义学的核心部分, 重点是形式语义学和逻辑语言学的理论和方法; 其次介绍其它语义研究派别和研究方法包括认知语义学和概念语义学等;第六章、大脑的语言处理, 包括介绍和语言的理解,词汇识别、词汇歧义、句法处理、语义和句子记忆、阅读的基本过程;话 语和语篇解释:语言的产生等:第七章、语言文化和社会包括语言和文化的关联,重点是语言相对 论和 Sapir-Whorf 假设; 文化在语言教学的地位; 语言和社会的关系包括两者的关联、社会语言学 基本理论和方法等: 第八章、语言使用, 主要涉及语用学的理论包括言语行为理论: 会话蕴涵理论 的合作原则、原则的违反和蕴涵的特点;后格赖斯理论发展,主要涉及关联理论(relevance theory)、 Q-和 R-原则等; 第九章、语言和文学,包括理论背景,文学语言的一般特征,突显和语法形式, 文学和比喻语言;诗歌语言,具体包括声音模式,重音和格模式,格和声音的传统形式,声音和格 的诗歌功能,如何分析诗歌:小说语言包括小说散文,言语和思想表达,散文文体,如何分析小说 的语言:戏剧语言包括如何分析戏剧和戏剧语篇:第十章、语言和计算机,内容包括计算机辅助语 言学习(CALL)和技术:机器翻译(MT);语料库语言学包括语言篇的编码和标注;从标注语料 库可以派生出一个重要成果,即以所选词语为关键词的相关句列(concordance,由此可以方便地罗 列出所选词语的使用语境, 进而可以提炼出相关属性信息, 如前面列举的前共现词类、后共现词类、 前共现义类、后共现义类、前共现词、后共现词以及原始文本潜在的切分歧义等等):信息提取等: 第十一章、语言学和外语教学,内容包括语言学和外语教学的关系,各种语言学观点(传统语法、 结构语言学、转换生成语言学、功能语言学和交际能力理论)和在外语学习和教学中的意义:大纲 设计(主要因素和类型):语言学习,包括语法和语言学习、输入和语言学习、语言学习的中介语: 错误分析(对比和非对比分析);语言测试,包括不同的方法和类型、测试内容和形式;分数的标 记和解释等; 第十二章、现代语言学的理论和流派,内容包括布拉格学派及其功能性句子观(FSP); 伦敦学派包括 Malinowsky 的理论、Firth 的理论、Halliday 和系统功能语法;美国学派包括 Bloomfiled 的理论和后 Bloomfield 语言学:转换生成语法,包括内在性假设、生成语法的理解、经典理论、标 准理论、扩展的标准理论、后期理论和 TG 语法的主要特征;格语法和生成语义学。
- **2、课时安排**:根据讲授的内容,课程分为介绍和引言 2 个课时、具体各章内容讲授,每章节 3 个课时和专题讲座 4 个课时。引言用两课时;共计 42 课时。

四、教学原则与方法

本课程以课堂讲授普通语言学理论的教学为主,学习理论语言学的基本理论和各个学派的理论 方法,指导学生学会分析具体语言的方法,引导学生理解自然语言如何同文化、社会、语境和文学 相联系。启发和引导学生深入理解每个定义和术语,尤其形式语言学难以掌握的术语和技术操作。 本课程也注重讲授实证分析与研究的方法。逐步学习和掌握分析和研究现代和当代语言学的科学方法。让他们深刻理解理论和实证结合的重要性。

通过一定时间的专题讲座,让学生开拓眼界,接触语言学的最前沿领域和难点。同时培养学生每一、二次讲课配有一次以学生为中心的专题讨论。增强学生解决实际语言问题的能力,尤其使用语语言学理论分析和解释语言的能力。

让学生在课前研读指定教材和参考资料,充分思考和观察;课堂在教师指导下给学生一定时间 讨论后由教师总结。 对研究生讲授,让学生研读国外语言学学术期刊和当前及近三年发表在外语 教学与研究,外国语,外语学刊,现代外语,当代语言学、语言教学与研究、语言文字应用、中国 语文等期刊上的相关论文。为学生以后深入学习语言学及其相关专业和更高阶段的研究打下扎实、 良好的基础。

五、考核方式、成绩评定

- 1.考核方式: 本课程普通语言学的考核方法是试卷考试和撰写论文。
- 2.成绩评定: 考试成绩占(60%) + 期末课程论文成绩(40%)。

Chapter 1 Invitation to Linguistics

1.1 Definition and Design Features of Language

Language is a means of verbal communication. It is instrumental in that communicating by speaking or writing is a purposeful act. Modern linguists have proposed various definitions of language, some of them are quoted below:

"Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols." (Sapir,1921). Language is "the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols." (Hall. 1968) "From now on I will consider language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements." (Chomsky, 1957)

Each of these definitions has its own special emphasis, and is not totally free from limitations. To give the most accurate definition, language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which members of a speech community communicate, interact, and transmit their cultures. And language distinguishes us from animals because it is far more sophisticated than any animal communication system.

The features that define our human languages can be called Design Features, or design features refer to the defining properties of human language that distinguish it from any animal system of communication. By comparing language with animal communication systems, we can have a better understanding of the nature of language. A framework was proposed by the American linguist Charles Hockett. He specified twelve design features, five of which are discussed here.

First is arbitrariness. Language is arbitrary. This means that there is no logical connection between meanings and sounds. A good example is the fact that different sounds are used to refer to the same object in different languages. On the other hand, we should be aware that while language is arbitrary by nature, it is not entire arbitrary; certain words are motivated. The best examples are the onomatopoeic words, hence onomatopoeic motivation. There are also morphological motivation and semantic motivation, hence metaphor and metonymy.

Second is duality. Language is a system, which consists of two sets of structures, or two levels. At the lower or the basic level there is a structure of sounds, which are meaningless by themselves. But the sounds of language can be grouped and regrouped into a large number of units of meaning, which are found at the higher level of the system. For example, the grouping of the three sounds /k/, /a:/, and /p/ can mean either a kind of fish (carp), or a public place for rest and amusement (park). Then the units at the higher level can be arranged and rearranged into an infinite number of sentences. This duality of structure or double articulation of language enables its users to talk about anything within their knowledge. No animal communication system has duality or even comes near to possessing it.

Third is creativity. By creativity we mean language is resourceful because of its duality and its recursiveness. Language is productive or creative in that it makes possible the construction and interpretation of new signals by its users. This is why they can produce and understand an infinitely large number of sentences, including sentences they have never heard before. They can send messages which no one else has ever sent before. Much of what we say and hear we are saying or hearing for the first time. Creativity is unique to human language. Most animal communication systems appear to be highly restricted with respect to the number of different signals that their users can send and receive.

Fourth is displacement. It means that human languages enable their users to symbolize objects, events and concepts which are not present at the moment of communication. In other words, language can be used to refer to contexts removed from the immediate situations of the speaker. This is what "displacement" means. This property provides speakers with an opportunity to talk about a wide range of things, free from barriers caused by separation in time and place. In contrast, no animal communication system possesses this feature. Animal calls are mainly uttered in response to immediate changes of situation, i.e., in contact of food, in presence of danger, or in pain. Once the danger or pain is gone, calls stop.

Fifth is cultural transmission. While human capacity for language has a genetic basis, i. e., we were all born with the ability to acquire language, the details of any language system are not genetically transmitted, but instead have to be taught and learned. An English speaker and a Chinese speaker are both able to use a language, but they are not mutually intelligible. This shows that language is culturally transmitted. It is passed on from one generation to the next through teaching and learning, rather than by instinct. In contrast, animal call systems are genetically transmitted.

1.2 Functions of Language

In his earlier works, Halliday proposed seven categories of language function by observing language development. Still other classifications employ different categories and use different terms, but all share a lot in common about the basic functions of language. We list the summary below for the convenience of presentation.

First function is Informative. Language is the instrument of thought and people often feel need to speak their thoughts aloud, for instance, when they are working on a math problem. Second is Interpersonal function, that is to establish and maintain status in a society. Third is Performative function, i.e., to change social status of person, to do things. Fourth is Emotive function, i.e., to change the emotional status of an audience for/against something or somebody. Fifth is Phatic function, i.e., seemingly meaningless expressions used to maintain good personal relations. Sixth is Receational function, i.e., the use of language for the sheer joy of it.

1.3 The Main Braches of Linguistics

Linguistics should include at least five parameters, namely, phonological, morphologic, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic. They correspond to phonetics, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics respectively.

Phonetics studies speech sounds, including the production of speech, that how speech sounds are actually made, transmitted and received, the sounds of speech, the description and classification of speech sounds, words and connected speech, etc.

Phonology studies the rules governing the structure, distribution, and sequencing of speech sounds and the shape of syllables. Morphology is concerned with the internal organization of words. It studies the minimal units of meaning-morphemes and word formation process.

Syntax is about the principles of forming and understanding correct syntax. The form or structure of a sentence is governed by the rules of syntax. The most important and influential syntactic theory is generative syntax led by Noam Chomsky. Chomsky's system of transformational grammar, though it was developed on the basis of his work with Harris, differs from Harris's in a number of respects. It is

Chomsky's system that has attracted the most attention and has received the most extensive exemplification and further development. The existence of linguistic universals in syntax, which is the core of Chomsky's claim, is still highly disputed.

Semantics examines how meaning is encoded in a language. It is not only concerned with meanings of words as lexical items, but also with levels of language below the word and above it, e.g., meaning of morphemes and sentences. The approaches to semantics includes formal semantics or truth condition semantics, conceptual semantics and cognitive semantics.

Pragmatics is the study of meaning in context. It deals with particular utterances in particular situations and is especially concerned with the various ways in which the many social contexts of language performance can influence interpretation. The semantics-pragmatics distinction has long been methodologically important in both linguistic and philosophy, hence the linguistic and philosophical backgrounds. However, generally speaking, semantics concentrates on meaning that comes purely linguistic knowledge, while pragmatics concentrates on those aspects of meaning that cannot be predicted by linguistic knowledge alone and takes into account knowledge about the physical and social world.

1.4 Macrolinguistics and Important Distinctions

Linguistics is not the only field concerned with language. Other disciplines such as psychology, sociology, ethnography, the science of law and artificial intelligence etc. are also preoccupied with language. We have some branches of macrolinguistics that show an interdisciplinary nature. They include psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistics and computational linguistics.

The important distinctions in linguistics include descriptive vs prescriptive, synchronic vs diachronic, langue vs parole, competence vs performance.

Prescriptive and descriptive represent two different types of linguistic study. If a linguistic study aims to describe and analyze the language people actually use, it is said to be descriptive; if the linguistic study aims to lay down rules for "correct and standard" behaviour in using language, i.e. to tell people what they should say and what they should not say, it is said to be prescriptive.

Language exists in time and changes through time. The description of a language at some point of time in history is a synchronic study; the description of a language as it changes through time is a diachronic study. A diachronic study of language is a historical study; it studies the historical development of language over a period of time.

The distinction between langue and parole was made by the Swiss linguist Saussure in the early 20th century. Langue and parole are French words; Langue refers to the abstract linguistic system shared by all the members of a speech community, and parole refers to the realization of langue in actual use. Langue is the set of conventions and rules which language users all have to abide by, and parole is the concrete use of the conventions and the application of the rules.

Similar to Saussure's distinction between langue and parole is the distinction between competence and performance, which was proposed by the American linguist Noam Chomsky in the late 1950's. Chomsky defines competence as the ideal user's knowledge of the rules of his language, and performance the actual realization of this knowledge in linguistic communication.

Revision Exercises:

1. Why is competence and performance an important distinction in linguistics? How to draw a

dividing line neatly between them? How to understand the concept communicative competence?

- 2. To investigate the braches of linguistics and discuss which branch will develop rapidly in China and why?
 - 3. Does the traffic light system have duality, why?

Further Readings:

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Robins, R. H.1989. *General Linguistics*[M]. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

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张连文, 2005a, 原则与参数系统的科学论述一代句法学导论》评介。现代外语, 第1期。

张连文,2005b, 句法研究的新发展—《最简句法:探索英语的结构》评介。外国语,第4期。

Chapter 2 Speech Sounds

1.1 Speech Production and Perception

Research concerned with the relationship between the production and perception of the sounds of a second language (L2) has addressed a problem that can be summarized as follows: Does production precede perception or, conversely, does perception precede production in the process of acquiring an L2? That is to say: can learners adequately pronounce sounds which are not well perceived, or is a good perception a prerequisite to accurate pronunciations? The answer to this question has not only got theoretical implications regarding the process of L2 acquisition, but also practical consequences as far as the methodology used for teaching pronunciation is concerned.

Some people claims that perception precedes production. As early as in 1931, Polivanov claimed that the phonemic representations of a second language are perceived according to the system of the first language; although it is difficult to assess the validity of the data supplied by Polivanov, his remarks have been interpreted as supporting the hypothesis that difficulties in the production of the sounds of an L2 arise from the influence of the L1 phonological structure on the perception of L2 sounds. A very similar view has been put forward by Trubetzkoy, who conceived the phonological system of L1 as a 'filter' through which all the sounds of L2 are perceived and classified. The verbo-tonal system closely follows this approach and, consequently, t he principle orienting its methodology is that L2 sounds are not adequately produced because they are not correctly perceived. Later on, the idea that inaccurate perceptual representations are responsible for non-native productions has been formulated in many of Flege's contributions. It can be summarized as follows: "foreign accent [...] may instead result from the development of the L1 phonetic system, which makes it increasingly unlikely that similar sounds in an L2 will evade being equated with sounds in L1". This phenomenon has been defined as "equivalence classification". Then, according to the hypothesis of the 'phonological filter' and the 'equivalence classification' principle, perception of a new phonetic contrast must necessarily precede its production.

While some people claim that production precedes perception, As Borrell points out, it is a very common experience when learning an L2 that not all the sounds that are correctly perceived will be correctly produced. Similar observations have been made by Neufeld and by Brière. It seems then, that in certain cases, the production of L2 sounds might precede their perception.

The study if sounds is divided into three main areas, each dealing with one part of the process. They include articulatory phonetics, acoustic phonetics, auditory phonetics.

2.2 Consonants and Vowels

The sound segments are grouped into consonants and vowels. When describing individual consonant segments, phoneticians and linguists often employ two parameters to examine how sounds are articulated: manner of articulation and place of articulation.

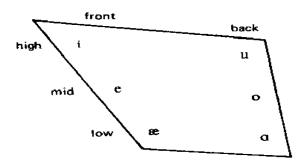
The manner of articulation is very important during the production of the sound. It is based on the size of the air passage. When the articulators are brought close together and the airflow in the oral cavity is completely blocked, the resultant manner of articulation is termed a stop. Stops are divided into two types: oral stops (plosives), and nasal stops (nasals).

The place of articulation is another way to observe how sounds are articulated. When describing the

place of articulation, we usually consider is the place within the vocal tract where the articulators form a stricture.

Consonants which are classified according to the manners of articulation include stop, fricatives approximant, lateral, till, tap (flap), affricative. Consonants which are classified according to the places of articulation include bilabial, labiodental, dental, alveolar, postalveolar, retroflex, palatal, velar, uvular, pharyngeal, glottal.

Vowels are made by egressive pulmonic airflow through vibrating or constricted vocal folds and through the vocal tract, and the sound is modified in the oral cavity. However, vowels are more difficult than consonants to describe articulatorily. The primary criteria for the classification of vowels are: (1) the distance between the top of the tongue and the roof of the mouth and (2) the retraction and extension of the tongue. A secondary criterion is the rounding of the lips. The distance between the top of the tongue and the roof of the mouth is defined in terms of the relative degrees of openness of the oral cavity. Openness corresponds to jaw opening, as well as to the relative height of the tongue. Thus, we have close vowels, open vowels, low vowels and high vowels. The following is the diagram of basic vowels according to the height of tongue and the openness of lips.



Phoneticians try to transcribe as accurately as possible, i.e. by recording all the articulatory details that exist in speech. Since the sixteenth century, efforts have been made to devise a universal system for transcribing the speech sounds. The best-known system is the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

2.3 Phoneme and Allophones

The main content includes "minimal pairs", phoneme theory. A fairly obvious observation about human language is that different languages have different sets of possible sounds that can be used to create words. Phonology is the study of the sound patterns in human language. Each word differs from the other words in both form and meaning. Each lexical entry includes, along with information about the semantic and syntactic nature of the morpheme, an underlying representation. The underlying representation contains that information about the pronunciation of a morpheme that is not predictable on the basis of general rules. The segments of an underlying representation are called phonemes.

Phoneme is the fundamental unit of phonology, which has been defined and used in many different ways during this century. Virtually all theories of phonology hold that spoken language can be broken down into a string of sound units (phonemes), and that each language has, a small relatively fixed set of these phonemes. Most phonemes can be put into groups: for example, in English we can identify a group

of plosive phonemes /p t k b d g/, a group of voiceless fricatives /f? s? h/ and so on.

An important question in phoneme theory is how the analyst can establish what the phonemes of a language are. The most widely accepted view is that phonemes are contrastive and one must find cases where the difference between two words is dependent on the difference between two phonemes: for example, we can prove that the difference between 'pin' and 'pan' depends on the vowel, and that /?/ and /a/ are different phonemes. Pairs of words that differ in just one phoneme are known as minimal pairs. Minimal pairs can be used to find out which sound substitutions cause differences of meaning. In English, in the arrangements of these phonemes, /l/, /k/,/i/ /b/, *[bkil], *[ilkb] and so on are not possible in the language. Our knowledge of English tells us that certain strings of phonemes are permissible and others are not. Thus, we can see that after a consonant like [b], [g], [k], or [p], another similar consonant is not permitted by the rules of the grammar. If a word begins with an [l] or an [r], every English speaker knows that the next segment must be a vowel. *[lbik] does not sound like an English word because it does not conform to the restrictions on the sequencing of phonemes.

We can establish the same fact about / p / and / b / by citing 'pin' and 'bin'. Other fundamental concepts used in phonemic analysis of this sort are *complementary distribution*, free variation, distinctive feature and allophone.

The variants of a phoneme are allophones of the phoneme. ||In this case the allophones are in complimentary distribution, for instance, $[p^{=}, p^{h}]$ are two allophones of the phoneme /p/. we can represent this rule as:

The phenomena of variation in the pronunciation of phonemes in different positions is called allophony or allophonic variation.

Different analyses of a language are possible. In the case of English some phonologists claim that there are only six vowel phonemes, others that there are twenty or more (it depends on whether you count diphthongs and long vowels as single phonemes or as combinations of two phonemes). It used to be said that learning the pronunciation of a language depended on learning the individual phonemes of the language, but this, "building-block" view of pronunciation is looked on nowadays as an unhelpful oversimplification.

2. 4 Distinctive Features and Syllables

2.4.1 Distinctive Features

From our studies of phonetics, we know how to describe the features of sounds. The same techniques apply for the description of phonemes. In the pair "fault" and "vault", for example, the difference lies in the voicing of the first phonemes: /f/ versus /v/, the first representing a voiced consonant [+voiced], the second an unvoiced consonant [-voiced]. Some features can distinguish one phoneme from another, it is a distributive feature. Voicing is of great importance in the English sound system. Therefore we call it a distinctive feature. Every feature has two values, the positive value '+' contrasting the negative value '-'.

There have been various sets of distinctive features proposed as the parameters of segment description and classification. The original set was classified by Jakobson, Fant and Halle, and consisted of around 14 features. Chomsky and Halle had around 45 features, explaining that they found the original set of 14 somewhat inappropriate for characterizing some subtleties in phonology.

The distinctive features usually include [\pm consonantal], [\pm sonorant], [\pm approximant], [\pm voice], [\pm spread glottis], [\pm constricted glottis], [\pm continuant], [\pm nasal], [\pm lateral]; [\pm round] is the distinctive feature for [LABIAL]; [\pm distributed] [\pm anterior] [\pm strident] are the distinctive features for [CORONAL]; [\pm high] [\pm low] [\pm back] [\pm tense] are distinctive features for [DORSAL].

The use of distinctive features in phonology enables us to capture 'natural classes', and, by extension, to generalize regularly occurring phenomena and to formulate predictions about the behaviour of class members. If we wanted to hypothesize about human processing of phonology we would use this idea to suggest that human beings process the patterns of phonology as part of speech planning in terms of these classes rather than in terms of individual segments. The regularity of patterning in phonology is part of the evidence for this claim - but the claim is more solid when based on the evidence that when the users of a language make up new words they do so by producing utterances which obey the rules of the natural classes their sounds fall into.

Three principles surround the distinctive feature set: First, it should be able to characterize all contrasting segments in human languages; second. it should be able to capture natural classes in a clear fashion; third, it should be transparent with regard to phonetic correlates.

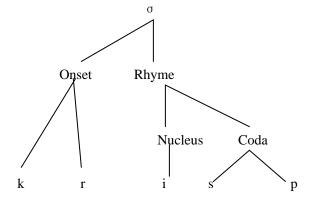
2.4.2 Syllable Theory

Although, different languages permit different kinds of syllables, in English a word may be monosyllabic or polysyllabic, a syllable must have a Nucleus or PEAK, we can divide a syllable into two parts, the RHYME and the ONSET. It is well-known that every language admits consonant-initial syllables .CV~., and that some languages allow no others; that every language admits open syllables .~V. and that some admit only those. Jakobson puts it this way: "There are languages lacking syllables with initial vowels and/or syllables with final consonants, but there are no languages devoid of syllables with initial consonants or of syllables with final vowels." (Jakobson 1962:526: Clements & Keyser 1983:29.)

The Basic Syllable Structure Constraints proposed by Jakobson divide notionally into two groups. First, the structural or markedness constraints those that enforce the universally unmarked characteristics of the structures involved: ONSET, i.e., a syllable must have an onset; COD, i.e., a syllable must not have a coda. Second, those that constrain the relation between output structure and input: PARSE, i.e., underlying segments must be parsed into syllable structure;

FILL, i.e., syllable positions must be filled with underlying segments.

We can represent the syllabic structure of the word *crisp* in the following schema.



The English syllable may be represented as (((C)C)C)V ((((C)C)C)C). The Chinese syllable allows at most one consonant in the onset position and only nasals $[n, \Pi]$ is represented as (C)V (C).

Additionally, the chief goal of syllabification-driven theories of epenthesis is to provide a principled account of the location of epenthetic elements (Selkirk 1981). Theories based on manipulation of the segmental string are capable of little more than summary stipulation on this point (e.g. Levin 1985:331).

Maximal Onset Principle states that when there is a choice as to where to place a consonant, it is put into the onset rather than the coda. Stress refers to the degree of force used in producing a syllable. A stressed syllable may be longer, louder, or higher pitched than nearby unstressed syllables. A stressed syllable may sometimes be marked with an accent, or followed by a single straight quote.

Revision Exercises:

- 1. State the rule that will relate the phonemic representations to the phonetic representations of the words give below: *trial*, *stick*, *list*, *commence*.
- 2. What is the rule that underlies the past tense forms of the regular verbs in English? Collect some data and sate the rule.

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Chapter 3 Lexicon

Word is a unit of expression that has universal intuitive recognition by native speakers, whether it is expressed in spoken or written form. Lexicon refers to the set of all the words and idioms of any language. This chapter mainly discusses morpheme and morphology, types of morphemes, inflection and word formation, and lexical change.

3.1 Morpheme and Morphology

A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit in the grammar of a language. Morpheme is the immediate concern of a branch of linguistics called Morphology.

Morphology studies morphemes and their different forms and the way they combine in word formation Current approaches to morphology conceive of morphemes as rules involving the linguistic context, rather than as isolated pieces of linguistic matter. They acknowledge that meaning may be directly linked to suprasegmental phonological units, such as tone or stress.

The meaning of a morpheme with a given form may vary, depending on its immediate environment. The word *unladylike* consists of three morphemes and four syllables. Morpheme breaks: un-'not', *lad* 'female adult human', -like 'having the characteristics of'. None of these morphemes can be broken up any more without losing all sense of meaning. *Lady* cannot be broken up into "la" and "dy," even though "la" and "dy" are separate syllables. Note that each syllable has no meaning on its own.

Morphemes can be subclassified into different types, depending on what criteria one attempts to follow. We can have free and bound morphemes. A free morpheme is a unit of meaning which can stand alone or alongside another free or bound morpheme. These are usually individual words, such as lid, sink, air, car, him. A bound morpheme is a unit of meaning which can only exist alongside a free morpheme. These are most commonly affixes which include prefixes, suffixes and infix: *un*grateful, *in*sufficient, child*ish*, good*ness*, *feet*, *geese*. In other languages there are infix. A knowledge of morphology creates an awareness of meaning at a sub-lexical level. That is, we can deconstruct a word and consider its component parts.

A knowledge of morphology creates an awareness of meaning at a sub-lexical level. That is, we can deconstruct a word and consider its component parts. The stems, roots, prefixes, and suffixes of words can be recognized. This can throw light on etymology (the origins of the word) thus giving us more power to communicate efficiently.

Each full word has at least one root, a basic content morpheme. Most roots are free and predicative. So, most roots can act as full words and therefore sentences themselves. Since all full words are predicative, there are neither structural criteria nor usefulness in categorizing roots or any full word in terms of noun1, verb, adjective, etc.

Although roots can stand alone as predicates, most often they occur with one or more morphological processes including prefixation, suffixation, and various radical morphological processes. These processes then usually form a stem. A stem is any predicative form which may undergo further morphological processes. Therefore, the bare free root is the most basic stem. In most cases the addition of an affix to a stem forms a new stem. There are some affixes, however, that must be accompanied by further affixation. The 'transitive' suffixes, for example, must be followed by at least one other morpheme such as an object

suffix. It will therefore be useful to distinguish between stems and bases. A base is any form that includes a root and may undergo further morphological processes but is not necessarily a full word. If a base is a full word it is also a stem. All stems are bases but not all bases are stems.

3.2 Word Formation and Inflection, Derivation

Inflection refers to the process of adding an affix to a word or changing it in some other way according to the rules of the grammar of a language. In English, verbs are inflected for 3rd person singular by adding the suffix -(e)s: I work, he works and past tense by adding the suffix -ed: I worked.

Modern English is no longer an inflectional language, as Old English used to be. Instead, it is roughly an analytic language, which depends largely on the word order rather than the inflectional grammatical markers to express the grammatical meanings.

The main word formation processes include compounding, derivation, conversion, blending, clipping, acronymy (initialisms and acronyms), backformation and words from proper names. Among them compounding, derivation and conversion occupy the majority of word formation of new words.

New words may be added to the vocabulary or lexicon of a language by compounding, conversion, derivation and a number of other processes. Compounding refers to the process of conjoining two or more free morphemes or roots to form a new word. The new word form is called a compound. *Egomania* is the composition of *ego* and *mania*. One particular type of compounding is the phrasal verb. It is a type of composition where several words combine to form a verb, but instead of combining into a single word they combine into a phrase. Examples are get up, turn about, and take down. Over time, the spaces between the words in the phrase are often lost, forming a single word. When two or more free morphemes are combined into a compound, a new meaning arises, which is in most cases no longer a simple combination of the meanings of the component elements. A greenhouse is not necessarily green in color, instead it refers to "a structure enclosed (as by glass) for the cultivation or protection of a plant or something else."

We know that the word to which the affix is added is referred to in linguistics as a base or root. Some English derivative prefixes are very productive, i.e. many new words have been derived from them, hence derivation. A word can be converted from one word class into another without any morphological change. This method of word-formation is called conversion, or zero derivation. This is one of the major ways of word-formation in the English language.

3.3 Lexicon and Lexeme

A lexeme is an abstract unit and thus may occur in many different forms in actual spoken or written texts. For example, the verb lexeme speak may take five forms: speaks, speaks, speaking, spoken, spoken. Collocation refers to the acceptable combination between individual lexical items. From the syntagmatic point of view, collocation is an issue of co-occurrence, i.e. which lexical items are habitually used together with another.

A lexeme may be a word or a phrase. However, no one is able to know the whole lexicon of a language, since most languages have specialized vocabulary that relate to particular fields of knowledge and there is a marked contrast between a speaker's use vocabulary and his recognition vocabulary. According to *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* (1961), the English language has 450,000 words.

Phrasal lexemes which have relatively regular lexical meaning and restricted grammatical variation are referred to as *Idioms*. English idioms have two characteristics: (a) semantic unity and (b) structural stability. These two characteristics distinguish an idiom from a free phrase.

Proverbs are normally in the form of a sentence. A proverb is often a short sentence that people often quote and use to give advice and state some general human life experience and problem, for example, *Never offer to teach fish to swim*.

3.4 Lexical Change

In lexical change, we mainly discuss lexical change proper, phonological change and morpho-syntactical change, semantic change and orthographic change. Lexical change proper also refers to the formation of new words, which includes invention, blending, abbreviation, acronym, backformation, analogical creation, and borrowing.

A common way of making a word is to abbreviate, or shorten, a longer word, it includes clipping, blending. It is generally claimed that there are four distinct sub-classes of word formation through abbreviation. These are initialisms, acronyms, clipped forms, and back formations.

Blending is the creation of a new word by combining the first part of one word with the last part of another (c.f. Portmanteau Word). For example, the word "smog" is made up of the words "smoke" and "fog" and the name Petopia is made up of the words "pet" and "utopia". Although comparatively rare in English, this process is a common means of word formation in several language families (e.g. Austronesian); it is distinct from recombinant morphemics in that only a portion of each morpheme is used.

Borrowing is the adoption of a word from one language into the lexicon of another (c.f. Calque). An example of borrowing in English is the Japanese word tsunami, the massive tidal wave which frequently follows an earthquake.

Acronymy is a word formed from the initial letter or letters of a series of words in a phrase (cf. Abbreviation). Initialism is a word that can be pronounced letter by letter, e.g., WHO (world health organization), while acronym is a word that can be spelled as a whole word, e.g., UNESCO (United Nation Education, Science and Cultural Organization), LASER (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation) etc.

Back formation refers to the removal of an affix from an existing word to form a new word, for example, *donate* is produced form *donation*, *beg* from *beggar*, *peddle* from *peddler*, burgle from burgle. A back formation also undergoes a functional shift. Thus the noun *liaison* gives birth to its back formation, the verb *liaise*. The shift in part of speech distinguishes a back formation from an ordinary clipped word. Unlike derivation or combination, a back formation occurs when components of the original are cut off. The only way to distinguish a back formation from the other two types is by dating. The older term is the original, even if it is the more complex form.

Phonological change includes loss, addition, metathesis and assimilation. Semantic change This isn't the formation of new words per se, but is the formation of new senses for existing words. It usually includes broadening, narrowing, meaning shift, class shift, class shift, folk etymology. And semantic change also includes specialization and metaphor etc. Broadening is also called generalization.

Specialization occurs when a word originally referred to a broad category, but over time narrows in scope to refer only to a once was what a subcategory. An example is *liquor*. It originally meant any liquid.

Mete once referred to any type of food, not just animal flesh. Sometimes the original, general sense is lost. *Deor* once meant any type of animal, but the general sense was replaced by the French beast, leaving us with *deer*. Other times, multiple meanings continue to coexist, as in *pill*, meaning both a method of delivering a drug and a specific drug for birth control.

Generalization, obviously, is the opposite of specialization. To *sail* once meant specifically to travel waters via windpower. It lost the specificity of windpower, as in to set sail on a submarine, and eventually came to mean any effortless travel--even if it isn't physical, as in to sail through the exam. That last example for sail leads us to metaphorical changes. *Sailing the ocean* breeze is a metaphor for effortless travel. A metaphorical change is one where a word can serve as a metaphor for something else. So *grasp*, originally referring to holding something in the hand came to mean to *comprehend*. *Nitpick*, the removal of louse eggs, came to mean detailed and precise criticism. A semantic shift is when a word attaches itself to an associated object. A *bureau* was once a woolen covering used to cover a desk. It eventually came to mean the desk itself and then the office that used the desks.

Folk etymology refers to a change in form of a word or phrase, resulting from an incorrect popular notion of the origin or meaning of the term or from the influence of more familiar terms mistakenly taken to be analogous. As a result of this modification the word *sparrowgrass* in English derived from *asparagus*.

Revision Exercises:

- 1. Morpheme is defined as the smallest unit in terms of relationship between expression and content. Then is morpheme a grammatical concept or semantic one? What is its relation to phoneme? Can a morpheme and a phoneme form an organic whole?
 - 2. Determined the original tem from which the following words are back-formed.

Asset, diagnose, burgle, enthuse, amusing, loaf, greed.

3. Are there any affixes that attach productively to verbs, contribute no or very specific meaning, and do not change category? To illustrate the answer with examples.

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Chapter 4 Syntax

In linguistics, syntax refers to the study of the rules governing the way words are combined to form sentences in a language, or simply, the study f the formation of sentences. Since language is the usually regarded as the largest grammatical unit of a language, syntax has long been the center of grammatical study. In this chapter we introduce some of the representative approaches to syntax and their theories.

4.1 The Traditional Approach

Traditionally a sentence is seen as a sequence of words. Gender, number, and case, tense, aspect, concord and government are the important concepts in traditional analysis.

Number is a grammatical category used for the analysis of word classes displaying such contrasts as singular, dual, plural, etc. In English, number is mainly observed in nouns, and there are only two forms: singular and plural. Number is also reflected in the inflections of pronouns and verbs. Gender displays such contrasts as "masculine", "feminine", "neuter", or "animate" and "inanimate", etc., for the analysis of word classes. When word items refer to the sex of the real-world entities, we natural gender(the opposite is grammatical gender). "Case" identifies the syntactic relationship between words in a sentence. In Latin grammar, cases are based on variations in the morphological forms of the word, and are given the terms "accusative", "nominative", "dative", etc. In English, the case category is realized in three ways: by following a preposition and by word order.

Tense and aspect are difficult categories, and they are not separated in traditional grammar. Based on the tense system in Latin grammar, English used to be said to have sixteen tenses as follows:

Simple present	Present progressive	Present perfect	Present perfect progressive
Simple past	Past progressive	Past perfect	Past perfect progressive
Simple future	Future progressive	Future perfect	Future perfect progressive
Simple past future	Past future progressive	Past future perfect	Past future perfect progressive

Tense refers to the absolute location of an event or action in time, either the present or the past. It is marked by an inflection of the verb:

David walks to school (present tense)

David walked to school (past tense)

Reference to other times -- the future, for instance -- can be made in a number of ways, by using the modal auxiliary will, or the semi-auxiliary be going to. Since the expression of future time does not involve any inflection of the verb, we do not refer to a "future tense". Strictly speaking, there are only two tenses in English: present and past.

Aspect refers to how an event or action is to be viewed with respect to time, rather than to its actual location in time. We can illustrate this using the following examples:

- [1] David fell in love on his eighteenth birthday
- [2] David has fallen in love
- [3] David is falling in love

In [1], the verb fell tells us that David fell in love in the past, and specifically on his eighteenth birthday. This is a simple past tense verb. In [2] also, the action took place in the past, but it is implied that

it took place quite recently. Furthermore, it is implied that is still relevant at the time of speaking -David has fallen in love, and that's why he's behaving strangely. It is worth noting that we cannot say *David has fallen in love on his eighteenth birthday. The auxiliary has here encodes what is known as PERFECTIVE ASPECT, and the auxiliary itself is known as the PERFECTIVE AUXILIARY. In [3], the action of falling in love is still in progress -- David is falling in love at the time of speaking. For this reason, we call it PROGRESSIVE ASPECT, and the auxiliary is called the PROGRESSIVE AUXILIARY.

Aspect always includes tense. In [2] and [3] above, the aspectual auxiliaries are in the present tense, but they could also be in the past tense:

David had fallen in love -- Perfective Aspect, Past Tense

David was falling in love -- Progressive Aspect, Past Tense

The perfective auxiliary is always followed by a main verb in the -ed form, while the progressive auxiliary is followed by a main verb in the -ing form. While aspect always includes tense, tense can occur without aspect (David *falls* in love, David *fell* in love).

In addition to the grammatical marking of the aspect, the lexical meaning of the verb may convey aspectual meaning. This is called lexical aspect. The verbs can be divided as follows according to their aspectual meaning:

I. Stative verbs

Cognition verbs: believe, hate, know, like, enjoy, understand, want

Relations verbs: be, belong, contain, have, own, resemble

II. Dynamic verbs

Punctual verbs Acts: hit, jump, eat, kick, stab, strike, throw, cough

Durative verbs Activities: eat, run, swim, walk, work, write / Processes: become, change, flow, grow, harden, learn

The verbs denoting stative concepts tend not to be used with progressive forms. After buying a house, English speakers are not likely to tell people, *I'm having a house now*, because that would suggest a process rather than a fixed state. The progressive aspect used with a stative verb often signifies a temporary state: *You're being happy. I'm having a bad day*.

The verbs that typically signify punctual concepts, describing momentary acts, have a slightly different meaning in the progressive form: *He's kicking the box*, *She's coughing*. These are interpreted as repeated acts, not as single acts. Dynamic verbs used in the progressive aspect typically signify ongoing activity. The perfective aspect used with stative verbs typically signify pre-existing states (that may continue): *He has believed in Allah all his life*. We have known Fred for many years. *I have been ill*. The perfective aspect used with dynamic verbs, on the other hand, often indicate completed actions: *We have baked the cake* (would you like to taste it). *I have written some notes* (you can read them here).

Statistically, verb phrases marked for aspect are in the minority (only 10% of all the verbs in the corpus used for the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*); in the same corpus perfect(ive) aspect was slightly more common than the progressive aspect.

Concord may be defined as requirement that the forms of two or more words of specific word classes that stand in specific syntactic relationship with one another shall be characterized by the same paradigmatically marked category or categories, e.g., "man runs", "men run". "Government" requires that one word of a particular class in a given syntactic class shall exhibit the form of a specific category. In English, government applies only to pronouns among the variable words ,that is, prepositions and verbs

govern particular forms of the paradigms of pronouns according to their syntactic relation with them, e.g., "I helped him; he helped me."

4.2 The Structural Approach

In this section we shall only discuss one of Saussure's main ideas and the American structuralist model of sentence analysis. We will illustrate syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations, immediate constituent analysis, endocentric and exocentric constructions.

4.2.1 Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic Relations

Saussure was 'concerned exclusively with three sorts of systemic relationships: that between a signifier and a signified; those between a sign and all of the other elements of its system; and those between a sign and the elements which surround it within a concrete signifying instance' (Silverman 1983: 10). He emphasized that meaning arises from the differences between signifiers; these differences are of two kinds: syntagmatic (concerning positioning) and paradigmatic (concerning substitution). Saussure called the latter associative relations (Saussure 1974: 122). While syntagmatic relations are possibilities of combination, paradigmatic relations are functional contrasts-they involve differentiation. Temporally, syntagmatic relations refer intratextually to other signifiers co-present within the text, whilst paradigmatic relations refer intertextually to signifiers which are absent from the text.

The 'value' of a sign is determined by both its paradigmatic and its syntagmatic relations. Syntagms and paradigms provide a structural context within which signs make sense; they are the structural forms through which signs are organized into codes.

Paradigmatic relationships can operate on the level of the signifier, the signified or both (Harris 1987: 124). A paradigm is a set of associated signifiers or signifieds which are all members of some defining category, but in which each is significantly different. In natural language there are grammatical paradigms such as verbs or nouns. 'Paradigmatic relations are those which belong to the same set by virtue of a function they share... A sign enters into paradigmatic relations with all the signs which can also occur in the same context but not at the same time'. Signs are in paradigmatic relation when the choice of one excludes the choice of another.

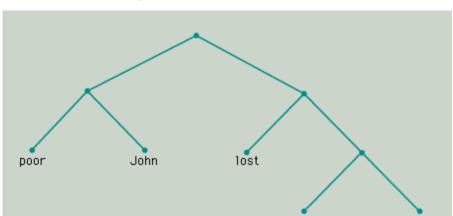
The syntagmatic relation is nowadays also referred to as the Horizontal relation, or Chain relation, while the paradigmatic relation is also known as the Vertical relation, or Choice relation.

4.2.2 Immediate Constituent Analysis

IC analysis was proposed by the American linguist Leonard Bloomfield in his Language, first published in 1933. What Bloomfield had in mind as the criterion for form class membership (and therefore of syntactic equivalence) may best be expressed in terms of substitutability. Form classes are sets of forms (whether simple or complex, free or bound), any one of which may be substituted for any other in a given construction or set of constructions throughout the sentences of the language.

The smaller forms into which a larger form may be analyzed are its constituents, and the larger form is a construction. For example, the phrase "poor John" is a construction analyzable into, or composed of, the constituents "poor" and "John." Because there is no intermediate unit of which "poor" and "John" are constituents that is itself a constituent of the construction "poor John," the forms "poor" and "John" may be described not only as constituents but also as immediate constituents of "poor John." Similarly, the phrase "lost his watch" is composed of three word forms—"lost," "his," and "watch"--all of which may be described as constituents of the construction. Not all of them, however, are its immediate constituents. The

forms "his" and "watch" combine to make the intermediate construction "his watch"; it is this intermediate unit that combines with "lost" to form the larger phrase "lost his watch." The immediate constituents of "lost his watch" are "lost" and "his watch"; the immediate constituents of "his watch" are the forms "his" and "watch." By the constituent structure of a phrase or sentence is meant the hierarchical organization of the smallest forms of which it is composed (its ultimate constituents) into layers of successively more inclusive units. Viewed in this way, the sentence "Poor John lost his watch" is more than simply a sequence of five word forms associated with a particular intonation pattern. It is analyzable into the immediate constituents "poor John" and "lost his watch," and each of these phrases is analyzable into its own immediate constituents and so on, until, at the last stage of the analysis, the ultimate constituents of the sentence are reached.



The IC analysis of a simple sentence "Poor John lost his watch" is schematized as follows:

4.2.3 Endocentric and Exocentric Constructions.

A construction is a relationship between constituents. Constructions are divided into two types: endocentric constructions and exocentric constructions.

his

watch

Endocentric construction is one whose distribution is functionally equivalent to that of one or more of its constituents. A word or a group of words act as a definable center or head. Exocentric construction refers to a group of syntactically related words where none of the words is functionally equivalent to the group as a whole. There is no definable center or head inside the group. "Definable" here behaves like an attribute in the construction.

If the total construction (head plus modification, or modification plus head) has the same distributional characteristics as the head constituent (head), it is usually called endocentric construction. For example: *They left because they were tied*. Within this construction, *They left* is the head and *because they were tired* is its modifier. Endocentric construction can further be divided into two types: subordination and coordination.

Any construction that does not belong to the same form class as any one of its immediate constituents is an exocentric construction. There is no head in exocentric constructions, and it is not substitutable by any one of its constituents. No immediate constituent may function in a manner equivalent to the whole construction of which it is a part.

4.3 The Generative Approach

By the generative approach we mean the particular type of linguistic theory originated with the

American linguist Noam Chomsky and his TG grammar. Chomsky's system of transformational grammar, though it was developed on the basis of his work with Harris, differs from Harris's in a number of respects. It is Chomsky's system that has attracted the most attention and has received the most extensive exemplification and further development. As outlined in *Syntactic Structures* (1957), it comprised three sections, or components: the phrase-structure component, the transformational component, and the morphophonemic component. Each of these components consisted of a set of rules operating upon a certain "input" to yield a certain "output." The notion of phrase structure may be dealt with independently of its incorporation in the larger system. In the following system of rules, S stands for Sentence, NP for Noun Phrase, VP for Verb Phrase, Det for Determiner, Aux for Auxiliary (verb), N for Noun, and V for Verb stem.

```
    (1) S → NP + VP
    (2) VP → Verb + NP
    (3) NP → Det + N
    (4) Verb → Aux + V
    (5) Det → the, a, ...
    (6) N → man, ball, ...
    (7) Aux → will, can, ...
    (8) V → hit, see, ...
```

This is a simple phrase-structure grammar. It generates and thereby defines as grammatical such sentences as "The man will hit the ball," and it assigns to each sentence that it generates a structural description. The kind of structural description assigned by a phrase-structure grammar is, in fact, a constituent structure analysis of the sentence.

In these rules, the arrow can be interpreted as an instruction to rewrite (this is to be taken as a technical term) whatever symbol appears to the left of the arrow as the symbol or string of symbols that appears to the right of the arrow. For example, rule (2) rewrites the symbol VP as the string of symbols Verb + NP, and it thereby defines Verb + NP to be a construction of the type VP. Or, alternatively and equivalently, it says that constructions of the type VP may have as their immediate constituents constructions of the type Verb and NP (combined in that order). Rules (1)-(8) do not operate in isolation but constitute an integrated system. The symbol S (standing mnemonically for "sentence") is designated as the initial symbol. This information is not given in the rules (1)-(8), but it can be assumed either that it is given in a kind of protocol statement preceding the grammatical rules or that there is a universal convention according to which S is always the initial symbol. It is necessary to begin with a rule that has the initial symbol on the left. Thereafter any rule may be applied in any order until no further rule is applicable; in doing so, a derivation can be constructed of one of the sentences generated by the grammar. If the rules are applied in the following order: (1), (2), (3), (3), (4), (5), (5), (6), (6), (7), (8), then assuming that "the" is selected on both applications of (5), "man" on one application of (6), and "ball" on the other, "will" on the application of (7), and "hit" on the application of (8), the following derivation of the sentence "The man will hit the ball" will have been constructed:

```
(i)
      S
      NP + VP
                                          by rule (1)
(ii)
      NP + Verb + NP
                                          by rule (2)
(iii)
      Det + N + Verb + NP
                                          by rule (3)
(iv)
      Det + N + Verb + Det + N
                                          by rule (3)
(v)
      Det + N + Aux + V + Det + N
                                          by rule (4)
(vi)
(vii) the + N + Aux + V + Det + N
                                          by rule (5)
(viii) the + N + Aux + V + the + N
                                          by rule (5)
(ix) the + man + Aux + V + the + N
                                          by rule (6)
      the + man + Aux + V + the + ball
(x)
                                          by rule (6)
(xi) the + man + will + V + the + ball
                                          by rule (7)
(xii) the + man + will + hit + the + ball
                                          by rule (8)
```

Many other derivations of this sentence are possible, depending on the order in which the rules are applied. The important point is that all these different derivations are equivalent in that they can be reduced to the same tree diagram. If this is compared with the system of rules, it will be seen that each application of each rule creates or is associated with a portion (or subtree) of the tree. The tree diagram, or phrase marker, may now be considered as a structural description of the sentence "The man hit the ball." It is a description of the constituent structure, or phrase structure, of the sentence, and it is assigned by the rules that generate the sentence. It is important to interpret the term generate in a static, rather than a dynamic, sense. The statement that the grammar generates a particular sentence means that the sentence is one of the totality of sentences that the grammar defines to be grammatical or well formed. All the sentences are generated, as it were, simultaneously. The notion of generation must be interpreted as would be a mathematical formula containing variables. For example, in evaluating the formula $y^2 + y$ for different values of y, one does not say that the formula itself generates these various resultant values (2, when y = 1; 5, when y = 2; etc.) one after another or at different times; one says that the formula generates them all simultaneously or, better still perhaps, timelessly. The situation is similar for a generative grammar. Although one sentence rather than another can be derived on some particular occasion by making one choice rather than another at particular places in the grammar, the grammar must be thought of as generating all sentences statically or timelessly.

In short, Chomsky's generative grammar (universal grammar) has undergone five basic phases. The first phase (1957-1965) is the CT (classical theory), It includes three sets of rules: a. PS Rules (or Rewrite Rules); b. Transformational Rules (movement, attachment, deletion); c. morphophonemic rules. The second phase (1965-1970) is ST (Standard Theory), represented by Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (Chomsky1965). As surface structure can also affect semantic representation, hence the third stage theory, i.e., EST (Extended Standard Theory represented by Studies on Semantics in Generative Grammar, Chomsky 1972) and REST). The third and fourth phases are GB or Principles and Parameters Theory (Lectures on Government and Binding 1981) and MP (Minimalist Program 1995), which constitute the most studied parts of his theory.

4.4 The Functional Approach

We mainly discuss the most influential representatives, the Prague school and systemic-functional grammar.

4.4.1 Functional Sentence Perspective

Inspired by the ideas of the Prague School, the theory of functional sentence perspective (FSP) is concerned with the distribution of information as determined by all meaningful elements, from intonation

(for speech) to context. A central feature of FSP is communicative dynamism.

Mathesius, the life-long chairman of the Prague Linguistic Circle held that apart from the analysis of a sentence in terms of subject and predicate from the formal point of view, there may also be a functional analysis in terms of Theme and Rheme. Theme is opposed to rheme in a manner similar to the distinction between topic and comment, and is defined as the part of a sentence which contributes least to advancing the process of communication. Rheme, on the other hand, is the part of a sentence which adds most to advancing the process of communication and has the highest degree of communicative dynamism. These two terms help enlighten the process of translating Chinese into English.

The theory of functional sentence perspective examines how language functions in the act of communication. It pays special attention to the study of context and questions related to the theme-rheme (topic-focus/ topic) structure of a sentence. A good understanding of how a semantic and syntactic structure operates in fulfilling a communicative purpose imposed upon it by the language user has its practical consequences both for the written and the spoken uses of language and is of considerable help in the practice of translation.

4.4.2 Systemic-Functional Grammar

Systemic-Functional Grammar or Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a theory of language centred around the notion of language function. While SFL accounts for the syntactic structure of language, it places the function of language as central (what language does, and how it does it), in preference to more structural approaches, which place the elements of language and their combinations as central. SFL starts at social context, and looks at how language both acts upon, and is constrained by, this social context.

SFL grew out of the work of J.R Firth, a British linguist of the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s, but was mainly developed by his student M.A.K Halliday. He developed the theory in the early sixties (seminal paper, Halliday 1961), based in England, and moved to Australia in the Seventies, establishing the department of linguistics at the University of Sydney. Through his teaching there, SFL has spread to a number of institutions throughout Australia, and around the world. Australian Systemics is especially influential in areas of language education.

SFL teaching and research also continued in the UK, with main proponents including Margaret Berry, Dick Hudson (before moving on), Chris Butler, Robin Fawcett, and many others. Another branch was established in Toronto, Canada, under Michael Gregory (a British colleague of Halliday), and later Jim Benson, Michael Cummings, and Bill Greaves. SFL teaching is now taught around the globe.

A central notion is 'stratification', such that language is analyzed in terms of four strata: Context, Semantics, Lexico-Grammar and Phonology-Graphology. Context concerns the Field (what is going on), Tenor (the social roles and relationships between the participants), and the Mode (aspects of the channel of communication, e.g., monologic/dialogic, spoken/written, +/- visual-contact, etc.). Systemic semantics includes what is usually called 'pragmatics'. Semantics is divided into three components: Ideational Semantics (the propositional content); Interpersonal Semantics (concerned with speech-function, exchange structure, expression of attitude, etc.); Textual Semantics (how the text is structured as a message, e.g., theme-structure, given/new, rhetorical structure etc.)

The Lexico-Grammar concerns the syntactic organisation of words into utterances. Even here, a functional approach is taken, involving analysis of the utterance in terms of roles such as Actor, Agent/Medium, Theme Mood, etc. (See Halliday 1994 for full description).

Halliday distinguishes between Theme(T), Subject(S) and Actor(A). The following examples from Halliday illustrate the distinction:

- (1) The duke(T,S,A) gave my aunt this teapot.
- (2) This teapot(T) my aunt(S) was given by the duke(A).
- (3) My aunt(T,S) was given this teapot by the duke(A).
- (4) This teapot(T) the duke(S,A) gave to my aunt.
- (5) By the duke(T,A) my aunt(S) was given this teapot.

These are all simple Themes involving only participants, but serve to illustrate the way Theme/Rheme choice in English organizes the discourse as message. For example although all these statements contain in one sense the same information, it is organized differently so that statement (1) has its starting point with the duke, while statement (2) has its starting point with the teapot. The two will then function differently in the wider (hypothetical) discourse from which they are taken. In spoken English intonation also contributes significantly. In English the Theme is in initial position and is unmarked when it coincides with Subject, and marked otherwise. The Theme begins at the beginning of the clause and runs up to an including either the first participant, process or circumstance constituent of the clause, and thus may include conjunctions, modal adjuncts etc. Marked Themes usually either express some kind of setting for the clause or express a feature of contrast.

Revision Exercises:

- 1. Why is it important to know the relations a sign has with others, such as syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations?
 - 2. How can the surface structure become the sole responsible structure for semantic interpretation?
 - 3. Discuss Chomsky's binding theory in relation to the Chinese reflexives *ziji*.

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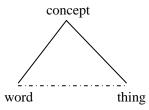
Chapter 5 Meaning

The subject concerning the study of meaning is called Semantics. More specifically, semantics is the study of the meanings of linguistic units, words and sentences in particular.

5.1 Meanings of Meaning and Referential Theory

In their book The Meanings of Meaning written in 1923, Ogden and Richards presented a "representative list of the main definitions which reputable students o meanings have favored" There are 16major categories of them, with sub-categories all together, numbering 22. Leech recognizes 7 types of meaning in his Semantics in 1974: conceptual meaning, connotative meaning, social meaning, affective, meaning, reflected meaning, collocation meaning and thematic meaning.

The theory of meaning which relates the meaning of a word to the thing it refers to, or stands for, is known as the referential theory. The abstract thing is usually called *concept*. Ogden and Richards argue that the relation between a word and a thing it refers to is not direct. It is mediated by concept. In a diagram form, the relation is represented as follows:



Leech also uses Sense as a briefer term for his conceptual meaning. This usage is justifiable in that a technical term "sense" may be used in the same way as "connotation" is used in philosophy.

5.2 Sense Relations and Componential Analysis

There are generally three kinds of sense relations recognized namely, sameness relation, oppositeness relation and inclusiveness relation.

Synonymy is the technical term for the sameness relation. Antonymy is the name for oppositeness relation. Complementary antonymy means members of a pair in complementary antonymy are complementary to each other completely, such as male/female, absent/present. Gradable antonymy means that members of this kind are gradable, such as long/short, big/small, fat/thin, etc. Converse antonymy is a special kind of antonymy in that members of a pair do not constitute a positive-negative opposition, such as buy/sell, lend/borrow, above/below, etc. Relational opposites belong to a type of converse antonymy in reciprocal social roles, kinship relations, temporal and spatial relations. There are always two entities involved. One presupposes the other. The shorter/better. Better/ worse, etc are instances of relational opposites.

Hyponymy is a matter of class membership belonging to inclusiveness. Hyponymy refers to the sense relation between two words in which the meaning of one word is included in the meaning of another word. That is to say, when X is a kind of Y, the lower term X is the "hyponym", and the upper term Y is the "superordinate". Two or more hyponyms sharing the same one superordinate are called "co-hyponyms". For example, "flower" is the superordinate of "tulip", "violet" and "rose" are the co-hyponyms of "flower" more examples can be seen in cow/ animal, rose/ flower, honesty/ virtue.

Additionally, polysemy and homonymy are also sense relations. The former refers to the semantic phenomenon that a word may have than one meaning. For example, "negative", means(1)a statement

saying or meaning "no", (2)a refusal or denial, (3)one of the following words and expressions: no, not, nothing, never, not at all, etc., (4) a negative photograph or film. But we can sometimes hardly tell if a form has several meanings or it is a different word taking this form; hence the difference between polysemy and homonymy. There are some criteria of distinguishing them.

On the analogy of distinctive features in phonology, some linguists suggest that there are *semantic features*, or *semantic components*. A semantic feature is a notational method which can be used to express the existence or non-existence of semantic properties by using plus and minus signs, for instance, Man is [+HUMAN], [+MALE], [+ADULT]; Woman is [+HUMAN], [-MALE], [-ADULT]; Boy is [+HUMAN], [-MALE], [-ADULT].

Semantic feature analysis (Anders & Bos 1986) is a strategy that helps reinforce vocabulary that is essential to understanding important concepts in a text.

5.3 Sentence Meaning

To understand a sentence, we need also knowledge about its syntactic structure. This is an area where word meaning and sentence structure come together. In this section we mainly discuss two types of theories, one is integrated theory the other is logical semantics.

The idea that the meaning of a sentence depends on the meaning of the constituent words and the way they are combined is usually known as the principle of Compositionality (C). Proponents of compositionality typically emphasize the productivity and systematicity of our linguistic understanding. We can understand a large—perhaps infinitely large—collection of complex expressions the first time we encounter them, and if we understand some complex expressions we tend to understand others that can be obtained by recombining their constituents. Compositionality is supposed to feature in the best explanation of these phenomena. Opponents of compositionality typically point to cases when meanings of larger expressions seem to depend on the intentions of the speaker, on the linguistic environment, or on the setting in which the utterance takes place without their parts displaying a similar dependence. They try to respond to the arguments from productivity and systematicity by insisting that the phenomena are limited, and by suggesting alternative explanations.

Katz and Postal elaborated the proposal in An Integrated Theory of Linguistic Description. There are three problems with the way Compositionality (C) is worded. First, it fails to make explicit the language whose interpretation is concerned; it talks about expressions and meanings in general. Second, it employs the terms 'meaning' and 'structure', which are open to a bewildering array of interpretations. (The same holds for 'constituent', but one might hope that fixing what we mean by 'structure' would take care of this additional difficulty.) And finally, (C) talks about determination, leaving what it is for something to determine something else completely unspecified. Resolving the first problem requires us to supply the language variables missing from (C), giving us (C').

For every complex expression e in L, the meaning of e in L is determined by the meanings of the constituents of e in L and by the structure of e in L.

Szabó (2000) discussed these problems. Selection restriction stipulates the semantic restrictions of the noun phrases that a particular lexical item can take, e.g. *regret* requires a human subject.

Philosophers and logicians are among the first people to study meaning. We introduce especially the concepts in propositional logic ad predicate logic. The validity conditions of various sentences we may encounter in arguments will depend upon their meaning, and so conscientious logicians cannot completely avoid the need to provide some treatment of the meaning of these sentences. [This is false. The validity of

an argument does not depend at all on sentence meaning. "If P, then Q. P. Therefore, Q." is a valid argument regardless of the meaning of 'P' and 'Q'.] The semantics of logic refers to the approaches that logicians have introduced to understand and determine that part of meaning in which they are interested; the logician traditionally is not interested in the sentence as uttered but in the proposition, an idealized sentence suitable for logical manipulation.

Propositional logic also known as propositional calculus or sentential calculus, is the study of the truth conditions for propositions: how the truth of a composite proposition is determined by the truth value of its constituent propositions and the connections between them. It is important to memorize the truth value table.

Predicate logic studies the internal structure of simple propositions. The most important knowledge representation language is arguably predicate logic (or strictly, first order predicate logic - there are lots of other logics out there to distinguish between). Predicate logic allows us to represent fairly complex facts about the world, and to derive new facts in a way that guarantees that, if the initial facts were true then so are the conclusions. It is a well understood formal language, with well-defined syntax, semantics and rules of inference.

As to the syntax of predicate logic, the trouble with propositional logic is that it is not possible to write general statements in it, such as "Alison eats everything that she likes". We'd have to have lots of rules, for every different thing that Alison liked. Predicate logic makes such general statements possible. Sentences in predicate calculus are built up from atomic sentences (not to be confused with Prolog atoms). Atomic sentences consist of a predicate name followed by a number of arguments.

The semantics of predicate logic is defined (as in propositional logic) in terms of the truth values of sentences. Like in propositional logic, we can determine the truth value of any sentence in predicate calculus if we know the truth values of the basic components of that sentence. An interpretation function defines the basic meanings/truth values of the basic components, given some domain of objects that we are concerned with. In propositional logic we saw that this interpretation function was very simple, just assigning truth values to propositions. However, in predicate calculus we have to deal with predicates, variables and quantifiers, so things get much more complex.

In this logical system, propositions like *Socrates is a man* will be analyzed into two parts: an argument and a predicate. All men are rational will have a logical structure as follows:

$$\forall x (M(x) \longrightarrow R(x)$$

And universal quantifier is conditional and does not presuppose the existence of an entity named by the argument, while the existential quantifier carries the implication there must exist at least such entity and it has the relevant properties specified, otherwise that proposition is false. To prove things in predicate calculus we need two things. First we need to know what inference rules are valid - we can't keep going back to the formal semantics when trying to draw a simple inference! Second we need to know a good proof procedure that will allow us to prove things with the inference rules in an efficient manner.

Revision Exercises:

- 1. How to make a distinction between polysemy and homonymy?
- 2. Translate the following logical forms into English, where a=Ann, b=Bill, c=Carol, L=like, M=mother, and x is variable.

(a) L(b,c) & ~L(a,c)

(b) M (a, b)

(c) $\exists x (L(x, b))$

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Chapter 6 Language Processing in Mind

Language is a mirror of the mind in a deep and significant sense. It is a product of human intelligence, created anew in each individual by operations that lies far beyond the reach of will and consciousness. (Chomsky 1975). The study of "language and mind" aims to model the workings of the mind in relation to language. In this chapter we mainly introduce psycholinguistics, language comprehension, discourse /text interpretations and language production.

6.1 Psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics is concerned primarily with investigating the psychological reality of linguistic structure. It is useful to distinguish psycholinguistics from the psychology of language, which deals with more general topics such as the extent to which language shapes thought, and the psychology of communication, which includes non-verbal communication such as gestures and facial expressions. Other definitions of Psycholinguistics are listed as follows:

- a. Psycholinguistics is the study of the relationship of "language and mind".
- b. Psycholinguistics "proper" can perhaps be glossed as the storage, comprehension, and production and acquisition of language in any medium (spoken or written).

We make a comparison as follows:

- a. Psychology of language deals with more general topics such as the extent to which language shapes thought.
- b. Psychology of communication includes non-verbal communication such as gestures and facial expressions.
- c. Cognitive psychologists are concerned with making inferences about the content of the human mind.
- d. Experimental psychologists is somewhat more concerned with empirical matters, such as speed response to a particular word.

Evidence of psycholinguistics:

- a. Psycholinguistics attracts supporters from both linguistics and psychology, though both of them have somewhat different approaches, esp. in methodology. Linguists are inclined to favor descriptions of spontaneous speech as their main source of evidence. Psychologists more prefer experimental studies.
- b. Subjects of Psycholinguistic investigation are normal adults, children and aphasics patients -people with speech disorders.

The current issues of psycholinguistics are listed as follows:

- a. It is generally agreed that human language system is likely to be a "modular", in the sense of being constituted out of a number of separate but interacting components. However, the point led to a major controversy concerning the integration of the modules.
- b. Another problem is the relationship between STRUCTURE and PROCESS, which can not reach agreement.
- c. Three major aspects of psycholinguistic research: Comprehension Language: how do people use their knowledge of language, and how do they understand what they hear or understand? Production language: how do they produce messages that others can understand in turn? Acquisition language: how language is represented in the mind and how language is acquired?

6.2. Language Comprehension

Word recognition is the initial step in understanding any message. Factors affecting word recognition include:

- a. Cohort theory hypothesizes that auditory word recognition begins with the formation of a group of words at the perception of the initial sound and proceeds sound by sound with the cohort of words decreasing as more sounds are perceived.
- b. Frequency effect, one of the most important factors affecting word recognition, studies how frequently the word is used in a given discourse or context.
- c. Recency effect, one of the factors affecting word recognition, describes the additional ease with which a word is accessed due to its repeated occurrence in the discourse or context.
- d. Context is another factor affecting word recognition. People recognize a word more readily when the preceding words provide an appropriate context for it.

Syntactic processing factors affect the process of determining the structure of a sentence. A. the ambiguity of individual words and the different possible ways that words can be fit into phrases, e.g.: The mother beat the his daughter with a play gun. (prepositional phrase with a play gun used to modify daughter; prepositional phrase with a play gun being the complement of the verb beat) B. the ambiguous category of some of the words in the sentence, e.g.: the desert trains (in different contexts, desert can serve as the subject of the verb trains or the modifier of the verb). C. garden path sentence, another factor affecting the process of determining a sentence structure, are sentences that are initially interpreted with a different structure than they actually have. For example, reduced relative clauses often cause such feeling of having been garden-pathed, e.g.: The horse raced past the barn fell (the horse that was raced past the barn fell).

Minimal attachment theory, a way used when interpreting the structure of sentences, is the idea that people initially construct the simplest (or least complex) syntactic structure.

Basic processes in reading include the following aspects:

- a. Perceptual span is the range of letters from which useful information is extracted, which varies depending on factors such as the size of the print, the complexity of the text, etc. and encompasses about three or four letters to the left of fixation and some fifteen letters to the right of fixation.
- b. Immediacy assumption means that the reader is supposed to carry out the processes required to understand each word and its relationship to previous words in the sentence as soon as that word is encountered.

6.3.Discourse/text Interpretation

Discourse serves as a context, affect sentence and word-level interpretation, tipping the interpretation of what would otherwise be ambiguous words or phrases in a certain direction. General context effects means that our general knowledge about the world influences language comprehension, which occurs all the time, because a crucial aspect of language comprehension involves making use of any relevant general knowledge that we possess.

Specific context effects involve information obtained from earlier parts of a discourse. One important problem is Schemata and inference drawing. First we discuss the origin of schemata. The concept of schema theory was put forward by Barlett in his writings. Barlett believed that our memory for discourse was not based on straight reproduction, but was constructive. The constructive process uses information from experience related to the discourse at hand, to build a mental representation. He argued that, that past

experience can not be an accumulation of successive individuated events and experiences, it must be organized and manageable.

The definitions of Schema: Schemata are 'high-level complex (and even conventional or habitual) knowledge structures' (van Dijk 1981:141) which functions as 'ideational scaffolding' (Andersion 1977) in the organization and interpretation of experience. In the strong view, schemata are considered to be deterministic, to predispose the experiencer to interpret his experience in a fixed way. b. Schemata can be seen as the organized background knowledge which leads us to expect or predict aspects in our interpretation of discourse. (cited in *Discourse Analysis* written by Gillian Brown &George Yule) The characteristics of schemata: a. Schemata can vary considerably in the information they contain, from the very simple to the very complex. b. Schemata are frequently organized hierarchically, e.g.:

worsening environment/ecological deterioration

desertification

↓
sand storms / Yellow dust

↓
deforestation /vegetation

c. Schemata operate in a top-down or conceptually driven way to facilitate interpretation on environmental stimuli. The ways of how to use schemata can be as follows: a. the activation of schemata; b. the reconstruction of schemata. Specific use of schemata: research on the use of schemata are found in reading comprehension and listening comprehension. Now research on the use of schemata begins in writing.

As to the Story structure, Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) argued that, in understanding of the gist of MACROSTRUCTURE of a story, readers and listeners make extensive use of their general knowledge to work out the major theme of a story, which leads to the production of Macropropositions which are general propositions used to form an overall macrostructure of the story.

6.4 Language Production

Language production is definitely a goal-directed activity, in the sense that people speak and write in order to make friends, influence people, convey information and so on.

As to speech production, Garrett put forward five different levels of representation involved in speaking a sentence: a. the message-level representation; b. the functional-level representation; c. the positional-level representation; d. the phonetic-level representation; e. the articulatory-level representation. The complex theory of speech production has not as yet been tested thoroughly. However, there is support for some of its major assumptions.

Some concepts related to the theory: A. Spoonerism (slip of the tongue) refers to the initial letters or letters of two words are transposed. For example, sounds or words from the end of a sentence intrude into the early part of a sentence, then this provides evidence for the notion of forward planning; B. Anticipation error, errors demonstrating the existence of forward planning, means that a word is spoken earlier than it should be, e.g.: *The school is at school. (at the school); C. Exchange error, errors, two items within a sentence are swapped, e.g.: *This is the happiest life of my day. D. Morpheme-exchange errors, refers to the phenomenon that the roots of basic forms of two words are switched leaving the grammatical structure unchanged. e.g. *He has already trunked two packs.

Another problem is written language. Writing process was proposed by Hayers and Flower (1986): First, the planning process, which involves producing ideas and arranging them into a writing plan appropriate to the writing. Second, the sentence generation process, which translates the writing plan into actual sentences that can be written down. Lastly, the revision process, which involves an evaluation of what has been written for so far.

Additionally, strategic knowledge, less obvious factors determining the quality of the writing plan, is knowledge used in constructing a writing plan in order to make it coherent and well-organized.

Exercises and Task:

- 1. Please explain how to figure our the correct structure of garden path sentences with four or more sentences?
 - 2. Please explain how to use schemata in listening, speaking, reading and reading with examples?
 - 3. Please explain the basic process in reading with a short passage or short paragraph?
- 4. Distinguish the following definitions with at least one examples: slip of the tongue, anticipation error, exchange error and morpheme-exchange errors?
- 5. Think about the acquisition of second language acquisition or first language acquisition from the perspective of psycholinguistics?
- 6. Collect a sample of tongue-slips and, for each item in your example, describe what has gone wrong in the speaker's production (in English or Chinese conversation).

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Chapter 7 Language, Culture and Society

Although the endeavor in the pursuit of the inter-relationship between language and culture has never been dormant in the development of linguistic science, "this very embedding of language in society and culture has been the focus of intense and sustained research since the 1960s" (Apte 1994). In order to provide the student an opportunity to know more about the situation, we introduce this chapter and focus our discussion on the relationship between language, culture and society. The contents are closely related to sociolinguistics.

7.1 Language and Culture

7.1.1 The Interrelationship

It has become axiomatic to state that there exists a close relationship between language and culture. Many people claim that language is a part of culture. From a dynamic view, language and culture interact with each other and shape each other. Language is the carrier of culture which in turn is the content of language.

In any culture or region, language is much more than semantics, much more than what the written page or the spoken word can contain. This especially becomes clear when studying a foreign language and learning the ways of a particular culture. For example, the use of introductions, salutations, everyday sayings, etc. This area in particular gives more weight to culture then to the words themselves. Anyone studying a foreign language has to be bicultural as well as bilingual to speak the new language in a way that it is not disparaging to the culture and its origin. Language does not end at the meaning or the use of words associated to a culture. Wordsin a language represent beliefs, history, and the culture of their origin and they must be used accordingly.

Malinowsky observed that in the primitive culture of Trobriand Islands off eastern New Guinea, the meaning of word greatly depended upon its occurrence in a given context, or rather, upon a real language situation. What is more, Hallidays' contributions to sociolinguistics could be seen from his understanding of language from a socially semiotic or interactional perspective, his functional interpretation of grammar as a resource for meaning potential, and his linguistic model in the study of literature (see more in Downes 1998).

We can dig out cultural features from language and explain language phenomena with culture. It is worth noting that Jiang (2000) discusses the inseparability of culture and language, presents three new metaphors relating to culture and language, and explores cultural content in specific language items through a survey of word associations. The survey was designed for native Chinese speakers (NCS) in Chinese, as well as for native English speakers (NES) in English (see Appendix). The words and expressions associated by NCS convey Chinese culture, and those associated by NES convey English culture. The intimate relationship between language and culture is strikingly illustrated by the survey, which confirms the view that language and culture cannot exist without each other.

7.1.2 Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis as we know it today can be broken down into two basic principles: linguistic determinism and linguistic relativity. We first illustrate linguistic determinism and relativity.

Linguistic Determinism refers to the idea that the language we use to some extent determines the way in which we view and think about the world around us. The concept has generally been divided into

two separate groups – 'strong' determinism and 'weak' determinism. Strong determinism is the extreme version of the theory, stating that language actually determines thought, that language and thought are identical. Although this version of the theory would attract few followers today - since it has strong evidence against it, including the possibility of translation between languages - we will see that in the past this has not always been the case. Weak determinism, however, holds that thought is merely affected by or influenced by our language, whatever that language may be. This version of determinism is widely accepted today.

Humboldt's 'Weltanschauung' (world-view) Hypothesis is similar to linguistic determinism. Humboldt (1767-1835) was the first European to combine a knowledge of various languages with a philosophical background; he equated language and thought exactly in the 'Weltanschauung' hypothesis, in fact a version of the extreme form of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Humboldt maintained that language actually determined thought: *Der mensch lebt mit den Gegenständen hauptsächlich, ja...sogar ausschliesslich so, wie die Sprache sie ihm zuführt.*"

Humboldt viewed thought as being impossible without language, language as completely determining thought. On closer inspection, we can see that this extreme hypothesis leads to a question: how, if there was no thought before language, did language arise in the first place? Humboldt answers this by adhering to the theory that language is a platonic object, comparable to a living organism which just suddenly evolved one day entirely of its own accord.

Philosophically, relativistic arguments often begin with plausible, even truistic premises--e.g., that we are culturally and historically situated, that justification cannot go on forever, that we cannot talk without using language or think without using concepts.

Linguistic relativity states that distinctions encoded in one language are unique to that language alone, and that "there is no limit to the structural diversity of languages". If one imagines the color spectrum, it is a continuum, each color gradually blending into the next; there are no sharp boundaries. But we impose boundaries; we talk of red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet. It takes little thought to realize that these discriminations are arbitrary - and indeed in other languages the boundaries are different. In neither Spanish, Italian nor Russian is there a word that corresponds to the English meaning of 'blue', and likewise in Spanish there are two words 'esquina' and 'rincon', meaning an inside and an outside corner, which necessitate the use of more than one word in English to convey the same concept. These examples show that the language we use, whichever it happens to be, divides not only the color spectrum, but indeed our whole reality, which is a 'kaleidoscopic flux of impressions', into completely arbitrary compartments.

Surprisingly, though, neither Sapir or Whorf made it very clear whether they were arguing for strong or weak determinism. At times we are "at the mercy of" whatever language we speak, while at others our linguistic habits simply "predispose certain choices of interpretation".

Whorf spent a lot of his time studying the language of the Hopi Indians of Arizona, who make no distinction in their language between past, present and future tenses; where in English it seems natural to distinguish between 'I see the girl', 'I saw the girl' and 'I will see the girl', this is not an option in Hopi. This apparently made quite an impression on Whorf, who imagined that the scientists of the day and the Hopi must see the world very differently...although the philosopher Max Black considers that 'they may be expected to have pretty much the same concept of time that we have' in spite of this. And Whorf himself notices, 'The Hopi language is capable of accounting for and describing correctly all observable

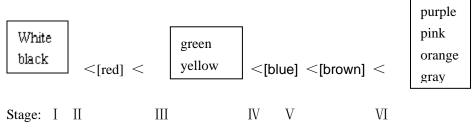
phenomena of the universe'. Another characteristic of the Hopi tongue is that there is just a single word – 'masaytaka' - for everything that flies, including insects, aeroplanes and pilots.

It can be concluded that as regards linguistic determinism, it seems that most contemporary thinkers are quite content to accept the weaker version of the theory, that thought is indeed influenced by the linguistic systems available to us, but not much more; certainly not there are not many linguists today who would support Wilhelm von Humboldt's 'Weltanschauung' hypothesis.

It can hardly be argued, either, that there is any limit to the structural diversity of languages. There are plenty of languages available for us to study, and each one divides the world up into compartments in different ways from other languages.

It seems as if it would be profitable if some thought were given to the link between language and consciousness, the conscious coding of thought via verbal symbols and the way in which conscious thought is encoded in them.

In the later 1960s, two American scholars, Brent Berlin and Paul Kay conducted a large cross-linguistic investigation of basic color vocabulary, which involved 98 languages in the world. The most striking finding in this research is that color' word systems in different languages are not like what has been assumed by the Sapir and Whorl hypothesis, being culturally determined and hence absolutely different from one another. Contrary to this assumption, Berlin and Kay showed that different languages might well undergo a universal evolutionary process of development which, in turn, made the basic color system in one language different from that in another only in terms of the stages of their evolution. This evolutionary process can be specified as follows.



Evolutionary Stages of Basic Color Words (Berlin & Kay 1991 [1969]: 4)

What the figure above suggests is like this: if a language has two basic color terms, it is identified as staying in the first stage of evolution, possessing two basic color words "white" and "black"; if a language has three basic color words, it is assumed to be in the second stage of evolution, possessing three basic color words "white", "black", and "red". According to this evolutionary theory, English has all the eleven basic color words so it reaches the last stage of evolution. The good thing about this theory is that it correctly captures a kind of generalization in color words cross-culturally. Because it was found that for the whole of 98 languages examined, there were only about 30 combinations of basic color words, varying from two to eleven in number. If there is not a linguistic universality in the basic color word system of languages, as this theory suggests, a free combination of these eleven basic color words will produce over two thousand random combinations.

7.1.3 Culture in Language Teaching Classroom

To know another culture is a rather difficult job. To act or behave appropriately in another culture is a more demanding task. It is even claimed that a satisfactory fulfillment of this task will take about 20 years of time (Nida & JFL correspondent 1998). Keeping this in mind and also realizing the facilitating role of cultural knowledge in language learning, we will briefly discuss the relationship between culture and

language teaching here. The interested reader can find more examples in Gao (2000).

Principally, there are at least three objectives for us to teach culture in our language class:

- 1) To get the students familiar with cultural differences;
- 2) To help the students transcend their own culture and see things as the members of the target culture will;
- 3) To emphasize the inseparability of understanding language and understanding culture through various classroom practices

All this leads to a belief that a good understanding of structural things in some cases has much to do with a conscious understanding of the cultural background of the target language from language learners. In other words, a successful master of a given language has much to do with an understanding of that culture. Because, as we have shown so far, language and culture are correlated with each other at different levels of linguistic structure.

7.2 Language and Society

7.2.1 How does language relate to society?

The relationship between language and society has long been recognized and examined. Evidence for this claim, discrete as it might be, can be conveniently gathered from the works by those great philosophers and grammarians either in the Graeco-Roman tradition or in the Indian history (Harris & Taylor 1997). During the whole 20th century, a great deal of efforts has been taken to treat the inquiry of linguistics as a Monistic or Autonomous pursuit of an independent science.

We can illustrate the relationship from a situationally and socially variationist perspective. As far as the situational variation in language use is concerned, Geertz (1960) provides a good example to illustrate the diversity and richness of some stylistic variants available for a Javanese speaker to choose when engaged in different types of communicative events. For instance, even a simple interrogative sentence like "Are you going to eat rice and cassava now?" will situationally admit several Javanese translations, starting from a rather lower level of style and moving to a comparatively higher level of style:

Are apa / napa / menapa

you kowé / sampéjan / pandjenengan

going arep/adjeng/dadé

to eat mangan / neda / daharé

rice sega / sekul and lan / kalijan cassava laspé

now saiki / saniki / samenika

The copiously potential selection of linguistic forms in this Javanese community indicates that an appropriate language use in any social interaction not only has something to do with structural rules, but also involves some socially institutionalized norms in usage. In this sense, the choice of one form over another is both stylistically and socially governed. This conceptualization of linguistic variation, in relation to what will be discussed below, is likely to provide an innovative and more comprehensive understanding of the issue in general.

It is generally believed that the real sociolinguistic inquiry of this issue began with Robin Lakoff's (1973) retrospective study of gender differences in American English in the early 1970s (cf. Jesperson 1922). Inspired by this very seminal article, the following years have seen a lot of publications either to

support or challenge the hypotheses Lakoff put forward concerning the linguistic behavior of females in the American society. What these hypotheses suggest is that there exists a women register in the language that takes on the following features:

- 1) women use more "fancy" color terms such as mauve and beige;
- 2) women use less powerful curse words;
- 3) women use more intensifiers such as terrible and awful;
- 4) women use more tag questions;
- 5) women use more statement questions like "Dinner will be ready at seven o'clock?" (with a rising intonation at the end);
 - 6) women's linguistic behavior is more indirect and, hence, more polite than men's.

More importantly, it is argued that these differences in language use are brought about by nothing less than women's place in society. The underlying point for this argument is rather meaningful. Suppose that we are not satisfied with some practices in language use, say, linguistic sexism, and want to reform the language.

7.2.3 Implications from Sociolinguistics?

The past decades have witnessed a rapid development in sociolinguistics and the findings in this field have greatly enriched our understanding of the relationship between language and society. Along with the gradual maturity and acceptance of this school of linguistics, there has been an ever growing possibility for us to have a new daughter discipline called "applied sociolinguistics" (Trudgill 1984). Some more successful practices of this attempt have been found in language classrooms, law courts, and clinical settings, respectively.

First, we' 11 have a look at sociolinguistics in language classrooms. But before we take up this issue, we'd better raise a question like this: What is wrong with the traditional perspective in language teaching? By asking a question like this, we are in fact making a choice between training our students as Grammarians and training them as Active Language Users. This contrast reflects two different views of philosophy in language teaching. For the traditional school, "language learning is treated as a process of acquiring knowledge, like studying history or mathematics. The end result is that learners will know something about the language in the same way a linguist does, but will know little about the language used by others" (Berns, 1990: 342). We witnessed, however, a change in language teaching in the middle of the 1970s when Hyme's theory of Communicative Competence was introduced into the field as an antagonism to the traditional philosophy in language teaching. Consequently, as the name of this theory suggested, language teachers began to pay more attention to the question of how to train their students as active and successful language users in a real language context. As far as language teaching is concerned, sociolinguistics is believed to have provided some important contributions which can further be summarized as follows (Berns 1990:339):

- a) Sociolinguistics has contributed to a change of emphasis in the content of language teaching;
- b) it has also contributed to innovations in materials and activities for the classroom;
- c) it has contributed to a fresh look at the nature of language development and use;
- d) it has contributed to a more fruitful research in this field.

Second, the inquiry of the relationship between language and law has opened another avenue for the application of sociolinguistic findings to some more practical issues in society. Some fruitful practices of this attempt have been observed in this respect. For instance, the important role of linguists in the analysis

of language data gathered as evidence in law courts has been recognized by more and more people.

Lastly, we turn to sociolinguistics in clinic settings. The analysis of dialogues between doctors and patients in a hospital context has also attracted the interest of some researchers in sociolinguistics.

7.3 Summary

In our discussion above, we have introduced some important theories and practices in a sociocultural inquiry of linguistic issues. As we have indicated, a more systematic pursuit of this kind did not start until the 1960s, with the occurrence of sociolinguistics as a new force in the study of language. After almost 40 years' development, this innovative movement has gained much momentum and vitality by incorporating the insights from other relevant sciences and has gradually secured its position as a legitimate pursuit in linguistics (cf. Chomsky 1995). On the other hand, as has been shown above, the study of the relationship between language, culture, and society is a rather intriguing task. One of the difficulties observed in this attempt is the diversity in subject matters. The interdisciplinary nature of this pursuit requires a satisfactory mastery of knowledge in relevant fields such as anthropology, social psychology, sociology, ethnology, and cognitive sciences (cf. Rosch 1975 & 1977) on the part of its researchers and practitioners. Therefore, we fully understand that what is presented above is only a small part of the whole edifice. Much of its beauty and fascination is still there waiting for the conscious and courageous explorer to search and discover.

Exercises and Task:

- 1. Try to interpret the following terms from linguistic and philosophical perspectives.
- linguistic determinism; linguistic relativity; variationist linguistics
- 2. Try to discuss the following issues in light of the relationship between language, culture and society.
- a. As students of linguistics, how should we understand the relationship between functionalism and formalism
- b. Over the past two decades, hundreds of new words have rushed into the daily life of Chinese. Try to collect a bunch of these words, examine the context of their usage, and provide a feasible interpretation to their booming.
 - c. Why do we need to teach culture in our language classroom?

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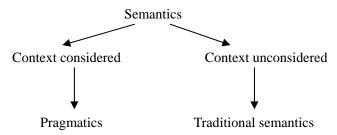
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Chapter 8 Language in Use

The discipline which concentrates on that kind of speaker's meaning, utterance meaning or contextual meaning is called Pragmatics. Pragmatics is the study of how speakers of a language use sentences to effect successful communication. It studies the following topics: deixis, speech acts, indirect language, conversation, politeness, cross-cultural communication, and presupposition. (Dai & He, 2002:84).

Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning, contextual meaning, how more gets communicated than is said, the expression of relative distance. (Yule 2000:3)

As this kind of meaning comes partly from the use of language in a context, pragmatics may also be defined as the study of language in use. We can say pragmatics= meaning-semantics. In this chapter we mainly discuss speech act theory, the theory of conversational implicature, and post-Gricean developments. We can illustrate the distinction between semantics and pragmatics in the following schema.



8.1 Speech Act Theory

8.1.1 Perfomatives, Constatives and Felicity Conditions

Speech act theory is a philosophical explanation of the nature of linguistic communication. It aims to answer this question: "What do we do when using language?" Austin argues that sentences like the following do not describe things. They cannot be aid to be true or false. The uttering of these sentences is the doing of an action. So they are called Perfomatives.

- a. I name the ship the Queen Elizabeth.
- b. I bequeath my watch to my brother.
- c. I promise to finish it in time.
- d. I declare the meeting open.

In contrast, sentences spoken by a chemistry teacher *I pour some liquid into the tube* are known as Constatives, because the speaker must accompany his words with the actual pouring, otherwise one can accuse him of making a false statement.

With the concept of performatives, Austin demonstrated that meaning of a sentence cannot be fully explained by one criterion, i.e., the propositional/descriptive content it expresses. Austin also emphasized the importance of describing the total speech act in the total speech situation in which the language users employ the language: the speaker utters a sentence and performs a speech act to the hearer. While doing so, Austin proposed (I) the felicity conditions, which define the elements in the performance of illocutionary acts, (II) the distinction between locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts, which

specifies the sense of illocutionary acts performed in terms of other acts per-formed in communication, and (III) the classification of illocutionary acts, which gives general ideas of what acts are performed and in terms of what they are specified. In spite of the possibilities Austin suggested, these speech act theorists persistently concentrate on explaining an illocutionary act in terms of an intention. From Austin's point of view, it is debatable whether reducing meaning, expressed by uttering a sentence, to the intention is any better than reducing it to a propositional/descriptive content which the sentence expresses.

Austin's felicity conditions define the elements which structure the speech situation, in terms of which a purported act succeeds/fails. We suggest describing these aspects of the speech situation as the aspect of conventionality, more explicitly, certain conventions activated; the aspect of actuality, more explicitly, certain performances and responses executed; and the aspect of intentionality, more explicitly, certain intentions expressed. These aspects correspond respectively to Austin's felicity conditions of (A), (B), and (C).

Now we explain conventionality, actuality, and intentionality of the speech situation. Austin's felicity conditions are as follows:

- (A.1) There must exist an accepted conventional procedure having a certain conventional effect, that procedure to include the uttering of certain words by certain persons in certain circumstances, and further,
- (A.2) The particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure invoked.
 - (B.1) The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly and
 - (B.2) completely.
- (C.1) Where, as often, the procedure is designed for use by persons having certain thoughts or feelings, or for the inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in and so invoking the procedure must in fact have those thoughts or feelings, and the participants must intend so to conduct themselves, and further
 - (C.2) must actually so conduct themselves subsequently. (Austin 1962: 14-15)

Violations of the conditions in (A.1) and (A.2) are described as "misinvocations", in which the purported act is disallowed (Austin 1962:18). A violation of the second type of condition in (B.1) and (B.2) is described as "misexecutions", in which a purported act is vitiated (Austin 1962:18). Let us move on to discuss Austin's felicity conditions in (C.1) and (C.2). A violation of these conditions is described as an "abuse", in which the professed act is hollow (Austin 1962: 18).

8.1.2 A Theory of the Illocutionary Act

Three speech acts discussed by Austin are locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary. (Example: You have left the door wide open.)

Locutionary act can be defined as an act of uttering words, phrases, clauses; Illocutionary act can be defined as the act of expressing the speaker's intention; Perlocutionary act can be defined as the act performed by or resulting fro saying something, the consequence of the utterance.

We also present Searle's classification of speech acts. First is Representatives: stating or describing, saying what the speaker believes to be true. The speaker is making a statement or giving a description which he himself believes to be true. Stating, believing, swearing, hypothesizing are the typical representatives.

(I swear) I have never seen the man before.

(*I state*) The earth is a globe.

Second is Directives: Trying to get hearer to do something. Inviting, suggesting, requesting, advising, warning, threatening, ordering are the typical ones.

Open the window!

You'd better go to the clinic.

Your money or your life!

Would you like to go to the picnic with us?

The third is Commissives: Committing the speaker himself to the future course of action. Promising, undertaking, vowing are the most typical cases.

I promise to come.

I will bring you the book tomorrow without fail.

The fourth is Expressives: Expressing feelings or attitude towards an existing state. Typical ones: apologizing, thanking, congratulating.

I'm sorry for the mess I have made.

It's really kind of you to have thought of me.

The fifth is Declarations: bringing about immediate changes by saying something. They are like Austin's classical examples. More examples:

I now declare the meeting open.

I appoint you chairman of the committee.

I fire you!

All the acts that belong to the same category share the same purpose but differ in their strength or force.

Close the door.

Will you close the door!

Can you close the door!

Do you mind closing the door?

I would be very grateful if you could close the door!

The door is open!

The door please!

8.2 The Theory of Conversational Implicature

The second major theory in pragmatics is the theory of conversational implicature, proposed by Oxford philosopher Herbert Paul Grice. Grice noticed that in daily conversations people do not usually say things directly but tend to imply them.

"Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." This principle is known as the Cooperative Principle or CP for short. To specify the Cooperative Principle, Grice introduced four categories of maxims as follows.

The maxim of quantity: Make your contribution as informative as required. No more and no less.

The maxim of quality: Do not say what you believe to be false and do not say what you lack evidence for.

The maxim of relation: Be relevant

The maxim of manner: Avoid obscurity, ambiguity. Be brief and orderly.

The use of terms principle and maxim does not mean that the CP an its maxim will be followed by

everybody all the time. People do violate or flout them and tell lies. Grice claims that lies are not implicatures proper. Flouting of the conversation maxim and revealing conversation implicature can be illustrated by the following examples:.

- A: When is Susan's farewell party?
- B: Sometime next month.
- (flouting the maxim of quantity)
- A: Would you like to join us for the picnic on Sunday?
- B: I'm afraid I have got a class on Sunday.
- (flouting the maxim of quality)
- A: How did the math exam go today, Jonnie?
- B: We had a basketball match with the other class and we beat them.
- (flouting the maxim of relation)
- A: Shall we get something for the kids?
- B: Yes. But I veto I-C-E-C-R-E-A-M.
- (flouting the maxim of manner)

We summarize the characteristics of conversational implicature in light of other linguists' elaborations. (i) Calculability; (ii) Cancellability; (iii) Non-detachability; (iv) Non-conventionality;

8.3 Post-Gricean Developments

The theory of conversational implicature has opened a new way of explaining the use of language, and caught the attention of linguists immediately. However, there is some inconsistency and redundancy among the CP and its maxims. Linguists of the post-Gricean periods have sought to boil down the maxims to a set of principles which are truly indispensable and do not overlap at the same time. In this section we shall discuss such suggestion.

First is Relevance theory proposed by Sperber and Wilson in *Relevance: Communication and Cognition* in 1986. It is defined as "Every act of ostentive communication communicates the presumption of its own optimal relevance." An ostensive stimulus, then, creates a presumption of relevance. The notion of *optimal relevance* is meant to spell out what the audience of an act of ostensive communication is entitled to expect in terms of effort and effect. Optimal relevance is conditioned. An ostensive stimulus is optimally relevant to an audience iff:

- a. It is relevant enough to be worth the audience's processing effort;
- b. It is the most relevant one compatible with communicator's abilities and preferences.

As to relevance and comprehension, in many non-verbal cases (e.g. pointing to one's empty glass, failing to respond to a question), use of an ostensive stimulus merely adds an extra layer of intention recognition to a basic layer of information that the audience might have picked up anyway. In other cases (e.g. inviting someone out to a drink by pretending to raise a glass to one's lips), the communicator's behavior provides no direct evidence for the intended conclusion, and it is only the presumption of relevance conveyed by the ostensive stimulus which encourages the audience to devote the necessary processing resources to discovering her meaning. Either way, the range of meanings that can be non-verbally conveyed is necessarily limited by the range of concepts the communicator can evoke in her audience by drawing attention to observable features of the environment (whether preexisting or produced specifically for this purpose).

Loose uses of language are not the only problem for Grice's maxim of truthfulness. There are

questions about how the maxim itself is to be understood, and a series of difficulties with the analysis of tropes as overt violations of the maxim (for detailed discussion, see Wilson & Sperber 2002). Notice, too, that the intuitive similarities between loose talk, metaphor and hyperbole cannot be captured within this framework, since metaphor and hyperbole are seen as overt violations of the maxim of truthfulness, while loose uses of language are not. We have argued that the best solution is to abandon the maxim of truthfulness and treat whatever expectations of truthfulness arise in utterance interpretation as resulting not from an independent maxim, norm or convention of truthfulness, but as by-products of the more basic expectation of relevance. On this approach, loose talk, metaphor and hyperbole involve no violation of any maxim, but are merely alternative routes to achieving optimal relevance. Whether an utterance is literally, loosely or metaphorically understood will depend on the mutual adjustment of context, context and cognitive effects in the effort to satisfy the hearer's overall expectation of relevance.

To illustrate this unified approach, consider the exchange in the following:

- a. Peter: What do you think of Martin's latest novel?
- b. Mary: It puts me to sleep.

In Grice's framework, Mary's utterance in (b) should have three distinct interpretations: as a literal assertion, a hyperbole or a metaphor. Of these, Peter should test the literal interpretation first, and move to a figurative interpretation only if the literal interpretation blatantly violates the maxim of truthfulness. Yet there is now a lot of experimental evidence suggesting that literal interpretations do not have to be tested and rejected before figurative interpretations are considered; indeed, in interpreting (b), it would probably not even occur to Peter to wonder whether Mary literally fell asleep. The relevance-theoretic analysis takes these points into account.

And the Q(quantity)-Principle is like this: Make your contribution sufficient; say as much as you can. The R(relation)-principle: Make your contribution necessary; say no more than you must. Additionally we will make a distinction of Q-Principle, I-principle and M-principle.

We can make a conclusion here. Relevance theory is an experimentally testable cognitive theory. Relevance theory is a cognitive psychological theory. In particular, it treats utterance interpretation as a cognitive process. Like other psychological theories, it has testable consequences: it can suggest experimental research, and is open to confirmation, disconfirmation or fine-tuning in the light of experimental evidence. Of course, as with other theories of comparable scope, its most general tenets can be tested only indirectly, by evaluating some of their consequences. Thus, the Cognitive Principle of Relevance (the claim that human cognition tends to be geared to the maximization of relevance) suggests testable predictions only when combined with descriptions of particular cognitive mechanisms (for perception, categorization, memory, or inference, for example). Given a description of such a mechanism, it may be possible to test the relevance-theoretic claim that this mechanism contributes to a greater allocation of cognitive resources to potentially relevant inputs, by comparing it with some alternative hypothesis, or at least the null hypothesis.

Exercise and Task:

- 1. Try to define and understand the terms:
- Entailment; ostentive communication; (Horn's) Q-principle; R-principle
- 2. According to Austin, what are the three acts a person is possibly performing while making an utterance. Give an example to illustrate them.

3. If you ask somebody "can you open the door?" he answers "Yes" but does not actually do it, when would be your reaction? Why? Try to see it in light of the speech act theory.

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Chapter 9 Language and Computer

Computational linguistics can be seen a branch of applied linguistics, dealing with computer processing of computer processing of human language. (Johnson and Johnson 1999). It includes the analysis of language data so as to establish the order in which learners acquire various grammatical rules or the frequency of occurrence of some particular item: it includes electronic production of artificial speech (speech synthesis) an the automatic recognition of human speech; it includes research on automatic translation between natural languages; and it also includes text processing and communication between people and computers.

9.1 Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

We have first to make a distinction between CAI (computer-assisted instruction) and CALL. Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL) is different from Computer-aided Instruction (CAI) in that first, it is concerned with language learning; second, it emphasizes language learning from the learner's perspective; third, it is not necessarily computer-based but computer-assisted and therefore is more flexible in its delivery mode. We have to deliberate the ultimate principles of CALL, the methodology and try to find out a comprehensive solution that is pedagogically sound, linguistically reasonable, technologically viable, socially acceptable and practically feasible, considering the large amount of human resources, time and money that are needed to fund such projects.

CAI may include:

- a. A teaching program which is presented by a computer in a sequence. The student responds on the computer, and the computer indicates whether the responses are correct or incorrect.
- b. The use of computer to monitor student progress, to direct students into appropriate lessons, material, etc. This is also called computer-managed instruction.

Suen Caesar LUN in the book *An Integrated Approach to Computer-assisted Language Learning (ICALL*,2005) proposes a CALL design theory called an Integrated Approach (ICALL), which relies heavily on contrastive linguistics, natural language processing and language learnt being put to real use in a wider context. The main gist of ICALL lies in the smooth integration of the top-down approach with the bottom-up approach and is based on the analogy of a web-like contextualized network for attaching different components within a CALL system. The communication theory, the integration of language acquisition and learning, edutainment, dynamic linguistic knowledge bases, interactivity facilitated by contrastive linguistics, and natural language processing are all key concepts that play major roles in the process of designing ICALL systems. It is of utmost importance to understand the human nature in designing user-friendly yet effective CALL courseware packages that make use of the synergy of all parties concerned.

There are mainly 4 phases in the courses of CALL development. As to the technology, for many years basic drill-and practice software programs dominated the market in CALL. However, an increasing number of innovative and interactive programs are being developed. Here are some programs summarized by Higgins(1993).(1) Customizing, template, and authoring programs.(2) Computer networks. (3) Compact disk technology. (4) Digitized sound.

9.2 Machine Translation

Machine translation refers to the use of machine to translate texts from one language to another. It has always been a chief concern in computational linguistics in spite of its ups and downs in the course of

development, which has been summarized by Hutchin (1995,1999). One can witness the following development stages. (1) The independent work by MT researcher. (2) Towards good quality output. (3) The development of translation tools.

The research methods include (1) linguistic approach. (2) The practical approach, which is further divided into 3 strands. a. the transfer approach. b. the interlingual approach. C. Knowledge-based approach

The most widely anticipated development in the new century must be that of speech translation. At the beginning of the new century, it is already apparent that MT and human translation can and will co-exist in relative harmony.

9.3 Corpus Linguistics

There are various definitions concerning "corpus" and "corpus linguistics". The following are two representative ones.

Corpus: A collection of linguistic data, either compiled as written texts or as a transcription of recorded speech. The main purpose of a corpus is to verify a hypothesis about language- for example, to determine how the usage of a particular sound, word, or syntactic construction varies.

Corpus linguistics deals with the principles and practice of using corpora in language study. A computer corpus is a large body of machine-readable texts. (cf. Crystal, David 1992. An Encyclopedic Dictionary of Language and Languages). The computer can retrieve all examples of a word, calculate the number of occurrences of the word, and sort the data, e.g., alphabetically on words. This is usually referred to as a Concordance. If corpora is said to be unannotated- it appears in its existing raw state of plain text, whereas annotated corpora has been enhanced with various type of linguistic information.

9.4 Information Retrieval

9.4.1 Scope Defined

Information retrieval is the tem conventionally, though somewhat inaccurately, applied to the type of activity discussed. An information retrieval system does not inform (i.e. change the knowledge of) the user on the subject of his inquiry. It merely informs on the existence (or non-existence) and whereabouts of documents relating to his request.(Lancaster 1968). This excludes Questioning-Answering systems. It also excludes data retrieval systems such as used by the stock exchange for on-line quotations.

To make clear the difference between data retrieval (DR) and information retrieval (IR), it is necessary to distinguish properties of data and information retrieval.

Data Retrieval vs Information Retrieval

Data Retrieval (DR)		Information Retrieval (IR)
Matching	Exact match	Partial match, best match
Inference	Deduction	Induction
Model	Deterministic	Probabilistic
Classification	Monothetic	Polythetic
Query language	Artificial	Natural
Query specification	Complete	Incomplete
Items wanted	Matching	Relevant
Error response	Sensitive	Insensitive

One may want to criticize this dichotomy on the grounds that the boundary between the two is a vague one. And so it is, but it is a useful one in that it illustrates the range of complexity associated with each mode of retrieval.

In principle, information storage and retrieval is simple. Suppose there is a store of documents and a person (user of the store) formulates a question (request or query) to which the answer is a set of documents satisfying the information need expressed by his question. He can obtain the set by reading all the documents in the store, retaining the relevant documents and discarding all the others. In a sense, this constitutes 'perfect' retrieval. This solution is obviously impracticable. A user either does not have the time or does not wish to spend the time reading the entire document collection, apart from the fact that it may be physically impossible for him to do so.

When high speed computers became available for non-numerical work, many thought that a computer would be able to 'read' an entire document collection to extract the relevant documents. It soon became apparent that using the natural language text of a document not only caused input and storage problems (it still does) but also left unsolved the intellectual problem of characterizing the document content. It is conceivable that future hardware developments may make natural language input and storage more feasible. But automatic characterization in which the software attempts to duplicate the human process of 'reading' is a very sticky problem indeed. More specifically, 'reading' involves attempting to extract information, both syntactic and semantic, from the text and using it to knowing how to extract the information but also how to use it to decide relevance. The comparatively slow progress of modern linguistics on the semantic front and the conspicuous failure of machine translation (Bar-Hillel) show that these problems are largely unsolved.

9.4.2 Information Retrieval System

Let me illustrate by means of a black box what a typical IR system would look like. The diagram shows three components: input, processor and output. Such a trichotomy may seem a little trite, but the components constitute a convenient set of pegs upon which to hang a discussion. Starting with the input side of things. The main problem here is to obtain a representation of each document and query suitable for a computer to use. Let me emphasise that most computer-based retrieval systems store only a representation of the document (or query) which means that the text of a document is lost once it has been processed for the purpose of generating its representation. A document representative could, for example, be a list of extracted words considered to be significant. Rather than have the computer process the natural language, an alternative approach is to have an artificial language within which all queries and documents can be formulated. There is some evidence to show that this can be effective (Barber et al.). Of course it presupposes that a user is willing to be taught to express his information need in the language.

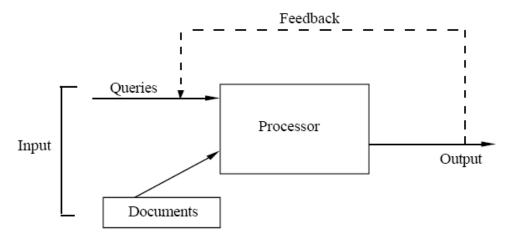


Figure: A Typical IR System

When the retrieval system is on-line, it is possible for the user to change his request during one search session in the light of a sample retrieval, thereby, it is hoped, improving the subsequent retrieval run. Such a procedure is commonly referred to as feedback. An example of a sophisticated on-line retrieval system is the MEDLINE system (McCarn and Leiter). I think it is fair to say that it will be only a short time before all retrieval systems will be on-line. Secondly, the processor, that part of the retrieval system concerned with the retrieval process. The process may involve structuring the information in some appropriate way, such as classifying it. It will also involve performing the actual retrieval function, that is, executing the search strategy in response to a query. In the diagram, the documents have been placed in a separate box to emphasize the fact that they are not just input but can be used during the retrieval process in such a way that their structure is more correctly seen as part of the retrieval process.

Finally, we come to the output, which is usually a set of citations or document numbers. In an operational system the story ends here. However, in an experimental system it leaves the evaluation to be done.

Much of the research and development in information retrieval is aimed at improving the effectiveness and efficiency of retrieval. Efficiency is usually measured in terms of the computer resources used such as core, backing store, and C.P.U. time. It is difficult to measure efficiency in a machine independent way. In any case, it should be measured in conjunction with effectiveness to obtain some idea of the benefit in terms of unit cost.

Papers on information retrieval have a tendency to get published in journals on computer science and library science. There are, however, a few major journals which are largely devoted to information retrieval. These are, *Journal of Documentation, Information Storage and Retrieval* (now called *Information Processing and Management*), and *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*. Finally, every year a volume in the series Annual Review of Information Science and Technology is edited by C. A. Cuadra. Each volume attempts to cover the new work published in information storage and retrieval for that year. As a source of references to the current literature it is unsurpassed. But they are mainly aimed at the practitioner and as such are a little difficult to read for the uninitiated.

Exercise and Task:

1. Try to define and understand the terms:

CALL; annotation; concordance; machine translation; computational linguistics

- 2. What's your view about the relation between MT and human translation.
- 3. What do you think about Chomsky's criticism and the revival of corpus linguistics?
- 4. Choose the correct answer from the following set of options.

Corpus A has 350,000 words in it and 615 examples of "get". Corpus B has 20,000 words in it and 35 examples of "get". Which corpus has the greatest proportion of the word "get"?

Corpus A/ Corpus B

5. What is the difference between data retrieval and information retrieval.

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《毕业论文设计与写作》教学大纲

李 立 编写

目 录

前 言	633	
一、概述	633	
二、课程教学目的和基本要求		
三、课程主要内容及课时分配	633	
四、相关教学环节		
五、使用教材		
Chapter I What is Graduation Thesis for BA?		
Chapter II Choosing a Topic: Writing about Linguistics and TEFL		
Reading	642	
Chapter III Choosing a Topic: Writing about Literature and Translation Studies		
Chapter IV Reviewing Related Literature and Evaluating Materials		
Chapter V Organizing Ideas and Writing the Outline		
Chapter VI Writing the First Draft		
Reading		
Chapter VII Revising and Editing		
Reading	658	
Chapter VIII Documentation: Citing and Listing Sources		
Reading	660	
Chapter IX Writing the Abstract		
Reading	664	
Chapter X Preparing for the Final Draft and Oral Defense		
Reading	668	
参考书目	669	

前言

一、概述

《毕业论文设计与写作》是为外国语学院本科四年级学生开设的一门专业选修课程。

本课程是一门关于如何撰写毕业论文,以指导学生写好毕业论文的课程。毕业论文的写作与答辩是本科学生学习的最后一个环节,也是整个学习任务的一个重要组成部分。大学生必须通过全部所学课程的考试,同时毕业论文成绩合格,才能准予毕业,获得大学毕业文凭。为什么毕业论文占有如此重要的地位呢?这是因为毕业论文的成绩反映的是学生的综合素质和全面的处理问题的能力。一篇毕业论文能从几方面反映学生的情况:

- (1) 能反映学生的专业基础知识掌握得是否牢固。
- (2) 能反映学生查找资料、筛选资料和运用资料的能力。
- (3) 能反映学生的思想方法和理论水平。
- (4)能反映学生的学习能力、动手能力、写作基础和分析、演绎、归纳、证明事物的能力,即从事科学研究的综合能力。

学生写作毕业论文不像平时学习课程和通过考试那样处于被动地接受考核和技能训练的状态, 而是主动地运用自己学到的知识开展科学研究,形成独立的科研成果。这不仅是学生在校期间接受 教育的结果,而且是学生对大学期间所学知识的综合运用。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程的教学目的在于帮助学生全面了解撰写毕业论文的知识和方法,尽快进入写作状态,写出优秀的毕业论文,同时,提高学生的写作理论水平和文字表达能力,增强他们研究、分析和总结问题的能力。

本课程要求学生具有毕业论文写作所需要的专业知识和专业基础知识,以及较强的研究能力和语言表达能力。这是因为学生写毕业论文,是对所学专业的总结,也是对自己的思想、理论水平的提高。写作毕业论文的过程需要知识的积累和方法的训练,而完成这个过程会进一步增加知识的积累,并且对思想方法的训练产生影响。

本课程要求学生完成以下四个方面并以此综合评分: (1) 上课出勤及课堂讨论(10%); (2) 六次作业(50%) (A focused-topic; bibliography; outline; literature review; introduction and abstract); (3) 一篇研究论文 (25%); 和(4) 期末考试 (15%).

三、课程主要内容及课时分配

本课程的内容主要包括:毕业论文的性质、毕业论文的选题、参考资料的收集与筛选、毕业论文的结构与格式、研究方法与论文语言、毕业论文提纲的拟定、撰写初稿、修改润色及评审标准、毕业论文答辩等内容。

本课程授课时数为20学时,每周2学时,共十周。

四、相关教学环节

本课程在教学过程中将力求注重本课程的知识性、实用性和可操作性,以帮助同学们能够运用自己所学的专业知识与基本理论就英语专业领域的某一问题,深入研究,提出观点,形成论据;引导同学们在撰写毕业论文时注意各门课程内在的系统,拓宽知识面,能从论文写作过程中汲取知识,

获得发现问题、解决问题的能力,进而写出优秀的毕业论文。

本课程将采用课堂面授、课堂讨论及练习等方式组织教学。

五、使用教材

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,**2006** 年 1 月第一版。

Chapter I What is Graduation Thesis for BA?

Contents:

- 1.1 Group writing game in class
- 1.2 Major features of research papers
- 1.3 Major components of graduation thesis
- 1.4 Three major formats of the thesis
- 1.5 Major aims of writing graduation thesis

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

1.1 Group writing game in class

On a sheet of notebook paper, write a *topic sentence* about *Autumn*. Then pass your paper to the person beside you.

This person will write one *body sentence* to support the topic sentence. Then he or she passes the paper to third and fourth students who also write *body sentences*. The fourth student passes the paper to the fifth and sixth students. Remember, each body sentence must relate directly to the topic sentence.

The seventh student of the group must read the paragraph and write a *concluding sentence*. He or she then passes the paragraph to an eight student.

The last student reads the paragraph carefully to make certain the body, and concluding sentences relate directly to the topic sentence. The student also checks the paragraph for grammar and spelling. When you have finished, be prepared to read your group's paragraph aloud. Every student will have the opportunity to provide a topic sentence; to write a body, and concluding sentence; and to check paragraphs for coherence. Please read your own writings and two printed research writings. When you finish, compare and contrast these two types of writings. Then, discuss with you neighbors and try to figure out the major features of research papers.

1.2 Major features of research papers

- **1.2.1** A library research paper is neither a simple recording of what has been done in your research nor a description of what has been found. It is rather an original compilation a bringing together from many different sources, including your own analysis, into one coherent whole. It is a new creation, in which different parts are logically related and all center on a research question. (Cultivation of your ability of review and analysis)
- 1.2.2. A research paper should center on one limited aspect of a general subject. If it is designed to establish a thesis, it should concentrate on establishing one or two main points. Avoid subjects that would lead you to compile miscellaneous information. Many research papers are unsuccessful because they cover too much ground, they are too broad in scope, too shallow in treatment. Restrict your general subject area until you arrive at something that you can explore in detail. Try to write more and more about less and less. The topic should be an inch wide and a mile deep. (NARROW TOPIC)

- 1.2.3. A research paper should show that the author has made detailed use of several different sources. Avoid subjects that would tempt you to summarize preassembled information from one main source. Avoid subjects that are conclusively and satesfactorily treated in a textbook or in an encyclopedia. By definition, a research paper is more than a condensation of easily accessible material. Whatever points you make should require careful sifting and comparing of evidence from different, and possibly conflicting sources. If you copy from one person, you are stealing. If you copy from a hundred people, you are doing research. (MULTISOURCES)
- **1.2.4.** A research paper should be objective in tone. The conclusion elaborated in the paper should stay close to the evidence actually presented. Avoid subjects whose discussion might bring into play a large measure of partisan allegiance, personal preference, or individual taste --- or be prepared to make a special effort to be objective. Your admiration for a presidential candidate and your distaste for Western-style music are likely to hinge on psychological factors that are beyond the scope of the ordinary research paper. **(OBJECTIVE IN TONE)**
- **1.2.5.** A research paper requires a particular form, style and major components. There are two major kinds of research papers: library research paper and field research paper.
- **1.2.6.** A research paper forbids any kinds of plagiarism. You may use and you are encouraged to use others' words or ideas but you are not permitted to take theirs as yours. You may quote, paraphrase, translate and summarize others' ideas. You need tell clearly in your paper where you take it.

1.3 Major components of graduation thesis

1.3.1. The title page (a title page in English and front cover in Chinese)

The title page presents the title of the thesis, the full name of the writer, tutor, specialty, and the submission statement including the department or school; the institution or university; the degree granted; and the month and year in which the thesis is submitted.

The title should be concise as well as descriptive and comprehensive with 10-15 words. Its wording should indicates the main content of the thesis. Avoid using question forms, vague and general statement in the title

1.3.2. Abstract

Provide two abstracts, one in Chinese and one in English. Abstract is a concise summary of your thesis. It is usually about 200 or 300 words with 4 or 5 key words. The major purpose of the abstract is not to evaluate, but rather to describe, the thesis. The abstract therefore should have a brief statement of the research question, research method, perspective of the analysis, design and conclusion or major argument.

1.3.3. Table of contents

It should contain or list all elements of the preliminaries, the chapter (section) titles, the main headings and subheadings in the thesis, and the reference materials. The table of contents should include: (1) chapter and section numbers; (2) chapter and section titles; and (3) page numbers. The numbering of chapters and the wording, capitalization, and punctuation of titles and headings should be exactly the same as they are in the thesis.

1.3.4. The thesis proper

There are various formats for organizing your graduation thesis. However, formats for the body of the thesis may differ according to the types of your research.

1.3.5. Notes

In any writing not derived purely from your own mind, you must document your facts. In writing graduation thesis, there are three ways of citing sources. They are: (1) in-quotation notes; (2) end-notes, and (3) footnotes. You should select one of the three according to your school's thesis formats.

1.3.6. Bibliography

There are numerous styles and formats in listing sources in different disciplines and schools. Do it as required. We will discuss it in chapter Eight.

1.4 Three major formats of the thesis

The formats of the thesis may differ according to types of thesis. There are three major types: empirical research paper; theoretical research paper; and historical research paper.

1.4.1. Thesis based on the collection of empirical data or case study - empirical research paper

The information in this type of thesis is derived from direct observation in case study or experience. This kind of thesis follows a standard format. The chapters are usually divided into five categories, corresponding to the stages of research.

Introduction

This part should introduce the subject; importance and validity of the problem chosen for study; the potential contribution of the study and the need for the research and necessary background information.

You should make a clear and concise statement of the problem, an analysis of its delimitation of scope; hypotheses; statistical study of variables; the schedule procedure for collecting data. It should also include the basic assumptions of the study and definitions of terms.

The review of related research and literature

This part presents the context of your study. It should not only summarize a series of books and articles, rather, it should call attention to the most important previous work, identify the place of your work in relation to their research, presenting agreement and disagreement in the field; evaluating the existing research, but not just repeating it; organizing the review by topic rather than by author, avoiding unnecessary quotations to focus the review of research.

Methods of the investigation

Chapters in this part should discuss the nature of the sample, the data needed to test the hypotheses or to answer the questions, the sources of data, and the procedure followed in gathering and analyzing the data, giving information of participants, materials and procedures.

Results

The analysis of the result without evaluation is the heart of a thesis based on the collection of empirical data. The chapters should present the results of the investigation without interpretation of evaluation, reporting negative as well as positive results. The information should be explained in clear, coherent prose. If you wish to accompany your analysis with tables or figures, these should supplement the text rather than substitute for it. The body of the paper should be comprehensive.

Discussion and interpretation

The final chapters should be devoted to discussion and interpretation of the data and to formulation of your conclusions. They also cover the implications of findings for revising the existing body of knowledge; the relation of the results to previous research, limitations of the study and unexpected findings, practical applications of the findings or speculations about further research.

1.4.2. Thesis based on critical analysis or philosophical speculation – theoretical research paper

Introduction

For library research papers, or theses based on critical analysis, there are some common elements. The introductory section usually defines your topic and research focus, describes very. briefly the background of previous work in the field, and explains the scope and importance of your topic. In this part, you should place the study against the background of previous work in this field, show the importance of the topic and discuss its role in current controversy or development. Don't summarize the works that influence or guide your work. The discussion of these works should demonstrate their relationship to your topic. Don't demolish previous studies to give your own work validity.

Body

The central chapters should develop and present the result of your research and your detailed analysis clearly, logically and systematically to demonstrate that your analysis will confirm or illustrate your thesis statement to convince readers.

Conclusion

The conclusion might include the summary or repetition of your major argument, implications and limitations of your research, and suggestions for the future research. It includes the interpretation or statement of the significance of the thesis; exposition of the findings; implications of the work for the revision of previous interpretations; proof or disproof of assumptions or theories in the field; new areas of inquiry opened by the study.

1.4.3. Thesis based on historical research -- historical research paper

This type of thesis develops data rather than create it, reporting the researchers' new findings in objective chronological organization or cause and effect, presenting the motive of the study; detail of the problems or deficiencies of previous scholarship; presenting new information; explaining the current situation in light of the past; revising the theories.

1.5 Major aims of writing graduation thesis

The practice of writing graduation thesis aims to develop the following abilities of undergraduate students of English majors.

1.5.1. The ability to select significant research question

A topic should be interesting, significant, researchable, modest and well focused, and one that the student can find enough data about.

1.5.2. The ability to locate and review previous research

Students are enabled to use three major sources of related literature, and they are background sources, original sources, and critical sources. They are 'enabled to read opinion articles, review articles and research reports, and to search for information through reference books, library catalogues, abstract and index service, computer database, online service, and conference proceedings.

1.5.3. The ability to make their own analysis in research

Students are encouraged to ask good questions, to investigate and view things from new perspectives and to make their own analysis. Their contribution, or "newness" could be new in perspective, method, data or analysis. It is hoped that they will learn the essence of science and academic.

1.5.4. The ability to express things appropriately in English

Students will develop their ability to write in appropriate style of English, learn to follow stylistic customs in academic writing, choose appropriate tenses and to make their writing objective in tone and their paper coherent in structure.

1.5.5. The ability to follow the scholarly style and format

Students are encouraged to quote, paraphrase, translate and summarize others' ideas, but they are not permitted to take others as theirs. They are enabled to tell clearly in their paper where they take it. They will learn how to follow the particular form and style of the academic writing.

Assignment

Read one or two graduation theses of graduates.

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,2006 年 1 月第一版。(Chapter One Introduction: What is graduation thesis for BA?)

Chapter II Choosing a Topic: Writing about Linguistics and TEFL

Contents:

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Sources and considerations for research topics
- 2.3 Suggested steps when choosing a topic
- 2.4 Finding an approach
- 2.5 Subject Areas, Topics, Questions and Thesis Statements
- 2.6 Formulating a Thesis Statement
- 2.7 Thesis Statement Exercise

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

2.1 Introduction

Choosing a topic to write about is probably the most important and most crucial part of the entire thesis process. You are encouraged to choose a topic you truly like and are genuinely interested in and to restrict and focus your topic as soon as possible. Adequately restricting and focusing the topic usually results in a high quality thesis. At first, you may only have a general idea of what you want to write about, like writing "something" on Reading Comprehension or Communicative Language Teaching. These topics at this time in the writing process are vague and unfocused, but this is normal. Only by doing a lot of reading and thinking will you eventually arrive at the point of being able to know the exact focus---the thesis or main idea---of your thesis. We will discuss how to use your interests to find a topic, narrow it to a manageable scope, and then generate questions that will focus your research paper. Choosing a topic appropriate for certain page requirements takes experience. In time, you will gain an overall sense of what is an appropriate topic for a particular length of paper. Your starting point could be **Linguistics** or **TEFL**.

2.2 Sources and considerations for research topics

Research topics could come from theories of language teaching and learning, your experience and interests, and others' research. **A good topic** should be interesting, significant, researchable, and modest; one that you are familiar with; you can learn or investigate and you can find enough data.

2.3 Suggested steps when choosing a topic

- 2.3.1. Identify a research interest or research problem.
- 2.3.2. Narrow the topic down as much as possible
- 2.3.3. Review the literature on the topic as completely as possible.
- 2.3.4. State the problem in a question form and then translate it into a thesis statement.

2.4 Finding an approach

If you don't want to read everything written about your subject, you should decide on an approach to it before you start the actual research. Then, you can make intelligent decisions during the information-gathering stage about what you should read carefully and what you can safely skim. The approach refers to the principal idea that you might develop in your paper.

Five Approaches to a Research Subject (Empirical or non-empirical)

- 1. You can **examine or analyze** it by looking at various aspects of the subjects and viewing it from more than one perspective.
 - 2. You can evaluate or criticize it, thus making a judgment about the quality of your subject.
- 3. You can **compare and contrast** things or ideas, showing how both similarities and dissimilarities exist or are evident when you look closely at the subject.
- 4. You can **establish relationships** among ideas, showing how they have drawn from each other or how they are related in other ways to other ideas.
 - 5. You can **argue for or against** something or try to **persuade** readers to agree with you.

Deciding on an approach to your subject does not mean deciding on a thesis statement before doing the research. Rather, the early choice of an approach is a matter of focusing energy and ideas.

2.5 Subject Areas, Topics, Questions and Thesis Statements

You should choose a broad **subject area** and a general area about your subject. Then you go on reading and thinking about your subject and consider your purpose and prospective audience; you narrow your subject to a specific **topic**. Then you formulate your topic as a **question** and a **thesis statement.**

2.6 Formulating a Thesis Statement

Thesis in a thesis means an assumption about your topic, an approach to it, an attitude toward it, a proposition to be examined. It is **the controlling idea** that determines what kind of material you will look for. A thesis narrows your topic further and ensures that it will be manageable. It is subject to revision. You may discover evidence that changes your original idea, and so you should regard your thesis as tentative, at least until you have completed your rough draft.

In form **a thesis statement** is a single sentence, usually with the topic of the paper as the grammatical subject. It is often a difficult sentence to compose. You will probably need to try several versions, juggling phrases and searching for more specific words until you arrive at a satisfactory statement. Keep revising until you have a sentence that clearly expresses your topic and central idea.

Components of an effective thesis statement: 1) Be specific. 2) Use your own ideas. 3) Be sure you can build an argument. 4) Phrase it in a single, direct sentence.

2.7 Thesis Statement Exercise

Topics:

- Communicative language teaching approach
- The use of textbooks in language classrooms
- Metaphor
- Linguistic taboos

Questions:

- Has Communicative language teaching approach affected actual classroom activities?
- How does the use of textbooks in language classrooms affect English language teaching?
- What are the effects of metaphorical use of language in communication?
- Do linguistic taboos serve any functions?

Thesis Statements:

- Communicative Language Teaching facilitates the teaching of reading in English classrooms.
- Although **textbooks** play a central role in English language classrooms, there are crucial differences in the ways in which textbooks are creatively used.
 - Metaphors at different levels add lots of power and glory to the language in communication.
 - Linguistic taboos used under appropriate contexts fulfill different communicative functions.

Writing Assignment

Begin with a general subject area that you are considering for your research paper and reduce it in scope at least three times. Draw an **upside-down tree diagram** for the process of your choices. Then, brainstorm the topic you are considering and compose a **thesis statement**.

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,2006 年 1月第一版。(Chapter Two Choosing a topic: Writing about linguistics and TEFL)

Chapter III

Choosing a Topic: Writing about Literature and Translation Studies

Contents:

- 3.1 What is literary analysis?
- 3.2 General approaches to literary analysis
- 3.3 Major topics of literary analysis
- 3.4 Suggested steps for writing literary analysis
- 3.5 Writing about translation studies

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

3.1 What is literary analysis?

Literary analysis is a kind of orderly way of looking at a literary work. In **literary analysis** there are two major elements: objective reporting and subjective analysis. In **objective reporting**, you introduce the work in a condensed, concise form and demonstrate your understanding of the work's plot. In **subjective analysis**, you share your opinion and your feelings about a literary work with an intention to evaluate the writing.

Literary analysis will help to heighten your understanding and appreciation of works of literature; to demonstrate your ability to suggest and support a thesis about a literary work; and to develop and enhance your skill at close reading and interpretation. A successful literary analysis should have a clearly stated purpose in analyzing the literary work -- that is, has a claim worth demonstrating or a point worth making.

Writing about literature in English as a foreign language for your graduation thesis takes time and there might be some difficulties. However, it is important for you to distinguish between the difficulty you might have in reading the language of a literary text and the critical problem it raises for you.

3.2 General approaches to literary analysis

A literary analysis may take many forms, but most graduation theses generally follow the conventions of the research paper. The following approaches are suggested.

- You can **interpret**. Interpretation is the implication of what is going on or what is being said in a literary work.
 - You can analyze.
 - You can **evaluate**..
 - You can **compare** and **contrast**.

3.3 Major topics of literary analysis

- Analysis of theme
- Analysis of plot or structure
- Analysis of character and characterization

- Analysis of setting
- Analysis of language

3.4 Suggested steps for writing literary analysis

Writing literary analysis has few hard and fast rules. However, you may find the following suggested steps helpful.

- 1. First of all, you need recall, consider and decide which author and which literary work you **would** like to work on.
- 2. Then, read **the selected literary work** through once, writing down your reactions or major questions.
- 3. Now, sit down and think about what impresses you most? What issues interest you immediately? Which aspects would you like to explore? To **stimulate questions**, you may compare and contrast the writing with other similar works you have read. Brainstorm so that you will have some questions.
- 4. With these questions, **locate and examine** some secondary sources where you may discover issues you hadn't been aware of.
- 5. **Formulate a preliminary question** about the literary work you are studying. Be sure the question is one you are willing to explore in depth. Test your question and see if it is interesting and significant.
- 6. Now turn your preliminary question into **a thesis statement**. Then, list all the related ideas, select the relevant ones from them, and see if you have any rough idea about the major design of your graduation thesis. If necessary, narrow and focus your thesis. Write down and copy it on your notebook.
- 7. With your thesis statement on your notebook, reread the literary work again, more slowly and analytically this time. Look for characters, incidents, descriptions and dialogues that will support your thesis. Evaluate the secondary sources to supplement your second reading.
 - 8. Now, it is time for you to **produce your outline** and start writing your thesis.

3.5 Writing about translation studies

- 1. You may **examine and analyze** translation theories with examples.
- 2. You may **comment and analyze** the principles or standards of translation.
- 3. You may **compare and contrast** different theories on translation or compare and contrast different versions of translations.
- 4. You may **discuss and evaluate** different translation methods or techniques employed when translating different kinds of texts or genres.
- 5. You may **examine and evaluate** particular translation techniques used in a particular translation work and its effect.
 - 6. You may **study and explore** the procedures and factors of translation process.
 - 7. You may **study** the style of language used in the translation.
- 8. You may **study** how social-cultural variables influence the style of translations or how translations from foreign languages influence one's own culture and language.
- 9. You may **collect** the mistakes and errors in translations and examine the possible reasons for the mistranslating.
 - 10. You may **discuss** the advantage and disadvantage of machine translation.

Assignment

Try to compose a thesis statement of your graduation thesis on literature or translation studies.

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,2006 年 1月第一版。(Chapter Three Choosing a topic: Writing about literature and translation studies)

Chapter IV Reviewing Related Literature and Evaluating Materials

Contents:

- 4.1 The purpose of literature review
- 4.2 Major sources of related literature
- 4.3 Major strategies of literature review
- 4.4 Evaluating materials
- 4.5 Writing literature review
- 4.6 Note-taking

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

4.1 The purpose of literature review

Once the area or topic of the research paper has been chosen and defined, it needs to be placed in a broader context by **reviewing related literature**. There are a number of reasons for reviewing related literature. On the one hand, it helps you broaden the view and perspective of the topic for your graduation thesis; on the other hand it helps you narrow down the topic and arrive at a focused research question.

Reviewing related literature will help you also to learn what has been done and what is going on so that you can 1) benefit from previous research findings, and 2) make your analysis or contributions either in contents or methods.

In **reviewing related literature** you may encounter research studies similar to the topics, which you are planning to write about. These will provide useful ideas on how to design your thesis.

4.2 Major sources of related literature

When you are in the library or bookstores, there are shelves and shelves of books and journals. Basically speaking, all these materials could be conveniently classified into **four major kinds of sources**. They are background sources, original sources, critical sources and WEB sources.

Background sources refer to general or specialized reference works.

Original sources are the books in libraries and bookstores.

Critical sources refer to journal articles, which are quality and scholarly sources for research...

WEB sources are the sources or information from websites.

4.3 Major strategies of literature review

Scan the sources on your working bibliography to decide which ones you will use in writing your paper. The most important criterion for selecting a source is its relevance to your research plan. This, above all, should direct your choices of original, background and critical sources. If you find several sources that contain similar information, you want to choose the best one or two. There is no point in using lots of sources that cover the same material. In that case use these guidelines:

1. Choose **primary sources** rather than secondary sources

- 2. Choose sources that give a variety of viewpoints on your thesis
- 3. Choose sources that cover the topic in depth
- 4. Choose sources written by acknowledged experts
- 5. Choose the most **current** sources

4.4 Evaluating materials

Editors and librarians have already **evaluated the materials** in a library. You will evaluate them from your point of view. You can make evaluations at three stages: before you read, when you read and after you read.

4.4.1. Before you read

Take time to preview your sources and be able to know: (1) authorship and authority; (2) accuracy and verifiability, and (3) currency.

4.4.2. When you read

- Read the tables of contents of several books to see what this subject you are researching is all about.
 - Read over the table of contents of each book before you start to work with it.
- Pay attention to chapter titles, headings, and subheadings before reading selections so you will know what is coming.
 - Discover the organization of what you are about to read.
- Look at beginnings and endings, at introductions and conclusions of whole works and units within them.

4.4.3. After you read

As you read sources for your thesis, you should continually evaluate the materials. At this moment, you value relevance over convenience.

4.5 Writing literature review

In your graduation thesis, you may write a very small portion about the previous research findings in the area of your topic. However, **reviewing the literature** on a topic provides an academically enriching experience, but only if it is done properly. To achieve this, the review should be regarded as a process fundamental to any worthwhile research in any subject irrespective of the discipline.

When you review related literature, the major review focuses should be:

- The prevailing and current theories which underlie the research problem.
- The main controversies about the issue, and about the problem.
- The major findings in the area, by whom, and when.
- The studies which can be considered the better ones, and why.
- Description of the types of research studies which can provide the basis for the current theories and controversies.
 - Criticism of the work in the area.
 - The rationale and purpose of the proposed study.

When you **write literature review**, the two major principles to follow are: (1) Review the sources that are most relevant to your thesis; (2) Describe or write your review as clear and objective as you can.

4.6 Note-taking

4.6.1. The preliminary bibliography

The word bibliography sounds impressive, but it refers simply to a list of sources about a subject. You could have compiled one in your preliminary reading if you had definitely selected a subject.

We refer to it as a "preliminary" bibliography to distinguish it from the final bibliography that usually appears at the end of research papers. The preliminary one helps you to pinpoint sources that might prove valuable.

Try to learn to snoop around a bit, play detective. Investigate related topics of similar subjects. A glance at the index of a book on a related subject might unearth a treasure of information.

Whenever you find a promising source, jot it down, one to a card.

4.6.2. Types of notes

The notes that you take will be direct quotations, various kinds of summary, combinations of quotation and summary, and reminders to yourself. Five types of note cards are presented here to illustrate the major types of notes that are used in writing research paper.

Quotation note

A direct quotation copies exactly what your source said or wrote and is therefore the easiest kind of note card to write.

Paraphrase note

A paraphrase is a statement in your own words, phrase by phrase, of the original passage.

• Summary note

A summary is a statement in your own words of the main idea of a passage.

Combination note

A combination note contains both quotation and summary.

• Outline note

When only factual information is taken from a source, rough notes in outline form may be sufficient.

Personal comment note

4.6.3. The art of note-taking (qualities of good notes)

As your notes go, so goes your paper. The quality of a research paper can only be as good as the notes on which it is based. If you learn to take notes carefully and thoughtfully, you should have little trouble writing your thesis. But **skillful note-taking** requires an efficient system and disciplined habits.

Writing Assignment: Preparing preliminary bibliography

Choose a subject area or a topic for your graduation thesis. Then search for and **collect some related literature** in the area of your topic. Select 10 items and put them into a form of bibliography as the model provided in the class.

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,**2006** 年 1月第一版。

Chapter V Organizing Ideas and Writing the Outline

Contents:

- 5.1 The role of the outline
- 5.2 Types of outlines
- 5.3 Formats of outlines
- 5.4 Convention and content of outlines
- 5.5 Preparing and using outlines

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

5.1 The role of the outline

An **outline** is an orderly plan, in writing, showing the division and arrangement of ideas. Its principal function is to indicate the relationships of ideas to each other, to show which are important and which are subordinate.

The outline is put together after you have decided on the thesis statement because its purpose is to amplify the many ideas inherent in the thesis statement and to show their relationships, each to the others. And an outline is always written before the text of the paper.

Some people like to **write from an outline**; others do not. However, it is clear that your outline will help you to get an overall view of your thesis, perhaps more important, to keep track of all important aspects of your subject while you write.

5.2 Types of outlines

Outlines could be classified into **two types** from the constructing point of view: **the running outline**, which is a listing of facts and ideas in no particular order, and **the formal outline**, which shows the order, the relationships, and the relative importance of its parts.

A running outline is most useful during the early stages of the research process when you are searching for sources and brainstorming for ideas. This preliminary outline will help organize your ideas and shape these ideas into the paper design. A formal outline is a diagram of the design of a paper, a bird's eye view of its structure.

A formal outline may be composed of words and phrases, sentences, or a combination of the two. Basically speaking, there are four kinds of formal outlines: (1) topic outline, (2) sentence outline, (3) combination outline, and (4) paragraph outline.

The form of an outline is not as important as its inherent logic. If you have a free choice of forms, use the one that works best for you, but make sure that you adhere consistently to the form you choose.

5.3 Formats of outlines

Two basic formats:

5.3.1. Number-letter sequence

5.3.2. Decimal outline

5.4 Convention and content of outlines

The most general convention of outlining is to use a consistent form. Decide in advance which one you will use and stick to it throughout. If you start with a topic outline, you may not write sentences within it. If you start with a sentence outline, you must write sentences all the way through.

- Numbers and letters are used alternately.
- Symbol in an outline must always appear at least in pairs.
- Every symbol in an outline is followed by a period.
- Capitalize the first letter of the first word after every symbol.
- Grammatically complete sentences require normal sentence punctuation.
- All symbols of the same kind should be in a vertical line.
- Begin succeeding lines of writing under the start of the first word after a symbol.
- Type an outline in double spacing.

There are many ways to organize an outline. The overall governing organizational principle, though, is logic. When you organize your outline, make sure that you order the points in a logical fashion, so that the reader will be able to follow your argument without having to fill in any gaps that might have been left unexplained.

5.5 Preparing and using outlines

Using an outline can help you organize your material and can also help you discover connections between pieces of information that you weren't aware of when you first conceived the plan of your paper. It can also make you aware of material that is not really relevant to the purposes of your paper or material that you have covered before and should therefore be removed.

A working outline might be only an informal list of topics and subtopics, which you are thinking of covering in your paper.

A final outline should enhance the organization and coherence of your research paper.

Principles of organization of a paper often develop naturally in the course of research and during the writing of early drafts. However, it is often instructive to try out various principles or patterns of organization with your material.

Most useful principles for structuring a research paper are:

1. Chronology

The chronological pattern explains each of the steps in a sequential ordered process.

2. Comparison and contrast

Present the similarities or differences between two or more things.

3. Cause and effect

Present the events or forces that produced certain results, speculating about how things might have turned out if conditions had been different, or reporting controlled experimentation to determine the factors important to a particular outcome, taking into account as many factors as possible.

4. Exemplification

It is often used in the thesis based on empirical data or case study, presenting figures, tables or numbers.

5. Argumentation

Five steps:

- The choice of the subject;
- The wording of the subject fit for argument;
- The analysis of the subject into component parts;
- The development of the argument;
- The conclusion.

6. Analysis

It's a process of dividing a subject into its parts and classifying them and manifesting their respective features.

Writing Assignment: Organizing ideas and writing the outline

Study sample outlines in this chapter and choose a topic for your graduation thesis. First start to read some related literature in the area of your topic. Then, brainstorm the topic you are considering and compose a thesis statement. Based on your thesis statement, list ideas related and organize them into a coherent outline. Write a sentence outline with a thesis statement.

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,2006 年 1 月第一版。(Chapter Five Organizing Ideas and Writing the Outline)

Chapter VI Writing the First Draft

Contents:

- 6.1 Structure and the writing process
- 6.2 Writing style of graduation thesis
- 6.3 Major elements for unity and coherence
- 6.4 Sample of coherence
- 6.5 Writing the introduction
- 6.6 Sample introductions

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

6.1 Structure and the writing process

Writing is a complex activity that involves constant thinking through of ideas and searching for the best wording and phrasing -- all the while putting words on paper. New thoughts will occur as you write, and you should certainly fill in as you go with common knowledge and with your own thinking rather than relying solely on what you took down as notes from various sources. You may even find yourself half a page beyond a certain point when you think of a better way to phrase what you've written. If so, take time to make the changes. If you write in this forward and backward way, sometimes rushing ahead with ideas, sometimes proceeding very slowly, you' re writing in the way that research has shown most competent writers perform!

Some suggestions:

When you really start writing the first draft:

- 1. You should make a plan, and each time focus on one chapter or part. Keep a short-term goal in mind and finish the paper step by step.
 - 2. For each step, follow the natural process of writing:
 - Brainstorming;
 - Mindmapping / clustering;
 - Consultation
 - Taking down constantly the new ideas in the process of writing.

6.2 Writing style of graduation thesis

Writing has few hard and fast rules. But writing a graduation thesis does have some **stylistic customs** you will probably want to observe.

- Usually, write in the third person
- Write straightforwardly
- Always refer to individuals by their full name (given and surnames) or by surname alone
- Write as specifically as possible

- Change or eliminate wording that shows bias toward a person's age, sex, race, political attitude, religious beliefs, sexual orientation, or national origin unless such information is necessary to what you are writing (or appears in a passage you quote).
- Try to **use direct quotations very sparingly in your thesis**. You should quote no more than 30% of your thesis.
- Refer to a composition textbook or handbook for particulars about writing style and conventions, as well as for information about being accurate and specific when you write.

6.3 Major elements for unity and coherence

6.3.1. Unity

Maintain the order and continuity not only for the chapters or sections but for the paper as a whole, presenting ideas, observations or generalizations in a logical and consistent sequence.

A **unified** paper is one that deals with a single subject and a single idea. If you have chosen a subject carefully and prepared a good outline -- and stuck to it as you wrote -- you may be certain that your paper is unified.

6.3.2. Coherence

A **coherent piece** of writing is one that hangs together well, that not only holds the attention of readers but also helps them move from one point to another. The following are additional elements of writing that make for **unity and coherence**.

- 1) Transitional words and phrases. Use transitions between sentences, to move from one idea to another, and to tie paragraphs together.
- 2) **Pronouns give variety to sentence structure**, so you will undoubtedly find yourself writing with many of them. Remember, however, that the noun which each pronoun replaces (that is, its referent or antecedent) must appear just before the pronoun -- not several lines before it and certainly not after it. Clear and unequivocal pronouns help writing attain **coherence**.
 - 3) Repetition of key words and phrases acts as an interlocking device.
- 4) Consistent point of view means that the attitude you take toward your subject remains the same throughout. It is better for you to make the thesis statement clear at the beginning of your thesis, develop and support it in the thesis and repeat it at the end of your thesis. It will spoil the unity and coherence of your thesis if you are not careful with the key terms and jump between ideas.
- **5) Integration of information,** so that quotations, summaries, and other information drawn from sources are joined within the text, makes the writing flow. As you write your graduation thesis, you may quote, paraphrase, and summarize words or ideas from other people. You need skillfully integrate them with your own text and not just string together a series of quotations and paraphrases. Do not over quote. Avoid patchwork.

6.4 Sample of coherence

But this is only one aspect of the problem. Another, no less essential, is the wider gap between generations since the rate of social development has speeded up. Still influenced by the tastes and habits of their own youth, the "fathers" are inclined to think these habits and tastes are absolutes and to deny their children the right to independent creativity which they demanded from their own parents. Hence the artificial conflicts, in which a dance or the width of trousers is elevated to the dignity of crucial issues.

Mechanics

6.4.1. Numbers

- In formal nonscientific writing, numbers from one to one hundred and numbers can be expressed in one or two words.
 - Use numerals for dates, page, street, serial, and telephone numbers.
- A sentence should not begin with a numeral. If a number must begin a sentence, spell it out, but whenever possible, rewrite the sentence.

6.4.2. Abbreviations

Avoid abbreviations in the text of a research paper. Exceptions to this general rule include:

- social floes
- Professional and honorary titles
- Names of countries and organizations
- Abbreviations accepted as words

6.4.3. Italics

Italics may be used to provide emphasis, to refer words as words, to serve to indicate the correct reading of a word when it might be misunderstood. The use of italics should be kept to a minimum because an overabundance of italics reduces the impact of them all.

6.4.4. Titles of works

- Titles in italics
- Titles in quotation marks

6.4.5. Capitalization

Capitalize the first and the last words in titles, the first word after a colon and all other words with the exception of articles (a, an, the), prepositions, and the word to in an infinitive.

6.5 Writing the introduction

People write in different ways: some people may write slowly; others may write, stop and start again. Generally speaking, an introduction should accomplish three purposes:

- It should engage your readers, or involve your readers' attention.
- It should present the thesis statement of your thesis.
- It should provide some background information so as to clarify the controlling idea or to make it stand out.

You can open with an expansion of the thesis statement, with the main ideas of the paper developed into the introduction. You can also start your introduction by

- Clarifying the subject you are going to write about;
- Relating your topic to something current or well known;
- Challenging some generally held assumption about your topic;
- Showing something paradoxical about your subject, and
- Stating some striking facts you discovered about your subject.

Now that you know exactly what you are about to introduce, you can write an introductory section for your thesis. Your introduction could include the following:

- Point out the significance or value of your thesis;
- Define the key or special term used in your thesis;

- Explain why you have taken this particular aspect of your topic;
- Inform your reader of the various aspects of your topic other than the one you have chosen;
- Give a pertinent anecdote that provides a direct means of leading into your topic;
- Show how you will approach your topic and organize your thesis.

6.6 Sample introductions

1. Introduction for a linguistic thesis on **pragmatic metaphor**

The word metaphor is from the ancient Greek verb metapherein, ant means, "to carry over, transfer". In rhetoric, metaphor is a trope in which one thing is spoken of as if it were some other thing. In natural language, metaphor is so ubiquitous that scholars, who study language and cognition, have come to recognize that no understanding of language is complete without an adequate account of metaphor. These metaphors provide expression for experiences and concepts for which literal language seems insufficient, thereby increasing the range of articulation possible within the language.

The continuation of metaphors through the ages, across cultures and pervasive existence at different levels of language indicates that the metaphorical use of language is not limited to the lexical or grammatical level and is a multi-level phenomenon in language communication. The present paper attempts to apply recent theories of linguistics, systemic functional linguistics in particular, to the analysis of metaphorical use of language at the pragmatic level, i.e. 'pragmatic metaphor'. The paper will first define 'pragmatic metaphor' and then examine two major kinds of pragmatic metaphors: dysphemistic metaphors and euphemistic metaphors.

2. Introduction for a literary analysis on The Comedy of Macbeth Unlike Greek or French tragedians, Shakespeare was rarely reluctant to add a lively comic scene to even his most serious plays.

Everyone recognizes the humor of the gravedigger in Hamlet, the fool in King Lear, the porter in Macbeth. Yet Macbeth, (16067) also contains other less overtly comic moments, when its lines or characters seem funny, but actors and audiences are not exactly sure what to make of them. Bolder actors might be tempted to play these troublesome moments comically, but at the risk of offending critics who expect Macbeth to be serious. The same lines make some spectators want to chuckle, but they usually remain silent, fearing to look as foolish as the person who applauds at the wrong place in a symphony. It is clear that Shakespeare creates these uneasy comic situations in Macbeth deliberately, to emphasize the absurdity of the world created by the Macbeths after they decide to murder King Duncan.

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,2006 年 1 月第一版。(Chapter Six Writing the First Draft)

Chapter VII Revising and Editing

Contents:

- 7.1 The quality of good writing
- 7.2 Making your writing coherent through revising
- 7.3 Making your writing clear through editing
- 7.4 Tips for good writing

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

7.1The quality of good writing

The standards of a good thesis are:

- Clarity in presentation of the ideas in appropriate grammar and in the use of vocabulary.
- Accuracy: To express your ideas precisely and exactly. Avoid ambiguity.
- **Fluency**: smoothly flowing ideas through unity and coherence. Avoid broken sentences or abrupt switches of ideas.
 - **Correctness** in grammatical matters.

Good writers make changes in **wording and presentation** of ideas as they write. That is one kind of revision. Another kind of revision comes after the first complete writing or first draft of a work. Then you may add, delete, or rearrange words and ideas. Even if you were writing from a satisfactory outline, you may find that when the whole research paper is finished, there are parts that would fit better in place than in another.. In fact, writing is often described as a "messy process" because of constant revision.

Revising is easiest when you approach a work as if seeing it for the first time -- admittedly a difficult job if you have been working for weeks on the graduation thesis. However, you will find it helpful to put the first draft away for several days -- a week, if you have time -- before looking at it with an eye toward making changes.

Although there are different ways of reworking on your graduation thesis to make it better, **two key** aspects of this revision are vitally important:

- (1) making your writing coherent by revising;
- (2) making your writing clear by editing.

When you are revising, you should be very careful to:

- (1) check to see if the ideas in your thesis are all related to your thesis statement;
- (2) check to see if all these ideas are logically and coherently structured;
- (3) check to see if these ideas are expressed in good English sentences;
- (4) check to see if the format and style are appropriate.

7.2 Making your coherent through revising

When you revise, you should focus your attention on content and organization of your graduation thesis. Leave language and formats to editing. Do not expect immediate perfection; and do not try to accomplish everything all through one reading.

When you revise, check the following questions.

General questions are:

- Does your graduation thesis focus, and adequately support your thesis statement?
- Does your graduation thesis have a clear introduction, body, and conclusion?
- Have you organized your graduation thesis logically and clearly in structure?
- Have you used transitions throughout to connect the ideas into a coherent whole?

Questions about Introduction:

- Will the introduction engage your readers' attention?
- Does the introduction present your thesis statement clearly?
- Does the introduction include some background information for your topic?

Questions about Body:

- Does the body of your thesis present evidence from a wide variety of reliable sources?
- Are materials from your sources presented in a combination of summary, paraphrase, and quotation?
 - Are there any gaps in your argument? Are there any points that are inadequately supported?
 - Have you deleted all unnecessary or irrelevant materials from your thesis?

Questions about Conclusion:

- Does your conclusion summarize the main points that you have presented in support of the thesis?
 - Did you repeat the major argument, or restate your thesis in the conclusion of your thesis?
- Does your conclusion have a satisfactory sense of completion? (Are all the loose ends tied up? Have all the parts of the thesis been supported? Have you addressed all those most likely questions about the topic?) Questions about Style:
 - Have you achieved variety in style by using different kinds of sentences?
 - Have you avoided wordiness? Have you deleted unnecessary words, phrases, or clauses?
 - Have you used clear, concrete examples? Have you defined key terms?
- Have you avoided colloquial language, slang, jargon, and dialect in your thesis? Have you avoided first-person pronouns in the thesis?

7.3 Making your writing clear through editing

When you **edit,** you should focus your attention on language and format of your graduation thesis. When you work on language, you should pay attention to word choice, sentences, and writing style. You should be able to discover the imprecision of your thesis and make your thesis convey clearly and concisely what you want to express.

1. Word choice and perspectives on sentences

- 1) The writing style and intelligence of your thesis could be indicated through the wording in your thesis.
- 2) In sentence structure, try to write sentences that are more varied and complex in structure. Write with style, but make certain it is a style appropriate for a thesis.

- Avoid sentence fragments.
- Avoid run-on sentences.
- Avoid dangling phrases.

2. Edit your thesis

- 1) For **clarity** in presentation of the ideas in appropriate grammar and in the use of vocabulary;
- 2) For **variety** of shape, organization, strategy and vocabulary. In writing a thesis, you may use different ways or methods of development of chapters or paragraphs.
 - 3) For symmetry, balance and parallelism.
- 4) For **economy**: Academic research writing is judged on a standard of economy of expression: you should use as many words as you need, but no more than you need to accomplish your goal..

3. Recognizing Imprecision

Two major characteristics of imprecise writing are **ambiguity and wordiness**.

- 1) **Ambiguity** is often characteristic of and purposeful in literary works: double-ness or multiplicity of meaning may well be part of the thematic aim of a poem or story.
- 2) **Wordiness** is the use of more words than are necessary to get your point across accurately and efficiently.

4. Writing concisely

A typical, graduation paper is **5,000 words or more.** It will probably be the longest ever written. Unless you guard against it, you may unconsciously pad sentences, expressing ideas in as many words as possible in order to reach the prescribed minimum. **Wordiness** is a sure way of losing a reader's attention. If asked to read 100 words to find an idea that could have been expressed in 40 words, your tutor is likely to lose his patience and you are likely to lose your scores, In editing your draft, substitute specific words for general ones. Concentrate on the nouns and verbs, if they are specific, fewer modifiers will be needed. An especially annoying form of wordiness is the superfluous modifiers whose meaning is implied by the noun or verb it modifies.

7.4 Tips for good writing

Graduation thesis is a particular kind of writing. The following tips aim to clarify the features of thesis writing. Hope that you will find them helpful.

- Respect yourself -- and your ideas
- Striving for clarity
- Avoid common grammatical errors
- Say it with style
- Do it your way

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,2006 年 1 月第一版。(Chapter Seven Revising and Editing)

Chapter VIII

Documentation: Citing and Listing Sources

Contents:

- 8.1 The purpose of the documentation
- 8.2 Major formats and styles of documentation
- 8.3 Quotation
- 8.4 Citing sources
- 8.5 Listing sources

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

8.1 The purpose of the documentation

Documentation is the information in the thesis that tells what sources you have used and where you take it. In any writing not derived purely from your own mind, you must document your facts. In writing a BA graduation thesis, you must base your conclusions on material in particular literary works and must document this material. If you refer to secondary sources, you must be especially careful to document your facts. To document properly, you must use illustrative material in your discussion and mention your sources either in your discussion or in footnotes/endnotes to it.

The major purposes of documentation are: (1) to acknowledge the contributions of the previous research, and (2) to offer the accurate and detailed sources of information for future research.

When you write your graduation thesis, you are encouraged to quote, paraphrase, translate, and summarize other people's words and ideas. But you should:

- Distinguish your thoughts from those you have quoted.
- Blend quotations into your own sentences.

8.2 Major formats and styles of documentation

There are **different formats and styles** of documentation.

Sometimes a particular format is selected and prescribed for you. Each journal has its own format and style presented in its style sheet. Different schools might have different formats and style for graduation thesis. It is not the question which one is better or more academic. When you are doing your documentation, please make sure what is the required format and style, and then please be consistent in your thesis for citing and listing sources.

Documentation has two major tasks: (1) citing sources, and (2) listing sources.

8.3 Quotation

Quotations in a research paper may be either direct (verbatim) or indirect (paraphrased). Both types require documentation. You must provide the source of both of them.

8.3.1. Direct quotation

Direct quotation is used to show the accuracy and authority of the sources.

- 1) Run-in quotation is used when the quotation are fewer than typed four lines or about 40 words.
- 2) Set-off quotation. When the quotations are more than four lines, set off long quotations in indented block-style paragraph, no quotation marks are used in this case.

If the quotations are more than three lines from a poem, use this style. Put the quotations in italics. Set off and indent long quotations.

8.3.2. Indirect quotation

Paraphrase the opinion or ideas that you get from the sources. Use your own words or sentence structure, but you should present the original sources accurately, avoiding distortions resulting from imprecise or mistaken restatement.

Indirect quotation calls less attention to itself than direct quotation and thus concentrates the reader's attention on the development of your argument.

Distinguish your thoughts from those of your author.

Ideally, your themes should reflect your own thoughts as it is prompted and illustrated by the author's work.

8.4 Citing sources

The process of placing the citation into your text is called "citing a source". The task of citing sources is to indicate the source and related information of each quotation in your thesis. There are three major formats for citing sources: (1£©in-text notes or parenthetical quotation (2) endnotes and (3) footnotes

- Preparing in-text notes or parenthetical quotation
- Preparing endnotes and footnotes

8.5 Listing sources

Each time you cite a source in your thesis, you need list it in your bibliography. The following guidelines will help you to list your sources properly. Your sources could be a book, a journal article, a bilingual source or sources from Internet. Two commonly used bibliography formats are suggested here. One is recommended for theses on linguistics and TEFL; and the other is recommended for theses on literature.

- Sources from books
- Sources from journal articles
- Sources with web information

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,2006 年 1 月第一版。(Chapter Eight Documentation: Citing and Listing Sources)

Chapter IX Writing the Abstract

Contents:

- 9.1 Major types and contents of abstracts
- 9.2 Suggestions about writing the abstract
- 9.3 Some advice about preparing an abstract
- 9.4 Sample abstracts

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

9.1 Major types and contents of abstracts

An abstract is a short description, or an accurate condensation, of the contents of a piece of writing. Depending on different occasions, an abstract has similarity with a precis, a gist, an epitome, a proposal, a prospectus, a synopsis, or a summary. There are many types of abstracts classified on the basis of purpose and content. In general, there are two major types of abstracts. They are **descriptive** (sometimes called indicative) and **informative** abstracts.

Descriptive abstracts usually describe what the paper is about, the topic, purpose, scope, and method of the paper. It helps the reader to decide if they will read the paper. But it usually does not offer information about details of results, conclusions or recommendations.

Informative abstracts are usually longer than descriptive abstracts. They are usually written after the research or the paper has been finished. They not only describe the topic, purpose, scope and the method of the research or paper, but also provide the information about results, conclusions, or recommendations.

These abstracts should be composed of the following elements: (1) purpose or scope of the paper, (2) method of writing or method of the research discussed in the paper, and (3) results, conclusions and/or recommendations.

9.2 Suggestions about writing the abstract

There are different approaches to writing an abstract. You can work on the thesis statement, list the main points from the outline, use topic sentences of the major paragraphs and produce your abstract. You can also read the paper carefully, underline the important places, and then write your abstract. Each person has his or her way of doing things. Hope that you will find the following suggestions helpful when you are preparing your **abstracts**.

- Make the abstract as informative as the nature of the document will permit, so that readers may decide, quickly and accurately, whether they need to read the entire document.
- Convey information in the original document accurately and concisely, with an absence of any attempt to arouse emotion. The exclamation mark (!) is never used in an abstract, and question mark(?) is seldom used.

- Use standard terms. Try to avoid using abbreviations and symbols. In case you have to use them, give expanded versions of lesser known abbreviations and acronyms, and verbalize symbols that may be unfamiliar to readers the first time they occur in the abstract.
- Employ Standard English with complete sentences, and follow conventional grammar and punctuation rules. Both active and passive voices, first and third persons can be used. Omit needless words, phrases and sentences.
- Avoid including background information or citing the work of others in the abstract, unless the study is a replication or evaluation of their work. Do not include information in the abstract that is not contained in the textual material being abstracted.

9.3 Some advice about preparing an abstract

To prepare an abstract of a paper,

- read through the article carefully,
- underline or write down its main points and major supporting evidence,
- extract the gist of each section or cluster of related paragraphs; give special attention to introductory and concluding paragraphs,
- shape your abstract from the points you have underlined or the summaries you have made of each major part of the article,
 - link your points with helpful transitions,
 - test the abstract against the article, evaluating how well it reflects what the article contains.

9.4 Sample abstracts

(1)

Metaphor is commonly known as the use of a word or phrase denoting one kind of idea or object in place of another word or phrase for the purpose of suggesting a likeness between the two. The present paper attempts to apply recent theories of linguistics, systemic functional linguistic in particular, to the analysis of metaphorical use of language at the pragmatic level, i.e. "Pragmatic Metaphor". The paper first gives a definition of pragmatic metaphor and then examines two major kinds of pragmatic metaphors: (1) dysphemistic metaphors and (2) euphemistic metaphors. Dysphemistic metaphor means the use of good-sounding, positive and polite language with an intention to express attitudes of disrespect towards the listener or audience in the communication Euphemistic metaphor, on the contrary, refers to the use of aggressive, impolite and irregular language with good, friendly and even affectionate feelings from the speaker. The major argument developed in the analysis is that everyday language is thoroughly suffused with metaphors and that this metaphorical use of language exists at different levels of language, lexical, grammatical and pragmatic. They are all pragmatic strategies in communication.

(2)

The primary objective of this study was to investigate how Chinese college students acquired and used English names. It also examined their reasons for having English names, experiences of using such names, perceptions of the relationship between having English names and English language learning, feelings of having Chinese and English names simultaneously, and their senses of self-identity.

Questionnaires and interviews were employed to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data. 1350 students (580 English majors, 420 science majors and 350 students of liberal arts) from eight universities

in seven cities participated in answering the questionnaires and 90 students from three universities were interviewed. The questionnaire results indicated that 95.79% of English majors and 32.26% of non-English majors had English names. 56.06% of the students chose to have English names because it could facilitate intercultural communication, or they liked English language learning. 69.68% of the students acquired English names by themselves and the names were mainly used among classmates, with teachers and good friends. English names were mainly used in informal contexts and Internet communications. The English names used by the students were of three major kinds: (1) standard English names; (2) standard English words used as names; (3) Chinese-English names, i.e., translations of Chinese names into English or their own creations based on features of their Chinese names.

The findings suggest that (1) having and using English names paralleled EFL learners' attitudes towards the role of English in learning and communication, and social cultural contexts of the time; (20 having both Chinese and English names did not lead to identity confusion or loss, but enriched learners' identities and facilitated communication in an era of globalization and multiculturalism. This study also indicates that the role of English names merits further research in the studies of English language learning, intercultural communication, and self-identity.

Writing Assignment

Read the following three abstracts and then discuss in small groups the merits and defects of these abstracts. After class, read 3 research papers from journals on a similar topic, and then write two abstracts based on the papers you read.

(1)

The paper reports a study on developmental patterns of modifiable learner variables (i.e. motivation, beliefs and strategies) and their relations based on longitudinal questionnaire data. The research results indicate that the relations among the variables such as motivation, beliefs and strategies are fairly stable. It is found that motivation affects beliefs and strategies, and beliefs affect strategies.

(2)

Over the last 20 years, the idea, communicative competence, has so profoundly influenced current thought and practice in English language teaching that it is hardly possible today to imagine a language pedagogy, which does not have a communicative component. However, there has been much discussion and debate about teaching communicative competence in ESL in China since 1979, when this new trend was first introduced. The present paper attempts: (1) to clarify a number of important issues in the area of teaching communicative competence in ESL by discussing some commonly held myths or misconceptions about teaching communicative competence,(2) to discuss and explain what communicative competence means in college ESL, and ~ to suggest some possible implications of communicative competence teaching in ESL context.

(3)

Teachers and learners are often uncertain about the processes at work when students attempt to acquire oral skills in a foreign language. The primary objective of this study is to identify the language-learning strategies associated with the achievement of higher levels of oral proficiency in German for 100 Irish students about to complete their second year at Dublin City University. It also investigates the way in which these strategies are used by those with higher and lower levels of proficiency. The methodology combines quantitative assessment (using questionnaires) with in-depth,

qualitative interviews. The article begins by explaining key concepts in the field of language learning strategy research and then reviews a selection of relevant studies. An experiment designed to achieve the above objectives is then described. The results indicate that more-proficient students use more language-learning strategies, in particular more cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Furthermore, ten strategies correlate with higher levels of oral proficiency at a significant level. These provide a tentative strategic profile of the more effective learner of German. Finally, the qualitative findings suggest that more-pro-proficient students use language-learning strategies in a more structured and purposeful manner and apply them to a wider range of situations and tasks. Finally, implications for future research and for the language classroom are discussed.

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,2006 年 1 月第一版。(Chapter Nine Writing the Abstract)

Chapter X Preparing for the Final Draft and Oral Defense

Contents:

- 10.1 Major elements of graduation thesis
- 10.2 Proofreading your thesis
- 10.3 Guidelines for manuscript form
- 10.4 Checklist for the final draft
- 10.5 Guidelines for oral defense

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

10.1 Major elements of graduation thesis

We have described the **major elements** of graduation thesis at the beginning of the book. Now it will be helpful for us to review the major elements so that we can make our final draft of the thesis.

10.1.1. Title page

Make sure that you have two **title pages.** The front cover is the title page in Chinese and the first page after that is the title page in English. The title page presents the title of the thesis, the full name of the writer, and the submission statement including the department or school, the institution or university, the degree granted, and the month and year in which the thesis is submitted.

10.1.2. Abstracts

Make sure that you have two abstracts. One is in English, and the other is in Chinese. It is usually about 200 or 300 words with 4 or 5 key words.

10.1.3. Table of contents

The table of contents should include chapter and section numbers, chapter and section titles, and page numbers.

10.1.4. Body

The central chapters should develop and present your detailed analysis clearly, logically and systematically. Revise and edit your thesis so that it fulfills the requirements in content, structure, language and format.

10.1.5. Notes

Select from the three formats of notes (in-quotation note, endnote, and footnote) according to the requirements of your school and make all citations scholarly done.

10.1.6. Bibliography

Provide and list all the sources properly and accurately according to the format of your school's requirements.

10.2 Proofreading your thesis

When you finish your first draft after revising and editing, it is time to proofread it. **Proofreading** is the process of checking your thesis for errors in spelling, grammar, usage, level of language, capitalization,

punctuation? and documentation. **Proofreading** is a tedious process. However, it is important. A carefully proofread thesis indicates a professional and serious attitude to the reader. Therefore, you should make the final copy of your graduation thesis flawless, without any mistakes or incorrect information. The following checklist will help you to proofread your thesis.

A Proofreading Checklist

Be certain you particularly check these elements in your final proofreading session:

- Spelling errors
- Mixed up homophones (Words that sound the same but are spelled differently)
- Incorrect word usage
- Sentence fragments
- Run-on sentences
- Citation format
- Ambiguous references and pronouns (especially it, that, this, these, and those)
- Pronoun-antecedent agreement
- Comma usage
- Check to see that ellipsis points have been used properly in edited quotations.
- Check all rifles to make sure that they are properly presented.
- Quotations (make sure that they are accurate)
- Quotation marks (make certain all quotations have quotation marks at the beginning and end of the quoted section)
 - Apostrophes used correctly (especially with possessive nouns and contractions)
 - Capitalization
 - Punctuation
- Check every sentence to make sure that it has an end mark. If the sentence contains a parenthetical citation, make sure that the citation appears before the end mark, except in the case of a long, indented quotation, which ends with an end mark followed by the parenthetical citation.
 - Consistent verb tense

Remember to be on the lookout for those specific mistakes you tend to make often.

10.3 Guidelines for manuscript form

After proofreading you can prepare your final **manuscript**. It is extremely important that you mm in your thesis by the required due date. That means you should leave yourself plenty of time to do all of the writing and printing of the final version at least a day before the thesis is due. When you finally assemble your thesis together into its final form, please read and follow the guidelines presented below.

Guidelines for Manuscript Form: Graduation Thesis

- General guidelines
- Margins
- Page numbers
- Spacing
- Heading
- Indentions
- Quotations

- Paragraphs
- Bibliography
- Placement and spacing of bibliography
- Binding and presentation

10.4 Checklist for the final draft

Your graduation thesis is one of the direct forms of communication between you and your professor. Please remember, your thesis tells your professor a lot more about you than just your ideas about a particular subject. Make sure that you check your thesis before you mm it in.

Before you turn in your thesis, run down the following list of questions. If you make certain to do everything on this list, you are more likely to mm in a quality graduation thesis.

- Are my topic, thesis statement, and general approach clear to the reader?
- Have I proven my thesis statement beyond the shadow of a doubt?
- Have I made my argument fully and persuasively?
- Does every paragraph in the thesis clearly relate to the thesis statement?
- Does every paragraph in the thesis center on a single point that is clear to the reader?
- Do paragraphs and sentences flow together? Have I included transitions that connect sentences and paragraphs together?
- Have I supplied all of the information a reader needs to understand all of my points? Have I anticipated any questions a reader might have and included the answers within the thesis?
- Have I cut out any excess words, sentences, or paragraphs that don't contribute anything substantial to the thesis?
 - Have I varied my word choices?
 - Have I altered my sentence patterns?
 - Have I used all of the words correctly and in the right context?
 - Have I proofread for grammar, spelling, and punctuation errors?
- Have I cited all quoted and paraphrased sections? Have I used the proper citation format? Have I included a bibliography written in the proper format?
- Have I typed up a clean, final copy? Is it double-spaced and stapled together? Does each page have a page number and my name? Have I included a title, and other information on the title page?
 - Have I made an extra copy of the thesis to keep?

10.5 Guidelines for oral defense

In some universities in China -- but not all, a thesis defense is required. Thesis defense is usually taking place in oral format. Your thesis will be read by a group of committee members. Then, you are asked to present your final paper to the committee and answer their questions. In other universities, the defense is not required, but a group of committee members will meet and read and approve your theses. The committee will also give the final grade based on your tutor's comment and evaluation. Here are some **guidelines** about how you can prepare for your oral defense effectively.

• Talk to your tutor and get his/her evaluation and revise your thesis before you circulate your thesis to the other committee members.

- Read your completed thesis after you turn it in and be familiar with its structure, contents, research method, major findings and major argument.
- Usually you will be given 5-10 minutes to explain your thesis briefly. Ask your tutor how long it will be and prepare accordingly.
- Prepare your presentation either in ppt format or written form. Your focus should be (1) define your topic or scope of your paper briefly; (2) your research method or perspective of your analysis; (3) your major research findings or argument. Be ready to support your argument with clear, brief and convincing examples or evidence.
- Think about the questions the committee will ask and prepare your answers in advance. Work with your friends or classmates and see how you will respond to the main objections of alternative argument or counter-argument.
- In the defense itself, be confident and relaxed as best you can. Listen to committee members' specific questions and present your answers to the point. Please speak clearly and in normal speed and not to talk too fast.
- In case you are not clear what they are asking about, just say "Pardon", and let them repeat or explain their questions.
- If you do not have the ready answer to the difficult questions, do not feel panic. You can either say something related to the issue, or give them a broad smile and say "I don't know" and you are ready to learn.
- Sometimes some committee members may make comments on your thesis or suggestions for improving your research. You need not have to defense at this moment and should respond politely with gratitude for their suggestions.

Reading

田贵森、段晓英主编,《英语专业毕业论文写作教程》,北京理工大学出版社出版,2006 年 1月第一版。(Chapter Ten Preparing for the Final Draft and Oral Defense)

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H.G. Widdowson 1999《语言教学交际法》 (Teaching Language as Communication) 上海外语教育出版社

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肖礼全 2002 《英语教学方法论》 外语教学与研究出版社

王蔷 王蕾 2002 《英语学习理论》 外语教学与研究出版社

王笃勤 2002 《英语教学策略论》 外语教学与研究出版社

另外:

《高等学校英语专业高年级英语教学大钢》(试行本) 外语教学与研究出版社

《外国报刊选读》教学大纲

徐新燕 编写

目 录

前	言		.709
		概述	
	=,	课程教学目的和基本要求	.709
	三、	课程主要内容及学时分配	.709
	四、	相关教学环节	.710
	五、	使用教材和参考书目	.710
	六、	有关说明	.710
Chapter I Brief Introduction to English Newspapers			.711
Cha	Chapter II Headlines in News Reports		
Cha	Chapter III Brief Introduction to English News Leads		
Cha	Chapter IV Introduction to English Report Styles		

前言

一、概述

英文报刊是了解世界时世的窗口,可以学习英语国家的文化,获取最新的各种信息和知识,同时报刊中的语言是实际被运用的语言,可以用来培养和提高学生英语阅读能力,不愧为最好方式之一。

《外国报刊选读》是外国语学院英语专业开设的选修课。注重于发展学生的语言接受能力——阅读。这一教学大纲是依据教育部批准的国家大学外语指导委员会修订的《大学英语专业教学大纲》制定的。

报刊文章有不同于其他文章的独特点,此课程除学习报刊文章外,还介绍报刊英语中常见的语言现象,如标题、导语,以及新闻类型,如简讯、特写等。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

《外国报刊选读》课程学习结束后,学生可以更好地阅读和了解英文报刊文章。他们在进一步 掌握英语语言的同时,把握新闻报道的主要要点,并获知新闻报道者的态度。同时,在阅读各类信 息时,获取最新的科学技术知识。

具体目的为学习新闻英语,包括新闻标题、导语、正文和结束语。新闻标题的一个显著特征是 短词的频繁使用,而导语是一则新闻的重要组成部分,浓缩了新闻要点,为忙碌的读者节省时间获 取消息。正文信息通常为新闻在前,背景知识在后的顺序写就。有时会有一个结束语,但有时没有。 掌握这些知识,学生可以大幅度提高阅读速度。

基本要求: 大学二年级及以上学生

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

《外国报刊选读》依据新闻体裁,分为四个部分:新闻英语简介、新闻报道的标题、英语新闻的导语以及新闻报道的类型。各部分的要点分布在几个单元中作为语言点学习,同时每个单元阅读

一篇报刊文章,并配以时事新闻。通常为每周两个学时学习一个单元。具体如下:

第一、二周 Newspaper English

第三周	Return of the Huddled Masses
第四周	Is the Senate Serious?
第五周	National holiday
第六周	The New Patriotism
第七周	Wealth Measures Work Ethic
第八周	When Strangers Become family?
第九周	This Old Dream House
第十周	Mid-term test
第十一周	Do Americans Pay Enough Taxes?

第十二周 Battles of the Binge

第十三周 Eyes Shut, Black America is Being Ravaged by AIDS

第十四周 Virtually a University

第十五周 Health Care

第十六周 Setting Course

第十七周 Commercial Breakdown

第十八周 Final Examination

四、相关教学环节

除课程讲授以外,课程教学环节还包括:

(一) 作业:

- 1. 布置作业应达到的目的: 使学生更好的掌握所学知识。
- 2. 布置的题量:

课堂作业及课后作业为三次

(二)课堂讨论:记录成绩

五、使用教材和参考书目

(一) 学生教材:

《英美报刊阅读教程》, 主编: 端木义万, 北京大学出版社, 2001年版。

(二)参考书目及拓展阅读书目:

《新编英美报刊阅读文选》, 主编: 端木义万, 学苑出版社, 2000年版。

《经济学家》(The Economist)

《自然》(the Nature)

《华盛顿邮报》(the Washington Post)

《洛杉矶时报》(the Los Angeles Times)

《每日电讯报》(the Daily Telegraph)

《泰晤士报》(the Times)

六、有关说明

教学评估是英文报刊选读课程教学的一个重要环节。全面、客观、科学、准确的评估体系对于 实现课程目标至关重要。它既是教师获取教学反馈信息、改进教学管理、保证教学质量的重要依据, 又是学生调整学习策略、改进学习方法、提高学习效率的有效手段。

教学评估分形成性评估和终结性评估两种。

形成性评估占总成绩的 30%,包括作业 10%,课堂出勤讨论 10%及期中测试 10%。教师通过课堂活动对学生进行观察、评估和监督,促进学生有效地学习。终结性评估指期末课程考试,占总成绩的 70%。

编制日期: 2006年10月

Chapter I Brief Introduction to English Newspapers

In this chapter, English newspapers are briefly introduced from such aspects as nature, characteristics, category, style, language model and trend of development. The focus is on the language features of news English. What is difficult is that sentence patterns are complex and hard to understand.

Four teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Week One

ENGLISH BY NEWSPAPER

There are several advantages to using a newspaper to teach reading. A paper is inexpensive, easily obtained, and authentic in the sense that the English is unsimplified and intended for native speakers. There are, however, other considerations. For one thing, newspapers are easy to read. We have become so used to journalistic style as it appears in wire service stories or in locally written news copy that we sometimes lose sight of the fact that newspapers rely on a highly specific and colloquial vocabulary and a complex, highly embedded sentence structure. For another, foreign students frequently want to read newspapers because they are interested in news from their own countries ---- news that is often not included in American newspapers. Moreover, much of the news that is included relies heavily on the reader's knowledge of social and cultural institutions that visitors to our country cannot be reasonably expected to possess.

Newspaper reading, rather than being simply the acquisition of new information, is a kind of passive participation in the life of the national community. Any student or foreign visitor willing to spend the time necessary to understand the social and cultural context of what appears in the papers will probably find the effort rewarding.

There are certain things about newspapers that favor their use in ESL classes. Though they often use complex sentences, the actual number of these structures is relatively small, and their use is consistent from story to story. Information is often recycled, both within a single story and in the day-to-day coverage of continuing stories. Finally, they provide an up-to-the-minute source of public language, the English of most of our business and social transaction.

Week Two

NEWSPAPER ENGLISH

Learning a language is not merely an academic exercise. Students of English want to be able to use the language they have acquired in the same way as English people use it. They not only want to understand spoken English and to make themselves understood; they also want to be able to appreciate English television and radio programs, to laugh at English jokes, to sing English songs and to read English newspapers. This last wish often gives rise to some disappointment, when for example, the student who has passed his exams with top marks and has earned the commendation of his teacher finds that is quite unable to understand the newspapers which he knows English people read every day. He realizes that he lacks something.

The difficulty lies in the fact that British newspapers have a style all of their own; or-rather-each paper has its own individual style forming part of a general journalistic pattern which we may loosely classify as "Newspaper English". The more popular dailies use a chatty, slangy, up-to-the-moment way of writing, which, as often as not, leaves the foreign reader very bewildered, if not under a totally false impression.

Headlines are another problem. The English reader scans the headlines to find out what the news stories are about; the foreign student has to read the stories to find out what the headlines mean.

The popular press, in order to print as much information in as small a space as possible, had developed a content-packed sentence, very often crammed with compound words of a highly complicated nature, that needs to be treated warily at first.

Chapter II Headlines in News Reports

In this chapter, English news headlines are introduced in details. The focus is on the language features of news headlines. What is difficult is writing of headlines, which sometimes may confuse readers.

Ten teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Week Three

Return of the Huddled Masses

The subject of immigration polarizes American opinion. Some think that relaxed immigration policy risks ruining the country while some think that immigrants are main forces in American economic development. The argument cuts right across the party lines. Republican and Democratic parties are against the government's policy to provide aid and service to illegal immigrants. Though immigration has plainly brought huge benefits to America in the past. Economic revival has been immigrant-driven. But it also imposes a financial burden on the state, against which pro-immigration people may prove the contrary. The main problem is whether immigration leads to high unemployment, which is proven by no evidence.

Language Features:

Dalaa that a baadlina mlaya

Headline:

An English reader scans the headlines to find out what the news stories are about; the foreign student has to read the stories to find out what the headlines mean.

Roles that a headine plays.
summarize the news
attract readers' attention
index the news
decorate the page
fill the space
Discussion topic:
What do you think of the problem of immigration
Week Four
Is the Senate Serious?

It is urgent to reform the Senate. The Senators have so much to consider that they forget what they are arguing was debated long ago in American history. This made the Senate as a laughing stock. It may

be unkind to pick out the Senate for criticism. It doesn't mean that the other branches and the House of Representatives are free from opprobrium. But it has a special claim to mockery. It is so disorderly, so unfocused, that each senator may act as a check on all the rest. It is difficult to overcome their blocks because there has to be supermajority.

Mr. Mansfield, a former Senate majority leader, attributed his survival in the Senate to his steel will. He made the speech to defend his style of leadership. The Senate should be in his mind operated by accommodation, by respect for one another, by mutual restraint, rather than by topdown direction.

Language Features:

Headline: 2. Headline grammars.

- Rule One: Sentences are preferred to phrases.
- Rule Two: Nominal groups are condensed.
- Rule Three: Copular verbs are often left out.
- Rule Four: The past tense verb form does not have "-ed".
- Rule Five: With the present progressive, the verb "to be" is often omitted.
- Rule Six: "Will" or "shall" is replaced by "to" for future events.
- Rule Seven: In passive voice, the verb "to be" is omitted because again.
- Rule Eight: The connecting word "and" is replaced by a comma.
- Rule Nine: When a quotation is used for a headline, the speech tag often leaves out the word "say" or the like to save space.
 - Rule Ten: Short words are always preferred to long words.

Discussion topic:

Some confusing headlines are provided to the students. They are expected to identify the reporters' true meaning and correct them.

Enraged cow injures farmer with axe.

Miners refuse to work after death.

Two Filipino ships collide -- one dies.

Two sisters reunite after 18 years at checkout counter.

French offer terrorist reward.

Week Six

The New Patriotism

The notion "Americans are God's chosen few" is rooted in the heart of Americans. They dedicate deep passion to their own country. They hold that the United States is still a best state to live though there is much to be improved and far from perfect. Patriotism remains the most important value above their love for money and religion. New breed of patriots regard it as a softer and gentler emotion, springing from a feeling that America is a good place to live with some odds.

They no longer believe in the idea "my country, right or wrong". They sometimes fight against the government for it has taken a wrong political policy, especially when America was involved in war against other countries and sent American soldiers abroad. But now they are proud to be an American as

things go well and they become the leader of the world. We may sense the feeling when see the celebrations they make for independent day on July 4th. People pour out to the street, taking part in the parade and making firework. The festivities can last for a week.

The newest patriots keep distance from the word patriotism. They don't want to ascribe them to "us" or "them", which stand on the opposite side of a road. They are more tolerant of alternative lifestyles and cultures and more focused on international, not just national, issue.

Language Features:

Headline: 3. Choice of words in headlines.

Ace, aim, ban, bid, blast, chief/head, cut, deal, curb, gap, nab, pact, probe, rap, swap, try, top, wed,

Discussion topic:

Some misleading headlines are provided for the students to make correction.

War dims Hope for peace.

Cold wave linked to temperatures.

Child's death ruins couple's holidays.

Blind woman gets new kidney from Dad she hasn't seen in years.

Man is fatally slain.

Something went wrong in jet crash, experts say.

Death causes loneliness, feeling of isolation.

Week Seven

Wealth Measures Work Ethic

In the United States, people are evaluated by how much they make at work. They will be proud of a job with high salary but look down upon one with mean wage. Even they may look down upon themselves when taking such kind of job. The author's student was a staff putting goods into the sack in a grocery. He seemed shameful of his job and thought that was not much. This just testifies that materialism is one of the values favored by the Americans. Wealth defines success of a person in the society. It not only the standard to judge people's economic status, but also a main element to set one's social and personal values.

The society pays much heel to a job. They even drag some disabled out of the welfare rolls and fight for jobs with other people to realize their value and get esteem from the society. At the same time, one with much money made from his job is regarded as a genius. He won't be criticized for all that might cause blame on others. We are ready to forgive a politician with boilerplate responses to our letters and scold a postman for minor mistakes.

What funny is that a job with a potential to produce wealth may as allure people to appreciate no matter whether how much it really makes for people, such as being an artist.

Language Features:

Headline: 4. rhetoric in headlines and clippings

corp: corporation dorm: dormitory lab: laboratory fax: facsimile

teens: teenagers porn: pornography
tech: technology info: information
choc: chocolate execs: executives

Net: Internet Web: World Wide Web

hood: neighborhood chute: parachute
van: caravan quake: earthquake
tec: detective flu: influenza
script: prescription fridge: refrigerator

Discussion topic:

Does money talk?

Week Eight

When Strangers Become Family

American stepfamilies are in great increase. There are different stories happening in each family and complicated relationship confronts each member. For example, La Londe's extended family illustrates the complex structure and strong ties of a stepfamily.

Both parents are fully involved in family decision making and discipline. They establish an intimacy among the family members and provide unconditional support when in difficulties. All try to stay together and maintain good relationship, making some compromises and adjustments.

There are also some unsuccessful stepfamilies, which result form conflicts over religion, family finance, and child abuse. The reasons for the failures varies from family to family. The initial divorce sheds grave influence over the stepfamily.

Language Features:

Headline: 5. Structure of a news headline

Types of headlines

one/two/three-column head one /two/three-deck head

- (1) crossline
- (2) drop form
- (3) hanging indention
- (4) inverted pyramid form
- (5) overline
- (6) jump head
- (7) flush-left form
- (8) banner headline or streamer

Discussion topic:

What changes have been taken place in family formation?

Chapter III Brief Introduction to English News Leads

In this chapter, English news leads are introduced from such aspects as nature, characteristics, language model and writing style. The focus is on the language features of news leads. What is difficult is that sentence patterns are complex and hard to understand.

Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Week Nine

This old dream house

Houses are in different fashion in different periods of time. People now cater for more efficient and more luxurious houses. A small antic is equipped with high-tech appliance. On the one hand, some renovate their houses to be large and comfortable. On the other hand, some have smaller but more soulful houses. Different people have difference material and sentimental need for their houses. Rich people may have particular room for their hobby, for example the Martha Stewart room. Whether small or large, people are interested in a human-scale setting. Emotional satisfaction is sought when redecoration is done to the old houses.

Language Features:

What is a lead?

- -- answers to questions most of the readers would like to know
- --five W's and one H
- --advertise what is coming in the rest of the story
- --convey the most important information in the story

Different types of leads

Summary lead

Preemptive Lead

Contradicting lead

Combined lead

On-the-scene lead

Association lead

Human-interest Lead

Discussion topic:

What type of house do you need? Why?

Week Ten

Midterm test

Week Eleven

Do Americans Pay Enough Taxes?

Americans are used to taxes of different kinds, but they still feel depressed to pay taxes. Therefore, they hold a strong sense of supervision over the spending of taxes by the government. Compared with other countries, they are imposed a less high tax rate. But they don't like it. They think death and texes are two unavoidable things in their lives.

A survey shows that Americans don't pay enough money to their government. However, they don't agree. Taxes are regarded a a burden that people can hardly handle. Only a small portion of people would like to pay more to help the government.

Americans are reluctant to pay more just because they don't transfer much money among themselves for social security and welfare. Taxes collected are usually spent on government-purchased goods and services, such as salaries, public education, police protection and other operations.

With the end of Cold War, the necessity of large defense spending has decreased. U.S. taxpayers may have naturally become more aware of fiscal drag. More money has been spent on the military, a higher rate compared with other developed countries. But only a small part of the money is used for infrastructure investment, which is improved recently by state and local governments.

People do seem willing to take on new tax burdens if the funds are spent wisely, such as health insurance, education, and garbage pickup, when what they do could make life better for themselves, their children, and their children's children.

Reading Comprehension:

- 1. What is the main difference between the US and other countries in the use of taxes?
- 2. What does the transfer payment mean?
- 3. Why can't America be a high-tax, high-transfer country?
- 4. What kind of tax are the Americans wiling to pay?

Language Features:

Lead: five steps to write a lead.

Summarize the story in a few simple sentences.

Combine the sentences into one

Underline all the verbs in the sentence, and put them in reverse time order, i.e., beginning with the latest event and ending with the earliest.

Rewrite the sentence by following this reverse time order.

Carefully edit the sentence you have written.

Week Twelve

Battle of the Binge

A college student was dead due to excessive drinking, which causes a campaign of back-to-school soul searching about binge drinking on campuses all over the US. Schools have taken actions to prevent

students from drinking too much. However, off campus bars attract students; some of them are underage for alcohol drinking.

Excessive drinking affects not only the bingers themselves but also other students, who cannot have a quiet place for study and rest. Social activities for the students are mostly alcohol drinking. When the campus is designated as alcohol free place, bars outside of the colleges cater to them with different kinds of advertisement. Although the drinking age was raised from 18 to 21, the situation became no better but worse. The students go to some private homes and bars, avoiding the check on their age.

Colleges hold education programs but not enough in supervise the students. So some colleges decided to ban alcohol drinking completely on campus, which doesn't work to some extent. It is suggested that it is allowed for the students to drinking on campus when of legal age and under the watch of the school executives.

Language Features:

A lead needs improving: an example of lead will be given here for students to improve.

Discussion topic:

What may deter students from excessive drinking and smoking?

Do you smoke or drink? How do you get addicted to it or keep away from it?

Chapter IV Introduction to English Report Styles

In this chapter, English news report styles are introduced, such as wrap-ups, features, and commentaries. The focus is on the language features of these news styles. What is difficult is to understand each news report in different style.

Ten teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Week Thirteen

Eyes Shut, Black America is Being Ravaged by AIDS

AIDS has attacked the black Americans greatly, a severe problem which is ignored by the leading black institutions. A high percentage of Americans are infected by HIV, which leads to AIDS, a leading cause for death. It is said by the new Surgeon General to become a disease of color.

AIDS grows as a 4th inner-city problem after crime, drug and graffiti. The service provided doesn't go hand by hand with the demographic changes, such as lack of education programs for them.

What is more annoyed is that civil rights groups and black ministers pay no heed to the problem. They don't believe that the blacks are in danger. An Ohio Democrat Representative would like to have AIDS a national health emergency among black people. But blacks themselves usually keep their disease diagnosis secret to avoid being looked down upon. Some of them even don't know how they are infected.

The stigma: When secrecy delays treatment

Mistrust of doctors and poverty make AIDS patient reluctant in going to see doctors. Thus they cannot take the advantage of the new drugs and miss the best time for treatment.

The street fight: curbing infection where it begins

Though needle exchange can help reduce the disease, the program is not supported by the Administration. The congress even wants to ban it permanently. People like Dr. Stall have tried their best to help those diseased.

Language Features:

What is a straight news story?

Features of a straight news story:

- --on the front page of a newspaper
- --present "facts" only
- --on interpretation or evaluation from reporters

Inverted pyramid structure

- -- the first paragraph is a lead
- --other paragraphs which explains and provides evidence to support the lead,
- --non-essential background information is present at the end of the story

Discussion topic:

AIDS is threatening the world of children as well as the adults. How do you get prepared to keep away from it?

Week Fourteen

Virtually a University

Unlike Yale or any other university, Western Governors University has no faculty or classrooms. The students enroll in the programs provided by other universities via WGU. For some reason, they cannot go to the real university to study on campus. Such a virtual university may satisfy their needs. This university pools the resources and makes use of the tools of technology to facilitate off campus students by offering distance education programs. These programs are mainly for adult students, who would like to get a degree.

The university applies new accreditation guidelines to evaluate student ability. The students will be granted credits for what they learn but not for what courses they complete for they have known much in practice.

WGU also caters to undergraduates, providing them some of the courses that they cannot attend due to schedule or they are not provided by their schools.

There is also criticism of the kind of university. Emotional engagement is in shortage online, which is actually necessary for students' study. Some think that it is a commercialization of the university. On the other hand, finance is important for WGU because of the installment of the high technology.

Language Features:

Features

Why increasing quantities of interpretive material in newspapers?

Characteristics of feature stories: Stories behind the headlines and breaking news stories.

Discussion topic:

How does the internet influence the high education?

Week Fifteen

Health Care

The issue of health care is always the hottest in the US. In 1977, one player of the health care was prosecuted for fraudulent billing. This event led to the reconsideration of the wholesale restructuring and the future of an industry, together with insurers' earnings complaints. The underlying economics of health care remain unchanged, with great demand from the generation of baby boom. The bill payers ask for much efficiency from the providers of health care. As a result, hospitals and doctors joint together to gain bargaining power in price. Health insurers organize a network spreading over the whole country.

Large hospitals and other health care organizations continue to expand themselves and at the same time cooperate with each other to share the capacity in handling patients. Health insurers, another health care player, are faced with many problems, among which are price competition, slow enrollment of participants joined, and higher medical costs, etc. Yet there is still great profit in administration, finance and customer service, which may be made only through the expansion. The state will surely keep a close

eye on it and examine the billings of the HMOs.

Language Features:

Structure of a feature

Inverted Christmas Tree (cf. Inverted pyramid)

Discussion topic:

What can China learn from American experience in medical reform?

Week Sixteen

Setting Course

Murdock released the news that he established a partnership with an American company, which attracted many reporters attending the teleconference and some local media companies. Murdock was straight forwards.

Murdock is a big power in media, swift, courageous and resolute in doing business. Like other headliners, he always sets the agenda for media and entertainment industry. He connects distribution measures with the content of programs. The US Congress passed a telecommunications-deregulation bill which encourages such style of business as Murdock, who brought a great change in media. Others are trying to catch him. But there is still a long way to go.

He has established a good way to do business in media and entertainment, combining programming with distribution. It seems that Murdock made no business plans but he carries out every idea he came up to. Finance of Murdock's Kingdom is another reason why he is quite successful.

However, Murdock constitutes a threat to British people and Americans.

Language Features:

Lead in a feature is no longer the same as one in a straight news item.

- --attract the reader's attention;
- --provide the reader with a summary of the story.

So creativity and one's own style is preferred.

Week Seventeen

Commercial Breakdown

Advertisers have considered to change their way of promoting products to open markets directing towards individuals since it costs too much via TV.

The first commercial on TV was made by NBC. Ever since then it becomes part of human life. Cable, satellite and digital television channels have gradually taken the place of TV. The cost is souring up and the consumer goods companies are not satisfied with the effects. The public is not easy to be influenced by the commercials to follow the fashion and could not be pushed forward.

One function of advertising is to promote the loyalty of the customers for the products and help the companies to main its market share. Direct marketing techniques have been adopted such as making

telephone calls and sending emails.

Language Features:

Summary of what has been learned concerning the news reports.

Types of leads in a feature:

- -- the summary lead
- -- the narrative lead
- -- the descriptive lead
- -- the quotation lead
- -- the question lead
- -- the direct address lead
- --the teaser lead

Discussion topic:

Do advertisements help promote economy?

Week Eighteen

Final examination

《英语视听说》教学大纲

zhj 编写

目 录

前	言		.727
	—.	教学任务和目的	.727
	二.	教学方法	.727
	三.	测试	.727
	四.	教学内容与课时安排	.727
(一) 1.Amadeus		.729	
	(二) 1.Somewhere in Time		

前言

一. 教学任务和目的

学生经过两年的听说读写的学习已获得良好的英语基本技能,在此基础上需要进行综合训练,进一步提高他们的听说能力,而在中国缺乏练习听说的环境,观看英语原版电影可提供生动、真实的场景和地道的口语。此外,电影是一门综合艺术,它涵盖故事情节、表演、音乐、摄影、服装等方面。好的电影引人入胜,使人仿佛置身于英语环境中,能激发他们的学习兴趣并调动他们讲英语的积极性。因此通过看原版电影来练习英语的听说能力是非常有效的方法之一,可进一步提高学生的听力能力(这种听力训练不像听磁带那样干巴巴的,而是可以通过故事发展的逻辑推理,感觉到台词的意思)和表达能力,完善语音语调,扩大词汇量,同时培养他们的艺术鉴赏力,加强他们对英语国家的社会习俗、文化宗教和价值观的了解,增强他们的交际能力和分析批判的能力。本课程没有规定的教材,故由授课教师挑选有代表性的英语国家原版电影,尤其是获奖电影,以新电影为主,老电影为辅,兼顾各种类型,例如历史片、传记片、爱情片、社会伦理片、名著改编的影片。

二. 教学方法

在教学过程中,对重要的语言现象和情节变化以及使用的单词短语即停即问即讲解,而不是做一背景介绍后从头放到底,让学生囫囵吞枣、一知半解、似懂非懂。要求学生最终能听懂80—90%,能抓住电影的要点和有关情节,了解主要人物的观点和态度。然后可由学生提出问题,大家讨论,但主要由教师提出问题组织学生讨论。要求学生积极参与讨论和分析,能较连贯地熟练地表达思想,对电影内容与人物进行评价。

三. 测试

本课程无法布置作业,只能当堂看,看完讨论。但推荐《英语视听说教程》(外语教学与研究出版社)和《电影对白》(武汉测绘科技大学出版社)作为课外参考材料。期中、期末进行考核,考核采用口语形式,即在看完某个或某些电影后学生根据教师的提问将自己的看法、分析、评论录在录音带上供教师审听并根据其语音、语法、用词、口语流利程度和发表的观点、评论进行打分。

四. 教学内容与课时安排

(一)人生:成功与失败,如何面对困难与灾难

1.Amadeus (第1-2周) (第3-4周) 2.G.I.Jane (第5-6周) 3.Death and the Maiden 4.Sunshine (第7—8周) 5. The Red Violin (第9—10周) 6.Far and Away (第11—12周) (第13—14周) 7. Rogue Trader (第15—16周) 8.The Firm 9. Schindler's List and To End All Wars (第17—18周) (二)人生:爱情与婚姻

1.Somewhere in Time (第19—20周) 2.The Graduate (第21—22周) (第23—24周) 3.Kramer vs Kramern (第25—26周) 4. The Bridges of Madison County 5.Innocence (第27—28周) (第29—30周) 6.Meet Joe Black (第31—32周) 7. The Horse Whisper (第33—34周) 8. The English Patient (第35—36周) 9.Shakespeare in Love

(-) 1.Amadeus

Now seen in a revitalized digital transfer and including more than 20 minutes worth of scenes not seen in its original release, Amadeus remains a screen triumph: as sumptuous period epic, soaring celebration of the music of Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, a Top—100 Films selection by the American Film Institute and as the winner of eight Oscar Awards including Best Actor, Best Director and Best Adapted Screenplay.

In 1781 Vienna, court composer Antonis Salieri is maddened with envy after discovering that the divine musical gifts he desires for himself have been bestowed on the bawdy, impish Mozart, whom he plots to destroy by any means necessary. And by means of cinematic craft and sublime music, we watch spellbound.

2.G.I.Jane

Failure is not an option. Can a woman survive the US Navy's toughest training regime and earn her bars as a Navy Seal? Lt Jordan O'Neill is determined to prove that she can. Selected as a test case in a long running battle between Senate and the Navy Chiefs over women's rights, she is enrolled in the gruelling 12 week course.

Once on base she soon learns that there are those who do not wish her to succeed and take every possible opportunity to plot her downfall. Her first battle is to be accepted as an equal by the training staffs who initially insist on lowering the standards simply because she is a female. With that goal out of the way she can get her teeth into what is a brutal and barbaric regime.

In one scene the beautiful Ms. Demi Moore even resorts to sharing off her flowing locks in an attempt to be seen as just another recruit. The film provides an insight into the tough world of America's elite fighting force together with the physical and emotional struggle of Lt. O'Neill to prove that she can live and work with her male counterparts.

3.Death and the Maiden

Death and the Maiden is a beautiful, sorrowful and sentimental quartet of chamber music full of love for life composed by Franz Schubert (1797----1828), an Austrian musician. From Academy Award—winning director Roman Polanski comes a shocking tale of redemption and revenge. The film with the same title of the quartet is a critically acclaimed psychological thriller about a woman's desperate search for justice.

The story happened in Chile from 1973to 1990 when the military dictator came into power and exercised fascist regime and ruled cruelly and unjustly. Thousands of people were killed or found missing after arrest. Tens of thousands of people were forced to be exiled. Chile experienced the darkest period in her history. Among the people who were arrested and put into prison and tortured was a girl who was raped many times by a fascist doctor to the music of the quartet. One day after freedom returned, she found the doctor and "tried" him at home and forced him to confess and regent. The film exposed the crimes in the bestial desire and the morbid spiritual world. The film also leads viewers to forgiveness and reconciliation.

4. Sunshine

Sunshine is an epic romantic tale about one Jewish family's secret passions, tragic betrayals and unbreakable bonds over three generations that span the twentieth century. At once witty, seductive and

serious, the film enters a fascinating territory where desire, family, politics and entangled lovers converge.

The story happened in Hungary from 1840 to 1989. It is a time of revolution. It is a family form by tradition. One man was consumed by love. It is an awesome film with thrilling historical sweep!

5. The Red Violin

It is a masterpiece, carved from the finest wood and shaped by the loving hands of the greatest craftsman of the 17th century Italy. It is an immortal soul, cast in musical instrument which inspires great passion for more than three hundred years, and which beholds the anguish of mankind across the world. It is the Red Violin, an instrument which directs fate into a path of passion and love, of ecstasy and tragedy.

In the film you will find an instrument of passion, a shocking secret and an extraordinary journey.

6. Far and Away

Ron Howard's epic tale tells the story of two Irish immigrants' quest for land during the 1890 Oklahoma land rush. Tom Cruise stars as Joseph Donnelly, an ambitious young farmer in western Ireland. When a local protest against wealthy landlord Daniel Christie results in the death of his father, Joseph seeks revenge. But his attempt at vengeance is thwarted by Shannon Christie, the landlord's high—spirited and headstrong daughter, who stabs Joseph with a pitchfork. While convalescing at the Christie's manor, Joseph is propositioned by Shannon, who asks her to travel with him to America, where she is determined to acquire some of the free land being given away in the Oklahoma Territory. Arriving in Boston, Joseph acts as protective brother to Shannon in the city streets as they struggle to earn the money to travel out west. Finally, they succeeded in getting the land and love.

7. Rogue Trader

Ewan McGregor brings a dynamic screen presence to this riveting motion picture about how greed, excess and high—stakes gambling brought down one of Britain's oldest and most successful financial institutions! When he is sent to Singapore by the 200—year—old Barings Bank, futures trader Nick Leeson dreams of making a killing in the stock market. But even though his firm believes Nick is the most successful trader they've ever employed, he secretly begins to steal vast amounts of their own money to cover his risky financial wagering! With debts to match his desperation for a way out Nick risks everything in a frantic bid to beat the system and win back the money! Finally he failed and was put into prison. It's a film about greed, ambition, deception and love.

8. The Firm

Tom Cruise delivers the most electrifying performance of his career in this riveting film based on the international best—seller. Cruise plays Mitch McDeere, a brilliant and ambitious Harvard Law grad. Driven by a fierce desire to bury his working—class past, Mitch joins a small, prosperous Memphis firm that affords Mitch and his wife an affluent lifestyle beyond their wildest dreams. But when FBI agents confront him with evidence of corruption and murder within the firm, Mitch sets out to find the truth in a deadly crossfire between the FBI, the Mob and a force that will stop at nothing to protect its interests—The Firm.

9. Schindler's List

Oskar Schindler is a vain, glorious and greedy German businessman who becomes unlikely humanitarian amid the barbaric Nazi reign when he feels compelled to turn his factory into a refuge for Jews. Based on the true story of Oskar Schindler who managed to save about 1100 Jews from being gassed at the Auschwitz concentration camp. A testament for the good in all of US. Whoever saves one life, saves the world entire.

10. To End All Wars

It is a true story of a Scottish battalion sent to a Japanese POW camp in WWII and how the prisoners deal with ritual beatings and back—breaking labor as they are forced to buildthe infamous Railroad of Death across Asia. Military veteran Campbell seeks vengeance on his captor while the young Ernest Gordon preaches forgiveness to the others including Reardon and Dusty.

(□) 1.Somewhere in Time

In the story a young writer who sacrifices his life in the present to find happiness in the past, where true love awaits him. Young Richard Collier got approached by an elderly woman who gives him an antique gold watch and who pleads with him to return in time with her. Years later, Richard Collier is overwhelmed by a photograph of a beautiful young woman. Another picture of this woman in her later years to him that she is the same woman who had given him the gold watch.

2. The Graduate

Nominated for seven Academy Awards in 1967, and winner for Best Director, this "delightful, satirical comedy--drama" is "wildly hilarious". Written by Calder Willingham and Buck Henry, the film career of two time Oscar winner Dustin Hoffman and cemented the stellar reputation of director Mike Nichols. Pulsating with the rebellious spirit of a generation and haunting songs composed by Paul Simon and Dave Grusin and performed by Simon and Garfunkel, The graduate is truly a "landmark film". Ben Braddock is home from college with a degree in hand and an uncertain future in mind. Add to his confusion the aggressive advances by the wife of his father's business partner, the sexy Mrs. Robinson, and poor Ben is completely lost. That is, until he meets the girl of his dreams, Elaine. But the problem is that Elaine is Mrs. Robinson's daughter. So the film is funny, outrageous and touching.

3.Kramer vs Kramer

Robert Benton's moving and well—observed adaptation of Avery Corman's novel about the aftermath of divorce stars Dustin Hoffman and Meryl Streep as the separating couple, Ted and Joanna Kramer. When dutiful wife and mother Joanna decides to leave Ted, an advertising executive, she also leaves him with the responsibility of caring for their young son, Billy. The situation proves to be especially difficult since the workaholic father has never really taken care of the boy and, in truth, barely knows him. Things are tough at first, but as the two become accustomed to life without Joanna and Ted's care taking skills improve, father and son finally develop a relationship. As Ted devotes more time to his son and less to his work, however, the latter suffers, and Ted's subsequent firing coincides with the return of Joanna, who wants her son back. Despite the titular framing of a custody trial, Kramer vs Kramer steps lightly around the complex issue, essentially concerning itself with the father's discovery of the joys and travails pf being a parent. Hoffman and Streep turn in exceptional Academy Award—winning performances, and Benton crafts a memorable exploration of parenthood by wisely focusing on the tiny drama of everyday life.

4. The Bridges of Madison County

Robert Kincaid has come to Madison County, Iowa in order to take pictures of the Roseman and Holiwell covered bridges. He is a professional photographer on assignment to National Geograph magazine in the fall of 1965 and he is lost. Pulling his green pickup truck into the driveway of a well—kept farmhouse he stops to ask directions.

Francesca Johnson is at home alone, her husband and two children having departed for four days to the Illinois state fair. She has been married for 15 years and the luxury of time to herself is an unusual break from her daily life, as is the courteous stranger approaching her for information.

5. Innocent

What if you were given the chance to rediscover your very first love?

Andrens, a widower and a retired music teacher, discovers that his first true love lives in the same city as he does. He decides to write a heartfelt letter. Claire responds and they meet again for the first time after having shared a passionate love affair fifty years ago. Claire has been married for forty—five years, but it soon becomes evident that the love from her youth has not faded. They decide to rekindle their passions, regardless of the consequences. A critically acclaimed tale of love and lust, tenderness and hope, a passionate reminder to live life to the fullest without regret, regardless of age.

6. Meet Joe Black

Bill Parrish has it all----success, wealth and power. Days before his 65th birthday he receives a visit from a mysterious stranger, Joe Black, who soon reveals himself as Death in exchange for extra time. Bill agrees to serve as Joe's earthly guide. But will he regret his choice when Joe unexpectedly falls in love with Bill's beautiful daughter Susan?

7. The Horse Whisper

After a devastating riding accident, a young girl and her belobed horse are both left with serious physical and emotional scars. Determined to help, the girl's desperate mother puts her busy, big—city life on hold and travels west to seek out the "Horse Whisper". When she meets this rugged, down—to —earth rancher, she discovers his extraordinary gift with animals also touches the lives of the people around him!

8. The English Patient

Winner of 9 Academy Awards, including Best Picture, Best Director and Best Supporting Actress, this unforgettable story is the motion picture event of the year!

During World warII, when a mysterious stranger is rescued from a fiery plane crash, he is cared for by American allies unaware of the dangerous secret of his past. Yet, as the mystery of his identity is slowly revealed, an incredible tale of passion, intrigue and adventure unfolds!

9. Shakespeare in Love

Winner of 7 Academy Awards, including Best Picture, Best Actress and Best Supporting Actress, this film with Shakespeare creating Romeo and Juliet for fuse relates his love romance. At that time, the living poor Shakespeare is creating Romeo and the woman of the Pirate the Peach, a comedy which acquaints himself with the young girl of the beauty. The girl brought for him not a few inspirations. The proper Shakespeare falls into love, but hears the news that the girl will soon get married with a mobility.

《网上阅读》教学大纲

刘艳萍 编写

目 录

前 言	737
一、概述	737
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	737
三、教学基本内容及学时分配	737
四、教学章节范例 (见附件)	738
五、教学相关环节	738
六、教材与参考资料	738
Class One Olympic Games	739
Class Two & Three Space Exploration.	741
Class Four & Five Earthquake	744
Class Six &Seven Sanlu Milk Case	746
Class Eight &Nine Rights of Defendant	752
Class Ten & Eleven US Presidential election	754
Class Fourteen & Fifteen 2008 US Presidential Election	755
Class Sixteen & Seventeen Financial crisis	760
Class Eighteen Final Exam	764

前言

一、概述

网络课程是人类步入信息时代和现代教育技术飞速发展的产物,网络课程作为信息化环境下教育资源的重要组成部分,被越来越多地应用于教学之中。《网上阅读》是网络教育中最能发挥网络优势的课程之一,其教学内容是通过互联网以 Web 方式呈现的,是以多媒体和超文本的方式传递给学习者,这种教学信息的传递方式同传统阅读课堂教学中所使用的纸制媒体方式相比具有明显的优势。教师在教学过程,要改变英语学科教学模式,实现英语阅读教学的科学化、现代化、网络化。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

《网上阅读》是本科英语专业高年级的一门选修课程,旨在培养学生的学习策略和文化意识。学习策略就是提高学生的阅读效率、发展自主学习能力。本课在提高学生的英语阅读效率和阅读水平,增强学生学习英语的自信心的同时,开拓学生视野,使其领略丰富多彩的异域文化,加深对英语文化的了解与理解,培养文化识。

英语阅读理解能力,包括利用阅读技能读懂文章的能力,英文阅读理解涉及到语篇、段落、句子、词汇四个层次的理解问题。另外,语言与文化密不可分,英语学习中有许多跨文化交际的因素,要提高英语阅读能力,还要大量阅读相关历史、地理、社会、经济、政治、教育等方面的情况及其文化传统的文章,开拓学生的知识视野,培养学生跨文化交际能力,提高学生的综合素质。

三、教学基本内容及学时分配

《网上阅读》从内容上主要涉及文化、体育、保健、娱乐、历史、地理、生物、科技、环保等多方面知识;在形式上则有新闻报道、报刊杂志、原版读物、图片图表、分析推理等等。《网上阅读》课程上,教师会指导学生利用网络上不断更新的相关资料,了解当今世界发生的热点问题。

《网上阅读》课程开课一个学期,36学时,采用教师指导与自主阅读相结合。

由于阅读材料涉及最新时事,故每学期的教学内容变化很大。以 2008-2009 学年第一学期为例, 主要涵盖以下几个主题:

- 1. Olympic Games (4 hours)
- 2. Space (4 hours)
- ----Launch of Shengzhou 7
- ----Space exploration in China and other Countries
- 3. Earthquake (4 hours)
- ----Earthquake
- ----rescue
- 4. Sanlu Milk case (4 hours)
- ----Tainted milk case
- ----Charges against the defendants both in China and the United Sates
- 5. Rights of the defendant (4 hours)
- ----US constitution
- ----The rights of defendant protected in the Constitution
- 6. Presidential election (4 hours)

- ---- Presidential election in the US
- ----2008 Presidential election
- 7. President-elect (4 hours)
- ---- Obama
- ---- the Road to Brown
- 8. Financial crisis (8 hours)
- ---- Financial crisis in Wall Street
- ----US bailout
- ----Auto industry bankruptcy
- ----solution

四、教学章节范例 (见附件)

五、教学相关环节

《网上阅读》教学使用网络教室。除课堂阅读外,还指导学生课外学读相关资料,安排学生做 Presentation。本课程以学生为主体,注重调动学生的积极性,大量进行课堂及时阅读,训练学生查找相关专题资料的能力。

六、教材与参考资料

《网上阅读》采用材料均来源于国外报刊的时文热点报道。

附件 教学章节范例

Class One Olympic Games

The 2008 Summer Olympic Games, officially known as the Games of the XXIX Olympiad, was a major <u>international multi-sport event</u> that took place in <u>Beijing</u>, <u>People's Republic of China</u>, from August 8 (except <u>football</u>, which started on August 6) to August 24, 2008. A total of 10,500 athletes competed in 302 events in 28 sports, one event more than was on the schedule of the <u>2004 Games</u>. The 2008 Beijing Olympics marked the first occasion that either the <u>Summer</u> or <u>Winter Games</u> were hosted in China, making it the <u>22nd nation</u> to do so. It also became the third time that Olympic events have been held in the territories of two different <u>National Olympic Committees</u> (NOC), as the equestrian events were being held in <u>Hong Kong</u>.

The Olympic Games were awarded to Beijing after an exhaustive ballot of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) on July 13, 2001. The official logo of the Games, titled "Dancing Beijing," features a stylized calligraphic character jīng (京, meaning capital), referring to the host city. Several new NOCs have also been recognized by the IOC.

The <u>Chinese government</u> promoted the Games and invested heavily in new facilities and transportation systems. A total of 37 venues were used to host the events including 12 newly constructed venues. At the closing ceremony IOC president <u>Jacques Rogge</u> declared the event a "truly exceptional Games" after earlier asserting that the IOC had "absolutely no regrets" in choosing Beijing to host the 2008 Games. The choice of China as a host country was the subject of criticism by some politicians and <u>NGOs</u> concerned about China's <u>human rights</u> record. China and others, meanwhile, warned against politicizing the Olympics.

The Games saw 43 new world records and 132 new Olympic records set. A record 87 countries won a medal during the Games. Chinese athletes won 51 gold medals altogether, the second largest haul by a national team in a modern, non-boycotted Summer Games. Michael Phelps broke the record for most golds in one Olympics and for most career gold medals for an Olympian. Usain Bolt secured the traditional title "World's Fastest Man" by setting new world records in the 100m and 200m dashes.

Contents

- 1 Bid
- 2 Development and preparation
- o 2.1 Venues
- 2.1.1 Beijing National Stadium
- o 2.2 Transport
- o 2.3 Marketing
- o 2.4 Broadcasting
- 2.4.1 Online coverage
- 3 Torch relay
- 4 The Games

- o 4.1 Opening ceremony
- o 4.2 Closing ceremony
- o 4.3 Participating NOCs
- 4.3.1 Participation changes
- o 4.4 Sports
- o 4.5 Calendar
- 5 Medal table
- 6 Concerns and controversies
- 7 Legacy
- 8 See also
- 9 References
- 10 External links

Class Two & Three Space Exploration

Shenzhou 7 was the third <u>human spaceflight</u> mission of the <u>Chinese space program</u>. The mission, which included an <u>extra-vehicular activity</u> (EVA) carried out by crewmembers <u>Zhai Zhigang</u> and <u>Liu Boming</u>, marked the commencement of the second phase of the Chinese government's <u>Project 921</u>.

The <u>Shenzhou spacecraft</u> carrying the three crewmembers was launched September 25, 2008, by a <u>Long March 2F</u> (CZ-2F) rocket which lifted off from the <u>Jiuquan Satellite Launch Center</u> at 21:10 CST. The mission lasted three days, after which the craft landed safely in <u>Siziwang Banner</u> in central <u>Inner Mongolia</u> on September 28, 2008, at 17:37 CST. The EVA carried out during the flight makes China the third country to have conducted an EVA, after the Soviet Union and the United States.

Contents

- 1 Crew
- o 1.1 Backup crew
- 2 Mission highlights
- o 2.1 China's first three-person mission
- o 2.2 China's first spacewalk
- o 2.3 Solid lubricant experiment
- o 2.4 Release of miniaturized satellite
- o 2.5 Data relay satellite
- 3 Mission support and preparation
- o 3.1 Subsystems
- o 3.2 Water training pool
- o 3.3 Modifications to the CZ-2F carrier rocket
- o 3.4 Modifications to the spacecraft
- o 3.5 New space tracking ships
- o 3.6 Toilets
- o 3.7 Project management
- 4 Controversies
- o 4.1 False news report
- o 4.2 Passing close to the International Space Station
- 5 See also
- 6 References

Space Exploration

Space exploration is the use of <u>astronomy</u> and <u>space technology</u> to explore <u>outer space.[1]</u> Physical <u>exploration</u> of space is conducted both by <u>human spaceflights</u> and by <u>robotic spacecraft</u>.

While the observation of objects in space—known as <u>astronomy</u>—pre-dates reliable <u>recorded history</u>, it was the development of large liquid-fueled <u>rocket engines</u> during the early 20th century that allowed physical space exploration to become a reality. Common rationales for exploring space include advancing scientific research, uniting different nations, ensuring the future survival of humanity and developing military/strategic advantages against other countries. Various criticisms of Space Exploration are sometimes made, generally on cost or safety grounds.

Space exploration has often been used as a proxy competition for geopolitical rivalries such as the Cold War. The early era of space exploration was driven by a "Space Race" between the Soviet Union and the United States; the launch of the first man-made object to orbit the Earth, the USSR's Sputnik 1, on October 4, 1957, and the first Moon landing by the American Apollo 11 craft on July 20, 1969 are often taken as the boundaries for this initial period. The Soviet space program achieved many of the first milestones under Sergey Korolyov and Kerim Kerimov, including the first human spaceflight (Yuri Gagarin aboard Vostok 1) in 1961, the first spacewalk (by Aleksei Leonov) in 1965, and the launch of the first space station (Salyut 1) in 1971. However, the first man-made objects to reach space were Nazi-Germany's V2 rockets, used as early as the Second World War.

After the first 20 years of exploration, focus shifted from one-off flights to renewable hardware, such as the <u>Space Shuttle program</u>, and from competition to cooperation as with the <u>International Space</u> Station.

From the 1990s onwards, private interests began promoting <u>space tourism</u> and now private space exploration of the Moon (see <u>GLXP</u>).

In the 2000s, China initiated a <u>successful manned spaceflight program</u>, while Japan and India also plan future manned space missions. Larger government programs have advocated manned missions to the Moon and possibly Mars sometime after 2010.

Contents

- 1 History
- 1.1 First orbital flights
- o 1.2 First human flights
- o 1.3 Key people in early space exploration
- 2 Future of Space Exploration
- o 2.1 Private Ventures
- 3 Targets of exploration
- o 3.1 Astrobiology
- o 3.2 The Sun
- o 3.3 Mercury
- o 3.4 Venus
- o 3.5 Earth
- o 3.6 Earth's Moon
- o 3.7 Mars
- 3.7.1 Phobos
- o 3.8 Jupiter
- o 3.9 Saturn
- o 3.10 Uranus
- o 3.11 Neptune
- o 3.12 Pluto
- o 3.13 Asteroids
- 4 Rationales
- 5 Opposition

- 6 Related topics
- o 6.1 Spaceflight
- o 6.2 Space colonization
- 7 See also
- 8 References
- 9 External links

Class Four & Five Earthquake

The nineteenth deadliest earthquake of all time, the 2008 Sichuan earthquake, or "Great Sichuan Earthquake", or most commonly in western reportage, the Chengdu quake, which measured at 8.0 Ms and 7.9 Mw occurred at 14:28:01.42 CST (06:28:01.42 UTC) on May 12, 2008 in Sichuan province of China and by any name killed at least 69,000 less than three months before China hosted the world in the 2008 Summer Olympics.

It was also known as the Wenchuan earthquake, after the <u>earthquake</u>'s <u>epicenter</u> in <u>Wenchuan County</u>, Sichuan province. The epicenter was 80 kilometers (50 mi) <u>west-northwest</u> of <u>Chengdu</u>, the capital of Sichuan, with a depth of 19 kilometers (12 mi). The earthquake was also felt in nearby countries and felt as far away as both <u>Beijing</u> and <u>Shanghai</u> — 1,500 kilometers (932 mi) and 1,700 kilometers (1,056 mi) away — where office buildings swayed with the tremor.

Official figures (as of July 21, 2008 12:00 <u>CST</u>) state that 69,227 are confirmed dead, including 68,636 in Sichuan province, and 374,176 injured, with 18,222 listed as missing. The earthquake left about 4.8 million people homeless, though the number could be as high as 11 million. Approximately 15 million people lived in the affected area. It is the deadliest earthquake to hit China since the <u>1976 Tangshan earthquake</u>, which killed at least 240,000 people, and the strongest since the <u>1950 Chayu earthquake</u> in the country, which registered at 8.5 on <u>Richter magnitude scale</u>.

Strong aftershocks, some exceeding magnitude 6, continue to hit the area even months after the main quake, causing new casualties and damage.

On 6 November 2008, the central government announced that it will spend 1 trillion Yuan (about \$146.5 billion) over the next three years to rebuild areas ravaged by the earthquake.

Contents

- 1 Earthquake details
- o 1.1 Extent of tremors
- o 1.2 Aftershocks
- o 1.3 Intensities and damage area
- o 1.4 Tectonics
- 2 Immediate aftermath
- 3 Casualties
- o 3.1 Property damage
- o 3.2 Later Casualties
- 3.2.1 Government data
- 4 Rescue efforts
- o 4.1 The "quake lakes"
- 5 Reactions within China

- 6 Collapse of schools
- 7 Foreign and domestic aid
- o 7.1 Mainland China
- 8 Predictions, Precursors, and Postmortems
- 9 See also
- 10 References
- 11 External links

Class Six & Seven Sanlu Milk Case

A TimeLine

Date	Progress	Source of Information
9/16/2008	Another infant was confirmed died from using Fonterra Sanl powder milk	u Fonterra
9/15/2008	Melamine was detected from products of Haoniu Dairy of Gansu Pronvince. Haoniu is a partner of Fonterra Sanlu, and follow Fonterra Sanlu production guideline	d Xinhua News
9/15/2008	Fonterra's CEO Andrew Ferrier refused to take responsibility for not having gone public six weeks earlier when he first learned of the crisis	st Andrew Ferrier
9/14/2008	Reporting and Discussion of the case was banned by Th Propaganda Department of the CCP, except that by the officia Xinhua News Agency hundreds of thousands little kids flooded hospitals around th	al Internet Cache
9/13/2008	country to do ultrasound scan, which revealed 20-30% had developed varies stages kidney stones.	linling Evening Daily Dr
9/13/2008	Health Minister Gao Qiang held press conference, and denie any government awareness of the case before 9/8/2008	Health Minister Gao Qiang
9/12/2008	Evening: Health Ministry notified WHO, and launched Publi Recall, 700 tons could not be traced Morning: 800 police stormed 41 dairy farms. 78 farmers wer	
9/12/2008	questioned and 19 were arrested for allegedly mixing melamine into milk	
9/11/2008	A Gansu newspaper named Sanlu in connection with infarkidney failures	Nes Report
9/10/2008	Professor Sun Xizhao of Nanjing University wrote to newspaper questioned an Unnamed Milk Powder caused infart kidney failure. The same day Sanlu denied any knowledge of it	nt Navys Panort, Sanly wahsita
9/9/2008	Health Ministry ordered recall	Health Ministry Gao Qiang
9/9/2008	Baidu refused to honor the 'protection status' agreement whe requested by Sanlu	n Baidu
9/8/2008	Prime Minister Helen Clark met with cabinet regarding th situation and ordered Fonterra to notify Beijing	Helen Clark
9/8/2008	Sanlu submit a written report to Hebei Province, Healt Minister Gao Qiang claimed that this was the first time Sanl notified government officials of any level	
9/5/2008 8/27/2008	New Zealand Prime Minister was informed of the situation Dr. Zhang Wen of Huazhong University of Science and	Prime Minister Helen Clark d News Report

	Technology told news media that Sanlu infant formula had
	caused many infants kidney failures in the past year. This was
	the first time a medical doctor named Sanlu to the news media,
	although many had been discussing this privately
	National top food safety agency AOSIG visited Sanly but
8/17/2008	National top food safety agency AQSIG visited Sanlu but News Report didn't make any decision
8/14/2008	New Zealand Embassy in Beijing was informed of the crisis Helen Clark
0/14/2000	
	A memo from Sanlu's PR Consulting Firm Beijing
	Lantaotonglue noted numerious negative reference of Sanlu
8/11/2008	with connection to infants kidney failures. The memo laid out FAX from Lantaotonglue
	three strategies in handling the crisis, including purchasing a
	'protection status' from the largest Chinese language search
	engine Baidu at the price of RMB Yuan 300 million
8/6/2008	Sanlu coordinates mass medical assistance for infant victims Sanlu, News Report
8/5/2008	Sanlu's dairy product produced after 8/5/2008 are free of Tian Wenhua, Chairwoman
	melamine of Sanlu
	Sanlu stopped 2,000 tons of powder milk from entering Tian Wenhua, Chairwoman
8/4/2008	of Sanlii
	contaminated with Melamine through the Health Ministry
8/3/2008	Sanlu alerted the situation to the City of Shijiangzhuang, Tian Wenhua, Chairwoman
0,0,200	Hebei Province and Health Ministry of Sanlu
8/2/2008	Fonterra learnt of the situation Fonterra
	Sanlu, Tian Wenhua, Sun
8/1/2008	Melamine was detected and documented Dongdong, Professor of
0/1/2000	Beijing University and expert
	of the Health Ministry
	Hunan TV Metropolitan Channel reported a sudden alarming
	rise in infant kidney stones cases. In one hospital received 16
7/23/2008	infants with severe kidney stones. The TV program revealed Hunan TV
112312000	all victims used the same brand of milk. Packages of canned
	and bagged powder milk was shown on the TV, but did not
	explicitly name Sanlu
7/1/2008	Sanlu launched investigation into infants kidney failures after Tian Wenhua
//1/2006	drinking Sanlu infant formula
	A Zhejiang consumer contacted Sanlu, and a range of local
	authorities after Sanlu powder milk made his daughter
	difficulty to pee. Later, without knowing the extend and Internet Cache, Wu
2/2/2008	seriousness of the issue, the consumer accepted an exchange of
	4 boxes of Sanlu powder milk. He posted his story on a Yuanping (the consumer)
	popular Internet community Tianya. This is the first
	documented exposure of this scandal.
	Reports of mass infant kidney failure started arriving Sanlu, Sanlu
3/1/2008	Sanlu asked government agency's help to test dairy products
	Zamen against against a neith to test dain's broaden

which all appeared to be acceptable

Several Inquiries, including one made by a known kidney

surgeon, was made to the top food safety agency AQSIQ. Internet Cache and Dr. Feng 3/1/2008

These complaints had been deleted from AQSIQ website, but Dongchuan's Blog

still available from Google cache

Hospitals around the country noticed a sharpen increase of

3/1/2008 infant kidney failure cases, many alerted the manufacture as Sanlu

well as local safety agencies

Sanlu infant formula received the National Award of Science

1/8/2008 and Technology Progress, and became the only dairy product News Report

> ever to receive this top national science and technology award The Propaganda Arm of CCP, the CCTV hailed Sanlu the top

9/2/2007 quality dairy product in its weekly 'Quality of Made-in-China' CCTV, YouTube

Special Program

The Director of China FDA (State Food and Drug

7/10/2007 Administration, SDA) Mr. Zheng Xiaoyu was executed for public record

oversight of the pet food that poisoned American cats

In the aftermath of the US FDA findings, AQSIQ examined

399 samples of export food products and 800 domestic food

5/8/2007 products, and failed to find any trace of melamine. AQSIQ

hail the result a testimony of excellent food quality in China.

AQSIQ ordered all food export must go through melamine AOSIO 4/20/2007

tests

US FDA declared Melamine was detected in pet food

imported from China. Hundreds of cats and little dogs became news Report 3/30/2007

sick or dead after eating import pet food.

New Zealand based Fonterra Acquired 43% of Sanlu, Fonterra
Public Record, Fonterra 11/25/2005

has 3 representations on Sanlu's 7 persons board

900 packages of Sanlu yoghurt were confiscated by Tianjin News Report 7/5/2005

authorities for post-dating production date

Sanlu was named in a 'Big Head Baby' scandal of producing

low cost powder milk with zero nutritional value and caused

6/1/2004 13 babies' death. After an aggressive emergency campaign, News

Health Minister Gao Qiang arranged to have Sanlu removed

from the blacklist.

Tainted liquid milk found in China

18 now in custody; fourth child dies, more than 6,200 babies sick

The Associated Press

updated 1:04 p.m. ET Sept. 19, 2008

BEIJING - China's tainted product crisis has extended to liquid milk, the nation's watchdog agency said Friday, as Starbucks dumped a supplier in China.

The General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection and Quarantine said milk sold in liquid form by three leading Chinese dairies is contaminated with melamine, the industrial chemical that as been linked to the deaths of four infants and illnesses in 6,200 others.

A report posted Friday on the agency's Web site says test results showed nearly 10 percent of samples taken from Mengniu Dairy Group Co. and Yili Industrial Group Co. — China's two largest dairy companies — contained up to 8.4 milligrams of melamine per kilogram.

Milk from Shanghai-based Bright Dairy also showed melamine contamination.

Starbucks Corp. said its 300 cafes in mainland China had pulled milk supplied by Mengniu. It said no one had fallen ill from the milk.

The recalls come as evidence is mounting that adding chemicals to watered-down milk was a widespread practice in China's dairy industry.

Powder pulled in July

Meanwhile, the company at the heart of the tainted milk scandal ordered distributors to pull its products off store shelves in early July, weeks before it went public with the problem, two distributors said Friday.

The statements by the distributors in Hebei province, where Sanlu Group Co. is headquartered, raise further questions about when the company and government knew that milk powder being feed to babies was tainted with melamine, a banned industrial chemical. A New Zealand stakeholder in Sanlu has said it was told in early August, before the start of the Beijing Olympics, that there was a problem.

The public was not told until Sept. 11 — after its New Zealand stakeholder told the New Zealand government, which then informed the Chinese government — that the powder, used in baby formula and other products, contained the chemical melamine. The milk is blamed for four infant deaths and the illnesses of 6,200 others.

"We were asked by Sanlu to take all their 2007 to July 2008 baby powder off the shelves in early July" and replace it with new powder, said one of the distributors, Zhang Youqiang.

"Then things got weird. In early August, they came to us again and said all the new Sanlu baby milk powder we had just put on the shelves did not pass 'qualified aviation standards,'" said Zhang, who declined to give his company name for fear of offending Sanlu. Zhang said he was never told what qualified aviation standards meant.

Zhang said he now has warehouses full of contaminated milk powder and is trying to get refunds from Sanlu.

Phone calls to Sanlu rang unanswered Friday and its Web site was not working. China's quality

watchdog did not respond after asking that questions be faxed to it.

'I'm just praying'

Thousands of anxious parents rushed their infants to hospitals for health checks on Thursday.

Twenty percent of Chinese companies that produce milk powder have been found with products tainted by melamine, including the two biggest dairies. More than 6,000 babies have been sickened by the tainted formula.

Melamine, used in plastics, fertilizers and flame retardants, has no nutritional value but is high in nitrogen, making products with it appear higher in protein — a way to cut costs for the manufacturer.

At the Beijing Children's Hospital, more than 1,000 parents waited for check-ups as they carried their sleeping infants and toddlers. By 2 p.m, doctors had seen only half of the 1,200 who waited in line.

Parents said their children had been drinking three major brands of baby milk powder, all of which have been recalled after government tests found melamine.

Fang Sunyi, 28, who was holding her 3-month-old son, said he had been fed formula made by Sanlu Group Co. and Yashili since birth.

"I'm just praying there's nothing wrong with my son," she said. "We first fed him Sanlu, then stopped because that was reported to be bad quality, then we switched to Yashili, but now there's nothing left. We don't know what's safe anymore and we don't want to take any chances."

In Shijiazhuang, the new chairman and chief executive officer of Sanlu, the dairy company whose milk powder has been linked to all of the known illnesses, apologized at a news conference Thursday.

Zhang Zhenling said he wanted to "express deepest apologies" for the tainted milk powder and for "harm and losses to consumers." He bowed three times.

This is the second major case in recent years involving baby formula. In 2004, more than 200 Chinese infants suffered malnutrition and at least 12 died after being fed phony formula that contained no nutrients.

The official Xinhua News Agency said the latest death was a baby in the far western region of Xinjiang. However, an official at the No. 2 Agriculture and Production Corps Hospital in Yanqi, Xinjiang, said it was too early to say if the 8-month-old baby died of complications caused by the tainted milk powder.

18 arrested

Shi Guizhong, spokesman for the police in Hebei province, where Sanlu is based, said authorities were starting a 10-day campaign to focus on melamine contamination. Suppliers to the dairy companies are believed to have added the banned chemical to watered-down milk.

Police in Hebei province said they had arrested 12 more people Thursday, bringing the total to 18. Shi said six allegedly sold melamine, while the other 12 were milk suppliers accused of adding the chemical to milk.

Police also confiscated 660 pounds of suspected chemicals, including 490 pounds of melamine, he said. An additional 87 people were summoned for questioning and 28 people have been detained, according to Shijiazhuang Vice Mayor Zhang Meizhi.

One suspect, surnamed Su, told police that from February 2007 to July 2008 he bought 200 44-pound sacks of melamine \$29 each, and sold them all to milk suppliers, Shi told a news conference.

Zhang, whose predecessor has been detained, pledged that Sanlu would "turn pressure in motivation" to resolve the crisis properly.

Confusion over what's safe

Parents gathered outside Sanlu facilities in Shijiazhuang to get refunds for their purchases of tainted milk powder. The mood was calm but there was confusion as parents traded tips on what products they thought were safe.

A 30-year-old mother who gave only her surname Wang said her 1-year-old daughter seemed healthy but that she was still worried. The three major milk powder brands that she usually buys — Yili Industrial Group Co., Mengniu Dairy Co. and Sanlu — have all been recalled.

"Of course as a mother, I was really nervous," she said. "Now we have no idea what kind of milk to give the baby. They all have problems."

The widening crisis has raised questions about the effectiveness of tighter controls China promised after a series of food safety scares in recent years over contaminated seafood, toothpaste and ingredients for pet food.

Meanwhile, regulators in Hong Kong ordered the recall of milk products from a Chinese dairy after finding melamine in eight of 30 sample products tested.

The Hong Kong recall covers milk, yogurt, ice cream and all other products made by Yili Industrial Group Co. and distributed in Hong Kong, said Constance Chan, controller for the territory's Food Safety Center.

In addition to the recall in Hong Kong, Singapore authorities announced they were recalling an ice cream bar made by Shanghai Yili AB Foods after melamine was found in it.

Class Eight & Nine Rights of Defendant

US Constitution

Preamble ["We the people...."]

Article I [The Legislative Branch]

Article II [The Presidency]

Article III [The Judiciary]

Article IV [The States]

Article V [The Amendment Process]

Article VI [Legal Status of the Constitution]

Article VII [Ratification]

Signers

Amendments

Amendments

Amendment I [Religion, Speech, Press, Assembly, Petition (1791)]

Amendment II [Right to Bear Arms (1791)]

Amendment III [Quartering of Troops (1791)]

Amendment IV [Search and Seizure (1791)]

Amendment V [Grand Jury, Double Jeopardy, Self-Incrimination, Due Process (1791)]

Amendment VI [Criminal Prosecutions - Jury Trial, Right to Confront and to Counsel (1791)]

Amendment VII [Common Law Suits - Jury Trial (1791)]

Amendment VIII [Excess Bail or Fines, Cruel and Unusual Punishment (1791)]

Amendment IX [Non-Enumerated Rights (1791)]

Amendment X [Rights Reserved to States (1791)]

Amendment XI [Suits Against a State (1795)]

Amendment XII [Election of President and Vice-President (1804)]

Amendment XIII [Abolition of Slavery (1865)]

<u>Amendment XIV</u> [Privileges and Immunities, Due Process, Equal Protection, Apportionment of Representatives, Civil War Disqualification and Debt (1868)]

Amendment XV [Rights Not to Be Denied on Account of Race (1870)]

Amendment XVI [Income Tax (1913)]

Amendment XVII [Election of Senators (1913)

Amendment XVIII [Prohibition (1919)]

Amendment XIX [Women's Right to Vote (1920)

Amendment XX [Presidential Term and Succession (1933)]

Amendment XXI [Repeal of Prohibition (1933)]

Amendment XXII [Two Term Limit on President (1951)]

Amendment XXIII [Presidential Vote in D.C. (1961)]

Amendment XXIV [Poll Tax (1964)]

Amendment XXV [Presidential Succession (1967)]

Amendment XXVI [Right to Vote at Age 18 (1971)]

Amendment XXVII [Compensation of Members of Congress (1992)]

Rights of Defendant

A person's legal rights as an American are never more important than they are when he/she has been accused of a crime. Unfortunately, this is also the time when they are most often violated. From the time the police initiates contact with the accused until that person is either sentenced or let go, very specific laws and guidelines must be followed to ensure that individual rights are not violated. Because violations of a defendant's rights can have a serious impact on the outcome of a case, it is important that individuals who have been accused of a crime understand and fully invoke their legal rights.

Key Defendant's Rights

Defendant's have numerous legal rights, the most important of which include the following:

Defendant's right to remain silent – You have the right to not be forced to incriminate yourself.

Defendant's right to a jury trial – You have the right to a trial by a jury of 12 of your peers.

Defendant's right to a public trial – You have the right to have your trial witnessed by the public.

Defendant's right to not be tried for the same crime twice – You cannot be tried for the same crime twice.

Defendant's right to cross-examine witnesses – You have the right to question—face-to-face in most cases—any witness testifying against you.

Defendant's right to legal representation – You have the right to an attorney. If you cannot afford to hire your own lawyer, the state is required to provide you with legal representation at no charge.

Class Ten & Eleven US Presidential election

Elections for <u>President</u> and <u>Vice President</u> of the <u>United States</u> are <u>indirect elections</u> in which voters cast ballots for a slate of electors of the <u>U.S. Electoral College</u>, who in turn directly elect the President and Vice President. They occur <u>quadrennially</u> (the count beginning with the year 1792) on <u>Election Day</u>, the first Tuesday after the first Monday of November.[1] <u>The most recent election</u> occurred on November 4, 2008, with <u>the next one</u> scheduled for November 6, 2012.

The process is regulated by a combination of both <u>federal</u> and <u>state</u> laws. Each state is allocated a number of Electoral College electors equal to the number of its <u>Senators</u> and <u>Representatives</u> in the <u>U.S.</u> <u>Congress.[2]</u> Additionally, <u>Washington</u>, <u>D.C.</u> is given a number of electors equal to the number held by the smallest state.[3] U.S. territories are not represented in the Electoral College.

Under the <u>U.S. Constitution</u>, each <u>state legislature</u> is allowed to designate a method of choosing electors.[2] Thus, the popular vote on Election Day is conducted by the various states and not directly by the federal government. Once chosen, the electors can vote for anyone, but – with rare exceptions like an <u>unpledged elector</u> or <u>faithless elector</u> – they vote for their designated candidates and their votes are certified by <u>Congress</u> in early January. The <u>Congress</u> is the final judge of the electors; the last serious dispute was in <u>United States presidential election</u>, <u>2000</u>.

The nomination process, including the <u>primary elections</u> and the <u>nominating conventions</u>, were never specified in the Constitution, and were instead developed by the states and the <u>political parties</u>.

Contents

- 1 History
- 2 Nominating process
- 3 The popular vote on Election Day
- 4 Electoral college
- 5 Trends
- 6 Results
- 7 Voter turnout
- 8 Statistical forecasts
- 9 See also
- 10 Notes
- 11 External links

Class Fourteen & Fifteen 2008 US Presidential Election

The United States presidential election of 2008 was held on Tuesday, November 4, 2008. <u>Democrat Barack Obama</u>, the junior <u>United States Senator</u> from <u>Illinois</u>, won decisively, defeating <u>Republican Party nominee</u>, <u>John McCain</u>, the senior United States Senator from <u>Arizona</u>. <u>Incumbent</u> Republican President <u>George W. Bush</u>'s policies and McCain's support for them, in both foreign and domestic matters, were key issues throughout the campaign. <u>Domestic policy</u> and the economy eventually emerged as the main themes in the last few months of the election campaign, particularly after the onset of the <u>2008 economic crisis</u>. In naming Obama its 2008 "Person of the Year", Time magazine described his election as the result of "the steady march of seemingly impossible accomplishments".

It was the 56th consecutive <u>quadrennial United States</u> <u>presidential election</u>. The selected <u>electors</u> from each of the 50 <u>states</u> and the <u>District of Columbia</u> voted for <u>President</u> and <u>Vice President of the United States</u> on December 15, 2008. Those votes will be tallied before a <u>joint session of Congress</u> on January 8, 2009, thus making the projected electoral votes official, barring any <u>faithless electors</u>.

The 2008 election was the first time in U.S. history that an <u>African American</u> was elected president, and the first time a <u>Roman Catholic</u> was elected Vice President. It was also the first time two sitting senators ran against each other. In addition, 2008 was the first election since <u>1952</u> that neither the <u>incumbent</u> president nor the incumbent vice president was a candidate in the general election and the first time since the <u>1928 election</u> that neither sought his party's nomination for president. Voter turnout for the 2008 election was the highest in at least 40 years.

- 1 Background
- 2 Nominations
- o 2.1 Democratic nomination
- o 2.2 Republican nomination
- o 2.3 Party conventions
- 3 General election campaign
- o 3.1 Campaign Issues
- o 3.2 Presidential and vice-presidential debates
- o 3.3 Campaign costs
- 4 Election controversies
- o 4.1 Criticism of media coverage
- 5 Election results
- o 5.1 Election Day
- o 5.2 Grand total
- o 5.3 Popular vote
- o 5.4 Close states/districts
- 5.5 Voter demographics
- o 5.6 Ballot access
- o 5.7 Analysis
- 6 International reaction

- 7 Opinion polling
- 8 See also
- o 8.1 Other elections
- 9 References
- 10 External links

Brown v. Board of Education

Brown v. Board of Education was a group of five legal appeals that challenged the "separate but equal" basis for racial segregation in public schools in Kansas, Virginia (Dorothy Davis v. County School Board of Prince Edward), Delaware, South Carolina, and the District of Columbia. The appeals reached the Supreme Court about the same time, and because they all dealt with the same issues, the Court heard arguments on them together. Because the Kansas case arrived first, the combined appeal was known as Brown et al v. Board of Education of Topeka, Shawnee County, Kansas, et al. In each case, the legal office of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) represented the plaintiffs, and NAACP lawyers, such as Spottswood Robinson, Oliver Hill, and Thurgood Marshall, argued that the black students' rights had been violated under the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. In all five cases, inequality in curriculum, school structures, and transportation were the key issues.

The road to Brown

Plessy v. Ferguson: "separate but equal"

In 1892, Homer Plessy, an African American shoemaker, challenged the constitutionality of the Louisiana Separate Car Act, which required railroads to seat black and white passengers in separate cars. The case reached the United States Supreme Court in 1896, and a majority of the judges ruled that the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment did not prohibit racial segregation. The Court upheld the Louisiana law, stating that black and white passengers were treated equally, since white passengers were forbidden to ride in cars designated for blacks, just as blacks were forbidden to ride in cars designated for whites. Justice John Marshall Harlan dissented and attacked the reasoning behind the law, writing that "every one knows that the statute in question had its origin in the purpose, not so much to exclude white persons from railroad cars occupied by blacks, as to exclude colored people from coaches occupied by or assigned to white persons." The majority decision in the 1896 *Plessy v. Fergusons*erved as the organizing legal justification for racial segregation for more than 50 years. Segregation by custom (*de facto*) became segregation by law (*de jure*). With the support of the legal system, whites strictly determined where African Americans could live, eat, ride, and learn.

Challenges to Segregation

The cases collectively known as *Brown v. Board of Education* were part of a larger movement among African Americans to achieve equal rights under the law. For example, in 1946 Herman Marion Sweatt, an African American, was refused admission to the University of Texas Law School on the grounds that the state constitution required separate schools for whites and blacks. Sweatt sued, and when the case finally reached the U.S. Supreme Court, the justices ruled in 1950 that the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment required that he have access to an education equal to that afforded to white students. The Court stated that a separate law school for African Americans was inherently inferior and that Sweatt should be admitted to the University of Texas. Despite this legal victory, most schools for African Americans remained inferior to schools for whites, whether measured in terms of the

schools' structure, in curriculum and resources, or in teacher salary. Black schools were poorly constructed and overcrowded. Teacher salaries varied—in Virginia, a white teacher averaged \$1,510 in 1945 compared to just \$1,075 for a black teacher. Two years before *Brown*, black school property in Virginia was worth only \$384,798 compared to \$1,050,746 for whites. Court cases filed in the 1930s attempted to remedy the salary inequities.

Boycotts, sit-ins, and other forms of protests also began before the *Brown* decision. African Americans in several Southern cities, including Richmond in 1904, boycotted the recently segregated streetcar systems, only to be defeated. In the 1930s, Samuel Tucker, a young attorney who would later work on many Civil Rights cases, led an attempt to integrate the Alexandria library through civil disobedience. On the education front, Norfolk students protested Jim Crow in that city's educational system in 1939. The Brown decision augmented and accelerated such protests.

Barbara Johns, a courageous student at Robert Russa Moton High School in Farmville, the county seat of Prince Edward County, organized a protest first with student leaders against the school board for refusing to construct a new school for blacks. The board's only response to repeated calls for a new school was the construction of three "additions" to alleviate overcrowding. Dissatisfied, the student leaders called a strike on April 23, 1951 that kept almost 400 students out of school for two weeks. The Rev. L. Francis Griffin, chairman of Moton's Parent Teacher Association (PTA), asked NAACP attorneys and Richmond natives Oliver Hill and Spottswood W. Robinson III to visit Prince Edward County. Hill and Robinson told the students that they would assist them if their parents sued for the abolition of segregation instead of just for equal facilities. Not all parents were united behind the plan; some preferred working with the school board rather than confronting and antagonizing it. Still, the majority of parents threw their support behind the suit and on May 23, 1951, Robinson filed *Dorothy Davis v. County School Board of Prince Edward*. The case was later incorporated into *Brown*. For more on the Prince Edward case, visit the website of the Robert Russa Moton Museum.

Despite the U.S. Supreme Court ruling in 1954, Prince Edward County schools remained segregated as the state government tried every means to avoid desegregation. In 1959 the Prince Edward County Board of Supervisors refused to appropriate money for the schools to protest court rulings that the county had to desegregate. With all the schools closed, African American students either had to attend schools out of the county or to forgo their education altogether. White students could attend private schools that formed to avoid desegregation. The Reverend L. Francis Griffin, the local NAACP chapter president, arranged for some students to attend Kittrell Junior College in Henderson, North Carolina, and set up training centers for students who remained in Prince Edward County in an attempt to give the children limited instruction in reading and arithmetic. Not until 1964 did the Prince Edward County schools reopen, and then only after a court order. During the 2003 session, the General Assembly issued a resolution apologizing to Prince Edward County students who lost five years of education.

"If we can organize the Southern States for massive resistance to this order I think that in time the rest of the country will realize that racial integration is not going to be accepted in the South." With these words, Senator Harry Flood Byrd launched Massive Resistance, a deliberate campaign of delay and obfuscation. As head of the commonwealth's most powerful political organization, known as the "Byrd Machine," Byrd, a former governor (1926-1930), orchestrated Virginia's response to the *Brown* decision. Massive Resistance was intended to slow to a crawl attempts to integrate Virginia's schools generally and to minimize the effects of integration where it did occur.

Governor Thomas B. Stanley responds to the United States Supreme Court decision in Brown v. Board of Education on WRVA Radio, May 14, 1954 (2:38)

See the Library's exhibition <u>Radio in Virginia</u> for details on these recordings.

Although Stanley's message in this address was essentially "let's wait and see," he would soon espouse Byrd's all-out Massive Resistance.

The Initial Reaction: 1954-56

Agreeing with Senator Byrd, Governor Thomas Bahnson Stanley appointed a commission in August 1954 to determine possible options for defying the *Brown* decision. After meeting for more than a year, the Gray Commission, named for State Senator Garland Gray, proposed in November 1955,

- that laws concerning school attendance be amended so that no child would be required to attend an integrated school,
- that funds be allocated as tuition grants for parents who opposed schools comprised of white and black students, and
- that local school boards be authorized to assign white and African American students to particular schools.

This recommendation later became the statewide agency Pupil Placement Board that had the power to assign students to schools and approve requests for transfer.

In January 1956 white Virginians overwhelmingly supported a referendum to call a constitutional convention. After months of debates in the General Assembly, Governor Stanley ruled out control of anti-integration efforts at the local level and proposed to deny state appropriations to schools that integrated. Gray and the other commission members repudiated their report (which recommended what the Governor was proposing) and supported his plan. Massive Resistance became enshrined in the new state constitution. Virginians reacted to these decisions by petitioning and corresponding with Governor Stanley and local and state leaders.

Lester Banks, executive secretary of the Virginia NAACP, testifies at the General Assembly's hearing on public school integration carried on WRVA Radio, September 5, 1956 (1:10).

See the Library's exhibition Radio in Virginia for details on these recordings.

Interposition

Opponents of the Brown ruling and integration used the doctrine of interposition, which argued that the state could "interpose" between an unconstitutional federal mandate and local authorities based on State Sovereignty. The General Assembly adopted a resolution of interposition in 1956 that clearly defied the authority of the federal courts. James Jackson Kilpatrick, editor of the *Richmond News Leader*, vigorously criticized the court decisions to end segregation and was one of the leading public advocates of interposition.

1958-59: The "Little Rock" Bill and Continued Defiance

Alarmed at President Dwight D. Eisenhower's use of federal troops to enforce integration in Little Rock, Arkansas, and at the urging of Governor James Lindsay Almond (1958-1962), the General Assembly, in January 1958, strengthened the powers of the Massive Resistance laws, including the "Little Rock" bill (referring to the 1957 integration of Central High School by nine African American students in Little Rock, Arkansas) that authorized Almond to close any school that was under the protection of the federal troops. The commonwealth also rejected state funding to any school that proceeded to

integrate. Even the eventual ruling by the U.S. Supreme Court that Massive Resistance was unconstitutional drew a defiant response from Almond, although the state would eventually comply.

Governor J. Lindsay Almond responds to the court rulings that the Massive Resistance laws are unconstitutional on WRVA Radio, January 20, 1959 (3:10)

See the Library's exhibition Radio in Virginia for details on these recordings.

To close or not close

Armistead Lloyd Boothe, a delegate from Alexandria, was one moderate who repudiated Byrd and the policy of Massive Resistance. Boothe had long believed that the desegregation of schools and public facilities was inevitable, and he attempted to prepare Virginians for an easy transition by fostering equality in education, housing, employment, and health services. In 1950, Boothe and other moderates introduced legislation to desegregate public transportation in Virginia and to create a commission on race relations. Despite opposition from James Jackson Kilpatrick, editor of the *Richmond News Leader*, the moderates initially received support from the *Norfolk Virginian-Pilot*, the *Richmond Times-Dispatch*, and the *Roanoke World News*, as well as from two African American newspapers, the *Norfolk Journal and Guide* and the *Richmond Afro-American*. Boothe gathered an impressive variety of witnesses, including former Episcopal bishop Henry St. George Tucker and former governor Colgate Whitehead Darden Jr., to testify to the House of Delegates' Committee on Courts of Justice. Nevertheless, the moderates' bills died in committee.

The *Brown* decision offered the moderates another chance. In speeches in Norfolk and Richmond, Boothe proposed local autonomy in his "Virginia Plan for the Public Schools." Authority at the local level, Boothe argued, would permit some counties (mainly in Southside Virginia) to maintain segregated schools while other areas (in Northern Virginia) could move toward integration. He argued that local school boards were better able than the state to consider academic backgrounds and health requirements, as well as the personalities, practices, needs, and desires of individual children. Opponents of desegregation worried that allowing just a few African American students to attend white schools would lead to complete integration and even interracial marriage. African Americans voiced concern over how a student would be defined as "qualified" to attend a white school and who would determine that qualification. NAACP leaders particularly saw no need to compromise on *Brown* and urged blacks not to settle for anything less.

Ultimately, the failure of Massive Resistance resulted from a series of judicial rulings between November 1958 and April 1959 that supported *Brown* and from pressure from Virginians to preserve the state's public school system. On January 19, 1959 the Virginia Supreme Court and U.S. District Court for the Eastern District of Virginia both ruled that schools threatened with desegregation orders could not close to avoid desegregation. Governor Almond complied with the rulings, thus abandoning Massive Resistance.

The Brown decision and Virginia's implementation of Massive Resistance prompted many individual citizens and organizations to send letters and petitions to elected officials. Responses ranged from enthusiastic approval to bitter opposition. Below are a selection of these materials from the Library's archives as well as some documents from state government officials. The documents are arranged by region of the state. You can click on the links or simply scroll down the webpage. To read the document, please click on the image to the left.

Class Sixteen & Seventeen Financial crisis

The term financial crisis is applied broadly to a variety of situations in which some financial institutions or assets suddenly lose a large part of their value. In the 19th and early 20th centuries, many financial crises were associated with <u>banking panics</u>, and many <u>recessions</u> coincided with these panics. Other situations that are often called financial crises include <u>stock market crashes</u> and the bursting of other financial <u>bubbles</u>, <u>currency crises</u>, and <u>sovereign defaults</u>.

Many economists have offered theories about how financial crises develop and how they could be prevented. There is little consensus, however, and financial crises are still a regular occurrence around the world.

Contents

- 1 Types of financial crises
- o 1.1 Banking crises
- o 1.2 Speculative bubbles and crashes
- o 1.3 International financial crises
- 1.4 Wider economic crises
- 2 Causes and consequences of financial crises
- o 2.1 Strategic complementarities in financial markets
- o 2.2 Leverage
- o 2.3 Asset-liability mismatch
- o 2.4 Regulatory failures
- o 2.5 Fraud
- o 2.6 Œcopathy
- o 2.7 Contagion
- o 2.8 Recessionary effects
- 3 Theories of financial crises
- o 3.1 World systems theory
- o 3.2 Minsky's theory
- o 3.3 Coordination games
- 4 History
- 5 See also
- 6 Literature
- 7 References
- 8 External links

The Wall Street Financial Crisis

What It Means, And Why You Should Care

The past couple of weeks have been the climax of a longstanding recipe for disaster which boasted such ingredients as reckless greed, deregulation, toxic sub-prime loans, and a housing bubble.

The outcome?

A series of monumental bank and investment firm failures precipitated by a massive increase in foreclosures, panic in the global financial markets, and a staggering \$700 billion bailout proposal that was still being fine-tuned over the weekend in Washington.

How we arrived at what is being called the worst economic crisis since the Great Depression is a complicated matter, involving such things as adjustable rate mortgages, securitization, yield spread premiums and collateralized debt obligation. That's enough to bewilder anyone without a sound knowledge of economics.

It may also explain why polls have registered confusion on the part of the American public in regards to the proposed financial bailout package to buy \$700 billion worth of toxic mortgages from financial companies in an effort to stabilize the markets and the general economy. In an Associated Press-Knowledge Networks poll conducted last Thursday, only 30 percent of those surveyed supported the deal, 45 percent were opposed, and a surprising 25 percent were undecided.

The collapse of so many financial companies is the culmination of the subprime crisis, which came to light in 2006 and 2007 but was in reality brewing for quite some time. Up through the late 1970's, home mortgages were heavily regulated.

The Truth in Lending Act of 1968 and the Real Estate Settlement Procedures Act of 1974, for example, spelled out strict disclosure terms for lenders. This changed in the 80's when a series of deregulatory laws were passed by Congress to alleviate the troubles of the banking industry and real estate market generated by high interest rates generated by a rise in inflation.

These deregulations superceded state law, and paved the way for sub-prime lending. Around that time, securitization was created. A complex process which bundles, sells and repackages loans into bonds to be sold to investors allowed lenders to spread the risk and frees them from reliance on deposits and capital reserves, securitization was key to sub-prime lending because it diffused the potential of risks and default for lenders and removed rational incentives for prudent lending.

Investment banks also played a huge role n the process. Companies such as Lehman Brothers, Bear Stearns, Merrill Lynch, J.P. Morgan, Morgan Stanley, Citigroup, and Goldman Sachs (any of those ring a bell?) underwrote most of these sub-prime securitizations.

In a nutshell, sub-prime lending is the practice of loaning money for mortgages for consumers who are considered high risk due to factors such as low credit scores, income level and employment status. These loans often come with high adjustable interest rates. However, Dr. Engel explained, many consumers who signed on for sub-prime loans actually qualified for prime loans with preferable interest rates, but this information was not disclosed to them.

The lenders and brokers targeted people with low credit scores, obviously, but also those with little financial know-how. As a result, these loans were often made to the elderly, the lower-income, and those without college degrees, as well as minority groups such as Hispanics and blacks. For example, according to the NAACP, African Americans hold more than half of the subprime mortgage loans at risk of foreclosure. Lack of transparency and disclosure, as well as deceptive advertising which described the loans in complicated and misleading terms, were rampant.

"If you buy a used I-Pod, for example, you know what to expect in terms of the whole 'buyer-beware' concept. These mortgages, in contrast, were so complex that people couldn't parse what they were getting into," CSU Professor Dr. Engel explained.

Not all homeowners were innocent. Many misrepresented information on their mortgage applications, and people often made bad bets in hoping that they would be able to refinance on appreciated property value in a few years. However, the responsibility to conduct background checks and reject applicants ultimately lay with the lenders.

The government has also been unable to escape unscathed in the blame game. Government backed Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac dominated the mortgage underwriting. A tangled web of profit was described by former Dallas Federal Reserve Vice President Gerald P. O'Driscoll as such: "The politicians created the mortgage giants, which then returned some of the profits to the politicians - sometimes directly, as campaign funds; sometimes as "contributions" to favored constituents."

On April 18, 2006, home loan giant Freddie Mac was fined \$3.8 million, by far the largest amount ever assessed by the Federal Election Commission, as a result of illegal campaign contributions. Much of the illegal fund raising benefited members of the U.S. House Committee on Financial Services, a panel now front and center in the \$700 billion bailout package negotiations.

In 2006 and 2007, home prices began to decline as the housing bubble went bust, and refinancing a sub-prime loan became much more difficult. Defaults and foreclosures skyrocketed. During 2007, nearly 1.3 million U.S. housing properties were subject to foreclosure activity, up 79% from 2006. The sub-prime lending crisis, as it became known, heavily affected global financial markets, and during the summer the U.S. stock market entered bear territory.

The events of the past few weeks seem inevitable in retrospect, but the extent of the damage to the financial sector, and the rapid fashion in which these events occurred, has many shocked. Many are proclaiming the end of an era of unfettered capitalism and deregulation glorified by Milton Friedman, the economist hailed as the godfather of staunch free market ideology.

For students in particular, 'The Wall Street Financial Crisis' headline rings like some remote, ivory-tower phenomenon far from the world of term papers, exams, extracurricular activities, after-school jobs and general time-management struggles. However, as Dr. Engel pointed out, "Students, and young people in general, need to make sure they come of age in an economic environment that's going to protect them "

The financial meltdown affects many aspects of students' lives, no more so than in the category of student loans. For example, the recently collapsed Lehman Brothers was quite active in the college loan market and owned the loan company Campus Door. More than 70 companies have quit the college loan business since the start of 2008.

Congress approved through the 2010 school year a program that will allow students who rely on loans to continue their educations regardless of current difficulties in the private credit market, Wednesday Sept. 17 and Tues. Sept 16th. The bill now goes to President Bush for signature.

Tight credit markets also affect decisions like buying a car. In general, loans have the potential to become more difficult to receive, and more expensive.

It also affects the job market. As companies have less to invest, layoffs increase and the supply of jobs decreases.

Students who have followed the crisis are largely weary of the bailout package.

Senior Blake Almaguer, a political science major, said, "This is going to cost \$2,500 for every man, woman and child in the United States of America. Where are we going to find all this money?"

Senior James Westfall, also a political science major, said, "This was the ultimate triangle of greed and deception between banks, mortgage brokers and consumers." He described how he had bought a house in 2003 in a responsible way, arguing that irresponsible borrowers and lenders share the blame in the mess and shouldn't be rewarded.

Dr. Engel urged students to follow the crisis and to take a more active role in discussion. She also called for the revitalization of a movement for consumer rights and protection.

"For people like me, you know, my retirement is tucked away, I have tenure, I'm secure. They are the ones who need to worry about this. If I could snap my fingers and make the world different, one thing would definitely be that students understand that this is the financial world they are inheriting, and they should get mobilized."

Class Eighteen Final Exam

《英语文体学》教学大纲

张立新 编写

目 录

前 言	767
一、概述	767
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	767
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	767
Unit One Introduction of Stylistics	769
Unit Two Modern Stylistics	770
Unit Three: The Factors which influence the stylistic modes	772
Unit Four The Level of Lexis and Grammar	774
Unit Five : Syntax	775
Unit Six Semantics and Text Structure	778
Unit Seven Spoken English and Written English	780
Unit Eight Formal English and Informal English	782
Unit Nine Different Styles of English Discourse	
Unit Ten The Language of Scientific Prose or EST (English of science and technology)	788
Unit Eleven The Language of Literature	790
Unit Twelve The Language of Legal Document	

前言

一、概述

文体学是英语专业高年级选修课之一。本课程以高级英语中文体知识为基础,本着基础理论与 实践并重的原则,简明扼要介绍当代修辞与文体学的理论框架和语言分析方法;探讨不同语境和场 合所使用的得体英语。从基本理论以及易懂实用的角度为学生提供较为全面,系统,准确的英语文 体知识。熟悉了解英语修辞格以及有关英语文体学基础知识。提高英语阅读能力、文学欣赏水平和 英语写作能力。主要内容包括:英语修辞格和文学欣赏、英语文体学基础、英语论文写作入门、各 种文体及法律英语特点和写作。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

通过本课程的教学,拓宽学生的语言知识,提高其使用英语的实际能力,学会在不同语境 和场合使用恰当得体的英语;了解和掌握英语语言和言语的差别和运用;了解和掌握英语语域、各体英语的语言特征以及要实现的交际功能。

本课程宜安排学生在学完英语专业基础课程(特别是语言学基础理论)之后开设。课堂教学应力求理清基本概念并结合对语言现象的分析,鼓励学生积极参与问题的讨论,增强学生的语言分析技巧和鉴赏能力,力图使学生在学习本课程的过程中达到透过语言的外在形式揭示语言的内在功能——语用功能的目的。

- 1. 坚持科学发展观,用最新研究成果和前沿知识系统地进行该课程的教学.
- 2. 坚持理论联系实际的原则, 重实践, 重运用.
- 3. 正确理解文体学的基本知识、基本理论;提高学生在不同语境和场合使用恰当得体英语的能力。了解在特定的语境中语言是如何运用的。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程共36课时,分配如下;

Unit One: Introduction of Stylistics 4学时

- 1. What is stylistics?
- 2. Why should we study Stylistics?
- 3. The development of stylistics

Unit Two: Modern Stylistics 2 学时

1. Modern stylistics

Unit Three: The Factors Which Influence the Stylistic Modes 4 学时

- 1. What is language?
- 2. Varieties of language
- 3.Levels of Language

Unit Four: The Level of Lexis and Grammar 4 学时

- 1. Morphology and syntax
- 2. Varieties of vocabulary.
- 3. The meaning of words
- 2. Synonyms

- 3. Euphemism
- 4. Rhetoric methods by using of words.

Unit Five: Syntax 2 学时

1. Syntax

- 2. Varieties of sentences
- 3.Rhetorical methods of the syntax

Unit Six: Semantics and Text Structure 4 学时

1.Semantics

- 2.Cohesive devices (衔接手段)in the text:
- 3. Lexical methods
- 4.sentence groups and paragraphs

Unit Seven: Spoken English and Written English 4 学时

- 1. The chief difference of them lies in the following aspects:
- 2. Speech act, the Cooperative principle and Turn-taking

Unit Eight: Formal English and Informal English 2学时

- 1. Five styles
- 2. Linguistic markers indicating formality and informality

Unit Nine: Different Styles of English Discourse 4 学时

- 1. The language of Advertisement
- 2. the language of news-reporting (Journalistic English)

Clippings

Unit Ten: The Language of Scientific Prose or EST (English of science and technology) 2 学时

1. The Features of EST

Unit Eleven: The Language of Literature 2 学时

- 1. The Language of Poetry
- 3. the language of prose

Unit Twelve: The Language of Legal Document 2 学时

- 1. at the graphetic/ graphological level
- 2. at the lexical level
- 3. at the syntactic level

Unit One Introduction of Stylistics

1. What is stylistics?

Simply defined, stylistics is a discipline that studies the ways in which language is used, it is a discipline that studies the styles of language in use. It studies the stylistic features of the main varieties of language, covering the functional varieties from the dimension of fields of discourse, formal vs. written varieties from the dimension of modes of discourse. It covers the various genres of literature in its study. And it focuses on the interpretation of the overall characteristics of respective genres, with selected extracts of literary texts as samples.

2. Why should we study Stylistics?

1). Stylistic study helps cultivate a sense of appropriateness

People have to respond to a given situation with an appropriate variety of language, and as they move through the day, they change the type of language they are using with the changing situation. Only in this way can they communicate on a range of subjects, with persons in various walks of life, and gain their understanding as well as understand them.

It is just like one's way of dressing.

- 2) Stylistics study sharpens the understanding and appreciation of literary works.
- 3). Stylistic study helps achieve adaptation in translation
- 3. The development of stylistics
- 4) Earlier stylistics—— literary rhetoric

What is rhetoric?

Figures of speech (修辞) are ways of making our language figurative. When we use words in other than their ordinary or literal sense to lend force to an idea, to heighten effect, or to create suggestive imagery, we are said to be speaking or writing figuratively. Now we are going to talk about some common forms of figures of speech.

Unit Two Modern Stylistics

1. Modern stylistics

Modern stylistics, in general, draws much of its analytical power from the analytical methods and descriptive intentions of linguistics, while modern literary stylistics, in particular, draws upon that area and adds to it the interpretive goals of modern literary criticism. In both cases, the use of linguistic methodology has allowed stylistics to move beyond earlier normative(标准化) and prescriptive(说明性) descriptions of "correct" styles to a fuller analysis of language itself and the purposes to which language regularly is put.

Whatever the limits of previous approaches to style, or the difficulties that have arisen from the practical application of linguistic methods to stylistic analysis, the desire to begin with a set of well-defined terms and procedures lies at the core of the initial formation of stylistics as a discipline. While all versions of literary stylistics have dedicated themselves to the study and interpretation of literary texts, it was the growing importance of European historical linguistics during the mid-nineteenth century that produced the most easily recognized component of early modern stylistics: a deeply rooted concern with formal linguistic description of literary language. The methodological benefits that stylistics gained by uniting literary interpretation and linguistic analysis were matched by institutional gains as well. Historical and general linguistics were well-established academic disciplines at the turn of the twentieth century, and stylistics could expect to benefit from that status. The use of linguistic procedures thus offered stylistics both an affinity (亲合力) with an established discipline and the possibility of founding the description and interpretation of style upon the bedrock (基础) of science.

2. Influences of New theories

Literary Structuralism, New Criticism, transformational-generative grammar

Such work in stylistics reflected a larger trend occurring within literary criticism as a whole during this period. Riffaterre's particular interest in a systematic, formal description of literary style mirrored a growing awareness among literary critics in general of the possibilities provided to literary study by trends and theories available from formal linguistic study. The discovery of linguistic work by Ferdinand de Saussure (索绪尔), Roman Jakobson (雅客布森), and structural linguistic theory in general all formed part of the rapid flowering of critical work closely related to, if not directly based upon, particular methods of linguistic analysis. It was not a link between literary stylistics and structural linguistic analysis that marked the real establishment of stylistics as a discipline within the United States, however. It was the transformational-generative grammar (转换生成语法) of Noam Chomsky (Syntactic Structures, 1957) that signaled the arrival of stylistics as a discipline with independent, self-defined goals, if not yet a real autonomy from either linguistic or literary-critical approaches to language analysis.

The rapidly established importance of Chomsky's linguistics within his own discipline provided a strong argument for the importance of transformational-generative grammar within literary stylistics as well. But beneath that academic, institutional cause lay particular features of the theory that explain further the explosion of stylistic work using transformational-generative grammar. The grammar's focus on syntax, its distinction between deep and surface structures, and the resulting dynamism in its descriptive procedures all contributed to a methodology that allowed for a much wider discussion of the

possible forms (and by implication styles) available to the user of language. At the same time, the declared mentalism (心灵主义) of Chomsky's grammar was seen by many as providing literary stylistics with a means of uniting a still lingering Romantic sense of creativity with the formal linguistic description needed to provide the analysis with a now-requisite (必须) air of scientific study. Many critics found not only an implied linkage between language and mind within Chomsky's grammar but an actual justification for tying intention to structure. Whichever aspect of Chomsky's grammar provided the impetus for a particular study, the general influence was huge, and the numerous studies that appeared during the years 1965-75 testify to the boost that Chomsky's thinking on language gave to the era, one of the most hectic (兴奋的) and dramatic in the formation and growth of stylistics.

Unit Three: The Factors which influence the stylistic modes

1. What is language?

There are many definitions of language, or many ways of looking at it. Modern linguistics in 1906-11 regards language as a system of signs. Others regards language as a unified structure, a collection of habits. Noam Chomsky concerned with the innate and infinite capacity of the human mind. The approach advocated by the systematic-functional linguists headed by M.A.K.Halliday sees language as a "social semiotic(记号语言)", as an instrument used to perform various functions in social interaction. This approach holds that in many crucial respects, language is a social activity.

2. Varieties of language

Two kinds of varieties

Dialectal Varieties (方言变体), commonly called DISLECTS, are language variations that are associated with different users of the language. As users in a society can be defined in terms of their range of intelligibility, so there are individual, temporal, regional, social and standard varieties respectively. These are relatively permanent features of the language user in a speech event.

Diatypic Varieties (语域变体), commonly called REGISTERS, are language variations that are associated with the different use to which they are put. Such varieties do not depend on the people who use the language, but on the occasion when it is used. Different types of language are selected as appropriate to different types of occasion. The choice is determined by the convention that a certain kind of language is appropriate to a certain use.

3. Levels of Language

Language is transmitted, patterned, and embedded in the human social experience. So it is possible and useful to discern three crucial aspects of a speech event-the substantial, the formal, and the situational.

The sound of a language is a unique way for people to communicate. It is the basis of the language system. Sound exists in almost all the activities including communicating, expressing one's emotions, transferring information, and writing. Phonetic features influence the style of the language in many ways, for example: stress, intonation, rhythm, loudness, pause, tempo etc. These stylistic markers can not be expressed by words. William Hazlitt had written in the 19th century:

To write a genuine familiar or truly English style is to write as one would speak in common conversation....Or, to give another illustration, to write naturally is the same thing in regard to common speech...You are tired down to a given and appropriate articulation, which is determined by the habitual association between sense and sound, and which you can only hit by entering into the author's meaning, as you must find the proper words and style to express yourself by fixing your thoughts on the subject you have to write about.

William Hazlitt, On Familiar Style

The above paragraph shows that sound and words had a close links with contents. Sound is a very important element in determining the quality of the passage.

The stress

A English word is composed of syllables. A general formula of syllable is like this: C⁰⁻³VC⁰⁻⁴

(C=Consonant; V=Vowel).

A syllable is divided into stress and nonstress, and together they form the "time"(节拍). In English, both the individual words and the sentences have stresses. As the stylistic markers, they have the following functions:

a. to stress a certain meaning of the word or sentence.

Eg. He is an 'English teacher.

He is an English 'teacher.

The first sentence means: "他是一位教英语的老师。" while the second sentence means that "他是一位英国藉教师"。The differences of the stresses of sentences make quite different meanings.

Unit Four The Level of Lexis and Grammar

1.Morphology and syntax

Grammar is the central part of a linguistic statement. It studies the structure of units called sentences in a language, and the way these function in sequences. Traditionally grammar is divided into Morphology which studies the internal structured of words and of the rules governing their formation. And syntax which studies their external relationships in a sentence.

Lexicology: Lexicology studies the choice of specific lexical items (units of vocabulary) in a text, their distribution in relation to one another, and their meanings.

2. Varieties of vocabulary.

- A. colloquialism and literary words
- B. Slang
- C. Archaism
- D. Neologism
- E. Professionalism and technical words
- F. Jargon

Unit Five : Syntax

I. Syntax

Syntax is a very important stylistic marker. Different styles of writing usually have great difference in syntax. So it is very important to choose a suitable syntax structure.

II. Varieties of sentences

A. simple sentence

A simple sentence is simple in structure. Usually it consists of a noun phrase, a verb phrase and an optional third element(x).

NP....VP...X.

Simple sentences are direct, simple, brief, easy to understand. It is usually used in ads. proverbs, slogans, and idioms.

People think I am foolish, and Ignorant, but I'm not. I listen. I hear. I see. I think. I read. I walk alone by myself. (Taylor Caldwell, Testimony of Two Men)

B. the elliptical sentence (省略句)

The elliptical sentences omits the information that is known to all, and it can give prominence to the what is important, and attract people's attention. So it is often used in telegraphs, proverbs, news reports, and literary works.

No pains, no gains.
Have you people got a car?
yes.
what sort of car?
Daimler
How many horse power?
Fifteen.

No, no like that. A barren land, bare waste Volcanic lake, the dead seal; no fish, weedless, sunk deep in the earth. No wind would lift those waves, grey metal, poisonous foggy waters. Barimstone they called it raining down; the cities of the plain; Sodom. Gomorrah, Edom. All dead names.

James Joyce Ulysses

C. the compound sentence (并列句)

the compound sentences are joined together with the words like "and , but ,or". Compound sentences can give people a sense of balance. It is often used in spoken languages.

I came, I saw, I conquered.

(Julius Caesar)

It was raining but I picked up my coat and put it on.

D. the complex sentence (复合句)

A complex sentence has one main clause and one or several subordinate clauses. It can express very complex ideas and is often used in very formal writing.

To take a dislike to a young man, only because he appeared to be of a different disposition from

himself, was unworthy of the real liberality of mind which she was always used to acknowledge in him; for with all the high opinion of himself, which she had often laid to his charge, she had never before for a moment supposed it could make him unjust to the merit of another.

Jane Austen, Emma

The great question that has never been answered, and which I have not yet been able to answer despite my thirty years of research into the feminine soul, is this 'what does a woman want?" Sigmund Freud

Almost as soon as I entered the house I singled you out as the companion of my future life. But before I am run away by my feelings on this subject, perhaps it will be advisable for me to state my reasons for marring –and moreover for coming into Herfordshire with the desire of selecting a wife, as I certainly did.

Jane Austin, Pride and Prejudice

E. Question(Interrogatives)

Questions are a very common way of rhetoric methods. Some of the questions need not be answered. That is called the rhetorical questions.

Is it raining?

Did this in Caesar seem ambitious?

W. Shakespeare

(This in Caesar did not seem ambitious)

...What is that bird? I ask, in an effort to divert this so well-meaning young woman. "Look, The new moon! These observations are regarded as frivolous, for there is work to be done, there are categories to be redefined, laws to be changed. And underneath it all I sense a bewilderment which I in fact share. Will we be loved, well we be saved? And if so, by what or by whom?

Anita Brookner, A Family Romance.

F. Inverted sentences.

Sentences with inverted order are used to stress the parts which are inverted.

Here at last was a man who knew his own mind.

J.L.Motley, The Rise of the Dutch Repulic.

There, smoking his pipe in the old place by the kitchen firelight, as hale(强壮) and as strong as ever, though a little grey, sat Joe; and there, fenced into the corner with Joe's leg, and sitting on my own little stool looking at the fire, was ---I again!

Charles Dickens Great Expectations

G. Periodic sentence (圆周句, 掉尾句)

Periodic sentences usually put the nucleus of the sentence at the end to show a kind of emphasis. It is so called end-weight sentence, which is often used in formal language.

To believe your own thought, to believe that what is true for you in your private heart is true for all men---that is genius.

(Ralph Waldo Emerson)

III. Rhetorical methods of the syntax

1. parallelism (排比)

Parallelism refers to the rhetorical methods to put several sentences similar in structure, meaning, and mood at the equal position.

Eg.Reading maketh a full man; conference a ready man; and writing an exact man... To spend too much time in studies is sloth; to use them too much for ornament is affectation; to make judgment wholly by their rules, is the humour of a scholar.

(Francis Bacon, Of Studies)

Eg. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion; that we here highly resolved that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under god, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

A. Lincoln Gettysburg Address

2. antithesis (对偶)

Antithesis refers to the rhetorical methods to put two sentences which are similar in structure, number of words, but opposite in meaning at the equal position.

E.g. To err is human, to forgive, divine. Pope

It is the best of the times, its was the worst of times; it was the age of wisdom, it was the age of foolishness; it was the epoch of belief, it was the epoch of incredulity; it was the spring of hope, it was the winter of despair; we have everything before us, we had nothing before us; we were all going direct to Heaven, we were all going direct the other way. Charles Dicken A Tale of Two Cities

Ask not what your country can do for you---ask what you can do for your country.

John F. Kennedy

Unit Six Semantics and Text Structure

1.Semantics

Semantics studies the overall meaning of a text, the meaning derived not from the formal properties of words and structures but from the way sentences and utterances are used and the way they are related to the context in which they are used/uttered.

In the above chapters, we have discussed the stylistic questions of phonetics, vocabulary and syntax. As we know, sentence is a grammatical unit for us to analyze, not a ideal unit for linguistic study. In the actual intercourse, texts or discourse is the most basic unit of linguistic study. A text can be either long or short; it can be a word, a phrase, a sentence or several sentences.

In the book Cohesion in English by Halliday and Hasan, the characteristics of the text is fully discussed: A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or a sentence; and it is not defined by its size. ... A text is not something that is like a sentence, only bigger; it is something that differs from a sentence in kind. ...a unit not of form but of meaning. Thus it is related to a clause or sentence not by size but by realization, the coding of one symbolic system on another. A text does not consist of sentences; it is realized by , or encoded in ,sentences. A text must be coherent, must have certain mode or pattern and cohesive device.

2.Cohesive devices (衔接手段)in the text:

Cohesion (衔接)is the formal, linguistic means that texts have for showing that they have structure beyond that of the clause. Cohesive devices include pronouns, repetition, ellipsis, coordination, subordination, etc.

Because (1) it was raining, I picked up my (2) coat and (3) put it (4) on. I (5) went to the door, and (3) after (6) I (5) opened it (4) (7) went outside.

- (1) subordination conjunction
- (2) varied reference to first person
- (3) coordination conjunction
- (4) pronoun replacement
- (5) repetition of pronoun
- (6) subordinating conjunction
- (7) ellipted (省略) pronoun

The coherence(连贯) of the above passage lies in less formal links, such as the logical connections between rain and coat-wearing, doors and opening them. The passage also coheres in that it conforms to our notions of what a first person narrative should be like: tense is consistent, and the series of actions presented is both logical in terms of cause and effect and temporal order.

Note the passage can have cohesion without coherence:

Because I opened the door I went to it. It was raining. I put my coat on. I picked it up. I went outside.

And coherence without forma markers of cohesion:

Rain. I put my coat on. Outside the air tasted fresh.

3. Grammatical methods

A. The phrases and sentences can be linked together by the changes of the tense and style of the

verbs.

- 1). The boy stopped running. He saw his mother.
- 2). The boy stopped running. He had seen his mother.

In the sentence 1) we can see the order of the happening of the two events. And the 2) we not only see the order but a relation of cause and effect.

B. reference (照应手段)

Reference refers to the relation between the words and the object it represents. Two sentences can be linked by this relation. Reference can be personal(人称), demonstrative (指示), and comparative (比较).

Personal reference is realized by the various forms of personal pronouns like I, me, you, we, us, he, him, she, they, it, one, mine, my, yours, your, ours, our, his, hers, theirs, its, one's etc.

A I

- 1). John has moved to a new house. 4). He had built it last year.
- 2). John's house is beautiful. 5). His wife must be delighted with it.
- 3). That new house is John's 6). I didn't know it was his.

Demonstrative reference is realized by demonstrative pronouns like this/these, that/those, and adverbs of time and place.

For example. Do you know want to know the woman who designed it?

Unit Seven Spoken English and Written English

Generally speaking, people use two ways to communicate eg. Spoken English and Written English. But that does not mean that Spoken English refers only to that which is spoken and Written English only refers to that which is written. Sometimes, writing can be speech-like and Speech can be written like. For example, when a professor is lecturing, he takes the form of spoken English, but he may speak in an obvious academic style. Likewise, the ads in the magazine is spoken in style, hut it is sent to the receiver in a written form.

1. Speech act, the Cooperative principle and Turn-taking

- 1). Speech act
- 2). Cooperative principle

That means in a dialogue situation, the addresser talks in such a way as to invite the active participation of the addressee.

a. the maxim of quantity

Make your contribution as informative as is required. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

b. the maxim of quality

Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence or which you believe to be false.

c. the maxim of relevance (关联)

Make your contribution relevant to the purpose in hand.

d. The Maxim of manner

Avoid obscurity, ambiguity and unnecessary prolixity, and be orderly.

But in daily dialogue, these maxims are often violated. In the end, there will be conversational implicature (会话含义)。

In the case of written English, communication is limited to the visual channel alone. On the one hand, written language is characterized by graphlogical features such as the use of paragraphing, spacing, capitalization, different sizes and shapes of type, quotation marks, italics and other kind of eye-catching devices, which have no analogy in spontaneous speech. On the other hand, it is impossible in writing to exploit features of speech such as voice quality, pronunciation, intonation, stress, rhythm and tempo, or to make use of situational, facial and other paralinguistic clues to indicate how the message is to be taken. More over, the writer has often to presume that his reader shares little or no knowledge, therefore, a far greater explicitness is requited in writing. So the writer has to make absolutely clear what he wants to say through careful planning and revision.

2. Vocabulary

In spontaneous speech, the native speaker of English rely on simple plain words for everyday use, vogue words(时髦词),clichés, and current slang. Just as A.G. Gardiner puts it, "We carry big words in our head for the expression of our ideas and short words in our heart for the expression of our emotions." And he warns us "not to lard one's common speech or everyday letters with long words".

For example:

Jane is a sweet little thing. (colloquialism)

We've been pals for years. (vogue words)

I've walked so much today my dogs(=feet) are really killing me. (slang).

3. Fluency

In spontaneous speech the speaker has little or no time for planning or revising his utterances. So his speech will be broken up by features of normal non-fluency.

a. Hesitation pauses

Normal hesitation pauses are involuntary to a large extent, occurring where the speaker is searching for the right word or expression. They maybe silent or filled. Hesitation pauses are often filled with empty fillers like "er", "um," "yes", "I think", "well" etc.

Silent pauses are also called emotional pauses, a stylistic feature often used in public speech and in ceremonial introduction.

There are 18 dashes in Kennedy's Inauguration Address. Eg. "This much we pledge---and more".

b. False starts or slip of tongue

False starts often result in ungrammatical sequences of words.

c. Repetition

Repetition gives the speaker time to form his ideas, rearrange his thoughts, or choose proper words and phrases for their expression.

In writing, features of non-fluency are usually removed or avoided because writers have enough time to plan and revise his language. As a result, written language appears neat, smooth, and fluent. But, in the fictional dialog, a writer introduces these features into his woks purposely.

According to Leech, politeness principle includes the following:

1). Tact Maxim (策略准则)

Try to let the others lose less.

2). Generosity Maxim (慷慨准则)

Try to let others benefit more.

3).Approbation Maxim (赞誉准则)

Try to praise the others as much as possible.

4).Modesty Maxim (谦虚准则)

Try to depreciate oneself

5).Agreement Maxim (赞同准则)

Try to show agreement to others

6). Sympathy Maxim (同情准则)

Try to show sympathy to others.

Unit Eight Formal English and Informal English

1. Five styles

When people communicate by spoken and written English, they will pay attention to the place of communication. According to the place of the communication, English is divided into Formal and Informal English. Different places of communication require different styles of English. Usually, at serious, formal, and public occasions, formal English is required, and at loose, casual, informal occasions, informal English is required. The role relationship, the number of hearers, and the context of situation determine the degree of formality and informality. Formality of language is primarily found in official documents, legal papers, regulations, technical literature, thesis papers, business letters, ceremonial public speeches etc. Informal English is found typically in private conversations or in personal letters, in advertisements, and popular newspapers and magazines.

Martin Joos in A practical Guide to the Teaching of English proposes the following formality-informality scale called "five styles" or "five clocks": intimate—casual—consultative—formal—frozen.

1).Intimate: used between family members and very close friends who shared the majority of their daily life experience. So there is no need to supply any background information. Intimate languages is characteristically inexplicit; so utterances need not be complete sentences and structure will tend to be simple, vague words such as "nice", and "thing" maybe used, and pronunciation will tend to be relaxed. Use of slang, colloquialisms, cryptic allusions of various kinds is also characteristic of intimate language. So conversation of this kind may be menaningless of outsiders. E.g.

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"Ready?"
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2). Casual: used between friends, acquaintances and insiders, marked by ellipsis and colloquialism, e.g.

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"Sure, I can."
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3). Consultative(商洽性): a norm for coming to terms with strangers, marked by its syntactic completeness and features of politeness, e.g.

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"May I help you?"
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"My wife seems to be getting a little tired, and so if you wouldn't mind, I think we'll take our leave of you".

4). Formal: used on formal occasions, marked by its formal wording and syntactic complexity, e.g. Overtime employments are not available for employees who are non-resident.

5)Frozen: only fit for print, for declamation and for people who are to remain social strangers, marked by its use of extremely big words and solemn expressions, and by its extremely complex syntax and by its total avoidance of personal flavor.

Examples of the above five categories.

[&]quot;Cold?"

[&]quot;Engh."

[&]quot;Friend of mine."

[&]quot;Been a good thing if..."

- a. out! (intimate)
- b. Run along, now. (casual)
- c. Would you mind leaving the room a moment, please? (consultative)
- d. The audience is requested to kindly leave the room for a few moments. (formal)
- e. The management respectfully requests the conferees to vacate the auditorium between sessions in order to facilitate the operation of the custodial staff. (frozen)

Quirk et al in "A Grammar of Contemporary English set their scale in a comparative manner:

Stiff—relaxed, formal—in formal, cold—warm, impersonal—friendly

2. Linguistic markers indicating formality and informality

Unit Nine Different Styles of English Discourse

1. The language of Advertisement

1).. Kinds of Advertisement

Advertising is a product of commercialism. Now we have all kinds of advertisements at all places. The word advertise comes from the Latin word advertere, meaning "to turn one's attention to". Advertisement can be divided into Consumer Advertising, Industrial Advertising, Trade Advertising, Financial Advertising, Service Advertising, Retail Advertising, etc. From the media of advertising, advertising can be divided into Newspaper Advertising, Magazine Advertising, TV Advertising, Radio Advertising, Direct Mail Advertising, Outdoor Advertising(posters, neon signs, billboards), Transportation Advertising, Point-of-purchase Advertising(销售现场), Telex Advertising, Internet Advertising etc.

The aim of Advertising is quite specific. According to Lund, the task of the adman is: a. to attract attention, b. to arouse interest, c. to stimulate desire, d. to create conviction(令人信服), e. to get action(敦促行动). The Association of National Advertising(美国广告协会) summarized the aim of the advertisement as ACCA, e.g. awareness, comprehension, conviction, action.

2). the language of advertisement

The language of advertisement belongs to loaded language (鼓动性语言), it has great persuasive power. And it has its special linguistic features.

- 1). At the phonetic/phonological level
- a. Alliteration

Alliteration is the repetition of the initial consonant. It is one of the favorite phonological devices used in advertisement.

e.g. Players please. (players cigarette)

Crookes, the cleanest cleaners.

The wonderful watches by Waterman.

b. Rhyme & rhythm

Their use can enhance the poetic function of advertisement.

e.g. Go well, go shell. (shell oil)

You'll wonder where the dirt has went

When you clean your teeth with Pepsydent. (Pepsydent toothpaste)

c. Onomatopoeia

New Purr has a special offer to keep your cat smiling.(Purr—cat's food)

- 2). At the graphitic/ graphological level
- a. use of typographic means and visual aids

Different letter types, sizes, colors and visual aids are always used to create sharp typographic contrasts.

b. Bizarre spellings

To create novelty so as to arouse curiosity of the target audience, adman often resort to new, sometimes even bizarre spellings:

Foncard (phone card) Sunsitive (sun+ sensitive)

- 3). At the lexical level
- a. use of positive emotive adjectives

Positive emotive adjectives are often used in advertisement such as "good, new, free, fresh, delicious, real, beautiful, fabulous, wonderful, superb, true, super, rich, great, special, big, jumbo, large, lovely, silky, gentle, delicate, tender "etc.

b. use of monosyllabic verbs

Monosyllabic verbs like "buy, come, ask ,go, get, give, save, need, like, love, know, look, use, keep, choose, feel, start, taste etc." are often used.

- c. use of "all, every, always, no, never, nothing, none, no etc."
- e.g. Everyone Loves Hartley's jam.

Nothing acts faster than Anadin. (pain relief)

d. use of neologisms

Neologisms are one of the most striking lexical features in advertising.

Kleenex (clean+ excellent)

Orangemostest (orange+most+est)

Shinging-clean

Fast-foaming

Twogether -together

e. use of affixes

The most often used affixes are "super, ex",etc. e.g. Kleenex (一种柔软薄纸), Purex(一种漂白剂), Rolex (一种手表), etc.

- f. use of compounds
- e.g. top-quality, economy-size, chocolate-flavored, feather-light, brand-new etc.
- 4). At the syntactic level
- a. use of short simple sentences
- e.g. See what's New for You.

Now! now !now!

Time to replace your Windows.

b. use of questions.

Is your Office Still in the Carbon Age?

Is her skin really so beautiful?

c. use of imperative sentences

Imperative sentences are often used to urge the target audience to buy the products. E.g.

For more of America, look to us.

Let color go to your hair.

d. use of simple present tense

Simple present tense is used to satisfy the customer's desire to know the present state of the product he wants to buy. It also has a implication of universality and timelessness. E.g.

A diamond is forever.

Mr. Kipling makes exceedingly good cakes.

2. the language of news-reporting (Journalistic English)

Journalistic English refers to the English used in newspapers, tv, and radios. It mainly performs two functions: to give information, and to reflect, shape and sway public opinion. Journalistic English covers a great varieties of different types, here we mainly focus on the stylistic features of news-reporting of the newspapers.

A. at the graphetic/ graphological level

headlines

Headlines are given graphetic prominence for eye-catching effect. Headlines can be long and short, there are banners and streamers(通栏标题), one -column-one-line head(单拦单行标题), two-column-two-line-head (双拦双行标题).

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The most commonly used graphological methods are: the flush-left head (左对齐式)
e.g. Stock wobbles
give cause ofr
some reflection
                      (Sunday Morning Post, Nov.18.1998)
the keyline; the crossline (单行式)
'Lucky' diver escapes jaws of death
(Sunday Morning Post, Nov.12.1998)
the centred head (中心式)
A better way of
choosing
a nation's chief
(Financial Times Weekend, Feb. 24, 1996)
```

Besides, there are theindented head or dropline head(逐行缩进), the inverted pyramid form (倒金字 塔式), and streamer or banner head. The word of the headline is vivid, simple, short. So initials (缩写 词),acronyms (首字母拼音词) are used.

The paragraphs

The paragraphs of the news-reporting is short, each of the paragraphs consisting of one or two sentences.

Besides, dashes are also often used in news-reporting.

В. at the lexical level

```
In news-reporting, journalistic words which are not used in other styles of language are used.
use of clichés and set phrases
e.g. He is quoted as saying...
... are reportedly ...
have been reported...
...according to official source...
...it is dramatically announced...
...allegedly by...
```

e.g. ace(得胜者), allege (扬言), bid (试图), flay (批评), plea (求助), poll (民意测验), rebuke (抨击),rout (挫败),summit talk(高层会谈),mart (市场) etc.

use of Neologisms

use of special journalistic words

e.g. Monicagate (Monica Lewinsky), the carrot-and-stick policy,

foot-and-mouth outbreak (口蹄疫),on-the-spot, go-with-the-stream attitude, computernik(电脑迷), peacenik, bike-in, paparazzo (狗仔队),technocrat (技术官僚), unipolar(单级),kickoff, showdown, bachelor mother (单身母亲), think tank (智囊团), visual pollution (视觉污染)etc.

use of initials, acronyms, clippings and blendings.

<u>initials</u>

F.D.R.—Franklin Delano Roosevelt

acronyms

SALT—strategic arms limitation talks

WTO—World Trade Organization

UNESCO—THE United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

Unit Ten The Language of Scientific Prose or EST (English of science and technology)

1. The Features of EST

EST is a special functional variety as the development of science and technology. In the study of science and technology, scientists and technologists have developed a special variety of language distinct from all other varieties. EST covers all about the articles, papers, experiment reports, patents, specifications and illustrations of social science and science of nature.

EST serves primarily the referential function –passing information. The first basic requirement is objectivity. Scientists and technologists are only interested in matters and processes, in properties and changes, n natural phenomena and scientific laws. They are always defining, classifying, exemplifying, proving and contrasting things. All their observations and conclusions have to be based on hard facts. They are trained to be objective. So they have to assume an impersonal objective attitude and make impersonal objective statements. Their objective attitude is naturally reflected in the language they use either in writing and speaking.

Another basic requirement is clarity and accuracy in expression. Clarity and accuracy are a "must", there is no need to make their subject interesting or exciting.

The third requirement is formality in style. Scientists and technologists work on serious scientific matters. So their style of writing or speaking should be formal—a proper reflection of the field of discourse and tenor of discourse.

2. Some important linguistic features of EST

- 1). At the graphic/ graph logical level
- i. text layout

The brochure's lettering in different sizes and fonts and even in colors help to reveal the text layout through visual contrast.

The section title employs special upper-case letters in an eye-catching effect.

The opening paragraph which contains the thematic statement usually is printed in bold-faced lower-case letters for emphasis.

Headings and subheadings are heavy bold-faced or bold-faced letters to show the hierarchy of the text layout.

- b. Sometimes, an emphatic marker \square is placed in front of each important item .
- c.Graphic illustration (visual presentation) including photographs, drawing, charts and tables are often used. The graphs commonly used are: line graphs (曲线图表) (to show the continuity and direction), bar graphs/chart (条形图表), pie diagrams/chart (圆形分析图), tables (一览表), line drawings (线条图).
 - 2). At the lexical level

The vocabulary of EST is special. It can be classified into three broad types:

- a. highly specialized technical terms
- e.g. Close to the junction of the superior vena cava with the right atrium is a mass of small, basic-staining and spindle-shaped cells called the sinoatrial node. Experiment shows that it si in these

cells that the normal heart-beat originates. If they send out contraction waves with a slow rhythm the heart-beat is slow. If they send out contraction waves with a fast rhythm the heart-beat is fast. Consequently, this node is called the peacemaker of the heart. (Bainbridge & Menzies, Essentials of Physiology)

The above paragraph is full of specialized terms.

Some of the special technical terms are internationally used, they are only spelled and pronounced differently.

English	French	German
Electrolysis 电解	electrolyse	Elektrolse
Acetylene 乙炔	acelylene	Azetylen
Condenser 电容器	condensateur	Kondensator
Magnesium 镁	magnesium	Magnesium
Pancreas 胰腺	pancreas	Pankreas

In law, the special technical terms include: affidavit(宣誓书), alias(化名), alibi(犯罪现场), estoppel(禁止反言)etc.

b. semi-technical terms

They refer to those words whose use is not confined to scientific and technological contexts, they can also be used in daily life, they form an essential part of EST. Scientists take over these common words and convert them into technical terms by using them in a special way. For example, "humor" means "幽默" in common English, but "液体"in medicine. "matter" means "事情" in common terms, while "物质" in EST. "action" in law refers to "起诉", "serve" means "发放法律文件". A semi-technical term may have different meaning in different areas: "condenser" refers to "凝汽器" in mechanics, "聚光器" in optics, "冷却器" in chemistry, "电容器" in electrotechnics (电工).

c. formal non-technical terms

Some formal non-technical terms are often used in EST to show its precise and impersonal features, for example: to consume, to convert, to rotate, utilization of facilities, design optimization, power consumption, generate, etc.

Unit Eleven The Language of Literature

Literary language is the language used at the time of literary creation which covers a wide range including fiction, poetry, and drama. Literary use of language is considered as an artistic creation though it has nothing different with the language used ordinarily. But literary language is seen as an artistic medium to create images and to reveal the symbolic truth.

1. The Language of Poetry

Iambus Iambic foot

Troches, trochaic foot 扬抑格

1). Rhythm and Rhyme

a.

b.

Poetry is often considered as the rhythmic creation of beauty (Edgar Allen Poe). A poem is divided into stanza or strophe(诗节), which is subdivided into verse or line(行). Each line is divided into several foot(音步). Foot is arranged according the stress, and this forms the meter (格律). In a foot, "-" symbolizes stress, which is called "扬" in Chinese, and " " symbolizes non-stress, which is called "抑" in Chinese. Rhythm comes from the regular pattern of the stress and non-stress. According to the rules of the arrangement of the stresses and non-stresses, the most commonly used meter of English poetry is divided into:

```
Dactyl, dactylic foot 扬抑抑格
c.
d.
       Anapaest, anapaestic foot 抑抑扬格
A line consists of several foots. According to the number of foot, foot is divided into:
单音步
          monometre
双音步
         dimetre
三音步
        trimetre
四音步
         tetrammetre
五音步 pentametre
六音步 hexametre
七音步 peptametre
八音步 octametre
V - | V - | V
                   When you are old
                     and gray and full
                                           of sleep,
V - | V -
                    - | V -
                               And nodding by
                          fires, take down this book,
                    the
(by Yeats)
The rhyme of English poems includes:
Alliteration
e.g. Whereat with blade, with bloody blameful blade,
He bravely broached his boiling bloody breast.
(William Shakespeare, A Midsummer Night's Dream)
Assonance(元音迭韵)
e.g. The rain in Spain stays mainly in the plain. /ei/ is repeated.
```

抑扬格

Consonance (假韵)

The consonants at the end of the two words are same. E.g.

Dash-fish, add-read, bill-ball, born-burn etc.

Rhyme refers to the fact that the stressed vowels must be same, the consonant after the vowel must be the same. The consonant before the vowel should not be the same.

So these words are in rhyme:

Lie—high , stay—play ,park—lark , light—height, bend—lend, first—burst.

These words are not in rhyme:

Blood—wood, dove—move, bowl—fowl, know—now, race—phase, heath—death.

e.g. Dark, deep, and cold the current flows

Unto the sea where no wind blows.

Seeking the land which no one know.

Shakespeare Sonnet

Abab,cded, efef, gg.

Shall I compare thee to a Summer's day?

Thou art more lovely and more temperate;

Rough winds do shake the darling buds of May,

Sometimes too hot the eye of heaven shines,

And often is his cold complexion dimm'd:

And every fair from fair sometime declines,

By chance, or nature's changing course, untrimm'd:

But thy eternal Summer shall not fade

Nor lose possession of that fair thou owest;

Nor shall Death brag thou wanderest in his shade

When in eternal lines to time thou growest,

So long as men can breathe, or eyes can see

So long lives this, and this gives life to thee.

2). Imagery

Imagery refers to the sensory images produced by words. Imagery is the life of a good poem. Imagery is divided into visual image, auditory image, olfactory image(嗅觉),tactile image (触觉),gustatory image(味觉), kinaesthetic image (动觉),abstract image, etc.

2 The language of prose

1).Narration

In the novels, the story is narrated through different people, that is called "point of view": the story can be told by the first person(I, we), and third person(he, she, it, they), can be direct and indirect. "point of view" can be changed in the story. Besides, there is also a way of narration that is between the above two, on the surface it is third person, in fact narrated by a certain person. This is called "the selective omniscient narrator or the limited omniscient narrator"(有选择的无所不知的叙述者)

- ii. "I am here to inform you that your mother is waiting for you at Reception; she looks very upset and doesn't want to tell me what has happened. So you can leave the class now to meet her."
 - iii. "Your mother is waiting for you at Reception, "he told the student. "She looks very upset and

doesn't want to tell me what has happened," he continued very quickly. "So leave the class now and go and see her", he ordered.

iv. There she was, waiting for her son to meet her. She felt very upset and didn't want anyone to know what was happening, only her son. Ten minutes! Wasn't he worried about her feelings? Here he was now, coming from his class.

When the story is narrated with first person, the writer is usually a person in the story.

e.g. The practical thing was to find rooms in the city, but it was a warm season, and I had just left a country of wide lawns and friendly trees, so when a young man at the office suggested that we take a house together in a commuting town, it sounded like a great idea. He found the house, a weatherbeaten cardboard bungalow(平房) at eighty a month, but at the last minute the firm ordered him to Washington, and I went out to the country alone. Ihad a dog—at least I had him for a few days until he ran away ---and an old Dodge and a Finnish woman, who made my bed and cooked breakfast and muttered Finnish wisdom to herself over the electric stove. (F. Scott Fitzgerald The Great Gatsby)

2). Dialogue

Dialogue is very important in novels, because it can help novelist to create vivid characters. Different people speak differently, the language can well reflect a person's thought, position, cultural background, and experience. So dialogue is an inseparable part of the novels. The language of the dialogue can be direct and indirect, can be refined, standard, and spoken.

e.g. It's very, very good of you to spare me a minute, my dear Eliot."

...Had my journey that afternoon been excessively uncomfortable, he asked, had I been able to get a reasonable luncheon?...

"I gather that everything did not to precisely according to expectation?"

I said that I was afraid not.

"You will appreciate, my dear Eliot, that it is rather unfortunate. There has been slightly too much criticism of this project to be comfortable, all along."

I was well aware of it.....

(C. P. Snow The New Men)

This is a dialogue between two scientists. The language is formal, refined, and complete. Now let us see another dialogue:

...So Janie had told him, "Ah'm just as stiff as you is stout. If you can stand not to chop and tote wood, Ah reckon you can stand not to git no dinner, 'Scuse mah freesolity, Mist' Killicks, but Ah don't mean to chop de first chip."

"Aw you know Ah'm giwine chop de wood fuh yuh. Even if you is stingy as you can be wid me. Yo' Grandma and me myself done spoilt yuh now, and Ah reckon Ah have tuh keep on wid it."

(Zora Neale Huston Their Eyes Were Watching God)

The above dialogue is between two blacks of American south. It is full of non-standard English. Ah=I, de=the, wid=with, uh=a, 'Scuse=excuse, Mist=Mister, mah=may.

In English novels, sometimes there are no quotations for the direct speech, this is called "free direct speech".

- e.g. -Did you? He said.
- --Good man, What?
- --What?

- --What did you find?
- -- The autograph, I told him.

He was messing.

--Let's see it, he said.

I put the book and opened it on his knees.

(Roddy Doyle: Paddy Clarke, Ha Ha Ha . Minierva, 1993)

Unit Twelve The Language of Legal Document

The language of Legal document

Legal documents includes laws, treaties, contracts, agreements, warranties etc. It is concerned with the imposition of obligations and conferring of rights and properties. Legal documents deals with serious matters, so the first and foremost requirement is exactness and avoidance of any ambiguity in the use of language. Over the years, there have developed sets of formulas for the use of language, which leads to the peculiar stability and extreme linguistic conservatism of legal English.

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1. at the graphitic/ graphological level

In the earlier days of legal profession, legal documents usually adopted the solid block format with no paragraph division, no spacing, no indentation and with no or sketchy punctuation. This is because of two reasons: at first legal documents are written on parchment(羊皮纸) that was very expensive. The solid block format was an ideal space-saving choice. It is easy to defeat fraudulent deletions or additions.

- a. Blocks of print and scarcity of punctuation
- e.g. 7.Notwithstanding the termination of hiring under Clause 6 the Hirer shall pay all rent accrued (产生)due in respect of the hiring up to the date of such termination and shall be or remain liable in respect of any damage caused to the Owner by reason of any breach by the Hirer to be performed or observed.
- 8. At any time before the Owner shall have recovered possession of the goods and before the Hirer shall have terminated the hiring under Section 4 of the Hire-Purchase ACT 1938(as amended) the Hirer may on the payment to the Owner of the total amount of any installments then remaining unpaid of the rent hereinbefore reserved and agreed to be paid during the term and the further sum of ten shillings purchase the goods....
 - b. consistent use of initial capitalization

Usually the initial capitalization is consistently used.

c. Numbering of sections

2. at the lexical level

a. Frequent use of archaism

Archaism makes the legal documents formal and dignified. For example: aforesaid, herein, hereinbefore, thence, thenceforth whereby etc.

b. use of extremely formal words, big words and expressions.

Many of the words are borrowed from French, Latin. For example, ad hoc (for this purpose), amicus curiae (friend of the court),

Bona fide (in good faith), corpus delicti (evidence of the crime),

Cui bono (for what good purpose), de facto(according to the fact or deed), de jure(according to the

law), et uxor (and wife), ex officio(by virtue of the office held), ex post facto (from the deed afterwards), male fide(in bad faith), per se(in itself), etc.

Othere words like, notwithstanding, terminate, termination, accrue, in respect of, liable, purchase, installment, amend, etc.

- c. Use of synonyms and near synonyms to achieve precision
- d. use of "shall"

3. at the syntactic level

- a. long complex sentences
- b. use of statement sentences
- c. use of adverbial modifiers
- d. use of nominalization

the termination of hiring

recover possession of

payment to the Owner of the total amount

e. complex post modification to avoid loopholes

rent accrued due in respect of...up to the date of...

any damage caused to the Owner by reason of any breach...

4. at the semantic level

a. dominant logical pattern

if (provided) \times , then Y shall do Z.

b. Textual cohesion

Lexical repetition like "Owner", and "Hirer", enhance exactness of reference.

Use of adverbial conjunctions, lettering of clauses, arrangement of blocks of print.

c. Avoidance of emotional coloring

Use of factual words in factual presentation.

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《高级口译》教学大纲

吴康平 编写

目 录

第-	·单元 汉译英视译	2
	[教学目的和要求]	
	[内容提要]	
	[拓展练习]	3
第二	- - 单元 汉译英视译	3
	[教学目的和要求]	
	[内容提要]	3
	[拓展练习]	4
第三	E单元 英译汉顺句驱动练习	4
	[教学目的和要求]	4
	[内容提要]	4
第四	单元 英译汉视译	5
	[教学目的和要求]	5
	[内容提要]	5
第丑	·单元 英译汉视译	6
	[教学目的和要求]	6
	[内容提要]	6
第六	T单元 汉译英同传方法讲解	7
	[教学目的和要求]	7
	[内容提要]	7
第十	i单元 英译汉同传方法讲解	8
	[教学目的和要求]	8
	[内容提要]	8
第月	单元 汉译英同传方法讲解	9
	[教学目的和要求]	9
	[内容提要]	
第力	.单元 英译汉同传方法讲解	10
	[教学目的和要求]	10
	[内容提要]	11
第十	·单元 汉译英交传练习	
	[教学目的和要求]	13
	[内容提要]	
第十	·一单元 英译汉交传练习	13
	[教学目的和要求]	13
	[内容提要]	
第十	·二单元 英译汉交传练习	17
	[教学目的和要求]	
	[内容提要]	
第十	·三单元 汉英英汉实战练习	
	[教学目的和要求]	19
	[内容提要]	20

《高级口译》课程将在在大学二年级口译课程的基础上,进一步加强口译课堂练习,在帮助学生熟练技巧的同时, 加入与口译考试相关的应试练习和与实际会议口译相关的专业材料练习,并在一定程度上作为学生专业八级口语部分的考前集中训练课程。

第一单元 汉译英视译

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过篇章的视译练习,提高语言组织能力,建立口译思维能力。

教学要求: 以基本流利的速度视译一篇中文文章。

[内容提要]

一、词汇准备

农业企业发展战略研讨会

中国工程院

储备

加工业

亚太

二、重点和难点

词汇:

农业兴, 百业兴, 农民富, 国家富

温饱

农业产业化经营

事关全局

科技的含量

现代化、产业化和国际化

句型:

1. 顺句驱动处理长句:

今天我们在这里欢聚一堂共同探讨农业企业发展战略问题,见到新朋老友,我感到非常高兴。 我谨代表中国工程院对各位来宾和与会代表的光临表示热烈的欢迎和衷心的感谢!

为进一步探讨农民农业这个事关全局的战略问题,把这次研讨会命题定为"农业企业发展",就是要求我们从理论和实践的结合上讨论如何通过新的举措,应用先进技术,利用亚太地区双边和多边合作等形式来推动农业企业发展。

通过大家的共同努力本次研讨会一定能为包括中国在内的亚太地区的农业及农业企业更好更 快的发展提供有益的经验,

通过亚太地区政府间、企业间不断地开展信息共享,加强交流与合作,必将推动亚太地区农业 企业的共同发展。

2. "使"字句的处理:

中国政府十分重视农业问题,出台了一系列扶持政策,使中国的农业和农业企业在较短的时间里突飞猛进的发展,不仅使占世界22%的人口解决了温饱,而且正在全面建设小康社会,为世界的和平与稳定做出了巨大贡献。

[拓展练习]

中翻英视译相关练习。

第二单元 汉译英视译

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过篇章的视译练习,提高语言组织能力,建立口译思维能力。

教学要求: 以基本流利的速度视译一篇中文文章。

[内容提要]

一、词汇准备

国际劳工组织

体面劳动议程

中国企业联合会

中国企业家协会

二、重点和难点

词汇:

实质性

智慧的结晶

具体体现

相辅相成的关系

行动框架

宣传

句型:

1. 顺句驱动处理长句

由中国政府和国际劳工组织联合举办的中国就业论坛,在过去三天里,围绕"全球化、结构调整与就业促进"这一主题,进行了深入细致而又卓有成效的研讨。

《2004中国就业论坛共识》("北京共识")是与会各界代表在就业方面实践经验和智慧的结晶,也是世界各国,特别是象中国这样人口众多、劳动力资源丰富的发展中国家为实现国际劳工组织提出的体面劳动议程的具体体现。

针对各国在就业方面面临的严峻挑战,"共识"提出了促进小企业发展、加强三方对话、更新劳动者知识和技能、完善劳动力市场政策、提高劳动生产率、扩大社会保护覆盖面、保障劳动者安全与卫生等对策建议,为各国更好地解决就业问题,并把就业问题纳入国家经济社会发展规划,确立了具体的政策和行动框架。

[拓展练习]

中翻英视译相关练习。

第三单元 英译汉顺句驱动练习

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的: 通过典型的英文句型讲解如何进行顺句驱动。

教学要求: 处理英文长句的断句。

[内容提要]

译员就需要按照自己听到原文的顺序,不停地把句子切成个别的意群或概念单位,再把这些单位比较自然地连接起来,翻译出整体的原意。这种方法可称之为断句基础上的顺句驱动。

——张维为 《英汉同声传译》

I come to China /at an important time.

They built the bridge/ in two months.

The speed of integration in international trade /of least developed countries has been slow.

Several more fundamental proposals are advanced/for consideration by the General Assembly/ for possible action in the longer term.

They are steadily finding new means / of protecting themselves and others from radioactivity.

They have been working busily /since 8 o'clock in the morning.

They will get the preparation done /before considering other proposals.

This can be achieved /by translating principles into concrete deeds /affecting the way people live.

It is a long way from Peking to London.

It is no harm that we recheck the figures.

Football is played all over the world.

We should understand the nature, level and scope of such a commitment.

The Chairman of the Working Group has given a report on the work of the group.

I hope my presence here tonight is further proof of the importance we in Britain attach to relations with your great country.

Every state is the best judge of what is required to safeguard its national security.

A better knowledge of the local culture will help our work.

Reformers need tangible evidence of rising living standards.

We have a growing habit of high-level exchanges on world problems and on bilateral issues.

We should try to know the availability of other similar documents.

We should have a saner and more balanced view of our relations with our neighbors.

He left for London as soon as he received the instruction from his boss.

This country has taken giant steps forwards on the path of democracy, equality and national

reconciliation.

Capacity building is a critical issue that is at the forefront of the global development agenda.

We already recognize that we have similar interests over a wide range of areas.

In order to be effective, the United Nations human rights programme must achieve a higher degree of professionalism through both reform and reorganization of its structure.

Will all those who are in favor of this draft resolution, please signify by raising their hands? I would be most grateful if you could speak a bit louder.

It is no harm that we have to reexamine the results.

The author has written many novels, essays and plays/on social problems.

I think China realizes it's in its self-interest that Hong Kong continue to be a viable economic entity that is relatively autonomous.

Many writers were not appreciated fully while they were alive.

第四单元 英译汉视译

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过篇章的视译练习,提高语言组织能力,学会英文长句的断句。

教学要求: 处理英文长句的断句,摆脱翻译腔。

[内容提要]

一、词汇准备

ILO

employment promotion

consensus

instrument

tripartism

workplace

tapping

locomotive

ASEAN

Restructuring

Divides

Dislocation

Shedding

precarious

World Commission on the Social Dimension of Globalization

legitimacy

deliver

UN charter, the ILO Constitution and the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work

Memorandum of Understanding

Mekong river basin

forced labour

二、重点和难点

顺句驱动句型:

We are privileged to have with us Ministers, senior officials, business people, trade unionists, experts and academics from many countries who are here to share their policy and practical experience.

We are an institution borne of the need to achieve stability in the midst of great transformation, to promote a just balance between the economic and the social, the rights of workers and the interests of the enterprise and to find <u>consensus</u> through the essential instruments of dialogues and tripartism.

All of this is having profound effects from the highest levels of government to villages in the farthest reaches.

It is essential we address these questions which arise from the problems and successes of globalization.

The Memorandum was a clear signal of China's desire to move in that direction in a Chinese context.

第五单元 英译汉视译

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过篇章的视译练习,提高语言组织能力,学会英文长句的断句。

教学要求: 处理英文长句的断句,摆脱翻译腔。

[内容提要]

一、词汇准备

Floating

health care

ramifications

social security

rein

plummet

infectious disease

sexually transmitted disease

designate

stringent

regulate
medications
CDC facilities
disparate
Out-of-pocket payment
quandary
cripple
deliberations
二、重点和难点

Obviously, it is ultimately the responsibility of the Chinese people and their Government, not the World Health Organization or any other outside partner, to decide how best to build a healthier China.

Rapid urbanization, industrialization, the stresses of the transition from a planned to a market economy and the new wealth it delivers, added to the demographic shifts like aging and the growth of migrant "floating" populations, all demand policy responses from Government.

We made that statement in a paper prepared for the State Council in July of last year. The document is called "Public Health Options for China," and was written, for the Council, shortly after the first SARS outbreak was brought under control.

Not everyone, of course, agrees that a free market solution combined with a public goods approach where necessary is a proper way of funding China's health.

When British Railways was privatized, its admirable safety record plummeted because of the lack of incentive to invest in proper, though expensive, safety measures.

We saw with SARS that, because China's public health surveillance and reporting system had been allowed to weaken through lack of financial support, the country wound up paying a huge price.

People with infectious diseases like TB and sexually transmitted diseases need to be treated properly.

Since the economic reforms launched in the late 1970s, China has moved from one extreme - in which the Government strove to meet as much of the burden of health that it could afford - to one in which it has more or less turned over its responsibilities for the health of its people to the free market.

We also see a need for better coordination of the sectors of the health system.

第六单元 汉译英同传方法讲解

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过汉译英的同传示范,讲解同传的完成过程和技巧分解。

教学要求: 学会同传的基本处理方法

[内容提要]

一、词汇准备 联合国亚太经社会残疾人扶贫国际研讨会 中国残联 省委 民间团体

琵琶湖千年行动纲领

二、重点和难点

由联合国亚太经社会和中国残联共同举办的亚太地区残疾人扶贫国际研讨会今天在甘肃省兰州市开幕。:

请允许我代表中国残疾人联合会向出席会议的联合国亚太经社会、世界银行和世界卫生组织的专家、向亚太地区远道而来的各国代表表示热烈的欢迎,向出席会议的中央各部委领导、专家学者及与会的各位代表致以崇高的敬意,对给予此次会议大力支持的甘肃省委、省政府以及省残联表示衷心的感谢!

0 多年来,中国政府和残疾人组织以解决温饱,提高残疾人的生活质量和综合素质,缩小贫富 差距,实现共同富裕为目标,中国残疾人扶贫开发工作坚持实现"平等、参与、共享"的原则,通 过制定残疾人扶贫开发计划,并将其纳入国家扶贫开发纲要中,统一组织,同步实施。

扶贫工作坚持以政府为领导,加大扶持力度和资金投入;动员社会力量共同参与;坚持扶贫开发到户到人;挖掘残疾人自身的潜能,主动参与扶贫开发等工作取得了明显的效果。

第七单元 英译汉同传方法讲解

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过英译汉的同传示范,讲解同传的完成过程和技巧分解。

教学要求: 学会同传的基本处理方法

[内容提要]

一、词汇准备

Modest

lament

civil society

private sector

Vibrant

Evian

self-effacing

millennium goal

Poverty alleviation

field visit

seven-year strategy

Bangladesh

Tanzania

underutilized

Loess Plateau

Valley

stark

arid

terrace

bulldozer

spade

二、重点和难点

顺句驱动在长句中的应用。

第八单元 汉译英同传方法讲解

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过汉译英的同传示范,讲解同传的完成过程和技巧分解,并结合一定的专业知识,加强对口译中理解和分析能力的培养。

教学要求: 学会同传的断句处理方法, 以及同传中化简为易的方法。

[内容提要]

资源配置模式

宏观决策模式

微观传递机制

二分法

汇率波动

经济刺激计划

进出口贸易总额

触底回升

工业增加值

财政收入

剔除价格因素

市场失灵

危机治理

资产负债表

资不抵债

资金断裂

结余

对外债务

外汇储备总量

扩张性的财政政策

居民储蓄

利差收窄

放款

制度安排

公有制为主体、多种经济成分相并存的所有制

政府主导下的市场经济配置资源模式

财政分权

外部性影响

资本项目

资产泡沫

国际资本流动

长三角、珠三角

中部崛起

东北老工业振兴

加工贸易模式 制成品

民主集中制

相机决策能力

资源动员

雷曼兄弟

扩内需、保增长

10 大产业振兴计划

集中决策

灾后重建

新型国有经济体系

传导机制

市场经济主体

过度的收缩

流动性陷阱

挤出效应

现代新古典经济学

商品采购

国有商业银行

股份制银行

解放生产力

产能过剩

凯恩斯主义

第九单元 英译汉同传方法讲解

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过英译汉的同传示范,讲解同传的完成过程和技巧分解,并结合一定的专业知识,加强对口译中理解和分析能力的培养。

教学要求: 学会同传的断句处理方法, 以及同传中化简为易的方法。

[内容提要]

Aspiration

Thriving

Exceptional

Emergence

Integrated

State Councilor

International Monetary Fund

Shrink

Output

policy action

deterioration

distinguish

severity

unprecedented

flow of credit

accord

intensified

fiscal measures

ease

initiatives

credit market

reinforced

retreat

self-defeating

monitor

recession

inventory

claims

capital assessment

guarantees

risk premia

avert

plant closure

restructurings

in discriminant

supply of credit

constrained

saving

household borrowing

entail

sustained growth

transition

financial regulation

health care system

infrastructure

energy efficiency

resilient

preserve

composition

saving rates

domestic demand

investment and export intensive driven growth

fluctuations

current account deficit

fiscal sustainability

fiscal deficit

public debt

expire

tax incentives

disciplined

budget discipline

automatic enrollment in retirement savings account

non-inflationary

precautionary

social safety net

public retirement systems

service sector

light industry

interest rates

exchange rate regime

reinforce

underscore

oversight

surveillance

IMF cooperative arrangements

broad-based

trade liberalization

turn our backs on

resort to protectionist measure

Doha Development Round

Degradation

greenhouse gas emissions

Strategic and Economic Dialogue

economic engagement stake

第十单元 汉译英交传练习

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过现场的口译材料训练学生应对实际问题的能力。 教学要求:学会处理现场口译的技巧。

[内容提要]

一、词汇

三线建设

"搞"这些东西

从这个意义上讲

关起门来打狗

敲诈、勒索

削减

无罪推定

备案

注册资金

二、重点和难点

学会总结性地记录笔记

学会主动翻译。

第十一单元 英译汉交传练习

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过现场的口译材料训练学生应对实际问题的能力。 教学要求:学会处理现场口译的技巧。

[内容提要]

一、词汇

ADB Asian Development Bank transition from a centrally planned to a market economy well managed annual average growth rate per capita income poverty line strategically better positioned

economic liberalization and opening up

disparities

Per capita GDP

socio-economic indicators

incidence of poverty

Primary school enrollment

medical personnel per capita

physical and social infrastructure

two-phase program

interior

absolute poor

pro-poor

pro-active strategy

integrated strategy

multilateral institutions

identify

fiscal incentives

tax exemptions

budgetary subsidies

subsidized bank credit

special economic zones

spur stimulate

fiscal resources

target (as verb)

fiscal base

supplement local fiscal resources

fiscal incentives

tax holidays

tax exemptions\

tax rebates

higher depreciation rates

offset

weak fiscal administration capabilities

Government-owned banking systems

State-owned banks

Tempting Temptations

Mechanism

Priority

commercially managed banking sector

moral suasion

subsidized interest rates

nonperforming loans

run counter to

hold the banks accountable for their lending decisions

fiscal transfer

take the resulting bad loans off of the banks' books

preferential policies

regimes

restrictive

liberalize

applicable to

tariffs

affirmative policy agenda

fiscal incentive scheme

sunset clauses

allocate

modalities

work out

matching grant

sub-national governments

designated projects

general-purpose grants

discretion

budgetary framework

selective

capacity building

complement

overarching

good governance

"go west" program

consistent with

investment climate

institutional capacity

deliberations

Lay out

western region development program

regional inequality

property/inequality factor

national integration

environmental degradation

migration

on top of

evaluate

multiple factors

economic returns

broader objectives

fiscal issue

dramatically

revenue/GDP ratio

national income

federal government

fiscal instrument

banking sector

per se

channel

monitor

expenditure

blend

foreign borrowing

augment

tax incentives

highlighted

Human resource

classify

win-win

category

cost-effective

desirable

infrastructure

drain

commercially viable entities

proposition

mobility and movement

capital

links

national integrated domestic economy

national highway

village roads and feeder road

traffic volume

Ertan Power Project in Sichuan

illustrative

market penetration

viability

purchases

immediate vicinity or a broader vicinity

commercial activities

semiarid farming

transmitted

special minority training program

distance learning

rural boarding school

donors

bulk

identify

matching

geared to

priorities

private foreign money

maturities of investments

components

financial assistance

internal resources

funding

二、重点和难点

学会把握英翻中口译中笔记的节奏

学会进行分析式听力。

第十二单元 英译汉交传练习

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过现场的口译材料训练学生应对实际问题的能力。

教学要求: 学会处理现场口译的技巧。

[内容提要]

一、词汇

ADB Asian Development Bank

transition from a centrally planned to a market economy

well managed

annual average growth rate

per capita income

poverty line

strategically better positioned

economic liberalization and opening up

disparities

Per capita GDP

socio-economic indicators

incidence of poverty

Primary school enrollment

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State-owned banks

Tempting Temptations

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discretion

budgetary framework

selective

capacity building

complement

overarching

good governance

"go west" program

consistent with

investment climate

institutional capacity

deliberations

二、重点和难点

学会把握英翻中口译中笔记的节奏

学会处理带有一定专业知识和背景的材料。

第十三单元 汉英英汉实战练习

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:通过口译考试及八级口语考试的真题及模拟题训练学生应试的能力。

教学要求: 能够应对八级口语考试中口译部分的要求。

[内容提要]

使用真题或模拟题进行现场录音、录音回放以及同学和教师评价,让学生关注翻译的每个细节。

《视听欣赏》教学大纲

欧小琪 编写

目 录

—,	课程简介和目的	2
_,	课程教学内容和要求	2
三、	测试与评估	3
	WEEK 1: You've Got Mail	4
	WEEK 2: Stand by Me	5
	WEEK 3: Sense and Sensibility	7
	WEEK 4: Four Weddings and a Funeral.	9
	WEEK 5: The Gods Must Be Crazy I	.11
	WEEK 6: Pride and Prejudice	14
	WEEK 7: A Fish Called Wanda	16
	WEEK 8: The Cider House Rules	17
	WEEK 9: The Shawshank Redemption.	19
	WEEK 10: October Sky	21
	WEEK 13: To Kill a Mockingbird	
	WEEK 14: My Best Friend's Wedding	26
	WEEK 15: The Color Purple	27
	WEEK 16: One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest.	29
	WEEK 17: Crash	30
	WEEK 18: 期末考试	30

一、课程简介和目的

高等学校英语专业本科 4 年的教学过程分为两个阶段,即:基础阶段(一年级和二年级)和高年级阶段(三年级和四年级)。基础阶段的主要教学任务是传授英语基础知识,对学生进行全面的、严格的基本技能训练,培养学生实际运用语言的能力、良好的学风和正确的学习方法,为进入高年级打下扎实的专业基础。高年级阶段的主要教学任务是继续打好语言基本功,学习英语专业知识和相关专业知识,进一步扩大知识面,增强对文化差异的敏感性,提高综合运用英语进行交际的能力。

"视听欣赏"是高等学校英语专业本科高年级阶段的一门专业选修课,为期 1 学期(第六学期),共 18 周。累计 36 学时,共计 2 学分。

"视听欣赏"是一门英语专业选修课程。其目的是强化和提高学生的英语语言和文化的学习,达到《英语专业教学大纲》所规定的听、说、读、写等技能以及文化素养的要求。其教学任务是通过学生观看英美影片,读、听和看有关电影知识、电影背景以及电影鉴赏和评析等的学习材料,并进行各种语言教学活动,使学生直观地了解西方国家文化,提高英语视听说能力,培养跨文化交际能力,并且初步了解有关电影艺术的基础知识,提高艺术鉴赏水平和电影评析能力。

二、课程教学内容和要求

本课程教材为英美电影和自编英文讲义。英文课件材料主要来源于网络。本课程以电影为单元,每单元大概用时 2-2.5 学时。本学期共 18 周,总共教授 16 部影片(第 11 周为"五一"国际劳动节),第 18 周为课堂期末考试。

本课程教学内容和环节大致如下:

- 1. 本课程阅读材料:
- 1. 英语语言和文化;
- 2. 电影语言和知识(初级);
- 3. 电影、导演、作家和演员的简介,以及电影故事和文化背景知识(观看电影前阅读):
- 4. 电影鉴赏和评析文章(观看电影后阅读)。

由于课时有限,这部分内容通过公共电子邮箱,每周及时地发给学生。通过学生自学为主,课堂上老师检查的方式进行教学。

- 2. 16 部电影(主要以英美影片为主):
- 1. You've Got Mail (United States, 1998; Running Length: 1:57; Genre: Comedy / Romance)
- 2. Stand by Me (United States, 1986; Running Length: 1:29; Genre: Adventure / Drama)
- **3. Sense and Sensibility** (United Kingdom, 1995; Running Length: 2:15; **Genre:** Drama / Comedy / Romance)
- **4. Four Weddings and a Funeral** (United Kingdom, 1994; Running Length: 1:57; Genre: Comedy / Romance)
 - **5.** The Gods Must Be Crazy I (Botswana, 1980; Running Length: 1:49; Genre: Action / Comedy)
 - 6. **Pride and Prejudice** (United States, 1940; Running Length: 1:57; Genre: Comedy/Drama)
 - 7. **A Fish Called Wanda** (United States, 1988; Running Length: 1:48; **Genre:** Comedy / Crime)
- 8. **The Cider House Rules** (United States, 1999; Running Length: 2:11; **Genre:** Drama / Family / Romance)
 - 9. **The Shawshank Redemption** (United States, 1994; Running Length: 2:22; **Genre:** Drama)

- 10. **October Sky** (United States, 1999; Running Length: 1:43; **Genre:** Biography / Drama / Family)
- 11. **An Ideal Husband** (United Kingdom/United States, 1999; Running Length: 1:36; **Genre**: Comedy / Romance
 - 12. **To Kill a Mockingbird** (United States, 1962; Running Length: 2:09; Genre: Crime/ Drama)
- 13. **My Best Friend's Wedding** (United States, 1997; Running Length: 1:45; **Genre:** Comedy / Romance)
 - 14. **The Color Purple*** (United States, 1985; Running Length: 2:33; **Genre:** Drama / Musical)
- 15. **One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest** (United States, 1975; Running Length: 2:14; **Genre:** Drama)
 - **16.** Crash (United States/ Germany, 2004; Running Length: 1:53; Genre: Crime/ Drama)
 - 3. 课堂语言教学活动:
 - 1. 语言要点(以 Memorable Quotes 为主)
 - 2. 视听课堂活动(电影片段)
 - 3. 课堂讨论(电影中的文化和主题,电影评析)
 - 4. 课堂作业。

三、测试与评估

本课程采取闭卷考试为主,结合平时课堂表现和作业成绩的评测方式。本课程的最终总评成绩 大概包括以下部分:

- 1. 课堂出勤和表现 (Class attendance & performance) 10%
- 2. 作业(Assignments) 20%
- 3. 期末考试 (Final exam) 70%

总评成绩为优、良、中、及格和不及格的评分形式。

1. 教学参考资料: 主要来源于网络

WEEK 1: You've Got Mail

- a) Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- b) Introduction to the director, screenwriter and actors
 - i. Nora Ephron
 - ii. Tom Hanks
 - iii. Meg Ryan
- c) Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- d) User comments and film reviews
- e) Classroom activities
- 1. The song Dreams by The Cranberries
 - 2. Romantic comedies
- VI. Film language and knowledge: Film genres 1

What are Film Genres?

Film genres are various forms or identifiable types, categories, classifications or groups of films that are recurring and have similar, familiar or instantly-recognizable patterns, syntax, filmic techniques or conventions - that include one or more of the following: settings (and props), content and subject matter, themes, period, plot, central narrative events, motifs, styles, structures, situations, recurring icons (e.g., six-guns and ten-gallon hats in Westerns), stock characters (or characterizations), and stars. Many films straddle several film genres.

The Major Categories (Mega Genres) or Classifications of Film:

Before discussing specific film genres, it should be noted that there are various general or major types, classifications, or categories of films (defined in this site's *glossary of film terms*), including:

Contrasting Types of Films		
Non-fiction (or <u>documentary</u>), or <u>biopics</u>	Fiction	
Feature films (at least 90min long)	Shorts (or short subjects), anthology films (films with two or more discrete stories), or <u>serials</u>	
Silents	Talkies	
'A' (or first-run) pictures	'B' pictures (and lower)	
Regular	3-D	
Black and white	Color	
Widescreen	'Pan and Scan' formats(显示模式)	
Animated films	Live-action films	
Domestic films	Foreign-language films (sub-titled or dubbed)	
Original version	Prequels, sequels, re-releases and remakes	

Mainstream (big-budget Hollywood)	Independent (aka indie) (or amateur), avant-garde or	
studio films, sometimes	experimental-underground films (usually low-budget), or	
blockbusters	art-house films (by small companies)	
Rated films - regarding the degree		
of violence, profanity, or sexual	Thomas de Clare	
situations within the film: G, PG,	Unrated films	
PG-13, R, NC-17, or X		

WEEK 2: Stand by Me

- a) Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- b) Introduction to the director, writer and actors
 - 1. Rob Reiner
 - 2. Stephen King
 - 3. Wil Wheaton
 - 4. River Phoenix
- c) Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- d) User comments and film reviews
- e) Classroom activities:
 - 1. The song Everyday
 - 2. Possible themes
- VI. Film language and knowledge: Film genres 2

● The Main Film Genres: These are some of the most common and identifiable film genre categories:

Main Film Genres	Descriptions of Main Film Genres		
Action Films	Action films usually include high energy, big-budget physical stunts and chases, possibly with rescues, battles, fights, escapes, destructive crises (floods, explosions, natural disasters, fires, etc.), non-stop motion, spectacul rhythm and pacing, and adventurous, often two-dimensional 'good-guy' heroes (or recently, heroines) battling 'bad guys' - all designed for pure audience escapism. Includes the James Bond 'fantasy' spy/espionage series, martial arts films, and so-called 'blaxploitation' films. A major sub-genre is the <i>disaster film</i> . See also <i>Greatest Disaster and Crowd Film Scenes</i> and <i>Greatest Classic Chase Scenes in Films</i> .		
Adventure Films	Adventure films are usually exciting stories, with new experiences or exotic locales, very similar to or often paired with the <i>action</i> film genre. They can include traditional swashbucklers, <i>serialized films</i> , and historical spectacles (s		

	imilar to the <i>epics</i> film genre), searches or expeditions for lost continents, "jungle" and "desert" epics, treasure hunts, disaster films, or searches for the unknown.
Comedy Films	Comedies are light-hearted plots consistently and deliberately designed to amuse and provoke laughter (with one-liners, jokes, etc.) by exaggerating the situation, the language, action, relationships and characters. This section describes various forms of comedy through cinematic history, including <i>slapstick</i> , <i>screwball</i> , <i>spoofs</i> and <i>parodies</i> , <i>romantic comedies</i> , <i>black comedy</i> (dark satirical comedy), and more. See this site's <i>Funniest Film Moments and Scenes</i> collection - illustrated.
Crime & Gangster Films Crime (gangster) films are developed around the sinister actions of or mobsters, particularly bankrobbers, underworld figures, or ruthle hoodlums who operate outside the law, stealing and murdering their through life. Criminal and gangster films are often categorized as films and detective-mystery films - because of underlying similarities between cinematic forms. This category includes a description of various 'se films.	
<u>Drama Films</u>	Dramas are serious, plot-driven presentations, portraying realistic characters, settings, life situations, and stories involving intense character development and interaction. Usually, they are not focused on special-effects, comedy, or action, Dramatic films are probably the largest film genre, with many subsets. See also the <i>melodramas</i> , <i>epics (historical dramas)</i> , or <i>romantic</i> genres. Dramatic <i>biographical films (or "biopics")</i> are a major sub-genre, as are 'adult' films (with mature subject content).
Epics/Historical Films	Epics include costume dramas, historical <i>dramas</i> , <i>war</i> films, medieval romps, or 'period pictures' that often cover a large expanse of time set against a vast, panoramic backdrop. Epics often share elements of the elaborate <i>adventure</i> films genre. Epics take an historical or imagined event, mythic, legendary, or heroic figure, and add an extravagant setting and lavish costumes, accompanied by grandeur and spectacle, dramatic scope, high production values, and a sweeping musical score. Epics are often a more spectacular, lavish version of a <i>biopic film</i> . Some 'sword and sandal' films (Biblical epics or films occuring during antiquity) qualify as a sub-genre.
Horror Films	Horror films are designed to frighten and to invoke our hidden worst fears, often in a terrifying, shocking finale, while captivating and entertaining us at the same time in a cathartic experience. Horror films feature a wide range of styles, from the earliest silent Nosferatu classic, to today's CGI monsters and deranged humans. They are often combined with <i>science fiction</i> when the menace or monster is related to a corruption of technology, or when Earth is threatened by aliens. The <i>fantasy</i> and <i>supernatural</i> film genres are not usually synonymous with the horror genre. There are many sub-genres of horror: slas

	her, teen terror, serial killers, satanic, Dracula, Frankenstein, etc. See this		
	site's <u>Scariest Film Moments and Scenes</u> collection - illustrated.		
Musicals (Dance)	Musical/dance films are cinematic forms that emphasize full-scale scores or		
<u>Films</u>	song and dance routines in a significant way (usually with a musical or dance		
	performance integrated as part of the film narrative), or they are films that are		
	centered on combinations of music, dance, song or choreography. Major		
	subgenres include the <i>musical comedy</i> or the concert film. See this site's		
	Greatest Musical Song/Dance Movie Moments and Scenes collection -		
	illustrated.		
Science Fiction	Sci-fi films are often quasi-scientific, visionary and imaginative - complete		
<u>Films</u>	with heroes, aliens, distant planets, impossible quests, improbable settings,		
	fantastic places, great dark and shadowy villains, futuristic technology,		
	unknown and unknowable forces, and extraordinary monsters ('things or		
	creatures from space'), either created by mad scientists or by nuclear havoc.		
	They are sometimes an offshoot of <i>fantasy</i> films, or they share some		
	similarities with <u>action</u> / <u>adventure</u> films. Science fiction often expresses the		
	potential of technology to destroy humankind and easily overlaps with horror		
	films, particularly when technology or alien life forms become malevolent, as		
	in the "Atomic Age" of sci-fi films in the 1950s.		
War (Anti-War)	War films acknowledge the horror and heartbreak of war, letting the actual		
<u>Films</u>	combat fighting (against nations or humankind) on land, sea, or in the air		
	provide the primary plot or background for the action of the film. War films		
	are often paired with other genres, such as <u>action</u> , <u>adventure</u> , <u>drama</u> ,		
	<i>romance</i> , <i>comedy</i> (black), <i>suspense</i> , and even <i>epics</i> and <i>westerns</i> , and they		
	often take a denunciatory approach toward warfare. They may include POW		
	tales, stories of military operations, and training.		
<u>Westerns</u>	Westerns are the major defining genre of the American film industry - a		
	eulogy to the early days of the expansive American frontier. They are one of		
	the oldest, most enduring genres with very recognizable plots, elements, and		
	characters (six-guns, horses, dusty towns and trails, cowboys, Indians, etc.).		
Over time, westerns have been re-defined, re-invented and expa			
	dismissed, re-discovered, and spoofed.		

WEEK 3: Sense and Sensibility

- I. Brief introduction to the film
 - 1. Plot summary
 - 2. Helpful background

Jane Austen (1775 - 1817) wrote novels in which universal patterns of human behavior were played out in upper middle class English society. Her novels are satiric and humorous with rich attention to detail and insightful treatment of her characters. Through adversity, Jane Austen's characters shed their pride, their prejudices and their illusions on the way to mature relationships. Her major novels are Sense & Sensibility (1811), Pride and Prejudice (1813), Northanger Abbey (1818), Mansfield Park (1814), Emma (1816) and Persuasion (1818).

Her novels focus on courtship and marriage, and remain well-known for Austen's satiric depictions of English society and the manners of the era. Her insights into the lives of women during the late eighteenth century and the early nineteenth century Regency period, in addition to her highly regarded ability to handle form, satire, and irony have made her perhaps the most noted and influential novelist of her time. Incredibly, however, she achieved little renown during her lifetime. In short, Jane Austen was an English novelist whose work is considered to be a strong influence on the Western canon of English literature.

"Entail" is a bequest limited to a particular person or to a special class of heirs, such as eldest sons. Thus when a property was subject to a properly drafted entail restriction the owner was unable to sell it or to devise it by will. Typically entail was used in England when land was the chief source of wealth to ensure that property passed to the eldest son. This was seen as a way of preserving the strength and vigor of the aristocracy. The restrictions on alienation were observed until the beneficiary died or until no member of the specified class was left to inherit. In Pride and Prejudice Mr. Bennet had received his estate subject to entail in favor of a male heir. He was therefore unable to transfer his house and land to his wife or to his daughters. In Sense and Sensibility, when Mr. Dashwood dies, he must leave the bulk of his estate to the son by his first marriage, which leaves his second wife and three daughters (Elinor, Marianne, and Margaret) in straitened circumstances.

Jane Austen's novels were a conservative reaction against the romantic literature of the early 1800s. This is shown in the severe restrictions on emotional display by men, hearkening back to the rational world view of the Enlightenment. Most modern film adaptations of Jane Austen's novels, by adding and subtracting scenes and by the facial expressions, sighs, longing looks and other nonverbal indications by the actors, modify Austen's portrayal of men by showing them to be more emotional than the male characters in the novels. These changes make Austen's stories more interesting and acceptable to the modern mass audience.

An Austen male hero "equates courtship with emotional restraint and proves his worth by enacting that equation until a climactic event forces an emotional display that, in turn, forces courtship into marriage." The aversion to emotional display by the men in Austen's novels extends even to discussing their efforts to help others. An example is Darcy's refusal to tell Elizabeth of his efforts to help Lydia, no matter how much good it would have done him in his courtship of Elizabeth. In Sense and Sensibility Edward Ferrars intends to go forward with his secret engagement to Lucy Steele without revealing his true feelings to Elinor. Colonel Brandon will not tell Marianne about Willoughby's indiscretions despite the fact that in doing so he would have eliminated a rival who was obviously favored by Marianne. In Emma, Knightley waits for an inordinately long time to declare his love for Emma despite being a close friend for many years. Even success in courting is characterized by restraint. The film adaptations of Emma and

Persuasion, end in a kiss which is completely absent from the novels. Austen's criticisms of male emotionality is confirmed by her antedated, such as Willoughby. They are emotionally extravagant and ultimately unsuccessful. (The quotation and the substance of this comment are taken from "Balancing the Courtship Hero - Masculine Emotional Display in Film Adaptions of Austen's Novels", contained in Jane Austen in Hollywood, Troost and Greenfield, Editors. The quotation is from page 25.)

Masculine emotionality is at odds with Austen's own critique of "sensibility." In the modern day recreation of these characters it is clear that "sensibility" has triumphed over the "sense" that Austen sought to champion. While the portrayal of men in the films turns on its head Austen's view of the way men should act when courting, these changes may provide an interesting basis for discussion with children about changes in accepted courting behavior over time and the benefits of making film versions of classic novels when substantial changes in the plot or the characters are required for commercial success.

- II. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
 - 1. Ang Lee: Director
 - 2. Emma Thompson
 - 3. Hugh Grant
 - **4.** Kate Winslet
- III. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- IV. User comments and film reviews
- V. Classroom activities:
 - 1. Shakespeare Sonnet 116
 - 2. Major themes

WEEK 4: Four Weddings and a Funeral

- a) Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- b) Introduction to the writer and actors
 - i Richard Curtis
 - ii. Rowan Atkinson
 - iii. Hugh Grant
- c) Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- d) User comments and film reviews
- e) Classroom activities
 - 1. Funeral Blues
 - 2. Weddings in the UK

Roles & Duties

The Bride	The Chief Bridesmaid	Father of the Bride	Flower Girl/ Page Boy
The Groom	The Usher	Parent of the Groom	Guest

The Best Man	Mother of the Bride	

Role and Duties of the Best Man

The popular perception of the best man at a wedding is of a risque boor whose main interest in the day is the chief bridesmaid. Nothing is - or should be - further from the truth.

The best man has a range of important duties which, if done well, will go unnoticed.

These in chronological order are:

Organise the groom's <u>stag night</u> and ensure he comes to no harm. Never hold a stag night the night before a wedding. A hungover groom is not funny.

Remember the rings.

Ensure the groom arrives on time and in condition, i.e. sober.

Remember the rings again.

Ensure that the ushers, page boys and flower girls know what they have to do, and check that they do it.

Escort (= go with) the chief bridesmaid down the aisle.

Remember the rings and have them ready when required.

Make the speech toasting the groom.

Act as toastmaster if no professional toastmaster is present. (more on Toastmasters here)

Ensure security of any wedding presents given on the day and safe delivery of those presents afterwards.

Organise somewhere for the bride and groom to change if they are leaving on honeymoon after the reception.

Ensure the couple's luggage is packed and ready to go.

Return the groom's hired clothes if he has gone on honeymoon.

Act as compere (主持人) and roving host, introducing people to each other, getting conversations started and generally making sure things go smoothly.

视听欣赏

Although the best man is usually referred to jocularly, he has a position of serious responsibility, so

choose him with care - a bad best man can seriously damage your wedding!

The Role and Duties of the Flowergirls & Pageboys

Flowergirls and Pageboys are usually nieces and nephews or young brothers and sisters and are generally

no younger than about 5 nor older than 9 or 10. Children under 5 are unlikely to understand much of

what's going on and may decide to start playing hide and seek just as the vows are about to be exchanged.

Flower girls walk in front of the bride carrying posies of flowers or bunches of thornless roses, which they

can pass out to the guests as they go. They can also strew rose or other flower petals before the bride as

she walks down the aisle.

Pageboys traditionally carry the brides train if she is wearing a dress with a long one. They can also be

used to carry the rings on a cushion to the couple.

The Role and Duties of the Usher

The ushers are chosen by the groom and are usually chosen from among the brothers or

cousins of the bride or groom. Just as the bride chooses her bridesmaids' dresses, so the groom

chooses the attire of the usher. In the case of a Scottish wedding this can mean that the groom

chooses which tartan is worn.

The usher has a few well-defined and a few not so well-defined duties. The main ones are to

show people to their seats and distribute orders of service. Apart from that they should work in

unison with the best man to ensure things run smoothly by helping with the organisation of

transport from one venue to the other if required and just generally being on hand and attentive

to the guests.

It's generally a good idea to have at least one usher from either family, particularly if they are to

introduce people to the wedding party line up at the reception venue.

WEEK 5: The Gods Must Be Crazy I

Brief introduction to the film

Plot summary

The film's success

11

Introduction to the director, writer and actors

- 1. Jamie Uys
- 2. N!xau

Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)

User comments and film reviews Classroom activities: Major themes

VI. Film language and knowledge: Film terminology

General items:

film shooting (电影拍摄)

film types (电影类型)

cinematograph 电影摄影机, 电影放映机 first-

run cinema 首轮影院

second-run cinema 二轮影院

art theatre 艺术影院

continuous performance cinema 循环场电影院

film society 电影协会,电影俱乐部 (美作:film

club)

film library 电影资料馆

premiere 首映式 film festival 电影节 distributor 发行人

Board of Censors 审查署

shooting schedule 摄制计划

censor's certificate 审查级别

release 准予上映

banned film 禁映影片

A-certificate A 级(儿童不宜)U-certificate U 级

X-certificate X 级(成人级)

direction 导演 production 制片 adaptation 改编

scenario, screenplay,

script 编剧 scene 场景 exterior 外景 lighting 灯光 shooting 摄制

dissolve 渐隐,化入,化出

fade-out 淡出 fade-in 淡入

to shoot 拍摄

special effects 特技

comedy 喜剧片

tragedy 悲剧片

dracula (fictional vampire in a gothic horror

novel by Bram Stoker) movie 恐怖片

swordsmen film 武侠片 detective film 侦探片 ethical film 伦理片 affectional film 爱情片 erotic film 黄色片 western movies 西部片

film d'avant-garde 前卫片 serial 系列片

trailer 预告片

cartoon (film) 卡通片,动画片

footage 影片长度

full-length film, feature film 长片

short(film) 短片

colour film 彩色片 (美作:color film)

silent film 默片,无声片

dubbed film 配音复制的影片,译制片 silent cinema, silent films 无声电影 sound motion picture, talkie 有声电影

cinemascope, CinemaScope 西涅玛斯科普型立 体声宽银幕电影,变形镜头式宽银幕电影

cinerama, Cinerama 西涅拉玛型立体声宽银幕

电影,全景电影 title 片名

original version 原著

dialogue 对自

subtitles, subtitling 字幕

credits, credit titles 对原作者及其他有贡献者的

谢启和姓名 telefilm 电视片

reel, spool (影片的)卷,本

slow motion 慢镜头

editing, cutting 剪接

montage 剪辑

recording, sound recording 录音

sound effects 音响效果 mix, mixing 混录 dubbing 配音

post synchronization 后期录音合成

studio 制片厂,摄影棚

(motion)film studio 电影制片厂

set, stage, floor 场地 properties, props 道具 dolly 移动式摄影小车

spotlight 聚光灯 clapper boards 拍板 microphone 麦克风,话筒

boom 长杆话筒 scenery 布景 camera 摄影机

shooting angle 拍摄角度

high angle shot 俯拍

long shot 远景 full shot 全景

close-up, close shot 特写,近景

medium shot 中景 background 背景

three-quarter shot 双人近景

pan 摇镜头

frame, picture 镜头

still 静止

double exposure 两次曝光 superimposition 叠印art director 布景师 (美作:set decorator)

exposure meter 曝光表

print film, motion picture 影片,电影 (美

作:movie)

newsreel 新闻片,纪录片

documentary (film) 记录片,文献片

filmdom 电影界 literary film 文艺片 musicals 音乐片

sound track 音带,声带

showing, screening, projection 放映

projector 放映机

projection booth, projection room 放映室

panoramic screen 宽银幕

actors (电影演员)

cast 阵容

film star, movie star 电影明星

star, lead 主角

double, stand-in 替身演员 stunt man 特技替身演员 extra, walker-on 临时演员 character actor 性格演员

regular player 基本演员

extra 特别客串 film star 电影明星 film actor 男电影明星 film actress 女电影明星

support 配角 util 跑龙套 adapter 改编

scenarist, scriptwriter 脚本作者 dialogue writer 对白作者

production manager 制片人

producer 制片主任 film director 导演

assistant director 副导演,助理导演 cameraman, set photographer 摄影师 assistant cameraman 摄影助理

property manager, propsman 道具员

stagehand 化装师

lighting engineer 灯光师

film cutter 剪辑师

sound engineer, recording director 录音师

script girl, continuity girl 场记员 scenario writer, scenarist 剧作家

WEEK 6: Pride and Prejudice

- I. Brief introduction to the film
 - 1. Plot summary
 - 2. Helpful background
 - II. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
 - 1. Robert Z Leonard
 - 2. Greer Garson
 - 3. Laurence Olivier
 - III. Language focus (including Memorable Quotes)
 - IV. User comments and film reviews
 - V. Classroom activities: Major themes

Pride: As said in the words of Mary at the beginning of the novel, "human nature is particularly prone to [pride]" (Volume I, Chapter 5). In the novel, pride prevents the characters from seeing the truth of a situation and from achieving happiness in life. Pride is one of the main barriers that creates an obstacle to Elizabeth and Darcy's marriage. Darcy's pride in his position in society leads him initially to scorn anyone outside of his own social circle. Elizabeth's vanity clouds her judgment, making her prone to think ill of Darcy and to think well of Wickham. In the end, Elizabeth's rebukes of Darcy help him to realize his fault and to change accordingly, as demonstrated in his genuinely friendly treatment of the Gardiners, whom he previously would have scorned because of their low social class. Darcy's letter shows Elizabeth that her judgments were wrong and she realizes that they were based on vanity, not on reason.

Prejudice: Pride and prejudice are intimately related in the novel. As critic A. Walton Litz comments, "in Pride and Prejudice one cannot equate Darcy with Pride, or Elizabeth with Prejudice; Darcy's pride of place is founded on social prejudice, while Elizabeth's initial prejudice against him is rooted in pride of her own quick perceptions." Darcy, having been brought up in such a way that he began to scorn all those outside his own social circle, must overcome his prejudice in order to see that Elizabeth would be a good wife for him and to win Elizabeth's heart. The overcoming of his prejudice is demonstrated when he treats the Gardiners with great civility. The Gardiners are a much lower class than Darcy, because Mr. Darcy is a lawyer and must practice a trade to earn a living, rather than living off of the interest of an estate as gentlemen do. From the beginning of the novel Elizabeth prides herself on her keen ability for perception. Yet this supposed ability is often lacking, as in Elizabeth's judgments of Darcy and Wickham.

Family: Austen portrays the family as primarily responsible for the intellectual and moral education of children. Mr. and Mrs. Bennet's failure to provide this education for their daughters leads to the utter shamelessness, foolishness, frivolity, and immorality of Lydia. Elizabeth and Jane have managed to develop virtue and strong characters in spite of the negligence of their parents, perhaps through the help of their studies and the good influence of Mr. and Mrs. Gardiner, who are the only relatives in the novel that

take a serious concern in the girls' well-being and provide sound guidance. Elizabeth and Jane are constantly forced to put up with the foolishness and poor judgment of their mother and the sarcastic indifference of their father. Even when Elizabeth advises her father not to allow Lydia to go to Brighton, he ignores the advice because he thinks it would too difficult to deal with Lydia's complaining. The result is the scandal of Lydia's elopement with Wickham.

Women and Marriage: Austen is critical of the gender injustices present in 19th century English society. The novel demonstrates how money such as Charlotte need to marry men they are not in love with simply in order to gain financial security. The entailment of the Longbourn estate is an extreme hardship on the Bennet family, and is quite obviously unjust. The entailment of Mr. Bennet's estate leaves his daughters in a poor financial situation which both requires them to marry and makes it more difficult to marry well. Clearly, Austen believes that woman are at least as intelligent and capable as men, and considers their inferior status in society to be unjust. She herself went against convention by remaining single and earning a living through her novels. In her personal letters Austen advises friends only to marry for love. Through the plot of the novel it is clear that Austen wants to show how Elizabeth is able to be happy by refusing to marry for financial purposes and only marrying a man whom she truly loves and esteems.

Class: Considerations of class are omnipresent in the novel. The novel does not put forth an egalitarian ideology or call for the leveling of all social classes, yet it does criticize an over-emphasis on class. Darcy's inordinate pride is based on his extreme class-consciousness. Yet eventually he sees that factors other than wealth determine who truly belongs in the aristocracy. While those such as Miss Bingley and Mrs. Hurst, who are born into the aristocracy, are idle, mean-spirited and annoying, Mr. and Mrs. Gardiner are not members of the aristocracy in terms of wealth or birth but are natural aristocrats by virtue of their intelligence, good-breeding and virtue. The comic formality of Mr. Collins and his obsequious relationship with Lady Catherine serve as a satire class consciousness and social formalities. In the end, the verdict on class differences is moderate. As critic Samuel Kliger notes, "It the conclusion of the novel makes it clear that Elizabeth accepts class relationships as valid, it becomes equally clear that Darcy, through Elizabeth's genius for treating all people with respect for their natural dignity, is reminded that institutions are not an end in themselves but are intended to serve the end of human happiness."

Individual and Society: The novel portrays a world in which society takes an interest in the private virtue of its members. When Lydia elopes with Wickham, therefore, it is scandal to the whole society and an injury to entire Bennet family. Darcy considers his failure to expose the wickedness of Wickham's character to be a breach of his social duty because if Wickham's true character had been known others would not have been so easily deceived by him. While Austen is critical of society's ability to judge properly, as demonstrated especially in their judgments of Wickham and Darcy, she does believe that society has a crucial role in promoting virtue. Austen has a profound sense that individuals are social beings and that their happiness is found through relationships with others. According to critic Richard Simpson, Austen has a "thorough consciousness that man is a social being, and that apart from society there is not even the individual."

Virtue: Austen's novels unite Aristotelian and Christian conceptions of virtue. She sees human life as

purposeful and believes that human beings must guide their appetites and desires through their use of reason. Elizabeth's folly in her misjudgments of Darcy and Wickham is that her vanity has prevented her from reasoning objectively. Lydia seems almost completely devoid of virtue because she has never trained herself to discipline her passions or formed her judgment such that she is capable of making sound moral decisions. Human happiness is found by living a life in accordance with human dignity, which is a life in accordance with virtue. Self-knowledge has a central place in the acquisition of virtue, as it is a prerequisite for moral improvement. Darcy and Elizabeth are only freed of their pride and prejudice when their dealings with one another help them to see their faults and spur them to improve.

WEEK 7: A Fish Called Wanda

- I. Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- II. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
- 1. Charles Crichton
- 2. John Cleese
- 3. Kevin Kline
- 4. Jamie Lee Curtis
 - III. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
 - IV. User comments and film reviews
 - V. Classroom activities:
 - 1. Cultural differences
 - 2. British humor
 - VI. Film language and knowledge: Film reviews 1

The Four Functions of Film Reviewing

The material for this section was derived from the wonderful book <u>Making Meaning</u> by David Bordwell and was supplemented by Debbie Twyman

Journalism

Film reviews of this type present the reader with the latest news and information about the most recent film releases. These reviews tend to focus on the most significant aspects of a specific film. In other words, these reviews tend to note such "important" information as the stars of the film, the cost of the production (just ask Director James Cameron about that one!), and interesting aspects about the production itself (cool special effects, new techniques, a cast of thousands, etc.). Generally speaking, film reviews of this type tend to fall into two categories -- journalism of opinion (which presents a carefully thought out position on a film backed up with background information and examples) and journalism of taste (a simple evaluation of the film). In depth reviews of films tend to combine these two types of journalism. Students in Film Appreciation should strive to construct in depth reviews.

Advertising

The primary purpose of these film reviews is to publicize a film and to convince readers to go watch it. Reviewers who engage in this type of reviewing regard themselves as providing a service - certainly to the studio - and to the reader by functioning as a guide to what is currently available at their local multiplex. Warning. Did you ever wonder about those up close and personal interviews with stars about their latest projects - the really glowing warm fuzzy kind that air on your local television station? These are frequently arranged for by the movie studio that is promoting the film in question. They fly the critic out for an all expense paid interview with the star in the hopes that it will garner the movie some positive press for their film. This is the same way that they get those great quotes that they put on advertisements for the film. You know, the ones by critics that you have never heard of. As in all things, let the buyer beware.

Criticism

Reviews of this kind generally provide a brief description of the film while focusing on the analysis and evaluation of the film's artistic merits. Film Appreciation students who really want to get an A from Ms. Twyman and who want to run with the Big Dogs try to write reviews of this caliber.

Rhetoric (Writing)

Ph.D. candidates and folks who are seriously interested in film often write reviews that border on essays and that are judged as much on their literary merit as on their cinematic content. These sorts of essays are often grouped together and published by academic press or a small independent publishing company. They are not for the faint of heart. Frankly, unless they are written or edited by Pauline Kael or Roger Ebert they should probably only be read by a serious film student. Translated, your classmates won't enjoy these and virtually no one visiting our Web Site is on a quest for writing of this depth, so wait till you get your MFA in Film Studies to forge into this territory. But what the heck, if you feel like attempting this Twyman will be impressed and if you bribe her with enough chocolate she can probably be convinced not to read your essay/review out loud to the class.

http://www.twyman-whitney.com/film/functions reviewing.html

WEEK 8: The Cider House Rules

- I. Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- II. Introduction to the director, writer, composer and actors
- 1. Lasse Hallström
- 2. John Irving
- 3. Rachel Portman
- 4. Tobey Maguire
- 5. Charlize Theron
- 6. Michael Caine

- III. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- IV. User comments and film reviews
- V. Classroom activities: Major themes

Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

Stages of Moral Development

By Kendra Van Wagner, About.com

Moral development is a topic of interest in both psychology and education. Psychologist Lawrence Kohlberg modified and expanded upon Piaget's work to form a theory that explained the development of moral reasoning. Piaget described a two-stage process of moral development, while Kohlberg theory of moral development outlined six stages within three different levels. Kohlberg extended Piaget's theory, proposing that moral development is a continual process that occurs throughout the lifespan.

Level 1. Preconventional Morality

Stage 1 - Obedience and Punishment

The earliest stage of moral development is especially common in young children, but adults are capable of expressing this type of reasoning. At this stage, children see rules as fixed and absolute. Obeying the rules is important because it is a means to avoid punishment.

Stage 2 - Individualism and Exchange

At this stage of moral development, children account for individual points of view and judge actions based on how they serve individual needs. In the Heinz dilemma, children argued that the best course of action was whichever best-served Heinz's needs. Reciprocity is possible, but only if it serves one's own interests.

Level 2. Conventional Morality

Stage 3 - Interpersonal Relationships

Often referred to as the "good boy-good girl" orientation, this stage of moral development is focused on living up to social expectations and roles. There is an emphasis on conformity, being "nice," and consideration of how choices influence relationships.

Stage 4 - Maintaining Social Order

At this stage of moral development, people begin to consider society as a whole when making judgments. The focus is on maintaining law and order by following the rules, doing one's duty, and respecting authority.

Level 3. Postconventional Morality

Stage 5 - Social Contract and Individual Rights

At this stage, people begin to account for the differing values, opinions, and beliefs of other people. Rules of law are important for maintaining a society, but members of the society should agree upon these standards.

Stage 6 - Universal Principles

Kolhberg's final level of moral reasoning is based upon universal ethical principles and abstract reasoning. At this stage, people follow these internalized principles of justice, even if they conflict with laws and rules.

WEEK 9: The Shawshank Redemption

- I. Brief introduction to the film
 - 1. Plot summary
 - 2. The film's success
- II. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
- 1. Frank Darabont
- 2. Tim Robbins
- 3. Morgan Freeman
- III. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- IV. User comments and film reviews
- V. Classroom activities: Major themes
- VI. Film language and knowledge: Film reviews 2

The Essential Elements of Film Reviews

The material for this section was derived from the wonderful book <u>Making Meaning</u> by David Bordwell and was supplemented and explained by Debbie Twyman

David Bordwell suggests in his book <u>Making Meaning</u>, that there are four key components present in film reviews. These components consist of a condensed plot synopsis, background information, a set of abbreviated arguments about the film, and an evaluation.

Condensed Plot Synopsis

A condensed plot synopsis means exactly that. This is a brief description of the film's plot that probably emphasizes the most important moments of the film without revealing the films ending. Nothing is worse than revealing too much about the movie and thus ruining it for the viewer.

Background Information

Background information about the film consists of information about the stars, the director, and the production staff of the film. It can also include interesting tidbits about the making of the film. It may incorporate information about the film's source material as well as mentioning the type of genre the film fits into. If the reviewer is so inclined, it may also include comments from other reviewers and industry insiders that are designed to indicate to the reader what the film's reception is likely to be (can you say hype?).

Abbreviated Arguments About The Film

The abbreviated arguments about the film are generally the main focus of the review. This is the section in which the reviewer analyzes and critiques the film. The focus of this segment is to point out what does

and does not work in the movie and why. Most reviewers attempt to combine this information with a little background information. For example, if the lighting and composition of the film are particularly dreadful the reviewer will generally take the time to note who the film's cinematographer was - since it's the cinematographer's responsibility to prevent that from happening.

Evaluation

The reviewer's evaluation of the film generally includes a recommendation to either see or avoid seeing the film. This evaluation is always based on the reviewer's arguments about the film and is frequently backed up with his/her comments regarding the film's background. Your instructor would argue that the entire tone of the review should be influenced by the reviewer's evaluation of the film. To be honest, the reader should have a fairly clear idea of the reviewer's opinion after they have read the review's opening sentence. This does NOT mean that you should start a review with statements like, "This was a good movie," or "you should go see this film right now!" It does mean that the reader should have a general idea about where the reviewer stands on the film from the first paragraph on - just don't bludgeon us to death with it.

Generally speaking, when a reviewer is evaluating a film he/she tends to be assessing some, or all, of the following: the motivation for what happens in the film, the film's entertainment value, the film's social relevance and social value, and the film's aesthetic value. Hey, if it were easy everyone would be a film critic. It is a great job, most of the time. Unless of course, you are watching a genuinely bad film, the sort that once caused a notable film critic to comment, "That is 90 minutes of my life I can never get back."

Film critics frequently find fault with the film's motivation. That is not to say that they did not like the film's central theme but rather to say that they are looking for the relevance of a particular narrative event, or a justification for a specific action or section of dialogue. Bordwell classifies motivation into four categories: compositional, realistic, intertextual, and artistic. Compositional motivation probes the film's cause-effect logic - that is, does the movie flow logically from one scene to the next. Realistic motivation examines whether the actions that occur within the film are plausible or believable within the realms of the film's fiction. Intertextual motivation examines the relationship between the film and its genre and source material (a novel, a play, etc.) - for example, what would make sense in a musical would not make sense in a western and vice versa. Artistic motivation examines the way a film is made, its use of mise-enshot and mise-en-scene to achieve a particular artistic look and feel. It is important to note that what is artistically motivated to one reviewer may be distracting to another. Once again, it all comes down to individual taste.

Most reviewers are at the very least conscious of the film's entertainment value. They are aware that the principle objective of most films is to entertain. They are also aware that if the film does not create a sense of willing suspense of disbelief on the part of a viewer it simply is not entertaining. Another way of looking at it is to say that the audience should be actively engaged in the movie; it should hold their attention and arouse their emotions. At today's ticket prices it had darn well better do that. So how does a movie do that? If I had all the answers I would be in Hollywood consulting for a major studio and this

web site could take care of itself! That is not totally true, I do have some theories about this, as do most film critics. For starters, it is my fundamental belief that a film that does not have a strong set of characters with which the audience can identify it will not engage the audience. For more about what I consider to be the essential aspects of effective films check out that section of the web page. It should be noted, however, that some films (most notably summer blockbusters), can be successful if they provide the audience with an emotional roller-coaster ride that is comprised of enough action sequences, stunts, loud explosions, special effects, and booming surround sound. This reviewer is particularly enamoured with fireballs and explosions. Any of these approaches can potentially prove entertaining for the viewer.

Social value or relevance can also play an important role in a critic's perspective of the film. If the film makes an important social statement a reviewer may choose to overlook some, if not all of the flaws in the film. Films such as "Citizen Kane" (Orson Welles' masterpiece about the life of Charles Foster Kane which was actually a scathing indictment of the American Dream features many inconsistencies), or "JFK" (Oliver Stone's examination of the assassination of John F. Kennedy which includes many questionable facts) can be forgiven the occasional lapse because of their social and artistic importance. That is to say, a film can sometimes be redeemed by its message to such an extent that a reviewer will overlook technical mistakes, unless they are so monumental that they totally distract the viewer.

So, what order does this go in, and how much of each of these things should be included in any review? Actually, that depends on the film and on the reviewer. Generally speaking, the information appears in the aforementioned order, but there is no hard and fast rule that says that it has to be that way. Bordwell seems to suggest that you open with a mini evaluation (one or two sentences that set the tone for the review), provide a mini plot synopsis, insert some condensed arguments (focusing on the acting - or lack therein, story logic, production values, special effects, etc.), toss in some background information throughout these sections, and then finish with a final assessment of the film's relative merit. Just how much the reviewer includes in each of these sections depends both on the film and the reviewer's assessment of his/her readers. Translated: what is there about the film that is worth praising or deriding and just how much information do my readers need and want in order to determine whether they would enjoy seeing this film?

WEEK 10: October Sky

- I. Brief introduction to the film
 - 1. Plot summary
 - 2. Helpful background
- II. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
- 一) Joe Johnston

- 二) Homer Hadley Hickam
- 三) Chris Cooper
- 四) Jake Gyllenhaal
- III. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- IV. User comments and film reviews
- V. Classroom activities
 - 1. Background information
 - 2. Major themes
 - VI. Film language and knowledge: Film rating system 1

A **motion picture rating system** categorizes films with regard to suitability for audiences in terms of issues such as sex, violence, substance abuse, profanity, impudence or other types of mature content. A particular issued rating is called a certification.

This helps parents decide whether a movie is suitable for their children. Also, in some jurisdictions a rating may impose on movie theaters the legal obligation of refusing the entrance of children or minors to the movie. Furthermore, where movie theaters do not have this legal obligation, they may enforce restrictions on their own. Ratings are often given in lieu of censorship.

The Motion Picture Association of America's film-rating system is used in the U.S. and its territories to rate a film's thematic and content suitability for certain audiences. The MPAA system applies only to motion pictures that are submitted for rating. Other media (such as television programs and video games) may be rated by other entities. A voluntary system not enforced by law, it is one of various motion picture rating systems used to help parents decide what movies are appropriate for their children.

In the U.S., the MPAA's rating systems are the most-recognized guide for parents regarding the content of movies, and each rating has been trademarked by MPAA so that they are not used outside of motion pictures. The MPAA system has been criticized for the secrecy of its decisions as well as for perceived inconsistencies.[1]

Contrary to popular belief, MPAA ratings carry no force of local, state, or federal law anywhere in the United States. The MPAA's rating system is administered by the Classification & Ratings Administration, which is not a government agency. MPAA ratings only serve as a consumer suggestion by a group of corporate analysts. After screening films, their personal opinions are used to arrive at one of five ratings. Theater owners voluntarily agree to enforce corporate film ratings as determined by the MPAA, which in turn facilitates their access to new film releases.

WEEK 11: "五一"国际劳动节 WEEK 12: An Ideal Husband

- I. Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- II. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
- 1. Oliver Parker
- 2. Oscar Wilde
- 3. Cate Blanchett

4. Rupert Everett

III. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)

IV. User comments and film reviews

V. Classroom activities: Major themes

Political Corruption: Political corruption dominates the plot in An Ideal Husband. Sir Robert's flawless career is threatened by the corruption of his youth. One of the play's ironies is that the happy ending relies on Sir Robert's corruption remaining hidden from public view. The offer of a cabinet seat would never stand if the public had knowledge of his past. Yet, because he successfully hides this past, he feels absolved of his crime. Even Lady Chiltern forgives him for it. The reader can also certainly understand the folly of youth and imperfections of humanity, especially in the face of temptation. However, Wilde's play observes the relevant point that the modern political playing ground was emerging into one where corruption often went hand in hand with politics. The morals of many people, and some of the play's major characters, are based more on the fear of public detection and retaining social status than on pure values of right and wrong. He criticizes this society throughout the play.

Institution of Marriage: Wilde treats marriage as a complicated and imperfect relationship in his play, and mocks the Chilterns' attempt to create the perfect marriage based on social status. Lady Chiltern constantly states that her husband cannot afford to support the Argentine Canal scheme because he represents the best of English life. Both Lady Basildon and Mrs. Marchmont complain about their marriage because they are too perfect, and are therefore uninteresting. In any marriage, problems arise, but in the best marriages, love remains constant. Lord Goring is the play's champion of love, and his relationship with Mabel allows for imperfections rather than focusing on ideals. Mrs. Cheveley tries to make Lord Goring marry her, but she represents evil and self-interest, and as Lord Goring notes, desecrates the word of love. Thus, he does not even imagine accepting her suggestion, and maintains true to himself and his love. The survival of marriage and the proposal of entering into married union is front and center throughout the plot, and highlights the characters' imperfections.

The Triumph of Love: At the very end of Act I, the final scene ends with the great chandelier illuminating the tapestry of the Triumph of Love. This description certainly foreshadows the rest of the play, for in the remaining three acts, love does in fact triumph. Part of the play's final line is "Love, and only love." With the help of Lord Goring, Lady Chiltern learns about the power of love and comes to understand life through the lens of love. Many of the other characters also examine differing ideas of love. Lord Goring speaks of love as the only path to truly understand and living life, and in the end pledges his love to Mabel. Lady Chiltern believes her love is contingent upon(=depending on) her husband's moral perfection, but learns that perfection is impossible, and that love will endure even when flaws are acknowledged. The plot is a battleground between the forces of love versus the forces of evil. In Act III, Mrs. Cheveley, the representation of evil, twice wears a look of triumph. However, despite evil's best efforts, Lady Chiltern finally understands that love is powerful enough to withstand imperfection. Moreover, Sir Robert moves from viewing wealth as all-important to understanding love and his marriage are the most important things in his life. Thus, love, rather than wealth or evil, leads to happiness and triumphs all.

Modernity: The characters in the play are highly concerned with the fashions of the day. Lady Markby comments that Mabel is becoming increasingly modern, and warns her of the danger associated with such change, as a tendency towards modernity allows for more rapidly becoming out of date. Likewise, Lady Markby preoccupies herself with the modern infatuation with curates, and notes that the citizens of overpopulated England tend to jostle and scramble a great deal nowadays. Wilde references modernity throughout the play, regardless of topic or scene, and often associates it with unpleasantness. Notably, Sir Robert comments that every modern fortune is built on private information, thus arguing for the necessity of political corruption. Moreover, Lord Goring comments that Mrs. Cheveley is most likely one of those modern women who fancy new scandals. The general fear of modernity suggests a social weakness of an inability to accept change. Most of the play's characters, despite claiming an interest in modern culture, seem to wish for social conformity.

Forgiveness: The question of forgiveness runs throughout An Ideal Husband. As Sir Robert angrily tells his wife that she has placed him up on a monstrous pedestal, he tells her that it is when men are wounded that they are most in need of love and forgiveness. As he puts it, love forgives. Much like the question, "Are you a pessimist or an optimist?" the decision to forgive determines the quality of the characters' moral fortitude. Mrs. Cheveley stands as the one character beyond forgiveness. In Act III, Lord Goring explains that Mrs. Cheveley's attempt to kill Lady Chiltern's love for her husband is an unforgivable act. However, when Sir Robert appears at Lord Goring's house in desperate need of advice, believing he has killed his wife's love for him, Lord Goring maintains that she will forgive him. Lord Goring understands that the act of forgiveness is a crucial part of marriage, and through it we acknowledge universal human imperfection. Therefore, love and forgiveness are inseparable throughout the play. When love is present, there is the possibility of forgiveness. Human imperfection inherently requires love and forgiveness from others.

The Past: The past constantly remains in the characters' consciousness, and thus also in the reader's. In the first act, Mrs. Cheveley tells Sir Robert that he cannot buy back his past; he must face his mistakes. Similarly, Lady Chiltern defines Mrs. Cheveley by the dishonesty she exhibited and thefts she committed during her schooldays. In fact, Lady Chiltern believes the past defines a person, and reveals true character. Mrs. Cheveley's past finally catches up with her as well, when Lord Goring finds the piece of jewelry she stole from Lady Berkshire. It ruins her plan to blackmail Sir Robert, and leaves her helpless against Lord Goring's demands. Even Lord Goring's past briefly haunts him. Many years previous he was briefly engaged to Mrs. Cheveley. Sir Robert discovers the woman in his house, and afterwards refuses Lord Goring his sister Mabel's hand. Fortunately, Lord Goring and Lady Chiltern explain the events of that evening and Sir Robert blesses the marriage. Lord Caversham, Lord Goring's father and a figure of the past, constantly compares modern day society with his own generation, which leaves him wondering at the state of his country. The past looms large for all the characters and profoundly affects their present lives.

The Role of Women in Society: Much of the play provides commentary on the role of women in society. Sir Robert asks Mrs. Cheveley if she thinks science can grapple with the problem of women, which sets up the play's suggestion that women are highly complex. In the final act, Lord Goring gives a speech to Lady Chiltern about the role of women in society and in marriage, stressing the importance of supporting a husband in pursuing what he loves rather than stifling his desires. She takes his advice to heart and urges

her husband to continue his public service. Lord Goring often draws a clear distinction between the role of men and women in society and in marriage. In Act III, he thinks to himself that all women should stand by their husbands. Lord Caversham suggests that only men, and not women, are endowed with common sense.

Although many of the male characters have problems with the women, many women have problems with the men. Lady Basildon and Mrs. Marchmont are miserable with their husbands, and fed up with their perfection. Mrs. Markby and Mrs. Cheveley believe that men need education, but doubt their capacity to develop. Lady Markby and Lady Basildon, and Mrs. Marchmont also comment on the role of women. Lady Markby talks about modern women, deriding their higher education, a topic that Lady Chiltern rigorously defends. She explains that in the past, women were taught not to understand anything, but that the modern woman is far more knowledgeable. Thus, women have a complex role within the play. The coexistence of men and women often seems a constant struggle, but one that is ultimately beneficial to all.

WEEK 13: To Kill a Mockingbird

- I. Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- II. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
 - 1. Robert Mulligan
 - 2. Harper Lee
 - 3. Gregory Peck
- III. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- IV. User comments and film reviews
- V. Classroom activities:
 - 1. Background information

Harper Lee wrote To Kill a Mockingbird during a very tense time racially in her home state of Alabama. The South was still segregated, forcing blacks to use separate facilities apart from those used by whites, in almost every aspect of society. The Civil Rights Movement began to pick up steam when Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat on a bus in Montgomery, Alabama, in 1955. Following her bold defiance, Marin Luther King, Jr., became the leader of the movement, and the issue began to gain serious national attention. Clearly, a prime subject of To Kill a Mockingbird, namely the injustice of racism and inequality in the American South, was highly relevant at the time of its publication.

Interestingly, Harper Lee decided to set the novel in the Depression era of the 1930s. The main character, Scout, is based on Lee's own childhood, and Dill is most likely based on her childhood friend and neighbor, Truman Capote. By placing her novel in the 1930s, Lee provided her readers with a historical background for current events of the time, and in doing so she exposed the deeply rooted history of the civil rights struggle in the South.

In addition to a biting analysis of race relations, To Kill A Mockingbird is also a story about Scout's maturation. Coming-of-age stories are also known as members of the genre *Bildungsroman*, which tends

to depict main characters who take large steps in personal growth due to life lessons or specific trauma. In Lee's novel, Scout Finch works to come to terms with the facts of her society, including social inequality, racial inequality, and the expectation that she act as a "proper Southern lady." Scout is a tomboy who resents efforts to alter her behavior in order to make her more socially accepted. In the 1930s, gender inequality also reigned, and women were not given equal rights. Women in the South were expected to be delicate and dainty, concepts that Scout abhors; and women were not allowed to serve on juries in Maycomb, according to the novel. Scout loves adventure and can punch as well as any boy in her class. She finds it hard to fit into the mold of a Southern lady. Miss Maudie is a strong role model for her in that Miss Maudie also defies some of their society's expectations and maintains her individuality as a Southern woman. But Scout eventually succumbs—in her own way—to social pressure.

The novel's characters are forced to examine the world (or at least the town) in which they live. Through observing their society and interacting with people such as Tom Robinson and Boo Radley, they come to understand more about true bravery, cowardice, and humanity.

2. Major themes

WEEK 14: My Best Friend's Wedding

- —, Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- Introduction to the director, writer and actors
- a) P.J. Hogan
- b) Ronald Bass
- c) Julia Roberts
- d) Rupert Everett
- e) Dermot Mulroney
- f) Cameron Diaz
- 三、 Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- 四、 User comments and film reviews
- 五、 Classroom activities: Cultural information
- VI. Film language and knowledge: Film rating system 2

What do the ratings symbols mean?

General Audience. All ages admitted. This signifies that the film rated contains nothing most parents will consider offensive for even their youngest children to see or hear. Nudity, sex scenes, and scenes of drug use are absent; violence is minimal; snippets(片断) of dialogue may go beyond polite conversation but do not go beyond common everyday expressions.

Parental Guidance Suggested. Some material may not be suitable for children. This signifies that the film rated may contain some material parents might not like to expose to their young children - material that will clearly need to be examined or inquired about before children are allowed to attend the film. Explicit sex scenes and scenes of drug use are absent; nudity, if present, is seen only briefly, horror and violence do not exceed moderate levels.

Parents Strongly Cautioned. Some material may be inappropriate for children under 13. This signifies that the film rated may be inappropriate for pre-teens. Parents should be especially careful about letting their younger children attend. Rough or persistent violence is absent; sexually-oriented nudity is generally absent; some scenes of drug use may be seen; one use of the harsher sexually derived words may be heard.

Restricted-Under 17 requires accompanying parent or adult guardian (age varies in some locations). This signifies that the rating board has concluded that the film rated contains some adult material. Parents are urged to learn more about the film before taking their children to see it. An R may be assigned due to, among other things, a film's use of language, theme, violence, sex or its portrayal of drug use.

No One 17 and Under Admitted. This signifies that the rating board believes that most American parents would feel that the film is patently adult and that children age 17 and under should not be admitted to it. The film may contain explicit sex scenes, an accumulation of sexually-oriented language, or scenes of excessive violence. The NC-17 designation does not, however, signify that the rated film is obscene or pornographic.

WEEK 15: The Color Purple

- I. Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- II. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
 - 1. Steven Spielberg
 - 2. Alice Walker
 - 3. Whoopi Goldberg
 - 4. Oprah Winfrey
- III. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- IV. User comments and film reviews
- V. Classroom activities: Characters and major themes

The Power of Narrative and Voice

Walker emphasizes throughout the novel that the ability to express one's thoughts and feelings is crucial to developing a sense of self. Initially, Celie is completely unable to resist those who abuse her. Remembering Alphonso's warning that she "better not never tell nobody but God" about his abuse of her, Celie feels that the only way to persevere is to remain silent and invisible. Celie is essentially an object, an entirely passive party who has no power to assert herself through action or words. Her letters to God, in which she begins to pour out her story, become her only outlet. However, because she is so unaccustomed to articulating her experience, her narrative is initially muddled despite her best efforts at transparency.

In Shug and Sofia, Celie finds sympathetic ears and learns lessons that enable her to find her voice. In renaming Celie a "virgin," Shug shows Celie that she can create her own narrative, a new interpretation of

herself and her history that counters the interpretations forced upon her. Gradually Celie begins to flesh out more of her story by telling it to Shug. However, it is not until Celie and Shug discover Nettie's letters that Celie finally has enough knowledge of herself to form her own powerful narrative. Celie's forceful assertion of this newfound power, her cursing of Mr. ______ for his years of abuse, is the novel's climax. Celie's story dumbfounds and eventually humbles Mr. _____, causing him to reassess and change his own life.

Though Walker clearly wishes to emphasize the power of narrative and speech to assert selfhood and resist oppression, the novel acknowledges that such resistance can be risky. Sofia's forceful outburst in response to Miss Millie's invitation to be her maid costs her twelve years of her life. Sofia regains her freedom eventually, so she is not totally defeated, but she pays a high price for her words.

The Power of Strong Female Relationships

Throughout The Color Purple, Walker portrays female friendships as a means for women to summon the courage to tell stories. In turn, these stories allow women to resist oppression and dominance.

Relationships among women form a refuge, providing reciprocal love in a world filled with male violence.

Female ties take many forms: some are motherly or sisterly, some are in the form of mentor and pupil, some are sexual, and some are simply friendships. Sofia claims that her ability to fight comes from her strong relationships with her sisters. Nettie's relationship with Celie anchors her through years of living in the unfamiliar culture of Africa. Samuel notes that the strong relationships among Olinka women are the only thing that makes polygamy bearable for them. Most important, Celie's ties to Shug bring about Celie's gradual redemption and her attainment of a sense of self.

The Cyclical Nature of Racism and Sexism

Almost none of the abusers in Walker's novel are stereotypical, one-dimensional monsters whom we can dismiss as purely evil. Those who perpetuate violence are themselves victims, often of sexism, racism, or paternalism. Harpo, for example, beats Sofia only after his father implies that Sofia's resistance makes Harpo less of a man. Mr. ______ is violent and mistreats his family much like his own tyrantlike father treated him. Celie advises Harpo to beat Sofia because she is jealous of Sofia's strength and assertiveness.

The characters are largely aware of the cyclical nature of harmful behavior. For instance, Sofia tells Eleanor Jane that societal influence makes it almost inevitable that her baby boy will grow up to be a racist. Only by forcefully talking back to the men who abuse them and showing them a new way of doing things do the women of the novel break these cycles of sexism and violence, causing the men who abused them to stop and reexamine their ways.

The Disruption of Traditional Gender Roles

Many characters in the novel break the boundaries of traditional male or female gender roles. Sofia's strength and sass, Shug's sexual assertiveness, and Harpo's insecurity are major examples of such disparity between a character's gender and the traits he or she displays. This blurring of gender traits and roles sometimes involves sexual ambiguity, as we see in the sexual relationship that develops between Celie and

Shug.

Disruption of gender roles sometimes causes problems. Harpo's insecurity about his masculinity leads to marital problems and his attempts to beat Sofia. Likewise, Shug's confident sexuality and resistance to male domination cause her to be labeled a tramp. Throughout the novel, Walker wishes to emphasize that gender and sexuality are not as simple as we may believe. Her novel subverts and defies the traditional ways in which we understand women to be women and men to be men.

WEEK 16: One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest

- Brief introduction to the film
 - 1. Plot summary
 - 2. Helpful background

One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest, published in 1962, is the product of both the personal experiences of its author, Ken Kesey, and the specific culture in which it was written. Kesey developed the novel while he attended Stanford University as a graduate student in their Creative Writing program as the winner of a Woodrow Wilson Fellowship. The novel was partially inspired by Kesey's part-time job as an orderly in a Palo Alto veterans' hospital. It was also as a student at Stanford where Kesey began participating in experiments for the psychology department that involved the use of LSD. This use of LSD prompted Kesey to have hallucinations while working as an orderly. Kesey hallucinated seeing a large Indian mopping the floors of the hospital; this hallucination prompted Kesey to add the character Chief Bromden as the novel's narrator.

Kesey published One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest to great critical and commercial success, but for one reader the factual information that he included from his experiences at the veterans' hospital proved problematic. Both Kesey and his publisher, Viking Press, were sued by a plaintiff who claimed that a minor character in the novel, a Red Cross nurse, was based on her and she was unfairly portrayed. The case resulted in revisions to subsequent editions of the book. The Red Cross nurse was changed to the nameless character Public Relation. The plaintiff in the case later became a novelist herself, and wrote a novel set in a California spa. In an ironic twist, she was the subject of a lawsuit from a doctor who claimed that a character in her novel defamed him.

The novel in some sense forms a bridge between the bohemian beatnik movements of the 1950s and the 1960s counterculture movement. Kesey was significantly inspired by the beatnik culture around Stanford, and in the novel Kesey deals with a number of themes that would be significant in the counterculture movement, including notions of freedom from repressive authority and a more liberated view of sexuality. Kesey himself became a highly influential counterculture figure as part of the Merry Pranksters.

Despite the counterculture themes of the novel, One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest was a popular and critical success. Dale Wasserman adapted the novel into a two act play in 1974, while Milos Forman directed a successful film adaptation of the novel the following year. This film, recently named as one of

the twenty greatest films by the American Film Institute, featured Jack Nicholson as R.P. McMurphy and Louise Fletcher as Nurse Ratched. The film won the Academy Award for Best Picture and gained awards for Nicholson and Fletcher. It remains only one of three films to sweep the top five categories at the Oscars.

- 1. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
 - 1. Milos Forman
 - 2. Jack Nicholson
 - 3. Louise Fletcher
- III. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- IV. User comments and film reviews

WEEK 17: Crash

- 1. Brief introduction to the film(including Plot Summary)
- 2. Introduction to the director, writer and actors
 - a) Paul Haggis
 - b) Sandra Bullock
 - c) Don Cheadle
- 3. Language focus(including Memorable Quotes)
- 4. User comments and film reviews
- 5. Classroom activities: Major themes

<u>DISCUSSION TOPICS</u> - Racism, fear, big cities, Los Angeles, Los Angeles police department as a racist institution, humiliation, pride, the U.S. health care system, racial discrimination, desperation, anger, uncontrollable flatulence, privacy, depression, loneliness, stereotypes, dignity, self-defense, molestation, street violence, car theft,

MESSAGE - Truth does not always enter into the picture when race is involved. Actions determine who you really are.

WEEK 18: 期末考试

《西方宗教与文化》教学大纲

辛衍君 编写

目 录

— 、	前言	2
_,	课程教学目的和基本要求	2
三、	课程主要教学内容及学时分配	2
	相关教学环节	
	APTER ONE: GREECE CULTURE AND ROMAN CULTUER	
	APTER TWO: THE BIBLE AND CHRISTIANITY	
CHA	APTER THREE: THE MIDDLE AGES, RENAISSANCE AND REFORMATION	6
CHA	APTER FOUR: THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY	8
CHA	APTER FIVE: THE AGE OF ENLIGHTENMENT	9
	APTER SIX: ROMANTICISM	
	APTER SEVEN: MARXISM AND DARWINISM	
CHA	APTER EIGHT: REALISM	12
CHA	APTER NINE: MODERNISM AND OTHER TRENDS	12

一、前言

《西方宗教与文化》是英语专业三年级学生的专业选修课程。该课程重点介绍欧美文化传统、宗教、艺术的基本状况和主要成就,以及这些成就对人类社会进步产生的深远影响。通过这门课程的学习加深学生对西方宗教和文化传统的深层次理解,拓展学生的知识视野,完善知识结构,提高跨文化交际能力。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程以西方宗教、文化为纲,多方面系统地概括和介绍西方社会宗教及文化方面的发展的主要阶段及成就。通过该课程的学习,学生对欧美文化传统、宗教、艺术的基本状况一定的了解,对西方文化宗教的精髓和主要成就有一个总体的把握,从而能从广义的文化哲学层面去审视西方文明,提高学生对中西文化差异的敏感性、海纳百川的文化兼容性以及处理文化差异的灵活性。

三、课程主要教学内容及学时分配

本课程安排在专业学习的第7个学期开设,周2学时,18周,总课时36学时。该课程使用教材:王佐良等:《欧洲文化入门》,外语教学与研究出版社,1992。

叶胜年:《西方文化导论》,上海外语教育出版社,2005年。参考书:1、朱永涛,《英美文化基础教程》外语教学与研究出版社,1991年。2、董小燕:《西方文明史纲》,浙江大学出版社,2001年。3、吴国瑞选注:《圣经故事》,外语教学与研究出版社,1989。

《西方宗教与文化》主要探讨为 9 个大题目: 1、古希腊、罗马文化。2、犹基督教及《圣经》。 3、中世纪和文艺复兴与宗教改革。4、十七世纪。5、启蒙运动。6、浪漫主义。 7、马克思主义与 达尔文学说。 8、现实主义。9、现代主义及其他。

四、相关教学环节

教学内容关注西方文明的核心问题以及中西方文化差异的探讨与对比研究。该课程教学以课堂讲授和学生讨论相结合的方法,并辅以多媒体教学手段,增强视听感受。课堂教学环节重点精讲核心内容,并鼓励学生积极思考,在课堂组织有效的分组讨论,培养学生分析问题、解决问题等能力:课后为学生布置研究题目、以便学生进行课下拓展阅读及相关资料收集,展开调研。

CHAPTER ONE: GREECE CULTURE AND ROMAN CULTUER

- 1. Greek Culture
- (1). The historical context
- a. It is generally acknowledged that the earliest representation of Greek civilization is on the island of Crete. The Cretan society, dated back from 2000-2600BC, was the first important society in the Greek world. The people of Crete were probably from Asia Minor. Their influence on Greek culture was very significant. The leading city of ancient Crete was Knossos. The civilization found on Crete was called Minoan. Minoans achieved their greatest distinction in the grace and beauty of their art. Their art valued style and elegance as can be seen in the great palace of Knossos. Their pottery was highly decorative and showed much sophistication.

b. The Development and End of Greek Civilization

Greek civilization clearly demonstrated strong signs of vigorous and dynamic development in its long history. These marvelous achievements ensured a long period of increasing prosperity and power for the nation and provided lasting influences for the later development of other European countries. Greek civilization came to its peak during 499-449BC. Around 146BC a split doomed opened the way for the invasion of later aggressors like Macedonia, Gaul and Rome.

(2). Social and political Structure

Greek Culture: Greek mythology, religion, philosophy and literature

Historically Greek culture is of a rich variety, lasting value and wide influence around the world in the categories of mythology and religion, philosophy, literature, art and science. In Greek myth all the gods live on Mount Olympus, and Zeus is the chief keeping order with thunderbolts, both in heaven and on earth. The most prominent feature of Greek myth is that both man and god assume the same form. Two of the best-known Greek myths centre on the Trojan Horse and on Jason.

Greek philosophy achieved its high point in the history of human intellectual development, marked by a series of important concepts about materialism, idealism and dialectics, the most influential philosophers were Socrates, Plata and Aristotle. Socrates has a reputation for irony and a sense of humor, Plato developed models for an ideal state in his Republic, Symposium and Law, and Aristotle was the greatest thinker and most learned person of the ancient times. Greek literature is considered to consist of epic, lyrical poetry and drama. Greek art and its application to practical situations are also of certain significance in understanding its achievements, as demonstrated by Athenian architecture, sculpture and painting.

- (3). Homer
- (4). Lyric Poetry
- (5). Drama
- a. Aeschylus
- b. Sophocles
- c. Euripides
- d. Comedy
- (6). Impact
- a. Spirit of Innovation

- b. Supreme Achievement
- c. Lasting Effect
- 2. Roman Culture
- (1). Roman History

The Historical Development and Social and Economic Conditions

Ancient Rome was located exactly where modern Rome is today, along the western coast of central Italy. The Italian city of Rome is the birthplace of the Roman Empire and, therefore, the origin of Roman culture. The early Rome was ruled by seven kings, later by two consuls and a senate. Conflict with Carthage followed and the most influential event was the hundred years' war. In the two centuries after Augustus took power, the Roman Empire reached its culmination. Roman society was established as a hierarchy based on legal distinction between the ruling class and the ruled, the rich and the poor, aristocracy and the ordinary people, the citizen and non-citizen, with the patricians maintaining their favored position for almost three centuries. The time when the Roman emperors ruled followed the demise of the Roman Republic.

(2). Cultural Achievements:

Myth, Religion Literature, Philosophy, Art and Architecture

- a. Influenced y Greek culture and myth, Romans took more interest in Greek gods and extended their own beliefs to the wholesale adoption of the Olympian pantheon of gods. Almost every Roman god has a Greek counterpart. The average Roman had freedom to choose his or her god to believe in. Apart from embodying myths, Roman literature was principally made up of poetry, prose and drama. Among the best-known Roman poets are Virgil, Horace and Ovid. Roman philosophy was greatly influenced by the Greek philosophers, especially y the Stoic and Epicurean schools. Roman philosophers provided practical explanation and application of philosophical principles, which developed the genre to some extent.
- b. Roman art is not just the art of the emperors, senators, and aristocracy, but of all the peoples of Rome's vast empire, including middle-class businessmen, freedmen, slaves, and soldiers in Italy and the provinces. Curiously, although examples of Roman architecture, sculpture, painting, and decorative arts survive in great numbers, few Roman artists and architects are known by name today. In general, Roman monuments were designed to serve the needs of their patrons rather than to express the artistic personality of their makers. The Ancient Romans were well known for their architectural ability. They constructed great buildings such as the Collesseum, auquaducts and the Pantheon.

CHAPTER TWO: THE BIBLE AND CHRISTIANITY

- 1. General Introduction
- 2. The Old Testament
- (1). The Pentateuch

Pentateuch is the first part of The Old Testament and consists of five books, which are Genesis, Exodus, Leviticus, Numbers and Deuteronomy It includes history, biography, religious doctrine, law, proprieties, songs, family history and stories, covering almost everything in relation to all the Jewish traditions and culture.

Genesis describes God's creation of the world and traces the history of the Hebrews from

Abraham to Joseph. It includes stories such as Adam and Eve, Cain and Abel, the Great Flood, the Tower of Babel, the lives of Abraham, Isaac, Jacob and how Joseph went to Egypt and so on.

- Exodus describes how Moses led the people of Israel out of Egypt in the 13th or 14th centuries BC, including their life in Egypt and how they suffered from oppression. Also it tells how Aaron prevailed over the Pharaoh to agree to their departure, how they went across the Red Sea, and traveled through the Sinai Desert.
- Leviticus is a carefully composed book of laws and proprieties, with the records of Jewish rites, offerings and sacrifices and so on.
- Numbers is an account of how the Jews, under the leadership of Josue after Moses' death, fought against Canaanites and won.
- Deuteronomy contains the final teachings of Moses, and was doubtless inspired by the 8th century BC prophetic movement in Israel, which was usually identified with the book that inspired Josiah's reform in 621BC.
 - a. The Fall of Man
 - b. Noah's Ark
 - c. Ten Commandments
 - You shall nave no other god
 - You shall not speak the name of the Lord lightly
- Remember the Lords' Day so as to keep it holy. For six days you shall you shall work and do all your labor, but the seventh day is consecrated to God
 - Honour your father and your mother
 - You shall not kill
 - You shall not commit impurity
 - You shall not steal
 - You shall not lie
 - You shall have no impure desire
 - You shall not covet what belongs to your neighbour
 - (2). Historical Books
 - (3). The prophets

The second part of the *The Old Testament* is the Prophets, comprised of 21 books. Six of them continue to tell the Jewish story from the conquest of Canaan to their captivity in Babylon. It is called The Former Prophets. The Latter Prophets consist of three principal prophets and twelve minor prophets.

- a. Amos
- b. Jeremiah
- c. The Book of Daniel
- 3. Rise of Christianity
- (1). The Background of the Birth of Christianity

The earliest Christian document is The Revelation of John written in the latter period of the first century AD. It mentioned only a religious society in Asia Minor. The formation of the mystic elements of Christianity followed on from many prophecies about the arrival of the Messiah. Then He was equated to the Almighty God or the "Son of Man". Hence, the foundation of Christianity had been well laid by the 2ed century BC. The name of Jesus spread first from mouth to mouth and was recorded only in the second

century AD in the four Gospels of The New Testament. A pious religious believer, St. Paul, made the greatest contribution to the final establishment of Christianity. He wrote his famous "espistles" or Christian doctrines, embodying the central beliefs of early Christianity The Gospels, The Messengers' Letters and The Revelation of John before it was collected into The New Testament as the Christian doctrine.

(2). The Development of Christianity

Christianity was widely accepted. The early followers of the religion were mostly poor people, salves and even criminals. As time moved on, Christianity appealed to growing numbers of people even the upper class people in the Roman Empire. The development of Christianity witnessed a new epoch in the 4th century AD, when Christianity turned into a National Religion of the Roman Empire. And in the 6th century AD with the proclamation of Christianity as the only state religion, Christianity entered a stage of unprecedented development.

- (1). The Life of Jesus
- (2). The Spread of Christianity
- 4. The New Testament

The New Testament contains altogether 27 parts, which were completed in the latter half of the first century AD. They are all of the recollections of the early Christians. The earliest manuascript was written in Greek and possibly translated from Arabic, the Palestine language. It consists of the four Gospels, a book of Acts of the Apostles, Letters, and The Revelations of John.

- (1). The Birth of Jesus
- (2). Jesus Is Tempted by the Devil
- (3). The Sermon on the Mount
- (4). The Last Supper
- (5). The Cruxifixion.
- 4. Translations of the Bible

CHAPTER THREE: THE MIDDLE AGES, RENAISSANCE AND REFORMATION

1. General Introduction

The Setting of the Middle Age

The period in European history from the collapse of the Roman Civilization in the 5th AD to the period of the Renaissance in the 14th century is termed generally as the Middle Ages. The Middle Age nonetheless provided the foundation for the transformations of the Humanists' own Renaissance. The period from the fall of Rome to about the year 1000 was called the Dark Ages, also called Late Antiquity, or the Early Middle Ages. Apart from the flowering of the Carolingian court established by Charlemagne, no large kingdom or other political structure arose in Europe to provide

stability. The only force capable of providing a basis for social unity was the Roman Catholic Church. The Middle Ages therefore present the confusing and often contradictory picture of a society attempting to structure itself politically on a spiritual basis. This attempt came to a definitive end with the rise of artistic, commercial, and other activities anchored firmly in the secular world in the period just preceding the Renaissance.

- 2. Manor and Church
- (1). Feudalism
- a. Growth Feudalism
- b. The Manor
- c. Knighthood and Code of Chivalry
- (2).Church
- a. The Organization of church
- b. Church Fathers and Early Monasticism
- c. The Power and Influence of the Catholic Church
- 3. Literature
- (1). National Epics
- a. Beowulf
- b. Song of Roland
- (2). Dante Alighieri and The Divine Comedy
- (3). Geoffery Chaucer and The Canterbury Tales
- 4. Background to the Renaissance

The Renaissance was an important stage in the historical process of the Western civilization and marked the turning point from the Middle Ages to the modern era in the development of Western culture. Economic and intellectual changes during the Renaissance both helped to speed up Western social and cultural development and hence prepared the necessary conditions for rapid progress in political, social and ideological areas of the Modern Age.

2. Source, Features and Significance

There are many sources contributing to Renaissance. During the reign of Charlemagne the Great (742-814) seven courses established at the school. During the

12th century, a cultural and economic revival took place in Europe; many historians trace the origins of the Renaissance to this time. The balance of economic power slowly began to shift from the region of the eastern Mediterranean to that of Western Europe. The 13th century saw the climax of medieval civilization. The classic form of Gothic architecture and sculpture and been fully established by the time. Overall, the

break-up of feudal structures, the strengthening of city-states in Italy, and emergence of national monarchies in Spain, France, and England, as well as such cultural developments as the rise of folk culture and popular literature had occurred in most European countries by the end of the Middle Ages. Furthermore, changes in secular education, particularly the founding of universities, culminated in the birth of a self-consciously new age with a new spirit. One can not help looking back to the classical learning of Greece and Rome as the inspiration for what has come to be known as the Renaissance.

5. Cultural Achievements of the Renaissance

The cultural achievements of the Renaissance can be summed up into 2 phases:

art in the early period and art in the latter periods. Realist tendency was obvious in the art of the early period of the Renaissance, and visible mostly in the use of religious subject matter drawn from Biblical and mythological legends and figures. Works such as those of Giotto di Bondone(1266-1337) in painting, Donatello and Ghiberti in sculpture are perfect examples. Another famous figure is Filippo Brunelleschi(1377-1466) whose mathematically based architectural designs helped solve the problem of

the pillarless dome. He tried to portray his structural figures by making them recede into the background and hence appear three-dimensional.

In painting, artists of the later period of the Renaissance mastered the technique of portraying nature on the basis of an insightful assimilation of classical heritage. High Renaissance art emerged in the latter period of the Renaissance. It flourished for about 35 years, when Rome revolved around three towering figures: Leonard da Vinci (1452-1519), Michelangelo (1475-1564), and Raphael (1483-1520). The Virgin

of the Rocks, Mona Lisa and The Last Supper are considered the most representative works of Da Vinci's. Genesis and Final Judgment and the sculpture David were representatives of Michelangelo Buonarotti. Just as well known as Da Vinci and Michelangelo was Raphael Sanzio (1483-1520) who established his reputation with his famous fresco The School of Athens which included over fifty figures altogether. The fourth well-known artist from this period was Tiziano Vecellio (1477-1576) commonly known as Titian in Venice.

It was in art that the spirit of the Renaissance achieved its clearest formation. Art, since the Renaissance, has come to be seen as a branch of knowledge, valuable in its own right and capable of providing man with images of God and his creations. A whole group of these painters presented some of the highest artistic achievements of human history. The Renaissance as a unified historical period ended with the collapse of political stability and the eruption and continuation of the Italian wars.

6. Social Ideology and Religious Reformation

The representative figures of the Renaissance claimed to recover and revive Graeco-Roman classicism and its culture which had been ignored and distorted by theology and the Church, and held that the new ideology should be based on individual interests and characteristics of individualism. These ideas were principally epitomized by Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio and Machiavelli.

The reformation is closely related to the Renaissance in its origin and significance. If the Renaissance was to recover ancient culture and art, the Reformation was to recover ancient Christian theology. The necessity for the Reformation lies in a perception of moral degeneration in the Catholic Church. The situation was particularly critical in Germany where the peasants and the poor townspeople strongly demanded political and intellectual reform and democracy. The reformists included the lower classes of aristocrats and handicraft workers, like Martin Luther(1483-1546). Martin Luther developed the idea of justification by faith and attacked the sale of indulgences. These arguments criticized the Pope's corruption and provoked a major controversy with the German ruler. Influenced from Catholicism and by Luther's Protestantism John Calvin (1509-1564) made himself head of the strictly Presbyterian

government, which combined both state and religious powers, known as Calvinism.

CHAPTER FOUR: THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

- 1. General Introduction
- 2. Philosophy Politics and Literature in England
- (1). Francis Bacon

Francis Bacon was the founder of materialism and experimental science. His books of Essays, Instauratio Magna, a project for the complete reorganization of human knowledge, claimed knowledge is power.

(2). Thomas Hobbes

Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679), an influential British philosopher, developed his political philosophy based on the view that men are essentially selfish and to escape anarchy they have entered a social contract, by which they submit to the sovereign. The so-called Leviathan is a tremendous fabricated machine as is limited from nature. Rene Descartes laid the foundation for scientific materialism. In his Discourse de la method he divests himself of all previously held beliefs "I am thinking, therefore I exist."

- (3).John Locke
- a. Locke's Materialist Views
- b. Locke's Political Philosophy
- c. The Social Contract
- 4. John Milton and the English Revolution

CHAPTER FIVE: THE AGE OF ENLIGHTENMENT

- 1. General Introduction
- (1). Enlightenment

The Enlightenment was a strong intellectual movement to provide the necessary conditions, especially the theoretical tenets, for the bourgeoisie to come to power. In a way, the Enlightenment serves as a continuation of the Renaissance, in terms of opposing feudal autocracy and Christian dogmatism. The Enlightenment is generally agreed to have originated in France, where Louis XIV personally seized power from the prime minister in the middle of the 17th century. He then took measures to fortify his totalitarian position as a king by appointing himself as the prime minister. Due to his measures and reforms, France freed herself gradually from her political and social predicament, and became more powerful in economic and military achievements, and thus played a leading role in European political affairs. With the increasing improvement of her political and military situation, France started her colonial expansion and joined in an intensive competition with other European powers for territories in India, Louisana, Canada and the West Indies. At that time, France seized more colonies and showed greater strength than Germany and England, which were weakened through domestic turmoil, especially civil wars.

The centre of the Enlightenment was France although Britain, Germany and other European countries were also influential in this movement. The leading figures were different from each other in faith and thinking as well as the motivation in getting involved in the movement but found much in common in their pursuit of an idealistic society. Among the most influential figures involved in the Enlightenment were Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau and Diderot. The ideas of Voltaire can be summed up as: his opposition to Christianity and his belief in a god of nature; theory of human nature as natural sociability, rationality and a sense of religion; views of social freedom and equality; the theory of the enlightened autocracy. Those of Montesquieu are of the natural origins of society, of geography and environment, and classification of government and division of power as well. The following are from Rousseau: human society and the origin of the state, the social contract; the theory of people's sovereignty, the theory of social equality, and theory of social education.

- (2). English Literature
- a . Alexander Pope

- Essay an Criticism
- The Rape of the Lock
- b. Daniel Defoe
- c. Jonathan Swift
- Modest Proposal
- Gulliver's Travels
- d. Samuel Richardson
- e. Henry Fielding
- f. Samuel Johnson
- (3). Literature and the Significance of the Enlightenment

Classicism had exerted considerable influence upon European literature since the Renaissance. This was demonstrated in both drama and poetry where classical writers tried to pursue a kind of ancient beauty and regarded ancient achievements unsurpassed by the contemporary writers. Nonetheless, the bourgeois writers, who came upon the scene with capitalist economic development, did not agree to this classicist assertion and desired to seek more freedom to produce what conformed to the interests of the bourgeoisie. Consequently a dispute arose on what kind of literature should be developed. Maybe it is the reason why most of European countries did not produce important writers or impressive literary works during the Enlightenment. But England was perhaps an exception for it fostered a pretty large number of accomplished writers who wrote some important works. Among this group of writers were John Milton (1688-1674), John Bunyan (1628-1687), Alexander Pope (1688-1744), Daniel Defoe (1660-1731), Jonathan Swift (1667-1745), Samuel Richardson (1689-1761), Henry Fielding (1707-1754) and Samuel Johnson (1709-1784).

CHAPTER SIX: ROMANTICISM

1. General Introduction

Romanticism: Characteristics, the Romanticist School and its Achievement As a literary and artistic movement, Romanticism has involved itself in such areas as poetry, painting and music from the end of the 18th century and into the first part of the 19th century, principally exhibiting the features like individualism, emotionalism, worship of nature, fascination with the alien aspects of foreign lands, the nationalist movement, and disillusionment as well.

In spite of the fact that Romanticism was arguably born in France, its substantial achievements were made in Germany and England respectively though its manifestation in visual art had still much to do with France. In Germany was the distinguished Storm and Stress and romantic music. In England was the well-known romantic poetry while romantic painting belonged principally in France.

- 2. Romanticism in England
- (1). William Blake
- (2). The Lakers Wordsworth and Coleridge
- (3). George Gordon Byron
- (4). Percy Bysshe Shelley
- (5). John Keats

- (6). Walter Scott
- 3. Romanticism in France
- (1). Chateaubriand
- (2). Victor Hugo
- (3). George Sand

CHAPTER SEVEN: MARXISM AND DARWINISM

- 1. The Rise of Marxism
- (1). General Introduction
- (2). Historical Background
- (3). The Three Sources and Three Component Parts of Marxism
- a. German Classical Philosophy and Marxist
- i. Hegelian dialectics
- ii. Feuerbach's materialism
- iii. Marxist philosophy
- iv. Marxist historical materialism
- b. English Classical Political Economy and Marxist Political Economy
- c. Utopian Socialism and Scientific Socialism
- i . Robert Owen
- ii. Henri de Saint-Simon
- iii. Charles Fourier
- (4). Marx and Literature
- 2. Darwinism
- (1). General Introduction
- (2). Ideas of Evolution Before Darwin
- a. Jean-Baptiste de Monet Lamarck
- b. Sir Charles Lyell
- c. Karl Marx
- (3). Life of Charles Darwin
- (4). Darwin's Works and Theories
- a. On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection, or the Preservation of Favoured Races in the Struggle for Life
- b. The Descent of Man
- (5). Effects of Darwinism
- a. On Biology
- b. On Theology
- c. On Social Science

CHAPTER EIGHT: REALISM

- 1. General Introduction
- (1). What Is Realism
- (2). The Historical Background
- 2. Realism in England
- (1). Charles Dickens
- (2). George Eliot
- (3). William Makepeace Thackeray
- (4). Thomas Hardy
- (5) .George Bernard Shaw
- 3. Realism in the United States
- (1). Harriet Beecher Stowe
- (2). Walt Whitman
- (3). Mark Twain
- (4). Henry James
- 4. Art
- (1). Realism in Art
- (2). Impressionism in Art
- (3).Post-Impressionism

CHAPTER NINE: MODERNISM AND OTHER TRENDS

- 1. General Introduction
- (1). Modernism Defined
- (2). Historical Context
- (3). Progress in Science
- (4). New Ideas and Thoughts
- a. The Unconscious
- b. Id, Ego, Superego
- c. Oedipus Complex
- 2. Contemporary Western Literature Before 1945
- (1). English Literature
- a. T. S. Eliot
- b. Joseph Conrad
- c. Virginia Woolf
- d. David Herbert Lawrence
- (2). Irish Literature
- a. William Butler Yeats
- b. James Joyce
- (3). American Literature

- a. Ezra Pound
- b. William Faulkner
- c. Ernest Hemingway
- 3. Literature and Philosophy since 1945
- (1). Angry Young Men in England
- a. Kingsley Aims
- b. John Osborne
- (2)Beat Generation in America
- a. Allen Ginsberg
- b. Jack Kerouac

《语用学》教学大纲

张连文 编写

目 录

前 言	851	
一、课程性质与教学对象	851	
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	851	
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	851	
四、教学原则与方法	852	
五、考核方式、成绩评定	852	
Chapter One What is Pragmatics?	853	
Chapter Two Entailment	855	
Chapter Three Presupposition	856	
Chapter Four The Co-Operative Principle and Implicature		
Chapter Five More On Implicatures		
Chapter Six Speech Acts	862	
Chapter 7 More About Speech Acts		
Chapter 8 Politeness		
六、主要参考书目、教材和论文集	874	

前言

一、课程性质与教学对象

语用学是研究在具体语境中语言的使用的学科,主要研究语言和行为之间的关系。也可以高度概括和抽象为对语言的使用科学地进行研究的学科。语用学研究范围的界定一直是一个颇有争议的问题。就其研究大致有两种观点:一、语用学是语言学的一个分科'如同句法学、语义学一样,有自己的研究单位,如指示语、含意、前提、言语行为等;二、语用学是对语言各曾面的功能性综观。我们认同 Verschueren 的观点,即语用学只有跨出语言学学科的范围,与社会、文化、心理、认知等结合起来学习和研究,才能有效的发挥作用。

由于语用学探讨的是如何正确理解说话人或作者的真实意思、说话人或作者如何恰当地表达真实意思,而外语教育的最终目的是使学生能用外语进行有效的交际(而不仅仅是具有丰富的语言技能、语言知识本身),语用学对提高英语专业学生的外语技能、知识水平、外语交际能力、提高研究生的理论和实际结合的水平具有重大的意义。

语用学主要探讨四个领域: (1) 说话人在说出一句话时所想表达的意思; (2) 话语在具体语境中的意义; (3) 言外之意的传达和领会,特别是听话人怎样在说话人提供的有限的话语基础上根据上下文及语境做出推论; (4) 说话人在决定哪些意思需要明确表达、哪些意思可由听话人领会时起主要作用的因素,即说话人和听话人之间相对距离的远近。

语用学是外国语学院英语语言文学专业研究生课程。我们以 Peccei 的语用学作为教材,因为此书与其它的教材相比深入浅出,并不要求过高的哲学和逻辑学基础,适合作为研究生的基础教材。有一定的覆盖面,并为学生日后更深入地研究语用学和语言学打下基础。但是我们不局限于此教材的内容,结合其它语用学专著的优点,展开对语用学的热点和专题讲授,增加研究生的知识广度和深度。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

教学目的:区分语用学与语义学和其它相关学科在研究意义上的差别,在了解英语语言的基本特征以后,从语言使用的各种情况解释语言使用的意义、规则和条件,从而以更高、更广的视角了解语言的特征。系统讲授语用学的研究范围、基本理论和研究方法,使学生了解近二、三十年来语用学的发展、目前最新的研究动态及趋势,增强外语教学与学习中的语用观念。提高研究生对语用学的兴趣和掌握研究方法。

教学要求: (1)研究语言与情景结合而出现的种种用法和人们在语境中有效使用语言和正确理解语言的能力。2) 能够熟练地运用语用学和认知语言学的理论和方法对语言的意义、形式和用法做细致的分析,对语法和语义现象做出相应的解释。(3)对交叉学科尤其认知语用学有清楚的把握。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

- 1、主要内容:介绍语用学的基本理论和方法,包括指别、言语行为理论、会话含义理论、预设、关联理论、新格赖斯原则、会话分析的语用学解释,以及社会与语用、文化差异与语用翻译等。区分语用与句法、语义在解释意义的方法论的差别和关系。把语用学的研究和最新成果联系和应用到外语教学中。引导研究生从事实证研究。
- 2、课时安排:根据讲授的内容课程分为引言、微观语用学和宏观语用学三个大的部分。引言 用两课时;微观语用学用 18 课时,具体内容包括指示、所指(指称)和照应、言语行为、语用推

理、关联理论和语用推理、语言学的礼貌和话语分析;宏观语用学用 16 课时,具体内容包括跨文化语用学、社会语用学、元语用学、语用学与翻译的关系、语用学与外语学习、语用学与外语教学等。共计 36 课时。

四、教学原则与方法

本课程以描写语用学教学为主,学习来自人们经验的有关自然语言的应用原则,分析自然语言如何同语境相联系。引导学生注意特定话语在特定语境中的应用,学会研究非语言知识和非语法原则下的话语行为的意义,即在语境中才能确定的意义。重点关注语言和语言使用者之间的关系,即符号和符号解释者之间的关系。本课程注重实证观察与分析。每一、二次讲课配有一次以学生为中心的专题讨论。增强学生解决实际语言问题的能力,尤其使用语用学理论解释语言的能力。

五、考核方式、成绩评定

1.考核方式: 本课程的考核方法是试卷考试和撰写课程论文。

2.成绩评定: 平时考试(50%) + 期末课程论文成绩(50%)

Chapter One What is Pragmatics?

We try to explore the different meanings of meaning and kinds of issues which are dealt with by semantics and pragmatics. The distinction between semantics and pragmatics is easier to apply than to explain. Semantics and pragmatics are the two main areas of linguistic study that look at the knowledge we use both to extract meaning when we hear or read, and to convey meaning when we speak or write. Within linguistics itself, the dividing line between these two disciplines is still under considerable debate.

Explaining it is complicated by the fact that many conflicting formulations have been proposed over the past sixty years. This might suggest that there is no one way of drawing the distinction and that how to draw it is merely a terminological question, a matter of arbitrary stipulation. Though, these diverse formulations, despite their conflicts, all shed light on the distinction as it is commonly applied, in both linguistics and philosophy. Although it is generally clear what is at issue when people apply the distinction to specific linguistic phenomena, what is less clear, in some cases anyway, is whether a given phenomenon is semantic or pragmatic, or both. Fortunately, there are other phenomena that are uncontroversially semantic or, as the case may be, uncontroversially pragmatic. Their example will help us get clear on what the semantics-pragmatics distinction is. In terms of rationale perhaps the main reason for introducing the semantics-pragmatics distinction is to provide a framework for explaining the variety of ways in which what a speaker conveys can fail to be fully determined by the (conventional) linguistic meaning of the sentence he utters: indexicality, ambiguity, vagueness (and open-texture), semantic underdetermination, implicitness, implicature, nonliteralness, non-truth-conditional content, illocutionary force. The null hypothesis is that there is always some pragmatic explanation for how, in any given case, sentence meaning can underdetermine what the speaker means. The semantics-pragmatics distinction has long been methodologically important in both linguistic and philosophy, hence the linguistic and philosophical backgrounds.

However, generally speaking, SEMANTICS concentrates on meaning that comes purely linguistic knowledge, while PRAMATICS concentrates on those aspects of meaning that cannot be predicted by linguistic knowledge alone and takes into account knowledge about the physical and social world.

Meaning Analyses

Provide a semantic meaning (SP) and a pragmatic meaning (PP) for **It's cold in here** in two different contexts, (a) and (b) below:

- (a) Mike ad Annie are in the living room. Mie asks Annie whether she'd like to eat dinner in the living room or the kitchen. Annie replies: **It's cold in here.**
- (b) The Queen and her butler, James, are in the drawing room. The window id open. The Queen says: It's cold in here.

Further Reading

For short, beginner-level overview of the types of questions that pragmatics deals with and the relationship between semantics and pragmatics:

Crystal, D. 1987. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language, Cambridge: Cambridge University

Press.

Yule, G. 1996. Pragmatics, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

For more advanced treatment of these issues:

Blackmore, D. 1992. Understanding Utterances, Oxford: Blackwell.

Leech, G. 1983. Principles of Pragmatics, London: Longman.

Bach, K. 1997. The Semantics-Pragmatics Distinction: What Is It and Why It Matters. In: Eckhard Rolf (ed.), *Pragmatik: Implicature und Sprechacte*. (Linguistiche Berichre Sonderheft 8/1997), pp. 33-91.

Chapter Two Entailment

In this unit, we investigate entailment, a relationship between sentences that forms the basis for some of the inferences that interpreting utterances involves. More specific terms, entailment is the relationship between two sentences where the truth of one (A) requires the truth of the other (B). For example, the sentence (A) The president was assassinated. entails (B) The president is dead.

Entailment differs from *implicature*, where the truth of one (A) suggests the truth of the other (B), but does not require it. For example, the sentence (A) *Mary had a baby and* (B) *got married* implicates that (A) *she had a baby before* (B) *the wedding*, but this is cancellable by adding -- *not necessarily in that order*. Entailments are not cancellable. Entailment also differs from *presupposition* in that in *presupposition*, the truth of what one is presupposing is taken for granted.

In another phrasing, A sentence S1 entails another sentence S2, if and only if S1 is true then S2 must also be true in all circumstances. In other words, there is no situation where X is true but Y is false. A sentence S1 implicates S2 if (a) S2 is not the entailment of S1 and (b) the hearer believes, based on the Cooperative Principle, that S2 is true, or that the hearer does not realize that the speaker violates or manipulated the Cooperative Principle. For example: "This lesson will make a student smarter." does not entail "This lesson will make John smarter." but the reader implicates that "This lesson will make John smarter" because "John is a student."

Analysis Work

- 1. In each of the following dialogues, spot the information which appears redundant or contradictory from a semantic point of view. Then decide in pragmatic terms what this sort of information might be telling the hearer.
 - (a) Tom: What's his stepmother like?

Bob: Well, she's a woman and she married his father.

(b) Dave: There's his Uncle George.

Lucy: That man's a snake.

(c) Jane: You ate all the cookies!

Steve: I ate some of the cookies.

2. The entailment of a sentence can be regarded as those propositions that can be inferred from it <u>in any context</u> (Simpson 1993:122). What problems, if any, are posed for this definition by a sentence like *George saw a nut*?

Further Reading For more about the role of entailment in pragmatic analysis:

Yule, G. 1996. *Pragmatics*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Simpson, P. 1993. Language, Ideology and Point of View, London: Routledge.

For more about different meaning relationships between words and different types of entailment:

Hudford and Heasley, 1998. *Semantics: A Coursebook*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Units 9-11.

Chapter Three Presupposition

In this unit, we examine presupposition, another kind of inference which is closely linked to the working of the utterance.

Declarative sentences can be true or false (or undecided) either on the basis of knowledge about the given language or knowledge about the world. Imperative and interrogative sentences cannot be true or false, therefore, no entailment (strong inference) can automatically follow from such sentences. What inferences can we draw from imperatives and interrogatives?

- 1. (a) Where has Claire looked for the keys?
- (b) Claire has looked for the keys.
- 2. (a) Did you buy this aweful wine?
- (b) This wine is aweful.

3. (a) Don't sit on Ann's sofa.

(b) Ann has a sofa.

These inferences are not entailments, they are called presuppositions. They are useful when analyzing speaker meaning. The definition problem is partly a reflection of the fuzzy boundary between semantics and pragmatics. Some definitions of presupposition are speaker oriented (anything the speaker assumes to be true before making the utterance), that is, presuppositions as inferences about what is assumed to be true in the utterance. Some definitions are sentence oriented (a necessary precondition for a sentence to be true), that is, presuppositions as inferences about what is directly asserted to be true.

- 4. (a) Claire has looked for the keys directly asserts Claire has looked for the keys.
- (b) Where has Claire looked for the keys? presupposes Claire has looked for the keys.

It can be concluded that *presuppositions* are inferences that are very closely linked to the words and grammatical structures actually used in the utterance, but they come from our knowledge about the way language users conventionally interpret these words and structures.

In terms of negation, presuppositions remain constant under the negation of the main sentence, as in (5).

- 5. (a) You didn't buy this aweful wine, did you?
- (b) This wine is aweful.

Presupposition triggers: definite noun phrase – existential presupposition as in (6).

- 6. (a) Did Mike give Anne that chockolate cake?
- (b) There was a chocolate cake.

It is important to note that verbs and expressions like regret, know, realize, discover, find out, I'm aware that..., It's strange that... pretend, imagine, dream, If I were..., stop can trigger different presuppositions.

And presuppositions can be drawn even when there is very little or no surrounding context.

Analysis Work

For each of the following utterances, decide which ones contain the presupposition that 'Mike smashed the television'. What do the utterances have in common?

- 8. (a) Did Mike smash the television?
- (b) When did Mike smash the television?
- (c) I was eating popcorn when Mike smashed the television.
- (d) Why did Mike smash the television?
- (e) I don't understand why Mike smashed the television.

(f) I wonder if Mike smashed the television.

Further Reading

For the discussion of how presupposition fits into semantics and pragmatics:

Simpson, P. 1993. Language, Ideology and Point of View, London: Routledge.

For a review of the problems in defining presupposition:

Leech, G. 1981. Semantics. Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Chapter Four The Co-Operative Principle and Implicature

In this unit, we examine a third of inferencing, implicature, and at how speakers co-operate in a conversation to achieve a shared meaning for utterances. Grice proposed that all speakers, regardless of their cultural background, adhere to a basic principle governing conversation which he termed The Co-Operative Principle. We assume that in a conversational setting the interlocutors/participants will cooperate with each other when making their contributions. Grice broke his principle down to four basic MAXIMS which go towards making a speaker's contribution to the conversation "cooperative".

RELEVANCE: Make sure that whatever you say is relevant to the conversation at hand

QUALITY: Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

QUANTITY: Make your contribution sufficiently informative for the current purposes of the conversation. Do not make your contribution more informative than is necessary.

MANNER - CLARITY: Do not make your contribution obscure, ambiguous or difficult to understand.

Quiet VIOLATION of the maxims incurred no implicatures, while Open, deliberate FLOUTING of the maxims gives rise to implicatures.

FLOUTING of a maxim: it is obvious to the hearer at the time of the utterance that the speaker has deliberately and quite openly failed to observe one or more maxims.

Example: teacher's opinion about X's writing skills

"X has regularly and punctually attended all my classes. All his assignments were handed in on time and very neatly presented. I greatly enjoyed having X in class."

Analysis: The teacher is only being apparently uninformative, however she is cooperative. She makes her response in such a way that the hearer can infer that X's performance was not very good in class without her having to state it. She knows the hearer is able to work out the inference that X hasn't got very good writing skills. Therefore, she has implied (or implicated) that the student's writing skills are not very good. This sort of inferencing occurs in stages: in the first stage the hearer recognizes the apparent irrelevancy, inadequacy, lack of clarity, etc. This in turn triggers the implicature.

Implicatures are inferences which cannot be made from isolated utterences (unlike presuppositions and entailments). They are dependent on the context of the utterance and shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer. Grice has poroposed a way of analyzing implicatures based on the Cooperative Principle and its maxims of relevance, quality, quantity and clarity.

In Grice's analysis the speaker's flouting of a maxim combined with the hearer's assumption that the speaker has not really abandoned the Cooperative Principle (has not really opted out) leads to an implicature.

HEDGES may indicate that speakers are aware of the cooperative principle and the likelihood that they may be violating a maxim:

- 1. (a) I don't mean to change the subject, but there is an enormous wasp in here.
- (b) Well, I think he's honest.

(c) You probably already know this but

By comparison, conversational implicatures seem to be less straightforward than those inferences based on entailment or presupposition, for drawing the appropriate implicature can require a considerable amount of shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer.

Distinguishing:

In each of the following decide whether the inferences in brackets is a presupposition or an implicature derived from the underlined utterance.

- (a) A: My boyfriend lives in Luton
- B: My boyfriend lives in Paris.
- (b) A: Is Mike giving his mother a present?
- B: He's bought a ring.
- (c) A: You look pleased.
- B: <u>I managed to pass the exam.</u>

Further Reading

For more about Grice's theories: see Grice 1989 or Yule 1996:100-101 for a short extract from Grice. For a discussion of children with pragmatic disorder: see Bishop 1997: cha 7-8.

Chapter Five More On Implicatures

In this unit we examine in more detail different kinds of implicatures and find that some are less dependent on background knowledge of the context than others. The most important point is to illustrate Scalar Implicatures and distinguish Generalized Conversational Implicatures from Particularized Conversational Implicatures.

Definition: A scalar implicature is a quantity implicature based on the use of an informationally weak term in an implicational scale.

The use implicates that all similar utterances using an informationally stronger term are not true because, according to the conversational maxim of quantity, a speaker would ordinarily be required to make a stronger, more informative utterance if a true one were available.

Example (English): In the utterance *some of the boys went to the party*, the word *some* implicates "not all of the boys went to the party."

The words *none*, *some*, and *all* form an implicational scale, in which the use of one form implicates that the use of a stronger form is not possible. (Levinson 1983: 133)

According to Grice, some conversational implicatures are 'generalized', i.e. they do not arise 'in virtue of special features of the context', but are normally carried by saying a certain thing or type of thing. The implicature arises 'in the absence of special circumstances', he says (Grice 1989: 37). The fact that, in a narrative, a conjunction such as 'They got married and had many children' is interpreted as mirroring the temporal order of the reported events is seen by Grice as resulting from a generalized conversational implicature: such an implicature is normally carried by an event-reporting conjunctive utterance such as 1.

1.Bill and Jane got married and had many children

Particularized Conversational Implicatures are inferences that require a shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer. That is, particularized implicatures require not only general knowledge but also knowledge which is particular or local to the speaker and the hearer, and often to the physical context of the utterance itself. Both generalized and particularized implicatures differ from presupposition that they sound much less contradictory when they are cancelled by the speaker.

We can make a summary of the properties of conversational implicatures:

- 2. (a) Can be cancelled (since it is possible to opt out).
- (b) Nondetachability. (try, attempt, endeavored).
- (c) Not part of the meaning (related to point 1).
- (d) The implicature is associated/triggered by the act of saying.
- (e) Multiple alternative implicature are possible.

Some problems are listed s follows:

- 3. (a) Cancelability: Moore's Paradox;
- (b) Unpredictability. Take quality, if it is violated, then what do we do (take the opposite, a feature, ...)?
 - (c) What about imperatives and interrogatives?
- (d) To what extend is Grice original claim supported, i.e., formal logic = logic of natural language. Ambiguity? Vagueness?

An important point concerns the case of "or": P or Q means P v Q, i.e., one of following is the case:

- 4. (a) P is true and Q is false
- (b) P is false and Q is true
- (c)P is true and Q is true

Normally if we say P or Q we assume that there is a reasonable argument with P or Q as its conclusion, but is does not proceed via P itself or Q itself.

As the case of "or" is concerned, some problems include: Is this an implicature (quantity)) or part of the meaning? Test sentence: The prize is either in the garden or it it is in the attic. But couldn't we say that this is a case of ambiguity? Grice's Modified Occam's Razor: Senses are not to be multipled beyond necessicity.

Types of implicature can be formalized as follows:

5. implicature conversational generalized particularized

A tentative conclusion (What is Grice aiming at?) is made: An outline of a systematic theory of language use which tries to bridge the gap between the truth-conditional interpretation of expressions (along the lines of a formal logic) and the wider meaning (what is said + what is implicated) which they take on in everyday conversation. It is through the conversational maxims and principle and the mechanisms with which can trigger conversational implicatures.

Exercises: Apply the cancellation test to decide whether each of the inferences in brackets is a presupposition or implicature, and Generalized or Particularized?

6. (a) Terry: How do you like your bath?

Jane: Warm. ("I don't like it hot" - G scalar implicature)

Cancellation: I like it warm. No, actually, I like it hot.

b) Annie: What do you think of this necklace and the bracelet?

Mike: The bracelet is beautiful. ("The necklace is not beautiful"-G implicature)

Cancellation: "The bracelet is beautiful and in fact so is the necklace."

(c) Linda: Has the kitchen been painted?

Jane: Tom's away. ("No." - G implicature)

Cancellation: "Tom's away, but Mark came over and painted it for me".

Further Reading

The idea that presuppositions do not survive cancellation as well as implicatures can be problematic. For more on this debate see Simpson (1993:133-140).

See Sperber and Wilson 1986 for relevance subsuming four maxims.

For a beginner's introduction to Sperber and Wilson's theories see Blackmore 1992.

Chapter Six Speech Acts

1. Introduction and Speech Acts

In this unit, we mainly discuss inferences about what speakers are trying to accomplish with their utterances and introduce speech-act theory. This phenomenon to be discussed is very widespread and obvious, and it cannot fail to have been already noticed, at least here and there by others. Yet I have not found attention paid to it specifically (Austin 1975). The proverbs *Actions speak louder than words* and *Easier said than done* seem to make a clear distinction between speaking and acting. However, Austin pointed that, contrary to popular belief, there is often no clear distinction between two. He was one of the first modern scholars to recognize that 'words' are in themselves actions and that these SPEECH ACTS can and should be systematically studied.

In his famous work, "How to do Things with Words," J. L. Austin outlined his theory of speech acts and the concept of performative language, in which to say something is to do something. To make the statement "I promise that p" (in which p is the propositional content of the utterance) is to perform the act of promising as opposed to making a statement that may be judged true or false. Performatives cannot be true or false, only felicitous or infelicitous. Austin creates a clear distinction between performatives and constantives, statements that attempt to describe reality and can be judged true or false, but he eventually comes to the conclusion that most utterances, at their base, are performative in nature. That is, the speaker is nearly always doing something by saying something.

For Austin, what the speaker is doing is creating social realities within certain social contexts. For example, using an explicit performative, to say "I now pronounce you man and wife" in the context of a wedding, in which one is marrying two people, is to create a social reality, i.e. in this case a married couple.

Making a statement may be the paradigmatic use of language, but there are all sorts of other things we can do with words. We can make requests, ask questions, give orders, make promises, give thanks, offer apologies, and so on. Moreover, almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention: there is the act of saying something, what one does in saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience.

The theory of speech acts is partly taxonomic and partly explanatory. It must systematically classify types of speech acts and the ways in which they can succeed or fail. It must reckon with the fact that the relationship between the words being used and the force of their utterance is often oblique. For example, the sentence 'This is a pig sty' might be used nonliterally to state that a certain room is messy and filthy and, further, to demand indirectly that it be straightened out and cleaned up. Even when this sentence is used literally and directly, say to describe a certain area of a barnyard, the content of its utterance is not fully determined by its linguistic meaning—in particular, the meaning of the word 'this' does not determine which area is being referred to. A major task for the theory of speech acts is to account for how speakers can succeed in what they do despite the various ways in which linguistic meaning underdetermines use.

In general, speech acts are acts of communication. To communicate is to express a certain attitude, and the type of speech act being performed corresponds to the type of attitude being expressed. For example, a statement expresses a belief, a request expresses a desire, and an apology expresses a regret.

As an act of communication, a speech act succeeds if the audience identifies, in accordance with the speaker's intention, the attitude being expressed.

Some speech acts, however, are not primarily acts of communication and have the function not of communicating but of affecting institutional states of affairs. They can do so in either of two ways. Some officially judge something to be the case, and others actually make something the case. Those of the first kind include judges' rulings, referees' calls and assessors' appraisals, and the latter include include sentencing, bequeathing and appointing. Acts of both kinds can be performed only in certain ways under certain circumstances by those in certain institutional or social positions.

- 1. Levels of speech acts
- 2. Communicative and conventional speech acts
- 3. Types of speech acts
- 4. Direct, indirect and nonliteral speech acts
- 5. Philosophical importance of speech act theory

Speech acts will be understood as representatives, commissives, directives, expressives, rogatives and declarations. Representatives include stating, describing, confirming. Speakers represent external reality by making their words fit the world as they believe it to be., e.g.

- (1)A: What's the time?
- B: It's five to six.

DIRECT SPEECH ACTS: direct relationship between linguistic structure and SA force, while INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS: the speech act is performed indirectly through the performance of another speech act

The FELICITY CONDITIONS direct the hearer to recognizing, figuring out and identifying the "real" illocutionary force: in indirect speech acts one or more felicity conditions are apparently violated.

6.2 Locution, Illocutionary Force and Perlocution

There are three factors in a verbal communication: Locution. Illocution, and Perlocution. The three components of a communication, from a pragmatic point of view, are: Locution--the semantic or literal significance of the utterance; Illocution--the intention of the speaker; and Perlocution--how it was received by the listener.

Austin pointed out that in analyzing a speech act, we need to make a distinction between the LOCUTION and the ILLOCUTION. The locution is the actual form of words used by the speaker ad their semantic meaning. The illocution (or ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE) is what the speaker is doing by uttering those words: commanding, offering, promising, threatening, thanking, etc. Austin also distinguished the third part of speech act, PERLOCUTION. It is the actual result of locution. It may o may not be what the speaker wants to happen but is nevertheless caused by the locution.

Put simply, to speak is to perform a locution, but to speak with an intent (ask, promise, request, assert, demand, apologize, warn, etc.) is to perform an illocution. This purpose (illocutionary intent) is meaningful and will ordinarily be recognized by hearers.

Illocution includes direct and indirect illocution. Direct illocution is making the content of speech evident in the overt form of sentences. Two ways: One is by use of special grammatical forms which directly express the intent, e.g. using a yes/no question to ask. The other is by use of a performative verb, the main verb of a sentence of which the rest of the sentence is the direct of the sentence:

- (2) a. I warn you not to do it again
- b. I promise I'll be there

Indirect illocution is leaving the intent of speech unexpressed in the form of sentences:

- (3) a. Do you know what time it is? (indirect question)
- b. Don't do it again. (indirect warning)
- c. I'll be there. (indirect promise)
- d. A booth at the window would be nice. (indirect request)
- e. OK, team, let's get started. (indirect command)

According to a widespread opinion, an adequate and useful account of "illocutionary acts" has been provided by John R. Searle (e.g., 1969, 1979). However, as is shown in much detail by Doerge (2006), Searle's contributions remain in their substance very fragmentary and are far from representing an elaborated theory; what Searle does present hints at very different conceptions of illocutionary acts and thus is concerned with quite different subject matters; and despite the adoption of Austin's terminology Searle does not after all account for the conception Austin had introduced. Nevertheless, Searle's works, especially the earlier ones, have both increased and fertilized the study and use of the notion of illocutionary acts to a great extent.

6.3 Performtive and Constative Utterances

Illocutionary act is a technical term that has been introduced by John L. Austin in the course of his investigations concerning what he calls 'performative' and 'constative' utterances.

Austin made an interesting observation. Some utterances not only perform a speech act and above simple assertion, they also simultaneously describe the speech itself. He called these PERFORMATIVE utterances(the (a) utterances in each pair). They contrast with other utterances which may be performing the same act but do not contain a PERFORMATIVE VERB that explicitly describes the intended speech act. Rather, the hearer is left to infer the speaker's intention. Austin called these CONSTATIVE utterances (the (b) utterances in each pair). Below the underlined words are the PERFORMATIVE VERBS.

Performative Constative

I promise I'll be there.

I admit I was foolish.

I apologize.

I m sorry.

I <u>thank</u> you. I'm very grateful.

I <u>order</u> you to sit down. You must sit down.

However, the fact that an utterance contains a performative verb does not necessarily make the utterance itself performative.

The peculiarity of the performative utterance, in contrast to the constative, is that it does not describe a state of affairs independent of itself, but that it is itself the reality it describes. It is therefore a self-reflexive utterance. Austin's archetypal examples of these are the acts of naming, marrying, bequeathing and betting (see How to p. 5). Thus, for instance, when I utter, "I name this ship HMS Hermes," I do not describe a state of affairs in the real world. Rather I bring a state of affairs into existence by virtue of my utterance. The act of naming is simultaneously the reference of my statement. The performative is therefore, in the most rigorous sense, an act and not a representation of something else, at least not in the preferred constative sense of a representation.

The distinction between performative and constative is best explained as the difference between an utterance that includes the scene of its own production and one which must be understood first as a predicating a state of affairs about the world on a plane separate from the scene upon which it is conceived. This latter, more complex, utterance requires the characteristic subject-predicate construction of declarative sentences. The error of linguistic and philosophical models of language is to presume that the declarative sentence is the elementary unit of language.

The insertion of *hereby* will make an utterance sound odd when it is not performative. The 'hereby test' is quite a reliable one.

Further Exercises:

In each of the groups below only the (a) utterances would be performative in Austin's view. Think about why the (b) and (c) utterances would not be classed as performative.

- 4 (a) I admit I was wrong.
- (b) I think I was wrong.
- (c) I know I was wrong.
- 5 (a) I apologize to you.
- (b) I amuse you.
- (c) I flatter you.
- 6 (a) We promise to leave.
- (b) He admits he was silly.
- (c) I warned you to stop.

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Austin, J. L. 1962. How to Do Things with Words[M]. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. (Develops the distinction between performative and constative utterances into the first systematic account of speech acts.)

Bach, K. 1994. Conversational impliciture[A]. Mind & Language 9: 124-62. (Identifies the middle ground between explicit utterances and Gricean implicatures.)

Grice, H. P. 1989. *Studies in the Way of Words*[M]. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press. (The essays on meaning and conversational implicature provide a framework for distinguishing speaker meaning from linguistic meaning and for explaining their relationship.)

Chapter 7 More About Speech Acts

In this unit, we introduce felicity conditions (适宜条件) and illustrate ways of classifying and identifying speech acts.

7.1 Felicity Conditions

Austin's idea that it is possible to state the necessary conditions for a particular illocution to count was developed by John Searle (1971). Think about the many ways that a sentence can go wrong? It can be mispronounced. We can regularize an irregular verb. We can produce an ungrammatical sentence. All of these are errors that aren't exactly pragmatic errors in the sense that we want to discuss here. The kind of pragmatic error that we want to think about here is the *situationally inappropriate* use of a sentence. Inappropriate sentences can be perfectly well-formed, but they can nevertheless be situationally all wrong.

Linguists characterize the notion of situational inappropriateness in terms of what are called *felicity* conditions. The basic idea here is that felicity conditions allow us to determine under what circumstances it is appropriate to ask questions, give commands, and so forth. In other words, the felicity conditions direct the hearer to recognizing, figuring out and identifying the "real" illocutionary force: in indirect speech acts one or more felicity conditions are apparently violated.

Note that we are just touching the tip of the iceberg here. Really delving into the area of felicity conditions requires a ton of work, but what we'll review here should give you a decent idea of how the thinking goes. One big thing to bear in mind is that if we get the felicity conditions down explicitly enough, we can pinpoint the nature of the inappropriate use of language in terms of the particular felicity condition or conditions violated. As an example, here are some felicity conditions associated with questioning and requesting. S questions H about P (some state of affairs)

- (1) a. S does not know the truth about P.
- b. S wants to know the truth about P.
- c. S believes H may know the truth about P.

What's going on with the felicity conditions for questioning? Well, for starters, we can see that appropriate use of questions must satisfy a number of criteria.

If someone asks you a question, you assume that s/he doesn't know the answer to the question. That's inherent in condition (1a). If someone asks you, they actually want to know the truth. That is condition (1b). If someone asks you, they think you may know the truth (or answer). Hence, condition (1c).

Note that these felicity conditions don't hold of all questioning contexts. In class, for example, I might ask you a question about, say, compositional semantics or X-bar theory or derivational versus inflectional morphology. If I do so, the odds are good that I already know the answer. So, for teacher-to-student questions, the first condition is suspended. If we think about it, our knowledge of social and physical context allows us to understand why. Teachers, we know, ask questions of students in order to test what students know about topic X. Physically, we're in the classroom--the place where teachers are likely to be in this kind of questioning role. So, this is a kind of question for which those felicity conditions are suspended. Additionally, (1b) and (1c) don't exactly hold. The teacher doesn't so much want to know the truth about X as to know what the student knows about X. And, when asking the question, the teacher doesn't necessarily know whether the student knows the truth about X. Rather, the

teacher often asks in order to see IF the student knows the truth about X.

Finally, note that I may stand in front of the class and ask the following question: "Does anybody have the time?" Immediately, you all will most likely shift back into understanding my question in terms of the felicity conditions in (1a-1c) above and give me an answer. That is, even though I'm the teacher, that's the not kind of question that would be asked in the teacher role. The question would be infelicitous only if I have a watch on that you know is working perfectly or if there is a huge clock with the time in front of me, because I'd be violating the first condition.

Anyway, think about how you do this kind of interpreting all the time. Think about how you are constantly sifting through your knowledge of context and of the felicity conditions behind questions in order to understand whether the question is used appropriately.

Here's a general set of felicity conditions on requests. S requests H to do A (action):

- (2) a. Speaker believes that A has not yet been done.
- b. Speaker believes that Hearer is able to do A.
- c. Speaker believes that Hearer is willing to do A-type things for S.
- d. S wants A to be done.

When I told you all to raise your hands the other day in class, which of these was violated? That's right. Condition (2d). I didn't really want you to stand up, except to illustrate how important (2c) is. You stood up because in the context of the classroom, we all determined together than you all were willing to do things like stand up if requested by me, the teacher.

The Conditions for felicitous directives can be listed in (3).

- (3) a. The speaker must be in a position to direct the hearer to perform the act
- b. The directed act must not be something which ahs already happened or would happen anyway.
- c. The directed act must be something the hearer is willing or is obligated to carry out if asked.
- d. The directed act must be something which the hearer is capable of carrying out.
- e. The directed act must be something which is needed by or is desirable to the speaker.

And the conditions for felicitous rogatives can be listed in (4).

- (4). a. The speaker must not already have the information requested
- b. The speaker must have reason to believe that the hearer can supply the information

Searle observed that in an indirect speech act, even though the surface form looks like a particular direct speech act, one (or more) of the felicity conditions for that act have been *obviously violated*. At the same time, one (or more) of the felicity conditions for the 'real', underlying, and therefore indirect speech have been questioned or mentioned by the locution, giving a hint as to the true illocutionary force. If the remaining felicity conditions for the 'real' speech act are fulfilled, then the speaker will interpret the locution as such.

7.2 Direct vs Indirect Speech Acts

As Austin observed, the content of a locutionary act (what is said) is not always determined by what is meant by the sentence being uttered. Ambiguous words or phrases need to be disambiguated and the references of indexical and other context-sensitive expressions need to be fixed in order for what is said to be determined fully. Moreover, what is said does not determine the illocutionary act(s) being performed. We can perform a speech act (1) directly or indirectly, by way of performing another speech act, (2) literally or nonliterally, depending on how we are using our words, and (3) explicitly or inexplicitly,

depending on whether we fully spell out what we mean.

A direct speech act is a speech act that is meant to be interpreted literally and has a single illocutionary force. For instance, "Can you ski?" uttered for the sole purpose of obtaining a yes/noresponse, is a direct speech act. It has the literal meaning "I ask you whether you know how to ski." An indirect speech act, on the other hand, is a speech act that takes on meaning in addition to the literal one; it has more than one illocutionary force (Searle 1975). "Can you help me?", which is often uttered as a request for assistance, for example, is an indirect speech act. In addition to the literal meaning "I ask you if you have the ability to help me", it has the indirect meaning "I request that you help me" (Clark, 1979).

Searle (1975) grouped some of the sentences that are typically used to convey indirect requests and other types of directives into six categories, that is, delarations, representatives, expressives, rogatives, commissives and directives.. Of these six categories, three contain question-types whose syntactic forms are also conventionally used as direct speech acts, provided appropriate contextual cues exist. These categories are of particular importance in this study. The first category contains questions that concern the hearer's ability to perform an action (CAN) such as "Can you move the couch?" The second category contains those questions which concern the hearer's doing an action (WOULD) such as "Would you take him to dinner?" The final relevant category contains questions such as "Would you be willing to work for me?" which concern the hearer's willingness to do an action (WOULD WILLING).

An utterance that looks superficially like a directive because of its imperative form, but is indirectly realizing another type of speech act, is sometimes called PSEUDO-DIRECTIVE.

Further Exercises:

- (5) Try writing a set of felicity conditions for each of the following illocutionary acts.
- a. thanking b. commanding c. naming a ship
- d. apologizing e. congratulating f. performing a marriage
- (6) Apply the direct directive/indirect directive/ pseudo-directive analysis to the following.
- a. Burglary victim to police officer in a ransacked house: Office, look at the mess they've made!
- b. Mother to child: How many times have I asked you to clean your room?
- C, Waiter to diner: Enjoy your meal.

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Chapter 8 Politeness

1. Introduction

In this unit, we examine the importance of politeness in determining how we structure and interpret utterances.

A child who is not allowed to say anything but 'No, thank you' at home, will not mortify his mother in public by screaming 'I hate steak, I want ice-cream!' (Emily Post, *Etiquette*, 1922)

We clearly attach great importance to 'speaking politely'. This aspect of the communicative process was largely ignored by Austin, Searle an Grice. Yet, the need to be polite can often account for why we choose to imply rather than assert an idea or why we choose to use an indirect directive like *Well, I really must get on with my work now*, rather than a direct directive like *Go home*.

2. Theories of Politeness

One of the leading theories of politeness was developed by Brown and Levinson (1987), who argue that there are two forms of politeness: positive politeness and negative politeness. Positive politeness strategies are attempts by a speaker to treat the listener as a friend or as someone to be included in discourse. For an American speaker, giving a friend or co-worker the compliment, "Your hair looks nice today," would be one example of positive politeness. Negative politeness, on the other hand, is an attempt by the speaker to save the listener's face by engaging in some formality or restraint. For an American speaker, an example of negative politeness would be responding to the question, "Do you like my new haircut?" with, "It looks great," even though the speaker's true opinion is that the haircut looks horrible.

Leech (1983) sees cultural rules at work in expressions of politeness and attempts to categorize in more detail some of the underlying intent behind these forms by articulating a set of rules or Politeness Maxims at work in polite dialogue.

- 1) Tact maxim: minimize cost and maximize benefit to other.
- 2) Generosity maxim: minimize benefit and maximize cost to self.
- 3) Approbation maxim: minimize dispraise and maximize praise of other.
- 4) Modesty maxim: minimize praise and maximize dispraise of self.
- 5) Agreement maxim: minimize disagreement and maximize agreement between self and other.
- 6) Sympathy maxim: minimize antipathy and maximize sympathy between self and other.

By the tact maxim, it is meant that we all try to be tactful in a dialog by observing two submaxims: 1) we try to minimize cost to others, and 2) we try to maximize benefit to others. By the generosity maxim, it is meant that we all try to be generous in a dialog in that 1) we try to minimize benefit to self, and we try to maximize cost to self. By the approbation maxim, it is meant that we all try to be approbational in a dialog in that 1) we try to minimize dispraise of others, and 2) we try to maximize praise of others. By the modesty maxim, it is meant that we all try to be modest in that 1) we try to minimize praise of self, and 2) we try to maximize dispraise of self. By the agreement maxim, it is meant that we all try to be agreeable to one another in a dialog in that 1) we try to minimize disagreement between self and others, and 2) we try to maximize agreement between self and others. By the sympathy maxim, it is meant that we all try to be sympathetic to one another in a dialog in that 1) that we try to minimize antipathy between self and others,

and 2) we try to maximize sympathy between self and others.

And we give one additional maxim, that is, Avoidance maxim, following Professor Zhou Liuxi's research.

According to Brown and Levinson, politeness strategies are developed in order to save the hearers' "face". Face refers to the respect that an individual has for him or herself, and maintaining that "self-esteem" in public or in private situations. Face is further broken down into two different categories: positive face and negative face. Negative face is the desire not to be imposed on, while positive face is the desire to be appreciated. Usually you try to avoid embarrassing the other person, or making them feel uncomfortable. Face Threatening Acts (FTA's) are acts that infringe on the hearers' need to maintain his/her self esteem, and be respected. Politeness strategies are developed for the main purpose of dealing with these FTA's. What would you do if you saw a cup of pens on your teacher's desk, and you wanted to use one, would you

A. say, "Ooh, I want to use one of those!"

B. say, "So, is it O.K. if I use one of those pens?"

C. say, "I'm sorry to bother you but, I just wanted to ask you if I could use one of those pens?"

D. Indirectly say, "Hmm, I sure could use a blue pen right now."

There are four types of politeness strategies, described by Brown and Levinson, that sum up human "politeness" behavior: Bald On Record, Negative Politeness, Positive Politeness, and Off-Record-indirect strategy. If you answered A, you used what is called the *Bald On-Record* strategy which provides no effort to minimize threats to your teachers' "face". If you answered B, you used the *Positive Politeness* strategy. In this situation you recognize that your teacher has a desire to be respected. It also confirms that the relationship is friendly and expresses group reciprocity. If you answered C, you used the *Negative Politeness* strategy which similar to Positive Politeness in that you recognize that they want to be respected however, you also assume that you are in some way imposing on them. Some other examples would be to say, "I don't want to bother you but.." or "I was wondering if ..."

If you answered D, you used *Off-Record* indirect strategies. The main purpose is to take some of the pressure off of you. You are trying not to directly impose by asking for a pen. Instead you would rather it be offered to you once the teacher realizes you need one, and you are looking to find one. A great example of this strategy is something that almost everyone has done or will do when you have, on purpose, decided not to return someone's phone call, therefore you say, "I tried to call a hundred times, but there was never any answer."

3. Cultural Variants of Politeness

While the increasing diversity of the modern classroom poses special challenges for students and educators generally, this is especially the case in higher educational settings such as current ESL, LSP and other classrooms where people from different countries and social classes come together to form a learning community. In such settings, the goal of communicative competence suggests that language teachers need to help students comprehend the implicit cultural differences distinguishing their own experience from that which is embodied within the speech acts of speakers of a target language. Assuming we accept that as a goal, how exactly are teachers to construct activities that facilitate an understanding of the underlying implications of subtle pragmatic features, such as politeness?

We can begin to answer that question by exploring the role of the cultural context of politeness

features. The variety of ways we express politeness and respond to speech acts featuring politeness are determined by underlying, cultural-based assumptions about what it means to be polite. The illocutionary force behind a particular polite utterance, a compliment for example, might differ completely from one culture to another. Socio-pragmatic failure can occur as a result of the learner's miscalculations regarding social distance, his or her relative rights and obligations, and the size of an imposition carried by an utterance (Thomas, 1983).

In light of sociolinguistic studies illustrating significant differences in politeness features, some analysts have attempted to establish a theoretical framework to assist in comparing and contrasting politeness features across cultures.

While these maxims given by Leech do not seem to contradict each other in principle, failure to recognize these maxims as they are expressed in particular utterances can lead to what Thomas (1983) calls "cross-cultural pragmatic failure" (p. 92). Thomas indicates that pragmatic failure can occur at two levels: failure to understand which proposition the speaker has expressed and failure to understand the pragmatic force of the speaker's utterance. The potential of pragmatic failure is apparent when reviewing specific contrastive examples of politeness features across cultures. The illustrations of state assessment are detailed below.

3.1 Variation between Different Speaker of States

First, we illustrate the difference between speakers of Chinese and American English.

Chen (1993) brings a focus on Chinese and American subjects to her study of politeness. She found Brown and Levinson's theory to be insufficient for explaining certain findings in her research and argued that in Brown and Levinson's theory individuals always respond to compliments by accepting them since the compliment is a form of positive politeness and failing to accept threatens the complimenter's positive face. However, both American and Chinese speakers were found to engage in deflection responses (e.g. "Did I really do that well?"), and Chinese speakers frequently responded to compliments with rejection followed by self-denigration. Given certain difficulties analyzing these actions according to Brown and Levinson's theory, Chen proposes instead the use of Leech's Politeness Maxim, as described previously. The summary from her findings is as follows.

Differences in American English Speakers (AESs) and Chinese Speakers (CSs):

American	Chinese		
Accepting the C	Compliment	Yes (39.3%)	Yes (1.0%)
Returning the C	Compliment	Yes (18.5%)	No
Thanking and I	Denigrating	No	Yes (3.4%)
Deflecting		Yes (29.5%)	No
Rejecting the C	ompliment	Yes (12.7%)	Yes (95.7%)

It was found that the AESs are primarily motivated by Leech's Agreement Maxim (compliment acceptance) while the CSs are motivated by his Modesty Maxim (compliment rejection and self-denigration). This difference appears to be related to differences of social values between the two cultures, particularly in their respective beliefs regarding what constitutes self-image.

Second, we examine the difference between speakers of Japanese and American English. Just as speakers of Chinese indicate the use of self-denigration, according to Daikuhara (1986) speakers of Japanese (JS) exhibit a similar pattern in their employment of compliments and responses to compliments. In her study, JSs used compliments in pursuing a communicative strategy of politeness achieved by

downgrading oneself or comparing oneself negatively, a negative politeness approach that also created distance (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Daikuhara also found some similarity between JSs and AESs in terms of the primary function of compliments: to generate harmony or solidarity. The Japanese tend to compliment both appearances as well as abilities, which is also the case among Americans. In addition, they indicate formal attributions such as the status of schooling. The response to compliments, on the other hand, differed greatly between these two groups. Of the responses, 95% were "self – praise avoidance" and only 5% showed appreciation, while "thank you" was the most frequent response among Americans. These results are consistent with Chen's study among CEs. Daikuhara also found that JSs very seldom compliment their own family, while this was not the case among Americans. This also might be another indication of the function of downgrading oneself, since in Japan the family is often considered to be a part of one's self.

3.2 Implications for Classroom and Research

A contemporary language classroom can easily consist of a group of students with communicative approaches as diverse as all of those just described. This potential underlines the need for classroom strategies that address the goals of communicative as well as linguistic competence.

Efforts to facilitate the development of communicative competence have attracted significant attention in educational linguistic research since the 1970s (see Savignon, 1972, 1983 for a review). However, practical applications based on the findings of these studies are made particularly difficult by the challenge of weaving a focus on social and cultural aspects of language learning into the traditional language classroom. For practitioners, the significance of teaching sociolinguistic elements of language is often overshadowed by the demands of teaching linguistic features. Scarcella (1979) found that both higher and lower proficiency learners of English are limited in their use of politeness features in the target language. It takes great care and sensitivity to implement socio-pragmatic objectives in language learning especially given a constantly changing society.

How, then, can practitioners implement such learning objectives as is illustrated by the specific example of the treatment of politeness features? According to Thomas (1983), pragmatic information cannot be absorbed simply by being immersed in the culture. Billmyer (1990) concurred with Thomas on this point and provided the first systematic study of, "the application of sociolinguistic instruction in a classroom setting tested in the analysis of learners' conversations in a social context" (p. 50). Her findings indicate that a greater number of compliments were given by learners in a specially instructed group than by learners who did not receive the instruction.

Such findings indicate that teachers play a significant role in implementing the use of compliments in the target culture. The task of bringing such pragmatic features to the learners' attention rests on the shoulders of each educator. Moore (1996) makes this point decisively, indicating that "teachers must be trained not only as language teachers but as culture teachers" (p. 119). Specifically, Moore suggests that teacher education include sociolinguistic and anthropological linguistic methods of research. During this study we developed two possible methods for fostering cultural awareness and communication competence regarding politeness features. In the first, a dialogue is constructed between two teachers or one teacher and a student who is a fluent speaker of the target language. The dialogue can be turned into a comparison of Japanese and American statements and an examination of the stream of consciousness in the discourse of giving and replying to compliments. Each of two speakers exchange their compliments and responses, with each utterance followed by the speaker turning to the students and stating the

pragmatic intent or the understood meaning of the response as appropriate. This approach could be used with other languages as well. An example of such a demonstration is detailed in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1 Compliment from an American speaker to a Japanese speaker

Speaker	Utterance	Speaker's Intended	Possible Meaning as
		Pragmatic Meaning	Understood
			by Hearer
American	Your child is one smart girl.	Your child is one	She thinks her child is
		smart girl.	not smart.
Japanese	Oh, no, she is not.	She might be but it is	
		not good to praise too	
		much my own child.	

Table 2 Compliments from a Japanese speaker to an American speaker

Speaker	Utterance	Speaker's Intended	I don't really believe this,
		Pragmatic Meaning	but it's not polite to argue
			with her.
Japanese	Your presentation last	Your presentation last	This person is full of
	week was spectacular.	week was spectacular.	herself.
American	Why, thank you.	I don't really believe	
		this, but it's not polite	
		to argue with her.	

Such a demonstration is one technique for drawing the attention of students to potential pragmatic failure.

A second approach is the 'down the garden path treatment' (Tomasello & Herron, 1988, 1989), a method in which errors are explicitly induced. Tomasello and Herron provided evidence in their study illustrating that the induction and formal correction of problematic features leads to "cognitive comparison" and results in favorable production among students. In this case, we suggest that the teacher give students examples of specific statements or expressions that the teacher can predict will be incorrectly interpreted. The teacher allows students to react to the statement, then explains what the utterance means to speakers of the target language.

After the demonstration, specific explanations and the instructions on norms in the target culture would be recommended. Our suggestion is to implement some task- based instruction such as group work or dyads giving and responding to compliments in settings of the target culture. Another approach involves students in a pseudo-dictogloss exercise (e.g. students read or listen a paragraph of giving and responding to compliments). Students are asked to write down the pragmatic implications of the discourse in a paragraph. Finally, they are partnered with another student to discuss the findings.

We hope to stimulate a deeper examination and appreciation of the rich diversity of the cultures present in today's educational environment. Our future tasks as practitioners include exploring creative implementations of the previously described classroom objectives and the encoding of step-by-step progress (if recognized) among students. An important aspect of the research yet to be completed is to evaluate the outcomes of the appropriate socio-pragmatic features after instruction and exercises have

been applied in the classroom.

Exercises:

The following utterances could all be interpreted as directives. Does one member of each pair seem less polite than the other? What influenced the decision?

- 1. a. You must cut my lawn.
- b. You should cut my lawn.
- 2. a. You will help me unload the car.
- b. You might help me unload the car.

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《英语词汇学》教学大纲

张和军 编写

目 录

前 言		879
	概述	
<u> </u>	课程教学目的和基本要求	879
	课程主要内容及学时分配	
	相关教学环节	
Chapter	Introduction	882
_	II Word Meaning	
Chapter	III Sense Relations and Semantic Field	887
Chapter	IV Changes in Word Meaning and	890

前言

一、概述

《英语词汇学》为外国语学院三年学生的专业选修课。

词汇是人类用来交际的具有任意性的语音符号体系,它在人类的社会活动中诞生,并随着社会的发展而不断完善。语言词汇记录和反映着一个民族特定的文化风貌,是其思想和文化的直接体现。时代在变化、社会在变迁、文化在发展、科技在进步,语言自然也在发展。作为语言中最重要的组成部分的词汇,是语言中最活跃、最敏感、与社会文化关系最密切的成分。人们遇到新事物、新思想时,总要用词语来表示它们,因此大量新词新义不断涌现,许多旧词逐渐被淘汰,原有的词义也在改变。根据《巴恩哈特词典伴侣》(The Barnhart Dictionary Companion)杂志的统计,每年进入他们计算机数据库的新词新义达 1500-1600 个。本课程拟从原因和途径两方面来对英语词汇的发展变化进行研究和学习。

英语词汇是一个历史极为悠久且复杂的变化过程,英语词汇学具有学科交叉的特点,它不仅仅是人们对自然和社会复杂现象的一种对象表达,也是对语言词汇的深入研究,因而不能仅仅拘泥于一般语言学的范畴。词汇学研究需要寻找其时代性特征和研究途径和学习关联。词汇理论本身是一个无限开放的综合系统,它与众多宗教、人文学科和文化艺术脉络互通,除了涉及语言学、宗教学、哲学、文学、美学、管理学、社会学、行为符号学等等丰富的内容外,还涉及自然科学等方方面面。因而制定本大纲有利于帮助学生更好地了解词汇学与其它人文及自然科学的关系,了解词汇研究不仅是多学科之间交叉的问题,更应从相关学科的各种体系中获得启示并汲取其内在逻辑及精华之升华。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

教学目的:本课程主要要求学生学习英语词汇学的有关基础理论和一些实际运用的知识,侧重分析研究现代英语词汇的各种现象,揭示现代英语词汇规律以及发展趋势,指导英语语言实践。本课程旨在帮助英语专业高年级学习者强化英语词汇知识,系统地了解现代英语词汇的过去、现状和未来,把握英语词汇学习与使用的规则和特点。既要培养学生理解语言现象和分析语言问题的理论水平,又要提高学生运用英语的实际能力,同时提高学生对英语词汇现象的创新性理解和操作能力。

基本内容与要求:英语词汇学是一门以当代语言学多种理论为指导,全面深入研究英语词汇的 专业课程。英语词汇学课程重在揭示现代英语词汇的普遍规律,侧重分析研究现代英语词汇现象, 兼顾英语词汇的纵向演变和发展。本课程的主要内容包括:

1、词汇学习和研究的基本概念; 2、英语词汇的来源和发展; 3、词的形态和结构; 4、英语词汇的构词方法: 派生法、转类法和复合法和其它方法; 5、词义和词义关系; 6、成语、谚语和短语动词; 7、词语的使用和理解; 8、英语词汇的特征及英语词典。

词汇学课程的设置从内容上可分为三类,一是理论部分的内容,二是实践部分的内容,三是方 法部分的内容。实践部分和方法部分均为词汇能力建设部分,为词汇的实践操作课程,对学生有词 汇分析的特殊要求。理论部分的课程涵盖面广,包括词汇发展史、词汇构成基础理论、语义形成过程、语义比较研究、词典理论等,重点研究语言词汇的转换原理、词义性质、历史演变、构词规律、词汇目的、词汇审美、心理价值、词汇处理方法等。纵观英语词汇的发展,我们可以看出它与历史发展有着千丝万缕的联系,反映在英语词汇中有大量的外来词,主要来自法语、希腊语、和拉丁语。这些国家的语言对英语词汇的发展影响深远。因此本课程要求学生在实践中能够把握词汇理论与实践中运用的具体操作技巧,做到对词汇基础理论和历史有全面、充分的了解,在实践中有合乎当代词汇特征的运用。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

词汇学的三大部分相互融通,必须放在一起讲,按学期划分在第五学期全部完成教学任务,共 用 18 周,每周二课时,主要分布是:

(第1周)英语词汇学导言:《英语词汇学》以现代语言理论经为指导,以英语词汇为研究对象,主要讲解单词的结构、构词法、单词的意义及词义关系、英语词汇的构成、词义的历史演变、成语及词典知识的综述。

(第 2-4 周) 英语词汇的来源和发展: 英语在整个发展过程中吸收了大量的外来词,其中主要有丹麦语、法语、希腊语、拉丁语,8世纪丹麦入侵英国,英语从丹麦语中引进不少日常口语用语。11世纪诺曼人征服英国,约有一万多法语词汇涌入英语,如 government、religion、justice、army、diamond、beef、cream、beauty、image等涉及方方面面的词汇。到了文艺复兴时期,英国人接触到古希腊罗马文化,为了表达新思想,英国作家学者们大量借用希腊语、拉丁语、意大利语等的词汇。希腊语有 rhetoric、lexicon、mathematics,拉丁语有 genius、history、suppress等。二十世纪以后,英国成为世界上最强大的国家,拥有最多的殖民地,这个时期,外来语更为繁多。如阿拉伯语,澳大利亚语、汉语、日语等。

(第 5 周)词的形态和结构:利用语言既有的材料通过构词法讲解词汇的形态和结构,讲授现代英语的主要构词方式。

(第 6-7 周) 英语词汇的构词方法:派生法和转类法。(第 8-9 周) 英语词汇的构词方法:复合法和其它方法。

(第10-12 周)词义和词义关系:由于历史、社会和语言自身发展的原因,英语词汇的词义也在不断变化中,许多旧词在新的社会条件下被赋予新义,这也是英语词汇发展的一个重要途径。重点突出讲解英语词义两种变化类型:词义扩大、词义缩小。

(第 13-15 周)成语、谚语和短语动词;(第 16 周)词语的使用和理解;(第 17 周)英语

词汇的特征; (第 18 周)英语词典。

四、相关教学环节

在教学活动中,首先对英语词汇发展的形成主要通过三种途径:构词法、旧词新义和借用外来语来进行系统学习。同时对词缀法进行系统研究,因为词缀法在英语整个历史发展过程中起着积极作用,不仅扩充了英语词汇,而且丰富了语言表现力。再次,词汇行为的语境实质都是不同词汇之间相互组合的"语义对应",是否能够把握语境中的语义转换是衡量学生词汇力的重要标准,因而教学活动围绕词汇的语境把握,因为词汇的语境运用问题是掌握词汇的核心问题;从一种语境到另一种语境,语义如何确立、如何转换及转换的背景、文化内涵等问题一直是词汇学理论界长期思考和探索的重要课题。

各个教学环节注重介绍各种词汇的转换生成理论与语境处理技巧,并结合课堂实践重点进行分析,加强学生的词汇解析力。

学生的词汇力建设贯穿第五学期的教学活动。目的是有针对性地巩固学生处理词汇的基本技能,调动他们的积极性和词汇悟性及语境意识,增强他们的信心,提高能力。

词汇实践活动是以五到六人为单位,就所学习的材料内容,提出自己的理解并在组内交流,然 后推出一组代表在课下或者课堂上与其他组的代表交流,并进行理论评估。如此比较揣摩,互相讨 论以加深学生的词汇理论、处理技巧、语境理解的主体意识,提高他们与时俱进把握词汇的水平。

Chapter I Introduction

Introduction of the course
The Main Processes of English Word-formation

Section One

Introduction of the course

I. The Definition of Language

It can be defined from different angles: a. Language is a social action and a carrier of information. b. It is a social phenomenon because it is an instrument of human communication in a society. c. It is a system of structure. It contains phonetics and phonology, vocabulary and meaning, morphology and syntax. d. It is a physiological phenomenon because it is connected with the organs of speech, the nervous system and muscular activities. e. It is a physical phenomenon. f. It is a psychological phenomenon. Language is a system of symbols based on physiology, psychology and physics. It is a specific social action and a carrier of information used for human communication in a society.

II. The Definition and Scope of Linguistics

It is the study of human speech including the units, nature, structure and modification of language. Traditionally, it consists of three branches: phonetics, grammar and lexicology. Now the scope has expanded. Now it includes phonetics, phonology, syntax, semantics, morphology, etymology, lexicology, lexicography, stylistics, general linguistics, descriptive linguistics, contrastive linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, applied linguistics, computational linguistics, corpus linguistics and so on.

III. Lexicology and English Lexicology

- 1. Definition of lexicology: lexicology= lexikon (Greek morpheme word) + logie (Greek morpheme the study of) Lexicology is the branch of linguistics concerned with the study of the vocabulary of a given language, inquiring into the origins and meanings of words.
 - 2. Nature of the course: It is both a theoretically-oriented and a practical course.
- 3. Its Relation to other disciplines: English lexicology is a sub-branch of linguistics. But it embraces other academic disciplines, such as morphology, semantics, etymology, stylistics, lexicography. Our task is to study English words in different aspects and from different angles.

IV.Basic Concepts of Words and Vocabulary

- 1. The definition of a word. 2. Sound and meaning. 3. Word and vocabulary.
- 4. Classification of words.

Home Work

Complete the follow	ring statements by supplying an appropriate term for each blank.
a. Borrowed words	which still sound foreign and look foreign are
b. There is no	relationship between sound and as the connection
between them is	and conventional.
c	re borrowings that have become naturalized or assimilated in English.

d. Archaisms are words no longer in common use or in use.
e. Content words are changing all the time whereas functional words are
words enjoy afrequency in use than content words.
f. A word whose meaning was borrowed from another language is called
(Keys: Aliens, intrinsic/logical, meaning, arbitrary, Denizens, obsolete, stable, Functional, high
semantic loan).

Further Reading

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Section Two

The Main Processes of English Word-formation

I. Derivation (Affixation)

It is generally defined as the formation of words by adding word-forming or derivational affixes to stems. The words formed in this way are called derivatives. According to the positions which affixes occupy in words, affixes fall into 2 subclasses: prefixation and suffixation.

II. Compounding and Conversion

Compounding also called composition, is the formation of new words by joining two or more stems. Word formed in this way are called compounds. They can be written in three ways: solid (bedroom); hyphenated (reading-room); open (reading material; dining room).

Conversion is the formation of new word by converting word of one class to another class. It is also called 'functional shift or transmutation' or 'derivation by zero suffix'(零位后缀派生法),'zero-derivation'.

III. Abbreviation or shortening

IV. Back-formation (逆生法)

Home Work

Decide whether the statements below are true or false.

- 1. Compounds are words formed by combining affixes and stems.
- 2. Open compounds look like free phrases as the elements forming each word are written separately.
- 3. The meaning of a compound is usually the combination of the stems.
- 4. A compound functions as a single grammatical unit, so the internal structure can not be changed.
- 5. Conversion is the formation of new words by converting words of one class to another class. These words are new only in a grammatical sense.
 - 6. Such words as the poor, the departed, a Republican are all examples of partial conversion.

Further Reading

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Chapter II Word Meaning

Types of Meaning	
Polysemy and Homonymy	

Section One

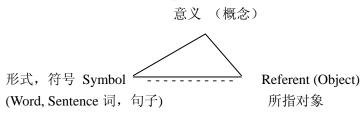
Types of Meaning

I. The Relationship between Meaning and the Object

According to the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure the linguistic sign consists of a signifier and a signified, that is, a sound image and a concept. This is called the sign theory of de Saussure.

According to Ogden & Richards the symbol is the linguistic element, that is, the word, sentence, etc., and the referent is the object, etc, in the world of experience, while thought or reference is concept. This is called the semiotic triangle:

Thought or Reference (Concept)



II. Thematic Meaning

The meaning is conveyed by different ways of organizing the information (order, means of emphasis, the position of focus). e.g.

Mrs. Bessie Smith donated the first prize. 贝西• 史密斯夫人捐赠了一等奖.

The first prize was donated by Mrs. Bessie Smith. 一等奖由贝西• 史密斯夫人捐赠.

The above 2 sentences have different communicative values.

With the help of other devices such as syntactic structure, lexical devices, stress etc.:

- e.g. They stopped at the end of the corridor. At the end of the corridor, they stopped.
- e.g. My brother *owns* the largest betting-shop in London. The largest betting-shop *belongs to* my brother.
 - e.g. Bill uses an 'electric razor. The kind of razor that Bill uses is an electric one.

Home Work:

•Complete the following paragraphs with proper expressions.
1)Motivation accounts for the connection between the and its The relations
between word-form and meaning isand, and most words can be said to be That is,
connection of the sign and meaning does not have a logical explanation.
2) Semantic motivation refers to the associations suggested by the meaning of a word
explains the connection between the and of the word.
3) Lexical meaning and meaning make up the word-meaning.It is known that

grammatical meaning in all the lexical words within or without context as it is related to the content notion that the word conveys. Lexical meaning itself has two components_____ and _____.

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Section Two

Polysemy and Homonymy

I. Polysemy

It is "a term used in semantic analysis to refer to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings.' (David Crystal: A first Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics) That is to say, the same word may have a set of different meanings. There are **two main processes of sense-shift:**A. radiation e.g. neck

B. concatenation

e.g. candidate

II. Homonymy

Homonyms are generally defined as words different in meaning but either identical both in sound and spelling or identical only in sound or spelling.

III. Types of homonyms:

- A. Perfect homonyms e.g. bank, bear, pupil, date, bound
- B. Homophones e.g. sow/sew; dear/deer; son/sun, flower/flour
- C. Homographs e.g. tear, bow, sow, minute

Home Work

Decide whether the following statements are true or false.

- •Motivation explains why a particular form has a particular meaning.
- •Grammatical meaning refers to the part of speech, tenses of verbs and stylistic features of words.
- •Unlike conceptual meaning, associative meaning is unstable and indeterminate.
- •Affective meaning refers to the part of the word meaning which indicates the attitude of the user.
- •Collocation can affect the meaning of words.
- •In the phrase "the tongues of fire" the word fire is semantically motivated.
- •By etymological motivation, we mean that the meaning of a particular word is related to its origin.
- •The connotative meaning is also known as connotations, which are generally found in the dictionary.

Further Reading

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Chapter III Sense Relations and Semantic Field

Sense Relations and Semantic Field
The Development of English Vocabulary

Section One

Sense Relations and Semantic Field

I. Synonymy

1. Synonyms might be defined as words different in sound and spelling but most nearly alike or exactly the same in meaning.

2. Sources of synonyms

- A. Borrowing
- e.g. swine---pork, sheep----mutton, ox(calf)---beef (veal) (French)
- ask---question---interrogate, fast---firm---secure, fire---flame---conflagration
- B. Dialects and regional English
- e.g. help (AmE)---servant (BrE) mother(BrE)---minny(ScotE)
- sidewalk ---- pavement charm ----glamour
- railroad ---- railway job(StandE)----gig(BlackE)
- elevator----- jim male person----- jim
- C. Figurative and euphemistic use of words
- e.g. occupation ----walk of life (fig) drunk----elevated (euph)
- D. Coincidence with idiomatic expressions
- e.g. choose----pick up; postpone----put off; help----land a hand; abandon---give up

3. Types of synonyms

A. Perfect (absolute) e.g. taro and dasheen, world-building and word-formation, submarine and U-boat.B. Partial (relative) e.g. able/capable; change/alter/vary

4. Discrimination of partial synonyms

- !) Difference in denotation e.g. extend, increase, expand
- a. The company has decided to _____ its sales by ten percent next year.
- b. The owner of the restaurant is going to _____ the kitchen by ten feet this year.
- c. The metal will if heated.

II. Causes bring about the differences between American English and British English

- 1. British English itself changed in the course of time
- 2. American English has acquired a character of its own. It reflects the growth, development and history of American society.
 - *Words borrowed from American Indian languages and other languages.
- e.g. hickory, tomahawk, wigwam, bureau, prairie (French), abode, lasso (Spanish), boss, scow (Dutch), noodle, seminar, semester (German).

*Words formed for the sake of its own significant events in history such as the American Independence War, Civil War, its own institution and political system: assembly, Senate, Congress

*Words coined through invention, innovation and originality: harmonica, department store, telephone, influential, advocate, dutiable, etc.

Home Work

- 1. Write an article about Sense Relations and Semantic Field.
- 2. List out the causes that bring about the differences between American English and British English.

Further Reading

林承璋,《英语词汇学引论》,武汉大学出版社,1987

汪榕培、卢晓娟、《英语词汇学教程》,上海外语教育出版社,1997

陆国强:《现代英语词汇学》,上海外语教育出版社,1999

Section Two

The Development of English Vocabulary

The history of the English language is divided into 3 periods.

1. Old English (450-1150)

Historically, people generally refer to Anglo-Saxon as Old English. At the end of the 6th century: the introduction of Christianity---- religious terms such as abbot, candle, altar, amen, apostle. In the 9th century: invasion of Norwegian and Danish Vikings----many Scandinavian words came into the English language, such as skirt, skill, window, leg, grasp, birth, they, their, egg.In 1066 the Norman conquest brought French to England--- 85% of the Old English. Old English has a vocabulary of about 50,000 to 60,000 words. It was a highly inflected language (full inflections). Its nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs had complex endings or vowel changes, which differ greatly from Modern English.

2. Middle English (1150-1500)

Thousands of words borrowed from French and Latin appeared in the English vocabulary. Between 1250 and 1500 about 9,000 words of French origin poured into English. 75% of them are still in use today: beef, pork, bacon, roast, state, duke, judge, govern, administer. During this period, Britain had trade relations with the low countries, especially Holland. As a result, as many as 2,500 words of Dutch origin found their way into English. Some examples are boom (at the bottom of a sail), dock, freight, stoop (porch or entrance). Middle English has changed from a highly inflected language to an analytic language and retained much fewer inflections (leveled inflections). Endings of nouns and adjectives marking distinction of number, case and often of gender lost their distinctive forms. The same is true of verbs.

3. Modern English (1500-up to now)

It can be divided into 2 parts: the Early Modern English period (1500-1700) and the Late Modern English period (1700-now). The great humanistic movement of the Renaissance. More than 25 % of modern English words come almost directly from classical languages. Words as *conspicuous*, *disability*, *disregard*, *emancipate*, *expectation*, *exist*, *external* came directly from Latin; Words as *catastrophe*, *lexicon*, *criterion*, *anonymous* were directly derived form Greek. The Bourgeois Revolution followed by the Industrial Revolution. The territorial expansion of the English Empire in this period resulted in the expansion of the English vocabulary. Thus we have in English American Indian words, such as *moose*, *hickory*, *Papoose*, *tomahawk*. We have English Mexican words such as *chili*, *chocolate*, *hammock*, *maize*,

potato, tobacco. From Peru, we got puma, quinine. From Brazil come cayenne ,jaguar. From India we come calico, mandarin. From Africa come banana, gumbo, zebra. .Since the beginning of the 19th century, particularly after World War II, the great development of science and technology is reflected in the English vocabulary.

Home	W	ork	•

I Fill in the b	olanks acc	ording to the	text.							
The language u	ised betw	een 450 and		is	called		, which	has a vo	cabula	ry of
Middle	e English	refers to the	lang	uage sp	oken from	1150 to .		, follo	wed b	y the
	period,	subdivided	as	early	modern	English	()	and	late
(1700-	up to now	·).								

- 2. Decide whether the statements are true or false.
- 1) English is more closely related to German than French.
- 2) Scandinavian languages refer to Icelandic, Norwegian, Danish and Swedish.
- 3) Old English was a highly inflected language.
- 4) In early Middle English period, English, Latin, and Celtic existed side by side.
- 5) The introduction of printing into England marked the beginning of modern English period.
 - 6) Modern English is considered to be an analytic language.
- 7) Old English vocabulary was in essence Germanic with a small quantity of words borrowed from Latin and Scandinavian.
- 8) Middle English absorbed a tremendous number of foreign words but with little change in word endings.

Further Reading

Jackson, Howard & Amvela, Etinne Ze, Words, Meaning, and Vocabulary: An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology, 2000, Cassell

汪榕培、卢晓娟:《英语词汇学教程》,上海外语教育出版社,1997

Chapter IV Changes in Word Meaning and

English Dictionaries

Changes in Word Meaning

English Idioms

English Dictionaries

Section One

Changes in Word Meaning

I. Causes of changes

- 1. Extra-linguistic factors
- 1) Social development 2) Culture background 3) Social class 4) National prejudice
- 5) Racial prejudice 6) Sexism 7) Social value 8) Circumlocution (迂回说法)
- 2. Linguistic factors
- 1) The influx of borrowings 2) Shortening (ellipsis) 3) analogy

II. Types of changes

- 1. Extension (Generalization)
- 2. Narrowing (Specialization)

III. Elevation of meaning (Amelioration)

Words often rise from a humble beginning to a position of greater importance because of social changes. This is called elevation of meaning, or amelioration.

IV. Degradation of meaning (Deterioration)

Words with a commendatory meaning may become ones with a derogatory sense. This is called degradation of meaning, or deterioration.

V. Semantic shifts from the literal use of words to their figurative use

Home Work

Point out the changes in WM in the following statement:

- 1. But the new emphasis on examining how the dynamics of the brain shape our intellect and emotions means that good employees will in the future spend more time helping their less well adjusted professional staff break away from the learned behavior that shapes their performance at work.
- 2. The Orphanage is high in the Carolina Mountains. Sometimes in winter the snowdrifts are so deep that the institution is cut off from the village below, from all the world. Fog hides the mountain peaks, the snow swirls down the valleys, and a wind blows so bitterly that the orphanage boys who take the milk twice daily to the baby cottage reach the door with fingers stiff in an agony of numbness.
- 3. With cellphones and beepers people make themselves instantly accessible to everyone at all times, and it's the person who refuses to be on call, rather that the intruding caller, who is considered rude.

Further Reading

林承璋,《英语词汇学引论》,武汉大学出版社,1987

张韵斐,《现代英语词汇学概论》,北京师范大学出版社,1986

Section Two

English Idioms

I. Characteristics of Idioms

- 1. Long history
- 2. Semantic unity: Though the various words which make up the idiom have their respective literal meanings, in the idiom they have lost their individual identity. Quite often the idiom functions as one word. And many idioms are semantically inexplicable.
 - 3. Structural stability (syntactic frozenness)

II. Classification of idioms

Classification can be approached from different angles.

In this book we will discuss metaphorical idioms, phrasal verbs, similized idioms, twin words and proverbs.

III. Metaphorical idioms (figurative idioms)

IV. Similized idioms

V. Phrasal verbs (multi-word verbs)

Home Work

What are the characteristics of Metaphorical idioms, Similized idioms and Phrasal verbs?

Further Reading

林承璋、《英语词汇学引论》,武汉大学出版社,1987

汪榕培、卢晓娟、《英语词汇学教程》,上海外语教育出版社,1997

张韵斐,《现代英语词汇学概论》,北京师范大学出版社,1986

陆国强:《现代英语词汇学》,上海外语教育出版社,1999

Jackson, Howard & Amvela, Etinne Ze, Words, Meaning, and Vocabulary: An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology, 2000, Cassell

Section Three

English Dictionaries

I. The history of English dictionaries

The earliest glossaries are: *Promprorium parvulorum* (A Storehouse for Young Boys) (1449). Thomas Cooper's *Thesaurus Linguae Romanae of Britannicae* (1565) Obert Cawdrey's *A Table Alphabetical, containing and teaching the true writing and understanding of hard, unusual English words, borrowed form the Hebrew, Greek, Latin, or Frence (1604) Henry Cockeram's The English Dictionary ---- An Interpreter of Hard Words (1623)*

The earliest dictionaries are:

- The first English dictionary including all the words of the language was Nathanial Bailey' *Universal Etymological English Dictionary* (1721). The lexicographer was the first to include pronunciation and etymology in his dictionary.
 - Samuel Johnson's A Dictionary of the English Language (1755) This dictionary may be said to

be the first English dictionary that established the standards of spelling, meaning and usage of the English vocabulary.

From the 19th century to the 20th century, the representative works in Britain are: *The Oxford English Dictionary* appeared in installments over a period of 45 years from 1883 to 1928. The Second edition of *The Oxford English Dictionary* appeared in 1989. *The Concise Oxford English Dictionary* was published in 1911. J.B. Sykes' *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*, seventh edition in 1982. This dictionary is not a diachronic dictionary, but one of the synchronic dictionaries. Noah Webster is considered to be the father of English dictionary-making in the United States. His famous dictionary *The American Dictionary of the English Language* appeared in 1828. *Webster's New International Dictionary* (1909) *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English language* was published in 1961. Getting rid of the previous prescriptivism, it was based on descriptive Linguistics, thus giving an objective description of language.

II. Types of dictionaries

1. Monolingual, Bilingual and Multilingual Dictionaries

Dictionaries in which words are explained in the same language are called monolingual dictionaries. e.g. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1979). Dictionaries in which words are explained in another language are called bilingual dictionaries. e.g. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English with Chinese Transaltion, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English with Chinese Translation, A New English-Chinese Dictionary by Lu gusun (1984) Dictionaries in which words are treated in two or more languages. This kind is few in number. They are confined to scientific and technical words.

2. General-purpose and Specialized Dictionaries

The former kind usually presents in an alphabetical order the words of the language, with information as to their form, spelling, pronunciation, meaning, usage and etymology. e.g. *Webster's New World Dictionar ,The Concise Oxford Dictionary*

The latter kind concentrates on a particular area of language or knowledge, treating such diverse topics as etymology, synonyms, idioms, pronunciation, usages in language, and computer, engineering, literature and a variety of other subjects. e.g. *The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology, Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English*.

III. Some good commonly-used dictionaries

Home Work

List out the content of Dictionaries

Further Reading

张韵斐,《现代英语词汇学概论》,北京师范大学出版社,1986

陆国强:《现代英语词汇学》,上海外语教育出版社,1999

汪榕培、卢晓娟:《英语词汇学教程》,上海外语教育出版社,1997

《英语语法》教学大纲

张和军 编写

目 录

一、	前言	2
_,	教学基本要求	2
三、	学时分配	2
四、	课程内容	3
	导论——语法层次	3
	第1讲 句子结构	3
	第 2、3 讲 主谓一致	4
	第 4 讲 名词和名词词组	4
	第5讲 名词属格	5
	第 6、7 讲 限定词	5
	第8、9讲代词	5
	第 10 讲 动词和动词词组	6
	第 11、12 讲 动词的时和体	6
	第 13 讲 将来时间表示法	6
	第 14、15 讲 被动态	7
	第 16 讲 虚拟式	7
	第 17、18 讲 助动词	7
	第 19、20 讲 不定式	
	第 21、22 讲 -ING 分词、-ed 分词	8
	第 23 讲 形容词和形容词词组	8
	第 24 讲 副词和副词词组	9
	第 25 讲 比较等级和比较结构	9
	第 26 讲 介词和介词词组	9
	第 35 讲 直接引语和间接引语	. 11
	第 36 讲 修饰	. 11
	第 37、38 讲 替代、省略	. 11
	第 39 讲 后置、前置、倒装	.12
	第 40 讲 从句到篇	. 12
五、	考核方式和要求	. 12
六、	教材和主要参考书目	. 12

一、前言

《英语语法》为英语专业学生开设的一门专业基础课。语法是语言的组织规律和结构系统,是结合语音系统和语义系统的枢纽。在书面语中,语法则是文字系统和语义系统的枢纽。因此,本课程与英语专业基础阶段的其它专业基础课程有着不可分割的联系。本课程旨在通过分析与综合、归纳与演绎来探讨英语语言的组织规律,使学生对语言现象的认识进一步从感性上升层面到理性层面,从而促进学生的语言学习。通过语法的学习,学生能够更得规范地分析和运用语言,准确地表达思想。

二、教学基本要求

1.本课程的目的、任务

本课程的目的是为了高校英语专业学生系统地认识英语从词到句乃至语篇的构造,提高使用英语的规范性,学会用英语准确地、有效地传递信息和表达思想,同时系统地了解英语语法的发展,为进一步地学习及研究英语语言奠定基础。

2.本课程的教学要求

本课程要求学生有计划地阅读英语语法教材,探讨英语语言的结构,对英语语法有一个比较系统的了解。通过各种练习,提高在上下文中恰当运用英语语法的能力和运用英语的准确性,并能借助英语语法知识解决英语学习过程中的相关问题,从而牢固地掌握英语语法。在教学中采取分析与综合,归纳与演绎的方法,以讲授为主,课堂讨论为辅;有取有舍,有些章节精讲,部分章节大体涉猎或由学生自学,教师课后进行辅导,答疑;理论与实践相结合,严格要求学生做课后习题,并辅以精选练习。

三、学时分配

总学时:70,第三、四学期开课,周学时2课时。

章节	教学内容	课时
导论,第1讲	英语语法的结构层次	
	英语句子的结构与分析	2
	英语基本句型及其转换与扩大	
第 2, 3 讲	主谓一致三个原则	2
	主谓一致问题	
第4,5讲	名词分类和名词词组的句法功能	2
	名词的数及单位词	
	名词属格,独立属格,双重属格	
第6,7讲	限定词的搭配关系,若干限定词的用法比较	2
	冠词的类指和特指,冠词的用法	
第8,9讲	代词与先行项在"数""性""人称"方面的一致	2
	代词的格,分类,照应	
第 10, 11, 12 讲	动词的分类,动词的时、体、态、式概述	2
	时与体的用法	
第 13, 14, 15 讲	将来时间表达法	2

	动词的语态	
第 16 讲	动词虚拟式: be 型和 were 型虚拟	2
第 17, 18 讲	助动词:情态动词,半助动词和助动词	2
第 19, 20 讲	不定式的结构形式与不定式符号的几个问题	2
	不定式与形容词、名词和动词的搭配	
第 21, 22 讲	-ing 分词和-ed 分词	2
第 23, 24 讲	形容词的分类和用法,副词的分类和用法	2
第 25, 26, 27 讲	比较等级和比较结构	2
	介词的搭配,介词词组与某些限定分句的转换	
	句子的种类	
第 28, 29, 30 讲	存在句 、It 句型和并列结构	2
第 31, 32 讲	限定从属分句: 名词性、形容词性、副词性	2
	不定式、-ing 分词、-ed 分词、无动词分句	
	独立结构	
第 33, 34 讲	关系分句和条件句	2
第 35, 36, 37 讲	引语,修饰和替代	2
第 38, 39, 40 讲	省略与倒装	2
	句到篇	
合计		36

说明:有些内容自学或比较串讲,根据实际情况进行调整。

四、课程内容

导论——语法层次

【本章教学目的、要求】:

认识语法在语言中的地位、作用,了解语法的基本层次。

【本章教学重点、难点】:

重点: 语法的基本层次。

难点: 自由词素与粘附词素; 派生词; 限定分句、非限定分句、无动词分句。

【本章节主要教学要点】:

语法内容、语法层次: 词素, 词, 词组, 分句, 句子

【本章节作业、练习、思考题】:

练习如何区分独立分句和从属分句、简单分句和复杂分句、主句和从句,给一篇文章分析里面的句子。

第1讲 句子结构

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

使学生了解句子的基本结构与基本句型,能够转换与扩大句子。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 基本句型。

难点:双重谓语;SVA、SVOA 句型。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

主谓结构和句子分析、基本句型及其转换与扩大。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

课后做完书上的练习: Exercise1A、1C; 课堂处理: Exercise1B。

第2、3讲 主谓一致

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

让学生了解主语和谓语动词在"人称"和"数"的方面的一致关系,能说出规范的句子;并列结构、以表示数量概念的名词词组、以名词性分句作主语和其他方面的主谓一致。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 指导原则; 以-s 结尾的名词、集体名词作主语的主谓一致问题; 并列结构、以表示数量概念的名词词组、以名词性分句作主语的主谓一致。

难点:以-s 结尾的名词、集体名词作主语的主谓一致问题;主语+as well as 等并列结构作主语的主谓一致;以表示非确定数量的名词词组作主语的主谓一致。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

指导原则、以-s 结尾的名词作主语的主谓一致问题、以集体名词作主语的主谓一致问题;以并列结构、表示数量概念的名词词组作主语、其他方面的主谓一致问题。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

思考: 语法一致与意义一致互相冲突时, 如何处理? 总结就近一致的情况;

主谓一致练习:选出正确的动词形式。

第4讲 名词和名词词组

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

了解名词的不同分类、名词词组的句法功能以及名词的数等,进而正确使用名词。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 名词词组的句法功能、名词的数。

难点: 名词的数; 单位词。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

名词分类和名词词组的句法功能;名词的数;单位词。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

思考: 总结名词复数不规则变化。

练习:用所给词的名词形式填空;用适当的单位词填空;Exercise4E。

第5讲 名词属格

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

了解名词属格的构成、意义和用法。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 名词属格的意义和用法。

难点:独立属格和双重属格。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

名词属格的构成、意义和用法; 独立属格和双重属格

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

作业:用属格改写句子:判断属格的意义:根据属格知识纠正句子。

第6、7讲限定词

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

了解限定词的分类、限定词与三类名词及限定词之间的搭配,某些限定词的用法;掌握特殊限定词—冠词的用法。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 限定词与三类名词及限定词之间的搭配; 冠词的特指。

难点: 限定词之间的搭配; 各类名词前的冠词用法。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

限定词与三类名词的搭配关系、限定词与限定词的搭配关系、若干限定词用法比较; 冠词的类指和特指、各类名词前的冠词用法。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

用限定词翻译句子;对不同的限定词进行排序;翻译句子,注意冠词的用法;积累、总结一些与冠词相关的固定搭配;课堂一起做 Exercise A、B、C、D。

第8、9讲代词

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

让学生掌握代词与其先行项在数、性、人称方面的一致关系;了解代词的格、物主/反身代词、 代词的类指用法,以及代词照应问题。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:代词与其先行项在数、性方面的一致关系。

难点: 先行项为 every-,some-等复合词、"复数名词或代词+each"时代词的选择;代词的照应。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

代词及其先行项的"数"、"性"、"人称"的一致;代词的格、物主代词、反身代词、人称代词的 类指用法以及代词照应。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

Exercise8A; 在 he(him, his, himself),she(he, herself, hers)and it(its, itself)之间进行选择。思考:

只用属格与宾格的情况。在宾格、主格与属格之间进行选择;运用代词的正确格填空。作业:收集"动词+反身代词+副词/介词)"的固定搭配、某些成语。

第10讲 动词和动词词组

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

掌握动词的时、体、态、式,树立一些有关动词的基本概念;积累一些基本的词组动词。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:按动词在构成动词词组中所起的作用、是否跟补足成分及必须跟什么样的补足成分、词汇意义进行的分类;词组动词;不规则动词。

难点: 非限定动词; 静态动词、连系动词。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

动词分类 、动词的时、体、态、式概说。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

作业:用所给动词和词组动词翻译句子;积累词组动词;用一个词组动词替换单个动词。思考:时、体、态、式的分类标准。

第11、12讲 动词的时和体

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

掌握一般现在/过去时、现在/过去进行体的用法;了解动词时与体的结合,熟练掌握它们的用法。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 现在时、现在进行体的用法; 现在完成体和过去完成体

难点:一般现在时表示现时状态和现在瞬间动作、将来时间、过去时间;一般过去时表示现在时间和将来时间;过去完成体的想象性用法。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

一般现在/过去、现在时/过去进行体的用法;现在/过去完成体和现在/过去完成进行体用法;关于完成体用法的几点补充说明。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

用动词的正确形式填空。

第 13 讲 将来时间表示法

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

知道如何表示将来时间、过去将来时间。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:表示将来时间的多种结构。

难点:过去进行体和一般过去时的比较;was/were to+不定式与was/were about to+不定式。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

表示将来时间的多种结构、过去将来时间表示法。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

课堂上练习用不同结构表示将来时间: 作业: 用正确的将来形式翻译短句。

第14、15 讲 被动态

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

学会主动与被动之间的转换,掌握词组动词、非限定动词的被动态;掌握被动态的用法、意义。 【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:主动与被动的转换;词组动词的被动态;被动态使用的场合;两种被动句型的转换。 难点:词组动词、非限定动词的被动态;被动结构和被动意义。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

主被动句:词组动词、非限定动词的被动态:被动句的用法:被动结构和被动意义。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

练习把主动改成被动: Exercise14A-F; 正确运用主动与被动: Exercise15A-D。

第16讲 虚拟式

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

掌握 be- 型虚拟式、 were-型虚拟式。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: be-型虚拟式、 were-型虚拟式。

难点: be-型、were-型虚拟式;假设意义表示法。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

be-型虚拟式; were-型虚拟式; 假设意义表示法综述。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

课堂处理 Exercise16A-C; 课后自己做 Exercise16D。

第 17、18 讲 助动词

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

了解情态动词的用法;特殊的助动词—半助动词,掌握助动词的缩写形式。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:情态意义表示法;半助动词类型。

难点:情态助动词的推测性用法;半助动词与"it...that"结构。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

情态意义表示法、情态助动词的推测性用法和非推测性用法;半助动词、助动词的缩略形式。【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

用适当的情态助动词填空;思考推测性程度的高低;用半助动词改写句子;练习在对话中运用助动词的缩写形式。

第 19、20 讲 不定式

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

熟悉不定式的结构形式,了解与不定式相关的几点问题;掌握不定式与形容词、名词、动词的搭配。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:不定式的结构形式;不定式与形容词、名词、动词的搭配关系。

难点: 什么时候用不带 to 的不定式; 不定式符号 to 与介词 to 的区分; 不定式与形容词的搭配关系。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

不定式的结构形式、关于不定式符号的几个问题;不定式与形容词、名词、动词的搭配关系。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

思考:哪些动词只用不定式,哪些即可用不定式又可用动名词;练习不定式与 that-分句的转换;思考不定式与修饰的名词之间的关系。

第 21、22 讲 -ING 分词、-ed 分词

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

掌握-ing 分词的用法: 能够运用-ed 分词来作修饰语和补语,了解"悬垂分词"。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: "动词+-ing 分词"; -ed 分词作前置修饰语与补语。

难点: 既能直接带不定式又能带-ing 分词的动词; 能带-ed 分词作宾补的动词分类; "悬垂分词"。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

-ing 分词与动词的搭配关系;既能直接带不定式又能直接带-ing 分词的动词; -ed 分词作前置修饰语; -ed 分词作补语;关于"悬垂分词"

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

思考两种分词用法的异同。

第23讲 形容词和形容词词组

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

了解形容词的类别、形式和形容词词组的构成和用法。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:形容词(词组)作名词修饰语;形容词词组作补语。

难点:形容词与分词的比较。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

形容词分类: 形容词与分词: 形容词(词组)作名词修饰语、补语。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

思考:形容词的分类标准、形容词和分词的区分;练习:Exercise23A-F。

第24讲 副词和副词词组

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

了解副词的分类,掌握其用法。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 副词词组的用法。

难点:兼有两种形式的副词。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

副词和副词词组的主要用法;兼有两种形式的副词。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

思考副词的位置,自己用实例证明;举例分清兼有两种形式的副词。

第25讲 比较等级和比较结构

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

理解比较等级概念,了解比较结构。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:比较结构。

难点: more...than 结构的其他用法; not so...as 与 not so much...as; not more/-er than 与 no more/er than; the more...the more 与 more and more。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

形容词和副词的比较等级:比较结构:关于比较结构用法的补充说明。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

作业: 做 Exercise25A-G。

第26讲 介词和介词词组

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

重点掌握介词词组,熟记介词与形容词、动词、名词的固定搭配。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:介词与形容词、动词、名词的搭配;复杂介词。

难点:介词词组与某些限定分句的转换。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

介词与形容词、动词、名词的搭配关系; 复杂介词; 介词词组与某些限定分句的转换关系。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

查找一些复杂介词。

第27、28讲陈述句、疑问句、祈使句、感叹句;存在句

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

让学生掌握句子按其交际功能的划分;让学生了解存在句的交际功能,学会使用存在句。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 疑问句: 祈使句: 存在句的结构特征。

难点: 附加疑问句: 存在句的非限定形式: 作介词补足成分、主语和状语。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

陈述句/疑问句/祈使句/感叹句;存在句的结构特征;存在句的非限定形式。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

在陈述句、疑问句之间进行改写;举例说明祈使句和感叹句。

第29、30讲 IT-句型、并列结构

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

了解"非指代性 it"作形式主语的三种句子; 掌握并学会用并列结构。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: "虚义"it 、"分裂句引导词"it; 并列结构的各种形式。

难点: "虚义"it 和"先行"it; 并列连词的用法。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

"虚义"it 和"先行"it; "分裂句引导词"it; 并列结构的各种形式; 并列连词的意义和用法。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

用 it 句型改写句子; 并列结构的功能。

第31、32 讲 从属结构

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

让学生了解限定从属分句 、非限定分句和无动词分句。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 非限定分句: 不定式、-ing 分词、-ed 分词分句。

难点: 状语分句的主要分类; 无动词分句; "独立结构"。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

并列与从属;限定从属分句;关于状语分句的几点补充说明;不定式、-ing分词、-ed分词、无动词分句;关于"独立结构"。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

用用名词性分句改写句子;适当的从属连词连接句子。

第33、34讲 关系分句、条件句

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

了解关系分句的划分,知道如何选择关系词;掌握四种类型的条件句。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:关系词的选择:四种类型条件句。

难点:双重关系分句和嵌入式关系分句;第三、四种类型条件句的变体。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

限制性关系分句与非限制性关系分句;关系词的选择;由"介词+关系代词"引导的分句结构; 双重关系分句和嵌入式关系分句;第一、二、三、四种类型条件句。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

思考关系词的省略、四种类型条件句的基本形式和变体。

第35讲 直接引语和间接引语

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

学会如何引述别人的话,恰当运用直接与间接引语。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 各种句子的间接语转换。

难点: 疑问句的间接引语。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

陈述句、疑问句、祈使句和感叹句、各类句子混杂使用时的间接引语。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

把直接引语转换成间接引语; 思考两种引语转换的一般规律。

第36讲修饰

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

让学生了解不同类型的修饰语,掌握修饰这一表意手段。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 名词修饰语: 状语。

难点: 状语。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

名词修饰语、同位语、状语。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

思考:修饰性状语、评注性状语和连接性状语。

第 37、38 讲 替代、省略

【两讲教学目的、要求】:

了解英语中的替代现象;掌握什么时候运用省略。

【两讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 名词性、动词性替代; 并列、主从结构中的省略现象。

难点:分句性替代;主从结构中的省略。

【两讲主要教学要点】:

名词性、动词性、分句性替代;并列结构中的省略现象;主从结构中的省略现象。

【两讲作业、练习、思考题】:

思考:替代的必要性;省略和替代的相同功能;省略和替代的转换。

第39讲后置、前置、倒装

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

了解什么情况句子采用非自然词序:后置、前置、倒装。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点: 倒装: 部分和全部倒装。

难点:倒装。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

后置; 前置与倒装

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

把句子改写成倒装句; 总结哪些副词性词组前置, 句子要倒装。

第40讲 从句到篇

【本讲教学目的、要求】:

了解句子在语篇中的使用。

【本讲教学重点、难点】:

重点:语篇纽带;语篇结构——句子、语段、语篇。

难点:语篇纽带:主题语段和辅助语段。

【本讲主要教学要点】:

句子和语篇;语篇纽带;语篇结构——句子、语段、语篇;主题语段和辅助语段。

【本讲作业、练习、思考题】:

对一篇文章进行分析。

五、考核方式和要求

本课程考核采取平时成绩(课外作业)和期末考查相结合的形式。其中期末考查占60%,平时作业、课堂讨论参与情况、到课情况等占40%。

六、教材和主要参考书目

教材:

章振邦主编《新编英语语法教程》(第四版) 上海外语教育出版社,2003

参考书目:

- 1. 张道真、温志达编 《英语语法大全》(上、下册) 外语教学与研究出版社,1998.8
- 2. 薄冰 《高级英语语法》 高等教育出版社, 1990
- 3. 邱述德 《英语学习与交际语法》 高等教育出版社,2003.8

- 4. 张成袆主编 《大学英语语法手册》 上海外语教出版社,2004
- 5. 潘欢怀编 《现代英语实用句法》 北京师范大学出版社, 1984.9
- 6. 四川大学外文系编写组编 《英语语法词典》 四川人民出版社,1986
- 7. 张道真 《实用英语语法》 商务印书馆,1981.4
- 8. 朱嫣华主编 《高校英语专业八级考试指南》 上海外语教育出版社,1995
- 9. Quirk, R. Greenbaum, S. A University Grammar of English Longman, 1974
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《高级阅读》教学大纲

李星 编写

目 录

—,	课程简介和教学目的	2
_,	本课程的教学基本要求	2
三、	教学的基本内容及课时分配	2
	教学原则与教学方法	
	主要参考书目:	
	教学基本内容	
	k one	
200	Lesson 1 A World Awaken	
	Week 1-2	
	Lesson 2 Atomic Bombing of Nagasaki Told by a Fight Member.	
	Week 2-3.	
	Lesson 3 Obligation to Endure	
	Week 4-5	
	Lesson 4 The Mystery of Rommel's Missing Treasure.	
	Week 5-6	
	Lesson 5 How to win friends and influence people	
	Week 7-8	
	Lesson 6 Between Two Worlds	.11
	Week 8-9.	
	Lesson 7 Some National Stupidities	
	Week 10-11	
	Lesson 8 Drums, Sweat and Tears	
	Week 11-12	
Boo	k Two	
	Lesson 1 Those Crazy Ideas.	
	Week 13-14	16
	Lesson2 Thinking as a Hobby	
	Week 14-15	17
	Lesson 3 Don't Bite Politician.	.18
	Week 16-17	
	Lesson 4 "The Will"	19
	Week 16-17	19

一、课程简介和教学目的

《高级阅读》是英语专业高年级阶段教学的一门专业选修课程,其总学时为36学时,共2个学分,安排在第7学期讲授,为选修课程,考试方式为考试课程。

《高级英语阅读》虽然是一门训练学生单项语言技能的实践课程,但它和旨在提高综合运用语言能力的《高级英语》课程相辅相成,也是其它单项语言技能课程在词汇、语法、理解和文化知识等方面的基础课程是一门高级英语课程,其目的在于进一步提高学生的英语阅读理解能力和阅读速度,完成英语专业阅读课程的高级技能;进一步培养学生细致观察语言的能力以及假设判断、分析归纳、推理检验等逻辑思维能力;注重培养跨文化交际能力,注重培养学生对文化差异的敏感性、宽容性以及处理文化差异的灵活性;提高对文化背景的敏感度和表达思想的能力,也为通过英语专业八级水平考试打下坚实的基础。换言之,本课程的目的在于培养学生的三种阅读能力:字面理解能力(Literal Comprehension)、阅读评价能力(Critical Comprehension)、阅读欣赏能力(Affective Comprehension)。

《高级英语阅读》不仅肩负着进一步扩大学生词汇量、增加语言素材、了解不同文化知识的任务,而且还在于通过有限的课堂训练时间结合大量的课外阅读实践来循序渐进地培养学生正确高效的阅读习惯,提高学生的阅读理解能力和阅读速度,以适应飞速发展的时代的需求,同时,还肩负着为学生参加工作后能够高效阅读大量文献做准备的任务。

二、本课程的教学基本要求

根据高等学校英语专业教学大纲,英语专业本科生在高年级阶段的阅读技能的具体教学要求如下:

- 1. 能读懂难度相当于美国 Times 或 New York Times 的社论和政论文章;能读懂难度相当于 The Great Gatsby 的文学原著,难度相当于 The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich 的历史传记。要求在理解的基础上分析文章的思想观点、篇章结构和文体风格。阅读速度为每分钟 140-180 个单词,理解准确率不低于 75%。能在 5 分钟内速读 1,300 词左右的文章,掌握文章的主旨和大意。
- 2. 能读懂一般英美报刊杂志上的社论和书评、英语国家出版的有一定难度的历史传记和文学作品;能分析上述题材文章的思想观点、语篇结构、语言特点和修辞手法。能在 5 分钟内速读 1,600词左右的文章,掌握文章的主旨和大意,理解事实和细节。
- 3. 要求能熟练地使用各种英汉词典和部分英英词典(如 Collins Cobuild College English Dictionary, Random House College Dictionary), 独立解决语言问题和部分知识方面的疑难问题。
- 4. 要求在文化素养方面具较宽的知识面,对英语国家的地理历史、社会状况、文化传统,风俗习惯等有一定了解。
- 5. 要求大量阅读难易程度相当的课外读物并写出读书报告,以进一步提高阅读技能和阅读质量。

三、教学的基本内容及课时分配

《高级英语阅读》课程主要采用《大学高级英语阅读(上册、下册)》(Advanced College Reading),李燕姝主编,北京语言学院出版社; 辅助教材为:《新编英语教程》 A New English Course 第六册(主编: 李观仪),以及其它英文刊物上的时文为教材。

本课程以《高级英语阅读》教材中每篇课文为一个单元,每单元大概用时 3 学时,18 周完成教学任务,共要学习 12 篇课文。其中包括上册的 8 篇课文和下册的 4 篇课文。在教学中,课文讲解、课后练习、快速阅读和阅读技巧主要在课上完成,课后阅读材料为课下的内容。课文讲解主要是帮助学生理解课文中的难点,对重要的词句进行详细的解释。课后练习主要是巩固对文理解,加深对课文中生词的印象。快速阅读时通过对短文的阅读,掌握略读的基本方法。 阅读技巧是对学生的阅读方法的指导和总结,使学生能够更加有效地展开课上和课下的阅读。课后阅读材料要求学生在课后完成,进一步巩固本单元学习的基本词汇和基本阅读方法课后的作业以阅读和分析《新编英语教程》上的课文为主。每一课都基本分为以下四项基本内容:

- 1. 教材中的每个单元的课文;
- 2. 课后练习;
- 3. 快速阅读和阅读技巧;
- 4. 课后阅读材料及课后作业

四、教学原则与教学方法

在本课程的教学过程中,教师应始终坚持以教师为主导,学生为主体的教学建构,注重培养学生的思维能力和实践能力,充分调动学生的积极性,训练阅读方法,培养阅读技巧,提高阅读速度。同时也要求教师注重激发学生的阅读兴趣,注意培养学生的综合素质,不过分追求字词的用法,让学生在轻松的环境中掌握知识及阅读方法,使学习语言变成欣赏语言,欣赏作品,了解文化背景,让学生真正经历阅读的过程。教学过程中可遵循以下原则:

- 1. 阅读的兴趣性原则: 学习者对阅读是否产生兴趣是阅读教学成败的关键. 教师不但应使学生学会阅读,而且乐于阅读,使阅读过程成为一个主动的吸取知识的过程。兴趣能使阅读过程良性循环。
- 2. 阅读训练的心理准备原则: 教师应了解传授每项阅读技能的最佳时机,了解学生的感知、释义能力,在传授每项阅读技能前确保学生做好感知能力上的准备。
- 3. 阅读速度调节原则:正确处理阅读理解与阅读速度的关系;把握阅读速度的灵活可变性。
- 4. 阅读教学的因材施教原则:阅读学习是一项终身活动,学生不可能在短时间内全面掌握各种阅读技能。他们的词汇知识,理解能力,阅读速度,专业阅读技能以及阅读兴趣和习惯,都是在不断学习和实践过程中得以完善和提高的。学生学习阅读的进程,由于存在着个别差异而有所不同。教师应注意满足不同水平学生的特殊需要,使每个学生都能相应地发展阅读技能。
- 5. 阅读教学的总体设计原则:组织阅读教学应有一个符合实际情况的合理的总体设计。这种设计应从材料选择、任务的确定以及课后练习等诸方面做出全面而深入的考虑。

五、主要参考书目:

- 1. 《英语阅读教程》(二次修订版),3-4 册,刘希彦等主编,吉林大学出版社,2002 年 4 月第 2 版
 - 2. 《21世纪大学英语快速阅读十技巧》马文颖,复旦大学出版社,2003年3月第1版
 - 3. 《大学英语阅读技巧与实践》范红主编, 天津大学出版社
 - 4. 《英语阅读理解百篇应试训练》曾传生、谭亚良编,清华大学出版社
 - 5. 《高校英语专业八级考试技巧与训练》王文琴主编,复旦大学出版社,1999年4月第一版

- 6. 《英语国家社会与文化入门》(上、下册),朱永涛主编,高等教育出版社,1997 年 8 月 第一版
 - 7. 《现代英语词汇学概论》张韵斐主编,北京师范大学出版社,1987年6月第二次出版
- 8. 《牛津高阶英汉双解词典》(第四版增补本), AS Hornby 原著, 李北达编译, 商务印书馆, 牛津大学出版社, 2002 年

六、教学基本内容

Book one

Lesson 1 A World Awaken

Week 1-2

Class hours needed for the lesson: 3 hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. Introduction of the text, 30 minutes.
- 2. Analysis and discussion of "A World Awakens", 1 hour
- 3. Doing the exercises, 30 minutes
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour
- **II. Focus and difficulty**: Language difficulty and content focus.

III. Teaching objectives

- 1. To help students understand this sophisticated editorial
- 2. to further educate students in the area of environmental and ecological protection

IV. The main idea of "A World Awakens":

(Ask students first to sum up the main idea of this article, then the teacher can offer the following answer). Regarding the environmental issue though there are still problems and indifference, ordinary people are beginning to value the environment above economic growth, as the dangers of development become more obvious.

V. Teaching process:

1. Related questions, which can be asked to students before coming to the text:

- 1)Do you have any ideas on how to conserve the giant panda?
- 2) Is there a danger that the spread of English is destructive to other others and languages?
- 3) Which should be given priority, esp. in developing countries: economic development or environmental protection?
- 4) What did Marshall McLuhan mean by the "global village"? Consider (1) religious fundamentalism; (2) Coca Cola; (3) the Internet; (4) McDonalds; (5) global warming.

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2. Summing up the main idea of paragraphs (Always ask students to do first).

- 1)Problems and pessimistic predictions regarding the serious environmental vice in the USA before the 1980s (paras. 1-2)
 - 2) The pulse of environmental awareness surging around the world (paras. 3-4)
 - 3) Positive (Mauritius) and negative (Babylon) examples in this regard. (paras. 5-6).

- 4) Signs of action since 1970s (para. 7)
- 5)Despite the fact that some of the poorer nations are repeating he mistakes of the industrial countries, the general belief being that pollute first and pay later is changing. (paras. 8-9)
- 6)Some additional factors which contribute to the awakening :the discovery of the danger of some seemingly innocuous chemical compounds, our further realized responsibility to the earth brought about by the space programs, etc. (paras. 10-13)

7) Such changes notwithstanding, the overall decline of the biosphere going on. (para. 14)

... ...

- 3. Detailed analysis of the Text (omitted, referring to the Teachers Book)
- **4. Doing some of the exercises:** 1. Questions for discussion of "A World Awakens"
- 2. Multiple choice items]
- 3. Advanced Grammar Practice

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- 5. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises
- **6. After-class assignment:** Read lesson 1 in *A New English Course*

Lesson 2 Atomic Bombing of Nagasaki Told by a Fight Member

Week 2-3

Class hours needed for the lesson: 3 class hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. Analysis and discussion of the text, 90 minutes
- 2. Doing the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 3. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives:

- 1. The students are required to comprehend the text material in an explicit way, being aware of the historical background information.
- 2. The students are capable of expressing their point of views orally on this atomic bombing event, which are recorded in an after-class essay.

III. Teaching Process:

1. Introduction of the text:

- a) Atomic bombing of Nagasaki: the background, outline and expressions of the text
- b) William L. Laurence and the Pulitzer Prize

2. Questions for discussion

- a) Do you know anything about the atomic bombings in World War II? What is your view about the bombings?
 - b) Does Laurence have any political or moral attitudes towards the bombing? Why?

3. Text comprehension and analysis

- a) Background
- i) Atomic bomb and the Manhattan Project

On August 2, 1939, just before the beginning of World War II, Albert Einstein wrote to then President Franklin D. Roosevelt. Einstein and several other scientists told Roosevelt of efforts in Nazi Germany to purify uranium-235, which could be used to build an atomic bomb. It was shortly thereafter that the United States Government began the serious undertaking known then only as "The Manhattan Project." Simply put, the Manhattan Project was committed to expediting research that would produce a viable atomic bomb.

ii) Pulitzer Prize

In the latter years of the 19th century, Joseph Pulitzer stood out as the very embodiment of American journalism. Hungarian-born, an intense indomitable figure, Pulitzer was the most skillful of newspaper publishers, a passionate crusader against dishonest government, a fierce, hawk-like competitor who did not shrink from sensationalism in circulation struggles, and a visionary who richly endowed his profession. His innovative *New York World* and *St. Louis Post-Dispatch* reshaped newspaper journalism. Pulitzer was the first to call for the training of journalists at the university level in a school of journalism. And certainly, the lasting influence of the Pulitzer Prizes on journalism, literature, music, and drama is to be attributed to his visionary acumen. In writing his 1904 will, which made provision for the establishment of the Pulitzer Prizes as an incentive to excellence, Pulitzer specified solely four awards in journalism, four in letters and drama, one for education, and four traveling scholarships.

- b) Main idea: an account of the atomic bombing mission of a major Japanese city underlined by a curious aesthetic sense.
 - c) Outline of the text
 - i) Introduction of the bombing mission and the preparatory work (Paragraph 1-10)
 - ii) The journey starts and the moments before the bombing (Paragraph 11-32)
 - iii) The bombing (Paragraph 33-50)
 - d) Paraphrase the following sentences:
- i) Into its design went millions of man-hours of what is without doubt the most concentrated intellectual effort in history. (Paragraph 4)
 - ii) It takes no mind reader to read his thoughts. (Paragraph 21)
- iii) The winds of destiny seemed to favor certain Japanese cities that must remain nameless. (Paragraph 36)
 - 4. Doing some of the exercises
 - 5. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises
 - 6. After-class assignment

Read lesson 2 in A New English Course

Lesson 3 Obligation to Endure

Week 4-5

Class hours needed: 3 hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. introduction to the author and the book *Silent Spring*, 15 minutes;
- 2. detailed analyses and explanation of the text, 75 minutes
- 3. doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives:

- 1. To get students acquainted with, understand this important article by the famous writer.
- 2. To offer students some further education on environmental protection.
- 3. In order to understand the language, the first important thing is to ask students to talk about the main idea of the article.

III. Teaching process:

1. Introduction to the author

- 1) Rachel Carson: founder of contemporary environmental movement, author of Silent Spring, advocate of nature and environmental ethics, against the misuse of chemical pesticides, breast cancer survivor and best selling nature writer ...
 - 2) About the book *Silent Spring*: an epoch-making book that has changed our age.
 - **2. Detailed analyses of the text.** (Please refer to the Teachers' Book for the main part.).

3. Doing some of the exercises in class orally

Multiple choice

Advanced grammar practice

4. Some key questions for students to answers:

- (1) What was the relationship between man and nature before 20th century?
- (2) What are the consequences of using insecticides like DDT?
- (3) What does Miss Carson consider as the central problem of our age in the USA?
- (4) How does man assist the increase of insect population and invasion?
- (5) What role in the view of the author should the public play in connection with the problem?

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5. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises

6. After-class assignment

- 1) Read lesson 3 in A New English Course
- 2) Write a two-layered outline of the lesson

Lesson 4 The Mystery of Rommel's Missing Treasure

Week 5-6

Class hours needed for the lesson: 3 hours

I. Time allocation

- 1. Introduction of the text, 15 minutes
- 2. Analysis and discussion of the text, 75 minutes
- 3. Doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives

The students are required to comprehend the text material in an explicit way, being aware of the historical background information.

III. Teaching Process

1. Questions for discussion

- A. What is the claim of the author regarding the missing treasure?
- B. Say something about the military situation at the time when Rommel was forced to bury his treasure.

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2. Text comprehension and analysis

A. Background: Field Marshal Erwin Rommel

Field Marshall Erwin Rommel was one of the most celebrated Nazi commanders during World War II, a sly tactician whose exploits in North Africa earned him the nickname "The Desert Fox." Rommel joined the German army in 1910 and served with distinction during World War I, in campaigns in France, Romania and Italy. In late 1943 Rommel was sent to France to direct the defenses for an expected Allied invasion. In July 1944 a British aircraft fired on Rommel's car, killing his driver and causing a crash that gave Rommel a serious head injury. While recuperating he found out he had been implicated in a plot to assassinate Hitler (an attempt on 20 July 1944 by Claus von Stauffenberg failed). Rather than face trial, Rommel was allowed to take a fatal dose of poison on 14 October 1944.

- B. Main theme: introduction of Rommel's treasure as a historical puzzle and the claim made by the author about the missing treasure..
- C. Outline of the text
- D. Explain the following expressions:
- a. insurmountable odds
- b. on the verge
- c. skin divers
- d. a diversionary tactic
- e. palm-studded oasis

3. Doing some of the exercises

4. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises

5. After-class assignment

Read Lesson 4 A New English Course

Lesson 5 How to win friends and influence people

Week 7-8

Class hours needed for the lesson: 3 class hours

I. Time allocation

- 1. Introduction of the text, 15 minutes
- 2. Analysis and discussion of the text, 75 minutes
- 3. Doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives

- 1. The students are required to comprehend the text material in an explicit way, being aware of the background of the author and the works of the author.
- 2. The students are capable of expressing their point of views orally on the techniques in dealing with people, which are recorded in an after-class essay.

III. Teaching Process

1. Questions for discussion

- A. Do you know anything about the atomic bombings in World War II? What is your view about the bombings?
 - B. Does Laurence have any political or moral attitudes towards the bombing? Why?

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2. Text comprehension and analysis

A. Background

Dale Carnegie (originally Carnegey) (November 24, 1888 - November 1, 1955) was an American writer and the developer of famous courses in self-improvement, salesmanship, corporate training, public speaking, and interpersonal skills. Born in poverty on a farm in Missouri, he was the author of *How to Win Friends and Influence People*, first published in 1936, which has sold over 30 million copies through many editions and remains popular today. He also wrote a biography of Abraham Lincoln titled *Lincoln the Unknown* and several other books.

Carnegie was an early proponent of what is now called responsibility assumption, although this only appears minutely in his work. One of the core ideas in his books is that it is possible to change other people's behavior by changing one's reaction to them

- B. Main theme: the discussion of one of the important techniques in dealing with people: don't criticize
 - C. Outline of the text

- The story of 'Two-Gun' Crowley and other examples to show that people it is rather difficult for people to blame themselves (Paragraph 1-14)
- It is foolish to scold since it is in human nature to avoid blaming everyone by himself. (Paragraph 15-24)
 - The story of Lincoln to show that bitter criticism should be avoided. (Paragraph 33-50)
 - D. Explain the following expressions:
 - Prostrate
 - At bay
 - A necking party
 - Procrastinate

.

3. Doing some of exercises

Vocabulary building

Paraphrase

Multiple choices

Advanced grammar practice

4. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises

5. After-class assignment

- 1) Review the text and write an essay stating one's own point of views on how to dealing with people.
- 2) Read Lesson 5 A New English Course

Lesson 6 Between Two Worlds

Week 8-9

Class hours needed for the lesson: 2 class hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. Introduction of the text, 15 minutes
- 2. Analysis and discussion of the text, 75 minutes
- 3. Doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives:

- 1. help students understand the background
- 2. help students to grasp the main points the editorial lists

III. Teaching Process

1. Questions for discussion

1) Why do American middle-class blacks feel they live between two worlds?

2) Give examples to illustrate that well-off blacks still encounter racial prejudice.

2. Analysis of the text

1) Title study: **Two Worlds** can be referred to one white community and one black community.

Between can be explained that the black middle-class has its one foot in the white community and the other one still remains partly in the black community. The black middle-class has both characters of these two communities but belongs to neither part. They are physically in either world but spiritually they can hardly find their position in them. They are in fact outside the two worlds.

2) Understanding the text

Par 1. Quite a large number of black Americans are now in the middle-class being members of the mainstream who have decent jobs, income, good educational background. In another world, they possess what other white people do. They are regarded as the successful figures of black Americans after years of unnoticed struggle.

Par 2. Examples of success stories can be heard in many fields which were not possibly anticipated. They should be satisfied for they are better-off now in many respects.

Par 3-4. Despite their better life and social position, the black middle class still feels excluded and alien. Race is in action. They are segregated both from black society and white society. The white began to accept them but not fully which causes them to be uncertain and little confident.

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- 3. Doing some of the exercises
- 4. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises
- 5. After-class assignment
- 1) Review the text and write an essay stating one's own point of views on how to dealing with people.
- 2) Read Lesson 6 A New English Course

Lesson 7 Some National Stupidities

By Mark Twain

Week 10-11

Class hours needed for the lesson: 2 class hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. Introduction to the author, 10 minutes
- 2. Analysis and discussion of the text, 80 minutes

- 3. Doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives:

- 1. Get students understand and appreciate Mark Twain's numerous uses of figures of speech and know to put implicit language into explicit language.
 - 2. Remember some of the illustrations in the text.

III. Teaching Process

- 1. **Introduction to Mark Twain** his life experience, his major works, and the literary features of Twain's works.
 - 2. A lecture on Figures of Speech
 - 3. Detailed analysis of the text (See Teacher's Book One)
 - 4. Questions for discussion:
 - 1) What do you know about Mark Twain?
 - 2) What does Twain think of German stoves?
 - 3) What are sosme of the other things Twains thinks Americans should learn from Europe?
 - 4) What are some of the American things which Europeans should learn?

... ...

5. Doing some of the exercises:

Multiple Choice

Vocabulary Building

Advanced Grammar Practice—A and B.

6. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises

7. After-class assignment

Review the text and write an essay stating one's own point of views on how to dealing with people.

Lesson 8 Drums, Sweat and Tears

Week 11-12

Class hours needed for the lesson: 3 hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. Introduction to the author, 10 minutes
- 2. Analysis and discussion of the text, 80 minutes
- 3. Doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives:

1. To help students understand this very difficult editorial, and to further acquainted with the contemporary American society, with particular reference of the problems and sorrows of American middle

class men.

III. Teaching Process

1. Analysis of the text

Title study: Drum – an instrument beaten by African tribal men to request rain. Here it is played in men's retreat as a way for happy abandon of grief. It sounds like the beat of men's heart calling men back to nature, back to wilderness alone or with other men to find their original identity.

Sweat – men squatting by sizzling rocks to purify their souls in the glandular fellowship of sweat.

Tears – men shed tears, express their distress and pain.

These three words are used sum up the basic components and purpose of men's movement.

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2. Understanding the text

- 1) Introduction to men's movement (paras.1--2)
- Men of different social status bearing pressures, stress and tension in work, family and feeling gather together to heal their emotional wounds and kill their spiritual pain ritually. For this many men's organizations and activities have been formed and gained public attention through mass media.
 - 2) Attitudes towards men's movement (para.3)
 - Many men prefer it and participate in it.
 - Others do not like it.
 - Some take it as an opportunity to meet women at weekend.
 - 3) Define the movement by comparing it with women's movement (para. 4)
 - mainly concerned with men's inward state
 - nothing to do with political and social issues

.

4) Concern of men in some men's movement (paras.7—8)

In the retreats and meetings, the traditionally sanctioned men's topics are forbidden certain topics are allowed to be spoken about, like "sex". To guarantee the right to speak without interruption, a speaker need to hold a talking stick which is used by Read Indians. However, it is not the end of the movement, the profound quality of it is to return to the nature, to get back masculinity of powerful, brave and firm men as told in fairy tale. This kind of ritual bears some nature of Bly's Mythopoetic Men's movement.

5) Some causes of men's issues (paras.9—10)

Through elaboration Bly argues that men's issues result form lack of father's care. Separation between father and the child is caused by Industrial Revolution and modern civilization. Meanwhile, men have been fooled by the feminists into giving up their rights. Bly asserts men and women must be equal not one can dominate the other.

... ...

- 3. Doing some of the exercises
- 4. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises
- 5. After-class assignment

Book Two

Lesson 1 Those Crazy Ideas

By Issac Ismov

Week 13-14

Time needed for the lesson: 3 hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. Introduction to the author, 10 minutes
- 2. Analysis and discussion of the text, 80 minutes
- 3. Doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives:

To help students understand the criteria of being a creative person

III. Teaching process:

1. Introducing Asimov:

Isaac Asimov (1920-1992): Born in Russia, near Smolensk, Asimov and taken to the United States by his parents when he was three years old. He grew up in Brooklyn where he gained his citizen papers five years later. He finished High School at the age of sixteen and his father's desire for him to enter the medical profession led Isaac to join Columbia University in order to become a chemist.

He graduated in chemistry, had a brief spell in the Army, gained his doctorate and qualified as an instructor in biochemistry at Boston University School of Medicine. He became Associate Professor in 1955, doing research in nucleic acid. His writing aspirations, however, led him to retire in 1958, and become a full-time author.

Writing career: Began in 1939 when he had his first short story published in Amazing Stories. The story, although not the first one he wrote, was Marooned Off Vesta. He became a regular contributor, thereafter, to the major magazines of the day; Amazing Stories, Astounding, Astonishing Stories, Super Science Stories and Galaxy.

2. Major questions for reflection:

- **1.** Describe an experience when you have thought of something "in a flash?"
- **2.** What is intuition?
- **3.** Did you ever have an idea that appeared "crazy" to others yet you were certain it was based on rational ground?
 - **4.** Say something about each of the 5 criteria the author expounds for a creative person.

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3. Doing some of the exercises

4. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises

5. After-class assignment

Lesson2 Thinking as a Hobby

By William Golding

Week 14-15

Time needed for the lesson: 3 hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. Introduction to the author, 10 minutes
- 2. Analysis and discussion of the text, 80 minutes
- 3. Doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives:

Students are required to read carefully the whole text and familiarize with the thesis of the article.

III. Teaching process:

1. Introducing the author -- William Golding

1) Place of birth: Newquay, Cornwall

Residence: Great Britain

Education: Oxford University .He abandoned science for English literature, specializing in Old English.

Other jobs: English teacher; served in the Royal Navy during the second world war, taking part in the Normandy invasion. He also taught in Greece.

- 2) 2.He won the 1983 Nobel Laureate in Literature -- "for his novels which, with the perspicuity of realistic narrative art and the diversity and universality of myth, illuminate the human condition in the world of today"
- 3) His masterpiece *Lord of the Flies* is a thought-provoking novel written in 1954. The book describes in detail the horrific exploits of a band of young children who make a striking transition from civilized to barbaric. *Lord of the Flies* commands a pessimistic outlook that seems to show that man is inherently tied to society, and without it, we would likely return to savagery.

2. Text analysis (refer to the Teachers' Book for the main contents)

The instruction of this lesson should consist 3 parts:

- 1) introduce William Golding
- 2) an introduction to Golding's major novella: The Lord of Flies
- 3) reading of the text.

Preferably this text is read together with Golding's Nobel lecture, which epitomizes the author tone

and style. In this speech he summarizes what had been on his mind throughout his writing career. This lecture may be downloaded from the Nobel Museum on the Internet.

3. Questions for discusion

- 1) In- class discussion: How was Golding's interest in thinking and thought aroused?
- 2) Does the college education help to get rid of prejudice and hypocrisy?
- 3) What is the respective attitudes of the young Golding towards his headmaster, Mr. Houghton, and Einstein?
 - 4) Say something about the characteristics of the three grades of thinking.

... ..

4. Doing some of the exercises

Exercises 3, 4, 6 and 7 are to be done in class.

Vocabulary building.

5. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises

6. After-class assignment

Lesson 3 Don't Bite Politician

By John Fischer

Week 16-17

Time needed for the lesson: 3 hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. Introduction to the author, 10 minutes
- 2. Analysis and discussion of the text, 80 minutes
- 3. Doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives:

Students may have special courses on journalistic language. In this essay attention should be placed on how the author presents his arguments and how he uses evidence he considers adequate to support his theses. And if these counter-arguments can be established.

III. Teaching objectives

1. Focus and difficulty:

Students' attention ought to be drawn to the diction of the essay. One characteristic of good journalistic writing is the use of simple yet accurate words to describe/report an event. Ask the students if they have such an impression during the reading.

2. Questions for discussion:

- 1) What is the basic indictment against politicians?
- 2) What is the basic difference between and politician and a statesman?
- 3) If there is difference, is Winston Churchill a politician or statesman? How about Lincoln?

Or politicians are more complex human beings, they cannot be described in simple terms like good or bad?

4) Are we more at fault for the blotchy image of the politicians?

.

3. Doing some of the exercises:

Exercises 1 and 7 are to be done in class.

Vocabulary building.

- 4. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises
- 5. After-class assignment

Lesson 4 "The Will"

- a play written by James M Barrie

Week 16-17

Time needed for the lesson: 3 hours

I. Time allocation:

- 1. Introduction to the author, 10 minutes
- 2. Analysis and discussion of the text, 80 minutes
- 3. Doing some of the exercises, 30 minutes.
- 4. Reading Skills, extra Reading and exercises, 1 hour

II. Teaching objectives:

To introduce students necessary knowledge on drama; get students understand and appreciate the language, and the theme of the play.

III. Teaching objectives

1. Introduction to the author of the play:

James M Barrie: (1880-1937), born in Scotland, Sir James M. Barrie was educated in Dumfries Academy and at Edinburgh University. At 25 he set out for London and became a freelance journalist. He first made himself known through novels and short stories in which he depicted Scottish life and characters accurately and with affectionate humour. His view of human nature, with its infinite powers of sentimental self-deception, was wry and disillusioned and basically sad.

But Barrie's greatest and most lasting reputation was made through a series of highly successful plays that was shrewd, and consistently entertaining. Some of them were realistic, like *What Every Woman Knows*, others were fantastic, like *Peter Pan*. But they all demonstrated his remarkable control of the realistic conventions of the early twenties-century English theatre.

2. Introduction to the play:

The Will, one of Barrie's more brilliant achievements in the difficult one-act, three-scene form, illustrate most of his qualities as a dramatist: quickly and sharply, in three short scenes all acted out in a single room, it sums up the lives of two people. The judgment in the play on the final achievement of

these lives is stern and unrelenting. But it is also kindly: gently but ruefully, Barrie shows us what our prized feeling of loving generosity only too often comes to.

3. Introduction to the characters:

Mr. Devizes, Senior Emily Ross Philip's wife

Mr. Devizes , Junior Sennet, a clerk Surtees, a clerk Creed, a clerk

Philip Ross

4. Questions for discussion

Scene One

- (1) What kind of lawyer is Mr. Devizez the senior?
- (2) What kind of young man is Devizes the junior?
- (3) What is the relationship like in this scene?
- (4) What are the differences between the couple in the contents of the Will?
- (5) What is the trouble with Surtees? What will it symbolize?

.

Scene Two

- (1) what kind of lawyer is Mr. Devizes now?
- (2) What kind of woman is Emily Ross now?
- (3) What has become of Philip Ross?
- (4) What are the differences (arguments) over the contents of the Will?
- (5) Say something about their children?

... ...

Scene Three

- (1) What has happened to Emily and their two children?
- (2) Why has Philip Ross become a "lost man"?
- (3) What has Philip finally decided to do with his Will? What does it indicate?
- (4) How would you interpret the theme of the play?

... ..

5. Symbolisms, changes and clues of the play

Symbolisms: the three portraits of the monarchs symbolize different period of time; "the black spot" on the clerk Surtees symbolizes human weakness or flaws in human nature which is manifested in the human greed in the Ross's. Changes: The change of time, of the clerks, and the lawyer, the changes of Emily Ross and Philip Ross, the changes of the relationship between the couple. Clues: Even in Scene One, the couple are concerned with money and have a high ambition for their future earnings, in mild indication for their money-oriented mentality; their over affection for each other heralding the future change in their relationship.

6. Detailed analyses of the play

(Refer the Teachers' Book for the main part).

For this highly elegant writing of the play, teachers should pay special attention to going over 'stages directions', to English humour, choice of words, overtones of each line of dialogues, and above all the changes of the main characters.

7. Doing some of the exercises:

Vocabulary building, Multiple Choice, Advanced grammar practice.

- 8. Reading skills, extra reading and exercises
- 9. After-class assignment

《翻译实践》教学大纲

黄宜思 编写

目 录

前 言	
第一章 绪论	3
第一节 中国翻译理论研究现状	3
第二节 西方翻译理论研究现状	
思考题	
拓展阅读书目	4
第二章 翻译标准	5
第一节 概说	5
第二节 五个方面的一致	5
思考题	5
拓展阅读书目	6
第三章 翻译的"四字要诀"	7
第一节"准"	7
拓展阅读书目	9
第二节"明"	9
拓展阅读书目	12
第三节"精"	
拓展阅读书目	14
第四节"切"	14
思考题	15
拓展阅读书目	16
第四章 精益求精	17
第一节 得法	17
拓展阅读书目	
第二节 比较鉴别	
拓展阅读书目	
第三节 文字锤炼	
思考题	21
拓展阅读书目	22

前言

本课程是一门以笔译翻译实践和译文评析为主,辅之以翻译实例分析的课程。

翻译质量的提高离不开实践训练。要使翻译达到千锤百炼、精益求精、无懈可击境界,必需要有相当的翻译量。基于这一点,本课程主要以笔译实践和译文的深度评析和讲解为主,旨在提高学生的翻译实践能力。本课程主要包括以下内容:简要介绍中外现当代译论;英汉两种语言的对比(英汉语言的不同点、可译与不可译);翻译中的兼顾(归化、异化);英译汉与汉译英的区别(语言形态差异、套索与解索的关系);翻译的"修炼"(精益求精、文字锤炼)翻译文体(文体的分类、文学翻译的特点、非文学翻译的特点);逻辑与篇章翻译以及法律翻译等。

由于本课程以实践为主,所以每一章都安排有数量相当的翻译实践练习题(句子和短文等); 学生完成练习后,老师在抽阅、批改的基础上进行课上点评和讲解。这部分活动内容在每次课均安 排在主要时段进行,提问和讨论环节也穿插其中。具体内容不在本大纲中一一列出。在附录中列出 了部分课堂练习的参考答案。

本大纲由黄宜思编写。

第一章 绪论

教学目的: 简述中西翻译理论研究现状, 以及我国目前译学研究领域存在的一些种偏见:

- 一、很多人存在"求全责备"的心理,希望一篇文章就能解决全部问题,这当然是不可能的。
 - 二、有的人一味追求研究深度,甚至到了故弄玄虚的地步,违背了研究目的。
 - 三、片面地强调理论而忽略了实践,使研究陷入"无本之本"的境地。
- 四、由于英语在我国的长期统治地位使一部分研究者紧抓英语不放,忽略了对其他语种的研究。

课时分配:本章需用6课时。

第一节 中国翻译理论研究现状

- 1. 董秋斯"翻译是一门科学"
- 2. 中央编译局重新解释"信达雅"
- 3. 林汉达《英文翻译原则方法实例》,钱歌川《翻译的技巧》、《翻译的基本知识》、《论翻译》、 黄龙《翻译艺术教程》,马祖毅《中国翻译简史》,罗新璋《翻译论集》等
 - 4. 傅雷"传神"不易
- 5. 焦菊隐"直译是意译的更高阶段";茅盾反对机械硬译;周作人"名从主人"的音译,并论直译、意译;巴金"无直译意译之分"
 - 6. 董秋斯《怎样建立翻译界的批评与自我批评》《论翻译理论的建设》,黄龙《翻译学》
 - 7. 周作人"古文与白话",钱钟书"欧化""汉代"
 - 8. 董秋斯、焦菊隐《论翻译批评》
 - 9. 茅盾"文学翻译是创造""美感享受",李健吾,钱钟书"化境"
 - 10. 茅盾总结二千年译史
 - 11. 傅雷论中西方思维方式的不同及美学情趣对翻译的影响
 - 12. 傅雷强调译者专业、人生经验、学识修养等
 - 13. 茅盾"文学翻译要有组织有计划地进行",周作人"集合译著翻译"

第二节 西方翻译理论研究现状

- 1. 霍姆斯、巴斯奈特、勒菲维尔(比)等荷兰、比利时"低地国家"以及以色列的埃文-佐哈尔和图里。这一学派提出"多元系统"理论,其中"多元系统"指的是社会中各种相关的系统——文学和非文学的——组成的网络。翻译是系统间传递的一种特殊形式,它超越语言,以文化为主。"多元系统"理论的提出为翻译研究尤其是文学翻译提供了一个新的视野。
 - 2. "描写"或"常规"学派(School of Description; School of Norms)代表人物:

以色列的图里(Toury)。图里发展了埃文-佐哈尔的多元系统理论,并形成了自己的观点。这一派主要从目的语出发,强调目的语文对翻译的影响。

3. 文化学派(Culture School)代表人物:

巴斯奈特(Bassnett)和勒弗维尔(Lefevere)。这一学派出于对翻译哲学的思考,特别强调文化在翻译中的地位以及翻译对于文化的意义。

4. "综合"学派(School of Interdisciplinarality)代表人物:

斯奈尔-杭贝(Shell-Hornby),她强调翻译是个综合性的跨文化学科,除了语言学和文学之外,作为面向文化的学科,它还必须吸收心理学、人种学和哲学的内容,是一个独立的学科。

- 5. "解构"学派或译者中心学派(School of Deconstructivism),代表人物: 美国的韦努蒂(Venuti)和罗宾逊(Robinson),他们特别强调译者在翻译中的地位。
- 6. "后殖民主义"学派或政治学派(School of Postcolonialism),代表人物:、

印度的尼兰贾娜(Niranjana)、斯皮瓦克(Spivak)、拉菲尔(Vicente Rafael)和谢菲茨(Eric Cheyfitz),这一派不仅抛弃了语言学派的翻译理论,也批判了人文学派的翻译理论,认为翻译完全是一项国际性的政治活动。

思考题

- 1. 翻译理论研究对翻译实践的价值是什么?
- 2. 谈谈你对中国译界目前状况的认识。

拓展阅读书目

谭载喜 翻译学 第二版 湖北教育出版社 2005 谢天振 译介学 上海外语教育出版社 2000 谭载喜 西方翻译简史 增订版 商务印书馆 2004

第二章 翻译标准

教学目的: 阐述翻译标准的问题。以及对于一般翻译的要求: 译文内容应该准确无误,用语应当简明扼要。在翻译过程中应随时注意使译文在涵义,功能、语气、逻辑、文体等方面和原文一致。 课时分配: 本章需用 6 课时。

第一节 概说

翻译远非对原文的理解和复制那样简单。译文本身也应当成为一部作品,文学翻译如此,非文学翻译也应如此。切合不同语境和文体,对照原文应无可挑剔。翻译,即将原文的内涵提炼出来,进行捶打锻造,塑造成型的过程,也就是一个百炼成钢的过程。打造出来的成品与原型相比,其本质自然丝毫不能有差池,外在风格也应当尽量契合,只是变换了一下形状而已。

- 一、"翻译是戴着脚镣的舞蹈",而"舞"得是否到位,是否优美,是否恰到好处,则取决于译者语言功底的优劣。"修炼"是翻译中重要的一环,与译文的表达效果息息相关,只有通过反复修改,才能炼到"字字珠玑"的水平。
- 二、功力深厚的译者一般都是译文锤炼的行家里手。在初学者看来,翻译家们似乎能够将英汉两种语言和翻译技巧运用得出神入化,翻译起来得心应手,译文也堪称经典。但需知,要达到这种境界,需要雄厚的语言文化功底和长期的翻译实践,这非一日之功可达,也没有什么捷径可行,但是也有一定章法的。

第二节 五个方面的一致

严复先生的"信、达、雅"三字准则虽然饱经评论与质疑,但毋庸置疑,其在翻译史上的地位是不可替代的。在翻译中,单就这三字标准而言,恐怕严复先生本人的译文也无法达到完美的境界。这并不是翻译功底问题,而是因为翻译没有极致,"信、达、雅"也只是作为衡量译文水平高低的尺度。但是,这不应成为译文粗糙低劣的借口,译者应当字斟句酌、反复锤炼,打造至上的译文。

- 1. 涵义
- 2. 功能
- 3. 语气
- 4. 逻辑
- 5. 文体

思考题

修改以下译文, 使其更加精炼。

(1) 原文: So it will take months if not years to fathom the real long-term consequences of the French "non" and the Dutch "nee". The EU will have to rethink some basic principles. But I don't think this is the beginning of the end of the Union. It could now branch out in a rather different direction of course. If the events of the last few days mean the voice of the people really will be heard -- then perhaps this long

constitutional process will have brought some clarity, and will have been worthwhile after all.

译文: 所以说,想要探究荷兰人和法国人为什么投了反对票的深层原因,就算不需要几年,至少也需要几个月。欧盟必须仔细考虑一下那些基本原则。但是我并不认为欧盟走下坡路的一个开始。欧盟现在完全可以向着一个完全不同的方向扩展它的范围。如果前几天的事情证明了欧盟开始考虑民众的想法的话,那么这条漫长的欧洲宪法之路将会澄清一些事情,同时,这条宪法之路也值得走下去。

(2) 原文:在笔者到过了一些国家首都,地铁无论对市民还是游客都是一种首要的选择。在巴黎,城市地铁密如织网,号称在市中心任何地方步行5分钟必有地铁站;在华盛顿,地铁大气、现代,灯光站牌现实各种信息:起点、终点、来车有几节车厢、几分钟到达,一目了然;在东京闹市区,地铁站地下的几个出口都立有路面街景图板,为乘车人指点迷津;在伦敦,买一张地铁联票,可以在当天不限次数地换乘地铁和公共汽车。因此尽管这些城市都有三四百万辆私家轿车和上千辆公共汽车、出租车,地铁在人们出行中所占比例却都在65%以上。尊重市民的权利,为老百姓创造和提供更佳的选择,这大抵是"公交优先"的内涵与魅力。

译文: I visited the capital of some countries, and both to the public or tourists, MTR is a prime choice. In Paris, the subway network is as dense as a cobweb, and in the city center, it is said that there must be a station within a five-minute walk. in the Washington, MTR has a grand and modern atmosphere; light station license shows various of information: starting point, destination, number of carriages, minutes left for arrival, which is very clear; in the downtown Tokyo, at each entrance of the underground subway station there is a road map panels to give passengers guidance; in London, if you buy a through tickets, you can take subway or buses with no limit on the number of times at the same day. Despite that there are 3 to 4 million private cars and thousands of buses and taxies, subway accounts for 65% of traffic. The content and charm of "public transport priority" lies in that it respect the right of citizens and creating and providing better choice to them.

拓展阅读书目

连淑能 英汉对比研究 高等教育出版社 1993 方梦之 译学词典 上海教育出版社 2004 孙艺风 仲伟合 翻译研究关键词 外语教育与研究出版社 2004

第三章 翻译的"四字要诀"

教学目的:翻译的锤炼取决于原文内涵、语言风格、作者意图、言内及言外语境等多种因素, 也受到译者的翻译风格,并没有什么一定之规。但简单来说,译文首先要达到"准、明、精、切" 四字,这是 "修炼"之根本。

课时分配:本章需用12课时。

第一节 "准"

"准"不仅仅是忠实于原文的文字,更要忠实准确地表达其含义,切忌纰漏和偏差。

1. 要在炼字上下功夫,翻译时尽可能地在译入语中找到最能达义、用法贴切、效果相当的词语,如果选用的词语无法完全达义,或含义有偏差,或无法在译文读者中产生十足的效果,那么可以通过加译、解释、注释等方式进行弥补。如:

原文:比起高楼耸立的曼哈顿,人们更加喜欢佛罗伦萨红色穹顶下被阳光淹没的古老巷道;比起在夜晚光辉璀璨的陆家嘴,人们会更喜欢充满孩子们打闹嬉笑的万航渡路。就算已苍然老去,支撑起梦境的应该是老房子暗灰的安详,吴侬软语的叫卖声,那一方氤氲过温馨和回忆的小弄堂。

- 译文: Immersed in the sunshine of Florence, the antique alleys beneath the red dome are more appealing than the towering mansions in Manhattan; likewise, Wanhangdui Road, throng with children playing about and laughing, is more favorable than Lujiazui ii , missing in a blaze of nightlight. Even when we grow old, our dreams will be backdropped with the gray old house lying in peace, the mellow voice of peddlers, and the small alleys clothed in good old memories.
- i Wanhangdu Road(万航渡路), a road of a long history in Shanghai which has witnessed the vicissitudes of the city. It consists of many well-preserved traditional alleys and houses.
 - ii Lujiazui(陆家嘴), a new financial and trade center in Pudong District, Shanghai.
- 2. 要在炼句上做文章,译文应当完整地表达出原文的含义和内容,做到不偏不漏。漏译和误议,究其原因,并不仅仅表现在原文阅读纰漏和理解错误,也在于对译文完备程度的把握。译者应当识别原文中暗含的成分、内容和背景,考虑在译文中是否需要补充。翻译中,译者应当多自问几个问题:原文中的暗含的句子成分是否需要补充?原文中的一些言外之意在译文中是否能够有所体现?那些源语读者习以为常的背景知识,在译文中是否需要解释说明?等等。

3. 暗含成分

英语与汉语的语法结构不同,有时原文中省略的成分需要在译文中补齐。

原文:如果由于不可抗力或其他事件,包括营业中断、罢工、封锁、官方安排、原材料匮乏、能源供应问题、军队动员、内乱等等,严重妨碍或完全阻碍许可人履行本协议,而且此等妨碍或阻碍并非只是临时性的,即使许可人的供货商或供货商的供货商收到影响,即使是在有约束力的协议规定的期间和期限内发生的,许可人也不应为交付或履行的延迟承担责任。如发生此等延迟,许可人有权延期到障碍存在的期间加上合理的启动时间之后交付或履行,或者就本协议尚未履行的部分完全或部分地撤销协议。

译文: In case of force majeure or other eventualities, including suspension of business, strikes, governmental mandates, raw material deficiency, energy supply problems, military mobilization, civil unrests, etc., *which* substantially or completely obstruct the licensor from fulfilling the agreement hereof

on long-term basis, the licensor shall bear no responsibilities for the delay in delivery or fulfillment, even if the licensor's suppliers or sub-suppliers suffered losses, and if it is within the time limit stipulated in an effective agreement, The licensor, in case of the delays aforementioned, may deliver *goods* or fulfill *the agreements* within the extended time limit, i.e., the obstruction period plus a reasonable start-up period, or rescind the terms of the agreement partially or completely in respect of the default thereon.

法律文本对语言的精准程度有较高要求,尤其在句型方面,中英文都要符合一定范式,句子须结构严密,不可有丝毫疏漏。在汉语法律文本中,条件句一般用"如果……"、"……的"或"凡……的"等句型,而英语中一般用"in case of"、"in the event of/that"、"if"、"provided that"、"should"、"when"等句型,但无论用哪种句型必须保证语言严密。译文中以"in case of"接名词"force majeure or other eventualities",这之后需要用定语从句来连接"严重妨碍或完全阻碍许可人履行本协议"意群。此外,在汉语文本中可以省略的成分,如"……之后交付(货物)或履行(协议),"在英文中需要补齐,或者转化为名词形式。

但是, 补齐暗含成分时须适当, 否则过犹不及。

原文:我们在反腐败问题上的态度是:坚定不移,坚持不懈,决不姑息,决不手软。反腐倡廉, 既要治标,更要治本。实行标本兼治,教育是基础,法制是保证,监管是关键。

原译: Our attitude towards corruption is: we will fight corruption unswervingly, unremittingly without showing any mercy. We believe that in our efforts to combat corruption, it's essential not to just address the symptoms, but more importantly to tackle the root-causes. In this regard, education lays the groundwork, the law serves as a guarantee, and supervision holds the key.

改译: Our anti-corruption attitude is staunch and unremitting, with no mercy. We will address both the external problems and the root-causes of corruption. In this regard, education lays the groundwork, the law serves as a guarantee, and supervision holds the key.

原文为标准的中式无主句口号,四字结构罗列,又兼排比,简洁干脆。英语讲求结构严谨,翻译时须适时补足主语和宾语,但并不需要每个成分都要补足,否则行文未免拖沓,如原译中连续三次提到"corruption",这完全可以避免。

4. 言外之意

原文中的言外之意是否需要在译文中明示出来呢?这要视情况而定,要尽可能地模仿原文的写法,将言外之意蕴含在译文的字里行间之中。

原文: A noteworthy illustration of this recurring *environmental* critique of the outlook on development in economics is how the increase in gross national product (GNP increase) is often used as a universal measurement of success. A country's GNP gives no information other than the financial results of its sales of products and services.

原译:对经济发展观的环境批判经常出现,一个值得注意的例子就是国民生产总值(GNP)怎么能常常作为通用的成功标准呢?一个国家的 GNP 只是表明了其产品和服务销售的经济成果。

改译:人们一再从环境角度对经济发展观进行批判,其中一个典型的例子就是对国民生产总值 (GNP)的批判——GNP增长怎么能长期作为全球通用的成功标准呢?毕竟一个国家的 GNP 只是表明了其产品和服务销售的经济成果。

英语原文用语简明,结构严谨,原译主要采用了直译,但难免读起来不甚明了,特别是将 "environmental critique"翻译为 "环境批判",令读者费解,并且,整个句子读起来语句不通,结构欧化,有拼凑的嫌疑。究其原因,原译只是局限于原文字面含义,完全套用翻译公式,这样,翻译过程成了数学求解,而内涵丰富的文字成了干巴巴的数字,一字一词地翻译的很完整,而文字的含义没有出来,作者的意图也不甚明了。修改后的译文将文章字里行间的含义表达得比较充分,语

句也通畅得体,令读者一目了然。

5. 背景知识

译文中的人物、朝代、地名等内容读者往往并不熟悉,这就需要译者通过解释、加注等方式进行说明。

原文:招商局在中国的近代经济发展史上曾扮演过重要的角色。香港招商局是中国招商局的一个分支机构。中国招商局由李鸿章请旨创办,成立于1872年3月,1873年1月正式对外开局营业。那时还叫"轮船招商局",清朝同治皇帝恩准的招商宗旨是"招天下商,通五洲航",也就是主营海运和港运。这是我国设立最早、规模最大的航运企业。

译文: China Merchants played a crucial role in the modern history of economic development. Hong Kong China Merchants was a branch of it. It was founded by Li Hongzhang, *minister of Qing Dynasty (1644-1911)*, with imperial permission in March 1872, and it started operation in January 1873. At that time, it was named "China Merchants River Navigation Company", and was mainly engaged in sea transportation and port transportation, aiming at "attracting investors all over the world and developing navigation in five continents" under royal assent of Emperor Tong Zhi. It was the earliest and largest navigation enterprises in China.

像李鸿章这样的人物,在我们看来似乎人人尽知,但英美读者未必读过中国历史和中英关系史, 因而在这里需要视其重要程度,或加以解释,或加上注解。时刻为译文读者考虑,译者要有这样的 意识。

拓展阅读书目

邵志洪 英汉与研究与对比 华东理工大学出版社 1997 谢天振 翻译研究新视野 青岛出版社 2003

第二节 "明"

"明"即表达清晰明了,切忌含混不清、模棱两可、逻辑混乱。

1. 在措辞时,要尽量运用含义清晰的词语,忌晦涩,忌歧义。 晦涩

译者在翻译措辞时应当斟酌一下读者对译文会有什么感受,是否会感到费解,也就说 "to step into their shoes"。翻译过程中,译者往往不知不觉地受到原文影响,在译文中运用一些极富源语"特色"的词语,虽然勉强符合原文含义,但是完全不符合译入语的表达方式,令读者感到费解。翻译时,应尽量将原文中用法与译入语迥异的词语做变通处理,将原文中抽象的词语明化亮化,不可完全"依葫芦画瓢",否则没有源语文化背景的读者是无法参透的。

如:

原文: Why would you ever want to clone humans when we're not even close to getting it worked out in animals yet?

原译: 在我们克隆动物的研究还没有接近成功时,为什么还想到要克隆人呢?

改译: 克隆动物都还差得远呢,又何必妄想克隆人?

原译完全套用原文的用语,甚至"when"、"close"、"work out"这些词语都一一对译,导致译文读起来信屈聱牙。而改译则作了明化处理,运用地道的汉语说法,表达清晰自然。

歧义

避免运用可能引起误解的多义词,如果不得不用,也要运用解释、补充或暗示等方式向读者表明词语含义。

原文:

注意事项

为了保证各位代表会议、考察、住宿安全,请阅读以下须知:

- 1. 会议、考察期间,请各位代表佩戴代表证。会议、考察过程中,请准时参加各项活动。如 有特殊情况不能参加会议统一安排的活动,请提前通知会务组,并留下联络方式,保持联系。
 - 2. 如果遇到紧急情况,请拨打以下紧急电话:火警 119; 医疗急救 120; 交警 122; 匪警 110。 原译:

Tips

Please read the following tips your stay in Beijing:

- 1. Please wear your representatives' ID cards during the session and the visits. *Please participate in the activities on time.* If you have other arrangements, please inform the organizer in advance, leave your contact information and keep in touch.
- 2. Were there any emergency, you may as well make the following emergency calls: Fire: 119; Ambulance: 120; Traffic emergency: 122; Police: 110.

改译:

Miscellaneous Information

Please read the following tips for your pleasant stay in Beijing:

- 1. Please wear your representatives' ID cards during the session and the visits. Your punctuality is highly valued. If you have other arrangements, please inform the organizer in advance, and leave us your contact information.
- 2. The following emergency telephone numbers are just for your information: Fire: 119; Ambulance: 120; Traffic emergency: 122; Police: 110.

外事须知应以交流信息为主,要清晰、得体,避免任何误解。原译将题目译为"tips",读者很容易误解为小费。译文中"Please participate in the activities on time",用祈使句容易令人误解为一种命令或劝解,并不妥当。"Were there any emergency, you may as well make the following emergency calls." 虽然运用了虚拟语气,但用语依然比较生硬,不如改译自然流畅。

3. 句型结构明化,避免歧义。

单句结构

句子结构应清晰明了, 切忌成分混乱, 含义不明。

原文: Forty-six percent said they were worried they might get sick from eating contaminated food and that they have avoided foods that they normally would have purchased because of safety warnings. Twenty-nine percent have thrown out food earlier than usual and fourteen percent have returned food to the store.

原译:46%的受访者称他们*担心食用污染食品而致病*,并称由于安全警告,他们放弃了一些原来常常购买的食品。29%的人会比以前提前扔掉食品,14%的人已经把食品退还商店。

改译: 46%的受访者称自己担心因食用污染食品而致病,并称安全警告促使他们远离了往常购买的一些食品。29%的人提早扔掉食品,14%的人已经将食品退回商店。

原译中第一句有歧义,致病的是"担心食用污染产品"还是"食用污染产品"呢?改译中,"因……而……"结构的运用弥补了这一不足。另外,"由于安全警告"表意不明确,且"比以前提前扔掉

食品"实在不像中文,因而作一一修改。

4. 复句结构

忌从句逻辑关系复杂难解的长难句,因为这种句型很容易令读者断句失误,产生误解。

这尤其表现在英译汉中,许多译者直接套用英文长句的树形结构,得出的译文句式欧化,不知 所云,似乎是染上了西洋病菌。

译文: Already, southern China's Guangdong province, known as "the workshop of the world" is short 2 million workers, the equivalent of 14 percent of America's entire manufacturing workforce. The problem for American retailers and consumers hooked on \$3 T-shirts and \$30 DVD players is that there is no other China waiting in the wings to make cheap goods reliably for American shoppers.

原译:被称为"世界车间"的中国南部第一省广东省已经开始短缺2百万劳动力,这个数字相当于全美制造业工人数目的14%。美国零售商和消费者想继续购买3美元的T恤衫和20美元的DVD机的问题在于,世界上并无其他国家像中国一样能够可靠地提供廉价商品。

第一句中,按照汉语表达习惯,我们一般会说"劳动力短缺",而不是"短缺……劳动力",再加上"已经开始短缺……"更为不通。第二句中,译者不假思索地照搬原文结构,将"the problem for"后面的内容直接搬到"的"字结构中,制造了一个长达 27 字的定语成分。此外,译文表达不到位,"the problem for"应明化为"……面临的问题"。

改译:被称为"世界车间"的中国南部广东省已经出现2百万劳动力缺口,这个数字相当于美国制造工人总数的14%。美国零售商和消费者一直对3美元的T恤衫和20美元的DVD播放器欲罢不能,而如今他们面临着一个问题,世界上很难找到中国那么可靠的国家为他们提供廉价商品了。

而在汉译英中, 常见的病症则不一而足。

症状一为中式英文句型,零零散散,分句之间关系不明,逻辑不清。

原文: 1981 年广东、福建沿海的走私的确严重。有的地方,甚至出现渔民不打鱼,工人不做工,农民不种田,学生不上学,一窝蜂似的在街头巷尾、公路沿线游荡,兜售各式各样的"水货"的情况。更令人担忧的是,一些干部包括担任一定领导职务的干部也卷入了走私犯罪的旋涡之中。

原译: In 1981, smuggling plagued the coastal area in Guangdong and Fujian. Even in some places, fishers stopped fishing, workers abandoned works, and farmers leave the farmland and students dropped out of school to swarm around the roads and streets to peddle all sorts of "smuggled goods". What is was more disturbing, some officials, including leaders, also fell into the crime of smuggling.

改译: In 1981, smuggling plagued the coastal area in Guangdong and Fujian. Even in some places, fishers, factory workers, farmers and students, lured away from their works, swarmed around the streets to peddle all sorts of "smuggled goods". To be more disturbing, some officials, including leaders, also fell into the crime of smuggling.

汉语中,"渔民不打鱼,工人不做工,农民不种田,学生不上学"这种形象的排比句十分常见,但英语只有在少数诗歌和习语中才会出现(如 man supposes, god disposes),不易在英译中套用。而且,原译存在歧义:句子后半部的不定时结构对应的是"fishers"、"workers"、"farmers"和"students"四个主语,还是仅"students"一个主语?并且,第二句前半部详尽的排比式叙述也导致语义衔接问题:第一句是讲"smuggling",之后又花大量篇幅讲"fishers"、"workers"、"farmers"和"students"的故事,直到"peddle all sorts of 'smuggled goods'"才进入正题,牵扯太多。修改后的译文则简单明了。

症状二为中式英语长句,意群当断不断,分句间强加组合,拼拼凑凑,得出貌似地道英文的"长难句"。虽然英语中多树形结构的长句,但是这种句型逻辑清晰、结构严谨,并不是能够轻易组合而成的。翻译时,译者应该把握汉语各个意群之间的逻辑关系,或者套用一些地道的英文句型,或

者采用简单的短句,再用连接词连接。

原文:第二个1号文件对整个农村改革的趋势作了科学的判断:"商品生产的蓬勃发展,是农村经济新局面的一个基本特征,它标志着我国农村从自给性、半自给性生产转向专业化、社会化生产的具有历史意义的开端。"

- 原译: Circular No.1 gave scientific judgment on the overall climate of rural reform, "the prosperous development of commodity production is a basic feature of a refreshed rural economy, and indicates that China's rural areas have begin to transform from self-consistency or semi-self-consistency natured production to specialized and socialized production."
- 改译 1: Circular No.1 contains scientific judgment on the prospect of rural reform: "the prosperous development of commodity production is a basic feature of a refreshed rural economy. It also indicates that China's rural areas have stepped into historical transition from self-consistency or semi-self-consistency natured production to specialized and socialized production."
- 改译 2: Circular No.1 contains scientific judgment on the prospect of rural reform: "the prosperous development of commodity production is a indicator of the refreshed rural economy and the historical transition from self-consistency or semi-self-consistency natured production to specialized and socialized production."
 - 5. 词句间逻辑关系

注意词与词、句与句之间的逻辑关系,避免不合逻辑、不合语法的情况出现,如:

原文: Cultural shock is caused by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols or social contact.

译文:文化冲突是由于我们失去所熟悉的迹象、标志或社会交往而产生的焦虑造成的。

"失去""迹象、标志"尚勉强可以达义,但"失去""社会交往"又该怎样理解呢?译者"忠实"于原文,字字对译,却忽视了汉语"失去"和英语"lose"的范畴和用法差异,顾此失彼,得不偿失。按照韦氏字典,"lose"一词第 17 项含义为"to have slip from sight, hearing, attention, etc.: to lose him in the crowd",在本句中表达就是此义,而这是汉语"失去"所不具备的。此外,"社会交往"是一个比较抽象的短语,与前文不搭配,不如改为"社交圈"或"社交领域"。

改译:文化冲突是由我们离开所熟悉的迹象、标志或社交圈而产生的焦虑造成的。 再如:

原文:公交优先是世界众多大城市普遍认同并实行的一条原则,提倡公交优先,并不是要限制 私家车的发展,而是优先发展快捷、便利的公交工具与通道,使市民的出行更加便利。

原译: "Public priority", many cities in the world generally recognized and applied the principle. Promoting public priority are not intended to restrict the development of private cars, but give priority to the development of efficient and convenient public transport tools and access to the public can get around more convenient.

译文完全按照汉语的语法结构组织英文,完全不符合英文的语法和逻辑关系,不知所云。

改译: "Public priority" is a principle recognized and applied by many cities in the world. It was not designed to put limit on private cars, but to give priority to the development of efficient public transport facilities for the convenience of the public.

拓展阅读书目

陈忠诚 词语翻译丛谈 中国对外翻译出版公司 2000

郑诗鼎 语境与文学翻译 西南师范大学出版社 1997 许钧 翻译论 湖北教育出版社 2003

第三节 "精"

"精"即简炼、精致,忌繁冗拖沓。翻译措辞需惜墨如金,忌语义重复。

1. 精于选词

翻译时应选用最简练的方式,如果能用一个词就能达义的,就尽量不用短语和句子表达,这需要译者积累大量的词汇,并且要了解英汉词汇方面的差异。

英文词汇非常丰富,且词缀语素较多,造词能力较强,如 credit – creditor - creditable – creditably – creditability – discredit – discreditable,那么"值得称赞的"不必译为"worth credit",而译为"creditable","有损信誉的事"也不必翻译为"something harmful to one's credit",而是可以简单译为"something discreditable"。

而汉语词缀语素较少,造词能力较弱,广泛运用词根复合法造词(如"发展"、"特殊")等,通过词语搭配形成短语来表意,如"justify"一般译为"替……辩护,证明……是正当的"。但汉语中的成语和惯用语较多,适当运用可以使译文更加精炼。

经过字斟句酌之后,译文往往会十分出彩,如:

原文: Chinese showbiz rarely produces icons. Sure, there are the dozen or so movie actors who can carry a film, and the odd rocker who fills a stadium. But seldom does a face on China's small screen really stand out.

原译:中国的娱乐业很少创造出明星。的确,这里是有十几个电影演员能够撑起一部电影,也有少数摇滚歌手能让体育场观众爆满。但是,很中国的银幕上很少有面孔能够真正脱颖而出。

改译:中国娱乐业造星乏术。的确,尽管有若干影星能支撑电影门面,也有少数摇滚歌手能炒 热体育场,却鲜有银幕面孔真正出位。

很明显,原译文虽然忠于原文,表达也比较通畅,但改译后效果更佳,行文简洁许多。"乏术"、"支撑"、"门面"、"炒热"、"出位"等词用得十分精当,既省去不少笔墨,又显得清晰明了。

1. 语义精简

译文用词应精化,避免语义重复。由于不同语言中的词语语义范围不同,有时并不需要一一对译,尤其是在汉英翻译中如:

原文:历史经验表明,高油价对所有国家的经济都会产生负面影响,反通胀的措施可以减轻油价冲击对物价水平的直接影响,但无法完全消除其负面效应。

原译: The historical experience shows that high oil price shall take negative influences on all countries' economy. The measures of inflation resistance may reduce the direct *influence* on the price level *impacted* by oil price; however, it can't completely distinguish the *negative effects*.

改译: Historical experiences shows that high oil price will exert negative influences on world economy. The anti-inflationary measures may alleviate oil prices' direct impact on commodity price, but it can not distinguish it.

原文中"减轻油价冲击对······的直接影响"这种表达无可厚非,但如果一一对译,则会造成"influence"和"impacted"语义重复;汉语中反复提及"负面效应"这一概念,也没有什么问题,但是英语讲究简洁,如需接连提及某一概念通常会以代词替代。

在一些特定语境下,同义词连用的情况已成惯例。例如,英美法律文本为了保证语言严密,同

义词、近义词连用现象十分普遍,如 "the terms, conditions and provisions of the contract"(合同条款),"conclude and enter into a contract"(签订合同),翻译时应依照中文法律的惯用形式。另外,很多中文成语、惯用语是由同义词组合而成的,如 "尽职尽责"(responsible)、 "根深蒂固"(entrenched)、"毕恭毕敬"(reverent/respectful)等等,翻译时也不需要——译出。

- 3. 避免运用繁冗的句式和表达方式,尽量简化。有时不必拘泥于原文的句子结构和表达形式,对原文内容进行重组或重述,用最简明的形式表达,译文往往既忠实原文,又简单明了。
 - 4. 知己知彼: 英汉简化之法

英汉两种语言的句式各有简省之法,翻译时顺应其语言特点,宜补则补,宜简则简。

英语有时态,往往便可省去时间状语,如: He is out of office (now). 他<u>现在</u>不在办公室。英语丰富的从句句型将错综复杂的成分按照顺序组合在一起,也省去了反复叙述的麻烦。

汉语存在着大量的灵活句法。许多汉语句式并不需要"五脏俱全",无主句、省略句非常普遍, 在汉译英时应当注意补齐,反之,在英译汉是也应当适时简化。例如:

原文: 弄得不好,就会前功尽弃。

译文: If it does not work, our efforts will be in vain.

5. 顺手牵羊: 巧用惯用语

英汉两种语言中都含有大量的成语习语,如果在译文中能够运用得当,无疑既能为译文添色, 又省去多余笔墨,如:

原文: The plane seemed to glide up the side of a mountain. The lights died and sparks flashed up and down the cabin.

译文:飞机似乎在顺着山坡向上滑行。灯灭了,舱内火花四射。

6. 破句重圆: 句型重构

如果按照原文结构翻译得出的译文繁冗啰嗦,条理不清或者结构松散,那就可以考虑对原文内 容进行重组,换一种方式叙述,化零为整,化繁为简。

原文: 很多人还难以理解利用克隆进行生育的意义。

原译: Many people have a hard job seeing the significance of application of cloning in reproduction.

改译: It is hard for many people to see the point of reproductive cloning.

原译完全拘泥于原文的句式结构,导致句型复杂,拖沓繁冗。而改译则套用地道的英文句式, 化繁为简,让读者一目了然。

拓展阅读书目

郑鼎诗 语境与文学翻译 西南师范大学出版社 1997 邵志洪 翻译理论-实践与评析 华东理工大学出版社 2005

第四节"切"

切,要求翻译用语符合上下文语境和文体要求。

1. 搭配得当

译文词语搭配应贴切自然,杜绝强拉硬拽式的"异样搭配"。

原文:要应对高油价的挑战,长期应对措施自然是节能降耗和寻求替代能源。

译文: Undoubtedly, the long-term measures to cope with the challenge of high oil price, are to save

energy consumption and search for new energy for substitution.

译文中的"save"和 "energy consumption"从语义上来说就搭配不当,"search for"是指"物色、搜寻、搜查",用在这里也并不贴切。 "long-term measures to cope with the challenge"也可以简化,整句可以改译为:

Undoubtedly, energy consumption reduction and alternative energy exploration are long-term countermeasures against the challenge of high oil price.

2. 风格得当

不同的文体对于措词有着不同的要求, 粗略可以分三种情况。经贸, 法律, 政治, 外交这种事务性翻译要求用于庄严, 得体, 精当; 小说, 散文等文学翻译要求语言的文采, 风格与意境; 科研报告, 科普文章, 产品说明书等科技性翻译和要求语言准确, 明了; 广告, 旅游, 新闻方面的传媒翻译需要达到醒目的文字效果, 精当形象的传载信息, 对读者即刻产生吸引力。

原文: Any Contracting State which, under its domistic law, requires as a condition of copyright, compliance with formalities such as deposit, registration, notice, notarial certificates, payment of fees or manufacture or publication in that Contracting State, shall regard these requirements as satisfied with respect to all works protected in accordance with this Convention and first published outside its territory and the author of which is not one of its nationals, if from the time of the first pulication all the copies of the work pulished with the authority of the author or other copyright proprietor bear the symbol @ accompanied by the name of the copyright proprietor and the year of first pulication placed in such manner and location as to give reasonable notice of claim of copyright.

原译:任何缔约国在其国内法中要求履行寄存,注册,公示,公证文件,费用支付或者在该国国内制作出版等手续,以作为版权条件的缔约国,对于受该公约保护,首次在该国境外出版,并且其作者并非该国公民的作品,应当视为已满足这些要求,只要自该作品首次出版起,以作者或者其他版权所有者名义出版的该作品所有版本都在标注©符号,并配有版权所有者的名字和首次出版年份,其标注方式和位置应使人注意到版权的要求。

法律文本中包涵大量专业术语,即"行话",如上文的"Contracting State""shall"等,而且往往还要求符合一定的规范和格式。汉英法律语言都具备用词准确、精练、专业、严谨的特点,因此译者应当悉心用词,反复推敲,尽力使译本符合规范.这篇译文存在着许多问题,对一些术语的翻译不准确,尤其对"deposit"一词的翻译不符合版权法的术语。并且"in such manner and location as to give reasonable notice of claim of copyright"在原文中是"if"从句的成为,译为"其标注方式和位置应使人注意到版权的要求"很容易引起歧义,被误认为是"应当视为已满足这些要求"的并列成分。此外,许多地方过于口语化,不够专业。

改译:任何按照其国内法要求履行缴送样本,注册登记,进行公示,办理公证文件。支付费用或者在该国国内制作出版等手续,以作为版权要件的缔约国,对于在公约保护范围内,首次在该国境外出版,其作者又非该国公民的作品,只要自该作品初版之日起,以作者或者其他版权所有者名义出版的该作品所有各册在合理位置,以合理方式标注©符号,以及版权所有者姓名和首次出版年份,给予适当版权标示,应当视为符合上述要求。

思考题

翻译以下文章,反复修改锤炼文字,再与参考译文对照,比较各自的优劣之处,考虑是否还有其他翻译方法。

英译中:

The lack of opportunity is ever the excuse of a weak, vacillating mind. Opportunities! Every life is

full of them.

Every lesson in school or college is an opportunity. Every examination is a chance in life. Every business transaction is an opportunity-an opportunity to be polite, an opportunity to be manly, an opportunity to be honest, an opportunity to make friends. Every proof of confidence in you is a great opportunity. Every responsibility thrust upon your strength and your honor is priceless. Existence is the privilege of effort, and when that privilege is met like a man, opportunities to succeed along the line of your aptitude will come faster than you can use them.

Young men and women, why do you stand here all the day idle? Was the land all occupied before you were born? Has the earth ceased to yield its increase? Are the seats all taken? The positions all filled? The chances all gone? Are the resources of your country fully developed? Are the secrets of nature all mastered? Is there no way in which you can utilize these passing moments to improve yourself or benefit another? Don't wait for your opportunity. Make it, make it as Napoleon made his in a hundred "impossible" situations. Make it, as all leaders of men, in war and in peace, have made their chances of success. Make it, as every man must, who would accomplish anything worth the effort. Golden opportunities are nothing to laziness, but industry makes the commonest chances golden.

中译英

当承包商对造成款项不予支付的问题进行补救或解决后,且向公司提交了满意的补救或解决证明材料,则公司应立即对扣付的款项进行支付。若承包商在收到公司发来的通知后未能采取合适的补救措施或拒绝补救或解决任何造成款项扣付的问题,则公司有权自行采取措施补救或解决任何上述问题,且在任何应付或欠付或本合同项下即将应付或欠付的款项中扣除实际发生的费用(包括公司由此发生的费用),本条款不应影响任何其它公司有权收回上述款项的补救措施。尽管有前述规定,公司有权修正工作中出现的任何和所有缺陷,并有权扣付任何应付或欠付或本合同项下即将应付或欠付的款项,扣付数额以上述金额的全款为限。

拓展阅读书目

杨自俭、刘学云编《翻译新论》,湖北教育出版社,1994

陈安定,《翻译精要》,北京:中国青年出版社, 2004

陈定安, 《英汉比较与翻译》(增订版), 北京: 中国对外翻译出版公司, 1998

第四章 精益求精

教学目的:要在译文修炼方面更上一层楼,仅仅了解翻译准则和翻译技巧,而疏于翻译实践, 终是纸上谈兵,翻译实践自然不可忽视。翻译修炼既需要"得法",又需要"践行",更需要"精益 求精"的耐力。

课时分配:本章需用12课时。

第一节 得法

至于翻译水平,有人以翻译的数量衡量,每每自称翻译量达几十万字甚至几百万字,也有人以翻译速度衡量,张口闭口皆言每小时翻译量高达上千字,每日高达上万字。大量的翻译实践和熟练翻译技能也是翻译水平的一部分,但是问题在于,当今翻译市场上过分强调数量和速度,这已经成为了翻译质量低下的"pretext"。许多"翻译量达几十万字""翻译速度1千字/小时"的译者翻译的成果,文字不通、漏洞百出、目不忍视。傅雷先生的翻译水平是大家公认的,但据说,以其经验和修养,每日平均也只不过译一千二百到一千五百字。

的确,当今社会节奏越来越快,涉外商务文书、法律合同、科技文献等许多事务性翻译也越来越多,这就要求译者具备在短时间内翻译大量文字的能力,但是这些文件往往关系重大,一有疏漏便可能损失巨大,翻译质量更为重要,这就需要译者将自己的每一次译文都作为一部精品来对待,时刻不可有丝毫懈怠。

一、另辟蹊径

原文: 白首相逢,15年悲欢一言难尽,万丈豪情已被无边感慨替代。有媒体便用"十五年和十个人的江湖"这样颇带悲壮色彩的诗化标题报道这次很难被称为"盛会"的相聚。

原译: The white-haired got together. Their 15 years of joys and sorrows are unutterable, and their previous ambitions have been replaced by laments. Some media covered the gathering which hardly deserved to be "a grand meeting" with a poetic but tragic title of *Fifteen Years and Ten Person's World*.

改译: The gray-haired got together after the 15-year unutterable joys and sorrows, overwhelmed with laments instead of previous ambitions. The gathering, hardly deserved to be "a grand meeting", was covered by some media as *Fifteen Years and Ten Hero's Adventure*, a poetic title with a tragic tint.

评析:对照汉语原文来看,原译谈不上什么错处,但是读起来总不似地道的英文,但这种译文在各种对外宣传的书籍文章中十分常见。总结起来,原译存在两个问题。

其一,用词生硬刻板,如"white-haired"在英文中与"白首"含义相差甚远,英美人一般形容白发老人为"gray-haired"或"hoary-haired";原文"十个人的江湖"极具中国特色,单单"江湖"一个词要译出就实属不易,汉英字典上的"rivers and lakes"、"all corners of the country"自然不能用,原译中的"Ten Person's World"倒也简明达意,但是情调上差了一些,很难让人读出"颇带悲壮色彩的诗化标题"的意味,改译为"Ten Hero's Adventure"或许尚待商榷,但是意味上比原译要胜一筹。

其二,句式凌乱。原文第一句"白首相逢,15年悲欢一言难尽,万丈豪情已被无边感慨替代。"本为一个整体,只是汉语行文较散,又为了突出句子的感情意味,就分开叙述了。原译完全挪用了原文句式,但是段落结构松散,且"joys and sorrows"、"unutterable"、"lament"等感情色彩浓重的词语过于分散,导致译文在感情意味上大打折扣,倒不如按照英文的句式特点进行重组。第二

句中句子的重心应在"盛会"和"十五年和十个人的江湖"上,只是汉语一般习惯以实施者为主语,但译为英文,完全可以顺势采用被动式,突出重点。且"which hardly deserved to be 'a grand meeting'"一处很容易与后文的"with"结构理解为一个意群,产生歧义,不如利用英语中常见的插入语句式,这样句子结构更加一目了然。汉语语法中定语只能置于词语之前,而英语中较长的定语往往置于词语之后,并且可以用同位语等其他方式代替定语从句,汉译英时也不妨拿来一用。

拓展阅读书目

居祖纯 汉英语篇翻译 清华大学出版社 1998 许钧 翻译思考录 湖北教育出版社 1998

第二节 比较鉴别

1. 原文: We enclose herewith an invoice amounting to \$35000, for which we shall appreciate it if you will send us a cheque at your convenience.

译文一: 我们在此附上一张 35000 美元的发票, 希望您能够在方便的时间寄给我们发票.

译文二: 谨奉上金额为 35000 美元的发票一份, 敬希拨付为荷.

评析:商务书信用语重在礼貌,典雅。精当。从内容上来看,两者都准确无误地传达了原文的信息;从篇幅来看,明显后者更加精炼;从用语风格来看,前者为现代用语,较为通俗,后者运用大量文言词语,较为典雅。似乎两者各有千秋。但是从目前汉语商务用语习惯来看,后者更加符合商务用语的套路。

2. 原文:

China is ASEAN's Elephant in the Corner

As usual, China arrives at the annual meeting of Southeast Asian nations with no membership card but plenty of clout – an asset it may need to finesse a long-standing dispute over an archipelago everyone seems to covet. High on the agenda: the Spratly Islands in the South China Sea. For years, China has claimed "indisputable sovereignty" over the fishing-rich region it calls Nansha, believed to sit top vast untapped oil and gas deposits. But the Philippines, Vietnam, Malaysian and Brunei have also claimed portions.

译文一:

中国是东盟会议的"墙角之象"

同往常一样,中国又一次参加东盟国家的年会,虽然中国并不是东盟会员国,但是具有重大的影响力。中国需要这一优势妥善解决关于某群岛归属问题上的长期争议,似乎每一方都觊觎着这个群岛。中国南海的"Spratly"群岛问题是会议的主要问题。中国称其为南沙群岛,许多年来一直宣称在这篇拥有丰富渔业资源的地区,有着"不容否认的主权",并相信该地域下面蕴藏着丰富的石油天然气资源,但是菲律宾、越南、马来西亚和文莱都声称对该岛拥有部分主权。

译文二:

中国对东盟的暗中影响力巨大

中国一如既往地参加东南亚国家年度会议,虽不是正式成员,却具有巨大的影响力。中国可能会利用这一有利条件巧妙处理在一个群岛归属问题上长期存在的争端,而各方似乎都想占有这个群岛,南中国海的南沙群岛问题是本次会议的主要议题之一。中国所称的南沙群岛渔产丰富,据信其海底未经开采的石油和天然气储量巨大,而中国多年来一直坚称对这一区域享有"不可争议的主

权"。但菲律宾、越南、马来西亚和文莱等国家和地区也一直宣称对南沙群岛部分地区拥有主权。

评析:新闻是最典型的信息载体,用语要求简洁明了,具有可读性和吸引力。这篇新闻是西方媒体对中国与东盟关系和南沙群岛问题的报道,具有一定的政治敏感度,在翻译的时候需要注意如何恰当措词。两篇译文的主要分歧是在标题的翻译方面,"Elephant in the Corner"为英语俗语,意味隐藏在暗处,但势力巨大的事物,前者保留了原文的意象,后者译出了原文的含义,可以说是各占一端,但是新闻标题重在醒目,一眼看去,无疑前者更能吸引读者,引发其好奇心。译文二中的"一如既往"更加简练贴切。两者在"Spratly Islands"一处的处理也有所不同,译文一保留了原文的说法,但这种说法会令汉语读者不知所云,而译文二将其译为"南沙群岛"更好一些。"For years, China has claimed "indisputable sovereignty"over the fishing-rich region it calls Nansha"一句中,"claimed"一词的翻译处理十分关键,也十分敏感,"宣称"带有一定的贬义语气,而"坚称"则比较中性,能够保持新闻报道的客观性。

拓展阅读书目

孙艺风 仲伟合 翻译研究关键词 外语教育与研究出版社 2004 张今 文学翻译原理 河南大学出版社 1987

第三节 文字锤炼

1. 原文:

As a leader of a least developed country, I speak from experience when I say that poverty is too complex a phenomenon, and the strategies for fighting it too diverse and dependent on local circumstances, for there to be no single silver bullet in the war on poverty.

We have learned the hard way over the years. We have experimented with all kinds of ideas.

Yet a report recently released by the World Economic Forum shows that barely a third of what should have been done by now to exsure the world meets its goals to fight poverty, hunger and disease by 2015 is done. I am now convinced that the Millennium Development Goals set by the United Nations in 2000 can only be attained through a global compact, anchored in national policies that take into account local circumstances.

Aid and trade are both necessary, but they are not enough on otheir own. Neither is good governance enough in itself. Above all, nothing can move without the direct participation of local communities. I fear that we lecture too much. This is not the best way.

I will give an example of how such a compact worded in Tanzania to achieve universal basic schooling.

In the mid-1990s, almost all indicators for basic education were in free fall. The gross enrollment rate had fallen from 98 percent in the early 1980s to 77.6 in 2000. The net enrollment rate had likewise fallen, from over 80 percent to only 58.8 percent.

Then several things happened. We decided at the top political level that basic education would be a top priority, and adopted a five-year Primary Education Development Plan to achieve universal basic education by 2006-nine year ahead of the global target.

Good governance produced more government revenues, which quadrupled over the last eight years. In 2001, we received debt relief under the World Bank's Enhanced HIPC (heavily indebted poor countries)

Initiative. Subsequently, more donors put aid money directed into our budget or into a pooled fund for the Primary Education Development Program (PEDP).

The government's political will was evidenced by the fact that over the last five years the share of the national budget going to poverty reduction interventions rose by 130 percent. We abolished school fees in primary schools.

Then we ensure that all PEDP projects are locally determined, planned, owned, implemented and evaluated. This gave the people pride and dignity in what they were doing. After only two years of implementing PEDP, tremendous successes have been achieved.

译文:

作为一名最贫困国家的领导人,根据以往的(繁冗,改为"亲身"比较贴切)经验,我要说贫困是一种非常复杂的现象,抗击贫困的策略多种多样(用"不胜枚举"更好),要依赖于各地的情况("因地制宜"更加精当),在与贫困的战争中没有万能的武器("一击制胜的法宝"更加贴合原文"single silver bullet")。

这一道理是我们经历了多年的挫折才懂得的。在这之前,我们尝试过几乎所有的方法。("我们 多年来苦苦求索,尝试了种种设想"更加简练)。

然而,世界经济论坛最新发布的报告显示,到目前为止,要确保世界到 2015 年实现抗击贫困,饥饿和疾病的目标,目前所做的努力还不到三分之一(容易引起歧义,可以译为"本该现在完成的工作仅完成了三分之一")。现在, 我坚信 2000 年联合国制订的千年发展目标只有基于兼顾当地实际(改为"本国国情")的国家策略,达成全球合作协议才能够实现(改为"方可实现")。

(国际)援助和贸易固然必不可少。但是(加上"仅凭"一词加强语气)这两项还远远不够. 有效的管理也同样不够。总之,如果没有当地社区的直接参与, 任何努力都得不到效果(改为"将无济于事", 更地道的汉语)。恐怕我空谈的过多了。着不是说明问题的好方法。(改为"恐怕我们大道理讲得太多,而这决非上策。"更加精炼)。

下面我将举例说明这种协议是如何 (加上"有效运作") 带动坦桑尼亚普及基础教育的。

在 20 世纪 90 年代中期,几乎所有的迹象都表明坦桑尼亚的基础教育事业不断倒退。(改为"基础教育的各项指标几乎都在直线下降",比较准确)。毛入学率从 20 世纪 80 年代早期的 98%降至 2000年的 77.6%, 纯入学率也从 80%降至 58.8%。("从 20 世纪 80 年代早期到 2000年"提至"毛入学率"之前,总领全句。)

接下来,发生了许多事(改为"我们随后采取了几项措施")。我们最高行政机构(改为"政治高层") 决定将基础教育列为当务之急,并通过了小学教育五年发展计划,旨在于2006年普及基础教育,比 国际上提出的目标提前了9年。

科学的管理能够提高(改为"提高了")政府收入。在过去的8年内,政府收入增加了三倍.2001年,得益于世界银行倡导的救助高负债贫穷国家的方案(改为"重债穷国救助方案"更加精炼),我们得到了大量债务救济(改为"得以免除债务"是否更直观?),越来越多的捐款人为了支持我们的小学教育发展计划,向我们的财政预算或储备金中投入资金。(改为"直接将救助金划入我们的预算或直接划入我们用于小学教育发展计划的集合准备基金。")

近五年来,国家预算中的扶贫资金所占份额以130%的速度增长(改为"增加了130个百分点"), 这证明了政府的政治决心。我们已经减免了小学学费。

其后(改为"此外"),我们还保证每项小学教育发展目标都由当地政府决策,计划,管理,实施和检验。这令人们对自己所从事的工作感到骄傲和自尊(改为"高尚")。这项计划实施两年后取得了丰富的成果。(改为"这项计划实施仅两年时间就已获得了巨大的成功"。)

评析:政治演讲稿要求语言简短,精炼,有说服力和感召力,以下这篇译文在忠实原文方面没

有什么问题,也比较通畅自然,但是在一些细节上依然有值得改进之处,需要精益求精,请反复比较括号内外的译文,在选词、搭配、贴切程度方面的区别。

2. 原文: If beauty means something, yet we must not seek to interpret the meaning. If we glimpse the unutterable, it is unwise to try to utter it, nor should we seek to invest with significance that which we cannot grasp. Beauty in terms of our human meanings is meaningless.

初译:如果美具有意义,那么我们切不可企图诠释这种意义,如果我们领悟到美是不可言传的,那么试图描述它就是不明智的,试图给它下定义也是不明智的。如果人类一定要给美下定义,那么它就是不可言传。

改译:如果美即美,那么我们大可不必去诠释它的含义。只可意会的东西,又何必硬要去言传? 又何必要去牵强附会?其实,美之妙就在于它不可言传。

评析:文学语言,不像法律语言和经贸语言那样有着强烈的功能性和严格的规范性,也不需要像新闻和广告用语那样迫切的迎合大众的需要,更不像科技说明文那样精准得毫厘不差,文学重在想像,在文采,在意境。文学翻译也是同样。

文学翻译中的"修炼"易也不易,说易,是因为没有一定之规,没有复杂的术语,只要理解正确,措词不成问题;说不易,是因为两种语言,两种文化之间存在着巨大的鸿沟,而翻译是在两座山崖之间艰难架桥的的过程,况且,译者要远隔时空以另一种文字传载作者的意图,谈何容易。要翻译一部作品,怎样措词才能传达作者的心声,让读者也切身体会到作品在迥异语言环境中所抒发的感情,所表达的思想,所讲述的故事,所渗透的文化气息,从而发出与源语读者相似的共鸣,而不是我们读乔叟,沙翁原著时所带有的那种"初品西餐"般的新奇和困惑;怎样才能在厚重的文化隔阂中打开一扇窗,让读者既体会到不同文化语境下人们所共有的"人之常情",又感受到截然不同的"异国风情",这都是译者要考虑的问题。

原文短短一段美文, 折射出深邃的哲理。初译虽然译出了原文的内容, 却没有译出原文的精髓, 在译文读者看来, 如同云里雾里, 不知所云, 更不用说产生共鸣了。而改译则用传神的文字, 再现了原文的用语之美妙, 思想之深邃, 并且两句反问看似译者的自由发挥, 实则与原文的内涵相贴合。

思考题

英译汉

The New York Times, which spoke to Mr. Burkle and Mr. Clinton's aides, said the three funds that the former president advised contained more than \$1 billion (?560 million). Two invest in poor areas of the United States where traditional firms are unwilling to risk their cash. A third invests overseas. Mr. Clinton's deal will pay out if the two domestic funds produce returns exceeding nine per cent during their lifetimes. So far, one is up by 26 per cent and the other by 51 per cent. The former president is already receiving payments from the overseas fund and will take a third of the profits when it is dissolved, not sooner than 2011.

汉译英

小岗村属凤阳县,为滁县地区所辖,位于皖东江淮之间。北宋欧阳修名篇《醉翁亭记》中有言:"环滁皆山也",指的就是这一带。在中国,山区似乎总与"贫困"二字紧紧相连,因此 70 年代末期的滁县是个地地道道的贫困地区。凤阳则是明朝开国皇帝朱元璋的故乡,以"凤阳花鼓"出名。而"自从出了朱皇帝,十年倒有九年荒",凤阳人讨饭就同凤阳花鼓一样闻名全国。据该县统计,1967 年1 月初至 2 月 22 日,全县有 9900 人外出要饭;到了 3 月 18 日,一个月不到的时间里,这个数字就翻了一番,沦为乞丐的达 18000 人之多。1969 年 3 月,凤阳 37%的农户到外地要饭。原凤阳县委书记陈庭元回忆说:"从 1956 年到 1978 年的 23 年中,在一次比一次更'左'的思想影响下,凤阳

成了全国有名的'吃粮靠返销,花钱靠救济,生产靠贷款'的'三靠县'。23 年上缴国家 9.6 亿斤粮食,国家返销 13.4 亿斤,100 多万亩土地等于没有产粮!国家拨给救济款 2838 万元,依然解决不了温饱问题,农民到处要饭。"1978 年安徽特大灾荒后,凤阳人"走四方"更是达到了高潮。

拓展阅读书目

朱光潜《西方美学史》,人民文学出版社,1979年 刘宓庆 文化翻译论纲 湖北教育出版社 1999

《英语新闻听力》教学大纲

刘阳阳 编写

目 录

前	言		5
第一	∸章:	International Relations.	6
	第一	一节 Guided Listening	6
		— Section A. warming up	6
		☐ Section B. Micro Listening	6
		≡ Section C. Macro Listening	6
		四 Section D. Additional Listening	7
		五 Section E. Listening Strategy	7
	第二	二节 home listening	7
		— Supplementary News	
		☐ Exercises.	8
		听力技巧复习题:	8
		思考题:	8
		拓展听力材料:	8
第二	_章:	Visits and Talks.	9
	第一	一节 Guided Listening	9
		— Section A. warming up	9
		☐ Section B. Micro Listening.	9
		≡ Section C. Macro Listening.	9
		四 Section D. Additional Listening	10
		五 Section E. Listening Strategy	10
	第二	二节 home listening	10
		Supplementary News	
		= Exercises.	
		听力技巧复习题:	
		思考题:	
		拓展听力材料:	
第三		UN Activities	
	第一	一节 Guided Listening	
		— Section A. warming up	
		Section B. Micro Listening	
		Section C. Macro Listening	
		四 Section D. Additional Listening	
	£=£=	五 Section E. Listening Strategy	
	第二	二节 home listening	
		— Supplementary News	
		二 Exercises	
		听力技巧复习题:	
		思考题:	
<i>~</i> ~ m	T 37.	拓展听力材料:	
現世		Statements and Comments.	
	弗-	一节 Guided Listening.	
		— Section A. warming up.	
		Section B. Micro Listening.	
		Section C. Macro Listening	
		☐ Section D. Additional Listening	
		五 Section E. Listening Strategy	16

A-A	and the same of th	
第一	二节 home listening	
	— Supplementary News.	
	= Exercises	
	听力技巧复习题:	
	思考题:	17
	拓展听力材料:	17
第五章:	Disasters s and Calamities	18
第一	一节 Guided Listening	18
	— Section A. warming up	18
	☐ Section B. Micro Listening	18
	≡ Section C. Macro Listening	18
	四 Section D. Additional Listening.	19
	五 Section E. Listening Strategy	19
第二	二节 home listening	
7,1	— Supplementary News.	
	□ Exercises	
	<u> </u>	
	思考题:	
	拓展听力材料:	
第六音.	Public Health	
	一节 Guided Listening.	
N	— Section A. warming up.	
	☐ Section B. Micro Listening	
	•	
	三 Section C. Macro Listening	
	•	
- 44 -	五 Section E. Listening Strategy	
% —	二节 home listening	
	— Supplementary News.	
	二 Exercises	
	听力技巧复习题:	
	思考题:	
&-& 1 → - -	拓展听力材料:	
	Personnel Changes	
第一	一节 Guided Listening	
	— Section A. warming up	
	Section B. Micro Listening	
	≡ Section C. Macro Listening	
	四 Section D. Additional Listening	
	五 Section E. Listening Strategy	
第二	二节 home listening	26
	Supplementary News	26
	☐ Exercises	26
	听力技巧复习题:	26
	思考题:	26
	拓展听力材料:	
第八章:	Business and Economy	
	ー节 Guided Listening	
	— Section A. warming up.	
	Section B. Micro Listening	
	= Section C Macro Listening	27 27

四 Section D. Additional Listening	27
五 Section E. Listening Strategy	28
第二节 home listening	28
Supplementary News	28
= Exercises	28
听力技巧复习题:	29
思考题:	29
拓展听力材料 :	29
第九章: Military Affairs	30
第一节 Guided Listening	30
Section A. warming up	30
Section B. Micro Listening.	30
	30
五 Section E. Listening Strategy	31
第二节 home listening	31
Supplementary News	31
☐ Exercises	31
听力技巧复习题:	32
思考题:	32
拓展听力材料:	32
第十章: Commemoration and Celebration	
第一节 Guided Listening	33
Section A. warming up	
Section B. Micro Listening	33
	33
四 Section D. Additional Listening	
第二节 home listening	34
Supplementary News	34
☐ Exercises	34
听力技巧复习题:	34
思考题:	
拓展听力材料:	35
第十一章: Rallies and Demonstrations	
第一节 Guided Listening	
Section A. warming up	
Section B. Micro Listening	
≡ Section C. Macro Listening	
四 Section D. Additional Listening	
五 Section E. Listening Strategy	
第二节 home listening	
Supplementary News	
= Exercises	
听力技巧复习题 :	
思考题:	
拓展听力材料:	
第十二章: Elections	
第一节 Guided Listening	
— Section A. warming up	
☐ Section B. Micro Listening	
	39

四	Section D. Additional Listening.	. 39
	Section E. Listening Strategy	
	home listening	
	Supplementary News	
	Exercises	
听	力技巧复习题:	.41
思	考题:	. 41
拓	展听力材料:	. 41

前言

《英语新闻听力》是为中国政法大学外国语学院英语专业高年级学生开设的外台英语听力课程。国家教育部颁发的教学大纲中明确要求英语专业学生应具备一定的新闻听力能力,要能听懂 VOA或 BBC 新闻节目里有关文化、政治和经济等方面的主要内容。在专业四级和八级听力测试中 VOA和 BBC 新闻节目也是一大测试重点,但同时也是一个公认的难点。本课程旨在全面提高学生的目标语听力技能,尤其是英语新闻听力技能,使其切实达到教育部教学大纲规定的要求。

本课程以外语教学与研究出版社 2007 年出版的《英语新闻听力》(杨世登著)为主要参考,佐以开课年度的最新 VOA,BBC 和 NPR 新闻原始语音材料,达到时效性与基本规律性的良好结合,保证所选材料在词汇、结构与内容上均具有较高的代表性。同时兼顾美音与英音。

《英语新闻听力》课程共分 12 个单元。每个单元 3 学时。单元主题的设定依据近三年的实际语料,以实际频率为基础,每单元涉及外台新闻中播报最为频繁的一个主题。每单元由两大部分组成,课堂听力(Guided Listening)与课外听力(Home Listening)。课堂听力分为 5 个模块: Section A为热身练习,选材均来自于新闻导语,训练学生获取新闻导语关键信息的能力,练习形式为本单元主题关键词填空; Section B 为微观技能训练,题型为多项选择,选材为新闻导语或较长的单句陈述,培养学生获取微观信息的能力; Section C 为宏观技能训练,题型多样,选材为不带前方记者现场报道的中等长度新闻,长度在 70-90 词之间,题型主要为判断、选择、配对、简答、以不超过三个词填空,同时考查学生的认知理解与产出理解能力; Section D 为提高练习,选材为最为常见的长新闻,长度在 120-200 词之间,题型主要为问答题,图表题,笔记题,同时培养学生的大意归纳能力与细节把握能力。 Section E 为听力策略及专项练习,讨论外台新闻英语在词汇、句法、语法、语篇层面上的基本特点,提供简写、归纳、辨音等关键技能训练。

在课堂授课过程中,教师结合语音材料向学生提供每类主题新闻的基本模式与播报规律、听力技巧的训练方法以及新闻教学所需的背景介绍和常用语汇。在课后,教师向学生提供与课堂听力同主题的课外练习材料(Home Listening),实现课堂教学与课外自主学习相结合。课堂学习的要点可在Home Listening 中得到加强巩固,本专题的知识也可以得到进一步扩展。此外还可以以测试形式有效衡量学习者水平,同时也为他们准备专业四、八级考试打好基础。课后听力技巧复习题和思考题则是在Home listening 基础之上专门为巩固课堂听力策略和技巧训练而设置的,帮助学生在熟悉新闻专题内容的同时逐步提高相关听力技巧。

第一章: International Relations

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉国际关系方面的新闻母题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. Britain says Turkey's <u>dispute with</u> Cyprus should not hold up the opening of negotiations next month on Turkey's eventual membership in the European Union.
- 2. The United States has <u>expressed gratitude</u> to Syria for preventing an attack on the U.S. <u>embassy</u> in Damascus in which three gunmen were killed and a fourth man was captured.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

1. North Korea says it wants a relationship of trust and mutual respect with the United States.

A. North Korea wants an improved relationship with the U.S.

- B. North Korea is optimistic about its future relationship with the U.S.
- C. The U.S.-North Korea relationship is one of trust.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

- 1. North Korea is demanding that Tokyo immediately lift sanctions imposed on Pyongyang in response to its test-launch of missiles. A North Korean envoy to Japan says his country will retaliate with stronger measures if the sanctions are not lifted. After North Korea test-fired seven missiles, Tokyo barred a North Korea ferry from Japanese ports for six months and banned North Korean officials from entering the country. South Korea today rejected Pyongyang's request for military talks, saying they were inappropriate at this time. But it said ministerial talks will go ahead as scheduled next week.
 - ① What has Tokyo imposed on North Korea? (Sanctions)
 - ② Why did Tokyo take such an action? (Because North Korea test-launched missiles)
 - ③ What does North Korea say it will do? (It will retaliate with stronger measures)
 - (4) What did Japan ban North Korean officials from doing? (Entering Japan)
 - (5) What has South Korea rejected today? (North Korea's demand for military talks)
 - (6) What is scheduled for next week? (Ministerial talks between the two Koreas)

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

- 1. The State Department says Venezuelan police failed to protect the U.S. ambassador there as demonstrators threw eggs and food at his car. Spokesman Sean MaCormack said Venezuela's ambassador to the U.S. was summoned to the State Department to hear the U.S. complaint. A spokesman for the U.S. embassy in Caracas said groups of motorcyclists attacked the car carrying Ambassador William Brownfield. He said Venezuelan police escorts did nothing to stop the demonstrators who pounded on the car and chased it for miles. The embassy spokesman said the attack appeared to have been organized by the Caracas Mayor's Office. A spokesman for the mayor denied that charge. The U.S. has been at odds with Venezuelan President Hugo Chaves for several years.
 - ① What happened in Caracas?
 - A. The U.S. embassy was stormed.
 - B. The U.S. ambassador was attacked.
 - C. Demonstrators threw eggs and food at the U.S. embassy.
 - ② What is said about the U.S.-Venezuelan relationship?
 - A. The U.S. will reduce its diplomatic staff in Caracas.
 - B. The Caracas Mayor's Office soon offered an apology.
 - C. Hugo Chaves and President Bush do no t see eye to eye with each other.

五 Section E. Listening Strategy

- 1. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- Recurring topics: disputes and hostilities, imposition or lifting of sanctions/embargoes, worsened or improved diplomatic relations
- ② Key words: accordance, accountable, aggression, broker, clarification, constructive, consulate, dissident, impede, irreversible, lash, motorcade, punitive, sabotage, showdown, totalitarian, ultimatum, volatile, etc.
 - 2. Listening Tips—The 5Ws and the H (Who, What, When, Where, Why, and How)

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. India says its relationship with the United States is in the midst of a major transformation. Some of that might be evident this week as the Indian Prime Minister Manmohan Singh is in Washington for meetings with President Bush and other officials, plus a chance to address a joint session of the U.S. Congress.

= Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

- 1. India's Prime Minister Manmohan Singh
- A. Will deliver a speech to both the U.S. House and the Senate.
- B. Will meet with President Bush in New Delhi.
- C. Has transformed the U.S. Indian relationship.
- D. Says his country's relationship with the U.S. has been improved

听力技巧复习题:

- 1. Indentify the 5 Ws and the H in the following news:
- ① It's been a vilent weekend in New Orleans. Officials say 6 people were shot to death in 3 incidents within 24 hours, including 3 brothers gunned down as they sat on the porch of an abandoned house.
- ② Apple computer is recalling 1.8 million laptop batteries after complaints from users. It follows the manufacturer Dell, which recalled some of its computers last week, the largest in history.
 - 2. List at least 20 frequently-used terms in news of international relationships.

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of international relationships? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 有关国际关系方面的新闻。

第二章: Visits and Talks

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉外事互访和外事谈话方面的新闻母题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. President Bush is <u>en route</u> back to Washington after a final stop in Eastern Europe.
- 2. Diplomats say <u>a measure of progress</u> has been made at talks in London to end the border dispute between Ethiopia and Eritrea.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

- 1. President Bush is due in Mongolia in the next few hours, the first American leader to visit the country.
 - A. President Bush has arrived in Mongolia.
 - B. No U.S. leader has ever set foot on Mongolia before Mr. Bush.
 - C. There are close diplomatic ties between the U.S. and Mongolia.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

- 1. And a meeting in New York between the foreign ministers of Guatemala and Venezuela has failed to resolve the deadlock over which country will represent Latin America and the Caribbean as a non-permanent member on the United Nations Security Council. In a BBC interview after the meeting, the Venezuelan Foreign Minister Nicolas Maduro blamed Guatemala for the ongoing impasse. He said it had shown no interest in agreeing to a compromised candidate.
- ① The minister have <u>failed</u> to resolve the <u>deadlock</u> over which country will be a <u>non-permanent</u> member on the UN Security Council.
 - ② Nicolas Maduro blamed Guatemala for the ongoing impasse.
 - 3 Guatemala was accused of showing no interest in agreeing to a compromised candidate

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

- 1. Environment ministers and officials from more than 20countries have ended four days of informal talks in Greenland in efforts to deal with global warming. Danish Environment MInisster Connie Hedegaard, the meeting's host, called on participants to stop blaming one another for global warming and take concerted action. Participants of the meeting in Greenland's Arctic town of Elucigot included the United States, China and several European countries. They focused on possible action after the first phase of the Kyoto Protocol, an accord on reducing global warming. It expires until 2012. U.N. studies show that global warming could melt polar icecaps and push thousands of species close to extinction.
 - ① **(F)** The meeting is hosted by Denmark's Prime Minister Connie Hedegaard.
 - ② **(F)** The U.N. called on the participants to stop blaming each other for global warming.
 - ③ **(T)** The town of Elucigot is located near the Arctic
 - (1) Global warming could melt polar icecaps and threaten many species
 - ⑤ **(F)** Participating countries are urged to take prompt actions.

五 Section E. Listening Strategy

- 1. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: Visits by heads of state, Talks on issues such as trade, environment protection, regional contingency, poverty alleviation and globalization
- ② Key words: tour, en route, confer, accord, deal, conclude, summit, deadlock, impasse, agenda, wrap up, constructive, positive, counterpart, joint, boost, promote, host, etc.
 - 2. Listening Tips—Understanding the News Lead

The lead sets the structure for the rest of the story. The first verb in the lead is critical. It comes usually in active voice, appears within the lead's first seven words, and takes readers traight to the main "what" of the story.

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. President Bush is to meet with Mr. Putin in Washington later this month to discuss bilateral and global issues. The White House said Friday the two leaders will meet September 16th after a summit of leaders of the United Nations Security Council. That summit will focus on ways to fight terrorism.

Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

- 2. The U.S.-Russian summit
- A. Will focus on ways to combat terrorism.
- B. Will deal primarily with bilateral issues.

- C. Is scheduled for September 11th.
- D. Will be held after a U. N. Security Council meeting.

听力技巧复习题:

- 1. Indentify the 5 Ws and the H in the following news:
- ① Meanwhile talks on Russia's bid to enter the World Trade Organization broke off without an agreement.
 - ② President Bush hosted Australian Prime Minister John Howard at the White House today.
 - 2. List at least 20 frequently-used terms in news of international relationships.

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of visits and talks? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 有关外事访问和会谈方面的新闻。

第三章: UN Activities

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉有关联合国活动方面的新闻母题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. A Summit-level meeting of the UN <u>Security Council</u> has formally urged all member nations to outlaw incitement to terrorism.
- 2. The United Nations <u>General Assembly</u> has opened in New York with forceful calls for actions of Lebanon today on the crisis.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

1. In a speech to the 191-member General Assembly, Mr. Annan urged an enlargement of the Security Council by adding six new members

A. Mr. Annan addressed 191 member states at the UN General Assembly.

- B. Six new members will be added to the Security Council.
- C. Mr. Annan addressed the issue of UN enlargement in a speech.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

- 1. The United Nation's children's agency UNICED is beginning a huge campaign in Pakistan today to immunize 800,000 children affected by the earthquake last month. The agency is sending 600 health teams into towns and mountain villages to vaccinate children against measles, polio, diphtheria and tetanus. UNICEF staff say it would be a race against time to reach children scattered in remote mountain communities before winter snows arrive. The agency has already vaccinated 300,000 children.
 - ① UNICEF stands for the United Nations children's agency.
- ② The campaign will send 600 health teams to remote <u>mountain communities</u> to <u>immunize/vaccinate</u> 800,000 children before <u>winter snows</u> arrive. <u>300,000</u> children have already been vaccinated.
 - ③ UNICEF staff call the campaign a race against time.

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

- 1. Despite U.S. objections, the United Nations General Assembly today overwhelmingly voted to create a new human rights council to improve UN's ability to deal with human rights offenders. The council replaces the discredited UN human rights commission based in Geneva. US ambassador to the UN John Bolton told the assembly today that UN made some improvements, but they aren't enough. Bolton told the assembly that rules for the new council are too weak to prevent human rights violators from obtaining seats. Under the resolution adopted today, the old commission will be abolished June 16th, and the new council will convene three days later.
 - ① (F) The UN Security Council has approved the resolution to create a new UN agency.
 - ② (T) The work of the UN Human Rights Commission has been much criticized.
- ③ (F) U.S. ambassador to the UN John Bolton expressed satisfaction over the improvement the UN has made in human rights protection.
 - ④ (T) Most countries voted for the UN resolution
 - ⑤ (T) The new agency will have its first meeting on June 19th.

五 Section E. Listening Strategy

- 1. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: UN efforts to handle man-made disasters (peacekeeping, mediation); UN efforts to handle natural disasters (humanitarian relief efforts); UN reforms
- ② Key words: breach, bloodshed, catastrophe, cessation, contingent, demarcation, demilitarize, destabilize, disarm, extradite, impunity, legitimacy, logistical, mandatory, overflight, sanitation, etc.
 - 2. Listening Tips—The Inverted-Pyramid Structure
 - ① Lead sentence: most essential information such as What, Who, and When.
 - ② Middle: more information explaining the Why and How.
- ③ Tag line: least essential information such as background information on the people or institutions involved.

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. The head of the United Nations nuclear agency Mohamed ElBaradei says an internationally-backed nuclear fuel bank could be a way to resolve the crisis around Iran's nuclear activities. Speaking in Washington, Dr. ElBaradei said that while there was still uncertainty over Iran's nuclear intentions, it might be time to explore the idea of establishing a central global stock of nuclear fuel, from which countries including Iran could draw.

= Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

- 1. ElBaradei's plan features____
- A. The establishment of an international stock of nuclear fuel.
- B. International support for his international bank.
- C. Discouragement of nuclear activities.
- D. Full support from an international bank.

听力技巧复习题:

1. Analyze the Inverted-Pyramid Structure of the following news:

Interfax New Agency reports Moldovan authorities will deport about 100 Russians who identified themselves as poll observers arriving to monitor Sunday's election in Moldova. The agency quotes one Moldovan official as saying there are reports some Russians are seeking to destabilize Moldova ahead of the vote. Voters in Moldova go to polls Sunday to choose a new parliament.

- ① Event: deportation of Russian poll observers
- ② Source: a Moldovan official.
- ③ Reason: destabilization attempts
- 4 Election Type: parliamentary
- ⑤ Date: Sunday
- 2. List at least 20 frequently-used terms in news of international relationships.

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of UN activities? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 有关联合国活动方面的新闻。

第四章: Statements and Comments

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉评述性新闻的常见话题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在 听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. The U.S. has <u>expressed concern</u> following the completion of a two-billion-dolloar arms deal between Venezuela and Spain.
- 2. The United States says it's <u>deeply troubled</u> by Iran's Guardian Council decision to bar more than 1,000 presidential candidates from running in next month's elections.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

- 1. A speaker purporting to be al-Qaeda leader Osama bin Laden is accusing the U.S. and the European Union of backing a war against Islam.
 - A. Osama bin Laden made accusations against the U.S. war on terrorism.
 - B. A U.S. speaker accuses bin Laden of sponsoring a war of terror.
 - C. The U.S. and the EU were accused of being anti-Islam.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

- 1. For the first time, President Bush has said it could be accurate to compare the recent escalation of violence in Iraq to the 1968 Tet offensive during the Vietnam War. The Tet offensive marked strong downturn in public support for both of Vietnam War and then President Lyndon Johnson. Mr. Bush spoke in an ABC TV interview in which he addressed the increased violence in Iraq. The comparison of insurgency in Iraq to the Tet offensive in Vietnam was make in a column by Tom Friedman in *New York Times*.
 - ① What is the recent escalation of violence compared to?

The 1968 Tet offensive during the Vietnam War.

② What does the 1968 event mark?

Downturn in public support for the war and the president.

③ What did Mr. Bush address in his interview?

Increased violence in Iraq.

4 Which newspaper first published the comparison?

The New York Time.

(5) Who is Tom Friedman?

A column writer/a columnist.

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

1. Iran's president is <u>denying reports</u> he gave an interview to an Arab newspaper in which he threatened to <u>halt oil sales</u> if Tehran was <u>referred to</u> the United Nations Security Council. Iran's Presidential Media Department <u>made that denial</u> in a statement issued today in a <u>reaction</u> to an article published in the Khaleej Times. Earlier today the United Arab Emirates-based newspaper reported the President Mahmoud Ahmadinejad threatened in an interview to stop oil sales if Iran is sent to the council for its <u>nuclear activities</u>. The report from a <u>French news agency</u> say the reporter is <u>astonished</u> by the denial, but the news agency also says, the publisher of the newspaper says the confusion may be due to reporter not adequately identifying herself as a journalist.

五 Section E. Listening Strategy

- 1. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: An official statement of government policy and stance; a statement made in response to foreign criticism; Official comments on current affairs.
- ② Key words: armistice, assertion, authenticity, backlash, derogatory, downplay, exacerbate, fester, impetus, reciprocal, repercussion, speculation, sustainable, transparent, etc.
 - 2. Listening Tips—Segmentation of Continuous Speech(I)

Once confronted with vague lexical boundaries, we should resort to our common sense as well as the specific context for disambiguating clues.

- ① the new assessment of China's military capability.
- ② as well as helping bringing those responsible to justice.

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. British Prime Minister Tony Blair says his country's troops will remain in Iraq as long as the Iraqi government needs them. Mr. Blair told British radio (BBC) Sunday that while he was surprised by the ferocity of resistance in Iraq, British troops would stay until the job is done. On Saturday, thousands of

people marched through London to protest the war and demand the withdrawal of British troops from Iraq.

= Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

- 1. Mr. Blair was surprised by
- A. The Iraqi government's demand.
- B. The BBC interview.

C. The fierce resistance British troops encountered in Iraq.

D. The demonstrations and protests in London.

听力技巧复习题:

- 1. Segment the words in the following continuous speeches:
- ① reinforces U.S. arguments against lifting a European arms embargo
- ② the most closely guarded minister in the government.
- 2. List at least 15 frequently-used terms in news of international relationships.

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of Statements and Comments? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 的评述性新闻。

第五章: Disasters s and Calamities

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉灾难新闻的常见话题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. Officials in Brazil have now extended an emergency to the entire Amazonas State in the Amazon Basin because of worsening drought.
- 2. A merry-go-round <u>collapsed</u> Saturday at a zoo in southern Spain, injuring 15 children and three adults.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

- 1. An Air Grance passenger plane has skidded off the runway and burst into flames on landing at Pearson Airport in Toronto, Canada.
 - A. A passenger jet has exploded in France.
 - B. An Air France passenger plane disintegrated while landing.
 - C. A passenger plane had trouble landing before it was on fire.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

- 1. A Peruvian airliner carrying 100 passengers and crew members has crashed near the northeastern jungle town of Pucallpa, killing at least 40 people. Officials say TANS Airlines Flight 204 went down Tuesday while attempting an emergency landing during a severe storm. Police at the scene say foreign nationals are among the dead, including at least one Italian and an American. Officials say at least 52 people survived the accident, with most being treated in area hospitals.
 - ① (T) Bad weather caused the crash.
 - ② (F) TANS Air Flight 240 crashed Tuesday in the jungles.
 - ③ (T) There were 100 passenters aboard the airliner.
 - 4 (T) A Few foreigners died in the accident

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

1. A fire at a Paris apartment building housing African immigrants has killed at least 17 people, about half of them children. French officials say some 30 others were injured in the blaze that broke out shortly after midnight in the stairwell of the dilapidated building. Authorities say it took more than two hours for some 200 firefighters to extinguish the fire. The cause of the blaze is not yet known. French media are reporting the victims were from African countries such as Senegal and Mali. Officials say about 100 children and 30 adults lived in the building, which was run by a humanitarian association. In April, a fire at a Paris hotel catering to mostly African and European immigrants killed 23 people. One of the hotel's residents admitted to accidentally starting that blaze.

What: apartment building fire When: shortly after midnight

Where: in the stairwell of the dilapidated building

Who: African immigrants

Why: Not Known

Casualties: 17 were killed, a half of them children; 30 were injured.

五 Section E. Listening Strategy

- 3. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: Natural disasters and Accidents
- ② Key words: drought, blizzard, fatality, epicenter, death toll, relief, devastation, hurricane, capsize, crash collision, stampede, emergency, evacuation, etc.
 - 4. Listening Tips—Segmentation of Continuous Speech(2)

Once confronted with vague lexical boundaries, we should resort to our common sense as well as the specific context for disambiguating clues.

- ① the government of Jamaica has issued a hurricane watch.
- ② that they had called the police as long as an hour before the collapse.

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

2. Railway officials in the Democratic Republic of Congo have confirmed that two people were killed when they were swept from the roof of a train as it crossed a bridge over a river in the east of the country. Local officials said earlier they feared that dozens of people riding illegally on the top of the train have been killed when piles of goods also on the roof hit the structure of the bridge.

= Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

- 2. Mr. Blair was surprised by ____
- A. While riding illegally in a train.
- B. After hitting the structure of a bridge when riding atop a train.
- C. While crossing a bridge on foot.
- D. After falling off the roof of a train accidentally.

听力技巧复习题:

- 1. Segment the words in the following continuous speeches:
- ① asking for donations of bottled water
- 2 hit an area off the southern coast of India
- 2. List at least 15 frequently-used terms in news of disasters and calamities

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of disasters and calamities? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 的灾难性新闻。

第六章: Public Health

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉公共卫生方面的常见话题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. Federal heath <u>regulators</u> say two more women have died after using the <u>abortion</u> pill RU-486.
- 2. Officials in Leesburg, Virginia say nearly a thousand girl scouts may have been exposed to rabies.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

- 1. An Asian expert says disease and natural disasters may pose a greater security threat to the region than conventional political conflicts.
 - A. Disease and natural disasters are more deadly than man-made disasters in Asia.
 - B. Political conflicts pose a greater security threat to the world.
 - C. An expert identified natural disasters as the number one killer.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

- 1. The biggest-ever international malaria conference has opened in Cameroon. Almost 2,000 researchers, health care workers and politicians have gathered in the capital Yaounde to discuss the latest scientific findings on the disease. Four-fifths of the delegates are from Africa. Most have been sponsored by private industry, international organizations and scientific bodies. More than 1.5 million people die from malaria each year. 75 percent of those victims are African children. The disease costs Africa more than \$12bn in lost output each year. The latest research suggests that 41% of the world's population live in areas where Malaria is transmitted.
 - ① (T) About 1600 delegates attended the meeting.
 - ② (T) The disease kills more than 1.5 million people each year.
 - ③ (F) 41% of the world's population is susceptible to malaria.
 - ④ (F) 80 percent of the victims of the disease are from African

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

1. European health experts have gathered in Brussels to formulate a response to recent bird flu outbreaks among migratory birds. The panel today endorsed measures that would increase surveillance and toughen import bans, such as the European Union's plan, suspending the imports of untreated feathers from non-EU countries. The European Commission has dedicated an additional 2.2 million dollars for bird surveillance and testing programs. German authorities today confirmed the presence of the deadly H5N1 bird flu virus in wild swans on an island in the Baltic Sea. Outbreaks have been confirmed in the Balkans, Turkey, the Caspian Sea areas and elsewhere. Several EU countries have ordered farmers to keep poultries indoors to prevent transmission of the disease. But the World Organization for Animal Health in Paris says this is not necessary at the present time.

EU health Experts meet to (1) formulate measures to contain the (2)Bird Flu. <u>German</u> authorities confirmed the (4)<u>presence</u> of the H5N1 virus in (5)<u>wild swans</u>. Outbreaks have also been reported in (6) the <u>Balkans</u>, (7) <u>Turkey</u>, the Caspian Sea areas. Countermeasures: increase surveillance and(8) toughen import bans; (9) <u>Dedicate</u> an additional 2.2 million dollars for surveillance and (10) <u>testing programs</u>; Order farmers to keep poultries indoors (11) <u>to prevent transmission</u> of the disease.

Casualties: 17 were killed, a half of them children; 30 were injured.

五 Section E. Listening Strategy

- 5. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: The outbreak of an epidemic, regional or international effort to contain a deadly disease, health problem and government countermeasures.
- 2 Key words: outbreak, infection, influenza, strain, immunize, vaccinate, viral, obesity, epidemic, pandemic, transmit, mutation, etc.
 - 6. Listening Tips—Parsing Complex Sentences

Dictation, specially designed parsing exercises and extensive news skimming and scanning are beneficial to our parsing capability, which is crucial to our understanding of long and complex news sentences.

- ① the move is expected/ to reduce expenses involved in the drug/ that has been hailed as a life-saving treatment.
 - ② In the study, /patients who cut their smoking in half/ also cut their risk of lung cancer /by 27%.

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. And the world Health Organization says hospitals in Angola are putting people at risk of catching the deadly Marburg virus by not following proper safety procedures. The death toll from the

disease has climbed to 257. The UN agency says that in the last week two doctors at a provincial hospital were directly exposed to blood from Marburg patients.

= Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

- 1. According to the WHO,
- A. Angolan hospitals were not handling Marburg patients properly.
- B. Another two doctors at a countryside hospital were exposed to the virus.
- C. The death toll from the disease has risen to 257.

听力技巧复习题:

- 1. Break the long sentences you hear into several meaningful segments
- ① European Union officials/ continue to reassure the public/ that the apparent spread of the avian flu virus/ is at this point a threat to animals not humans.
- ② Analysts say/ total spending on research into malaria last year/ accounted for only about one third of one percent of / total medical research and development funding.
 - 2. List at least 15 frequently-used terms in news of disasters and calamities

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of Public Health? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 公共卫生方面的新闻。

第七章: Personnel Changes

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉人事变动方面的常见话题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. The president has <u>named U.S.</u> trade Prepresentative Rob Portman to be his new budget <u>chief</u>.
- 2. An <u>interim</u> prime minister has finally been chosen to lead Ivory Coast to presidential elections next year.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

- 2. Salva Kiir Mayardit was sworn in as Sudan's senior vice president today to replace John Garang who died in a helicopter crash.
 - A. Salva Kiir Mayardit died in a helicopter crash.
 - B. Sudan's president died in a helicopter crash.
 - C. Sudan has a new senior vice president.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

- 1. World Bank executive directors meet Thursday in Washington to vote on the nomination of U.S. Deputy Defense Secretary Paul Wolfowitz as the bank's new president. Mr. Wolfowitz passed a major hurdle Wednesday when European Union officials said they have no objections to his nomination. The nominations had been controversial in Europe because of Mr. Wolfowitz's strong support for the war in Iraq. Mr. Wolfowitz acknowledges he is a polarizing person. Washington traditional nominates World Bank presidents while Europe chooses the head of the International Monetary Fund.
 - ① (F) The U.S. Defense Secretary has been elected the World Bank's new president.
 - ② (T) The European Union did not object to Mr. Wolfowitz's nomination.
 - (3) (F) It is quite unusual that an American should be nominated for the World Bank president.
 - ④ (F) Mr. Wolfowitz is nominated because of his advocacy of the war in Iraq.

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

1. Japan's parliament has officially chosen Shinzo Abe as the country's new prime minister. VOA's Steve Herman has more from Tokyo.

With the Liberal Democratic Party firmly in control of Japan's parliament, there was no doubt Tuesday who would be selected as prime minister. Lawmakers cheered the announcement of the Lower House vote, showing the LDP President Shinzo Abe defeating his rivals by a large margin. Within hours of his election, Mr. Abe spoke to the nation, assuring it that he would not back away from the reform program implemented by his predecessor Junichiro Koizumi. Mr. Abe instead vowed to accelerate the administrative reform. The new prime minister also reiterated his campaign pledge to make Tokyo a more equal partner in its security alliance with Washington. Steve Herman, VOA News, Tokyo.

① What did lawmaker do at the announcement of the vote?

They cheered.

② Why was there no doubt about the outcome of the election?

Because the Liberal Democratic Party firmly in control of Japan's parliament.

③ What's the result of the Lower House vote?

The LDP President Shinzo Abe defeating his rivals by a large margin.

④ What did Mr. Abe assure the Japanese public in a speech hours after his election?

He assured the public that he would not back away from the reform program implemented by his predecessor Junichiro Koizumi.

(5) What was Abe's campaign pledge?

He pledged to make Tokyo a more equal partner in its security alliance with Washington.

- 五 Section E. Listening Strategy
- 1. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- Recurring topics: Promotion, succession and removal from office; nomination and confirmation; resignation
- ② Key words: *step down, swear in, appoint, nominee, outgoing, incumbent, shakeup, vacancy, relieve, reappoint,* etc.
 - 2. Listening Tips—Learn to Abbreviate

Offer the students useful guidelines which may help them to take more effective and useful notes. 例如:

- ① Use the familiar standard abbreviation: co. for company; ex. for example, etc.
- ② Use the first syllable of a word: mem.—member, gov—government, etc.

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. The Iraqi Prime Minister Nouri al-Maliki has approved a request by the judiciary to replace the chief judge trying the ousted President Saddam Hussein on genocide charges. Officials in the prime minister's office told the BBC that the judge would be transferred to a higher judiciary council. It's not clear when a new judge will be appointed or what impact it will have on the trial proceedings in Baghdad. A senior prosecutor had earlier demanded that the judge step down, saying he was too lenient towards Saddam Hussein and the six co-defendants.

= Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

1. Who has been replaced?

A. A lenient chief judge.

- B. A member on the judiciary council.
- C. An official in the prime minister's office.
- D. The chief judge trying Saddam Hussein.

听力技巧复习题:

- 3. Abbreviate the following statements.
- ① California congressman Randy Cunningham announced today that he will not seek reelection.
- Ca. cngraa R.C 今: reelection
- ② Campaigning has ended in Liberia ahead of the West African country's first presidential congressional elections to be held since the end of the civil war two years ago.

Campgn end @ Lib. | WA's 1st presi&cngraa elctn|→end/civil war 2yr ago

4. List at least 15 frequently-used terms in news of Personnel Changes

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of Personnel Changes? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 人事变动方面的新闻。

第八章: Business and Economy

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉纪念日与庆典活动方面的常见话题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. General Motors has started the white-collar <u>layoffs</u> it's promised as it struggles to become more competitive.
 - 2. The commerce Department says consumer spending weakened in Feb. after an upsurge in Jan..

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

5. The New York Stock Exchange enters a new era tomorrow morning. For the 1st time in its history the exchange will become a for-profit entity that sells its own shares to the public

D. The NYSE has become listed.

- E. The establishment of the NYSE marks the downing of a new era.
- F. The public can buy the shares of for-profit entity that sells its own shares to the public.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

2. Oil prices hit <u>a record high</u> of more than 71 dollars a barrel today <u>in part</u> because traders were worried about possible <u>disruptions in supply</u>. Analysts said there is (are) <u>concerns</u> about the <u>nuclear dispute</u> with Iran and <u>civil violence</u> in Nigeria, both important oil suppliers. The rise in oil prices comes despite a new report from OPEC that predicts a weakening in world demand for oil. Analysts said if it <u>weren't</u> for concern about supplies, growing inventories of crude oil would be <u>forcing</u> prices down.

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

1. China has passed another milestone in the growth of its global economic influence. Its reserves of foreign currency have hit one trillion dollars. This massive sum has been built up by the success of China's exports which has created a huge trade surplus with the rest of the world. Our economic

correspondent Andrew Walker reports.

This is yet another indication of China's fast-growing economic influence. Japan with around 860 billion dollars has the next largest reserves. The figure for the United States is less than a tenth of China's. This huge portfolio has been built up essentially as an indirect result of the surplus in China's trade with the rest of the world.

① What's the milestone for China?

Its reserves of foreign currency have hit one trillion dollars.

② What has contributed to this massive sum?

It has been built up by China's huge trade surplus with the rest of the world.

③ What are China's huge reserves an indication of?

They are another indication of China's fast-growing economic influence.

4 What's the size of Japan's reserve? What's the figure for the U.S.?

860 billion dollars. Less than 100 billion dollars.

五 Section E. Listening Strategy

- 3. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: Stcok/oil market watch, corporate news and international trade
- ② Key words: index, trading, plummet, record high, streamine, subsidy, operation, closure, share, list, interest rate, etc.
 - 4. Listening Tips—Learn to Abbreviate (2)

Offer the students useful guidelines which may help them to take more effective and useful notes. 例如:

- ① Leave out unnecessary letters, especially vowels: rdg.—reading, sm.—small, etc.
- ② Add a capitalized "G" or "D" to indicate tense: killing—kilG, voted--vtD, etc.

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. General Motors and Delphi, GM's former auto parts subsidiary, have reached an agreement with the United Auto Workers Union to offer early retirement buyouts to tens of thousands of hourly workers. The deals are designing to help both companies ease financial troubles. A federal bankruptcy court must still approve Delphi's part of the agreement. Delphi filed for Chapter 11 bankruptcy protection in October.

Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

2. What's the agreement between Delphi and the United Auto Workers Union?

- E. Delphi will try to ease its financial troubles.
- F. Delphi 's hourly workers will receive compensation to retire early
- G. Delphi will file for bankruptcy protection.

听力技巧复习题:

- 6. Abbreviate the following statements.
- ① Four civilians also died when their car hit Kostoyev's armored vehicle which police say was thrown about 20 meters by the explosion.
- ② Authorities say no explosive have turned up on the Southwest Airline's jet despite a note claiming a bomb was on board.
 - 7. List at least 15 frequently-used terms in news of Business and Economy.

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of Business and Economy? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 经贸方面的新闻。

第九章: Military Affairs

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉军事活动方面的常见话题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. Two U.S. navy warships exchanged gunfire with suspected pirates off the coast of Somalia today.
- 2. Pakistani forces <u>battled with</u> insurgents along the Afghan border today, killing nearly 50 people.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

- 1. Lebanon is asking the United Nation to extend the term of an interim peacekeeping force following clashes between Hezbollah militia and Israeli forces over the past three days along a disputed area separating the two countries.
 - A. Lebanon is asking for the extension of a UN mission.
 - B. Lebanon and Israel are at war
 - C. There were clashes between Lebanon and Hezbollah.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

1. A United Nations disarmament conference is <u>under way</u> in Japan, involving <u>government officials</u> and experts from about 15 countries. Officials say at the three-day conference in Yokohama, the participants of the conference are Japan, the United States and Iran. Japanese public broadcaster NHK reports that a Japanese peace envoy says it is important for the UN to take the lead in reconstructing a <u>global framework</u> which has been <u>falling apart</u>. The envoy says that the United States, a major nuclear weapons-possessing nation, is not cooperating in nuclear arms reduction.

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

1. Israeli ground troops clashed with Hezbollah guerrillas in Lebanon today as more Israeli air strikes killed 49 people in Lebanon. Lebanese officials say at least 12 of the deaths were a village near the southern port city of Tyre, there Israel attacks flattened houses. Israel says it is hitting suspected Hezbollah strongholds. Israeli warplanes also blew up a truck in a Christian neighborhood of Beirut today. Near the

border, an Israeli general says ground troops are conducting incursions to attack Hezbollah outposts. Unconfirmed reports in Arab media day at least two Israeli soldiers were killed in the fighting. Hezbollah guerrillas fired several more rockets into Israel today, killing two Israelis in the city of Nazareth.

① What damage did the Israeli air strikes wreak?

49 Lebanese were killed and housed in a village near the southern port city of the Tyre were flattened.

② How did Israel justify the air strikes?

Israel says it is hitting suspected Hezbollah strongholds.

③ What else did Israeli warplanes hit?

Israeli warplanes also blew up a truck in a Christian neighborhood of Beirut.

4 What is said about Israeli ground troops?

Israeli ground troops are conducting incursions to attack Hezbollah outposts.

- 五 Section E. Listening Strategy
- 1. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: armed conflicts, military sales and international military cooperation
- ② Key words: deployment, missile, commando, guerilla, logistical, confidential, marine, grenade, reinforce, etc.
 - 2. Listening Tips—Summarize the Main Idea

Refrain from getting engrossed with details. Decipher the main points immediately and write them down with as few words as possible.

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. The Pentagon has recommended the closure of more than 150 U.S. military installations. Defense Secretary Donald Rumsfeld says the closures will save 49 billion dollars over the next 20 years. Among the 33 major military bases slated for closure is the historic Portsmouth naval shipyard in the northeastern state of Maine.

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向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

- 3. The Pentagon has recommended
- A. The closure of more than 150 major military bases.
- B. The closure of 33 naval shipyards in Maine
- C. The closure of military installations to save on spending.

听力技巧复习题:

- 1. Summarizing the Main Idea
- ① At least two missles were fired early today from the area of Arcaba, Jordan towards U.S. Navy ships docked at port there.
 - ② The U.S. military says it will free 1,000 inmates from Iraq's Abu Ghraib prison.
 - 2. List at least 15 frequently-used terms in news of Business and Economy.

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of Military Affairs? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 军事活动方面的新闻。

第十章: Commemoration and Celebration

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉纪念和庆典活动方面的常见话题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. India celebrated its Independence Day Monday.
- 2. Christian leaders have <u>marked</u> the start of Christmas with calls for an end to conflict in the Holy Land and Iraq.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

- 1. Earlier London came to a virtual standstill as the city observed two minutes of silence in remembrance of the victims of the bombings. **Lebanon is asking for the extension of a UN mission.**
 - A. Londoners halted work to commemorate the bombing victims.
 - B. Londoners walked off work to pay their respect.
 - C. Everything in London came to a standstill today.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

1. Acts of commemoration are taking place in Asia to mark the devastating tsunami that struck countries around the <u>Indian Ocean</u> one year ago. More than 200,000 people were killed when an earthquake <u>beneath</u> the ocean's <u>floor</u> sent <u>torrents of water</u> sweeping ashore in place as far apart as Thailand, Sri Lanka and Somalia. The area worst affected was the Indonesian province of Aceh where <u>entire communities</u> along the coast were <u>obliterated</u>. In Thailand, meanwhile, where <u>more than 5,000 people died</u>, a ceremony is being held at Khao Lak.

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

1. The end of World War II in Europe was marked on Sunday in ceremonies across the continent. <u>Decorated veterans</u> gathered at Moscow's Belarus <u>rail terminal</u> to recreate the return of <u>victorious</u> Soviet troops 60 years ago. Then the veterans <u>marched to</u> their traditional <u>meeting place</u> where President Putin gave a speech. In Paris, French President Jacques Chirac marked the day with a <u>wreath-laying ceremony</u> as did Britain's <u>Prince Charles</u> in London. In a speech to parliament, Germany <u>President</u> Horst Koehler the victims of <u>Nazism</u> and said the Nazis <u>bought dishonor</u> to the nation.

- 五 Section E. Listening Strategy
- 3. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: Celebration of a major holiday, a victory in an important sports event, or a landmark event in history, a service in commenmoration of a personage or victims of a natural/man-made disaster.
- 2 Key words: commemoration, anniversary, mark, celebrate, tribute, vigil, wreath, remembrance, mourn, etc.
 - 4. Listening Tips—Summarize the Main Idea(2)

Refrain from getting engrossed with details. Decipher the main points immediately and write them down with as few words as possible.

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. World Leaders joined mouners in Bosnia Herzegovina Monday in marking since the Second World War, the killing by Bosnian Serb soldiers of nearly 8,000 Muslims in Srebrenica 10 years ago. After a religious service the caskets of 610 most recently identified victims were buried in a cemetery where 1,300 other victims had already been buried.

Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

- 1. World leaders gathered in Bosnia Herzegovina
- A. To mark Europe's worst massacre.
- B. To commemorate the victims of the 2nd World War.
- C. To attend a ceremony marking Muslims slain a decade ago.

听力技巧复习题:

- 1. Summarizing the Main Idea
- ① thousands of people have gathered in New Mexico to mark the 60th anniversary of the explosion of the world's first nuclear bomb.
 - ② In Iraq Muslims held subdued celebrations observing the end of the holy month of Ramada.
 - 2. List at least 15 frequently-used terms in news of Business and Economy.

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of Commemoration and Celebration? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 纪念和庆典活动方面的新闻。

第十一章: Rallies and Demonstrations

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉集会游行方面的常见话题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. About 100 Thai demonstrators <u>defied</u> a ban on public <u>gatherings</u> and protested the military coup that over threw Thailand's government this week.
- 2. Thousands of people gathered in the central square of the capital of Belarus today to protest the vote count in the country's presidential election.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

- 1. At least 10,000 people have taken part in a march in Port-of-Spain, the capital of Trinidad, to protest about the soaring crime rate in the Caribbean nation and the government failure to tackle the problem.
 - A. 10,000 demonstrators marched to the capital of Trinidad and Tobago.
 - B. A march is underway in a port city of Spain.
 - C. People marched to protest crime and government inaction.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

1. Tens of thousands of Pakistanis have rallied for the fourth consecutive day to protest cartoons depicting the Prophet Muhammad. A crowd of at least 40,000 people marched through the commercial district of the southern port city of Karachi Thursday. But unlike the previous three days, there were no reports of violence. The protesters shouted "God is Great!" as they burned Danish flags and effigies of the Danish prime minister. Thousands of police and paramilitary troops looked on but did not interfere. The leader of the Sunni Muslim group that organized the rally demanded that the government expel ambassadors of countries where newspapers published the controversial cartoons. President Pervez Musharraf has condemned the violence and noted that some people are exploiting the situation to create violence.

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

1. Thousands of people marched in Washington to protest the war in Iraq Saturday. They <u>rallied</u> near the White House and used <u>speeches</u> and <u>chants</u> to urge President Bush to bring <u>U.S. troops</u> home now.

The protesters came from many American states and included gray-haired grandmothers, civil rights leaders, middle-aged middle-class people, labor organizers, radical political figures, and students. They carried a forest of signs, many demanding the quick return home of U.S. troops from Iraq and others accused President Bush of being a liar, a criminal, or a fool. They cheered as Cindy Sheehan, the mother of a U.S. soldier killed in Iraq, stood up to speak. She said the media and Congress have failed to do their duty as the normal "checks and balances" that are supposed to keep the government on track. "We will be the checks and balances on this out of control, criminal government," she said. After Ms. Sheehan's son Casey died, she held a 26-day vigil outside President Bush's Texas ranch. Her criticism of the president made headlines and brought new energy to the peace movement.

五 Section E. Listening Strategy

- 1. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: a peaceful march or protest, a violent demonstration, rally or strike, etc.
- ② Key words: disrupt, demonstrator, chant, disperse, sitting, unrest, slogan, etc.
- 2. Listening Tips—News Development and Semantic Markers

Semantic markers are signal words or phrases for the meaning and structure of a news story. They can tell us how the multitude of ideas are organized and enable us to make predictions. 例如: In addition, unless, on the contrary, consequently, however, whereas, in reality, similarly, previously, etc.

第二节 home listening

- Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. A rally has been held in Jerusalem to demand more help from the Israeli government for survivors of the Nazi Holocaust. A group of elderly survivors, many leaning on canes walked from Parliament to the office of the Prime Minister, Ehud Olmert, accompanied by hundreds of youthful supporters. The government has offered to make extra payments from next year to tens of thousands of people aged over 70 and considered eligible. But campaigners say the amounts proposed are too little, too late.

Exercises

向学生提供配套水平测试题。例如:

1. What can be learned from the news?

- A. The rally was exclusively attended by Holocaust survivors.
- B. Israelis aged over 70 will receive extra payments from the government.
- C. Campaigners dismissed the promised amounts as inadequate.

听力技巧复习题:

- 1. Following the Semantic Markers
- ① South Korea has **previously** kept its distance from the initiative largely **because of** its sensitive relationship with North Korea.
- ② Meanwhile Tokyo has passed unilateral sanctions against Pyongyang **despite** threats of countermeasures.
 - 2. List at least 15 frequently-used terms in news of Business and Economy.

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of Rallies and Demonstrations? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 集会游行方面的新闻。

第十二章: Elections

教学目的和要求:通过分层次、有针对性的听力训练,帮助学生熟悉选举活动方面的常见话题,常用语汇,关键导语和表述方式。要求学生能够准确把握新闻导语和中等长度新闻的主要内容,在听懂长新闻大意的同时也能够捕捉细节。

第一节 Guided Listening

Section A. warming up

要求学生准确填写出所听新闻导语中的关键词。例如:

- 1. Voters in the Spanish region of Catalonia have voted <u>in favor of</u> a new <u>charter</u>, which would grant it even greater autonomy and give its people the status of a nation within Spain.
- 2. The New Orleans <u>mayoral</u> election began today as evacuees from Hurricane Katrina were bused from surrounding states to satellite <u>voting stations</u> in Louisiana.

☐ Section B. Micro Listening

要求学生准确把握新闻导语内容。听语音材料前教师为学生提供相应新闻背景材料。例如:

1. Preliminary results from Sunday's parliamentary elections in Azerbaijan indicate a big lead for the government. But the opposition has pledged to challenge the results in court.

A. The ruling party will probably have majority in parliament.

- B. The opposition has doubts over the final results.
- C. The opposition brought a lawsuit against the government.

≡ Section C. Macro Listening

要求学生把握中等长度新闻的主要内容。例如:

1. Voters in the Central African Republic have cast ballots for a new president. Incumbent Francois Bozize is favored to win two years after he gained power in a <u>coup</u>. Poll monitors say voting was <u>smooth and fair in today's runoff</u> between Mr. Bozize and former Prime Minister Martin Ziguele, whose party was ousted in the 2003 coup. After casting his ballot, Mr. bozize called the election <u>a unique occasion</u>. President Bozize fell short of the outright majority needed to win the first round of voting in March.

四 Section D. Additional Listening

要求学生把握长新闻的大意和细节。例如:

1. The countdown to November's midterm elections continues with Democrats and Republicans

<u>facing off</u> over issues from gas prices to the war in Iraq. Democrats are hoping to become the majority in the currently GOP-controlled Congress. NPR's Allison Keyes reports. Some analysts have predicted problems for the Republican Party with voters <u>displeased</u> over the direction of the country and with everything from <u>gas prices</u> to the <u>war in Iraq</u>. But Kentucky Senator Mitch McConnell told CBS's Face The Nation not to worry about his party's performance on <u>November 7th</u>. We are not only gonna protect our incumbents, and we are gonna to win a lot of seats potentially that the <u>Democrats</u> currently have. Democratic national Committee Chair Howard Dean, however, told CBS that the Bush Administration's record will hurt it. Republicans are leaving <u>a sinking ship</u>. And the sinking ship is the Republican <u>approach</u> to the war on Iraq and <u>the war on terror</u>. The party holding the White House usually loses seats in a president's sixth year. Allison Keyes, NPR News, Washington.

五 Section E. Listening Strategy

- 1. News Elements and Vocabulary Expansion.
- ① Recurring topics: Officials release of results of a parliamentary/presidential/municipal election, results of an opinion poll or exit poll, irregularities in an ongoing election, etc.
 - ② Key words: ballot, referendum, cast, exit poll, runoff, landslide, turnout, campaign, etc.
 - 2. Listening Tips—Tense in News

Present tense is a convenient and yet effective shortcut to newness and immediacy. Therefore in news the verb is often switched from "... ed" to "... s". 例如:

An argument turns violent, leaving one man in the hospital . . . A car bomb blows up, injuring six soldiers . . .

第二节 home listening

Supplementary News

向学生提供同主题相关听力材料。例如:

1. The Prime Minister of Italy Silvio Berlusconi is refusing to accept defeat in the general election despite official figures showing there are far too few disputed ballots to deprive Rammano Prodi's centerleft coalition a victory. Italy's Interior Ministry says only a few thousand such ballots exist, and not tens of thousands as previously thought.

= Exercises	
向学生提供配套水平测试题。	例如:
1 Mr. Berlusconi	

A. Believed tens of thousands of ballots were disputed.

- B. Is ready to accept defeat in the general election.
- C. Challenged the Interior Ministry's statement.

听力技巧复习题:

- 1. Understanding the Tense in News
- ① Rice **made** her comments as Israel **says** it **will** scale back air strikes over south Lebanon for 48 hours so the UN can coordinate relief and evacuate civilians.
- ② Ali Larijani **said** today that Iran **will** develop more nuclear technology including centrifuges to enrich uranium.
 - 2. List at least 15 frequently-used terms in news of Business and Economy.

思考题:

What are the familiar topics in news of Elections? What kinds of contents does each topic usually involve?

拓展听力材料:

授课时段的最新 VOA , BBC, NPR 选举活动方面的新闻。

《英美诗歌》教学大纲

辛衍君 编写

目 录

一、	前言	2
_,	课程教学目的和基本要求	2
三、	课程主要教学内容及学时分配	2
四、	相关教学环节	2
Part	One: Introduction	3
	Chapter One: Brief Introduction to British and American Poetry(2 学时)	3
	Chapter Two: What is Poetry, How to Read (2 学时)	
	Chapter Three: How to Evaluate a Poem and find the Theme (2 学时)	5
Part	Two: British Poetry	6
	Chapter One: Renaissance and 16th Century Poetry (4 学时)	
	Chapter Two: The Civil War and the Early 17th Century Poetry (2 学时)	7
	Chapter Three: Neoclassicism and 18th Century Poetry (2 学时)	
	Chapter Four: Romanticism and Early 19th Century Poetry (4 学时)	9
	Chapter Five: Social Progress and Late 19th Century Poetry (2 学时)	10
	Chapter Six: Modernism and Early 20th Century Poetry (2 学时)	11
	Chapter Seven: World War II and Late 20th Century Poetry (2 学时)	12
Part	Three: American Poetry	
	Chapter One: The Colonial Period and Early American Poetry (2 学时)	14
	Chapter Two: Transcendentalism and 19th Century American Poetry (2 学时)	
	Chapter Three: Modernism and American Poetry between the World Wars (4 学时)	
	Chapter Four: Post-Modernism and American Poetry after World War II (2 学时) Introduction	17
	Review (2 学时)	18

一、前言

《英美诗歌》是英语专业三年级学生的专业选修课程。该课程对英语诗歌的种类及修辞手法等常识性知识作简要介绍,并对不同历史时期著名的英美国诗人及作品进行细致的赏析,在注重诗歌的可读性同时,注重对"问题"的探讨,提高学生诗歌鉴赏能力以及文学素养。

编写人员:辛衍君。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

该课程简要介绍英美诗歌的形式、要素、语言特点以及发展的历史轨迹。此外,还将对重要诗人及其作品的题材、主题及艺术风格进行介绍和分析。通过学习,增强学生对诗歌中所反映的异域文化了解,提高英语专业学生的诗歌鉴赏水平和综合文化素养。

三、课程主要教学内容及学时分配

本课程安排在专业学习的第五个学期开设,周2学时,18周,总课时36学时。该课程使用教材:张剑、赵东、王文丽编著:《英美诗歌选读》,外语教学与研究出版社,2008年。参考书目:1.李正栓、白凤欣编著:《英语诗歌教程》,高等教育出版社,2008年。2.郭嘉编:《英美诗歌精品赏析》,南开大学出版社,2009年。3.胡家峦编著:《英美诗歌名篇详注》,中国人民大学出版社,2008年。

四、相关教学环节

根据各单元的实际情况,在课堂教学环节采用课堂讲解、分组讨论等灵活多样教学方式对各个时期的名家名作进行赏析。教学中辅以多媒体视听欣赏,注重启发、互动以及教学的趣味性。课后练习环节采用拓展阅读及写读后感等方式。考核方法:平时成绩 20%,期末考试 80%,

Part One: Introduction

Chapter One: Brief Introduction to British and American Poetry (2 学时)

British Poetry

1. Anglo-Saxon Period (The earliest English poems, bookless age)

Characteristics: abundant use of metaphor, understatement and alliterate meter.

- (1).Beowulf (Pagan Poetry)
- (2). Caedmon and Cynewulf (Christian Poetry)
- 2. After the Norman Conquest in 1066 (Romance)
- (1). Sir Gawain and the Green Knight
- 3. 14th Century
- (1). Geoffrey Chaucer: The Canterbury Tales: The General Prologue
- (2). William Langland, John Gower and John Wyclif.
- 4. 15th Century (ballads)
- a. Ballads have a variety of themes, such as the struggle of young lovers against their parents, the border wars between England and Scotland, class oppression and conflicts, and so on.
 - (1). Robin Hood
 - 5. Renaissance and 16th Century Poetry

Renaissance is an intellectual and cultural movement which began in Italy in the 14th century and spread to Europe through the 15th and 16th century.

- 6. The Civil War and the Early 17th Century Poetry
- 7. Neoclassicism and 18th Century Poetry
- 8. Romanticism and Early 19th Century Poetry
- 9. Social Progress and Late 19th Century Poetry
- 10. Modernism and Early 20th Century Poetry
- 11. World War II and Late 20th Century Poetry

American Poetry

- 1. The Colonial Period and Early American Poetry
- a. Early American poetry in the 17^{th} and 18^{th} centuries displayed a deep-rooted loyalty to the English tradition, which was transplanted to the colonial soil
- b. Early American poetry also paved way for the birth of an independent national poetry in the 19th century by shifting concerns to the American landscape and people.
- c. The first two centuries of American poetry started with the predomination of Puritan songs. The second period of early American poetry came with the 18th century, which was marked with a distinct change in purpose, subject and style, dominated by the satires written under the influence of Alexander Pope and Ambrose Philips. Besides, the emergence of African American expression was also noteworthy in this period.

- 2. Transcendentalism and 19th Century American Poetry
- a. The 19th century witnessed the development of American Romanticism. It shared many aspects of European romanticism, but one unique to the American romantic expression is Transcendentalism born of the New England air and soil.
- b. Transcendentalism is a reaction against 18th century rationalism and a manifestation of the general humanitarian trend of the 19th century thought. Transcendentalism can be defined as "the recognition in man of the capacity of knowing truth intuitively, or of attaining knowledge transcending the reach of the senses".
 - 3. Modernism and American Poetry between the World Wars
- a. The two world wars left deep impact on the way people thought, felt, and lived their lives. The doomed vision at the chaotic and meaningless nature of the human world, together with the desire for creation out of ruins, ushered in a new age of poetry: Modernism, which declared a decisive break from the conventions of the 19th century.
- b. Modernist poets experimented boldly with forms and subjects, making innovations that carried the American poetry further away from the English traditions while fusing other traditions they discovered in other literatures into a more international poetry.
 - 4. Post-Modernism and American Poetry after World War II
- a. The emergence of a new generation Confessional in the late 1950s and 1960s broke away from modernism's dedication to impersonality and reopened poetry to intense self-exploration and frank revelation of personal experiences.
- b. American poetry became less formal and more political during the 1960s as America faced the social turbulence of the Civil Rights Movement and protests against the Vietnam War.
- c. From about 1960s on, an explosive new plurality prospered in American poetry's sense of multiple directions. American poets began to explore the ways poetry could combine politics, sexuality, autobiography, and spirituality in an improvisational, jazz mode. There are black poetry, Chicano poetry, Native Americans and so on.

Supplementary Reading:

李正栓、白凤欣编著:《英语诗歌教程》Part One, Chapter One, 高等教育出版社, 2008 年

Chapter Two: What is Poetry, How to Read (2学时)

- 1. General knowledge about English Poetry:
- (1). Rhythm; Meter/Foot; Rhyme and Rhyme Scheme; Stanza.
- a. Rhythm is produced by a series of recurrences, when reading a poem, stresses occur at regular intervals in a line, alternating with unstressed syllables to form the rhythm.
- b. The pattern of rhythm in a poem is called meter. There are four basic meters in English poetry, and each of meters is made up of basic units. Each unit is called a foot.
- c. Rhyme occurs when two words or phrases contain an identical or similar vowel sound, usually accented, and an identical consonant sound (if any) that follows the vowel sound. The rhyme scheme includes exact rhyme and slant rhyme, end rhyme and internal rhyme, masculine rhyme and feminine rhyme.

- d. Stanza is a group of lines of verse forming one of the divisions of a poem or song: it is usually made up of four or more lines and often has a regular pattern in the number of lines and the arrangement of meter and rhyme.
 - (2).Imagery
- a. The pattern of related images in a poem is called "imaginary". Because a poem is often not a statement of meaning, but a representation of concrete experience, the meaning of a poem id often created or developed through its imaginary.
 - (3). Figures of Speech
- a. A figure of speech is an expression of language which departs from the usual denotation of words. Figures of speech are often employed in literature.
- b. There are many frequently-used figures of speech: simile and metaphor, personification and apostrophe, metonymy and synecdoche, hyperbole and understatement, paradox and pun, and so on.
 - (4). Types of Poetry
 - a. The types of poetry include epic, romance, ballad, pastoral, lyric, ode, satire, elegy.
 - 2. Supplementary Reading:

李正栓、白凤欣编著:《英语诗歌教程》Part One, Chapter Two and Three, 高等教育出版社, 2008年

Chapter Three: How to Evaluate a Poem and find the Theme (2 学时)

- 1. English Poetry Appreciation Methods
- (1). Author-centered
- (2).Reader-centered
- (3). The Text-centered
- 2. Supplementary Reading:

李正栓、白凤欣编著:《英语诗歌教程》Part One, Chapter Four and Five, 高等教育出版社, 2008 年

Part Two: British Poetry

Chapter One: Renaissance and 16th Century Poetry (4 学时)

- 1. Edmund Spencer (1552-1599)
- (1).A Brief Introduction to Edmund Spencer
- a. He was born in London and was educated at Merchant Taylor School and at Pembroke College, Cambridge. He began writing poetry while he was studying at Cambridge and contributed some poems to magazines. After graduation, he became secretary first to John Young, the Bishop of Rochester, and later to the Earl of Leicester, at whose household he became acquainted with Sir Philip Sydney. After married he went to Ireland and wrote his great epic the *Fairie Queene*. He died in 1599 and was buried in Westminster Abbey.
 - (2). A Brief Introduction to Historical Background
 - (3). Appreciation of Sonnets 34

Ouestion:

What specifically do the "storm", "clouds" and "hidden perils symbolize"?

(4). Appreciation of Sonnets 54

Question: The poem compares life to a play. Is this comparison appropriate for this poem? In what ways does it help convey the poems meaning?

- (5). Appreciation of Sonnets 75
- 2. William Shakespeare (1564-1616)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to the English Renaissance
- a. Till the region of Henry that the Renaissance came to England. With Henry III's encouragement, the Oxford and Cambridge reformers, scholars and humanists introduced classical literature to England. The Bible was revitalized, and the literature, already much read in the 15th century, became more popular.
 - b. The main writers of this period are Shakespeare, Francis Bacon.
- c. The English Renaissance had no sharp break with the past. Attitudes and feelings which had been the characteristics of the 14th and the 15th centuries persisted well down into the era of Humanism and Reformation.
 - (2). A Brief Introduction to Shakespeare and his Masterpieces
 - (3). Appreciation of Sonnets 18

Question:

Why does the author mention "death" and "change" in a poem of praise and commendation?

- (4). Appreciation of Sonnets 29
- (5). Appreciation of Sonnets 73

Question: What is the theme of the poem?

(6). Appreciation of All the World's a Stage

Question:

Why does the attitude of seeing life as a drama suggest about the speaker's view of life?

(7). Appreciation of *To Be, or Not to Be*

Question:

Besides offering a critique of his society, what does this meditation on life and death show about Hamlet's character?

- 3. Elements of Poetry: (Types of Poetry)
- (1). Epic
- a. The oldest type of poetry is probably epic. Epics are often oral poetry in origin, sung by minstrels or wandering poets at the king's court or on important occasions as a form of entertainment. They were usually passed from generation to generation before they were written down. Epics are usually about early history or the origin of a nation.
 - (2). Romance
 - a. A romance is either a poem or a prose about the adventure of knights.
- b. A romance often involves love relationship, knightly tournament, supernatural element or magic and often teaches a moral lesson. It embodies a value system peculiar to the knightly culture.
 - (3). Ballad
- a. Ballads are usually single, spirited poems written in four-line stanza, in which some popular stories are vividly told.
 - (4). Pastoral
- a. Pastoral is a form of escape literature concerned with country pleasures. It usually presents a simple, idealized country environment inhabited by shepherds and shepherdesses who are engaged in tending sheep, falling in love, and having friendly poetry contests.

Chapter Two: The Civil War and the Early 17th Century Poetry (2 学时)

- 1. John Donne (1572-1631)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to John Donne
- a. John Donne was born in London to a Catholic family. Although he was educated at Oxford and Cambridge universities and was trained at Lincoln's Inn, his road to success seemed to be barred due to his Catholic faith as at that time there were strong anti-Catholic sentiments. He secretly married Ann More, the niece of Lady Egerton, and therefore was thrown into prison by Ann's father. After he came out of prison, he had to make his living by writing and by patronage. Some 15 years after he abandoned his Catholic faith, he agreed to enter ministry and later became a great preacher.
 - (2). A Brief Introduction to Historical Background
 - (3). Appreciation of Song

Question:

What do the images in the first stanza suggest?

- 2. John Milton (1608-1674)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to John Milton
- a. John Milton was born in London to a prosperous businessman's family and got very well education. After graduation, he began a programmatic reading of classics, philosophy, law and literature and learnt Bible by heart. His career can be divided into three periods: in the first period he wrote mainly short poems; in the second period he wrote political essays; in the last period, after experiencing the life in prison and of

poverty, he wrote his masterpiece *Paradise Lost, Paradise regained, Samson Agonistes* and some sonnets about, among other things, his blindness and his memory to his dead wife.

- (2). A Brief Introduction to Historical Background
- (3). Appreciation of From Paradise Lost

Ouestion:

What spirit does Satan display in the two speeches he makes in hell after his fall?

- 3. Elements of Poetry: (Types of Poetry)
- (1).Lyric
- a. Lyric refers to poems written to be sung to a lyre, an ancient musical instrument with strings fixed to a U-shape frame. The lyric mode is usually concerned with love, or celebrations of nature, the good life or other such matters. Lyrics are written in a variety of poetic genres, including verse song, hymn, ode and sonnet and characterized by simple form and simple ideas easily adaptable to music.
 - (2).Ode
- a. Ode is thought to be the noblest kind of lyric. It usually celebrates worthy men and women, and noble occasions. And ode is conventionally exalted in tone, elevated in language, charged with feeling; it often has complex stanzaic patterns and frequently apostrophes.
 - (3). Satire
- a. Satire is a poem which holds up to ridicule the prevailing vices and follies of a time, it describes and attacks a society peopled by fops and fools, venal lawyers, money-grubbing merchants, self-deluded lovers and all their kind. Although the English satire probably started with Chaucer, it had its greatest development in the Restoration and the 18th century period in the work of Dryden, Pope and Swift.
 - (4).Elegy
- a. Elegy is a poem of lamentation for the dead. The English poet John Donne followed the Roman models and wrote elegies which were general reflections on love, displaying ingenious and candid eroticism.

Chapter Three: Neoclassicism and 18th Century Poetry (2 学时)

- 1. Jonathon Swift(1667-1745)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Jonathon Swift
- a. He was born in Dublin to Anglo-Irish parents; his devoted friend was the prototype of Stella in his poetry and prose writing. He was discovered his talent in satirical writing in 1696. In Ireland, he was deeply involved with Irish resistance against English oppression. In 1826, he published his famous *Gulliver's Travels*, satires of various follies and vices under the guise of outlandish travel stories.
 - (2). A Brief Introduction to Historical Background
 - (3). Appreciation of On Stella's Birthday

Question:

What is the tone of the poem? Offensive? Playful? Tender? Or sad over the decline of Stella's Beauty?

- 2. Alexander Pope (1688-1744)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Alexander Pope
- a. He was born in London to a merchant family, and was educated mostly at home. When he was at an

early age, he showed great talent at poetry. He became known to London literary circle by *An Essay on Criticism*. From the 1730s onward, he was more and more devoted to moral and philosophical writings. He saw satires as literary warfare against corruption and decay and saw them as inspired by the love of virtue. Although his satires are mostly about personal enemies and have particular historical references, they can be read as examples of some universal vices.

- (2). A Brief Introduction to Historical Background
- (3). Appreciation of A Little Learning is a Dangerous Thing

Question:

A large part of the poem describes climbing. What kind of climbing does Pope intend to describe?

- 3. Elements of Poetry:
- (1). Alliteration
- a. Alliteration is the repetition of the same consonant sound in a line, especially at the initial letter of successive words. The alliteration leads to a repetition and music, and thus creates powerful aids to memory.
 - (2). Assonance
- a. Assonance is the repetition of the same vowel sound in a line, it may occur at the beginning of the words or within the words.
 - (3). Consonance
- a. Consonance is the repetition of consonant sounds within or at the end of the words. It is a common type of near rhyme that consists of identical consonant sounds preceded by different vowel sounds.

Chapter Four: Romanticism and Early 19th Century Poetry (4 学时)

- 1. William Wordsworth (1770-1850)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to English Romanticism
- (2). A Brief introduction to William Wordsworth and his poetics
- a. William Wordsworth was born in the Lake District of England, and his parents died when he was very young, but the beautiful scenic view surrounding made up for the lack of his family love and material life. He went to France during the French Revolution, and this experience influenced him a lot in his poetry and political sensibilities.
 - (3). Appreciation of I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud

Ouestion:

In what sense is this poem an epiphany for the speaker?

- 2. George Gordon, Lord Byron (1788-1824)
- (1) .A Brief introduction to George Gordon, Lord Byron
- a. He was born in London and suffered from a malformation in his right foot all his life. He created the Byronic hero, a defiant, melancholy young man, haunted by the guilt of mysterious crimes, which he seeks to forget in violent and dangerous adventure. He died in Greece in 1824. He has been termed the philosopher of the English Romanticism. The real value of his poetry is said to be his evocation of the past civilizations and his brilliant casual written in ottava rima.
 - (2). Appreciation of *Isles of Greece*

Question:

What is the poet's feeling expressed toward Greece in this poem?

- 3. Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792-1822)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Percy Bysshe Shelley
- a. Shelley was born in England, attended Eton College and then went to Oxford. He produced all his major works in the remaining four years in his life. He had wide range of poetic talents and wrote both political poems about protests against tyranny and the pursuit of freedom and an ideal society, and beautiful lyrics.
 - (2). Appreciation of Ode to the West Wind

Ouestion:

In what ways does the metaphor function in this poem?

- 4. John Keats (1795-1821)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to John Keats
- a. He was the son of a livery stable keeper and was well educated. In 1819, he wrote the famous odes: *Ode to Psyche, Ode on a Grecian Urn, Ode to a Nightingale, Ode on Melancholy, and To Autumn.*
- b. His poetry is marked by sensuousness, colorfulness and diverse images, which reflects his keen senses and sensibilities.
 - (2). Appreciation of On First Looking into Chapman's Homer

Question:

What is the impact of Homer on the poet?

- 5. Elements of Poetry:
- (1).Rhyme

Exact Rhyme and Slant Rhyme

a. When two words or phrases have identical vowel sounds and consonant sounds, they form exact rhyme. When the vowel sound is not identical, but only similar, then they form slant rhyme.

End Rhyme and Internal Rhyme

b. End rhyme occurs at the end of a line and internal rhyme occurs with the line.

Masculine Rhyme and Feminine Rhyme

c. Masculine rhyme is rhyme between one-syllable words or between stressed final syllables in words of two or more syllables. Feminine rhyme is rhyme of two or more syllables, with stress not on the last syllable.

Chapter Five: Social Progress and Late 19th Century Poetry (2 学时)

- 1. Robert Browning (1812-1889)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Robert Browning
- a. He was born in England. He had little formal education but read a lot of books. After the death of his wife, he finished his masterpiece *The Ring and the Book*.
- b. He was noted for his mastery of dramatic monologue, and he chose characters out of history or invented them in special predicaments, making them thinking loud so as to reveal their inner world.
 - (2). Appreciation of My Last Duchess

Question:

What does the ending reveal about the Duke?

- 2. Matthew Arnold (1822-1888)
- (1) .A Brief Introduction to Matthew Arnold
- a. He was a most influential critic of his time and an important commentator on society and culture. He graduated from Harvard and offered a position as Professor of Poetry at Oxford.
- b. In his poetry could be detected a sense of sadness resulting from living in an age where one's spiritual pursuits are in danger. And his poetry often focus on subjects of psychological isolation.
 - (2). A Brief Introduction to Historical Background
 - (3). Appreciation of Dover Beach

Question:

What is Arnold's view of the prospects for human happiness?

- 3. Victorian women Poets(Elizabeth Barrett Browning, Christina Rossetti & Emily Bronte)
- a. Elizabeth Barrett Browning is the wife of Robert Browning. She was the most respected and most successful woman poet of the Victorian Age. Her most famous work is *Sonnets from the Portuguese*, a collection of love sonnets written for Robert Browning. She possessed both a feminine gentleness and a masculine fervor in her treatment of poetic expressions.
- b. Christina Rossetti's poetry is poignantly subjective, modeling herself upon the 17th century religious and metaphysical poet George Herbert. She shared the Pre-Raphaelite liking of beautiful yet languishing images in her poems, but her diction is exceptionally lyrical and simple. Nonetheless the simplicity and nursery rhyme quality cannot hide her psychological and religious complexities.
- c. Emily Bronte was the younger sister of Charlotte Bronte. She has been regarded by some critics to be the finest woman poet in English literature. Her poems are passionate and powerful in conveying the power of human spirit and the natural world. Only 21 of her poems were published.
 - 4. Elements of Poetry:
 - (1).Rhyme and Meter (1)
- a. Rhythm is produced by a series of recurrences, when reading a poem, stresses occur at regular intervals in a line, alternating with unstressed syllables to form the rhythm.
- b. Rhyme occurs when two words or phrases contain an identical or similar vowel sound, usually accented, and an identical consonant sound (if any) that follows the vowel sound.

Chapter Six: Modernism and Early 20th Century Poetry (2 学时)

- 1. (1840-1928)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Thomas Hardy
- a. He was an English novelist and poet and one of the greatest English writers of the 19th and 20th centuries. He was a son of a village stonemason, and he had a love for nature.
- b. His poetry is traditional and tuneful in terms of ballads and folksongs, but never marked by conventionality. His diction is distinctive and he kept experimenting with poetic forms and stresses to express his deeply felt poignancy and intense feeling. His lyrics always have a focal incident as the subject matter, thus possessing a dramatic sharpness. The underlying theme of both his fiction and poetry is "the implanted crookedness of things", the struggle of man against ironies of life and love. In his poems, he

exhibits a fatalist view of the dark, rough landscape of his hometown.

- (2). A Brief Introduction to Historical Background
- (3). Appreciation of *Hap*

Ouestion:

What is the Philosophy of this poem?

(4). Appreciation of Convergence of the Twain (Lines on the loss of the "Titanic")

Question:

What are the "Twain" that converge?

- 2. William Butler Yeats (1865-1939)
- (1) .A Brief Introduction to William Butler Yeats
- a. He is an Irish poet and dramatist and won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1923. He was born into a Protestant family and the Irish folk traditions and the ancient Celtic myth exerted a profound influence on his thought and writing.
- b. His career falls into 4 distinct phases: in the first phase, his poetry is marked by religion and mysticism; in the second phase, he started to write plays based on Irish myth; in the third phase, he changed from a poet writing in the tradition of Spencer and Shelley to one influenced by the intellectual and vigorous tradition of the Metaphysical poets; the last phase saw him grow into one great poet of the 20th century.
 - (2). A Brief Introduction to Historical Background
 - (3). Appreciation of the Lake Isle of Innisfree

Question:

What do you think the speaker will do at Innisfree?

(4). Appreciation of When You Are Old

Question:

What are the deeper meaning about love that the poet is trying to unveil?

- 3. Elements of Poetry:
- (1). Rhyme and Meter (2)
- a. The pattern of rhythm in a poem is called meter. There are four basic meters in English poetry, and each of meters is made up of basic units. Each unit is called a foot.

Chapter Seven: World War II and Late 20th Century Poetry (2 学时)

- 1. Philip Larkin (1922-1985)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Philip Larkin
- a. He was born in the English Midlands and got very well education. His early work shows the influence of Yeats, but his later poetic identity was influenced mainly by Thomas Hardy. He was known for his use of the colloquial in his poetry, partly balanced by a similar antique word choice. With fine use of enjambment and rhyme, his poetry is highly structured but never rigid. Death was a recurring theme and subject of his poetry.
 - (2). Appreciation of *Church going*

Question:

What is the theme of this poem?

- 2. Ted Hughes (1930-1998)
- (1) .A Brief Introduction to Ted Hughes
- a. He was the Poet Laureate of England and one of the most controversial ports and literary figures of his time. He was also famously married to American poet Sylvia Plath.
 - (2). A Brief Introduction to his poems
 - a. His best poetry focuses on the unsentimental within nature.
- b. His poems are marked by controlled diction and style, which create a sense of order and meaning in violent or passionate natural events, often in the world of animals.
- c. His poetry suggests enormous energy, a wide ranging intelligence, a consistent world view, and a complex nature, not easy to define.
- d. His poems are loosely structured on a framework of mythology, legends and/or folk tales, and imaginatively blend mythic and contemporary references.
 - (3). Appreciation of *Hawk Roosting*

Question:

Is this poem in any way satirical? If so, what is the poem satirizing?

- 3. Douglas Dunn (1942-)
- (1) .A Brief Introduction to Douglas Dunn
- a. He is a Scottish poet, author of several collections of poetry and currently Professor of English at the University of St. Andrews. After the death of his wife in 1981, he composed the *Elegies*, which reflected his poignancy of love and loss and won him the Whitbread Book of the Year Award.
 - (2). A Brief Introduction to his poems
- a. His poems create moments of spiritual desolation and despondency in which reader and the speaker inhabit the image and metaphor to intensify the dramatic experience in the poem.
 - (3). Appreciation of Ratatouille

Question:

What is the tone of the poem? How does it function in conveying the theme of the poem?

- 4. Elements of Poetry:
- (1).Image
- a. An image may be initially thought of as a verbal picture, an object seen, or the concrete representation of the outward form of a person. An image can also be what is heard or what is felt. Broadly defined, an image is a word or a sequence of words which refers to any sensory experience.
 - (2).Symbol
- a. A symbol is a special kind of image, for it exceeds the image in the richness of its connotations. It is usually a visual object or an action which suggests some further meaning in addition to itself.

Part Three: American Poetry

Chapter One: The Colonial Period and Early American Poetry (2 学时)

Introduction

- 1. Anne Bradstreet (1612-1672)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Anne Bradstreet
- a. She was the first American female writer as well as the first American female poet to have her works published. She grew up in cultured circumstance and well educated. After she moved to America with her husband, recollection of the happy life back in England and the belief that God had not abandoned them in the new world were familiar subject matters covered in her poetry, which focused heavily on domestic and religious themes. In the 20th century, her poetry was "rediscovered" by feminists, who have since found many significant artistic qualities in her verse.
 - (2). Appreciation of *The Prologue*

Ouestion:

What is the purpose of the prologue? Who is the poetess addressing?

- 2. Edward Taylor (1642-1729)
- (1) .A Brief Introduction to Edward Taylor
- a. He was reputably the best Puritan poet of colonial America. He was born in England. He poured his powerful imaginative energies into his poems, he created images that remind readers of the elaborate conceits and extended metaphors of the English metaphysical poets. His syntax may appear broken and uneven to a modern reader, his diction often strange and puzzling, and the metaphors at once homely and exotic. The majority of his poems were religious and meditative in nature.
 - (2). Appreciation of *The Ebb and Flow*

Question:

What does the title probably mean?

- 3. Philip Freneau (1752-1832)
- (1) .A Brief Introduction to Philip Freneau
- a. He was born in New Jersey, and the son of a wine merchant. He was known as "the poet of American Revolution" because of the many ballads and satires against the British he wrote during the period. His nature lyrics are the first to give lyrical expression to American nature. The stylistic simplicity and romantic moods established his fame as an important American precursor of the Romantics.
 - (2). Appreciation of *The Wild Honey Suckle*

Question:

How does Freneau making a statement about a flower only, or is he also saying something about life in general?

- 4. Elements of Poetry:
- (1). Figure of speech (1)
- a. A figure of speech is an expression of language which departs from the usual denotation of words. Figures of speech are often employed in literature.

Chapter Two: Transcendentalism and 19th Century American Poetry (2 学时)

Introduction

- 1. Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Ralph Waldo Emerson
- a. He is widely regarded as the central figure of the Transcendental movement and one of America's most influential authors, philosophers and thinkers. He was best known for his essays and lectures. He also believed that people should try to live a simple life in harmony with nature and with others. He encouraged new poets to break free of European influences and create a truly American poetic voice.
 - (2). Appreciation of *The Rhodora*

Ouestion:

What does the speaker think of the "sages"?

- 2. Walt Whitman (1819-1892)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Walt Whitman
- a. Whitman was born in New York and began to work at the age of 13 and worked in many different walks. It was until 1848 that he began to seriously apply himself to poetry. His lifetime saw both the Civil War and the rise of the United States as a commercial and political power. He witnessed both the apex and the abolition of slavery. His poetry thus is centered on ideas of democracy, equality, and brotherhood. He also tried to develop a poetry that was uniquely American by employing materials native to the land and creating a free style that rebelled against the European tradition of metrical regularity.
 - (2). Appreciation of O, Captain, My Captain

Question:

What is the overall tone of the poem? How does the sound pattern help bring out the emotion of the speaker?

- 3. Emily Dickinson
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Emily Dickinson
- a. She was born into a prominent family and after her education at Amherst Academy; she spent the rest of her life in the family alone. She never married, although her poetry is often filled with passion and intensity. She had written altogether 1775 poems, and very few were published while she was alive. Her poetry was very personal and meditative, but it is far from limited. In her short and seemingly simple poems, she addressed a wide range of issues that concern the whole human kind, such as religion, death, love, nature, and the poetic art. With a remarkable variety, subtle and richness, her poetry is now admired for its originality and artistry, which helped mold modern American poetry.
 - (2). Appreciation of I Heard a Fly Buzz—When I Died

Question:

Do you think the speaker really heard a fly or is it merely a hallucination? What might the fly stand for?

- 4. Elements of Poetry:
- (1). Figure of speech (2)
- a. There are many frequently-used figures of speech: simile and metaphor, personification and apostrophe, metonymy and synecdoche, hyperbole and understatement, paradox and pun, and so on.

Chapter Three: Modernism and American Poetry between the World Wars (4 学时)

Introduction

- 1. Robert Frost (1874-1963)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Robert Frost
- a. He was born in San Francisco and got a good education. He drifted through a string of occupations after leaving school. His poetry is much love for its readability: simple language, familiar subjects and common imagery. He avoids foreign expressions, fragmented structure and difficult allusions. His work is principally associated with the life and landscape of New England, and he favored traditional verse forms, but he was anything but a merely regional poet.
 - (2). Appreciation of Sand Dunes

Question:

What is the relationship between man and sea? Who is the better of the two according to the poet?

- 2. Ezra Pound (1885-1972)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Ezra Pound and his Imagism
- a. Imagism was an important literary movement between 1912 and 1917, and with the central idea that "clarity of expression through the use of precise visual images". The imagist poets advocated concision and directness, building their short poems around single images. They also preferred looser cadences to traditional regular rhythms.
- b. Ezra Pound is generally recognized as the first leader of the Imagist movement. He was an exceedingly prolific writer, and he produced nearly 100 volumes, including critical manifestos, anthologies of poems, translations, and literary criticism. His greatest work is *The Cantos*. Despite his political stigma caused by his pro-Fascist activities during World War II, his literary contributions earned him an irreplaceable position as the "Commanding General of Modernism".
 - (2). Appreciation of In a Station of the Metro

Question:

What does the speaker see? Why are the faces compared to petals?

- 3. T. S. Eliot (1888-1965)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to T. S. Eliot and Modernism
- a. Together with Ezra Pound, Thomas Stearns, Eliot is universally deemed one of the founders of modernist poetry in English. Though born in America, he was considered more English than America. With the publication of *The Waste Land* in 1922, now considered to be a revolutionary manifesto to break away from traditional poetry, his reputation began to grow to nearly mythic proportions. By 1930, and for the next 30 years, he was the most dominant figure in poetry and literary criticism in the English-speaking world.
 - (2). Appreciation of *The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock*

Question:

What is the general tone of the poem? What are the images that support the impression?

4. Langston Hughes(1902-1967)

- (1). A Brief Introduction to Langston Hughes
- a. Hughes was born in 1902 and was raised by his grandmother until he was 13, as his parents divorced when he wad a child. After he lived with his mother again, he began writing poetry. He was particularly known for his insightful, colorful portrayals of black life in America from the 1920s through 1960s. His life and work were enormously important in shaping the artistic contributions of Harlem Renaissance of the 1920s. He wanted to tell the stories of his people in ways that reflected their actual culture, including both their sufferings and their love of music, laughter, and language itself.
 - (2). Appreciation of I, too

Question:

Who is the speaker of the poem? Is it a specific individual or group of people? An actual person or an imagined image?

- 5. Elements of Poetry:
- (1).Diction
- a. Poetry is made up of words. Words contain ideas, have meanings and signifying objects. There are some kinds of dictions: concrete and general, formal and informal, denotation and connotation.

Chapter Four: Post-Modernism and American Poetry after World War II (2 学时)

Introduction

- 1. Elizabeth Bishop (1911-1979)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Elizabeth Bishop
- a. She was well educated and spent time from 1935 to 1937 travelling for 4 years. Her poetry is filled with descriptions of her travels and the scenery which surround her. Her poetry avoids explicit accounts of her personal life, and focuses instead with great subtlety on her impressions of the physical world. Her images are precise and true to life, and they reflect her own sharp wit and moral sense. She was awarded the Fellowship of The Academy of American Poets in 1964.
 - (2). Appreciation of *The Fish*

Question:

What may the fish stand for in the long and detailed poem?

- 2. Allen Ginsberg (1926-1997)
- (1). A Brief Introduction to Allen Ginsberg
- a. Allen Ginsberg, preeminent of the Beat Generation, was considered one of the most influential writers of the 1950s and 1960s. He was the son of two Jewish member of the New York literary counterculture of the 1920s, and was raised among several progressive political perspectives. He resurrected the Whitman tradition and reintroduced the long, breath-length line into poetry, and the Whitmanian concern for individuality ad the fate to the country. He considered himself a follower of Thoreau, Emerson, and Whitman, carrying "old-time American transcendentalist individualism... into the 20th century."
 - (2). Appreciation of *In Back of the Real*

Ouestion:

Why is the flower compared to Jesus' crown?

- 3. Elements of Poetry:
- (1).Tone
- a. The tone of a poem refers to the implied attitude of the author toward his theme or his subject. Sometimes, the tone suggests a meaning which is completely different from the apparent meaning of words.
 - (2).Speaker
 - a. To understand the literary phenomenon, one must separate the writer and the speaker of the poem.

Review (2 学时)

《德语(一)》教学大纲

陈晖 编写

目 录

课程主要内容及学时分配	2
使用教材	2
auf Deutsch (Band 1)	4
Einheit 1 Phonetik	4
Einheit 2 Kennenlernen	5
Einheit 3 Studentenleben.	7
Einheit 4 Familie	
Einheit 5 Essen und Trinken	10
Einheit 6 Wohnen in Deutschland	. 11
Einheit 8 Freizeit und Ferien	
Einheit 9 Körper und Gesundheit	.17
Einheit 10 Orientierung in der Stadt	
	auf Deutsch (Band 1) Einheit 1 Phonetik Einheit 2 Kennenlernen. Einheit 3 Studentenleben. Einheit 4 Familie. Einheit 5 Essen und Trinken. Einheit 6 Wohnen in Deutschland. Einheit 8 Freizeit und Ferien. Einheit 9 Körper und Gesundheit.

一、前言

本课程是一门为外国语学院英语专业二年级学生开设的专业必修课。课程从语音开始,通过一系列循序渐进的学习,力求使学生掌握学习外语的"听、说、读、写"基本功的四个环节,并对德国的历史、地理、经济和文化生活以及风土人情具有最基本的了解,为德语的继续学习打下良好的基础。

因此在课程的实施过程中,应以教师重、难点和技巧辅导为主,学生自学为辅,同时结合一定课堂练习来全面促进学生的德语运用能力。

本大纲编写人员为赵叶莹。

二、 课程主要内容及学时分配

以"单元"(Einheit)为单位进行讲解,第一单元为语音阶段,设立约 8-9 学时,第一册 2 至 10 单元每课 6 学时左右。如需扩充知识或文章较难,可以适当增加学时。

第一单元主要是语音学习阶段,使学生掌握正确的语音语调,能够进行简单对话:

从第二单元开始,逐渐深入学习语法和课文,并配有相应的练习,以达到巩固的目的。

通过一学期的学习, 德语语法将基本讲解完毕, 学生可以打下坚实的语言基础, 能够阅读初级 难度的德语读物, 并且具备很强的自学能力。

三、 课程教学目的和基本要求

- 1. 使学生发音标准、掌握正确的语音语调、能够流利地阅读相应简单的德语资料;
- 2. 培养学生的语感、使其能够用德语方式思维,顺利地实现德语和汉语两种思维方式的切换:
- 3. 使学生能够听懂基础德语会话、理解正确并且掌握其中心大意、抓住要点和有关细节;
- 4. 使学生能够进行简单的日常生活会话和涉外会话, 能够就教材内容进行回答和复述, 能够就 所熟悉的话题经准备后作简短发言, 表达思想较清楚, 语音语调基本正确;
- 5. 使学生准确地理解并掌握语法, 培养学生进行严密思维的能力, 使学生能够进行正确的动词变位和性数配合.

四、 相关教学环节

德语课程教学使用多媒体等现代化教学手段。除了课堂讲解之外,还会有选择性地给学生播放 德语录像、德语电影片断、德语经典歌曲,力求寓教于乐。

本课程以学生为主体,注重调动学生的积极性。会组织学生进行课堂大讨论,或者以小组为单位进行德语会话,同学们相互学习、相互纠正,教师点评,收到积极成效。

努力创造有利的语言环境,通过形式多样的课外活动,利用第二课堂弥补第一课堂的不足,使 学生有更多实践德语的机会。

五、 使用教材

朱建华主编:《新编大学德语》(Klick auf Deutsch) (第一册), 外语教学与研究出版社, 最新把

六、 教学参考书

- 1) 姚宝、过文英:《当代德国社会与文化》,上海外语教育出版社,最新版
- 2) 刘芳本、叶本度:《莱茵浪花—德国社会面面观》,外语教学与研究出版社,最新版
- 3) 王露阳、贺艳玲、印芝红:《走进德国—历史文化》、《走进德国—社会经济》、《走进德国—多元化观念》,同济大学出版社,最新版
 - 4) 《德国概况》,大使馆赠书,最新版

Klick auf Deutsch (Band 1)

Einheit 1 Phonetik

Übersicht:

In dieser Einheit gibt es insgesamt 4 Teile. Das Hauptziele ist Phonetiklernen. Um die Studenten gleich einfach sprechen können, gibt es in jedem Teil ein paar kleine Dialoge, die die Intentionen dieser Einheit zeigen, nämlich Begrüßung und Verabschiedung

Einführung

EÜ machen, um die deutsche Phonetik mit dem Sprachvergleich und der Visualisierung einzuführen.

T1: Das Deutsche Alphabet

Übung:

Lesen Sie, bitte!

BRD; DAAD; SPD; LKW; EDV; PKW; VW; BMW; EU; CDU; TU; AG; USA; ICE; GmbH.

T2:

Vokale: a e u i o

Konsonanten: p b t d k g m n s f v w

T3:

Vokale: ei(ai ay) au eu (äu) ä ö ü(y)

Konsonanten: h j(y) l r z ts ds tz t(ion) x chs ch

T4:

Konsonantenverbindungen: sch st sp pf qu ng nk tsch

Wortakzent Intonation

Intentionen:

begrüßen und sich verabschieden

Guten Morgen!

Guten Tag!

Guten Abend!

Gute Nacht!

Wie geht es Ihnen?

Auf Wiedersehen!

Tschüs!

Bis Morgen!

(Patnerarbeit)

Tafelschreib 1:

Guten Tag!

Guten Morgen!

Tafelschreib 2:

Ich heisse...

Ich heisse... Und Sie?

Einheit 2 Kennenlernen

Übersicht

Diese Einheit ist die erste Einheit nach der Einheit "Phonetik". Sie bittet die Deutschlernenden drei unterschiedliche Szenen.

Die erste: im Unterricht; Die zweite: in der Mensa; Die dritte: auf einer Party.

Einführung

Die vier kleinen Dialog enthalten sich und die anderen Leute Vorstellen, nach den Name fragen usw., die die Schwerpünkte dieser Einheit sind.

Dialog 1 und 2 sind die Wiederholung zur Einheit 1;

In Dialog 3 und 4 erscheinen neue Satzform und Satzform mit "ihr"

Text A:

Im Deutschunterricht

Text B:

In der Mensa

Fremdwörter:

öffnen

schließen

lesen

machen

fragen

antworten

schreiben

T Übungen

Grammatik:

- 1. Artikel und Substantiv im Nominativ
- 2. Personalpronomen im Nominativ
- 3. Konjugation der regelmäßigen Verben im Präsens
- 4. Konjugation von "sein" im Präsens
- 5. Imperativ(1)
 - ❖ 动词原形+Sie+...!

Hören Sie!

Sprechen Sie!

Lesen Sie!

Schreiben Sie!

Öffnen Sie bitte die Bücher!

Nehmen Sie bitte Platz!

❖ 动词 sein

Seien Sie +..!

Seien Sie bitte leise!

Seien Sie bitte laut!

Seien Sie schnell!

❖ 动词原形+wir+...!

Machen wir jetzt Übungen!

Hören wir Text vier!

Seien wir ...!

- 6. Satzarten und Wortstellung
- G Übungen

Intentionen:

Auf dem Basis der Einheit 1 sollen die Stuedenten die Fähigkeit haben: einfache Fragen stellen: z. B., sich sich oder jemanden vorstellen; nach der Herkunft und Studium fragen usw.

Ich heiße,bin ...

Mein Name ist...

Ich komme aus...

Ich wohne in...

Wie heißen Sie?

Woher kommen Sie?

Wo wohnen Sie?

Hörverstehen:

Kennenlernen

Leseverstehen:

Brieffreunde gesucht

Einheit 3 Studentenleben

Übersicht

Das Thema dieser Einheit ist das Studentenleben an der Uni. Der Haupttext ist "Lernen, lernen, immer lernen" und das Hörverständtext "Wann studierst du eigentlich?" Sie zeigen in der Pespektive der chinesischen Studenten das Studentenleben in Deutschland. Der Lesetext "Hochschulen und Studenten" stellt die Hochschulsorten, die Zahl, besonders die Zahl der ausländischen Studenten in Deutschland. Die Studenten können daher die Landeskunde kennen und sonst auch die Grundzahlen mastern.

Einführung

- 1. Mit Bilder die Tageszeiten einführen:
 - Am Morgen, am Vormittag, am Mittag, am Nachmittag, am Abend, in der Nacht
- 2. die Wedungen und Wortgruppe darüber kennen:
 - Sporttreiben, zu Mittag essen, zu Abend essen, nach Hause gehen, ins Bett gehen, zur Uni fahren, usw.

Text A:

Lernen, lernen, immer lernen

Fremdwörter:

verstehen

laufen-läuft

geben-gibt

T Übungen

Grammatik:

- 1. Konjugation der unregelmäßigen Verben im Präsens
- 2. Artikel und Substantiv im Akkusativ
- 3. Personalpronomen im Akkusativ
- 4. Grundzahlen
- G Übungen

Intentionen:

Zeit erfragen und angeben

Wie viel Uhr ist es?

Wie spät ist es?

Um wie viel Uhr ist es?

Wann ... ?

Von wann bis wann...?

Es ist ... (Uhr).

Es ist ... vor,nach...

Es ist halb...

Um...

Von ...bis...

1:00	eins (ein Uhr/13 Uhr 正式说法)
8:05	fünf nach 8
8:15	ein Viertel / fünfzehn nach 8
8:26	vier vor halb 9
8:30	halb 9
8:39	neun nach halb 9
8:45	ein Viertel/fünfzehn vor 9
8:52	acht vor 9

Hörverstehen:

Neun Zahlen

Wann studierst du eigentlich?

Leseverstehen: Hochschulen und Studenten

Einheit 4 Familie

Übersicht

Durch die Dialoge zwischen die Jugendlichen, die Lieder der Kinder und die Diskussionen zwischen den deutschen Studenten stellt die Einheit teilweise die Landeskunde und die Kultur in Deutschland. Um dem Thema "Familie" können die Studenten viele Wörter, Satzförme und Grammatik darüber kennen. Die natürliche Szene ist aber wichtig.

Einführung

Die drei Fotos auf der Seite 82 – 83 zeigen den Studenten eine deutsch-chinesische Familie, eine traditionelle chinesische Familie und ein deutsche Familie. Die Studenten soll auf dem Basis der vorletzen drei Einheiten die Unterschiede darin erkennen und aussagen.

Text:

Meine Oma hat Geburtstag

Fremdwörter:

denken

zurückkommen

vorschlagen-schlägt vor

aussehen- sieht aus

finden

suchen

T Übungen

Grammatik:

- 1. trennbare Verben
 - 可分动词=可分前缀+根动词
 - aufstehen = auf + stehen

vorhaben = vor + haben

mitkommen = mit + kommen

vorschlagen = vor +schlagen

zurückkommen = zurück + kommen

- 语音: 重音在可分前缀上。
 - aufgeben, fernsehen
- 语法:前缀与根动词需要分离(现在时和过去时的主句中),根动词在第二位,前缀放在句末。
- 2. Nullartikel
- 3. Possessivpronomen im Nominativ und Akkusativ
- 4. Negation mit kein und nicht
- 5. ja, nein, doch
- G Übungen

Intentionen:

Vorschläge machen, Einladung annehmen und ablehen

Ich schlage vor...

Ich habe eine Idee.

Haben Sie Zeit?

Prima!

Sehr schön!

Vielen Dank!

Gut, abgemacht

Tut mir leid.

Ich habe keine Lust.

Leider habe ich schon etwas vor.

Hörverstehen: Meine Familie

Leseverstehen:

Eine Familie aus der Türkei

Einheit 5 Essen und Trinken

Übersicht

Diese Einheit stellt vor allem das Essen und Trinken in Deutschland dar. Durch die Dialoge in dem Haupttext und Hörverständtext, können die Studenten die traditionelle und auch die morderne Kultur über Essen und Trinken kennenlernen.

In dieser Einheit sollen die Studenten die folgenden Fähigkeiten haben:

Die Speisekarten im Restaurant und in der Café verstehen;

Die Speise bestellen;

Die Rechnung bezahlen;

Kleingeld geben usw.

Einführung

Die Fotos auf der Seite 106-107 stellen unterschiedliche Sorte der deutschen Restaurants und Cafés dar, um die Interesse der Studenten zu erwecken.

Text:

Im Restaurant

Fremdwörter:

sich treffen mit - trifft

bestellen

schmecken D

gefallen-gefällt D

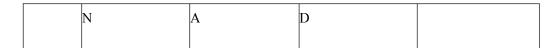
zahlen

danken D

T Übungen

Grammatik:

- 1. Modalverben "mögen" und "möchten"
- 2. Dativ



m	der ein mein	den einen meinen	dem einem meinem	Tisch
n	das ein mein	das ein mein	dem einem meinem	Buch
f	die eine meine	die eine meine	der einer meiner	Katze
Pl.	die meine	die meine	den meinen	Kindern

3. Imperativ mit "du" und "ihr"

G Übungen

Intentionen:

Wünsche äußern

Was möchten Sie?

Sie wünschen?

Ich möchte gern...

Wir hätten gern...

Guten Appetit!

Zum Wohl!

Prost!

Hörverstehen:

Im Café

Leseverstehen:

Essen in Deutschland

Einheit 6 Wohnen in Deutschland

Übersicht

Durch drei Teile, nämlich den Haupttext "Wohung suchen und umziehen", den Hörverständtext "Neue Wohnung besuchen" und den Lesetext "Wohnungsanzeigen" stellt die Einheit 6 uns das Thema "Wohnen in Deutschland" dar.

Einführung

Die Fotos auf der Seite 134-135 stellen die alltäglichen Wohnungen, Häuser und die Lebensbedingungen in Deutschland dar, um die Interesse der Studenten zu erwecken.

Text:

Wohnen in Deutschland
Fremdwörter:
anrufen
ausziehen sich,A-einziehen-umziehen
besichtigen
nehmen (nimmt)
halten (hält)
einhalten (hält ein)

T Übungen

Grammatik:

1. Modalverben "müssen", "dürfen" und "möchten"

	müssen	dürfen	sollen
ich	muss	darf	soll
du	musst	darfst	sollst
er/sie/es	muss	darf	soll
wir	müssen	dürfen	sollen
ihr	müsst	dürft	sollt
sie/Sie	müssen	dürfen	sollen

	作助动词	独立动词

dürfen			Dürfen wir jetzt ins Kino? Das darf man nicht.
			Ich muss nach Hause. Der Brief muss heute zur Post.
sollen	让,	Die Schüler sollen fleißig lernen. Sag Peter, er soll sofort zum Lehrer gehen.	Er soll sofort zum Lehrer. Der Tisch soll ans Fenster.

2. Präpositionen mit dem Dativ und mit dem Akkusativ

hängen-hängen

stecken-stecken

liegen-legen

sitzen-setzen

stellen-stehen

G Übungen

Intentionen:

erlauben und verbieten

Sie dürfen das nicht machen,tun.

Man darf hier...

Mach das bitte.

Es ist (un)möglich.

Kein Problem.

Es ist erlaubt.

Er ist verboten.

Hörverstehen: Besuch bei Wang Jin

Leseverstehen: Wohnungdsanzeigen aus dem Internet

Einheit 7 Kaufen und Schenken

Übersicht

Durch drei Teile, nämlich den Haupttext "Im Kaufhaus", den Hörverständtext "Kaufen und Schenken" und

den Lesetext "Schenken ist eine Kunst" stellt die Einheit 7 uns das Thema "Kaufen und Schenken" dar.

Einführung

Die Einführung besteht aus 2 Teilen.

Auf der Seite 160 steht die Webseite aus dem Homepage von dem deutschen Kaufhaus "Karstadt".

Auf der Seite 161 steht die Zeigeschilder der "Karstadt".

Diese direkte Materialien aus Deutschland können bestimmt die Interesse der Studenten erwecken, und damit die Lehrziele schneller erreichen.

Text:

Im Kaufhaus

Fremdwörter:

grüßen

wissen (weiß)

gucken-sehen-schauen

meinen

nachsehen-nachschlagen

wünschen DA

T Übungen

Grammatik:

- 1. Modalverben "können" und "wollen"
- 2. Deklination des Adjektivs nach dem bestimmten Artikel
- 3. Fragepronomen "welcher", "welches", "welche"
- 4. Ordnungszahlen

1-19 基数词+t	
eins	erst-
zwei	zweit-
drei	dritt-
vier	viert-
fünf	fünft-
sechs	sechst-
sieben	siebt-
acht	acht-
neun	neunte-
zehn	zehnt-
elf	elft-

neunzehn	neunzehnt-
----------	------------

20 以上,基数词+st			
20.	zwanzigst-		
25.	fünfundzwanzigst-		
30.	dreißigst-		
46.	sechsundvierzigst-		
51.	einundfünfzigst-		
64.	vierundsechzigst-		
78.	achtundsiebzigst-		
86.	sechsundachtzigst-		
99.	neunundneunzigst-		
100.	hundertst-		
1000.	tausendst-		
1000000.	millionst-		

- 复合的基数词构成序数词时,加-t或者-st取决于最后一个数词。
- 105 hundertfünft-
- 125 hundertfünfundzwanzigst-
 - 5. Demostrativpronomen "der", "die", "das"; "die" und "dieser", "diese", "dieses"; "diese"
- 6. Wortstellung von Dativ und Akkusativ
- G Übungen

Intentionen:

gute Wünsche aussprechen und gratulieren

Herzlichen Glückwunsch!

Ich gratuliere Ihnen zu...

Gute Reise!

Gute Fahrt!

Gute Besserung!

Alles Gute!

Viel Erfolg!

Viel Glück!

Schönes Wochenende!

Hörverstehen:

Kaufen und Schenken

Leseverstehen:

Schenken ist eine Kunst

Einheit 8 Freizeit und Ferien

Übersicht

Durch drei Teile, nämlich die zwei Dialoge über eine Reise nach Rügen zwischen den Studenten in den Ferien , den Hörverständtext "Wohin gehen Sie in Ihrer Freizeit" und den Lesetext "Aus dem Tagebuch von Susanne" stellt die Einheit 8 uns das Thema "Freizeit und Ferien" dar.

Einführung

Die Fotos auf der Seite 186-187 stellen die weltberühmte DFB, das Wort "surfen", und die traditionelle kulturelle Bierlokale in Deutschland dar, damit die Interesse der Studenten gut erwecken können.

Text:

Am Wochenende und in den Ferien

Fremdwörter:

dauern

erleben

berichten

verddienen

absolvieren

übersetzen-dolmetschen

feststellen

finazieren

jobben-arbeiten

T Übungen

Grammatik:

- 1. Perfekt
- 2. "sein" und "haben" im Präteritum

	现在	过去	虚拟式
ich	habe	hatte	hätte

du	hast	hattest	hättest
er / sie / es	hat	hatte	hätte
wir	haben	hatten	hätten
ihr	habt	hattet	hättet
sie / Sie	haben	hatten	hätten

			虚拟式	
	现在	过去	第一	第二
ich	bin	war	sei	wäre
du	bist	warst	seiest	wärest
er / sie / es	ist	war	sei	wäre
wir	sind	waren	seien	wären
ihr	seid	wart	seiet	wärt / wäret
sie / Sie	sind	waren	seien	wären

3. Genitiv als Attribut

G Übungen

Intentionen:

nach Erlebnissen fragen und darüber berichten

Was haben Sie in der Freizeit gemacht?

Wohin bist du gefahren?

Wir sind zu Hause geblieben.

Er hat den Urlaub ... verbracht.

Was war das Wetter?

Es war schön, gut, herrlich, schlecht, regnerisch, sonnig usw.

Hörverstehen:

Wohin gehen Sie in Ihrer Freizeit

Leseverstehen:

Aus dem Tagebuch von Susanne

Einheit 9 Körper und Gesundheit

Übersicht

Der Haupttext stellt die alltäglichen Intentionen beim Artzt dar, damit die Studenten die Landeskunde

darüber kennen können;

Im Hörverstehen gibt es 4 kleine Dialogen, ist eigentlich die Wiederholung zu dem Haupttext.

Die 3 Teile, nämlich der Haupttext, das Hörverstehen und der Lesetext sind um dem Thema dieser Einheit nämlich "Körper und Gesundheit". Die Materialien geben den Studenten viel Kenntnisse über das Arztbesuch, die Krankversicherung in Deutschland, damit ihre Interesse erwecken können.

Einführung

Die Einführung besteht aus 2 Teilen.

Auf der Seite 212 steht die Namen und die Funktionen der Organe der menschlichen Körper.

Auf der Seite 213 steht die Zeigeschilder des deutschen Praxises..

Diese direkte Materialien aus Deutschland können bestimmt die Interesse der Studenten erwecken, und damit die Lehrziele schneller erreichen.

Text:

Beim Arzt

Fremdwörter:

sich D etw. (A) ansehen

stimmen

sich unterhalten

sich kümmern um A

(sich) waschen

(sich) putzen

(sich) anziehen

sich erkkälten

weh tun

untersuchen

atmen-einatmen-ausatmen

verschreiben

T Übungen

Grammatik:

1. Reflexivpronomen und Reflexivverb

若一句话里做宾语的代词是主语自身时,这个做宾语的代词即为"反身代词"。

1) Bildung:

Sing:

8"							
第一人称			第二人称		第三人称		
					阳性	阴性	中性
人称代词	ij	ich	du	Sie	er	sie	es
反身	G	meiner	deiner	Ihrer	seiner	ihrer	seiner
	D	mir	dir	sich	sich	sich	sich
代词	A	mich	dich	sich	sich	sich	sich

Plu:

人称代词		wir	ihr	Sie	sie
反身	G	unser	euer	Ihrer	ihrer
	D	uns	euch	sich	sich
代词	A	uns	euch	sich	sich

Achtung: 反身代词的第二格很少使用。

2) Gebrauch:

1 跟必须带反身代词的动词连用: Ich beeilen mich zum Bahnhof.

我赶紧去车站。

2 sich 与 lassen 连用,表示一种被动的可能或必要:

Dieses Material lässt sich gut verarbeiten.

这种材料很容易加工。

Die Frage liess sich nicht vermeiden.

这个问题难以避免。

3 加强语气,相当于"亲自"或"自己的":

Der Mensch pässt sich den Lebensbedingungen an.

人使自己适应生存环境。

4 表示"彼此"或"相互"的意思,做"相互反身代词"用:

Wir sehen uns wieder.

我们又见面了。

Die Freunde begrüssen sich herzlich.

朋友们互致衷心的问候。

5 和介词连用的第三格及第四格人称代词,如和句中的主语是同一人或物,此人称代词要变为反身代词:

Ich habe immer eine Uhr bei mir.

我老戴着一只手表。

Mein Freund dachte nie an sich.

我的朋友从来想不到他自己。

- 2. Objektsatz mir "dass", "ob" und Fragewörtern
- G Übungen

Intentionen: Meinungen ausdrücken, zustimmen und widersprechen

Ich denke, glaube, meine, finde...

Ich bin der Meinung, dass...

Meiner Meinung nach...

Da haben Sie Recht.

Ich stimme Ihnen völlig zu.

Ich kann Ihnen leider nicht zustimmen.

Hörverstehen: Ich bin krank

Leseverstehen: Was soll ich tun?

Hausaufgabe:

Berühmte Webseite besuchen. Z.B.:

- 1. www.spiegel.de,
- 2. www.taz.de,
- 3. www.faz.de,
- 4. www.frankfurterrundschau.de
- 5. www.sueddeutsche.de
- 6. www.waz.de,
- 7. www.welt.de,
- 8. www.zeit.de, usw.

Einheit 10 Orientierung in der Stadt

Übersicht

Das Thema dieser Einheit ist "Orientierung in der Stadt". Die Landeskarte in der Einführung zeigt uns schon das Thema. Im Haupttext gibt es Intentionen darüber, außerdem müssen die Studenten die Präpositionen darin mastern.

Das ist die letzte Einheit des "Klick auf Deutsch Band 1", deshalb erscheint in dieser Einheit nicht viele neue Grammtik. Aber die Präpositionen sind schon ein Schwerpunkt.

Einführung

Die Örte in der Landeskarte finden:

Die Alte Brücke, das Rathaus, der U-Bahnhof Konstablerwache, die Paulskirche, die Hauptpost, der Fluss, das Fernmeldeamt, der Römerplatz.

Text:

Auskunft auf der Straße Fremdwörter: erklären (D) A steigen-einsteigen-austeigen-umsteigen abbiegen begeleiten

beeilen

T Übungen

Grammatik:

- 1. Präpositionen: über, durch, um, entlang, gegenüber
- 2. Wiederholung der Modalverben: dürfen, können, müssen, sollen, wollen, mögen, möchten
- G Übungen

Intentionen:

Nach dem Weg fragen und den Weg beschreiben

Gehen Sie geradeaus, die Straße entlang bis zur nächsten Kreuzung, über die Brücke, durch das Stadttor, an...vorbei, in Richtung...

Biegen Sie links,rechts ab.

Wie komme ich ...?

Wo befindet sich...?

Hörverstehen:

Wege suchen und finden

Leseverstehen:

Stadtrundfahrt in Hangzhou

《德语(二)》 教学大纲

霍颖楠 编写

目 录

二、教学对象 2 三、课程教学目的和基本要求 2 四、课程主要内容及学时分配 3 五. 测试 3 六、使用教材名称、作者及出版社 3 七、教学计划 3 Klick auf Deutsch (Band 2) 4 Einheit 1 Aussehen und Persönlichkeit 4 Einheit 2 Deutschland und Europa 5 Einheit 3 Deutsche und Ausländer 6 Einheit 4 Märchen und Geschichten 8 Einheit 5 Leute und Städte 10 Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit 11 Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten 12 Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage 15 Einheit 10 Wünsche und Sorgen 16	一、	前言	2
四、课程主要内容及学时分配	_,	教学对象	2
四、课程主要内容及学时分配	三、	课程教学目的和基本要求	2
六、使用教材名称、作者及出版社3七、教学计划3Klick auf Deutsch (Band 2)4Einheit 1 Aussehen und Persönlichkeit4Einheit 2 Deutschland und Europa5Einheit 3 Deutsche und Ausländer6Einheit 4 Märchen und Geschichten8Einheit 5 Leute und Städte10Einheit 6 Computer und Internet11Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit12Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten14Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage15			
六、使用教材名称、作者及出版社3七、教学计划3Klick auf Deutsch (Band 2)4Einheit 1 Aussehen und Persönlichkeit4Einheit 2 Deutschland und Europa5Einheit 3 Deutsche und Ausländer6Einheit 4 Märchen und Geschichten8Einheit 5 Leute und Städte10Einheit 6 Computer und Internet11Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit12Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten14Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage15	五 注	测试	3
Klick auf Deutsch (Band 2)			
Einheit 1 Aussehen und Persönlichkeit4Einheit 2 Deutschland und Europa5Einheit 3 Deutsche und Ausländer6Einheit 4 Märchen und Geschichten8Einheit 5 Leute und Städte10Einheit 6 Computer und Internet11Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit12Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten14Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage15	七、	教学计划	3
Einheit 2 Deutschland und Europa5Einheit 3 Deutsche und Ausländer6Einheit 4 Märchen und Geschichten8Einheit 5 Leute und Städte10Einheit 6 Computer und Internet11Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit12Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten14Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage15	Klicl	k auf Deutsch (Band 2)	4
Einheit 3 Deutsche und Ausländer. Einheit 4 Märchen und Geschichten. Einheit 5 Leute und Städte. Einheit 6 Computer und Internet. Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit. Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten. Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage.		Einheit 1 Aussehen und Persönlichkeit.	4
Einheit 4 Märchen und Geschichten		Einheit 2 Deutschland und Europa.	5
Einheit 5 Leute und Städte10Einheit 6 Computer und Internet11Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit12Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten14Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage15		Einheit 3 Deutsche und Ausländer	6
Einheit 6 Computer und Internet. 11 Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit. 12 Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten. 14 Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage. 15		Einheit 4 Märchen und Geschichten	8
Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit			
Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten 14 Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage 15		Einheit 6 Computer und Internet	. 11
Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage		Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit.	. 12
Einheit 10 Wünsche und Sorgen		Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage	. 15
		Einheit 10 Wünsche und Sorgen.	.16

一、前言

本大纲规定了中国政法大学外国语学院英语专业二年级必修课程二外德语(二)的教学目的、教学要求、教学内容和教学原则。为组织教学、测试和教学质量评估提供依据。

该课程以基础阶段德语(一)教学大纲所规定的各项要求为起点,在对读、听、说、写、译等各项单项技能提出进一步要求的同时,强调培养学生的综合技能,充实语言知识和社会文化知识(包括有关德语国家的一般国情知识),提高语言交际能力,使学生具有扎实的语言基本功和较强的应变能力。本大纲编写人员为霍颖楠。

二、 教学对象

本大纲的教学对象是中国政法大学外国语学院英语系二年级的学生。他们通过一个学期的德语 学习已经掌握了基本的德语语法和词汇,具有听说读写的基本技能和初步的语言交际能力。

三、课程教学目的和基本要求

主要培养学生具有一定的阅读能力,并同时训练学生具有一定的听、说、读、写、译的能力。使学生能借助词典及所具备的专业知识阅读原版德语资料及书刊,并能进行一般的口头和书面交际。经过短时间的适应过程能听懂用德语讲授的专业课程。

四、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程主要涉及下列几种技能的培养和训练。共72课时,每周4课时。

1. 语音:

掌握主要的发音规则,发音基本正确。掌握句子的基本语调。

2. 语法:

掌握现代德语的基本语法、词汇、句法及语篇结构方面的基本知识。熟悉并了解科技德语语法特点。

3. 词汇:

掌握单词 1500 个(包括一定数量常用词组),其中复用式掌握 700 个左右,领会式掌握 800 个左右。

4. 阅读能力:

能借助词典读懂难度与后期课文相仿的文字,以及其他一般题材的文章。略读速度为每分钟 50 -60 个单词,细读速度为每分钟 35-40 个单词,理解准确率不低于 70%。为阅读德语原版专业书刊打下扎实的基础。

5. 听的能力:

能听懂课堂和日常生活用语。能听懂内容题材较熟悉的短文和听力材料,理解准确率不低于 70 %。能听懂语言浅适的德语谈话,为听懂德语讲授的专业课打下基础。

6. 说的能力:

能进行一般的日常会话,并能就课文内容进行回答和复述。

7. 写的能力:

能就熟悉的题材,根据提示在半小时内写出100单词左右的短文,内容连贯,无重大语法错位。

8. 译的能力:

能借助词典将难度略低于课文的短文译成汉语。理解正确,译文达意,译速为每小时 250 个德语单词。能借助词典将一般内容的汉语单句或短文译成德语,理解正确,译文达意,无重大语法错误。译速为每小时 200 个汉字。

9. 正字法:

书写工整规范, 标点符号基本正确。

五. 测试

- 1. 测试是考核学生成绩、评估教学质量、检查大纲执行情况的有效手段,应具有科学性、客观性和可行性。
- 2. 测试内容以大纲规定的要求为依据,重点考核德语语言技能,同时考核德语语言知识及一般社会文化知识。

成绩评定

- 1、 期中成绩: 采用闭卷考试的方式, 占总评成绩的 30%。
- 2、 期末成绩: 采用闭卷考试的方式, 占总评成绩的 70%。

六、使用教材名称、作者及出版社

教材名称:《新编大学德语》第2册

编著者: 朱建华 尚祥华

出版社:外语教学与研究出版社

七、教学计划

Klick auf Deutsch (Band 2)

Einheit 1 Aussehen und Persönlichkeit

Vorübung: Wie sehen die Personen aus? Was tragen Sie?

- ♦ Lisa Koch: ein junges Mädchen, tragen ein blaues Kleid, nett und sympathisch
- ♦ Michael Berg: schlank, nicht sehr groß, tragen einen Anzug, eine Brille, intelligent
- ♦ Willi Meier: ein alter Mann, groß, kurze Haare, sportlich

Welcher Lehrer oder welche Lehrerin gefällt Ihnen besonders gut? Begründen Sie Ihre Meinung.

Übersicht

Einführung

Text

Ich habe gerne Unterricht bei...

Wortschatz:

sprechen + über A aufgeben + A sich Zeit nehmen + für verlassen + sich +auf A reden + über A aussehen + Adj. glauben +A mitbringen +A

Übungen

Intentionen:

Personen beschreiben

Wichtige Redemittel

Wie sieht er/sie denn aus?

Was für ein Mensch ist er/ sie?

Er/ sie ist ...

Er/ sie sieht ... aus.

Er/ sie hat...

Er ist ein Mann mit ...

Sie ist eine Frau mit...

Er/ sie trägt...

Er/ sie hat ... an.

Hörverstehen:

Die kenne ich doch!

Leseverstehen:

Ist gutes Aussehen wichtig für junge Leute?

wiegen + (A)

sich fühlen + Adj.

achten + auf A

zunehmen

sich kümmern + um A

Grammatik

- 1. Adjektivdeklination nach unbestimmtem Artikel, Possessivpronomen und "kein"
- 2. Adjektivdeklination nach Nullartikel
- 3. Kausalsatz mit "weil" / "da"
- 4. Konditionalsatz mit "wenn"

Einheit 2 Deutschland und Europa

Übersicht

Einführung

Was wissen Sie über Deutschland?

Welche Länder sind die Nachbarländer Deutschlands?

Die Bundesrepublik Deutschland

Hauptstadt Berlin
 Fläche 357 000qkm
 Ausdehnung: Nord-Süd 876 km
 West-Ost 632 km

• Einwohner 82,6 Millionen

• Bevölkerungsdichte 230 Einwohner pro qkm

Text:

In der Mitte Europas

bestehen + aus

betragen + A

Im Vergleich zu

gehören + D/ +zu

ein(es) der (am dichtesten besiedelten Länder Europas)

teilnehmen + an D

auf dem Weg +R

Übungen

Intentionen:

Vergleichen

Redemittel

```
...so...wie...
nicht so... wie...
genauso... wie.../ ebenso...wie...
...als...
nicht...als...
anders als...
im Vergleich zu...
```

Hörverstehen:

Deutsch als Muttersprache

Leseverstehen:

Überblick über die Schweiz

liegen

trennen + A + (von)

wechseln+A

ausgeben +A (+ für A)

stolz sein + auf A

Grammatik

- 1. Komparation des Adjektivs und des Adverbs
 - Vergleichen
 - A. Gleiches bewerten
 - B. Ungleiches bewerten
 - C. Absolutes bewerten
- **2.** Futur I

Einheit 3 Deutsche und Ausländer

Übersicht

Einführung

Sind sie auch der Meinung?

Amerikaner Chinesen	Deutsche
---------------------	----------

Offen	nett	humorvoll
phantasievoll	freundlich	pünktlich
		konservativ
		hilfsbereit
		ordentlich

Text:

Sind alle Deutschen so? - Ausländische Schüler über Deutsche

Wortschatz

auf/fallen

beachten + A

halten sich + an A

ziehen

sich verständigen

bezahlen

vor/bereiten sich +auf A

erledigen +A

verbessern +A

erreichen +A

Übungen

Intentionen:

Vorhaben ausdrücken

Redemittel

Was hast du morgen vor? - Ich habe vor, ...

Was machst du in den Ferien? - Ich habe die Absicht...

Was für einen Plan hast du? - Ich will...

Hast du dir etwas für heute Abend vorgenommen? - Ich plane,..., damit...

Hörverstehen:

China und Chinesen in den Augen von Hans

Leseverstehen:

Deutsche über Ausländer

auskommen + mit entstehen beitragen + zu

Grammatik

1. Infinitiv mit "zu"

Gebrauch:

- 1) als Subjekt
- 2) als Objekt
- 3) als Attribut
- 2. Finalsatz mit "damit"
- 3. Infinitivkonstruktion mit "um...zu"

不定式结构 um...zu 表示主句动作的目的或意图。不定式中的逻辑主语和主语中的主语一致,不定式结构可前置,也可后置。

Einheit 4 Märchen und Geschichten

Übersicht

Einführung

Kennen Sie diese Märchen? Welches haben Sie am liebsten gelesen?

- Der Wolf und die sieben Geißlein
- Des Kaisers neue Kleider
- Schneewittchen
- Das Mädchen, das Streichhölzer verkauf

Text: Der Wolf und die sieben Geißlein

sammeln

erkennen

fressen

verfeinern

verstecken sich

einschlafen

rufen

geschehen

bewegen sich

schneiden +A

ausschlafen

beugen

ertrinken

passieren

begegnen+D

aufsetzen

beenden

mitnehmen

aufräumen

Intentionen:

Befehlen

Wichtige Redemittel

Lesen Sie bitte den Text!

Fahren Sie mit dem Taxi!

Kommt früher nach Hause!

Schreib mir bald!

Sei doch ruhig!

Hab doch keine Angst!

Hörverstehen:

Wie Bertolt Brecht in die nächste Klasse kam

Leseverstehen

Die chinesische Nachtigall

bewundern + A

beschreiben + A

gelangen + A

erfahren

verlangen + A+(von)

erholen sich

Grammatik

1. Präteritum

Bildung: regelmäßige Verben und unregelmäßige Verben

Gebrauch

常用于小说、童话的叙述体。.

常用于连续叙述过去发生的事情。.

2. Plusquamperfekt

Bildung: hatte/war (人称变位形式)+ P. II

Gebrauch

过去完成时用于表达过去一个动作之前发生的动作或行为。

- 3. Temporalsatz mit "als" "wenn" "nachdem" und "bis"
 - 1) als 引导时间从句,表示过去发生的一次性的行为和动作。主从句一般都用过去时。
 - 2) wenn 引导时间从句,表示过去多次发生的行为和动作或现在、将来一次或多次发生的行为和动作。
 - 3) nachdem

	主句	从句
时态	现在时	现在完成时

过去时	过去完成时

4) bis 引导的时间从句表示主句动作延续到从句动作发生为止。提问用 bis wann.

Einheit 5 Leute und Städte

Übersicht

Einführung

Schauen Sie bitte die Bilder auf Seite 96.

Wer sind sie?

Kennen Sie die Städte von der Seite 97?

Haben Sie früher schon von Bonn, Frankfurt und Wolfburg gehört?

Welche berühmte Deutsche und welche deutsche Städte kennen Sie noch?

Text: Berühmte Deutsche und ihre Städte

Wortschatz

zur Welt kommen

jds. Namen tragen

sich etwas leisten können

benannt + nach

Übungen

Intentionen:

zeitliche Angaben ausdrücken

Redemittel

Wann? Im Jahre
Wie lange? Am ...
Von wann bis wann? Im ...
Seit wann? Als...

Ab wann? Mit ... Jahren

Von ... bis...

Seit...

Ab...

Zuerst ..., dann ...

Hörverstehen:

Wie war es in Deutschland

Leseverstehen

München – Stadt an der Isar

fühlen + sich eintreten entwickeln + sich nach wie vor

Grammatik:

Relativsatz

Relativpronomen

m s bi onom	CII			
	m	n	f	Pl.
N	der	das	die	die
G	dessen	dessen	deren	deren
D	dem	dem	der	denen
A	den	das	die	die

注:

- 1) 关系从句由关系代词引导。关系代词的性和数与它所限定的名词一致,格取决于它在从句中的句法地位。
- 2) 关系代词在从句中如受介词支配,介词位于其前面。

Relativsatz mit "wo"

由 wo 引导的关系从句说明地点,一般用于国家或城市等专有名词后。

Einheit 6 Computer und Internet

Übersicht

Einführung

Frage: Was kann man mit dem Computer machen?

Antworten: eine Arbeit schreiben, E-Mails schicken, Nachrichten lesen, Bilder zeichnen, den Text bearbeiten, im Internet surfen, Leute im Internet kennen lernen usw.

Text: So habe ich angefangen

interessieren + A/ sich + für treffen + A/ sich + mit

Übungen

Intention:

sachlich erklären

Redemittel

Was für ein Gerät ist das? Was für eine Maschine ist das? Was ist das? Was macht man mit ...?

Können Sie mir mal erklären, was das ist?

Kannst du mir sagen, was...

Das ist ein Gerät, mit dem...

Das ist eine Maschine, mit der....

Das ist ein Apparat, mit dem...

Man kann damit...

Hörverstehen

Der Computer macht mir Spaß

Fragen

Wer ist die Hauptrolle?

Worüber sprechen die Frau und der Junge

Was macht der Junge mit dem Computer?

Leseverstehen

Willkommen in der digitalen Welt

bieten (+D) + A

kriegen + A

Grammatik

Passiv (I)

- 1. Bildung
- A. 被动态的现在时:
- B. 被动态的过去时:
- C. 被动态的现在完成时
- D. 被动态的过去完成时
- E. 被动态的将来时
- F. 带情态动词的被动态
- G. 带情态助动词的被动态(过去时)
- 2. Gebrauch
- A. 被动句强调动作或行为,主语是动作或行为的承受者。原来主动句中的第四格宾语在被动句中变为主语。
- B. 在被动态的句子中如需表明动作的发出者,由介词 von 带出(多用于人);表示动作的原由或起因,由介词 durch 带出(多用于物)。

Einheit 7 Beruf und Arbeit

Übersicht

Einführung

Wer macht was?

Krankenschwester die Reisegruppe begleiten

Kaufmann Autos reparieren
Kfz-Mechaniker Geschäfte machen

Reiseleiterin den Kranken Spritzen geben

Text: Sind Sie mit Ihrem Beruf zufrieden?

Wortschatz

zufrieden + mit

übernehmen + A

Lust haben + zu

das Abitur machen

auskommen + mit

darüber hinaus

Intentionen:

Wiedersprüche ausdrücken

Redemittel

obwohl ...

..., trotzdem...

Trotz...

..., aber...

...zwar ..., aber

..., dennoch...

..., allerdings ...

Hörverstehen:

Jugendliche und Ihre Berufswünsche

Leseverstehen:

Traumberuf sind ganz selten

beginnen + (mit)

empfinden + A + als

abbrechen + A

entfernt + von

Grammatik

1. Konzessivsatz mit "obwohl"

由 obwohl (尽管,虽然)引导让步从句。

II. Infinitivkonstruktionen mit "haben ... zu" und "sein...zu"

haben + zu 和 sein + zu 结构通常表示必要性或可能性。haben + zu 具有主动意义。 sein + zu 则具有被动意义。相当于带有情态动词 müssen, sollen 或 können 的主动句和被动句,其确切意思应视上、下文而定。

III. Infinitivkonstruktion mit "scheinen ... zu"

scheinen + zu 构成复合谓语, 其含义为"似乎", "好像"。

Einheit 8 Studium und Studenten

Übersicht

Einführung

Wo sind die Studenten? Was machen sie da? Ordnen Sie zu.

Bild 1 in der Werkstatt ein Seminar haben

Bild 2 in der Bibliothek eine Vorlesung besuchen Bild 3 im Klassenzimmer ein Praktikum machen

Bild 4 im Hörsaal Bücher lesen

Text: Ein Brief aus Heidelberg

Wortschatz

vorankommen

seitdem

aufbauen

herausgeben

zusammenstellen

aufarbeiten

Übungen

Intentionen:

Folgen schildern

- ... so..., dass...
- ..., so dass...
- ..., daher/darum...
- ..., deshalb/deswegen...

Hörverstehen:

Eine chinesische Studentin in Deutschland

Leseverstehen:

eine Niederländerin erzählt

beschließen

klappen

sich spezialisieren

bereuen

Grammatik

I Konsekutivsatz mit "so …, dass" oder "so dass"
II Temporalsatz mit "bevor", "während" und "seitdem"
III Adversativsatz mit "während"

Einheit 9 Feste und Feiertage

Übersicht

Einführung

Welche Karte ist für welches Fest und für welchen Feiertag? Welche Feste und Feiertage haben Sie am liebsten? Warum?

Text

Feste und Feiertage in Deutschland

Wortschatz

schmücken +A anzünden +A sich versammeln verteilen +A + an A stürmen +A sich verkleiden

Übungen

Intentionen:

Glückwunsche zu Festen und Feiertage äußern

Frohe Weihnachten!

Frohes Fest und guten Rutsch ins neue Jahr!

Ein gutes neues Jahr!

Prosit Neujahr!

Frohe Ostern!

Ein schönes Frühlingsfest!

Frohes Fest!

Hörverstehen:

Advent, Advent, ein Lichtlein brennt...

Leseverstehen:

Chinesische traditionelle Feiertage

berechnen +A

vertreiben +A veranstalten +A leuchten

Grammatik

I Pronominaladverb

1. Bildung

da +(r) Präp. Wo +(r) Präp damit womit dabei wobei dafür wofür davon wovon daran woran darüber worüber darauf worauf darum worum

- 2. Gebrauch
 - A. 指示代副词可用来指代前面某一个句子成分或整个句子。
 - B. 指示代副词还可用来指代后面的从句或带 zu 的不定式结构。
 - C. 疑问代副词可作为疑问副词用来提问。

II Passiv (II)

- 1. Das unpersönliche Passiv
- 2. Zustandspassiv

Einheit 10 Wünsche und Sorgen

Übersicht

Einführung

Haben die Leute und der Vogel noch andere Wünsche und Sorgen? Welche vielleicht? Was sind die üblichen Wünsche und Sorgen von uns Menschen?

Text:

Brief an die Bewohner der Erde

besitzen +A

beobachten +A

fürchten

töten +A

zerstören +A

merken +A

aussterben

herstellen +A

Übungen

Intentionen:

Wünsche und Sorgen ausdrücken

Redemittel

Ich wäre sehr glücklich, wenn...

Ich hätte gern...

Es wäre schön, wenn ...

Ich würde mich sehr freuen, wenn ...

Wenn ich ..., dann würde ich ...

Wäre es möglich, dass ...?

Hörverstehen: Wenn ich an der Macht wäre, würde ich...

Leseverstehen:

Wünsche an den Weihnachtsmann sich bemühen + um A überleben erfüllen +A

Grammatik

Konjunktiv II

1. Bildung

第二虚拟式包括过去时虚拟式,过去完成时虚拟式和 würde +动词不定式形式。

- A 过去时虚拟式的构成
- B 过去完成时虚拟式的构成
- C würde+动词不定式形式的构成
- 2. Gebrauch
- A 非现实愿望句
- B 非现实条件句
- C 时间表达

《德语(三)》 教学大纲

霍颖楠 编写

目 录

—,	前言	2
_,	教学对象	2
	课程教学目的和基本要求	
四、	课程主要内容及学时分配	2
五.	测试	2
	使用教材名称、作者及出版社	
七、	教学计划	3
	k auf Deutsch (Band 3)	
	Einheit 1 Liebe	
	Einheit 2 Mode.	5
	Einheit 3 Jugendliche	6
	Einheit 4 Freizeit in Deutschland.	8
	Einheit 5 Studieren in Deutschland	9
	Einheit 6 Familie und Gesellschaft	10
	Einheit 7 Gesunde Ernährung.	11
	Einheit 8 Umweltschutz und ich	12
	Einheit 9 Der dritte Lebensabschnitt.	14
	Einheit 10 Städte und Häuser	15

一、前言

本大纲规定了中国政法大学外国语学院英语专业三年级选修课程二外德语(三)的教学目的、教学要求、教学内容和教学原则。为组织教学、测试和教学质量评估提供依据。

该课程以基础阶段德语(一)和德语(二)教学大纲所规定的各项要求为起点,在对读、听、说、写、译等各项单项技能提出进一步要求的同时,强调培养学生的综合技能,充实语言知识和社会文化知识(包括有关德语国家的一般国情知识),提高语言交际能力,使学生具有扎实的语言基本功和较强的应变能力。本大纲编写人员为霍颖楠。

二、教学对象

本大纲的教学对象是中国政法大学外国语学院英语系三年级学生。他们通过两个个学期的德语学习已经掌握了基本的德语语法和词汇,具有听说读写的基本技能和初步的语言交际能力,并且希望进一步拓展自己的语言能力。

三、课程教学目的和基本要求

培养学生具有一定的阅读能力,同时具有初步听、说、写、译的能力,能用德语交流较简单的信息。德语二外教学应注重打好学生的语言基础理论,提高文化素养,以适应社会发展和经济建设的需求。

四、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程主要涉及下列几种技能的培养和训练。共72课时,每周4课时。

听力能力要求能听懂题材熟悉、结构简单、生词一般不超过 2%的听力材料的主要内容及重要细节(约 100 词/分)。学会简单的日常会话,能简要回答就课文内容所提出的较为复杂的问题。

语法部分要求掌握主从复合句的结构和成分(II);掌握不定式和分词的基本用法;能识别、应用语篇中的前指和后指成分。

语汇部分要求复用式掌握 300 词, 累计数 1100 词, 领会式掌握 300 词, 累计数掌握 650, 共计 1750 词。

写作能力要求能写出结构较为复杂的句子,并能联句成段。

五. 测试

- 1. 测试是考核学生成绩、评估教学质量、检查大纲执行情况的有效手段,应具有科学性、客观性和可行性。
- 2. 测试内容以大纲规定的要求为依据,重点考核德语语言技能,同时考核德语语言知识及一般社会文化知识。

成绩评定

1、 期中成绩: 采用闭卷考试的方式, 占总评成绩的 30%。

2、 期末成绩: 采用闭卷考试的方式, 占总评成绩的 70%。

六、使用教材名称、作者及出版社

教材名称:《新编大学德语》第3册

编著者: 朱建华 尚祥华

出版社:外语教学与研究出版社

七、教学计划

Klick auf Deutsch (Band 3)

Einheit 1 Liebe

Einführung

Bild 1: Ich liebe meine Frau. Ich liebe meinen Mann.

Bild 2: Ich liebe meine Freundin.

Bild 3: Ich liebe meine Frau, meinen Sohn und meine Enkelkinder.

Bild 4: Ich liebe meinen Hund.

Text: Liebesgedichte

Wortschatz:

verschliessen + A

verlieren +A

wirken + auf A

faszinieren +A

definieren +A

beruehren +A

nennen +A+A

verletzen +A

beweisen +A

ueberwinden +A

rechnen +mit D

zumuten +D+A

Übungen

 $\textbf{Intention:} \ Vermutungen \ ausdr\"{u}cken(1)$

Irreales vergleichen

Wichtige Redemittel

- ...scheinen...zu...
- ...anscheinend...
- ...so tun, als ob...
- ...so redden, als ob...

Es scheint, als ob...

Hörverstehen: Ein Telefongespräch

Leseverstehen: Plötzlich hat es "klick" gemacht

nutzen +A

leeren +A

anklicken +A

versprechen +A

zusagen

ueberreichen (+D)+A

kuessen +A

Grammatik:

- I. Irrealer Vergleichssatz mit "als ob"
- II. Relativsatz mit "was" und "wer"
- III. Modalsatz mit "indem" oder "dadurch, dass..."

Übungen

Vokabeln

Einheit 2 Mode

Einführung

- 1. Welche der Kleidungsstuecke tragen Frauen und welche tragen Maenner?
- 2. Was tragen Sie oft, manchmal, am liebsten, nie?

Text: Modeberatung

Wortschatz

beurteilen+A

entscheiden +A (sich + fuer A)

passen (+D) + zu D

kombinieren + A + mit D

beeinflussen +A

lassen +A + Inf.

kommunizieren +mit D

erregen + A

garantieren (+D)+A

distanzieren sich + von D

Übungen

Intention: Komplimente machen und darauf reagieren

Wichtige Redemittel

Sie sehen heute attraktiv aus

elegant

schick

wunderschoen

phantastisch

Danke fuer das Kompliment. Danke, das ist nett von dir.

Hörverstehen: Was ist Mode?

Leseverstehen: Levi Strauss und die Erfindung der Jeans

entschliessen sich (+zu D)

gruenden +A

benoetigen +A

verstaerken +A

einfuehren +A

bezeichnen +A+als A

hinzukommen

sterben

Grammatik:

I. Der Konjunktiv II zum Ausdruck der Höflichkeit

Mit dem Konjunktiv II kann man Bitten, Fragen, Ratschlaege und Wuenschehoeflich ausdruecken

II. Der Gebrauch von "es"

- 1. es als Pronomen
- 2. es als Subjekt dor Objekt bei unpersoenlichen Verben
- 3. es als Platzhalter
- 4. Verkuerzte Formen von es

5.

Übungen

Vokabeln

Einheit 3 Jugendliche

Einführung

- 1. Was ist typisch fuer Jugendliche? Bilden Sie Saetze zu den Bildern
- 2. Was ist Ihrer Meinung nach typisch fuer Jugendliche?

Text: Jugend 2002

Wortschatz

durchfuehren +A

befragen +A

betreffen +A

anstreben +A

angeben +A

ausschliessen +A

verkoerpern +A

feststellen +A

engagieren sich + in D

einsetzen sich + fuer A

erzielen +A

beteiligen sich + an D

erwarten +A

Übungen

Intention: etwas begründen

Wichtige Redemittel

Warum...? weil... Darum...

Weshalb...? denn... Deshalb...

Weswegen...? da... Deswegen...

Hörverstehen: Jugend ist ...

Leseverstehen: Das Handy: Kommunikationsmittel und Statussymbol

laut + D/G

melden sich

sorgen sich +um A

beeintraechtigen

warnen +A+vor D

reagieren + auf A

besorgen (+D)+A

eignen sich als A

durchreichen +A

aufessen +A

entdecken +A

Grammatik:

- I. Partizip I
- 1. Bildung: Das Partizip I wird gebildet aus Infinitiv +d
- 2. Gebrauch
- a)Partizip I als Attribut
- b)Partizip I als Angabe
- c)Partizip I als Nomen

II. Partizip II

Gebrauch

- a) Partzip II als Attribut
- b)Partizip II als Nomen

Übungen

Vokabeln

Einheit 4 Freizeit in Deutschland

Einführung

- 1. Was machen die Personen auf den Fotos? Wie heissen die Freizeitbeschaeftigungen?
- 2. Welche anderen Freizeitbeschaeftigungen kennen Sie?
- 3. Welche Freizeitbeschaeftigungen interessieren Sie besonders? Warum?

Text: Über das Vereinsleben in Deutschland — Ein Bericht von Zhang Min Wortschatz

knuepfen +A (+an A)

vergessen +A

behaupten +A

besagen +A

ueberqueren +A

bremsen +A

entgegen/blicken +D

Übungen

Intention: etwas indirekt wiedergeben, was andere sagen

Wichtige Redemittel

Er/sie/es/man sagt, erklaert, meint, glaubt, behauptet, berichtet...

In der Zeitung steht,...

In dem/einem Artikel wird behauptet/geschrieben,...

Die Statistik besagt,...

Hörverstehen: Dürfen Jugendliche ihre Freizeit selber planen?

Leseverstehen: Schulsport

ausfallen

hervorrufen +A

beruecksichtigen+A

gelten +D/+fuer A/+als A

gestalten +A

gewaehren +A

vernachlaessigen +A

schaden +D

abbauen +A

Grammatik: Konjunktiv I

- 1. Bildung
- a) Konjunktiv I der Gegenwart
- b) Konjunktiv I der Vergangenheit
- c) Konjunktiv I der Zukunft
- 2. Gebrauch

Der Konjunktiv I wird fuer die indirekte Rede verwendet, in der Regel nur in der Schriftsprache. In der gesprochenen Sprache benutzt man stattdessen vor allem Konjunktiv II.

Übungen

Vokabeln

Einheit 5 Studieren in Deutschland

Einführung

- 1. Was sehen Sie auf den vier Bildern?
- 2. Welche Faecher sind sehr beliebt?
- 3. Fuer welche Faecher interessieren Sie sich?

Text: Ein Bewerbungsschreiben

Wortschatz

Verfuegen + ueber A anerkennen +A

beherrschen +A

abschicken +A

ueberweisen (+D)+A

werfen +A

nachschauen +A

erkundigen sich +nach D

Übungen

Intention: Beim Vorstellungsgespräch über sich selbst erzählen

Ich wurde am...in... geboren.

Ich bin...(ledig/verheiratet/geschieden).

Mein Vater ist... von Beruf.

arbeitet als...

Meine Mutter ist... von Beruf.

arbeitet als...

Ich moechte in Deutschland an der...studieren, weil...

Hörverstehen: Ein paar Semester im Ausland studieren - warum?

Leseverstehen: Hochschulen in Deutschland

```
klaeren +A
erwerben +A
qualifizieren +A
verlangen +A (+vonD)
```

Grammatik:

- I. Nebensätze mit " (an)statt dass" und "ohne dass",

 Infinitivkonstruktionen " (an)statt ...zu" und "ohnen...zu"
- II. "brauchen" als Modalverb

Übungen

Vokabeln

Einheit 6 Familie und Gesellschaft

Einführung

- 1. Beschreiben Sie die verschiedenen Familien. Welche gefaellt Ihnen besser? Warum?
- 2. Welche der Familien wohnt Ihrer Meinung nach in diesem Wohnhaus?
- 3. Welche Vor- und Nachteile hat das Wohnen in einem solchen Haus?

Text: Wand an Wand

```
zusammentreffen + mit D
angehen +A
zugeben +A
uebelnehmen (+D) +A
erinnern +A/sich + an A
klingeln
hinlegen sich
gestehen (+A)
aergerlich + ueber A
ueberzeugen +A (+von D)
herrschen (+ueberA)
vorbeigehen + an D
hinzufuegen (+D)+A
```

beschweren sich +ueber A

Übungen

wecken +A

Intention:

I. Vermutungen ausdrücken (II)

II. Distanziert von etwas berichten

Wichtige Redemittel

Er

Sie muss/muesste/duerfte/wird wohl/koennte/kann/mag.....sein/haben/gewesen sein.

Es

Er/sie/es soll/will.....sein/haben/gewesen sein/gehabt haben.

Hörverstehen: Drei verschiedene Lebensformen Leseverstehen: Zwischen Kind und Karriere

ergreifen+A

mangeln (+D)+an D

verzichten + auf A

Grammatik:

- I. Modalverben und "werden" zur subjektiven Aussage
- 1. Vermutung
- a) Gegenwart
- b) Vergangenheit
- 2. Distanzierter Bericht—sollen und wollen
- II. Futur II
- 1. Bildung werden + Partizip II +sein/haben
- 2. Gebrauch Zur Bezeichnung eines Geschehens, das in der Zukunft abgeschlossen ist.

Übungen

Vokabeln

Einheit 7 Gesunde Ernährung

Einführung

- 1. Welche der Lebensmittel und Getraenke auf Seite 150 essen und trinken Sie gern?
- 2. Welche sind Ihrer Meinung nach gesund und welche ungesund?

Text: Vollwertig essen und trinken – Die 10 Regeln der DGE

enthalten +A

garen +A

versorgen +A

foerdern

liefern (+D)+A

verursachen +A

schonen +A

verhindern +A

verdauen +A

Übungen

Intention: Bedingungen ausdrücken

Wichtige Redemittel

Wie ...? Wenn... Es haengt davon ab,...
Unter welcher Bedingung...? Falls... Es kommt darauf an,...

Bei

Hörverstehen: Essen Sie gern Schokolade?

Leseverstehen: Fastfood

gleichsetzen +A+ mitD

fuehren +zu D

ausgleichen +A

bewerten +A

Grammatik:

- I. Vergleichssätze
- 1. Vergleichssätze mit je...desto/um so
- 2. Vergleichssätze mit wie und als
- II. Negation
- 1. Negation eines Satzes
- a) am Ende des Satzes
- b) vor dem zweiten Teil des Verbs
- c) bei trennbaren Verben vor dem Praefix
- d) vor Praepositionalergaenzung
- e) vor qualitativen Ergaenzungen
- 2. Negation eines Satzteils
- 3. Negation von Artikeln, Pronomen und Adverbien

Übungen

Vokabeln

Einheit 8 Umweltschutz und ich

Einführung

- 1. Sortieren Sie den Muell
- 2. Wie gehen Sie mit diesem Muell um?

Text: Umwelttipps

Wortschatz

sortieren + A

verschwenden +A

mitmachen

zudrehen +A

reihen +A

wickeln +A+um A

wegwerfen +A

verbrennen +A

vermeiden +A

pressen +A

Übungen

Intention: Ratschläge geben

Wichtige Redemittel

Lassen Sie

Lass das Wasser nie ungenutzt laufen.

Lasst

Sie sollten

Du solltest das Wasser nie ungenutzt laufen lassen.

Man sollte

An Ihrer/deiner Stelle

Wenn ich Sie/du waere, wuerde ich...

Hörverstehen: Was machen wir mit dem Plastikbechermüll?

Leseverstehen: Müll vermeiden – aber wie?

verfolgen +A

voraussetzen +A

wiederverwerten +A

herstellen +A

funktionieren

verbrauchen +A

erzeugen +A

bevorzugen +A

verpacken +A

entwerfen +A

entlasten +A

signalisieren (+D)+A

vergeben +A

ueberdenken +A

Grammatik:

- I. Das Verb "lassen"
- 1.lassen als selbstaendiges Verb
- a) Praesens
- b) Perfekt
- 2. lassen als Modalverb
 - a) Praesens
- b) Perfekt
- II. Das Perfekt der Modalverben
- 1. Modalverben als selbstaendige Verben
- 2. Modalverben in Kombination mit anderen Verben

Übungen

Vokabeln

Einheit 9 Der dritte Lebensabschnitt

Einführung

- 1. Was machen die Personen?
- 2. Was verstehen Sie unter dem dritten Lebensabschnitt?

Text: Das Seniorenstudium

Wortschatz

ermoeglichen +D+A

belegen +A

ausscheiden + aus D

auffrischen +A

anmelden sich +A

reservieren +A + fuer A

begrenzen +A

vergiessen +A

ekeln sich vor D

hinuebersehen +zu D

festhalten +A

zerbrechen +A

schimpfen +A(auf/ueber A)

Übungen

Intention: Interesse ausdrücken

Wichtige Redemittel

Woran/An wem haben Sie Interesse? Ich habe Interesse an...

Was interessiert Sie? Es interessiert mich, ob/warum/wozu...

Worduer/Fuer wen interessieren Sie sich? Ich interessiere mich fuer...

Worduer/Fuer wen interessieren Sie sich? Ich interessiere mich fuer...

Ich bin interessiert an...

Hörverstehen: Ein Märchen von den Brüdern Grimm Leseverstehen: Schiwiegermutter und Schwiegertochter

austrinken +A
packen +A
beruhigen +A
respektieren +A
veraergern +A durch A
zurechtkommen + mit
quaelen +A

Grammatik:

- I. Passiv
- 1. Vorgangspassiv
- a) Bildung
- b) Gebrauch
- 2. Zustandspassiv
- a) Bildung
- b) Gebrauch

II. Passiversatzformen

Bildung und Bedeutung

- i. sein + Adjektiv auf –bar
- ii. sich lassen + Infinitiv
- iii. sein + zu + Infinitiv
- iv. man + Verb in Aktivform (+Akkusativ)

Übungen

Vokabeln

Einheit 10 Städte und Häuser

Einführung

- 1. Wie heissen die Bauten und wo stehen sie?
- 2. Welche davon kennen Sie? Berichten Sie.

Text: Die Stadt Berlin

Wortschatz

vergroessern sich/+A

ausrufen +A

aufteilen +A / in A

verwalten +A

vereinigen +A/sich

aufbauen +A

praesentieren sich +als

praegen +A

renovieren +A

bluehen

zurueckreichen +in A

Übungen

Intention: Die Lage eines Ortes beschreiben

Wichtige Redemittel

- ...im Norden/Sueden/Osten/Westen von...
- ...Nordosten/Nordwesten von...
- ...Suedosten/Suedwesten von...
- ...in der Naehe von...
- ...nicht weit von...
- ...weit weg von...
- ...km von...entfernt
- ...bei...
- ...zwischen...und...

Woran grenzt...?

An welche/n/s...grenzt...?

Hörverstehen: Bauwerke machen Geschichte

Leseverstehen: Die Stadt Shanghai

grenzen + an A

muenden + in A

durchfliessen +A

bestaetigen +A

befreien +A (+von D)

Grammatik:

Funktionsvergefüge

- 1. Funktionsvergefüge sind feste Gefüge aus Nomen + Funktionsverb
- 2. Das Verb nennt man Funktionsverb, weil es in dieser Verbindung seine Bedeutung ganz oder zum Teil verloren und nur noch eine grammatische Funktion hat.
- 3. Das Nomen ist immer von einem Verb abgeleitet.

- 4. Funktionsvergefüge haben moistens die gleiche Bedeutung wie das Verb, von dem das Substantiv abgeleitet ist.
- 5. Funktionsvergefüge wirken offizieller als die entsprechenden einfachen Verben. Sie werden vor allem in der Verwaltungs-, Nachrichten-, Fach-und Wissenschaftssprache gebraucht.

Übungen

Vokabeln

《德语(四)》 教学大纲

李小龙 编写

目 录

-,	前言	2
_,	课程教学目的和基本要求	2
	课程主要内容及学时分配	
四、	相关教学环节	2
五、	使用教材	2
	教学参考书	
Klick auf Deutsch 4		4
	Einheit 1 Lerntechniken	4
	Einheit 2 Fußball – Ein Spiel geht um die Welt	6
	Einheit 3 Das Geheimnis guter Erholung.	8
	Einheit 4 Fernsehen oder lesen?	. 10
	Einheit 5 Menschen im Netz.	. 12
	Einheit 6 Interkulturelle Verständigung.	. 13
	Einheit 7 Arbeitssuche und Qualifikationen.	
	Einheit 8 Werbung und Medien	
	Einheit 9 Reisen und Verkehr.	18
	Einheit 10 Technik und Fortschritt.	

一、前言

德语(四)为外国语学院英语专业三年级学生的专业选修课。

作为第二外语的学习,在之前三册书的基础之上学生已经掌握德语基本的语法,在继续强化学生的听说训练和口语交际活动时,同时逐步加大阅读量,进一步提高阅读、翻译、写作等方面的综合运用能力。让学生在掌握基本德语能力后,也具有自我学习的能力,可以通过自学进一步提高自己的德语水平。

本大纲编写人员为李小龙。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

德语(四)课程的教学目的包括:

- 1. 培养学生的语感、使其能够用德语方式思维、顺利地实现德语和汉语两种思维方式的切换:
- 2. 使学生能够听较为复杂的德语会话,理解正确并且掌握其中心大意,抓住要点和有关细节,并能对对话的主要内容进行复述
 - 3. 学生的词汇量要完全达到《大学德语六级考试》的要求
- 4. 使学生能够进行日常生活会话和涉外会话, 能够就教材内容进行回答和复述, 能够就所熟悉的话题经准备后作简短发言, 表达思想较清楚, 语音语调基本正确;
 - 5. 使学生准确地理解并掌握语法、对德语的构词法有比较清楚地认识,为自学德语打好基础。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程开设一学期,共4学分,课内学时为72学时,每周4学时。

以"单元"(Einheit)为单位进行讲解,每单元计划课时为 6 课时。如需扩充知识或文章较难,可以适当增加学时。

四、相关教学环节

德语课程教学使用多媒体等现代化教学手段。除了课堂讲解之外,还会有选择性地给学生播放 德语录像、德语电影片断、德语经典歌曲,力求寓教于乐。

本课程以学生为主体,在课堂上使用单人练习、双人练习以及小组讨论等多种练习形式。注重调动学生的积极性,同学们相互学习、相互纠正,教师点评,收到积极成效。

此外还强调"授之以渔"的原则,除了传授语言知识,训练语言能力以外,还注重培养学生的自学能力。这样,学生在学完"二外德语"课程后可以凭借正确的学习方法和良好的学习习惯,通过自学进一步提高自己的德语水平。

五、使用教材

朱建华主编:《新编大学德语 4》(Klick auf Deutsch),外语教学与研究出版社,最新版

六、教学参考书

- 1) Michaela Perlmann-Balme, 《新标准德语强化教程 3》, 外语教学与研究出版社, 最新版。
- 2) Albert Daniels,《走遍德国中级 1》,外语教学与研究出版社,最新版。
- 3) 方建国等:《新求精德语强化教程中级1》同济大学出版社,最新版。
- 4) 姚宝、过文英:《当代德国社会与文化》,上海外语教育出版社,最新版
- 5) 刘芳本、叶本度:《莱茵浪花—德国社会面面观》,外语教学与研究出版社,最新版
- 6) 《德国概况》, 大使馆赠书, 最新版

Klick auf Deutsch 4

Einheit 1 Lerntechniken

Übersicht:

In dieser Einheit geht es um das Thema Lerntechniken. Die Studenten können anhand dieser Einheit die wichtigen Lernmethoden lernen und herausfinden, welche Methode für eigenes Studium noch mehr geeigneter ist. Mit dem Hörverstehen lernen wir auch von den Erfahrungen eines chinesischen Studenten. Im Leseverstehen werden die oft auftretenden Fehler berm Deutschlernen vorgestellt.

Einführung: Wo und wie kann man neues Wissen erwerben?

Die Studenten können anhand der Bilder mal denken, wie sie eigentlich lernen und wie ihre Lerntechnik funktioniert. Wie viel können Sie wirklich im Kopf behalten, wenn sie mit den unterschiedlichen Methoden lernen.

Text: Neues Wissen erwerben – über die Lernmethoden von Francis P. Robinson

Wie kann man neues Wissen noch besser erwerben? Und wie kann man das besser machen. In diesem Text geht es schon um diese Fragen. Die Studenten sollen diese Methoden lernen und in der Zukunft ihre Methoden verbessern. Durch diesen Text sollen die folgenden Wörter erworben werden.

Wortschatz:

anhand,

Das Gericht fällte anhand des vorliegenden Tatbestands sein Urteil

aneignen sich A,

Er eignete sich unerlaubt mehrere Bücher seines Freundes an

aufschlagen A,

ein Buch, eine Zeitung aufschlagen

erhöhen,

ein Haus (um ein Stockwerk) erhöhen

anwenden,

Gewalt anwenden; eine List, einen Trick anwenden

erscheinen.

Nach dem Regen erschien wieder die Sonne am Himmel;

lohnen sich,

jemandem seine Hilfe, Treue lohnen

beschäftigen sich mit D,

Unsere Oma beschäftigt sich viel mit ihren Enkeln

drucken A,

ableiten A,

Das Wort "Wein" leitet sich von dem lateinischen "vinum" ab

gelingen D,

Der Kuchen ist dir gut gelungen

kontrollieren,

An der Grenze werden unsere Pässe kontrolliert

behandeln A,

alle Menschen gleich behandeln

wundern,

Sein schlechtes Benehmen wunderte seine Eltern sehr

forschen

Er forscht auf dem Gebiet der Kernphysik

Intention: Ratschläge und Empfehlungen geben

Hier lernt man die Ausdrücksmöglichkeiten für Ratschläge und Empfehlungen. Die Studenten können durch die Dialoge die folgenden Redemitteln beherrschen.

Redemittel:

Ich rate dir/Ihnen, ...

Ich gebe dir/Ihnen den Rat, ...

Ich empfehle dir/Ihnen, ...

lch gebe dir/Ihnen die Empfehlung, ...

Ich halte es für sinnvoll, ...

Ich finde es wichtig, ...

Ich schlage vor, ...

Es ist sehr empfehlenswert. ...

Es ist sinnvoll, ...

Es ist effektiver/besser/leichter...

Es ist wichtig, ...

Am besten versuchst du/versuchen Sie/versucht man ...

Meiner Meinung nach solltest du/sollten Sie/sollte man ...

Am sinnvollsten ist (es), ...

Am effektivsten, besten, leichtesten, wichtigsten ist (es), ...

Hörverstehen: Eine Umfrage über das Deutschlernen

Zhang Lin ist eine Journalistin von Tong Ji Universität. Sie beschäftigt sich mit eiem Report über die Lernmethoden der chinesischen Studenten. Unterwegs hat sie den chinesischen Studenten, Li Mming, interviewt. Li Ming besucht jetzt einen Kurs in Tong Ji Universität und will in Deutschland studieren. Er hat jeden Vormittag vier Unterichtsstunden, nachmittags macht er die Hausaufgaben und wiederholt er was er gelernt hat. Am Abend liest er dann deutsche Texte und macht grammatische Übungen. Am Wochenende unterhält er sich mit Freunde im Café, die auch Deutsch lernen.

Wortschatz:

der Campus, fleißig

Leseverstehen: Meine lieben Fehler

Niemand kann Fehler während des Lernens vermeiden. Aber viele Leute können sich nicht mit den Fehlern konfrontieren. Der Text ist einem deutschen Buch entnommen und zielt darauf, wie man sich mit den Fehler umgehen soll und was man davon lernen kann.

Wortschatz:

schämen sich, protokollieren A, anschualich, anlegen A, übertragen A, vergleichen A mit, analysieren

A, bewältigen A

Grammatik:

Wortbildung durch Ableitung

- 1. Nomen aus Verben
- 2. Nomen aus Adjektiven
- 3. Adjektive aus Nomen

Einheit 2 Fußball – Ein Spiel geht um die Welt

Übersicht:

Fußball ist vielen Studenten das Lieblingshobby. In dieser Einheit beschäftigen sich die Studenten mit dem Thema "Fußball", der in Deutschland lange Tradition hat und heute immer sehr beliebt ist. Mit dem Text können sie den Erfolg und die Tatsachen über Fußball Deutschlands kennen lernen. Im Hörverstehen können die Studenten einen Report über ein Fußballspiel hören und die Atmosphäre mal erleben. Im Leseverstehen lernt man dann die Entstehung und Entwicklung vom Fußball und darüber hinaus wird auch ein bisschen über die Geschichte vom deutschen Fußball dargestellt.

Einführung: Wo fanden die Weltmeisterschaften statt? Welche Länder haben gewonnen? Bei Bildern 1 bis 8 geht es um die unterschiedlichen Symbole der Fußballweltmeisterschaft. Die Studenten sollen anhand dieser Bilder Aufgabe 1 machen und ann diskutieren, wie die Fußballweltmeisterschaft gewonnen hat.

Text: Fußball in Deutschland

Fußball ist nicht nur auf der ganzen Welt die beliebste Sportart, sondern auch in Deutschland. Fußball verbindet verschiedene Leute zusammen. Im Text lernt man, wie populär Fußball in Deutschland ist und was man mit Fußball machen kann.

Wortschatz:

kicken,

den Ball ins Tor, ins Aus kicken

legendär,

Odysseus ist eine legendäre Gestalt

geraten in A,

Wie ist denn der Brief hinter den Schrank geraten?

befinden sich,

Unter den Zuschauern befinden sich auch einige Prominente

singen,

Weihnachtslieder singen

starten,

Der Wagen lässt sich schlecht starten

stattfinden,

Das Konzert hat bereits gestern stattgefunden

schätzen,

Sie schätzte, dass die Sitzung noch zwei Stunden dauern würde

zufolge D/G,

Dem Zeugen zufolge / Seiner Aussage zufolge hatte der Radfahrer keine Schuld an dem Unfall

anziehen,

Viele Leute fühlten sich durch die Werbung angezogen

senden,

Wegen einer Programmänderung senden wir den vorgesehenen Spielfilm erst um 21 Uhr zugänglich,

Sie ist für alles, was mit Kunst zu tun hat, sehr zugänglich

die Liga,

in eine niedrigere Liga absteigen

Feierabend,

Um fünf Uhr ist in der Fabrik Feierabend

Börse.

An der New Yorker Börse fiel der Kurs des Dollars

Intention: Beispiele geben

Durch die vier Übungen sollen die Studenten die folgenden Redemittel erwerben.

Redemittel:

Zum Beispiel ...

... zum Beispiel ...

Dazu möchte ich folgende Beispiele nennen/erwähnen, nämlich ...

Als Beispiel/e ist/sind ... zu nennen/zu erwähnen.

Als Beispiel/e fällt/fallen mir ... ein.

Diese Redemittel kann man nicht nur in der Umgangsprache benutzen, sondern auch in der schriftlichen Sprache.

Hörverstehen: Fußballreportage

Der Text ist eine Übertragung des deutschen Fußballspiels. Weil das Tempo sehr schnell ist, sollen sich die Studenten vor dem Hören mit den Fachwörter im Fußballspiel vertrautmachen..

Wortschatz:

Pfeilen, zugehen auf A, detonieren, schießen (A)

Leseverstehen: Zur Geschichte des Fußballspiels

Im Text geht es um die Informationen über Fußball. Wann ist Fußball entstanden und wie sich der entwickelt. China ist die Heitmat des Fußballs, im 4. Jahrhundert vor Christus gab es in China schon ähnliche Sportart. Aber der moderne Fußball stammt aus England.

Wortschatz:

Profi, ausüben, damalig, ablenken A, vertiefen A, austragen A, unterzeichnen A, ausrichten A, gültig, registrieren, siegen (über)

Grammatik: Nominalisierung und Verbalisierung

Im Nominalstil überwiegen nominale Ausdrücke, d.h. Ausdrücke mit Substantiven. Die Substantive

sind die Bedeutungsträger, während die Verben hier wenig Eigenbedeutung haben.

Den Nominalstil verwendet man vor allem in der Fach- und Wissenschaftssprache sowie in Medien. Der Verbalstil ist lebendiger und wird in erzählenden Texten und in Unterhaltungen bevorzugt.

- 1. Aktivsätze
- a) ohne Objekt
- b) mit Objekt
- 2. Passivsätze
- 3. "sein" Adjektiv

Einheit 3 Das Geheimnis guter Erholung

Übersicht:

Das Hauptthema dieser Einheit lautet, wie man sich gut erholen kann. Im Text geht es um die Erholung und die Aktivitäten bei der Erholung. Das Hörverstehen behandelt das Schlafen und vermittelt, wie man gut schlafen kann. Im Leseverstehn handelt es sich auch um Schlafen, und zwar um die neue Regel der Mittagspause im Büro.

Einführung: Bei welchen Aktivitäten kann man sich gut erholen?

Die Bilder zeigen die möglichen Freizeitaktivitäten. Die Studenten machen zuerst die Übung und erzählen dann die Bilder 1 bis 8. Zu jedem Bilder sollen sie einen Satz sagen. Wenn es möglich ist, können sie auch Partnerarbeit machen und benutzen sie dann die Fragwörter wann, wo, wer, wie, warum.

Text: Wie funktioniert Erholung eigentlich?

Erholung bedeutet nicht "nichts tun". Was kann man machen, um sich abzuholen? Im Text findet man dann die Antworten und am Ende wieder betont, dass rechtzeitige Pause für das Leben und die Arbeit sehr wichtig ist.

Wortschatz:

hinsetzen A/sich,

Setz dich dort aufs Sofa hin!

Verlauf,

Zum typischen Verlauf dieser Krankheit gehört hohes Fieber

entspannen sich/A,

Manche Leute können sich nur beim Fernsehen entspannen

geeignet für.

Bücher sind immer als Geschenk geeignet; Sie ist für schwere Arbeit nicht geeignet

anregen A,

Sie regte an, das Haus zu verkaufen

konzentrieren A/sich auf A,

Wir müssen unsere Anstrengungen darauf konzentrieren, eine höhere Produktivität zu erreichen

tanken (A),

Ich muss noch (30 Liter) tanken

zwingen A zu,

Er zwang uns, ihm Geld zu geben

erstaunlicherweise,

Das Stadion war bei gutem warmem Wetter e. nicht einmal zur Hälfte besetzt

ausschlafen,

Morgen früh sollst du mich nicht wecken, da will ich endlich einmal ausschlafen

beibehalten A,

Die Regierung behielt ihren bisherigen politischen Kurs bei

erkranken,

ernstlich, schwer, an einer Lungenentzündung erkranken

überlasten,

die Autobahn ist total überlastet

Intention: Vor etwas warnen und von etwas abraten

Die Variationsübungen von 1 bis 3 bieten die Möglichkeiten, diese Redemittel auswendig zu lernen und im Alltag anzuwenden. Wenn die Zeit knapp ist, können Sie Ü 2 bis 3 auch nach dem Unterricht als Hausaufgaben machen.

Ich warne Sie vor...

Ich möchte Sie davor warnen, ...

Passen Sie auf ... auf.

Achten Sie auf ...

Es schadet..., wenn...

... schadet/schaden ...

Es ist nicht gut, dass/wenn ...

... kann/können dazu fuhren, dass .

lch rate Ihnen/dir davon ab, ...

Wenn ich Ihnen/dir einen guten Rat geben darf, ...

Vermeiden Sie nach Möglichkeit ...

... bringt/bringen Stress.

Es ist gefährlich, dass/wenn ...

Hörverstehen: Schlafen Sie gut!

Es ist ein Programm zwischen dem Arzt und den Patienten über das Schalfen. Die Patienten stellen unterschiedliche Fragen über das Schlafen und die werden nacheinander beantwortet.

Vor dem Hören kann der Lehrer auch ähnliche Fragen stellen.

Die Studenten sollen nach dem Text mehr über das Themen Schlafen können.

Wortschatz:

Verarbeiten, tagsüber, liegen an D, ideal, scharchen, spannend

Leseverstehen: Ein Nickerchen im Büro fördert Leistung

In dem Text geht um das neue eingeführte Mittagspausensystem in Niedersachsen. Die Beamten sollen währende der Pause ungefähr 15 Minuten nickern. Nachher stellt man fest, dass man mit dem Nickerchen besser arbeiten und konzentrieren kann. Aber manche Leute meinen auch, dass ein Nickerchen im Büro vielleicht mehr Kritik oder Unvertrauen mitbringen kann.

Wortschatz:

dösen, durchsetzen A/sich, erbringen A, praktizieren A, kritisieren A, vermitteln A, attraktiv, nachgeben

Grammatik. Bildung von Substantivkomposita

1. Komposita ohne Fugenzeichen

Regel 1: Das Grundwort bestimmt den Artikel.

Regel 2: Komposita haben die gleichen grammatischen Eigenschaften wie die Grundwörter

- 2. Komposita mit Fugenzeichen
- a) Komposita mit dem Fugen-s

Regel: Nach Normen mit der Endung –ung, -heit, -keit, -ion, - schaft, -tät, -ling wird immer ein Fugen –s eingefügt.

b) Komposita mit dem Fugen -n

Hinweis: Das Fugenzeichen –(e)n signalisiert den Plural des Bestimmungswortes.

Einheit 4 Fernsehen oder lesen?

Übersicht:

Das Thema in dieser Einheit ist das Fernsehen. Fernsehen ist heutzutage eine übliche Freizeitbeschäftigung, durch die man sich informieren kann. In dem Text lernen wir die positiven Bedeutungen des Fernsehens. Im Hörverstehn geht es um die Beziehungen zwischen dem Fernsehen und dem Lesen. Im Leseverstehn handelt es sich um die Einflüsse des Fernsehens auf die Kinder.

Einführung: Welche Arten von Sendungen gibt es in dem TV-Programm?

Die zwei Bilder stellen das Thema in dieser Lektion dar, und zwar fernsehen und lesen. Die Studenten können mit den zwei Bilder die Fragen in Übung 1 beantworten. Mit den Auzügen auf Seite 75 können die Fragen in Ü 2 und 3 beantwortet werden.

Die Studenten sollen mit der Einführung einen Überblick über Fernsehen und Lesen erhalten.

Text: Fernsehen - für viele die schönste Nebensache der Welt

"Lindenstraße" ist das Lieblingsprogramm von Tanja, das sie jeden Abend im Fernsehen sieht. Die Familie hat auch ein Vedio-Rekorder gekauft, damit sie jede Folge sehen können. Tanja steht eigentlich für die meisten Deutschen. Nach der Statistik verbringen die Deutschen ungefähr 3 Stunden jeden Tag vor dem Fernseher. Das Leben ohne Fernseher wäre den meisten Deutschen unvorstellbar.

In diesem Text lernen die Studenten die Wörter über Aktivitäten und Fernseher.

Wortschatz:

kommentieren A,

die Wahlen, ein Gesetz kommentieren; Wer kommentiert (das Spiel)?

ergänzen A,

Zu diesem Punkt möchte ich noch ergänzen, dass das Problem inzwischen gelöst ist

nerven A.

Die Musik nervt mich, mach sie bitte aus

planen A,

Wir müssen genau planen, was wir tun wollen

richten A/sich nach,

Die Preise richten sich nach der Nachfrage

herausfinden A,

Habt ihr schon herausgefunden, wie der neue Laserdrucker funktioniert?

hocken,

Sie hockte auf dem Boden und pflückte Erdbeeren

bedienen A,

In diesem Lokal wird man sehr korrekt bedient

unterhalten A/sich,

Können wir uns irgendwo ungestört darüber unterhalten, wie wir das Geschäft abwickeln wollen?;

zeitgemäß

Intention: Vorlieben ausdrücken

In den vier gegeben Gruppen lernt man neun grundlegende Satzmuster, mit denen man seine Vorliebe ausdrücken kann. Die Ü 1 und 2 bieten gute Möglichkeiten, diese Redemittel zu erwerben.

Redemittel:

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lch bevorzuge ...
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lch ziehe den/die/das ... dem/der... vor.

Ich ... gerne ...

Ich ... lieber als ...

Ich ... lieber ... als ...

Es gefällt mir besser,... zu...

Statt ... zu..., würde ich lieber...

Ich ... gern ..., aber mein/meine Lieblings... ist/sind ...

Hörverstehen: Fernsehen oder lieber lesen?

Hier ist ein Dialoggespräch zwischen Frau Li und Frau Melle. Obwohl Fernsehn mehrere Vorteile als das Lesen hat, bevorzügt Frau Melle noch das Lesen, weil das Lesen ihr entspannend macht.

Die Studenten sollen auch ihre eigene Meinungen oder Vorliebe zu einer bestimmten Sache ausdrücken.

Wortschatz:

Vorziehen A, darstellen A, heutzutage, gelangen (an A), besitzen A

Leseverstehen: Der TV-Konsum der Kinder

Die Kinder sollen neben dem Fernsehen auch etwas Anderes machen. Die Kinder selbe wissen gar nicht, was sie sehen oder nicht sehen sollen. Die Eltern sollen die Kinder bei der Wahl der Programme helfen.

Wortschatz:

Konsum, Psychologe, einlegen, auswählen A, beschränken A auf A,

unterzeichen A, spüren A, vorschreiben A, beaufsichtigen A, angucken A, raten D

Grammatik: Der Gebrauch des Konjunktiv ll (Wiederholung)

1. Höflichkeit

2. lrrealität

Einheit 5 Menschen im Netz

Übersicht:

Diese Einheit behandelt das Thema Netz. Seit der Erfindung des Netz verändert sich unser Leben tiefgreifend. Dazu sind die Menschen auch uberschiedlicher Meinung. Im Text lernen wir die pessimistischen und optimistischen Meinungen. Im Hörversthen wird eine Geschichte über einen Deutschen mit dem Netz erzählt. Im Leseverstehen werden die Meinung über den Computer und das Netz zum Ausdruck gebracht.

Einführung: Was kann man alles mit dem Computer und mit dem Internet machen?

Hier kann man mit den Bildern ganz deutlich sehen, was man mit dem Netz machen kann. Die Studenten müssen die \ddot{U} a machen. Wenn es möglich ist, können sie auch andere Informationen ergänzen.

Text: Schöne neue Welt - hässliche neue Welt

Mit der Entwicklung der modernen neuen Technik ändert sich das Leben auch tiefgreifend. Dazu haben die Menschen zwei unterschiedliche Meinungen. Die einen glauben, dass die Technick uns besseres Leben schaffen kann, die anderen aber, dass die unser Leben immer schlimmer machen würde. Aber was sollen wir machen? Vielleicht müssen wir uns besser daran gewöhnen.

Wortschatz:

Entfernung,

Die Entfernung zwischen den beiden Städten beträgt 60km

zugleich.

Ich kann nicht zugleich essen und sprechen

setzen auf A,

Ich setze auf ihre Diskretion

vernetzen A,

Computer miteinander verbinden, sodass sie Daten austauschen können

überflüssig,

Es ist ganz überflüssig, mich an mein Versprechen zu erinnern - Ich habe es nicht vergessen

entfalten A,

ein Taschentuch, eine Tischdecke, eine Zeitung entfalten

begeben sich

Nach der Begrüßung begaben sich die Gäste in den Speisesaal

fürchten A.

Er fürchtet, einem Attentat zum Opfer zu fallen; Ich fürchte (= ich glaube leider), das stimmt;

anpassen D A/sich

In kürzester Zeit hat sich sein Kreislauf dem tropischen Klima angepasst

Intention: Stellung nehmen und argumentieren

die Studenten sollen die folgenden Redemittel beherrschen und sie im Alltag gut benutzen.

Redemittel:

Das finde ich auch, und zwar aus folgendem Grund ...

Der Grund ist, dass ...

Meiner Meinung nach ...

Ich bin der Meinung, dass ...

Ich bin dafür, dass ...

Ich bin dagegen, dass ...

Auf der einen Seite ..., auf der anderen Seite ...

Einerseits ..., andererseits ...

Zum einen ..., zum anderen ...

Der Vorteil ist, dass ...

Der Nachteil ist, dass ...

Hörverstehen: Im Netz fühle ich mich wie zu Hause

Im Text geht es um ein Interview mit Frau Falke, die früher immer im Netz blieb und ihre Arbeit aufgab. Was hat sie dann gemacht? Die Studenten sollen den Text global verstehen und die Fragen beantworten können.

Wortschatz:

Projekt, entfernen A/sich, abhängen von, drehen (A/sich), auftauchen

Leseverstehen: Pro und contra Computer

Hier sieht man die Meiung im Internet über den Computer. Die Studenten sollen die Meinungen verstehen können.

Wortschatz:

ausliefern D A/sich, der Forum, überschwemmen A, verknüpfen A, überschätzen A, überprüfen A, versinken, bedauern, versenden, preiswert, anschaffen A, die Droge

Grammatik: Temporale und konditionale Konnektoren

Funktion und Gebrauch

- a) Konjunktionen
- b) Präpositionen
- c) Adverbien

Einheit 6 Interkulturelle Verständigung

Übersicht:

Das Thema in dieser Einheit lautet Interkulturelle Kommunikation. Das Ziel, eine Fremdsprache zu lernen, ist die Kommunikation zwischen unterschiedlichen Kulturen und Ländern. Im Text wird ein

Erlebnis eines Chinesen in Deutschland erzählt. Im Hörverstehen geht es um Missverständnis einer Japanerin in Deutschland. Im Leseverstehen sind die Meinungen eines Deutschen über China und Chinesen, der lange in China lebt.

Einführung: Was ist für Sie typisch deutsch und was typisch chinesisch?

Die Studenten sollen die Bilder beobachten und dann die kulturellen Unterschiede zwischen China und Deutschland vergleichen.

Text: Mein Deutschlandbild

Wang Jins Vater ist ein berühmter Professor im Fachgebiet der Philosophie über Hegel. Sie unterrichtet jetzt in Deutschland Chinesisch und studiert sie auch hier. Sie erzählt, was sie am Anfang erlebt hat.

Die Studenten sollen die folgenden Wörter beherrschen.

Wortschatz:

nicken,

Ich fragte sie, ob sie mitkommen wolle, und sie nickte; Immer wenn der Redner etwas sagte, was ihr gefiel, nickte sie mit dem Kopf

verständnisvoll,

Zuvor ... schienen die Chinesen sehr viel -er über ideologische Eigenwilligkeiten zu urteilen als der Kreml

aussprechen A,

Wie spricht man dieses Wort aus

Wendepunkt

gewöhnlich,

Er benahm sich wie gewöhnlich, Heute war ein ganz gewöhnlicher Arbeitstag ohne besondere Vorkommnisse

charakterisieren A,

das Zeitalter des Barocks ist durch einen großen Formenreichtum charakterisiert (gekennzeichnet)

einlassen sich auf A,

sich auf krumme Geschäfte einlassen

auseinandersetzen sich mit

sich kritisch mit der Philosophie Schopenhauers auseinander setzen

verbergen A

Er hat (vor) seiner Frau verborgen, dass er schwer krank war

Intention: Konzessionen (Einschränkungen) machen

die Studenten sollen die folgenden Redemittel beherrschen und sie im Alltag gut benutzen. Das ist auch eine gute Variationsübung.

Redemittel:

Ich komme zur Party, ohwohl ich eigentlich keine Zeit habe.

Ich komme zrrParty, auch wenn ich eigentlich keine Zeit habe.

Ich habe eigentlich keine Zeit. Trotzdem komme ich zur Party.

Ich habe zwar eigentlich keine Zeit, aber ich komme.

Hörverstehen: Meine Erlebnisse in Deutschland

Mieko Fischer kommt aus Japan und heiratet einen Deutschen. Der Kulturunterschied hat ihr genz großen Schock gebracht und etwas Unangenehmes im Leben verursacht. Aber allmähnlich hat sie gelernt, wie man sich an das Leben und die Denkweise der Deutschen gewöhnen soll. Sie hat ihre Erlebnisse geschrieben und die anderen können auch davon lernen.

Wortschatz:

herkommen, formulieren, auslachen, zurückhalten, Alltag

Leseverstehen: Denkweisen in China

Marcus ist ein berühmter Sinologe und lebt schon seit langem in China. Er beobachtet im Alltag immer, wie sich die Chinesen verhalten.

Wortschatz:

loslassen A, memorieren A, auspucken A, Glanz, schweigsam, erziehen A, einräumen A, ärgern sich/A; verfolgen A, absurd, fliehen, einflößen D A, verhandeln (über A)

Grammatik: Kausal-, Konzessiv-, Final- und Modalsätze

Funktion und Gebrauch

- a) Konjunktionen
- b) Präpositionen
 - c) Adverbien

Einheit 7 Arbeitssuche und Qualifikationen

Übersicht:

Was die Studenten sehr interessiert, ist das Thema Arbeitssuche und Qualifikationen. Der Text behandelt ein Interview zwischen UNI-Magazin und einem Chef. Im Hörverstehen hört man ein Interview eines Studenten bei einer Firma und im Leseverstehen sind drei Anzeigen aus der Zeitung.

Einführung: Was braucht man, wenn man eine gute Arbeit finden möchte?

Was ist bei der Arbeitssuche besonder wichtig? Durch diese 4 Bilder können die Studenten schon eine Antwort finden.

Text: Qualifikationen und Karriere

Bei dem Text handelt es sich um ein Interview mit Frau Neujahr. Sie erzählt in ihrem Interview davon, was in ihrem Berufsleben eine entscheidende Rolle spielt.

Die Studenten sollen die folgenden Wörter beherrschen.

Wortschatz:

spezifisch,

Eine spezifische Eigenschaft des Menschen ist seine Fantasie

ausfüllen A,

Sein Beruf als Manager füllt ihn völlig aus

einstellen A,

Ich stelle mein Motorrad für den Winter in der Garage ein

fachübergreifend,

-er Unterricht.

komplex,

"Demokratie" ist ein sehr komplexer und vieldeutiger Begriff

verständlich.

Bei dem Lärm waren ihre Worte für mich kaum verständlich

scheitern,

Sie wollten ein neues Kraftwerk bauen, sind aber mit ihren Plänen am Widerstand der Bevölkerung gescheitert

effizient,

der effiziente Einsatz der EDV in der Buchhaltung

die Agentur,

die Branche,

in einer Branche arbeiten; aus einer Branche kommen

Intention: Notwendigkeit und Wichtigkeit ausdrücken

die Studenten sollen die folgenden Redemittel beherrschen und sie im Alltag gut benutzen.

Es ist/Es ist sehr/Es ist besonders/Es ist vor allem/Es ist äußerst/Es ist auf jeden Fall/Es ist unbedingt notwendig/wichtig, (dass) ...

Sie müssen vor allem...

Du musst auf jeden Fall ...

Man muss unbedingt...

Hörverstehen: Ein Vorstellungsgespräch

Frau Müller führt ein Interviewsgespräch bei der Firma Bayer. Die Studenten sollen vom Interview etwas wichtige Wörter lernen.

Wortschatz:

Personalchef, telefonieren mit D, betreuen A, Initiative, flexibel

Leseverstehen: Stellenanzeigen

Hier sind 3 Stellenanzeigen aus Frankfurter Allgemein. Die Studenten sollen von den 3 Anzeigen die Formen der Stellenanzeigen lernen.

Wortschatz:

Stärke, aussagekräftig, Eintritt, Niederlassung, Installation, Aktualität, aufbereiten A, hinsichtlich, sichern A, herausfordern A,

Grammatik: Partizipialattribute und Relativsätze

Partizipien können Attribute sein und wie Adjektive vor Substantiven stehen. Solche

Partizipialattribute werden wie Adjektive dekliniert.Partizipialattribute können erweitert werden. Die Erweiterungen stehen zwischen Artikel und Partizipialattribut.

Partizipialattibute werden vor allem in der Schriftsprache gebraucht.

- 1. Partizip I als Attribut
- 2. Partitzip ll als Attribut
- a) transitives Partizip 11

b) intransitives Partizip 11

Anmerkung: Bei Verben, die das Perfekt mit sein bilden, z.B. kommen, gehen, einschlafen, aufstehen, hat das Partizip II immer eine aktive Bedeutung.

Einheit 8 Werbung und Medien

Übersicht:

Werbung spielt eine sehr wichtige Rolle in der Wirtschaft, bringt aber manchmal auch negative Folgen mit sich. Im Text wird auf die Nachteile der Werbung gezeigt und ein Problem bei der Entwicklung der Werbung analysiert. Im Hörverstehen werden die Strategien über Werdung erwähnt und die Anpassung an die Gesellschaft. Der Lesetext behandelt die Beziehungen zwischen den Jugendlichen und der Werbung.

Einführung: wo und mit welchen Medien wird geworben?

Die Bilder zeigen die verschiedenen Formen der Medien.

Text: Werbung, mit welchem Medium?

Die Werbung entwickelt sich mit dem Internet, das das Leben stark beeinflusst.

Die Studenten sollen die folgenden Wörter beherrschen.

Wortschatz:

Reklame,

Sie macht Reklame für teure Parfums

belästigen,

Ich wurde auf der Straße von Betrunkenen belästigt

investieren (in A),

Kapital in die Entwicklung neuer Produkte investieren

der Konsument, -en

Verbraucher

vermarken A,

entbrennen,

Er entbrannte in Liebe für sie / zu ihr

einstellen A.

eine Kamera auf eine Entfernung einstellen; die Zündung (eines Autos) neu einstellen

überleben,

Diese Ansichten haben sich überlebt

konventionell,

unkonventionell < Ansichten, Kleidung>

nachhaltig,

ein Erfolg, ein Erlebnis; auf jemanden einen nachhaltigen Eindruck machen, jemanden nachhaltig beeinflussen

Intention: Graphiken und Statistiken beschreiben

die Studenten sollen die folgenden Redemittel beherrschen und sie im Alltag gut benutzen.

Die Graphik/Statistik/das Diagramm informiert darüber, dass .../zeigt .../gibt Informationen/Auskunft über ...

In der Graphik/Statistik/dem Diagramm geht es um .../wird ... gezeigt./wird informiert darüber, dass

Die Zahl des/der ... beträgt ...

An erster/letzter Stelle liegt/steht ...

Nach ... folgt/folgen ...

- ... steigt/steigen (um ... auf
- ... erhöht/erhöhen sich (um ... auf ...
- ... sinkt/sinken um (um ... auf ...).

Hörverstehen: Veränderung der Werbestrategien

Im Text geht es um die Strategien in der Werbung. Die Studenten sollen mit diesem Text ihr Wortschatz erweitern und mehr Redemittel beherrschen.

Wortschatz:

Zuständig, beträchtlich, ansprechen A

Leseverstehen: Jugend und Werbung

Die Jugend mögen die Werbung nicht, aber sie sind zugleich auch die wichtigsten Zielgruppen. Die Jungen streben immer nach Fashion. Deshalb soll man auch mal die Werbung nachdenken.

Wortschatz:

zuschreien D, regelrecht, widmen sich/A D, aufsuchen A, abwenden sich, herankommen an A, hartnäckig

Grammatik: Satzklammer und Ausklammerung

Einheit 9 Reisen und Verkehr

Übersicht:

Das Thema Reisen und Verkehr interessiert viele Studenten. Im Text lernt man die Eisenverkehr in Deutschland und auch viele Probleme, die nach der Privatisierung der Einsenbahn auftraten. Die Meinungen der Passagen werden auch gezeigt. Im Hörverstehen sind drei Nachrrichten der Lautspreche im Zug. Der Lesetext behandelt das Programm in China eines deutschen Reisebüros.

Einführung: Wie heißen die Verkehrsmittel und was kann man mit ihnen machen?

In diesem Teil können die Studenten unterschiedliche Verkehrsmittel kennen lernen. Die Übung können sie dann gut machen. Sie solle auch etwas über ihre Lieblingsverkehrsmittel erzählen.

Text: Immer neuer Arger mit der Bahn

Die Bahn spielt eine sehr wichtige Rolle im Alltagsleben der Deutschen. Viele Leute fahren jeden Tag mit dem Zug zur Arbeit und nach Hause. Aber es gibt zur Zeit viele Probleme und Kritik mit der deutschen Bahn.

Die Studenten können vom Text etwas Landeskunde über Deutschland lernen.

Die Studenten sollen die folgenden Wörter beherrschen.

Wotschatz:

verkünden A,

Auf der anschließenden Feier verkündete er, dass er heiraten wolle

der Fleck

einen Fleck aus dem Tischtuch entfernen

abgehen,

Hier geht ein kleiner Weg ab

bummeln,

Er bummelt heute schon den ganzen Tag

überholen A,

Er hat versucht, mich in der Kurve zu überholen

streichen A,

die Tür ist frisch gestrichen!

Wirrwarr,

ein Wirrwarr von Stimmen

Panne,

Er hatte mit seinem Fahrrad eine Panne - der Reifen war geplatzt; Das Auto hatte eine Panne und musste abgeschleppt werden

umrüsten A.

die Streitkräfte haben [auf neue Kampfflugzeuge] umgerüstet

befürchten,

Er befürchtet, dass er entlassen wird / entlassen zu werden

kompeten,

Sie fühlte sich nicht kompetent genug, um die Frage beantworten zu können

auskennen sich

Kennst du dich in Paris aus?; Kennst du dich mit Computern aus?

ironisch,

ein Lächeln, eine Bemerkung; ironisch lächeln; etwas ironisch meinen

modernisieren A,

ein antikes Schauspiel in modernisierter Fassung aufführen

senken A,

Beim Ausatmen senkt sich der Brustkorb; Der Boden hat sich gesenkt (= liegt jetzt tiefer als zuvor)

den Sarg ins Grab senken

buchen A

Buchen Sie für uns bitte einen Flug nach Rio de Janeiro

Intention: Ursachen und Folgen beschreiben

die Studenten sollen die folgenden Redemittel beherrschen und sie im Alltag gut benutzen.

Redemittel:

Ursachen

Was ist die Ursache von/für...?

Was ist die Ursache dafür, dass ...?

Worauf ist ... zurückzuführen?

Woran liegt es, dass ...?

Die Ursache/n für ... ist/sind ..., dass ...

... ist/sind auf ... zurückzuführen.

... ist/sind darauf zurückzuführen, dass

Es liegt daran, dass...

Folgen

Was ist/sind die Folge/n von ...?

Welche Folgen hat...?

Wozu führt/führen ... ?

Die Folge/n von ... ist/sind ...

... hat/haben ... zur Folge.

... führt/führen zu ...

Hörverstehen: Durchsagen auf Bahnhöfen

Hier sind 3 Bekanntmachungen im Zug. Die Studenten müssen vorher etwas Hintergrundkenntnisse vom Lehrer bekommen, damit sie den Text besser verstehen können. Nach zwei Mal sollen sie die Aufgaben lösen können.

Wortschatz:

Durchsage, hervorragend, speisen, voraussichtlich

Leseverstehen: China zu Land und zu Wasser

In diesem Text geht es um ein Programm von einem chinesischen Reisebüros für deutsche Gruppe. Die Reise dauert 14 Tage un die Toursiten können Beijing, Xian, Shanghai und Suzhou kennen lernen. Unterwegs fahren sie auch mit dem Schiff auf dem Yangtze und genießen die schöne Landschaft in Drei-Schlucht.

Die Studenten können diesen Text nach dem Unterricht als Hausaufgabe machen und der Lehrer stellt dann im Unterricht noch mögliche Fragen.

Wortschatz:

Überwältigend, Tal, imposant, Einschiffung, Strom, abwärts, sicherlich, unendlich, Gegensatz

Einheit 10 Technik und Fortschritt

Übersicht:

Mit der Entwicklung der Technik folgt auf jedem Fall der Fortschritt der Gesellschaft, die auch den Lebensstil und die Lebensform ändert. Im Text geht um die Anweisung und Unterhaltung der CDs. Im Hörversteht wird der Erfinder der X-Strahlung vorgestellt und sein Erlebnis. Im Lesetext werden die Bücher und Zeitschriften der neuen Generation dargestellt.

Einführung:

Mit den Bildern wird dargetsellt, wie sich die Technick von der Antike bis heute entwickelt. Die Studenten können anhand dieser Bilder die Übung machen und schon etwas neue Wörter über die Technick lernen.

Text: Tipps zum Umgang mit CDs

In dem Text lernt man, wie man sich mit den CDs umgehen soll. Und wie kann man die CDs besser behalten? Diese Kenntnisse können wir durch diesen Text lernen. Neben den Kenntnissen hier sollen die Studenten die folgenden Wörter beherrschen.

Wortschatz:

beschriften A,

Einmachgläser b.; sorgfältig beschriftete Bücherregale.

reinigen A,

die Kleider (chemisch) reinigen lassen; einen Anzug zum Reinigen bringen

wischen A

den Tisch, den Boden, die Treppe wischen; sich die Stirn, den Mund wischen

verlaufen,

Die Linie verläuft parallel zur Achse

trocknen A.

Sie trocknet ihre Haare

beschädigen A.

Bei dem Zusammenstoß wurde sein Auto schwer beschädigt

aufkleben A.

eine Briefmarke (auf den Brief) aufkleben

verwenden A,

Die Milch ist schlecht geworden, sie ist nicht mehr zu verwenden

der Kratzer,

Sie hat bei dem Unfall nur ein paar Kratzer abbekommen

der Staub,

Als ich das Buch vom Regal nahm, war es mit einer Schicht Staub bedeckt / überzogen

das Spülmittel,

die Hülle,

die Dokumente in eine schützende Hülle stecken

die Umgebung

Die Stadt liegt in einer reizvollen Umgebung; Möwen halten sich gern in der Umgebung von Schiffen und Häfen auf

Intention: etwas erklären, etwas definieren

die Studenten sollen die folgenden Redemittel beherrschen und sie im Alltag gut benutzen.

Redemittel:

Was versteht man (eigentlich) unter ... ?

Unter ... versteht man einen/eine/ein ...

Man versteht unter ... einen/eine/ein ...

Man versteht unter ... so etwas wie ...

Was bedeutet eigentlich ..?

Was heißt eigentlich ...?

Was ist eigentlich ...?

...bedeutet/heißt/ist ...

... bedeutet/heißt, dass...

Können Sie mir sagen, was man (eigentlich) unter ... versteht?

Können Sie mir sagen, was ... (eigentlich) ... bedeutet?

Können Sie mir sagen, was ...heißt?

Können Sie mir sagen, was ...ist?

Hörverstehen: Wilhelm Röntgens Entdeckung sorgt bis heute für, "Durchblick"

Hier lernen die Studenten, wie Wilhelm Röntgens entdeckt hat.

Vor dem Hören können die Studenten zuerst einmal etwas Recherche dafür machen. Diese Vorbereitung erleichtert den Text zu verstehen. Durch diese Geschichte können die folgenden Wörter erworben werden.

Wortschatz:

Wegdenken A, Fabrikant, Ruhm, erforschen, Zufall, Skelett,

Leseverstehen: Die Zukunft der Zeitung und des Buches

Wie sehen die Zeitung und das Buch in der Zukuft aus? In dem Text können die Studenten etwas davon lernen und natürlich auch die folgenden Wörter.

Wortschatz:

Faltbar, einlassen A, beliebig, aufladen A, formbar, füllen A/sich, verderben D A, vereinen A, bedrucken A, Molekül, beantragen

《日语(一)(二)》教学大纲

崔延花 编写

目 录

前	言	397
	一、概述	397
	二、课程教学目的和基本要求	397
	三、课程主要内容及学时分配	397
	四、相关教学环节	397
	五、教材	397
日i	语的发音	
	第一回 五十音图	398
	第二回 特殊音的发音	398
	第三回 拗长音、拗拨音、拗促音以及	398
	第一课	398
	第二课	399
	第三课	399
	第四课	400
	第五课	400
	第六课	400
	第七课	401
	第八课	401
	第九课	402
	第十课	402
	第十一课	403
	第十二课	403
	第十三课	403
	第十四课	404
	第十五课	404
	第十六课	405
	第十七课	405
	第十八课	405
	第十九课	406
	第二十课	406
	第二十一课	407
	第二十二课	407
	第二十三课	408
	第二十四课	408
	第二十五课	408

前言

一、概述

国际经济全球化的趋势下,各国之间的交流不断深化。尤其是我国与近邻的日本在经济、科技、文化等方面的交流与合作发展迅速,规模不断扩大,形成了中日友好关系的有力基础。

中日两国在各方面的广泛交流与日本在华企业的良好发展促使日语人才需求持续增长,也给懂 日语的学生提供了良好的就业环境。本课程以不具备任何日语基础的学生为对象,为在已掌握一门 外国语的语言的基础上,作为第二外语学习日语,提供学习机会与环境。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程的学习主要分为两个阶段。

第一阶段为语音阶段, 注重发音准确, 文字书写正确。

第二阶段为句型练习结合会话练习,在牢固掌握句型的同时,设定日常生活中所遇到的各种各样的场面进行会话练习。并结合听力练习掌握正确的发音和音调。通过上述两阶段的学习,最终达到能够初步掌握日语的基本句型,形成自学中级日语的能力,为进一步学习日语打下良好的基础。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

学习语音阶段:配合大量的典型单词与句子进行发音练习,并对日语单词、句子与外来语的发音规律作简单总结。(第一周---第三周)

学习语法与句型阶段:结合教材教授基本的、使用频率高的日语句型、词汇、表现形式。(第四周---第十八周)

在教学中注重设定使用日语的场面和情形,培养学生从初级阶段开始用日语进行简单交流的意识与能力,提高学生的学习热情和增强学生的自信心。在会话的练习过程中,注意会话表现的简洁,使用性高和日语表达自然等方面,提高会话的实际运用能力。

重视日语学习初级阶段的听力培养,课堂上多使用日语,并结合课本进行听力练习。本课程教授时间为18周,每周3节课。教学进度为每周1课。

四、相关教学环节

语音、语法知识的教授采用教师主讲的教学方式。在单词、句型、表现形式的教授上采取师生互动式教学方式,设计生活场面、游戏等让学生尽可能使用日语。例如,初次见面时的 会话、商场购物、问路、指路等等。通过让学生观看介绍日本风光、风俗、日常生活的 VCD,学唱日语歌曲,提高学生的学习兴趣,使学生不仅在语言学习上获得收益,而且又可以多方面地了解日本,感受日本。

五、教材

新日语基础教程第一册(外语教学与研究出版社) 新日语基础教程第一册练习册(外语教学与研究出版社)

日语的发音

第一回 五十音图

- 1. 清音的发音及书写(平假名与片假名)
- 2. 浊音、半浊音的发音及书写

第二回 特殊音的发音

- 1. 拨音
- 2. 长音
- 3. 促音
- 4. 拗音

第三回 拗长音、拗拨音、拗促音以及

日语口语中的语音变化及外来语的发音

- 1. 拗长音、拗拨音、拗促音
- 2. 元音无声化
- 3. 外来语

参考書籍:《掌握日语发音》赵秀娟编著 世界图书出版公司 2006年1月版

进入单词、句型学习

课文

第一课

- 1. [・・・は・・・です。]
- 私はラオです。
- *助詞 ~は
- *助詞 ~です
- *助詞 名+の+名

- 2. [・・・は・・・ではありません。]
- ・ナロンさんは日本人ではありません。
- *助詞 ではありません
- *~さん 王さん・田中さん
- 3. [・・・は・・・ですか。]
- ・アリさんは研修生ですか。
- *助詞 ~ですか
- * はい、~
- いいえ、~
- 4. [・・・も・・・です。]
- リーさんも研修生です。
- *助詞 ~も
- 5. 年齢
- *何歳、おいくつ
- *数字+歳

第二课

- 1. これは本です。
- 「これ、それ、あれ」の使い分け
- 2. この本はわたしのです。
- 「この、その、あの」と「これ、それ、あれ」の使い分け
- 3. それは私の本です。
- 名+の+名
- 4. 「はい、そうです。」と「いいえ、そうではありません。」
- 5. ~ですか、~ですか。

第三课

- 1. ここは教室です。
- *ここ、そこ、あそこ
- * どこ
- *こちら、そちら、あちら
- *どちら
- 2. 会社はどこですか。 会社はどちらですか。

- *どこ、どちら
- 3. コンピューターの会社
- 4. かばん売り場はどこですか。 かばん売り場ですか。 5階です。
- 5. ~いくらですか。
- *お金の数え方

第四课

- 1. 今 何時ですか。
- *何時
- *時間(時、分)
- 2. 私は朝6時に起きます。
- *ます
- *ました、ません、ませんでした
- *助詞 に (時間)
- 3. 私は9時から5時まで働きます。

助詞 ~から~まで (時間)

4. 私はきのう勉強しました。

第五课

- 1. わたしは京都へ行きます。
- *助詞 ~へ
- *助詞 ~へも~ません
- 2. 私は飛行機で国へ帰ります。
- *助詞 (交通手段) で
- 3. 私は友達と日本へ来ました。
- *助詞 名(人)+と

第六课

- 1. 私はコーヒーを飲みます。
- * 助詞 ~を

(名+を+他動詞)

2. わたしはデパートでシャツを買います。

- *助詞 ~で
- 名(場所)+で
- 3. いっしょにごはんを食べませんか。
- * 助詞 ~と
- 名+と+名
- 4. ロビーで休みましょう。
- *動詞+ませんか
- *動詞+ましょう
- 5. 何
- *「なん」と「なに」

第七课

- 1. わたしははしでごはんを食べます。
- *助詞~で
- 名(道具、手段)+で
- 2. わたしはりーさんに時計をあげます。
- *助詞 ~に
- ~にあげます。
- 3. わたしは田中さんに辞書をもらいました。
- ~にもらいます。
- 4. もう、まだ

第八课

- 1. ラオさんは親切です。
- *い形容詞
- *な形容詞
- 2. 東京は大きいです。
- *非過去肯定
- *非過去否定
- *い形容詞の否定・な形容詞の否定
- 3. ラオさんは親切な人です。
- な形容詞+な+名
- 4. 東京は大きい町です。
- い形容詞+名
- 5. あまり~ません

- 6. (~は) どうですか。
- *どんな+(名)
- 7. ~が、~
- ・日本の食べ物はおいしいですが、高いです。
- 8. そして
- 9. どれ

第九课

- 1. 私はりんごが好きです。
- *好きです、嫌いです、ほしいですなど
- *上手です、下手です、わかりますなど
- *助詞 ~が 好きです。
- 2. わたしはカメラがあります。
- *あります、います
- 3. わたしはおなかが痛いですから、病院へ行きます。
- *助詞 ~から (理由)
- 4. どんな+名
- 5. ぜんぜん~ません
- ・漢字が全然わかりません。

第十课

- 1. あります、います
- ・テレビがあります。
- 田中さんがいます。
- 2. 助詞 ~に。
- ・事務所に田中さんがいます。
- 3. ~に~が (います・あります)。
- ・ロビーにテレビがあります。
- ・事務所に田中さんがいます。
- 4. ~は~にいます。
- ラオさんは部屋にいます。
- 本は机の上にあります。
- 5. 名+や+名 名+と+名

第十一课

- 1. 数数方法
- * ひとつ、ふたつ、みっつ・・・・
- *量詞
- ~人、~台、~枚、~円、~回・・・・
- * 数量词的用法
- コンピューターが2台あります。
- ・ラオさんは日本に1年います。
- 2. 表示疑问的数量詞
- *なん+数詞
- *いくつ
- *いくら
- 3. だけ
- ・国で3週間だけ日本語を勉強しました。
- 4. どのくらい(どのぐらい)

第十二课

- 1. 昨日は雨でした。
- * でした、ではありません、ではありませんでした
- 2. 昨日は寒かったです。
- * い形容詞の肯定形、過去形
- 3. 比較
- (1) 比較、~は~より~です。
- ・東京は大阪より大きいです。
- (2) 名+と+名+と、どちらが~ですか。
- ・新幹線と飛行機と、どちらが速いですか。
- (3) 名+のほうが~です。
- ・飛行機のほうが速いです。
- 4. 名 {の中で} ~が+いちばん~です。
- クラスでナロンさんがいちばん若いです。

第十三课

1. 名+が欲しいです。

- 私はカメラが欲しいです。
- 2. 名+を動(ます形)+たいです。
- 私は映画を見たいです。
- 3. 動(ます形) +に+(行きます、きます、帰ります)
- ・私はデパートへ靴を買いに行きます。
- 4. 「助詞 ~に」 と 「助詞 ~を」
- ・部屋に入ります ・電車に乗ります
- ・部屋を出ます・電車を降ります

第十四课

- 1. 动词的分类
- 2. て形的変化
- 3. 后续语和て形
- 4. て形的用法1

動詞て形+ください。

- ・辞書を貸してください。
- 5 て形的用法 2

動詞て形+います

- リーさんは今テレビを見ています。
- 6 動詞+ましょう。
- タクシーを呼びましょうか。

はい、呼んでください。

第十五课

1. て形的用法1

動詞(て形)+もいいです。

たばこを吸ってもいいです。

2. て形的用法2

動詞(て形)+います。

ラオさんはいいカメラを持っています。

3. 知りません (知っていますの否定)

第十六课

- 1. 句子的连接方法
- 「そして」 と 「て形」の用法
- (1) 動詞(て形)、動詞(て形)
- ・朝起きて、ごはんを食べて、会社へ行きます。
- (2) い形容詞
- い形 (くて)、~
- ・東京は人が多くて、にぎやかです。
- (3) 名詞、な形容詞+で、~
- ・ラオさんはインド人で、東京電気の研修生です。
- ・ハンさんはきれいで、たいへん親切です。
- 2動詞(て形)+から、動詞2
- ・仕事が終わってから、すぐうちへ帰ります。

第十七课

- 1. ない形的变化
- 2. ない形的用法
- (1) 動詞(ない形)+ないでください。
- ・写真を撮らないでください。
- (2) 動詞(ない形)+なければなりません。
- ・毎日勉強しなければなりません。
- (3) 動詞(ない形)+なくてもいいです。
- ・土曜日の午後、勉強しなくてもいいです。
- 3. 助詞 までに
- ・夜12時までにセンターへ帰らなければなりません。

第十八课

- 1. 辞书形的変化
- 2. 辞书形的用法
- (1) **~**ができます。

名詞の場合;名詞+が できます。

運転ができます。

動詞の場合;動詞(辞書形)+ことができます。

・リーさんは漢字を読むことができます。

(2) できます的意思

- A 能力
- ・リーさんは漢字を読むことができます。
- B 可能
- ・受付でタクシーを呼ぶことができます。
- (3) 趣味は+名詞+です。
- 私の趣味は絵です。

趣味は+動詞(辞書形)+こと+です。

- ・わたしの趣味は絵をかくことです。
- (4) ~まえに 、~
- *名詞: 名詞+の+まえに、~
- ・講義のまえに、ちょっと事務所へ来てください。
- *動詞(辞書形)+まえに、~
- ・実習するまえに、日本語を勉強します。
- *数量詞+まえに、~
- ・3年まえに結婚しました。

第十九课

- 1. 动词た形的変化
- 2. た形的用法1

動詞(た 形)+ことがあります。

- ・日本料理を食べたことがあります。
- 3. た形的用法2

動詞(た)+り、動詞(た)+り します。

- ・日曜日 買い物したり、映画を見たりします。
- 4. ~ なります。

名詞になります。

・25歳になります。

形容動詞になります。 ・元気になります。

形容詞くなります。

寒くなります。

第二十课

- 1. 礼貌体和普通体
- 2. 普通形表
- (1) 礼貌形和普通形
- (2) 后续语的礼貌形和普通形

3. 普通体的疑问句

4.「はい」和「いいえ」的普通形

5. 男子用语和女子用语

鈴木:木村さん、明日の晩 暇?。

木村:うん、暇よ。どうして?

鈴木:パーティーに行かない

木村:いいわね。場所はどこ?

鈴木:富士ホテル。6時ごろホテルのロビーで待っているわ。

木村:わかったわ。じゃ、また あした。

第二十一课

- 1. 助詞 と
- ・ 今晩雨が降ると思います。
- 2. ~と思います。
- (1)推量・今晩雨が降ると思います
- (2)陈述意见 ・日本は交通が便利だと思います。
- 3. と思います、と言いました的用法表
- 4. 助詞「と」の省略
- わたしもそうだと思います。
- ・日本についてどう思いますか。
- 5. でしょう
- ・土曜日センターでパーティーがあるでしょう。

はい、あります。

第二十二课

- 1. 连体修饰
- ・ラオさんの会社(名+の+名)
- ・大きい会社(形容词+名)
- ・有名な会社(形容动词な+名)
- ・リーさんが実習する会社(普通体+名)
- 2. 表示修饰句主语的助词「が」
- ・ラオさんが実習する会社は 東京電気です。
- 3. 修饰句的例句
- ・これは私が撮った写真です。
- あそこにいる人はリーさんです。
- ・先週見学した所は名古屋自動車です。

- ・昨日見た映画はとても面白かったです。
- ・自動車を作っている工場を見学しました。

第二十三课

- 1. ~とき、~
- ・外国へ行く時、パスポートが要ります。
- 2. ∼ と、∼
- このボタンを押すと、機械が動きます。
- 3. を・・・

(場所) +を動詞(歩きます・渡ります・散歩します・飛びます)

・橋を渡ります。・公園を散歩します。

第二十四课

1. 授受动词

あげます・もらいます・くれます

名詞+をくれます。

- ・アリさんはわたしにシャツをくれました。
- 2. 授受表现
- (1)動詞(て形)+あげます。
- ・私は木村さんに傘を貸してあげました。
- (2)動詞(て形)+もらいます。
- ・私は鈴木さんに日本語を教えてもらいました。
- (3)動詞(て)+くれます。
- ・家内は(私に)子供の写真を送ってくれました。

第二十五课

- 1. 条件的表现
- (1) 条件形

~たら、~ 要是 假如

動詞たら~・雨が降ったらピクニックに行きません。

い形容詞たら~・安かったらビデオを買います。

な形容詞たら~・暇だったら東京タワーへ行きます。

名詞たら~・雨だったらうちにいます。

(2) 動詞たら、~ - ~ 就~

- ・昼ごはんを食べたら、すぐ行きます。
- 2. 逆态接续的假定表现

~ても、~ 即使~也~

動詞ても・スイッチを入れても機械が動きません。

い形容詞ても ・高くてもこのラジカセを買いたいです。

な形容詞でも ・静かでも寝ることができません。

名詞でも ・日曜日でも仕事をします。

- 3. 「もし」和 「いくら」
- ・もし雨が降ったらピクニックに行きません。
- ・いくら高くてもこのラジカセを買いたいです。
- 4. 句ね
- ・来週から実習ですね。

はい。

《日语(三)(四)》教学大纲

崔延花 编写

目 录

前	言			413
		—,	概述	413
		二、	教材	413
		=,	课程教学目的和基本要求	413
			课程主要内容及学时分配	
	<i>5</i> 5 0		相关教学环节	
			<u> </u>	
	第 3	0 謝	<u> </u>	417
	第3	1 謝	<u></u>	417
	第3	2 誤	<u> </u>	418
	第3	3 誤	Į	418
	第 3	4 誤	<u> </u>	419
	第 3	5 誤	<u> </u>	420
	第 3	6	<u> </u>	421
	第 3	7	1	421
			<u> </u>	
	第 3	9 誤	<u> </u>	423
	第 4	0 誤	· 	423
	第 4	1 誤	<u> </u>	424
	第 4	2	<u></u>	424
	第 4	3 誤	<u> </u>	426
			<u> </u>	
	第 4	5 誤	Į.	427
			<u></u>	
			Į.	
			Į.	
	411 0	ひ 市対	K ^C	400

前言

一、概述

国际经济全球化的趋势下,各国之间的交流不断深化。尤其是我国与近邻的日本在经济、科技、 文化等方面的交流与合作发展迅速,规模不断扩大,形成了中日友好关系的有力基础。

中日两国在各方面的广泛交流与日本在华企业的良好发展促使日语人才需求持续增长,也给懂 日语的学生提供了良好的就业环境。本课程以不具备任何日语基础的学生为对象,为在已掌握一门 外国语的语言的基础上,作为第二外语学习日语,提供学习机会与环境。

二、教材

新日语基础教程第二册(外语教学与研究出版社) 新日语基础教程第二册 练习册(外语教学与研究出版社)

三、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程的学习目的主要是词汇与基本句型。

句型练习结合会话练习,在牢固掌握句型的同时,设定日常生活中所遇到的各种各样的场面进行会话练习。并结合听力练习掌握正确的发音和音调。通过上述学习,达到能够掌握日语的基本句型,形成自学高级日语的能力,为进一步学习日语打下良好的基础。通过本课程的基本要求是达到日语国际能力测试3级水平。

四、课程主要内容及学时分配

学习语法与句型阶段:结合教材教授基本的、使用频率高的日语句型、词汇、表现形式。(第一周---第十八周)

在教学中注重设定使用日语的场面和情形,培养学生从初级阶段开始用日语进行交流的意识与能力,提高学生的学习热情和增强学生的自信心。在会话的练习过程中,注意会话表现的简洁,使用性高和日语表达自然等方面,提高会话的实际运用能力。

重视日语学习中级阶段的听力培养,课堂上多使用日语,并结合课本进行听力练习。本课程教授时间为 18 周,每周 3 节课。教学进度为每周 1 课。

五、相关教学环节

语音、语法知识的教授采用教师主讲的教学方式。在单词、句型、表现形式的教授上采取师生互动式教学方式,设计生活场面、游戏等让学生尽可能使用日语。通过让学生观看介绍日本风光、风俗、日常生活的 VCD,学唱日语歌曲,提高学生的学习兴趣,使学生不仅在语言学习上获得收益,而且又可以多方面地了解日本,感受日本。

第26課

- 1. "~んです"的接续
- 2. "~んです"的意思、用法
- 2-1 $\sim \lambda c$
- 1) わたしはきのう会社を休みました。熱があったんです。
- 2) 今から出かけるんです。
- 3) このりんごはほんとうにおいしいんですよ。
- 2-2 ~んですか
- 1) 日本語が上手ですね。どのくらい勉強したんですか。
- 2) a: 今日はあまり食べませんね。

どうしたんですか。

- B: おなかが痛いんです。
- 2-3 $\sim \lambda \vec{c}$

洗濯機が動かないんですが、ちょっと見てくだしいませんか。

2-4 不使用 "~んです"的场合

私はインドのラオです。(×---ラオなんです)

- 3. ~てくださいませんか 能否请您给我~
- 掃除機の使い方を教えてくださいませんか。
- 4. 疑问词(+助词)+~たらいいですか 怎么~好 どこで時計を買ったらいいですか。

第27課

- 1. 可能的表达方式
- 1-1 表示可能的意思有以下的说法。
- 1) 名词+ができます。
- *私は運転ができます。
- 2) 辞书形+ことができます。
- *私は泳ぐことができます。
- 3) 可能动词
- *私は泳げます。
- 1-2 可能动词的构成方法(课本第 27 课练习 A-1)
- 1-3 可能动词的句子
- (1) 私は日本語が話せます。
- (2) 一人で病院へ行けますか。
- 1-4 可能动词的意思
- 1)能力
- *ナロンさんは漢字が読めます。

- 2) 可能性
- *あの銀行でドルが換えられます。
- 2. 表示对比的"は"
- 2-1 这课学习表示对比意思的"は"的用法。
- * 今日は行きませんが、明日は行きます。
- 2-2*お酒を飲みます。タバコを吸いません。
- * お酒は飲みますが、タバコは吸いません。
- * 新宿へは行きますが、銀座へは行きません。
- 2 3
- * わたしはコンピューターは使えません。
- 3. まだ~ません
- A: ひらがなが書けますか。
- B: いいえ、まだ書けません。
- 4. ~しか~ません
- 4-1*ローマ字しか書けません。
- 4-2*ローマ字しか書けません。
- ローマ字だけ書けます。
- ローマ字だけ書けません。
- 像下面的例子,想对数量少加以强调的时候,使用しか而不使用だけ。
- * 20メートルしか泳げません。
- 5. なかなか~ません
- *言葉がなかなか覚えられません。
- 6. 見られます、見えます:聞けます、聞こえます
- *この映画は新宿で見られます。
- 新幹線から富士山が見えました。
- *電話で天気予報が聞けます。
- ラジオの音が聞こえます。
- 7. できます
- *駅の近くに大きいスーパーができました。
- *カメラの修理ができました。
- 8. だれ、どこ、いつ
- なん、どれ、等 + でも
- * なんでもいいです。
- * 一人でどこでも行けます。
- 9. 数量、時間+で
- *駅まで5,6分で行けます。

第28課

1. ます形+ながら

- * 音楽を聞きながらコーヒーを飲みます。
- 2. ~ています
- 2 1
- 1) リーさんは今テレビを見ています。
- 2) 鈴木さんはもう結婚しています。
- 3) 私は自動車の会社で働いています。
- 2-2 暇な時、いつも音楽を聞いています。
- 3. 普通形+し
- 3-1 荷物が多いし、雨が降っているし、タクシで帰ります。
- 3-2 荷物も多いし、雨も降っているし、タクシで帰ります。
- 3-3 A: ずいぶん人が多いですね。
- B:きょうは日曜日だし、天気もいいし...
- 3-4 きょうは寒いし、どこも出かけません。
- 3-5 A: どうしていつもこのスーパーで買い物するんですか。
- B:値段も安いし、それに品物も多いですから。
- 4. "それに"和"それで"
- *この花は色がきれいです。それににおいもいいです。
- *A:このレストランは料理もおいしいし、値段も安いです。
- B: それで人が多いんですね。
- 5. ずいぶん
- 1) ここはずいぶん人が多いですね。
- 2) ずいぶんビールを飲みましたね。

第29課

- 1. 名詞が~ています
- 1-1 電気がついています。
- 1-2 食べます_食べています_食べました
- 1 3
- 2. 名詞は~ています
- 1)窓は開いています。
- 2) いすは壊れています。
- 3. ~てしまいました
- 3-1 宿題をしてしまいました。
- 3-2 車が故障してしまいました。
- 4. た形的用法
- 1) A: 工場の中で機械や製品に触らないでください。
- B:わかりました。
- 2) 困ったな。
- 3) ああ、よかった。

4)「かばんが」ありましたよ。

第30課

- 1. 名詞1に名詞2が~てあります
- 1-1 ロビーにテレビが置いてあります。
- 1-2 ノートに名前が書いてあります。
- 2. 名詞2は名詞1に~てあります
- 2-1 テレビはロビーに置いてあります。
- 3. "~ています"和"~てあります"的区别
- 3-1 A: tup-rup distinct tu
- B: セロテープはかばんに入っています。(さっきみました。)
- A: セロテープはどこですか。
- B: セロテープはかばんに入れてあります。(昨日入れました。)
- 3 2
- 4. ~ておきます
- 1) 旅行に行く前に、切符を買っておきます。
- 2) はさみを使ったら、元の所にしまっておいてください。
- 3) 寒いですから、窓を閉めておいてください。
- 5. 名詞が
- *アリさんがこのシャツをくれました。
- 6. まだ+肯定形
- *まだ雨が降っています。

第 3 1 課

- 1. 意向形
- 1 1
- 1-2意向形的构成方法
- 2. 意向形的用法
- 1) 少し休もう。
- 2) A: 手伝ってあげようか。
- B: うん、ありがとう。
- 3) もう12時だ。ねよう。
- 3. 意向形+と思っています
- * いまから買い物に行こうと思っています。
- 4. 辞書形+つもりです

- * 来年結婚するつもりです。
- 5. 辞書形

名詞+の + 予定です

- * 私は8月の終わりに国へ帰る予定です。
- * 実習の予定について部長に相談します。
- 6. 表现主体的"は"
- * もう昼ごはんを食べましたか。
- 7. まだ~ていません
- * 夏休みの予定はまだ決めていません。
- 8. ~なあ
- *軽井沢ですか。いいなあ。

第32課

1. た形

ない形+ない + ほうがいいです

- * A:おとといからずっと熱があるんです。
- B: じゃ、病院へ行ったほうがいいですよ。
- 2. ~でしょう
- ~かもしれません
- 2-1接続
- 2-2意思、用法
- 1)~でしょう
- *明日は雨が降るでしょう。
- 2) ~かもしれません
- *午後から雪が降るかもしれません。

第33課

- 1. 命令形的构成方法
- 2. 禁止形的构成方法
- 3. 命令形和禁止形的用法
- 3 1
- 3 2
- 1)
- (1) 明日までにレポートをまとめろ。
- (2) もっと勉強しろ。
- 2)

- (1) 明日うちへ来いよ。
- (2) あまり飲むなよ。
- 3)
- (1) スイッチを切れ。
- (2) 物を落とすな。
- 4)
- (1) 頑張れ。
- (2) 走れ。
- 5)
- (1) 止まれ。
- (2) 入るな。
- 3-3 *早く寝なさい。
- 4. ~てくれ
- *ちょっと手伝ってくれ。
- 5. X は Y という意味です
- * "ありがとう"は中国語で"谢谢"と言います。
- * "ありがとう"は"谢谢"という意味です。
- *あのう漢字は何と読むんですか。
- 6. "どういう~"和 "どんな~"
- *5月5日は休みですが、どういう日ですか。
- 7. ~てくれ

普通形 +と言っていました

- * 会議の時間をしらせてください。→ A さんは会議の時間を知らせてくれと言っていました。
 - 8. 必ず、きっと、ぜひ

必ず:レポートは明日必ず出します。

きっと:明日はきっといい天気でしょう。

ぜひ:ぜひ京都へ行きたいです。

暇な時、ぜひ一度遊びに来てください。

第34課

1. た形

名詞+の + とおりに

*今私がやったとおりに、エンジンを組み立ててください。

2. (节1) た形

名詞+の + あとで、(节2)

- 2-1 *仕事が終わったあとで、会社の人と食事に行きます。
- 2-2 *この薬は説明書をよく読んでから、使ってください。
- 3. (节1) て形
- (节1)ない形+ないで + (节2)
- 3-1 *傘を持って出かけます。傘を持たないで出かけます。
- *マニュアルを見て機会をそうさします。マニュアルを見ないで機械を操作します。
- 3 2
- 4. (节1) ない形+ないで、 (节2)
- *日曜日はどこも行かないで、うちでゆっくり休みます。
- *日曜日はどこも行きません。(その代わり)うちでゆっくり休みます。
- 5. ~ てもらいます
- *わたしがやってあとで、アリさんに組み立ててもらいます。

第35課

- 1. 条件形的构成方法
- 2. 条件形的意思、用法
- 1) 値段が安ければ買います。
- 2) A: 使い方がわかりません。
- B:わからなければ、この説明書を読んでください。
- 3. 表示条件的各种说法
- 1) ~と
- *ここを押すと、フラッシュがつきます。
- 变换成使用条件形的表达方式。
- * ここを押せば、フラッシュがつきます。
- * 時間があれば、行きます。(O)
- 時間があると、行きます。(X)
- 2) ~たら
- *部屋が暗かったら、電気をつけてください。
- *国へ帰ったら、すぐ手紙を書いてください。(O)
- 国へ帰れば、すぐ手紙を書いてください。(X)
- 4. 名詞なら
- * A:安いビデオを買いたいです。
- B:安いビデオなら、秋葉原がいいです。

第36課

- 1. (节1) ように、(节2)
- 1-1 日本語が上手になるように、一生懸命勉強します。
- 1-2 日本の新聞が読めるように、漢字を勉強します。(○)

日本の新聞を読むように、漢字を勉強します。(×)

- 2. ~ようになりました
- 2-1 日本語が話せるようになりました。
- 2-2 初めは日本料理があまり食べられませんでしたが、今はほとんと食べられるようになりました。
 - 2-3*A: 漢字が書けるようになりましたか。
 - B: いいえ、また書けません。(O)
 - B: vv, z, z
 - * 日本人は100年ぐらい前から牛肉や豚肉を食べるようになりました。
 - 3. 辞書形

ない形+ない + ようにしてください

- * 寒いですね。ちょっと窓を閉めてください。
- * 寝る前に、必ず窓を閉めるようにしてください。
- * 絶対にこの機械に触らないようにしてください。
- 4. 大きな、小さな
- * あのテレビは大きいです。(O)
- あのテレビは大きなです。(X)
- 5. ~とか
- *土曜日とか日曜日とかはよく映画を見に行きます。
- *レポートにはここがよかったとか、難しかったとか、感想を書くようにしてください。
- 6. かなり和ずいぶん
- *今年の夏はかなり暑いですね。
- 日本の夏はずいぶん暑いですね。

第 3 7 課

- 1.
- 1-1被动动词的构成方法
- 1-2被动动词的句子
- 1) 名詞1(人) は名詞2(人) に+被动动词

*課長は私をしかりました。

私は課長にしかられました。

- 2) 名詞1(人) は名詞2(人) に名詞3(物) を+被动动词
- * 弟は私のカメラを壊しました。

私は弟にカメラを壊されました。

私のカメラは弟に壊されました。(X)

- 3) 名詞は+被动动词
- * お酒は米から作られます。
- * ここでは車のボディーが溶接されます。

1 - 3

* 私は弟にカメラを壊されました。(O)

私は弟にカメラを壊してもらいました。(×)

* 私は弟に仕事を手伝ってもらいました。(O)

私は弟に仕事を手伝われました。(×)

- 2. 表示比率的"に"
- * 1日に1500台車が生産されています。

第38課

- 1. 动词(普通形)+の
- 2. 辞书形+のは+形容詞
- * サッカーはおもしろいです。

サッカーをするのはおもしろいです。

サッカーを見るのはおもしろいです。

- 3. 辞书形+のが+形容詞
- * 私は音楽が好きです。

私は音楽を聞くのが好きです。

- 4. 辞书形+のを+忘れました
- *電話番号を聞くのを忘れました。
- 5. 动词

い形容词 一普通形

→のを知っています

な形容词 普通形

- * センターの電話番号を知っていますか。
- * センターの近くで火事があったのを知っていますか。
- * 木村さんは結婚しました。――木村さんが結婚したのを知っていますか。
- 6. "の"、"こと"
- *リーさんは日本語をはなすことができます。(O)
- *リーさんは日本語をはなすのができます。(X)

- *私の趣味は映画を見ることです。(○)
- *私の趣味は映画を見るのです。(X)
- *日本料理を食べたことがあります。(O)
- *日本料理を食べたのがあります。(×)
- 7. 行き、帰り
- *行きは道が込んでいましたが、かえりはすいていました。

第39課

1. 动词 て形

动词 ない形+なくて

い形容词 ~い__くて

な形容词 ~で

1)

- *ニュースを聞いてびっくりしました。
- *暑くて寝られませんでした。
- 2)
- *危ないですから、機械に触らないでください。(O)
- *危なくて、機械に触らないでください。(×)
- 3)
- *明日会議がありますから、きょう準備しなければなりません。(O)
- *明日会議があって、きょう準備しなければなりません。(×)
- 2. 名詞で
- 2-1 *事故で電車が止まりました。
- 2-2 *病気で明日会社を休みたいです。(\times)
- 3. ~ので
- 3-1 *気分が悪いので、さっきに帰ってもいいですか。
- *この荷物は邪魔なので、片付けろ。(×)
- 3-2 接続
- 3-3 *レポートを書かなければなりませんので、今日はすぐ帰ります。
- 4. "気持ちがいい"和"気分がいい"
- *今日は天気がよくて、気持ちがいいです。
- *薬を飲んで、熱が下がったので、気分がいいです。

第40課

- 1. ~か
- 1-1*会議は何時に終わるか、わかりません。

- 1-2 接続
- 1-3*箱の中身は何か、調べてください。
- *のどがかわきましたから、何かのみたいです。
- *お手洗いはどこか、わかりません。
- *今日はいい天気ですから、どこか行きませんか。
- 2. ~かどうか
- 2-1 *リーさんは来ますかどうか、わかりません。
- 2-2 接続
- 3. ~てみます
- 3-1 *日本のお酒を飲んでみます。
- 3-2 *ちょっとこの店に入ってみよう。
- 4. ~さ
- *富士山の高さは3776メートルです。

第 4 1 課

- 1. 接受的表达方式
- 2. 名詞をいただきます くださいます やります
- * (私は) 友達にプレゼントをもらいました。
- *(私は)部長にプレゼントをいただきました。
- *友達は(私に)プレゼントをくれました。
- *部長は(私に)プレゼントをくださいました。
- * (私は) 友達にプレゼントをあげました。
- * (私は) 子供にプレゼントをやりました。
- 3. て形+いただきます くださいます やります
- * (私は) 友達に本を貸してもらいました。
- *(私は)課長の奥さんに料理を作っていただきました。
- *友達は(私に)本を貸してくれました。
- *課長の奥さんは(私に)料理を作ってくださいました。
- *(私は)友達に写真を見せてあげました。
- * (私は) 息子に写真を見せてやりました。
- 4. ~ていただけませんか
- *手紙のまちがいをなおしてくださいませんか。
- *手紙のまちがいを直していただけませんか。

第42課

1. 辞書形

名詞+の 一ために

- 1-1 *うちを買うために、お金をためています。
- 1-2 *うちが買えるように、お金をためています。
- 1-3 *家族のために、一生懸命働きます。
- 2. 辞書形+の

名詞 +に

2 - 1

- * このドライバーは時計の修理に使います。
- * 秋は涼しくて、旅行にいいです。
- * ここは近くにスーパーがあって、買い物に便利です。
- * この本は日本のことを知るのに役に立ちます。
- * この時計は直すのに1週間かかります。
- 2-2*ここは近くにスーパーがあって、買い物に便利です。_____ここは近くにスーパーがあって、買い物するのに便利です。
 - 3. 表示目的的各种表达方式
 - 1) ます形

行きます

+に 来ます

名詞

帰ります

- * 公園へ散歩に行きます。
- 2) 辞書形

(无意志表现) +ように、(意志表现)

ない形+ない

- * かぜを引かないように、セーターを着ます。
- 3) 辞書形 (意志表现)
- +ために、(意志表现)

名詞+の

- * 会議のために、資料を準備しています。
- 4) 辞書形+の

使います

いいです

+に 便利です

役に立ちます

名詞

(時間が) かかります

* このドライバーは小さいねじを締めるのに使います。

第43課

- 1. ~そうです(様態)
- 1-1接続
- 1-2意思
- 1) *今にも雨が降りそうです。
- 2) *この料理はおいしそうです。
- 1-3*リーさんは手紙をもらって、嬉しそうです。(嬉しいですX)
- 2. ~て来ます
- 2-1*ちょっとタバコを買ってきます。
- 2-2*ちょっと銀行へ行ってきます。
- 2 3
- 2-4*夕方までに帰ってきます。

第44課

- 1. ~すぎです
- 1-1意思
- * 夕べお酒を飲みすぎました。
- 1 2
- * テレビを見すぎると、目が悪くなります。
- * スポーツをやりすぎないようにしてください。
- * このかばんは重すぎて、持てません。
- 1-3接続
- 3. ます形+やすいです、にくいです
- 2-1 "~やすいです"的意思
- 1) *この辞書は字が大きくて、見やすいです。
- 2-2 "~にくいです"的意思
- 1) *この薬は苦くて、飲みにくいです。
- 2) *このガラスは割れにくいです。
- 2-3*この薬は砂糖を入れると、飲みやすくなります。
- 3. い形容詞 ~く

な形容詞&名詞 ~に +します

- 3-1意思
- * これを右へ回すと、音が大きくなります。
- * "します" ____音を大きくします。
- 3 2
- * 音が大きい____音を大きくします
- 3 3
- * A: すみません。今日の午後横浜の工場へ行かなければならないので、会議にでなくて

もいいですか。

- B: 困りましたね。じゃ、会議を明日にします。
- * A: 今月の会議はいつにしますか。
- B: そうですね。15日にしましょうか。

第45課

- 1. ~場合は
- 1-1意思
- * 万一火事が起きた場合は、どうしたらいいですか。
- 1-2接続
- 2. ~のに (逆接)
- 2-1*薬を飲んだのに、まだ熱が下がりません。
- 2-2 OC, i, t
- * 日本料理はおいしいですが、高いです。(おいしのに×)
- * 明日雨が降っても、ピクニックに行きます. (降るのにX)
- * 飲むなといったのに、どうして飲んだんですか。(言いましたが×)

(言っても×)

- 2-3 "~のに"接続
- 3. ~でしょうか
- *受付はどちらでしょうか。
- 4. 颜色的名称
- *黒のかばん *黒いかばん

第46課

1. 辞書形

て形+いる +ところです

た形

- 1 1
- 1-2辞書形+ところです
- * ちょうど今からお茶を飲むところです。いっしょにいかがですか。
- * A: 昼ごはんはもう食べましたか。
- B: いいえ、これから食べるところです。
- A: じゃ、いっしょにいかがですか。
- 1-3 て形+いるところです

- * A:会議の資料はもうできましたか。
- B: すみません。今コピーしているとことです。もう少しまってください。
- 1-4た形+ところです
- * A: 高橋さんはもう帰りましたか。
- B: はい、たった今帰ったところです。
- 1 5
- 2. た形+ばかりです
- 2-1意思
- * 彼は先月日本へ来たばかりです。
- 2-2ばかりです、ところです
- 2 3
- 2 4

第 4 7 課

- 1. 普通形+そうです
- 1-1意思
- * 池田さんはもうすぐ結婚するそうです。
- 1-2接続
- * 雨が降るそうです。

雨が降りそうです。

- * この映画はおもしろいそうです。
- この映画はおもしろそうです。
- * 田中さんは元気だそうです。

田中さんは元気そうです。

- 1-3~そうです、~と言っていました
- * 田中さんは明日大阪へ行くそうです。
- * 田中さんは明日大阪へ行くと言っていました。
- 2. ~ようです
- 2-1接続
- 2-2意思
- * 玄関で音がしましたよ。誰か来たようです。
- 2-3~そうです、~ようです
- * リーさんは病気が治って元気そうです。
- * 大阪にいるリーさんは元気なようです。
- 2-4どうも
- * どうもかぜをひいたようです。
- 3. 音がします
- *このせっけんはいいにおいがします。

第48課

- 1. 使役动词的构成方法
- 2. 使役的句法
- *加藤さんは大阪へ出張します。

部長は加藤さんを大阪へ出張させました。

- 3. 意思
- 1) 强制
- *私は息子を買い物に行かせました。
- 2) 容忍
- *部長はリーさんを早く帰らせました。
- 4. 用法
- 4-1*私は弟に荷物を持たせました。
- 4-2*A:コピー機が故障したので、修理をお願いします。
- B:わかりました。係りの者をすぐそちらへ行かせます。
- * 私は社長に荷物をもっていただきました。
- * 私は友達に荷物を持ってもらいました。
- 5. 使役动词的て形+いただけませんか
- 5-1間違いがあったら、直していただけませんか。
- 5-2かぜをひいたので、今日1日休んでもいいですか。

第49課

- 1. 敬語
- 2. 敬語の種類
- 1) 尊敬語
- * 部長は社員旅行にいらっしゃいますか。
- 2) 謙譲語
- * 私がかばんをお持ちします。
- 3) 丁寧語
- * 今日は火曜日です。
- * あそこに郵便局があります。
- * かばん売り場は5階でございます。
- * お酒、お天気、おすし
- 3. 尊敬語と丁寧語

- * 部長はもうお帰りになりましたか。
- * 部長はもうお帰りになった?
- 4. 动词的"尊敬語"
- $4-1\sim(5)$ れます
- * 課長はもう帰られましたか。
- * 社長は何時にこちらへ来られますか。
- * 部長も会議に出席されますか。
- *今朝のニュースを見られましたか。(尊敬)
- *友達に恋人の写真を見られましたか。(被動)
- *新宿へ行けば、この映画が見られます。(可能)
- 4-2 お+ます形+になります
- * 部長はもうお帰りになりましたか。
- * この新聞をお読みになりますか。
- * この絵は社長がおかきになりました。
- 4-3特別"尊敬語"
- 4-4尊敬的请求方式
- * もっと召し上がってください。
- * ロビーでお待ちください。
- 5. 名词、形容词的"尊敬語"
- 1)加"お"的词

名詞 お国、お名前、お仕事

い形容詞 お忙しい、お若い

な形容詞 お元気、お上手、お暇

2)加"ご"的词

名詞 ご専門、ご家族、ご兄弟、ご住所

第50課

1. 謙譲語

1 - 1

- 1-2 "ウチ"(自己人)和 "ソト"(外面的人)
- * 在电话里。A:母亲的朋友 B: 孩子
- A: お母さんはいらっしゃいますか。
- B: 母はちょっと出かけておりますが…
- * 在电话里。A: A 公司职员 B: B 公司职员
- A:加藤さんはいらっしゃいますか。
- B:加藤は今日は本社へ行っておりますが…

- 1-3家族、他人的称呼
- 2. お(ご)~します
- 2-1お+ます形+します
- * 私が社長の荷物をお持ちします。
- * 主人が車でお送りします。
- * 私は来年国へお帰りします。(×)
- 2-2ご~します
- * これからこの機械の使い方をご説明します。
- 2-3*私が社長の荷物をお持ちいたします。
- * これからこの機械の使い方をご説明いたします。
- 3. 特別"謙譲語"
- * A:明日お宅にいらっしゃいますか。
- B:はい、おります。
- 4. "ございます"、 "~でございます"
- *何かいけんがございますか。
- *受付はあちらでございます。

《美国知识产权法》教学大纲

齐 筠 编写

目 录

前	言		895
		概述	
	二、	课程教学目的和基本要求	895
	三、	课程主要内容及学时分配	895
	四、	授课方式:	895
	五、	教材及阅读书目:	896
	•	Purpose:	896
		1939 Restatement of Torts §'s 757 and 758.	896

前言

一、概述

美国知识产权法为外国语学院三年级学生的专业必选课。共 2 学分,36 学时。课程以案例教学为主,用英文讲授。重点介绍美国商业秘密、专利及商标的相关基本法律制度,并简要介绍美国法律制度及司法制度、研究方法及案例阅读技巧。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

美国知识产权法课程旨在使学生了解美国商业秘密、专利及商标等法律制度的主要架构、主要理论、基本概念、基本法律原则和经典案例,掌握相关英语词汇及语言特点,培养法律英语思维及辩护能力。

学生在课前应认真阅读案例,分析找出案件事实、诉讼过程、争点、适用的法律(原则和判例)、法律分析及判决结果;课上积极思考和参与辩论,培养对事实和法律的分析能力和对法律结果的预见力。学生还应掌握相关法律术语,包含术语含义、拼写,相对应的中文法律术语及新术语的翻译,学习英语法律语言特点,学习英文法律文书写作。

案例学习还有助于学生了解美国的基本法律制度,包含司法制度、法律文化和法律研究方法,为今后从事涉外法律工作奠定基础。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

按照专题分,可分为美国基本法律制度、商业秘密法、专利法和商标法四部分内容。

美国基本法律制度:2课时,简介美国基本法律体系、法院体系、诉讼程序、法庭意见书结构

等。

商业秘密法:6课时。

专利法:10课时。

商标法:12课时。

四、授课方式:

采取讲课与讨论结合的方式。鉴于学生缺乏相关知识背景,第一阶段为教师主讲,介绍美国基本法律制度及案例特点和分析方法。第二阶段 采用课堂讨论和讲解方式,由一名学生对案例进行陈述分析,回答老师和同学的问题,就相关问题展开讨论。

进行一次模拟法庭活动,学生负责写辩护词等法律文书。

考核方式:

开卷考试,在各相关教学内容完成后进行,要求学生运用所学知识对进行书面案例分析。每次课业各占学期总成绩的25%,平时成绩占25%。

五、教材及阅读书目:

教材:美国知识产权法阅读材料(教师自编)。 阅读书目:

- 1. Merges, Menell, Lemley, & Jorde:《新技术时代的知识产权法》(Intellectual Property in the New Technological Age. Aspen Law & Business).
- 2. Arthur R.Miller,Michael H.Davis: 《知识产权法:专利、商标和版权》(第二版)(影印版),中国人民大学出版社,2004。
 - 3. 李明德:《美国知识产权法》, 法律出版社, 2003。
 - 4. The US Uniform Trade Secrets Act
 - 5. US CODE: Title 35. Patents
 - 6. Lahnam Act

I. The U.S. Legal System

- A. Common Law.
- B. Civil Law.
- C. the constitution and other bodies of law.
- D. judicial system.
- i. ties of courts.
- ii. legal procedure.
 - E. legal research and citation.

II. Trade secret

- A. Introduction
- 1. History
- Purpose:
- 1939 Restatement of Torts §'s 757 and 758.
- 2nd Restatement (1978)
- 1979 Uniform Trade Secrets Act (Amended in 1985)
- 2. Theories Why protect trade secrets?
- B. Subject Matter
- 1. Generally Defining Trade Secrets.
- Three essential elements.
- 2. Six factors considered in determining trade secret status.
- 3. Three activities that raise trade secret misappropriation issues.
- 4. Case: Metallurgical v. Fourtek, 1986
- 5. Negative information

- 6. Reasonable Efforts to Maintain Secrecy
- 7. Disclosure of Trade Secrets
- 8. Why not apply for a patent?
- C. Misappropriation of Trade Secrets Two basic types improper means and Breach of confidence
 - 1. Improper Means
 - Definition and elements
 - Case: DuPont v. Rolfe, 1970
 - 2. Breach of confidence
 - Confidential Relationship
 - Case: Smith v. Dravo Corp.
 - Define "Had reason to know"
 - 3. Reverse Engineering
 - Definition and general rule
 - Case: Chicago Lock Co. v. Fanberg (1982)
 - 4. Departing Employee's
 - General Rule:
 - Employee created Trade Secrets
 - Case: Wexler v. Greenberg (1960)
 - 5. Who owns an invention?
 - Three categories:
 - Trailer clause
 - D. Agreements To Keep Secrets

Case: Warner-Lambert Pharmaceutical v. John J. Reynolds (1959)

- E. Remedies
- 1. Damages
- 2. Injunction
- 3. Criminal trade secret protection
- Economic Espionage Act of 1996:
- § 1831(a) and § 1832(a) of the EEA
- 4. Rights to TS information submitted to government agencies

III. PATENT LAW

- A. Introduction
- 1. Most Common Patent Utility Patents
- 2. Comparison of Utility Patent and Trade Secret
- 3. Historical background
- 4. Basic Overview

- Five Requirements for Patentability
- 1. patentable subject matter
- 2. Novelty
- 3. Utility
- 4. Non-obviousness
- 5. Enablement
- The process of getting a patent Prosecution
- Independent claims
- Dependent claims
- Specification
- 5. Rights Conferred
- 6. Theories of Patent Law
- Central Theory
- Market driven incentive to appropriate full economic reward.
- B. Elements of Patentability
- 1. Patentable Subject Matter: Patent Code §101
- 2. Subject Matter Cases
- Case: *Diamond v Chakrabarty* 1980
- Defined composition of matter:
- Case: Funk Brothers Seed Co. v. Kalo Inoculant Co. 1948
- Case: Davis & Co. v. H.K. Mulford Co.
- 3. Abstract Ideas
- Case: Diamond vs. Dire
- 5. Utility
- Moral Utility
- General Utility
- Specific Utility
- Case: Brenner vs. Mason (Supreme Court 1966)
- 6. Novelty and Statutory Bars: 35 U.S.C. § 102
- 7. The Nature of Novelty
- Case: Rosaire v. Manson, 1955, 5th cir. The nature of Novelty
- Inherency Doctrine
- 8. Statutory Bars: Publications
- Two factors of §102(b):
- 1. No patent if delay too long in applying for a patent. (can't have been public for more than a year before application)
- 2. There must be a public sale of the patent for this to apply the law looks down on trying to extend the time frame to patent by not disclosing
 - Case: *In Re Hall* 1986
 - 9. Statutory Bars: Pubic Use
 - "Statute of Limitation" §102(b) Once invention is accessible to public, inventor has 1 yr to

file patent app

- Case: Egbert v Hoppman 1884
- Experimental use exception –
- Case: City of Elisabeth vs. Pavement Co.
- 10. Priority Rules and the First to Invent
- § 102 (g) Priority rules & First intent
- Reasonable Diligence
- Abandonment, suppression, and concealment (ASC)
- Two forms of abandonment:
- Case: Griffith v. Kanamaru
- Prior User Rights
- 11. Non-obviousness standard §103
- An invention is not patentable if:
- 1. It only makes a trivial step, or
- 2. It is obvious the obvious next step to one with ordinary skill in the art.
- Case: Graham v. John Deere 1966.
- Case: *In re Vaeck*.
- 12. Enablement § 112
- Enablement Requirement.
- Specification
- Claims

C. INFRINGEMENT

- 1. Claim Interpretation
- 2. Literal Infringement
- Case: Larami v. Amron, 1993.
- 3. Doctrine of equivalents.
- 4. Reverse doctrine of equivalents.
- Reverse Doctrine of Equivalents.
- 5. Contributory Infringement
- Elements:
- Case: C.R. Bard, Inc. v. Advanced Cardiovascular Systems
- D. Defenses
- 1. Experimental Use
- §271(e)
- 2. Inequitable Conduct
- 3. Patent Misuse
- E. Remedies for Patent Infringement
- 1. Injunctions
- Permanent injunction
- Preliminary injunction
- Case: H.H. Robertson Co. V. United Steel Deck, 1987.

2. Damages §284

IV. Trademark ®

A. Introduction

- 1. Background, Purpose and Theory
- B. What Can Be Protected As A Trademark
- 1. Type of Marks
- Trademarks
- Service marks
- Certification Marks
- Collective Marks
- 2. Color, Fragrance, and Sounds
- Case: Qualitex Co. v. Jacobson Products, 1995
- doctrine of secondary meaning.
- 3. Things that CANNOT be protected as trademark list of non-protectable items are in §2 of the Act

C. Establishment and Extension of Trademark Rights

- 1. Distinctiveness
- Arbitrary and fanciful marks are inherently distinctive
- Suggestive marks
- Descriptive mark—secondary meaning required
- Case: Zatarain's, Inc. v. Oak Grove Smokehouse, Inc. 1983
- Fair use defense §11(5)(b)(4)
- 2. Distinctiveness of Trade Dress and Product Configuration
- Trade Dress
- Packaging
- Functionality
- Test for Functionality –
- Case: Two Pesos, Inc. V. Taco Cabana, Inc, 1992
- Case: Knitwaves, Inc. v. Lollytogs, 1995, 2nd cir
- 3. Priority Acquiring Ownership Of Marks
- Case: Zazu Designs v L'Oreal, 1992 7TH cir,
- Token use
- Case: Blue Bell, Inc. v. Farah Manufacturing Co.
- Geographic limits on Trademark use.
- Concurrent registration
- 4. Trademark Office Procedures
- Principle Register
- Supplemental Register
- Section 2 of the Lanham Act Grounds for Refusing Trademark Registration

- Immoral or scandalous marks
- Case: In re Old Glory Condom Corp, 1993.
- Geographic mark: §2(e)(2)
- Case: In re Nantucket, 1982
- 5. Overview of Lanham Act §2 What is not registerable.
- Scandalous or immoral marks
- Deceptive mark:
- Descriptive or deceptively misdescriptive
- Accurate, then descriptive
- Geographically descriptive or deceptively misdescriptive
- 6. Cancellation of Registration
- 7. Incontestability: §15 Lanham Act
- Defenses to Incontestability: §1115 (§33) of Lanham Act
- Case: Park'N Fly v. Dollar Park and Fly, Inc., 1985

D. Infringement of Marks

- 1. Likelihood of Consumer Confusion
- Case: AMF Incorporated v. Sleekcraft Boats 1979
- Sleekcraft Test
- 2. Other Types of Confusion
- 3. Infringement by Dilution (also state unfair competition laws)
- Definition
- Types of dilution:
- Blurring.
- Tarnishment
- Five elements necessary to establish a claim of dilution
- Case: Mead Data Central v. Toyota Motor Sales
- 4. Contributory Infringement
 - 5. False Advertising
- Section 43(a) Lanham Act
- § 43(a)(2)
- 2 kinds of false advertising:
- Literal
- Implied
- Factors relevant to prove false adv
- Case: Johnson & Johnson erck v. Smithkline Beecham, 1992.
- Remedies for false advertising –
- E. Defenses to Trademark Infringement
- 1. Genericness
- Case: Murphy Door Bed Co. v. Interior Sleep Systems
- Functionality
- Definition
- Lanham Act §33(b)(8)

- Three part test to show functionality
- Case: Stormy Cline v. Progroup, 1987
- 3. Abandonment (§14 of Lanham Act)
- Case: Major League Baseball Properties .v Sed Non Olet Denarius, 1993
- 4. Nonmative Use
- Case: New Kids on the Block v. News America Publishing, 1992.
- 5. Parody
- Case: L.L.Bean Inc. V. Drake Publishers, 1987.

F. Remedies

- 1. Injunctions: § 34
- 2. Damages
- Case: Lindy Pen Co. v. Bic Pen Corp., 1993.
- 3. Corrective Advertising.
- Case: Big O Tire Dealers v. Goodyear Ture & Rubber Co., 1977.

《法律英语》教学大纲

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目 录

前	言		907
	—,	概述	907
	,	课程教学目的和基本要求	907
	三、	课程主要内容及学时分配	907
		相关教学环节	
Les		7H/XX 1 21 P	
		se a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	
		y	
	V. What	is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	909
Les	son Two .		910
2.T	ext		910
	Leg	gal System	910
	II. Choo	se a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	where
	necessar	y	910
	V. What	is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	910
4. 8	Supplemer	tary Reading: Common Law	910
Les	son Three		911
2. 7	ext		911
	Leg	gal Education	911
	II. Choo	se a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	where
	necessar	у	911
		is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	
4. \$	Supplemer	tary Reading: Legal Education	911
2. 7	ext		913
	Co	urt System	913
	II. Choo	se a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	where
	necessar	у	913
	V. What	is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	913
		tary Reading: The English Court Structure	
2. 7			
		se a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	
		y	
		is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	
4.		nentary Reading: Federal System Created by the Constitution	
Les	son Six		915

2. Text	915
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	915
4. Supplementary Reading: Administrative Agency Powers	915
Lesson Seven	916
2. Text	916
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	n where
necessary.	916
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	916
4. Supplementary Reading: Criminal Sanctions	917
Lesson Eight	918
2. Text	918
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	ı where
necessary.	918
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	918
4. Supplementary Reading: Constitutional Rights in Criminal Procedure	918
Lesson Nine.	920
2. Text	920
Civil Procedure	920
3. After class activities	
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	
necessary.	
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	
4. Supplementary Reading: Civil Procedure in the United States	
Lesson Ten.	
2. Text	921
Torts	021
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	
necessary.	
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	
4. Supplementary Reading: The Evolution of Tort Concepts and Remedies	
Lesson Eleven	
2. Text	
Contract	
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	
4. Supplementary Reading: Introduction to Contract	
Lesson Twelve	
2. Text	
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	
necessary.	
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples 4. Supplementary Reading: Property	
4. Supplementary Keading: Property	926

Lesson Thirteen	927
2. Text	927
Law of Corporation	927
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	where
necessary.	927
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	927
4. Supplementary Reading: Types of Companies	927
Lesson Fourteen	928
2. Text	928
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	where
necessary.	928
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	928
4. Supplementary Reading: Trademark	929
Lesson Fifteen	930
2. Text	930
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	where
necessary.	930
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	930
4. Supplementary Reading: International Conflict of Laws	930
Lesson Sixteen	931
2. Text	931
Evidence	931
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form	where
necessary.	
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples	
4. Supplementary Reading: Burdens of Proof	

前言

一、概述

《法律英语》为外国语学院二年级学生的选修课。

《法律英语》是法律科学与英语语言学间的交叉学科,因此其教学应从两个角度进行。一方面,按照法律的观点、方法以及法律规范、法律文书的特殊需要来研究英语在法学理论及实践中的运用;另一方面,运用语言学的基本原理和方法来研究法律科学和法律实践中的英语语言特点。《法律英语》的主要内容是外国法律制度介绍、部门法概况,法律术语讲解、重点案例分析等,课堂教学采用多媒体形式、强调互动,以教师讲授和学生讨论相结合的形式进行。书面材料选自外国原版教科书、案例汇编等。在教学中既传授法律知识也分析案例中法律逻辑推理的语言特点,为学生进行专业阅读和中外法律比较研究奠定基础。

在《法律英语》的教材选择及结构安排上,充分考虑到法律英语是专门用途英语的一种,从内容与结构来讲,包括法律英语语言特点的分析及法律英语的翻译技巧、英美法系与大陆法系的比较、英美主要部门法,以及程序法等等内容。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

《法律英语》课程的教学目的包括:

(1)简要介绍英美法律制度,并对比中国法律制度与西方法律制度特别是与英美法律制度的异同;(2)通过法律英语的教学,使学生对法律英语的语言特点有初步了解;(3)帮助学生了解与法律英语相关的语法、词汇、语域、技巧、语篇及体裁,重点掌握基本的法律英语术语;(4)帮助学生提高研读英美法律资料的能力,对今后继续学习和研究本领域的法学制度起到一定的帮助作用。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

《法律英语》的教学的内容主要分为三个部分:(1)法律、法律体系、法律教育和法院概况,主要包括第一课至第四课: "Law" "Legal Systems" "Legal Education" "Court System"; (2) 部门法简介,即第五课至第十六课: "Constitutional Law" "Administrative Law" "Criminal Law" "Criminal

Procedure Law" "Civil Procedure" "Torts" "Contract" "Property Law" "Corporation Law" "Intellectual Property Law" "International Law" "Evidence"; (3) 实践教学:案例分析和电影教学。

由于课文的内容不同,长短不一,所以所需要的时间也有所不同。大致安排两课时完成一课书, 中间穿插播放相关的教学片。

四、相关教学环节

《法律英语》课程的设置从内容上主要分为两类,一是课堂教学,二是案例分析与电影教学。课堂教学部分主要介绍英美法律制度。这部分课程的涵盖面非常广,既要介绍英美法律制度和法院系统,又要涉及各部门法,如宪法、刑法、诉讼法、合同法、侵权法、财产法等。在讲解介绍法律制度的同时,结合英美法系所具有的判例法特征,与学生一起分析案例,并配以适当的电影教学,使学生们从不同的角度对法律英语有一个较为深刻的认识,有效地掌握法律英语。

因为法律英语是实用型、功能型英语,所以在课堂上不能单纯沿用传统的教学方法,而主要采用案例教学法。案例教学是指导学生以具体的案例为范本,采用整体阅读法,案例教学的重点是培养和训练学生的学习能力,改变单纯的语言知识传授,目的在于引导学生综合运用各种语言的知识,积极参加相关的课堂语言实践教学活动,使学生在实际语言环境中积极思考、自觉参与、了解相关的法律事物,获取更多的知识,并激发学生的学习兴趣、培养信心,逐步发展学生实际运用语言的综合技能。

Lesson One

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the concept of law.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Law

... Law consists of the whole body of rules applied and enforced under the authority of established government in determining what conduct is proper and should be permitted and that which should be denied or penalized.

Without law, there would be anarchy. Law is the means through which society is able to exist by providing protection for the individual; by establishing and maintaining order, health, and safety; by providing a peaceful means of dispute resolution; by providing stability and flexibility in economic relations between people; and by prohibiting conduct destructive to society. Rules reflect the society and time in which they operate. Growth of law has been pragmatic, developing from society's need for reasonableness and flexibility in its day-to-day working....

3. After class activities:

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following words into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: What is the right to equal protection of law?

4. Supplementary Reading: Public Law and Private Law

- (1) 孟德斯鸠,《论法的精神》,北京:商务印书馆,2004年版
- (2) 梅因,《古代法》,北京:商务印书馆,1996年版
- (3) 伯纳德•施瓦茨、《美国法律史》、中国政法大学出版社、1990年版

Lesson Two

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the most important legal systems in the world.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2.Text

Legal System

Civil law is the predominant system of law in the world, with its origins in Roman Law, and sets out a comprehensive system of rules, usually codified, that are applied and interpreted by judges. However, modern systems are descendants of the 19th century codification movement, during which the most important codes (most prominently the Napoleonic Code and the Civil Code of German) came into existence.

Common law The common law forms a major part of the law of those countries of the world with a history as British territories or colonies. It is notable for its inclusion of extensive non-statutory law reflecting precedent derived from centuries of judgments by working jurists.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following words into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: The Advantages and Disadvantages of Civil Law System and Common Law System

4. Supplementary Reading: Common Law

- (1) [法]达维德,《当代主要法律体系》,漆竹生译,上海译文出版社 1984 年版
- (2) 邵景春著《欧洲联盟的法律与制度》,人民法院出版社,1999年版
- (3) 郭成伟著《外国法系精神》,北京:中国政法大学出版社,2001版
- (4) [德]马迪亚斯·赫蒂根著《欧洲法》(张恩民译), 法律出版社, 2003 年版

Lesson Three

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the legal education system in the United States.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Legal Education

The two threads — scholarly and practical — combine to create a curriculum that strives to provide students with a solid academic base while developing the skills necessary to the practice of law.

Legal education today in the United States draws from and builds on Langdell's Harvard tradition, Reed's interdisciplinary approach, and Frank's clinical model. The historical tension between the academic and the practical aspects of legal education survives, but with a growing recognition that both are appropriate and necessary components of a professional education.

. . .

Law schools are encouraged to provide instruction to help students develop ten fundamental lawyering skills: (1) Problem solving; (2) legal analysis and reasoning; (3) legal research; (4) factual investigation; (5) communication; (6) counseling; (7) negotiation; (8) litigation and alternative dispute resolution procedures; (9) organization and management of legal work; and (10) recognizing and resolving ethical dilemmas.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following words into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: Are you a law student? If yes, please state your ambition as a law student. If not, please tell your idea about a law student.

4. Supplementary Reading: Legal Education

- (1) 伯纳德• 施瓦茨,《美国法律史》,中国政法大学出版社,1990年版
- (2)潘国和, 《中外法学教育比较研究》, 上海:华东师范大学出版社, 1992年版
- (3) John Makdisi, Introduction to the Study of Law, Cincinnati: Anderson Publishing Co., 1990.

Lesson Four

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the court structures in both the United States and the United Kingdom.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Court System

The United States of America, unlike many other countries, has no single, unified system of courts. Instead, courts are operated in both state and the federal governments.

State Court Structure Since each state is free to create whatever courts it sees fit and to distribute judicial business among them as it sees fit, it is not surprising that great diversity exists between the judicial systems of the various states. Nevertheless, a general pattern can be discerned.

Federal Court Structure The structure of the federal judicial system is similar to what is found in the various states. There are three levels of courts: trial, intermediate appellate, and top appellate.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: The Court Systems of China and the United States

4. Supplementary Reading: The English Court Structure

- (1)潘维大等编:《英美法导读》,法律出版社 2000 年版
- (2) 伯纳德•施瓦茨、《美国法律史》、中国政法大学出版社、1990年版
- (3) 麦高伟,杰弗里•威尔逊,《英国刑事司法程序》,法律出版社,2003年版

Lesson Five

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the constitution and its functions.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Constitution

A constitution is a system, often codified as a written document, which establishes the rules and principles by which an organization, or political entity, is governed. In the case of countries this term refers specifically to a national constitution, which defines the fundamental political principles and establishes the power and duties of each government. Most national constitutions also guarantee certain rights to the people. Historically, before the evolution of modern-style, codified national constitutions, the term constitution could be applied to any important law that governed the functioning of a government

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following words into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: Rights

- 1. What are rights?
- 2. List the rights your think you should have. Why do you think it is important for your to have these rights?
 - 3. What rights, if any, seem most important? Why?

VI. Case Reading (See Appendix Case One)

4. Supplementary Reading: Federal System Created by the Constitution

- (1) 戴西,《英宪精义》,
- (2) 《宪法公民权》(美国法精要), 法律出版社
- (3) 戴维· S· 克拉克,《美国法律概论》,中信出版社,2003年版

Lesson Six

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the administrative law of the United States.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Administrative Law

In theory, American government consists of three branches: the legislative, to enact law; the executive, to administer and enforce law; and the judicial (the courts), to interpret law. In reality, however, there is a "fourth branch" of government — one consisting of administrative agencies. These agencies carry out certain investigatory, rule-making, or adjudicatory functions which are delegated by the legislative or executive branches of federal, state, or local government.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: When your case can be settled in either a court or an administrative agency, where will you go? Why?

4. Supplementary Reading: Administrative Agency Powers

- (1)潘维大等编:《英美法导读》,法律出版社 2000 年版
- (2) 戴维· S· 克拉克,《美国法律概论》,中信出版社,2003年版

Lesson Seven

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the criminal law and punishment.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Criminal Law

Commonly, people think of crimes as acts that threaten public safety, security or morality. Alternatively, crime can be defined as anti-social conduct that is sufficiently serious to require state intervention and punishment. While both these definitions account for the more serious offences against person and property, there are a number of acts (for example, parking offences), and some omissions, which are subject to the criminal law yet do not cause such a threat. Thus, to be accurate, we can only say that a crime is any act or omission that is contrary to the criminal law. However, while this identifies what conduct is a crime, it is of no help in identifying what conduct ought to be a crime.

. . .

This idea of fault is present in the principal maxim of the criminal law: the act is not guilty unless the mind is also guilty. However, this must be treated cautiously. As implied above, *mens rea* is not required for all offences. Furthermore, without being morally guilty, and vice versa. Nevertheless, most criminal offences contain both these elements and this means that for most crimes the prosecution must prove beyond a reasonable doubt that the defendant committed the *actus reus* of the crime, while at the same time having the required *mens rea*.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: Should death penalty be abolished?

VI. Case Reading (See Appendix Case Two)

4. Supplementary Reading: Criminal Sanctions

- 5. Further Reading:
- (1) 贝卡利亚,《论犯罪与刑罚》,
- (2) 《美国模范刑法典》

Lesson Eight

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the criminal procedure of the United States.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Criminal Procedure

The law of criminal procedure —i.e., the law governing that series of procedures through which the substantive criminal law is enforced. Under the federated system of government, the federal government and each of the fifty states has independent authority to enact criminal codes applicable within the territorial reach of its legislative powers. Each also has the authority to enforce those criminal laws through its own criminal justice process — that is, through its own criminal justice agencies and its own laws of procedure.

In American criminal justice process, choices have been made to achieve both effective enforcement and fairness. Those choices are reflected in ten cornerstone objectives that have shaped that process: (1) achieving reliable factfinding; (2) utilizing an adversary process of adjudication; (3) utilizing an accusatorial system of proof; (4) minimizing erroneous convictions; (5) minimizing the burdens of accusation and litigation; (6) providing for lay participation; (7) respecting the dignity of the individual; (8) maintaining the appearance of fairness; (9) achieving equality in administration; and (10) addressing the concerns of the victim of the crime.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: Similarities and Differences Between Chinese and American Criminal Procedures

4. Supplementary Reading: Constitutional Rights in Criminal Procedure

6. Further Reading:

(1) 卞建林,刘玫,《外国刑事诉讼法》,人民法院出版社/中国社会科学出版社,2002年版

(2) 杰罗德• H• 以兹瑞,威恩• R•, 拉法吾,《刑事程序法》(美国法精要), 法律出版社, 1999 年版

Lesson Nine

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the civil procedure of the United States.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Civil Procedure

Civil procedure is about litigation, which is the basic model by which disputes are resolved in our society. Suppose someone does something that harms you — maybe by negligently driving her car, or punching you in the nose, or breaching a contract, or stealing your property. How do you resolve your grievance with that person? One possibility is to engage in "self-help," by which you redress the wrong personally; you might want to punch the perpetrator in the nose, or enter her property to seize what she stole. This is usually a disastrous choice, because you simply compound the wrong by perpetrating one yourself. Another possibility is to contact the person who harmed you and demand some compensation or other remedy. This often works, as people quite frequently work out their differences informally. If such efforts fail, however, what do you do? The classic course for dispute resolution is litigation — the process by which you sue the wrongdoer, by which you "take her to court." The dispute is resolved by the judicial system through the litigation process. Litigation, then, is a socially acceptable method for resolving our disputes.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: The Role of Substantive Law and Procedural Law

4. Supplementary Reading: Civil Procedure in the United States

5. Further Reading:

《民事程序法》(美国法精要),法律出版社,1999年版

Lesson Ten

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand torts and remedies.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Torts

Tort law is the body of law that deals with civil wrongs, except those that arise from contract problems. The purpose of torts is to compensate an injured party through the award of damages for the injuries incurred during a tortious act. Policy consideration, such as maintenance of a peaceful society, deterrence, social responsibility, and the balancing of economic interests against societal benefits, play vital roles in tort law because it attempts to find a balance between the harm caused to individuals and the benefit to society. Of course, societal wrongs are also dealt with in criminal law. The difference is that a tort is a wrong against an individual, whereas a crime is a wrong against society as a whole. However, some acts or omissions may be both criminal offenses and tortious ones. Tort law has developed over the centuries and lacks statutory organization; consequently, it is helpful to discuss torts by categorizing them in terms of the degree of fault inherent in the tortious conduct/liability.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: False Imprisonment

Direction: Look at the following fact situation, determine whether there has been false imprisonment or not and give reasons for your decision.

Dupler, the plaintiff had worked for a company since 1960. At approximately 4:30 on April 23rd, Seubert, the defendant asked Dupler to come to Peterson's office. When all three were inside, sitting down, with the door closed, Seubert told Dupler the company would no longer employ her and that she could choose either to resign or be fired. Dupler refused to resign. At about 5 o'clock, Dupler began to feel sick to her stomach and said "You have already fired me. Why don't you just let me go." She tried to get up

but Peterson told her to sit down in a "very loud harsh voice." She was kept there discussing about it until 5:40. Both Seubert and Peterson were trying to convince her to resign rather than be fired.

VI. Case Reading (See Appendix Case Three)

4. Supplementary Reading: The Evolution of Tort Concepts and Remedies

5. Further Reading:

- (1) 《侵权法》(美国法精要),法律出版社,1999年版
- (2) 伯纳德• 施瓦茨、《美国法律史》,中国政法大学出版社,1990年版

Lesson Eleven

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand concept of contract and types of contract.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Contract

Contracts are binding agreements that have legal consequences and can be enforced in court. Contracts may be characterized as express or implied; bilateral or unilateral; executory or executed; and void, voidable, and unenforceable.

. . .

The requirements for formulating a contract appear relatively uncomplicated. First, there must be two or more parties, each of whom has the legal capacity to enter into an agreement. Second, there must be an offer and acceptance, or consent, which reflects a mutual understanding between the parties about the essential elements of the contract. Third, the agreement must be supported by consideration or obligation. Valid contracts are accompanied by consideration This consideration may include the exchange of mutual promises, such as one party's agreeing to perform household tasks this week in exchange for a promise that the other party will do so next week, or the exchange of money or goods, such as trading one car for another. The consideration must be the result of the bargaining, and past consideration is not sufficient. The fact that one party did a favor for another last week is not valid consideration for this week's contract.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: Suppose you are a lawyer, what would be your answer to the question made by your client.

Question: I am about to purchase a home. The builder promised that everything wrong will be taken care of and that a handshake would save a lot of unnecessary paperwork. I have no reason to doubt him, but I wonder whether I should trust him. What can happen to me?

VI. Case Reading (See Appendix Case Four)

4. Supplementary Reading: Introduction to Contract

5. Further Reading:

伯纳德·施瓦茨,《美国法律史》,中国政法大学出版社,1990年版 克劳德·D·柔沃,乔登·D·沙博,《合同法》(美国法精要),法律出版社,1999年版

Lesson Twelve

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand concept of property and property law.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Property Law

Property law is the area of law that governs the various forms of ownership in real property and in personal property, within the common law legal system. In the civil law system, there is a division between movable and immovable property. Movable property roughly corresponds to personal property, while immovable property corresponds to real estate or real property, and the associated rights and obligations thereon.

...

Definition of property Property law can be divided into personal and real property. Real property concerns itself with rights in rem, or relating to land. Personal property concerns itself with rights in personam, or relating to chattels. Despite common assumptions, the idea of *property* in property law itself remain indefinable. The definition of property in the modern sense is described as oscillating between competing models of property as a fact, property as a right, and property as a responsibility. Declared ownership in and of itself is insufficient to constitute property in a legal sense. Rather, the notion of property arises where one can have his/her right to land or chattels respected and enforced by a court of law. Therefore to possess good title (and thus enforceable rights) on property one must acquire it legitimately, according to the laws of the jurisdiction in which one seeks enforcement.

- 3. After class activities
- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
- V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: How do you understand the following sentence: "We all have an interest in real estate, since we all live somewhere; and we work, study, and travel somewhere, too."

VI. Case Reading (See Appendix Case Five)

4. Supplementary Reading: Property

5. Further Reading:

- (1) 伯纳德• 施瓦茨、《美国法律史》、中国政法大学出版社、1990年版
- (2) 戴维· S· 克拉克,《美国法律概论》,中信出版社,2003年版

Lesson Thirteen

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the concept of corporation and types of corporations.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Law of Corporation

While the concept of a corporation was clearly developed by the time of Blackstone and can be traced much earlier, the modern law of corporations is largely a product of developments in the latter part of the nineteenth and the early part of the twentieth centuries. In the early part of the nineteenth century, business in the United States tended to be local in nature and of primary concern to individual states, though there were some exceptions such as the national bank. Corporations during this period were usually created for public or near public purposes—e.g. to build canals, bridges, or toll roads—and often enjoyed some monopoly privileges. However, intensive industrial development began in about 1825. The corporation proved to be an ideal instrument for this development since it could raise large amounts of capital from numerous investors and yet provide centralized direction of large industrial concerns. Even though many corporations rapidly became national in scope during the nineteenth century, they were and remained the descendants of local state-related enterprises, and received their charters from states rather than from the Federal Government.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
- V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: Be an Employer or an Employee

4. Supplementary Reading: Types of Companies

5. Further Reading:

伯纳德·施瓦茨、《美国法律史》,中国政法大学出版社,1990年版 罗伯特·W·汉密尔顿,《公司法》(美国法精要),法律出版社,1999年版

Lesson Fourteen

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the basic concepts of intellectual law and trademark.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Intellectual Property

According to the World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO), intellectual property refers to the 'products of the mind: inventions, literary and artistic works, any symbols, names, images, and designs used in commerce.' In a similar vein, the World Trade Organisation (WTO) has offered its own definition: 'Intellectual property rights are rights given to people over the creation of their minds.' It goes on, "Creators can be given the right to prevent others from using their inventions, designs or other creations.' These rights are known as 'intellectual property rights'. But even these very general definitions of intellectual property and its associated rights are problematic. They exclude, for instance, the most basic product of the mind – ideas – which are not generally protected as intellectual property. At the other extreme, confidential information is conventionally viewed as a type of intellectual property, even though it is difficult to see how a secret constitutes a 'product of the mind', although it may certainly have commercial value.

Another way to think about intellectual property is to ask, not what it is, but rather what the various kinds of intellectual property, patents, copyright, industrial designs, trade marks and confidential information have in common. One answer has been to point to the abstract or intangible nature of intellectual property. Unlike a piece of land or a car, for example, intellectual property has no material existence. Patents and trade marks, for example, cannot be discussed except as a form of property, for they come into being precisely at the point when they are legally recognized.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: The Well-known Trademarks in China

VI. Case Reading (See Appendix Case Six)

4. Supplementary Reading: Trademark

5. Further Reading:

William Burnham, Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States, $3^{\rm rd}$ Edition, West Group, 2002

Lesson Fifteen

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the concept and sources of international law.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

International Law

In international law, the identification of legal rules is quite different than it is in most municipal legal systems. The reason for this is directly linked to international law's very nature. Given the international political system of nation-states and the idea of state sovereignty, the sources of international law cannot be equivalent to those of most domestic laws.

Traditionally, rules of international law have been identified by looking to the various forms of rulemaking conduct of two or more states. Although these different forms of conduct tend to blend one into another, it is helpful at the outset to think of each form as a discrete source of a certain sort of international law.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following into English.
 - V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: The present system of international law is based on the sovereign state concept.

4. Supplementary Reading: International Conflict of Laws

5. Further Reading:

- (1) 戴维· S· 克拉克,《美国法律概论》,中信出版社,2003年版
- (2) Mark W. Janis, An Introduction to International Law, Aspen Publishers, 2003

Lesson Sixteen

The objective of the lesson is to help the students understand the concept of evidence and burdens of proof.

Two teaching hours is allocated for this lesson.

1. Pre-class Activities:

- I. Read the following terms and use them to make sentences in legal context.
- II. Please read the text and make notes while reading. Then find a partner to do the pair-work: Ask each other at least ten questions on the text.

2. Text

Evidence

Evidence is the stuff or proof — manifesting truth about particular facts or circumstances. Without evidence, there is no proof. Without proof, burdens are not met, and convictions, verdicts, or judgments are an impossibility. Evidence directs the tribunal, the jury, and the practitioners advocating its content toward actions to be taken. Evidence is that which leads us to the truth; it is a piece of life, a fact, a real or tangible thing that elucidates a proposition. Evidence is the key to things as they are. Evidence is that which we see, touch, feel, conjecture, and imagine. Evidence is derived from deductive reasoning, logical inference, and supposition. Evidence law is the law's substantive and procedural instruction for the use of evidence.

. . .

Sources of evidence law Until very recently, most evidentiary determinations were the product of common law tradition. Common law principles such as competency, relevancy, attorney-client and priest-penitent privilege, and hearsay are well established in Western jurisprudence. Case law analysis of these common law principles adds to or detracts from the developing law of evidence. Surprisingly, prior to the twentieth century, the majority of interpretations regarding evidence were nonstatutory. In the American tradition, statutory analysis is a recent phenomenon in the law of evidence.

Legislatively, the Federal Rules of Evidence were not adopted until 1975. Presently, however, practitioners tend to view statutory constructions as the only means to interpret evidence law. Within this reality, justice practitioners soon discover that statutes control the ebb and flow of evidence in a typical court case. A majority of American states have adopted either almost identical or modified versions of the widely respected Federal Rules of Evidence. Adoption at every federal venue is mandatory.

3. After class activities

- I. Answer the following questions according to the text.
- II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.
 - III. Translate the following words into English.

IV. Translate the following passage into Chinese.

V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.

Topic: Comparison: Classification of Evidence in America and China

4. Supplementary Reading: Burdens of Proof

5. Further Reading:

- (1) 麦克尔· H· 格莱姆,《联邦证据法》(美国法精要),法律出版社,1999年版
- (2) 戴维· S· 克拉克,《美国法律概论》,中信出版社,2003年版

Case Analysis

Case One 宪法案例

Brown v. Board of Ed. of Topeka, Shawnee County, Kan.

347 U.S. 483, 74 S.Ct. 686 U.S. 1954.

Case Two 刑法案例

Christopher C. OWENS, Jr. v. STATE of Maryland

93 Md. App. 162; 611 A.2d 1043; 1992 Md. App. LEXIS 230 September 3, 1992

Case Three 侵权法案例

Palsgraf v. Long Island R. Co.

248 N.Y. 339, 162 N.E. 99 (1928)

Case Four 合同法案例

Ricketts v. Scothorn

57 Neb. 51, 77 N.W. 365 (1898)

Case Five 财产法案例

PIERSON v. POST

3 Cai. R. 175, N.Y.Sup. 1805

Case Six 专利法案例

CONSOLIDATED ELECTRIC LIGHT CO. v. McKEESPORT LIGHT CO.

159 U.S. 465, 16 S.Ct. 75, 40 L.Ed. 221

Films

- 1. Twelve Angry Men
- 2. To Kill a Mocking Bird
- 3. Primary Fear
- 4. Rainmaker
- 5. Oliver Stone Collection: JFK

《外国法律制度》教学大纲

张清 编写

目 录

—,	前言	2
<u> </u>	课程教学目的和基本要求	2
三、	课程主要内容及学时分配	2
四、	教学重点与难点	2
五、	相关教学环节	3
六、	教材: 自编讲义	3
七、	主要参考书目:	3
八、	教学内容及进度安排:	3
Part	One English Legal System	4
	Unit One Characteristics of English Law	4
	Unit Two Classifications of Law.	5
	Unit Three British Constitution.	6
	Unit Four Sources of Law.	
	Unit Five English Courts.	. 10
	Unit Six The Judiciary and the Jury.	. 12
	Unit Seven Legal Profession.	. 14
Part	Two American Legal System	16
	Unit One The U.S. Legal Tradition in Western Legal Systems	. 16
	Unit Two Sources of Law in the US	. 17
	Unit Three American Constitutional Law	18
	Unit Four The U. S. Court System	. 19
	Unit Five How Courts Decide Cases.	. 20
	Unit Six American Jury System	21
	Unit Seven Legal Education and Admission to the Bar	
	Unit Eight Legal Profession	24

一、前言

《外国法律制度》为外国语学院三年级学生的选修课。本课程开设学期为第五学期。

本课程主要介绍英国和美国法律制度的基本情况。目的使学生了解英美国家法律的概况、特征,继而了解普通法系国家的法律概况与特征,同时掌握法律英语的特有语法、词汇,并了解法律英语的语篇及体裁,掌握法律英语文章的阅读技巧;鉴于普通法不同于大陆法,法律源于判例,法官的判决书也有所不同,让学生们了解英美法律的基本制度及法律特征,有利于学生扩大英语学习的视野,从而提高学生学习和研究国外法律资料的能力。作为中国政法大学英语专业的学生,了解英美法律是必要的,而且对于英语专业的学生来说又是专业与法律的结合,同时又能体现政法大学英语专业的特色。

本大纲编写人员为张清。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程的教学目的是经过一个学期的学习,使学生了解英美国家的法律制度,掌握基本的法律英语语言,主要是英文的法律术语,同时为进一步深入研究外国的法律制度,以及中外法律的对比研究打下良好的基础。

本课程要求学生有一定的法律基础知识、良好的英语水平,因为本课程不是一般的英语课程,而是具有一定难度的法律专业英语课程。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程分为两大部分,英国法律制度和美国法律制度。在第一部分,主要介绍英国作为普通法 系的渊源其法律的总体特征,包括普通法和衡平法的起源与发展,英国法律的分类,英国宪法的特 征,英国法的渊源,英国的法院体系、陪审团制度,以及英国的法律职业等等。在美国法律制度部 分,主要介绍从美国法的角度审视普通法与衡平法,美国的法院体系,美国的司法审查制度、美国 的陪审团制度,美国独特的法学教育及法律职业情况,最后介绍一些学习普通法的一些基本技能, 如案例学习以及如何写案例摘要等。

本课程为2学分36学时,学时分配以教学单元为主,一个单元基本占用2个学时。

四、教学重点与难点

教学重点是了解英美法律制度的相同与不同,特别是在宪法、法院体系、司法审查、法学教育与法律职业方面所表现出来的异同。在学习英美法律制度的同时掌握一些必要的法律英语词语以及句法特征等。

教学难点是法律英语中所涉及的术语众多,其中拉丁语比比皆是,有的普通英语词汇在法律上 具有特殊的意义。许多英语的法律术语很难中找到相对应的中文法律词汇。帮助学生正确理解法律 英语中的专业术语。同时,普通法系于大陆法系以及与我国法系的不同,会导致一些在理解和理论 上的迷惑,但这也正是我们研究探讨英美法律制度的目的。

五、相关教学环节

外国法律制度课程主要以课堂教学为主,课堂教学形式分为两种形式:教师讲授和学生讨论。教学手段采用多媒体教学手段,附以教学片使学生置身于外国文化的氛围之中感受其法律制度。采用任务教学法,引导学生积极参加实践活动,通过完成教师布置的任务来掌握学习内容,从而激发学生的学习兴趣、培养信心,提高综合素质。

六、教材: 自编讲义

七、主要参考书目:

- 1. Penny Darbyshire, *English Legal System in a Nutshell*, Sixth Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 2. Martin Hunt, A Level Law, Second Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 3. Jacqueline Martin, *The English Legal System,* Hodder Arnold, 2006.
- 4. Frances Russell and Christine Locke, *English Law and Language*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd., 1993.
- 5. S.H. Bailey and M.J. Gunn, *The Modern English Legal System,* Third edition, Sweet & Maxwell, 1996.
- 6. Dennis Campbell and Winifred Hepperle (edited), *The U.S. Legal System, a Practice Handbook,* Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague, 1983.
- 7. William Burnham, *Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States*, Third Edition, West Group, 2002.
 - 8. James V. Calvi & Susan Coleman, American Law and Legal Systems, 高等出版社, 2002 年。
 - 9. 阿瑟·库恩著,陈朝壁译,《英美法原理》,法律出版社,2002年。
 - 10. 钱弘道,《英美法讲座》,清华大学出版社,2004年。
 - 11. William Burnham 著,林利芝译,《英美法导论》,中国政法大学出版社,2003年。

八、教学内容及进度安排:

本课程分为两大部分,第一大部分为英国法律制度,第二大部分为美国法律制度,每部分以单元分开。第一部分有7个单元,第二部分由8个单元构成。具体内容及安排如下:

Part One English Legal System

Unit One Characteristics of English Law

Summary

The characteristics of English law Common law and equity

Aim

To provide an introduction to some of the central features of the English legal system and a background to the study of the English legal system. The knowledge will be gained during the reading of the unit.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Contents:

Pre-reading check

- **1.** Before you read the text look at the statements below then read the text to decide whether they are true (T) or false (F). Do this as quickly as possible, remembering that at this stage it is not necessary to understand every word.
 - **a.** The law in Scotland is the same as the law in England.
 - **b.** English law has evolved gradually.
 - **c.** Most of English law has been codified.
 - **d.** The common law was developed by the judges.
 - **e.** The judiciary is not independent of the government.
 - **f.** The court structure of the English legal system is the same throughout the country.
 - **g.** All the courts in the system are of equal authority.
 - **h.** English judges collect evidence in the cases before them.

The United Kingdom does not have a single legal system. The law in Scotland was influenced by Roman law and is different from the law of England, Wales and Northern Ireland.

The English legal system is centralised through a court structure which is common to the whole country. It is hierarchical, with the higher courts and judges having more authority than the lower ones. Some important characteristics of English law are:

English law is based on the common law tradition. By this we mean a system of 'judge made' law which has continuously developed over the years through the decisions of judges in the cases brought before them. These judicial precedents are an important source of law in the English legal system. Common law systems are different from the civil law systems of Western Europe and Latin America. In these countries the law has been codified or systematically collected to form a consistent body of legal rules.

English judges have an important role in developing case law and stating the meaning of Acts of Parliament.

The judges are independent of the government and the people appearing before them. This allows

them to make impartial decisions.

Court procedure is accusatorial. This means that judges do not investigate the cases before them but reach a decision based only on the evidence presented to them by the parties to the dispute. This is called adversarial system of justice. It can be compared to the inquisitorial procedure of some other European systems where it is the function of the judges to investigate the case and to collect evidence.

Discussion

- 1. State the background of the legal system of the United Kingdom.
- 2. What is the role of the law of European Union in Great Britain?
- 3. Make an introduction to the constitution of the United Kingdom.
- 4. Describe the governmental structure of the United Kingdom.
- 5. Find out whether the legal system in our country (mainland China) is adversarial or inquisitorial.

Further reading:

- 12. Penny Darbyshire, *English Legal System in a Nutshell*, Sixth Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 13. Martin Hunt, *A Level Law*, Second Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 14. Jacqueline Martin, *The English Legal System*, Hodder Arnold, 2006.
- 15. Frances Russell and Christine Locke, *English Law and Language*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd., 1993.
- 16. S.H. Bailey and M.J. Gunn, *The Modern English Legal System,* Third edition, Sweet & Maxwell, 1996.

Unit Two Classifications of Law

Summary

Criminal and civil law Substantive and procedural law

Aim

There are many ways in which the law can be classified. Here to provide the classification of the difference between criminal and civil law and substantive and procedural law.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Contents:

A simple distinction between the criminal law and the civil law is that the latter regulates the relationships between individuals or bodies and the former regulates the legal relationships between the state and individual people and bodies.

The first practical difference is seen in the parties to the legal action. A civil case will involve two (or more) individual people or bodies whilst the parties to a criminal case will be the state and an individual person or body.

A further difference between civil and criminal law is the way that cases are cited.

It is helpful to know certain rules for the naming of cases. Trials on indictment are in the name of the Queen (as representing the State); thus a criminal case is generally called *Reg.* v. whomever it is — *Reg.* being short for *Regina* (pronounced "Regyna"), and v. being short for *versus*. When there is a king on the throne, *Rex* is used instead of *Reg. Rex* and *Regina* both conveniently abbreviate to *R.*, which saves having to remember which is which. Thus *Rex.* v. *Sikes* or *Reg.* v. *Sikes* may both be written *R.* v. *Sikes*. Some textbooks on criminal law even print simply *Sikes*. This last is a convenient usage for the student of criminal law.

Rules of procedure or "adjective" law, as it is sometimes called, are the rules which determine the course of an action; they govern such matters as how the case is to be presented, in what court it shall lie, or when it is to be tried. Procedural rules are, in other words, the rules which govern the machinery as opposed to the subject-matter of litigation. It is a striking fact, much remarked upon by historians, that in the earlier stages of legal development these rules assume paramount importance: form is better understood than substance, and in early law formal requirements, rather than abstract principles, usually determined legal rights. Because the development of the common law has been continuous this early dominance of procedure has had a lasting influence upon many of the doctrines of the modern substantive law. Generally speaking, however, procedure, though it is of great importance to the practitioner, is today treated as the servant and not the master of substance, and the rules of procedure are now more flexible than once they were. They derive from various sources. Most proceedings in the Supreme Court (that is, most of the more important civil proceedings) are now governed by a code of rules known as the Rules of the Supreme Court ("R.S.C.").

Questions for students to consider:

- 1. How is the law divided in Britain?
- 2. Which is more important, substantive law or procedural law?

Further reading:

- 1. Penny Darbyshire, *English Legal System in a Nutshell*, Sixth Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 2. Martin Hunt, A Level Law, Second Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 3. Jacqueline Martin, *The English Legal System,* Hodder Arnold, 2006.
- 4. Frances Russell and Christine Locke, *English Law and Language*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd., 1993.
- 5. S.H. Bailey and M.J. Gunn, *The Modern English Legal System,* Third edition, Sweet & Maxwell, 1996.

Unit Three British Constitution

Summary

Definition and purpose Characteristics of the British constitution The constitutional role of judiciary

Aim

To examine the constitutional framework of the English legal system and to provide an introduction to the concepts which form the basis of the system of government in the United Kingdom. Particular emphasis will be placed on the constitutional role of the judiciary and some comparisons made with the role of the judiciary in other countries.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Contents:

Because the rules of a constitution are laws of fundamental importance, it is not surprising that they are often embodied in a single written document. Thus, for example, the Constitution of the United States was reduced to writing in 1787 and the document which comprises it (as subsequently amended) lays down the fundamental law of America toady. Further the U.S. Constitution, like many other written constitutions, cannot be altered easily; a constitutional amendment can only be carried if a very substantial majority, both in Congress and in the individual States, approve it.

Britain's constitution is just as important to British people as the U.S. Constitution is to the Americans. Nevertheless, it is not 'written'; that is to say, it has never been wholly reduced to writing. Further, since Parliament is 'sovereign' it can, without any special procedure, and by simple Act, alter any law at any time, however fundamental it may seem to be. Although, therefore, our courts have always been astute to safeguard the rights of the subject and although certain legal remedies, such as *habeas corpus*, are designed to protect him, yet, under our constitution, there are ... no guaranteed rights similar to the fundamental liberties safeguarded by the U.S. Constitution.

The sources of the British constitution can be found in European Community law (since 1972) and, most important, constitutional conventions. These are informal or 'moral' rules — a code of practice for government which has evolved over the years. They are primarily concerned with the relationship between the Crown (or monarch) and the executive, and the executive and the legislature.

The doctrine of parliamentary sovereignty governs the relationship between the legislature and the judiciary. It was described by A.V. Dicey as follows:

By the legislative supremacy of Parliament is meant that there are no legal limitations upon the legislative competence of Parliament. Parliament here does not refer to the two Houses of Parliament individually, for neither House has authority to legislate on its own, but to the constitutional phenomenon known as the Queen in Parliament: namely the legislative process by which a Bill approved by Lords and Commons may receive the royal assent and thus become an Act of Parliament. Thus defined, Parliament, said Dicey, has "under the English constitution, the right to make or unmake any law whatever; and further

that no person or body is recognised by the law of England as having a right to override or set aside the legislation of Parliament.

It is generally accepted that a precise separation of the functions of government is impracticable. Montesquieu's theory should be seen as prescriptive rather than descriptive, its essence being that no one person or body should have full control of all three functions of government. In particular, the courts should be independent of the executive and legislature so that the judges can ensure that these bodies do not exercise their powers arbitrarily.

It is important to understand clearly that the courts have no power to review the merits of executive action; that is they are not concerned with the question: 'Is this action right or wrong?' The question they can ask is: 'Is this action lawful or unlawful?' At first the distinction may be difficult to recognise. Let us look at the principle of the rule of law:

The rule of law means something more than rule in accordance with the law. The most terrifying dictatorship can rule in accordance with law by enacting laws to give effect to its policies, however inhuman these may be. The rule of law in the sense it is used here really involves certain presuppositions about law itself. The nature and extent of these presuppositions is open to argument but most would agree that the rule of law requires that all power and authority in the state be derived from law, and the notion of equality before the law.

Questions for students to consider:

- 1. What are the characteristics of constitution in the UK?
- 2. What is the principle of parliamentary sovereignty?
- 3. Is the judicial review in Britain same with that of America?
- 4. What is the constitutional role of judiciary?

Further reading:

- 1. Penny Darbyshire, *English Legal System in a Nutshell*, Sixth Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 2. Martin Hunt, *A Level Law*, Second Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 3. Jacqueline Martin, *The English Legal System,* Hodder Arnold, 2006.
- 4. Frances Russell and Christine Locke, *English Law and Language*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd., 1993.
- 5. S.H. Bailey and M.J. Gunn, *The Modern English Legal System,* Third edition, Sweet & Maxwell, 1996.

Unit Four Sources of Law

Summary

Case law

Statute law

Aim

To provide an introduction to the law-making processes and to examine the ways in which the judges identify the law. This unit concentrates on the primary sources of law — case law and statutes — through an analysis of judicial precedent and statutory interpretation. The advantages and disadvantages of these principles will be assessed and so,e comparisons made with other legal jurisdictions. A practical illustration of the system is provided by case and statute reading exercises.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Contents

When we talk about the common law, one of the meanings is the law which is based on judicial decisions, otherwise known as case law. When we use the word 'case' in this context we mean the legal action or dispute which had been brought to the courts for resolution. The judges' decision is the law — hence 'case law'. However, judges are not free to reach any decision they wish to; they are bound to follow certain rules and these rules form the system of judicial precedent.

In the English legal system some courts have more authority than others. Judges in the lower courts are bound to follow the decisions of judges in the higher courts. The following text provides an outline of the hierarchy of the courts and the ways in which judges are bound by the decisions of other judges.

The difference between ratio decidendi and obiter dictum:

The decision of judgment of a judge may fall into two parts: the *ratio decidendi* and *obiter dictum*. When a judge delivers judgment in a case he outlines the facts which he finds have been proved on the evidence. Then he applies the law to those facts and arrives at a decision, for which he gives the reason (*ratio decidendi*). More precisely, the *ratio decidendi* of a case is the principle of law on which the decision is based. The judge may go on to speculate about what his decision would or might have been if the facts of the case had been different. This is an *obiter dictum* ('something said by the way')...

The binding part (if any) of a judicial decision is the *ratio decidendi*. An *obiter dictum* is not binding in later cases because it was not strictly relevant to the matter in issue in the original case. However, an *obiter dictum* may be of *persuasive* (as opposed to *binding*) authority in later cases. The *ratio* is not the decision itself. Only the litigating parties are bound by the actual decision in a case whereas the *ratio* of a case states the law for all persons and may be binding in later cases...

Statute law is the law enacted by Parliament. In the previous unit, we know that the judiciary has no authority to question the validity of an Act of Parliament. Nevertheless judges do have an important role in relation to legislation: Parliament passes the laws, and the courts apply them to individual cases. But before the law can be applied the judges must decide on its meaning. This process is called statutory interpretation.

An individual piece of legislation is known as a Bill during its legislative process and called an Act comes into force on the day it receives the Royal Assent.

Questions for students to consider:

- **1.** What was the significance of the 1966 Practice Statement?
- **2.** When may the Court of Appeal depart from its own previous decisions?
- **3.** What is the position of the European Court of Justice in the English legal system?

Further reading:

- 1. Penny Darbyshire, *English Legal System in a Nutshell*, Sixth Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 2. Martin Hunt, A Level Law, Second Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 3. Jacqueline Martin, *The English Legal System*, Hodder Arnold, 2006.
- 4. Frances Russell and Christine Locke, *English Law and Language*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd., 1993.
- 5. S.H. Bailey and M.J. Gunn, *The Modern English Legal System,* Third edition, Sweet & Maxwell, 1996.

Unit Five English Courts

Summary

Classifications of the courts Civil courts Criminal courts

Aim

To provide a factual account of the structure of the English courts based on the distinction between civil and criminal courts, and courts of first instance and appellate courts.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Contents

The court in which a case is first heard is called the court of first instance. In almost all cases it is possible to appeal to a higher court for reconsideration of the decision of the original court. These courts are called appellate courts.

There are, within the English legal system, a large number of courts of varying degrees of standing and jurisdiction. There are various ways of classifying courts...thus it is possible to classify courts according to their functions. The obvious classification in this respect would be into courts of civil and courts of criminal jurisdiction. This classification is not, however, a valid one since, although certain courts do exercise a purely civil or criminal jurisdiction, most English courts hear both civil and criminal cases. Thus the House of Lords, Court of Appeal, High Court, Crown Court and magistrates' courts exercise jurisdiction in both civil and criminal matters. A second classification would be into courts of original and courts of appellate jurisdiction. Nor is this division of general application. Although certain courts, such as the Court of Appeal and the House of Lords, exercise a purely appellate jurisdiction, while other courts,

such as magistrates' courts, have no appellate jurisdiction, many courts, notably the High Court and the Crown Court, exercise both original and appellate jurisdiction.

The Court of Justice of the European Communities (the European Court) is, of course, *sui generis* since, although not an English court, it exercises jurisdiction within the English legal system and the position of this Court within the system must be considered.

Civil cases at first instance are heard in the County Courts (for minor claims) or the High Court, which is divided into three divisions: Queen's Bench, Family and Chancery. Cases may be appealed to the Court of Appeal (Civil Division). Cases may be appealed from the County Court to the High Court.

The House of Lords is the supreme court of appeal. Its judicial functions are quite separate from its legislative work, and cases are heard by up to 13 senior judges known as the Lords of Appeal in Ordinary, or Law Lords. It shares its function as the supreme appellate court with. The judicial work of the House of Lords is described on its web pages. The HMCS web pages provide information on the other courts. However the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 provides for the establishment of a Supreme Court to replace the judicial function of the House of Lords with an independent appointments system, thereby making a constitutional separation between the legislature and the judiciary.

A further appellate court, sometimes omitted in a description of the system, is the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, which hears cases from the British overseas territories and dependencies as well as some specialised domestic appeals. It also hears cases concerning questions relating to the powers and functions of the devolved legislatures. The 'devolution' function will be transferred to the new Supreme Court.

In addition to the courts there are specialised Tribunals, which hear appeals on decisions made by various public bodies and Government departments, in areas such as employment, immigration, social security, tax and land. The Court Service also contains information on these.

Her Majesty's Court Service (HMCS) is an agency of the DCA responsible for administration of the court system, and was established in 2005 under the Courts Act 2003, bringing together the separate agencies previously responsible for court administration.

Criminal cases are heard at first instance in the Magistrates' Courts, with more serious ones being hears in the Crown Court. Appeals are heard in the Court of Appeal Criminal Division.

The Constitutional Reform Act 2005 provides for the establishment of a Supreme Court to replace the House of Lords as the Court of final appeal.

Questions for students to consider:

- **1.** What are the two suggested classifications of the English courts?
- **2.** Why are both unsatisfactory?
- **3.** Draw a diagram for the UK courts.
- **4.** What are the jurisdictions of each court in the UK court system?

Further reading:

1. Penny Darbyshire, *English Legal System in a Nutshell*, Sixth Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.

- 2. Martin Hunt, A Level Law, Second Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
- 3. Jacqueline Martin, *The English Legal System,* Hodder Arnold, 2006.
- 4. Frances Russell and Christine Locke, *English Law and Language*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd., 1993.
- 5. S.H. Bailey and M.J. Gunn, *The Modern English Legal System,* Third edition, Sweet & Maxwell, 1996.

Unit Six The Judiciary and the Jury

Summary

The judicial hierarchy
The judicial function
The independence of the judiciary
The jury

Aim

To build on previous knowledge by providing an outline of the judicial hierarchy in relation to the hierarchy of the courts and a critical assessment of the judicial function in the context of earlier units. To introduce the jury in English legal system.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Contents

There are some features of the court system which are naturally reflected in the nature of the English judiciary. First, it is hierarchical with judges in the higher courts having more authority than those in the lower courts. Secondly, most judges will hear both civil and criminal cases. Judges in the House of Lords and the Court of Appeal hear only appeal cases, whilst judges in the High Court and Crown Court have first instance and appellate jurisdiction.

A distinctive feature of the British system in comparison with many Continental systems is that it does not have a judicial career structure. Judges are chosen from lawyers who have gained considerable experience as legal practitioners before being appointed to the judiciary. In Continental systems law graduates can choose to be a judge at the outset of their careers and they gain their experience of the inquisitorial system as practising judges, something which is considered to be inappropriate to the common law adversarial system.

Most of the work of the judges is judicial in the sense that they have to adjudicate upon disputes. To do this they are required, dispassionately, to find the facts upon the evidence presented to the court, to apply the law to the facts as found and then to give the "right decision". Appellate courts have repeatedly pointed out that the judicial function in the conduct of litigation goes no further than that. Thus, in relation to finding the facts, the court must act on the evidence before it; it has no duty to seek out some 'independent truth' as LORD WILBERFORCE called it in the following interesting passage from his speech in a case

concerning discovery of documents:

'In a contest purely between one litigant and another, such as the present, the task of the court is to do, and be seen to be doing, justice between the parties, a duty reflected by the word "fairly" in the rule. There is no higher or additional duty to ascertain some independent truth. It often happens, from the imperfection of evidence, or the withholding of it, sometimes by the party in whose favour it would tell if presented, that an adjudication has to be made which is not, and is known not to be, the whole truth of the matter; yet, if the decision has been in accordance with the available evidence and with the law, justice will have been fairly done.'

The discussion on the role of the judiciary can only be fully understood within its proper context—the independence of the judiciary. Much importance is placed on maintaining an independent judiciary, but, we must ask, independent of what? First, judges must be independent of the parties to a dispute. This ensures a fair and just trial. Secondly, they must be independent of the executive; this enables the judges to exercise control over government action.

The jury has a long history within the English legal system, although its role has changed significantly during that time. Originally, members of the jury were witnesses, summoned for their local knowledge. Today, they are a group of twelve ordinary people with no special knowledge, chosen at random to act as impartial judges of the facts of a case. In a jury trial, the jury is advised by the trial judge on the relevant law; its function is then to apply the law to the facts and then decide, in criminal cases, whether the defendant is guilty or not and, in civil cases, whether the defendant is liable to the plaintiff. The decision of a jury is called a verdict. In civil cases the jury will also decide on the amount of damages to be awarded to the plaintiff.

Questions for students to consider:

- 1. What is the judicial role in seeking the facts of a case?
- 2. In applying the law, do judges actually make the law?
- 3. Is jury system still important in the UK now?
- 4. Who can be jurors in the UK?

- 1. Penny Darbyshire, *English Legal System in a Nutshell*, Sixth Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 2. Martin Hunt, A Level Law, Second Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 3. Jacqueline Martin, *The English Legal System,* Hodder Arnold, 2006.
- 4. Frances Russell and Christine Locke, *English Law and Language*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd., 1993.
- 5. S.H. Bailey and M.J. Gunn, *The Modern English Legal System,* Third edition, Sweet & Maxwell, 1996.

Unit Seven Legal Profession

Summary

The legal profession
The state funding of legal services

Aim

To examine the adequacy of the provision of legal services against the background of the streuture of the legal profession and the state funding of legal services.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Contents

A distinctive feature of the legal profession in England and Wales is that it is divided into two groups: barristers and solicitors. This division has frequently been the focus of debate and criticism and there have been calls for the fusion of the two branches of the profession.

In the popular mind, the distinction between barristers and solicitors is that the former are concerned with advocacy in court while the latter are concerned with legal work out of court. This is not quite the case. Barristers are primarily concerned with advocacy and they have an exclusive right of audience in the High Court, the Court of Appeal and the House of Lords; but they are not confined to advocacy and may devote a deal of their time to giving expert opinions on legal matters. Nor are solicitors exclusively concerned with out-of-court work for they have a right of audience in magistrates' courts, county courts and, in some instances, in the Crown Court.

This division of the legal profession is a curious one and is unknown even in many Commonwealth countries which might have been expected to adopt the English professional model along with their adoption of the common law. The education of both barristers and solicitors has common features. Both will normally complete the academic stage of their legal education by obtaining a law degree, though a law degree is not the only way to complete the academic stage. Both undergo a vocational stage though here the differences are more marked. The barrister takes the Bar Examination under the aegis of the Inns of Court School of Law while the solicitor takes the Final Examination under the aegis of the Law Society and in these examinations the emphasis differs to take account of their different roles. Both must complete a period of apprenticeship; pupillage in the case of barristers served under a pupil master (an experienced barrister), and articles in the case of solicitors served under an experienced solicitor. Here, at this "practical" stage, the difference is perhaps most marked since the day-to-day work of the barrister is quite different to the office routine of the solicitor.

The difference, however, is one of function rather than purpose. It is the purpose of both to ensure that the citizen has available sound professional services and advice to enable him to order his business and social life. When a citizen consults a lawyer it is more likely to prevent matters going wrong (*e.g.* he wishes to form a company, or to organise his business affairs to attract the minimum of tax, or to make a will) than because matters have gone wrong (*e.g.* he is threatened with civil or criminal proceedings). Only exceptionally will the citizen require the specialist services of the barrister hence practising barristers number some 5,000 as against some 42,000 solicitors. But even a distinction between the "specialist"

barrister and the "generalist" solicitor can be misleading; many barristers, particularly in their early years at the Bar, may take whatever cases come their way, and many solicitors, especially those in large firms, may specialise in a particular area of law.

That the fusion of the two professions is *possible* is demonstrated by experience in similar common law jurisdictions elsewhere. Whether it is *desirable* is another matter. The acid tests must be whether fusion would secure for the citizen an improved standard of legal services or whether it would significantly reduce their cost.

Questions for students to consider:

- 1. Make a brief introduction to the legal profession in the UK.
- 2. Make comparison between the legal profession in the UK and China.
- 3. Describe the legal education system in the UK.
- 4. Find out the advantages and disadvantages of the legal education in the UK.
- 5. Is there a system of legal assistance and legal aid in China?
- 6. If so, how is it funded and when is it available? If not, is there a need for such a system and how great is that need?

- 1. Penny Darbyshire, *English Legal System in a Nutshell*, Sixth Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 2. Martin Hunt, A Level Law, Second Edition, London: Sweet & Maxwell, 2004.
 - 3. Jacqueline Martin, *The English Legal System*, Hodder Arnold, 2006.
- 4. Frances Russell and Christine Locke, *English Law and Language*, Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd., 1993.
- 5. S.H. Bailey and M.J. Gunn, *The Modern English Legal System,* Third edition, Sweet & Maxwell, 1996.

Part Two American Legal System

Unit One The U.S. Legal Tradition in Western Legal Systems

Aims:

To know the basic features of the legal system of the United States of America.

To distinguish between common law and civil law.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Outline:

Origins of the two legal traditions and their diffusion around the world

a) the common law

The common law tradition originated in England.

The common law has its source in previous court decisions.

The British Empire brought the common law to all continents

b) the civil law

The origins of the civil law go further back. They can be traced to the Twelve Tables of the Republic of Rome (probably in the fifth century B. C.).

Legal methods—a comparison

It is important to realize that law can take different forms and play different roles in different societies and cultures.

Questions for students to consider:

- 1. What is the main difference between the civil law system and the common law system?
- 2. What different attitudes do the civil law system and the common law system hold toward case law?

- 1. Dennis Campbell and Winifred Hepperle (edited), The U.S. Legal System, a Practice Handbook, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague, 1983.
- 2. William Burnham, Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States, Third Edition, West Group, 2002.
 - 3. James V. Calvi & Susan Coleman, American Law and Legal Systems, 高等出版社, 2002年。
 - 4. 阿瑟•库恩著,陈朝壁译,《英美法原理》,法律出版社,2002年。
 - 5. 钱弘道,《英美法讲座》,清华大学出版社,2004年。
 - 6. William Burnham 著,林利芝译,《英美法导论》,中国政法大学出版社,2003年。

Unit Two Sources of Law in the US

Aims:

The sources of law in America

The nature of case law in America.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Outline:

American Law comes from two primary sources, legislative law and judge made law. Legislative law is the collection of rules written explicitly to govern behavior within the society. These rules apply to society as a whole. The early colonial legislatures created the first American legislative law. Legislative law includes constitutions, statutes, and administrative regulations. These are arranged in a hierarchy of importance, specificity, and life span. All three categories of legislative law exist both at the federal and state levels.

How Cases Make Law

The decisions of judges, or of other officials empowered by the constitution or laws of a political entity to hear and decide controversies, create case law. As the name "case law" suggests, a particular decision, or a collection of particular decisions, generate law—that is, rules of general application.

The Common Law Doctrine of Precedent

The Anglo-American legal system, unlike the "civil law" system which prevails with variations in most of the other non-Commonwealth countries of the world, explicitly recognizes the doctrine of precedent, known also as the principle of *stare decisis*.

"Res Judicata" and "Stare Decisis"; "Reversal" and "Overruling"

Every final decision of an appellate court has a dual impact or effect: (1) as an authoritative settlement of a particular controversy then before the court; and (2) as a precedent, or potential precedent, for future cases. A lawyer's Latin expression denominates each of these effects: *stare decisis*, as we have seen, for the impact of the decision as precedent; *res judicata* for its effect as a resolution of the immediate controversy. Do not confuse these Latin terms and the concepts they symbolize. The latter addresses a decision's impact in the individual case; the former, its impact on the legal norm of conduct.

Questions for students to consider:

- 1. How is case law created?
- 2. What might happen if a court follows the precedents mechanically?
- 3. Please explain the difference between the binding precedents and persuasive precedents.

- 1. Dennis Campbell and Winifred Hepperle (edited), The U.S. Legal System, a Practice Handbook, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague, 1983.
- 2. William Burnham, Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States, Third Edition, West Group, 2002.

- 3. James V. Calvi & Susan Coleman, American Law and Legal Systems, 高等出版社, 2002年。
- 4. 阿瑟•库恩著,陈朝壁译,《英美法原理》,法律出版社,2002年。
- 5. 钱弘道,《英美法讲座》,清华大学出版社,2004年。
- 6. William Burnham 著,林利芝译,《英美法导论》,中国政法大学出版社,2003年。

Unit Three American Constitutional Law

Aims:

Get to know American Constitution.

The origin of the judicial review in America.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Outline:

People who don't know anything about civil procedure or property law can still recall the basic elements of constitutional law: separation of powers; checks and balances; judicial review; due process and equal protection of law; freedom of speech, religion, and press.

Everything the government does is bounded by the Constitution. Constitutional law defines the relations between the President and Congress and between the federal government and the states, and it regulates the government's ability to control abortion, to assess taxes, to build highways, to designate drug-free school zones, and to print stamps. Moreover every hot issue seems to become a constitutional question. Once it was the constitutionality of slavery or of laws establishing maximum hours and minimum wages for workers; now it is abortion, capital punishment, the right to physician-assisted suicide, and pornography on the Internet.

Constitutional law involves the interpretation and application of the United States Constitution. Drafted in 1787, the Constitution contains fewer than 4,400 words, divided into seven short parts, called articles. The Bill of Rights was added in 1791 and only seventeen more amendments have been added in the more than two centuries since.

Where Does the Supreme Court Get the Authority to Interpret the Constitution?

The issue of how the Supreme Court interprets the Constitution is vitally important because of the Court's power of judicial review. The Court has the final say on what the Constitution means and how it applies in a particular case. (Every court, federal and state, has the responsibility and the authority to render decisions on constitutional issues, but all of those other decisions can ultimately be reviewed by the US Supreme Court.)

Remarkably, the power of judicial review is not given to the Supreme Court in the Constitution itself. Article III states that "The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish, " and it extends that power to "all Cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution" and to other categories. These provisions are organizational and jurisdictional.

Marbury sued for his commission, bringing what was known as a writ of mandamus in the Supreme

Court.

Questions for students to consider:

There is no written constitution in Britain; Britain's constitution is to be found partly in conventions and customs and partly in statute. The British legal system provides some remedies to deal with human rights abuses. For instance, the remedy of 'habeas corpus' secures the individual's right to freedom from any unlawful or arbitrary detention. And US constitution, guarantee the freedom of people as provided in Amendment V and Amendment XV.

Question: How does China's Constitution safeguard the legal rights of the individual?

Further reading:

- 1. Dennis Campbell and Winifred Hepperle (edited), The U.S. Legal System, a Practice Handbook, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague, 1983.
- 2. William Burnham, Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States, Third Edition, West Group, 2002.
 - 3. James V. Calvi & Susan Coleman, American Law and Legal Systems, 高等出版社, 2002年。
 - 4. 阿瑟•库恩著,陈朝壁译,《英美法原理》,法律出版社,2002年。
 - 5. 钱弘道,《英美法讲座》,清华大学出版社,2004年。
 - 6. William Burnham 著,林利芝译,《英美法导论》,中国政法大学出版社,2003年。

Unit Four The U. S. Court System

Aims:

The state court system and federal court system.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Outline:

1. The State Court Systems

Each of the fifty states of the United States has its own system of courts. Court structures and court nomenclature differ greatly from state to state, but all the state court systems exhibit what may be called a hierarchical structure, that is, a pattern of organization in which the decisions of "lower" courts may be taken for review to a higher ranking tribunal. Ninety percent or more of the state "cases" a student reads in casebooks are appellate decisions, but all these appellate cases will have passed through a "trial" stage and perhaps an intermediate appellate stage before reaching the state's "court of last resort."

2. The Federal Courts

The Supreme Court is the only federal court directly created by the Constitution itself. The other courts in the federal judicial system are created by Acts of Congress enacted pursuant to Article III of the Constitution. The landmark statute in the evolution of the federal judicial system was passed by the first Congress as one of its early orders of business and became law on September 24, 1789. This statute, entitled "An Act to establish the Judicial Courts of the United States," embodied the first Congress's

decision on the issue that the Constitution itself had not resolved: whether there should be federal *trial* courts as well as a Supreme Court or whether the interpretation and enforcement of federal law should be left entirely to the existing state trial and appellate courts, subject to review by the Supreme Court of the United States. The organization of the federal judiciary has greatly changed over the years since 1789, but the decision of the first Congress to establish a federal judicial system, of trial as well as appellate courts, set the course for the national judicial future.

The basic federal court system as it now exists is a three-tier hierarchy: (1) trial courts of general jurisdiction, known as the *District Courts*; (2) intermediate appellate courts, called the *Courts of Appeals*; and (3) the *Supreme Court*, specifically provided for by Article III of the Constitution and operating as the court of last resort for the federal judicial system and, in matters of federal law, for the state judicial systems as well. There are a few specialized federal courts (e.g., the Claims Court or the Tax Court), which operate more or less like District Courts in their specialized jurisdiction, but there is no federal trial court of inferior jurisdiction.

Questions for students to consider:

- 1. What is the function of the "court of last resort" of each state?
- 2. What is the policy underlying the discretionary nature of the Supreme Court appellate jurisdiction?
 - 3. What is difference between judge and justice in general?

Further reading:

- 1. Dennis Campbell and Winifred Hepperle (edited), The U.S. Legal System, a Practice Handbook, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague, 1983.
- 2. William Burnham, Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States, Third Edition, West Group, 2002.
 - 3. James V. Calvi & Susan Coleman, American Law and Legal Systems, 高等出版社, 2002 年。
 - 4. 阿瑟•库恩著,陈朝壁译,《英美法原理》,法律出版社,2002年。
 - 5. 钱弘道,《英美法讲座》,清华大学出版社,2004年。
 - 6. William Burnham 著,林利芝译,《英美法导论》,中国政法大学出版社,2003年。

Unit Five How Courts Decide Cases

Aim:

To know how the American judges decide cases.

Study the case PALSGRAF v. LONG ISLAND RAILROAD COMPANY.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Outline:

Lower courts take evidence, and hear arguments. Then the jury, if there is one, retires, talks things over, votes, and brings in a verdict. The jury deliberates in secret and never gives out reasons for what it

does. (Individual members sometimes talk to reporters after the verdict is in, when the case is newsworthy.) Generally speaking, the mind of the jury is a closed book. Research has lifted the curtain a little bit. We know, for example, that the thought processes of juries are not terribly different from those of judges (there is about 8 percent overlap); that juries do pay attention to what the judge tells them; that they generally try to live up to their expected role. Historically, there have been many examples of jury "lawlessness": refusals to convict bootleggers or drunken drivers or poachers or even rapists, and even when the defendants were clearly guilty. This happened because the jury reflected norms outside the official norms of the law. This sort of jury lawlessness still exists; but on a very modest scale.

What about the higher courts? Appeals courts do not run trials; but they hear oral arguments, receive "briefs," confer, decide, and write opinions. (A brief is a lawyer's formal argument, putting before the judge one side's version of the law and facts. Many of them are anything but brief.) The opinions pour out of the presses every year, volume after volume. Inside these volumes are millions of words—all, in a way, telling the world how the court decided its cases.

Question for students to consider:

In the United States, the only constitutional method of removing federal judges is impeachment by the House and conviction in the Senate for "Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors" (Article II). The first judge to be impeached and removed was John Pickering in 1803, who was charged with misconduct in a trial and being drunk while on the bench.

What do you think of this way of "impeachment of judges"? Can you think of some other ways of removal and discipline of judges?

Further reading:

- 1. Dennis Campbell and Winifred Hepperle (edited), The U.S. Legal System, a Practice Handbook, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague, 1983.
- 2. William Burnham, Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States, Third Edition, West Group, 2002.
 - 3. James V. Calvi & Susan Coleman, American Law and Legal Systems, 高等出版社, 2002年。
 - 4. 阿瑟•库恩著,陈朝壁译,《英美法原理》,法律出版社,2002年。
 - 5. 钱弘道,《英美法讲座》,清华大学出版社,2004年。
 - 6. William Burnham 著,林利芝译,《英美法导论》,中国政法大学出版社,2003年。

Unit Six American Jury System

Aim:

Get to know American jury system.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Outline:

1. Some History and Comparative Comments

The historical origins of the jury are obscure and, in any event, a complete history is not needed to understand the modern institution. The jury's origins are considered by many to have been in France, where some form of jury trial was in evidence during the reign of Louis the Pious, circa 829 A.D.

2. The Division of Labor Between Judges and Jury

Despite their considerable independence, the common law jury does not have the right to decide all the issues in a case. In general, the judge decides issues of law and the jury decides issues of fact. Even on issues of fact, a jury is not free to come to any conclusion it wants.

3. Characteristics of the Modern Jury

The traditional source for jury pools or the "jury venire" — the group of prospective jurors from which jurors are selected — has been voter registration lists. However, usually fewer than 50% of the population in the United States votes in elections, so most jurisdictions use a combination of voter lists and driver's license lists. Whatever list is used for the pool, jurors are selected at random for service.

Questions to consider:

- 1. What is the difference between a grand jury and a petit jury?
- 2. Who can be jurors in America?
- 3. Is jury system important in American? Compare it with that in the UK?

Further reading:

- 1. Dennis Campbell and Winifred Hepperle (edited), The U.S. Legal System, a Practice Handbook, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague, 1983.
- 2. William Burnham, Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States, Third Edition, West Group, 2002.
 - 3. James V. Calvi & Susan Coleman, American Law and Legal Systems, 高等出版社, 2002年。
 - 4. 阿瑟•库恩著,陈朝壁译,《英美法原理》,法律出版社,2002年。
 - 5. 钱弘道,《英美法讲座》,清华大学出版社,2004年。
 - 6. William Burnham 著,林利芝译,《英美法导论》,中国政法大学出版社,2003年。

Unit Seven Legal Education and Admission to the Bar

Aim:

Get to know American legal education.

How to be admitted to the bar in America.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Outline:

1. Admission to Law School

Two requirements are the most important in law school admission: the applicant's undergraduate grade-point average (GPA) and scores on the Law School Aptitude Test (LSAT). These two numbers in general determine both whether the applicant gets into any law school and how prestigious a law school the

applicant will be able to enroll in.

2. The Basic J.D. Curriculum and Degree

There is no "official" curriculum mandated by the government for the 3 years of study leading to a J.D. degree, but the content in the first year of law school tends to be dictated by tradition and is surprisingly uniform from school to school. In the first year, all the subjects are usually mandatory.

3. Advanced Degrees

For the vast majority of lawyers in the United States, legal education ends with the J.D. degree. This is even true of teachers of law, who need not receive any degree beyond the J.D. degree in order to teach or to receive tenure at their university. There are higher degrees in law, the Master's Degree in Law (LL.M.) and the Doctor of Science in Law (S.J.D.), and the majority of those who receive these degrees are teachers.

Admission to the Bar in the United States

In the United States, admission to the bar is permission granted by a particular court system to a lawyer to practice law in that system. Each U.S. state and similar jurisdiction (e.g. territories under federal control) sets its own rules for bar admission, as a result of the separate sovereignty of the states and their respective court systems as guaranteed by the Tenth Amendment to the United States Constitution. In practice, this leads to different standards among states as to how bar admission works.

In general, a prospective lawyer will need to pass a state-administered bar exam after earning a Juris Doctor degree from a law school approved by the state in which he/she wants to practice. Typically, there is also a character and fitness evaluation, along with a background check.

Because each state has its own bar, a lawyer who is admitted to practice in one state is not automatically allowed to practice in another. Some states have reciprocal agreements that allow attorneys from other states to practice without sitting for another full bar exam. These agreements differ significantly among the states.

Questions to consider:

The vast majority of law graduates in the U.S. will practice law. Law school is the only training a new lawyer is required to have before being entrusted with the legal affairs of members of the public. As a result, there has been concern that law school should better prepare their graduates for practice.

Essentially the criticism of legal education is that it teaches too narrow a range of skills, primarily concentrating on the skill of analyzing the legal doctrine in cases to the exclusion of other tasks that lawyers are called upon to perform. In an adversary system, lawyers must be able to investigate, analyze and present facts in trial. Yet, courses in trial advocacy, fact investigation and pre-trial motion practice have had no place in the traditional curriculum. Some of these courses (particularly trial advocacy) are offered regularly in law schools today, but often not in a sufficient number of sections to satisfy demand. Moreover, no school makes these courses mandatory. Similarly, the non-litigating "office lawyer" must have interviewing, counseling and negotiation skills, and must be able to draft contracts and other documents properly and write opinion letters. Yet, there are few classes that address these skills and where they exist, none are required. A major general problem with law schools preparing their students for practice is their presentation of subjects in an atomized fashion. Few courses integrate several different areas of substantive and procedural law in the way that practitioners must deal with them in real life.

What do you think of the criticism of legal education in America? What's your suggestion? What do

you think of the legal education in China?

Further reading:

- 1. Dennis Campbell and Winifred Hepperle (edited), The U.S. Legal System, a Practice Handbook, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague, 1983.
- 2. William Burnham, Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States, Third Edition, West Group, 2002.
 - 3. James V. Calvi & Susan Coleman, American Law and Legal Systems, 高等出版社, 2002年。
 - 4. 阿瑟•库恩著,陈朝壁译,《英美法原理》,法律出版社,2002年。
 - 5. 钱弘道,《英美法讲座》,清华大学出版社,2004年。
 - 6. William Burnham 著,林利芝译,《英美法导论》,中国政法大学出版社,2003年。

Unit Eight Legal Profession

Aims:

Understand the legal profession in the US.

Distinguish between lawyers in the UK and lawyers in the US.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Outline:

1. Private Practice

Lawyers in private practice are the most numerous category of lawyers, comprising approximately 72% of all lawyers in the country. It has been traditional to organize discussions of private practice by size of law firm and to categorize firms into three basic sizes: (from1 to 10 lawyers), medium (from 11 to 50 lawyers) and large (more than 50 lawyers).

2. In-House Counsel

In-house counsels are lawyers who constitute a legal department within the corporation and represent that corporation. They must be admitted to the bar of the state in which they are working. The in-house counsel in charge of the legal department of a corporation usually is called the "general counsel" and is often also a vice president of the corporation.

3. Government Service

The legal department of the federal government is one of the component parts of the executive branch and is called the Department of Justice. The head of the Department of Justice is the Attorney General of the United States. The Attorney General is a member of the President's cabinet and is nominated by the President with the advice and consent of Senate, as required by the Constitution.

In state government, just as in the federal, a lawyer called the Attorney General is the head of the legal department of the executive branch and represents the state both in and out of court. But most attorneys general of states enjoy a greater degree of independence from their governors than their federal colleague enjoys from the President.

Questions for students to consider:

- 1. What does the legal profession consist of in America? What do people think of the legal profession in America?
 - 2. What are the differences between English lawyers, American lawyers and Chinese lawyers?
- 3. Do a research and find out the system of legal assistance and legal aid in the UK, US and China respectively.

Further reading:

- 1. Dennis Campbell and Winifred Hepperle (edited), The U.S. Legal System, a Practice Handbook, Martinus Nijhoff Publishers, The Hague, 1983.
- 2. William Burnham, Introduction to the Law and Legal System of the United States, Third Edition, West Group, 2002.
 - 3. James V. Calvi & Susan Coleman, American Law and Legal Systems, 高等出版社, 2002年。
 - 4. 阿瑟•库恩著,陈朝壁译,《英美法原理》,法律出版社,2002年。
 - 5. 钱弘道,《英美法讲座》,清华大学出版社,2004年。
 - 6. William Burnham 著,林利芝译,《英美法导论》,中国政法大学出版社,2003年。

《美国合同法》教学大纲

张清 编写

目 录

一、前言:	2
二、课程教学目的和基本要求 :	
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	2
四、教学方式、教学要求及教学难点:	2
五、教材:	2
六、主要参考书目及辅助材料:	3
七、具体授课进度及教学内容:	3
Week One: Brief Introduction to American Legal System	3
Week Two: Case Study Method	5
Week Three: Introduction to Contracts & Mutual Assent	7
Week Four: Offer	8
Week Five: Acceptance (I)	10
Week Six: Acceptance (II)	12
Week Seven: Consideration (I)	14
Week Eight: Consideration (II)	16
Week Nine: Requirements of No Defenses (I)	17
Week Ten: Requirements of No Defenses (II)	19
Week Eleven: Parol Evidence Rule	21
Week Twelve: Contract Interpretation	22
Week Thirteen: Performance of Contracts (I)	24
Week Fourteen: Performance of Contracts (II)	25
Week Fifteen: Breach of Contracts	26
Week Sixteen: Remedies	27
Week Seventeen: General Review and Questions & Answers	29

一、前言:

在满足社会主义现代化建设和实施依法治国方略对法律人才的需要的过程中,我国的法学教育有了极大的发展,尤其是在我国加入WTO前后,许多重点高校把双语教学提到了议事日程上。新的形势要求法学教师使用双语讲授专业课程。这标志着我国的专业英语教学面临着越来越高的要求,许多高校新开设了法律英语课程或增设了法律英语专业,这将为我国的法律外语教学改革带来极大的机遇与挑战。为了适应这一形势的需要,我们特开设《美国合同法》。

《美国合同法》是一门双语课程,是英语专业三年级第六学期的法学专业选修课,目的是为培养既有扎实的英语基本功、又懂法律、具有宽口径、应用性、复合型,能够从事英语教学和实际应用工作,适应涉外经济法律人才需求的高级英语人才。其教学以英语法律语言知识与应用技能为主要内容,将外语教学和法律教学理论并用,采取多种教学模式和教学手段。

本大纲编写人员为张清。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求:

美国合同法是普通法,其基本原理和规则与属于大陆法系的我国合同法有很大的不同,美国合同法的主体来自于其建国二百余年间的司法判例,并且在一定程度上继承了其建国前英国法的判例传统。美国合同法的内容繁杂,学生不可能在短短的36课时中了解到全部内容,因此,本课程主要介绍美国合同法中的一些基本概念、原理和规则,以试图为学生将来进一步研究打下基础。同时利用美国合同了解法律英语的特点,从而更好地讲法律与语言结合在一起,充分体现政法大学外语专业的特色。

本课程虽为英语专业开始,但是一门具有一定难度的法学专业课程,要求学生不仅具有较高的英语水平,还要具备相当的法律专业知识。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

《美国合同法》为 2 学分共 36 学时, 教学安排按照专题分配学时, 一般按照每周安排一个专题, 但有的专题安排 4 个学时, 总计 18 周, 最后一周课堂安排考试。课程主要内容及进度见后。

四、教学方式、教学要求及教学难点:

以英语授课为教学方式,以案例学习为主要内容,要求学生在上课前把案例读完并加以分析, 有时候要求学生自己作陈述,有时可分组讨论,归纳总结案例所反映出的法律理念及规则。

学生在开始时可能无法适应大量地阅读案例,并且难以理解美国案例的主旨,但是教师会在一 开始时介绍案例学习的方法及对策,并且随着学习的不断深入,学生会慢慢适应这种教与学的模式。

五、教材:

John P. Dawson, William Burnett Harvey, and Stanley D. Henderson. *Contracts Cases and Comment,* Eighth Edition, Foundation Press, 2003.

六、主要参考书目及辅助材料:

- 1. *Contracts Cases and Comment* (by John P. Dawson, William Burnett Harvey, and Stanley D. Henderson, Eighth Edition, Foundation Press, 2003).
 - 2. Contracts (bar review material, published by The Barbri Group).
 - 3. Contracts (gilbert law summaries, by Melvin A. Eisenberg, Twelfth Edition).
- 4. *Contracts*, West Nutshell Series, Claude D. Rohwer, Gordon D. Schaber, fourth edition, (《合同法》, 法律出版社, 1999年)。
 - 5. 《美国合同法: 判例、规则和价值规范》, 张利宾, 法律出版社, 2007年。
 - 6. 《美国合同法》,于丹翎,高等教育出版社,2006年。
- 7.《合同法:案例与材料》(上下册)佛里德里奇·凯斯勒,格兰特·吉尔摩,安东尼·T·克朗曼,屈广清等译,中国这个法大学出版社,2005年。
 - 8.《美国合同法》, E•艾伦·范思沃斯著, 葛云松, 丁春艳译, 中国政法大学出版社, 2004年。
 - 9.《英美契约论》,杨桢,北京大学出版社,2000年。
 - 10.《美国合同判例法》,徐罡,宋岳,覃宇,法律出版社,1998年。
 - 11.《美国合同法》,王军,中国政法大学出版社,1996年。
 - 12. 《美国合同法判例选评》,王军,中国城法大学出版社,1995年。
 - 13.必备工具书:《元照英美法词典》or《英汉法律词典》。

七、具体授课进度及教学内容:

按周2学时安排教学进度及内容,具体如下:

Week One: Brief Introduction to American Legal System

Teaching objectives: Getting to know American legal system so as to have a general idea of American law.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Common Law System

1. Case Law — Judge-made Law

The decisions of judges, or of other officials empowered by the constitution or laws of a political entity to hear and decide controversies, create case law. Case law suggests a particular decision, or a collection of particular decisions, generate law----that is, rules of general application.

Case law processes require careful analysis, matching and distinguishing of the facts of cases.

2. Doctrine of Precedent or Principle of Stare Decisis

Past judicial decisions are formally and generally binding for the disposition of factually similar present controversies.

A judicial decision is a precedent, and so generally binding, only in future cases involving the *same material facts*.

3. Law and Equity

In everyday English, equity means "fairness". In legal English it has a slightly different meaning

although it is still based on an idea that fairness sometimes means the courts must go beyond strict legal codes. This distinction between actions at law and those in equity developed in England beginning in the thirteen century. Eventually, separate courts of equity were established in the fifteenth century.

Basically, a "suit in equity" enjoyed more procedural flexibility, didn't have a jury, and could be reviewed in broader terms if it were appealed. More important for the plaintiff and defendant, court of equity could order injunctions (order a defendant to do or not to do something specific that might cause further injury or harm to the plaintiff) or order specific performance (require the defendant to complete a contractual agreement) while a court of law normally can only use money as a remedy.

In addition to injunction or specific performance, there are other types of actions in equity, such as equitable estoppel in which a party is stopped by his or her conduct from doing something he or she otherwise has right to do.

Now, normally a court exercises both common law rules and rules of equity.

II. Court Systems of America

- 1. Federal court system: district courts, court of appeals (circuit courts), U.S. Supreme Court
- 2. State court system: trial courts, intermediate appellate courts, a highest appellate court or "court of last resort", in most states, called the supreme court

III. American Legal Education----Law School

1. Admissions Process

Bachelor's degree plus the national law school admission test (LSAT).

2. Curriculum

American legal education is general rather than specialized. The first year courses: torts, contracts, property, criminal law, civil procedure, constitutional law, and legal research and writing. In the second and third year, elective courses are chosen by the students but most take other common courses in administrative law, business and commercial law, litigation, family law, intellectual property and technology law, and international and comparative law.

By requiring all students to take a common core of courses and by using teaching methods that force students to think flexibly and creatively and to see both sides of an issues, students are taught "to think like a lawyer." This is probably the main characteristic of American law schools: giving students the confidence to enter the profession.

3. Case Method and Socratic Method

The case method of teaching emphasizes the evolution of law that occurs in the common law and common-law style judicial institutions. The Socratic, or discussion method of teaching is thought to induce young attorneys to think for themselves in finding and developing the law.

4. Practical Experiences

American law schools have traditionally emphasized theory over practice. The case method is based on appellate court decisions and theory. But in reality law practice itself is based on drafting legal documents, giving legal advice and negotiating settlements so that a court case that is avoided. Only a very few legal controversies result in a court case that is appealed to a higher court for a written court decision. Most law schools have introduced more practical experiences for law students, such as moot court (simulation of arguing a case or representing a client), legal clinics (offering legal aid services for the poor or assisting law firms or courts with practical legal research), legal writing projects (drafting documents and background briefs), and practical research (assisting law teachers with empirical research such as field

interviews or investigatory work).

5. Computer Assisted Legal Research and Expanded Law School Services

Two major legal on-line services, LEXIS and WESTLAW, provide powerful legal research tools to the legal community by maintaining current databases of cases, statutes, legal scholarship, and news publications, along with sophisticated indexing and search capabilities.

Further Reading & Homework:

- 1.《法律英语教程》,齐筠,张清,高等教育出版社,2005年;
- 2. 网络查找相关内容。

Week Two: Case Study Method

Teaching objectives: Getting to know American legal education and legal study method, i.e. case study method in order to get familiar with contract law case study.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. How Does a Case Usually Start?

- 1. The plaintiff files a summons and a complaint with the clerk of court. The plaintiff's attorney will also file an appearance.
- 2. The summons and complaint will be personally served on the defendant by a sheriff or a "process server". Other means of service may also be possible under local rules.
- 3. The defendant's attorney will file a (general) appearance on behalf of the defendant, unless the defendant denies that the court has personal jurisdiction. (If the defendant denies that the court has personal jurisdiction, the defendant may file a "special appearance" to challenge the court's exercise of jurisdiction.)
- 4. The defendant will file some "responsive pleading" to the plaintiff's complaint. This may be an answer (to the allegations of the complaint), a motion to dismiss (for lack of personal jurisdiction or subject matter jurisdiction), or a counter-claim (or cross-claim) to assert the defendant's own claims against the plaintiff.
- 5. The parties will engage in a period of "discovery". This may involve the answering of written interrogatories, producing documents and other evidence, taking depositions of the parties and the witnesses, and admitting facts or the authenticity of documents. A party may move to suppress or exclude certain evidence at this stage.
- 6. The parties will appear periodically before the judge to report on the status of the case. Eventually the case will be ready for trial (unless the case is settled privately between the parties).
- 7. Trial will commence. The trial is called before a jury or before a single judge. The trials before a single judge may be called a "bench trial". If the trial is before a jury, each side will participate in the process of selecting jurors (the "*voir dire*").
- 8. The trial begins with an opening statement from the plaintiff and, usually, an opening statement from the defendant. The plaintiff will then present its testimony and other evidence in support of its case. The defense may cross-examine the prosecution's witnesses. When the plaintiff has finished presenting its case, the defense will present its own testimony and evidence. Both sides will then make closing arguments

and the the jury will receive "jury instructions" to help it reach its verdict. The judge will usually enter a judgment based on the jury's verdict.

9. The losing side may decide to appeal to a higher court.

II. How Do Courts Decide Cases?

Lower courts take evidence, and hear arguments. Then the jury, if there is one, retires, talks things over, votes, and brings in a verdict.

What do the higher courts do? Appeals courts do not run trials; but they hear oral arguments, receive "briefs", confer, decide, and write opinions. (A brief is a lawyer's formal argument, putting before the judge one side's version of the law and facts.)

The typical written opinion follows a fairly standard format. The opinion sets out the facts, states what the issues are, looks at past cases (if any) on the same object, looks at statues (if any) which have a bearing, and discusses the relevance of these "authorities". The court will announce certain legal principles, which it (or courts in earlier cases) squeezed out of precedents or statutes. It matches these principles with the facts of the case and comes up with an answer to whatever question or riddle is posed. This, then, is the decision. It either agrees with the results of the lower court (in which case the decision below is "affirmed"), or it disagrees (in which case the decision below is "reversed").

Usually, the decision is unanimous—that is, all the judges agree with the outcome. Less often, one or more of the judges has a different view of the matter, and there will be a "dissent". Courts almost always have an odd number of judges. The majority wins. If there is no majority, (if a judge is sick or absent or disqualifies himself and the rest split evenly), the lower court decision will stand. Once in a while, a judge who agrees with the majority as far as its result is concerned will nevertheless quibble about the reasons. Such a judge can write a special opinion, called a "concurrence."

III. How to Read a Court Case?

As with other reading material, the best way to read a court case is to read the entire case and then take notes as you reread. Court cases present an extra challenge for two reasons: (1) the unfamiliar legal terminology and (2) the difficulty in determining what is important and what can be ignored. To help separate the "wheat from the chaff" you should try briefing the case. Briefing a case helps you to focus on the important issues.

As you read the case, answer the following questions:

- 1. Begin with the name and citation of the case.
- 2. Is this case being decided by a trial court or an appellate court? (Note: most cases you read will be appellate cases, because the opinions of trial courts have less precedential value)
 - 3. In the original case, who was the plaintiff and who was the defendant?
 - 4. What was the original complaint? (libel, invasion of privacy, violation of a statute, etc.)
 - 5. What were the facts that led to the complaint?
 - 6. What was the trial court's decision? (who "won" the case)
 - 7. What are the legal questions/issues that are being raised on appeal?
 - 8. What is the present court's decision (is the original decision affirmed, reversed, or remanded?)
- 9. What rule or test is the court using to decide the outcome? This will relate to the legal question that must be decided.
 - 10. What reason does the court give for using this rule?

Sometimes the court makes your job easier and says "The issue before the court is" or "we apply the

following test" Other times you have to reread the case a few times to figure out what the issue or rule is! The above ten steps spell out the briefing process in detail. To summarize:

What are the FACTS?

What LEGAL QUESTION or ISSUE is the court trying to answer?

What is the DECISION?

What is the RULE OR TEST the court used to reach its decision?

What is the court's REASONING?

Further Reading & Homework

- 1. 《法律英语教程》, 齐筠, 张清, 高等教育出版社, 2005年;
- 2. 网络查找相关内容。

Week Three: Introduction to Contracts & Mutual Assent

Teaching objectives: Getting to know American contract law in general and starting to learn the formation of contracts, i.e. mutual assent.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. What is a Contract?

A contract is formed in any transaction in which one or both parties make a legally enforceable promise. A promise is a commitment or undertaking that a given event will or will not occur in the future and may be express or implied from conduct or language and conduct. A promise is legally enforceable where it was:

- (1) made as part of a bargain for valid consideration;
- (2) reasonably induced the promisee to rely on the promise to his detriment; or
- (3) is deemed enforceable by a statute despite the lack of consideration.

II. Types of Contracts

Contract may be of the following types:

- 1) Express an agreement manifested by words
- 2) Implied-in-fact an agreement manifested by conduct
- 3) Implied-in-law ("quasi-contract") not a true contract but an obligation imposed by a court despite the absence of a promise in order to avoid an injustice

III. Sources of Contract Law

- 1. Common Law in most jurisdictions, contract law is not codified, and thus the primary source of general contract law is caselaw.
- 2. Restatement written by the American Law Institute to provide guidance to the bench and bar, the Restatement of Contracts (currently in the second edition) has no legal force but nevertheless provides highly persuasive authority.
 - 3. Uniform Commercial Code (UCC) created under the auspices of the

American Law Institute and the National Conference of Commissioners on

Uniform State Laws, has been adopted by every state except Louisiana. Proposed revisions to Article 2, governing contracts for the sale of goods, have been finalized and presented to the states for enactment.

4. United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods

(CISG) – ratified by many of the leading trading nations including the United States and China (but not the United Kingdom and Japan), it governs many transactions for the sale of goods between parties with places of business in different nations.

- 5. UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts non-binding authoritative text similar to the Restatement.
- 6. Uniform Computer Transactions Act (UCITA) addresses issues arising out of computer licensing but has only been enacted in Virginia and Maryland.
- 7. Uniform Electronic Transactions Act (UETA) adopted by most states, this act does not affect basic contract doctrine but governs the use of electronic communications. It applies to "transactions," defined as "the conduct of business, commercial or governmental affairs." Thus, it does not govern contracts such as those between family members or with non-profit institutions.
- 8. Electronic Signatures in Global and National Commerce Act (E-Sign) this federal law allows states to preempt it by enacting the UETA.

IV. Mutual assent

Contract formation requires mutual assent to the same terms by the parties, generally manifested by an offer and acceptance (see chapters 3 and 4). Current law favors an objective standard for determining a party's intent to be contractually bound. Thus, in general, communications are given the meaning that the recipient of the communication should have reasonably understood. Nevertheless subjective intent is relevant in determining whether the parties intended to be bound. Without such subjective intent, there is no contract.

Further reading assignment:

Study cases: Embry v. Hargardine-McKittrick Dry Goods Moulton v. Kershaw Kabil Development Corp. v. Mignot Empro Mfg. Co. v. Ball-Co Mfg., Inc.

Week Four: Offer

Teaching objectives: Getting to know the important element of making a contract, that is, offer, including the rules related with offer.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

- I. What is an Offer?
- 1. "Offer" Defined

An offer is a manifestation of an intent to be contractually bound upon acceptance by another party. An offer creates in the offeree the power to form a contract by an appropriate acceptance. [Restatement § 24]

2. Communications that do not constitute offers

The following types of communications, which do not manifest an intent to be contractually bound, do not constitute offers:

- 1) opinions about future results, including professional opinions
- 2) statements of intention (including letters of intent which merely memorialize negotiations)
- 3) invitations to submit a bid
- 4) price estimates However, where the estimate is deemed to be a factual misrepresentation because it was made by an expert, estoppel may be invoked if the offeree relied to his detriment on the estimate.
- 5) advertisements, catalogs and mass mailings Courts have ruled that it is unreasonable for one to believe that the merchant intends to be bound with all whom receive or read such literature unless the power of acceptance is clearly limited to the first person(s) that fulfills the act for which the incentive is offered.
- 6) auctions with reserve An auction is "with reserve" unless announced to the contrary. In an auction with reserve, the auctioneer solicits offers in the form of bids. However, if the auction is announced to be "without reserve," the auctioneer's request for bids or his statement that an item will go to the highest bidder will be deemed an offer.

II. When is the Offer Effective?

1. Receipt of offer

An offer is not valid until received by the offeree or his agent. [Restatement § 68]

2. Duration of offer

If the offer has a stated time within which the acceptance must be made, any attempted acceptance after the expiration of that time will fail and will merely constitute a counter-offer by the offeree. If no specific time is stated within which the offeree must accept, it is assumed that the offeror intended to keep the offer open for a reasonable period of time, to be determined based on the nature of the proposed contract, trade usage, prior dealings and other circumstances of which the offeree knows or should know.

III. Revocation

With limited exceptions (see [2] below), an offer is generally revocable at any time prior to acceptance.

1. Communication of revocation

An offer may be revoked by any words that communicate to the offeree that the offeror no longer intends to be bound. An offer is also revoked by action that is inconsistent with the intent to be bound once the offeree learns of such inconsistent action.

2. Offers that may not be revoked

An offer is irrevocable where:

- 1) there is an option contract in which the offeree gave consideration for an irrevocable offer for some period of time;
- 2) the offeree relied to his detriment upon an implied or express promise by the offeror not to revoke if such detrimental reliance was foreseeable by the offeror;
- 3) the offeree relied to his detriment upon the offer itself if the such detrimental reliance was reasonably foreseeable by the offeror [Restatement § 87(2)]
 - 4) in the case of a unilateral contract, the offeree began performance of the promised act to any extent

[Restatement § 45] – Upon commencement of performance, the offeror must give the offeree the amount of time specified in the offer (or, in the absence of a specified time, a reasonable time) in which to complete the bargained-for promise. However, the offeree's mere preparation to perform does not preclude the offeror from revoking.

5) in goods contracts, a merchant indicates in a signed writing that an offer to buy or sell goods will be held open for the stated time or a reasonable time if no time is specified, not to exceed three months, if no consideration if given [UCC § 2-205]

3. Effective time of revocation

A revocation is effective upon receipt by the offeree. However, a few jurisdictions (e.g., California, Montana, South Dakota, North Dakota) provide by statute that revocations are to be treated similar to acceptances; thus, courts might interpret these statutes to make a revocation of an offer effective when sent by the offeror.

IV. Termination of the Offer

An offeree's power to accept an offer is terminated by:

- the death or insanity of the offeror, even without notice to the offeree of such occurrence
- death or insanity of the offeree, unless an offer is irrevocable, such as in the case of an option contract
 - death or destruction of a person or thing essential to performance
- the offeree's rejection of the offer, which cannot be reinstated by the offeree's subsequent attempted acceptance.
 - the offeree's counter-offer, which impliedly manifests a rejection of the offer
 - revocation of the offer
 - expiration of the offer

Further reading assignment: case study

Peterson v. Pattberg

James Baird Co. v. Gimbel Bros., Inc.

Drennan v. Star Paving Co.

Week Five: Acceptance (I)

Teaching objectives: In this session, students will learn another important element of making a contract, that is, acceptance, with focusing on the rules concerning manner of acceptance, medium of acceptance and notice of acceptance.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Manner of Acceptance

1. Traditional Approach

Traditionally, the nature of the contract dictated whether the offer could be accepted by a return promise or by actual performance of the promised act.

(1) Acceptance by Performance; Unilateral Contracts

In a unilateral contract, the offer empowers the offeree to only accept by complete performance of the

promise. The offeree's failure to perform does not constitute a breach since no contract is formed until the offeree renders full performance.

(2) Acceptance by Return Promise; Bilateral Contracts

In a bilateral contract, the offers empower the offeree to only accept by return promise. Bilateral contracts are formed upon the giving of the promise to perform an obligation in the future, and failure to fulfill such promise results in breach.

2. Modern Approach

Under the modern approach, an offer invites acceptance by any means reasonable under the circumstances, unless otherwise indicated by language or circumstances. [UCC § 2-206; Restatement § 30(2)] This approach reflects the fact that many offers do not specify whether acceptance is to be by full performance or promise. A contract may be formed even if an offer clearly indicates that acceptance is to be by promise if:

- 1) the offeree begins to perform, in lieu of making the required promise; and
- 2) the offeror learns of the commencement of performance and acquiesces to such manner of acceptance.

3. Acts Inconsistent with Offeror's Ownership or Receipt of Benefits

The common law holds that one who receives goods with knowledge or reason to know that they are being offered for a price is bound by the terms of the offer if he exercises dominion or control over such goods or engages in any other act inconsistent with the offeror's ownership. If the act wrongs the offeror, it is deemed a valid acceptance only if ratified by the offeror. Similarly, one who receives benefits from services that he knows or has reason to know are being offered with the expectation of compensation, and where he has a reasonable opportunity to reject them, is liable for the reasonable value or stated value of such services. [Restatement § 69]

4. Acceptance by silence

Silence may not constitute an acceptance except where:

- based on prior dealings between the parties, it is reasonable that the offeree should notify the offeror if he does not intend to accept; or
- "where the offeror has stated or given the offeree reason to understand that **assent** may be manifested by silence or inaction, and the offeree in remaining silent and inactive intends to accept the offer." [Restatement § 69]

II. Medium of Acceptance

Unless the offeror indicates otherwise, the offeree may use any medium that is reasonable under the circumstances [UCC § 2-206(1)(a)] or, in non-goods contracts, the same medium as was used to communicate the offer or any other medium "customary in similar transactions at the time and place the offer is received." [Restatement § 65]

III. Notice of Acceptance

The offeror is entitled to notice of the acceptance. Thus, even if the offeree effectively accepts an offer and a contract is formed, failure by the offeree to notify the offeror of the acceptance within a reasonable time may preclude the offerer from enforcing the contract. [Restatement § 54 and § 56]

1. Notice of Acceptance by Performance

Under common law, where an offer invites acceptance by performance, no notice is required to make the acceptance effective, unless the offeror so specifies. However, if the offeree has reason to know that

the offeror has no adequate means of learning of the performance with reasonable promptness and certainty, the offeror's contractual duty will be discharged unless:

- the offeree exercises reasonable diligence to notify the offeror of acceptance; or
- the offeror learns of the performance within a reasonable time; or
- the offer indicates that notification of the acceptance is not necessary.

[Restatement § 54]

In transactions for the sale of goods, where commencement of performance is a reasonable mode of acceptance, if the offeror is not notified of acceptance within a reasonable time, he may treat the offer as having lapsed prior to acceptance. [UCC § 2-206(2)]

2. Notice of Acceptance by Return Promise

Where the offeree accepts by promise, the offeree must exercise reasonable diligence to notify the offeror of the acceptance or ensure that the offeror seasonably receives the acceptance. [Restatement § 56]

Further reading assignment: Study the following cases:

Livingstone v. Evans Morrison v. Thoelke H.B. Toms Tree Surgery, Inc. v. Brant Hobbs v. Massasoit Whip Co.

Week Six: Acceptance (II)

Teaching objectives: Students will continue to learn the rules related with acceptance, such as mail-box rule, the modern approach of the disposition of terms of acceptance, and rejection of offer, etc.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. When an Acceptance Becomes Effective

An acceptance becomes effective according to the following rules:

- 1. The offeror may specify when the acceptance will be effective.
- 2. Absent such specification, an acceptance is effective when sent, if sent by reasonable means, e.g., by an authorized medium and with proper postage and correct address.
- 3. If an acceptance is sent by means that are not appropriate or reasonable under the circumstances or if it is improperly dispatched, the acceptance will be effective upon receipt. [Restatement § 66] However, if the acceptance is seasonably but improperly dispatched, it will still be deemed effective when sent if it is received within the time in which a properly dispatched acceptance would have been received. [Restatement § 67]
- 4. In the case of option contracts, an acceptance is not operative until received by the offeror. [Restatement § 63(b)]
 - 5. In transactions governed by the CISG, the acceptance becomes effective when it reaches the offeror.

II. Late Acceptance

A number of approaches are applied to communications that are intended as an acceptance but sent after the offer expires:

- 1. the communication may qualify as a counter-offer;
- 2. the offeror may waive the lateness and honor the acceptance;
- 3. if the acceptance is nevertheless sent within a reasonable time, albeit after the offer's stated expiration, the acceptance is valid and results in the formation of a contract if the offeror does not reject it within a reasonable time;
- 4. in transactions governed by the CISG, if the acceptance is late because of a delay in transmission that is apparent from the circumstances, a contract is formed unless the offeror informs the offeree that the acceptance is too late.

III. Terms of Acceptance

1. Non-goods Contracts

Under the "mirror image" rule, applied in common law transactions, an acceptance must conform to the terms set forth in the offer. No contract is formed if the acceptance contains terms that are different from or additional to those set forth in the offer. Such communication merely constitutes a counter-offer. The formation of a contract is generally precluded even if the discrepancy is trivial, although courts are now increasingly giving effect to an acceptance if the additional or different terms relate to an immaterial detail.

A contract is formed if the offeree unequivocally accepts the offeror's terms, despite a simultaneous suggestion of alternative terms. Such circumstances merely represent an attempt to modify the terms of an already formed contract based on the original terms, as long as the acceptance is not contingent on the offeror accepting the proposed changes.

2. Contracts for the sale of goods

The UCC rejects the mirror image rule. It give effect to a definite and seasonable expression of acceptance even though it contains additional or different terms from those offered, unless the offeree expressly makes the acceptance conditional on the offeror's assent to the different or additional terms. [UCC § 2-207]

(1) Additional Terms

In contracts where at least one party is a non-merchant, if the offeree unambiguously accepts but states additional terms, the terms are construed as mere proposals for modification and the terms of the existing contract are those set forth in the offer.

Where both parties are merchants, the additional terms become part of the contract unless:

- the offer expressly limits acceptance to the terms of the offer;
- they materially alter it; or
- notification of objection to them has already been given or is given within a reasonable time after notice of them is received. [UCC § 2-207(2)]

Proposed revised § 2-207 eliminates the distinction between transactions where both parties are not merchants and those where both parties are merchants. Regardless of the nature of the parties, terms in a contract under the UCC are those that:

- 1) appear in the records of both parties;
- 2) are agreed to by both parties, whether or not contained in a record; and

3) are supplied by the UCC by default or gap filler provision.

(2) Different Terms

Section 2-207 is silent regarding the treatment of different terms but some authorities suggest that they require the offeror's assent, regardless of the merchant-status of the parties.

(3) Electronic Agents

Where an offer is communicated by an electronic program and the offeree has reason to know that he is dealing with an electronic agent not programmed to responds to additional terms or queries, any additional or different terms stated in the acceptance are ineffective. [proposed UCC § 2-211(4)]

(4) Requirements and Output Contracts

A requirement contract is one in which the term of quantity to be delivered is measured by the needs of the buyer. In such contracts, the buyer is not permitted to buy from a third-party supplier; the seller must deliver the required amount of product to the buyer but any excess produced may be sold to third parties.

An output contract measures the contract quantity by the output of the seller. The seller is not permitted to sell any of its products to a third party; the buyer must purchase all of the seller's output but may purchase from third party suppliers any excess it needs beyond the seller's output.

IV. Rejection of Offer

A rejection of an offer by the offeree is effective when received by the offeror. If an offeree dispatches more than one response to an offer, regardless of whether the rejection is sent before or after the acceptance, if the rejection is received later than when the acceptance was dispatched, a contract is formed since an acceptance is effective upon dispatch but a rejection is effective upon receipt. Nevertheless, estoppel may operate to bar enforcement of such a contract where the offeror receives the rejection before the acceptance, and acts in reliance on such rejection.

Further reading assignment: Study the following cases:

Cobaugh v. Klick-Lewis, Inc.
Allied Steel & Conveyors, Inc. v. Ford Motor Co.
Davis V. Jacoby

Week Seven: Consideration (I)

Teaching objectives: Students will study consideration, which is a very important concept in American contract law; particularly the study will focus on the elements of consideration, adequacy and sufficiency of consideration and forbearance to sue as substitute consideration as well.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Elements of Consideration

With some exceptions (see §5.03), a promise must be supported by consideration in order to be enforceable. Consideration requires a bargained exchange in which each party incurs a legal detriment.

1. Bargained exchange

Consideration is a bargained-for performance or return promise which is given by the promisee in exchange for the promisor's promise. Consideration need not be furnished by or to the parties themselves as long as it is part of the bargained exchange.

Even if the promisor's promise induced performance or a return promise by the promisee, if such inducement was not sought by the promisor, there is no bargained exchange. In such circumstances, the promise is merely an unenforceable gift.

2. Legal Detriment

A legal detriment exists where the party:

- engages in an act that the party was not previously obligated whether statutorily or contractually
 to perform; or
 - · refrains from exercising a legal right

Under the **pre-existing duty rule**, a promise regarding a pre-existing obligation to the other party does not constitute a legal detriment.

II. Sufficiency of Consideration

1. Adequate vs. Sufficient Consideration

Adequacy of consideration relates to whether the bargain involves an exchange of equal value. Generally, however, courts do not concern themselves with whether consideration is adequate, honoring the concept of freedom of contract. On the other hand, courts do require consideration to be "sufficient", which relates to whether there is a legal detriment incurred as part of a bargained exchange of promises or performances.

If a bargain gives a party a choice of alternative obligations, each alternative on its own must constitute sufficient consideration for the return promise. If a promise is void or voidable – e.g., due to the incapacity of the promisor – the sufficiency of the consideration is not necessarily negated. [See Restatement § 78, comment a]

2. Forbearance of Claims and Defenses

Surrender of a validly disputed claim – one for which there is a factual or legal uncertainty as to its merits – or the release of a validly asserted defense is sufficient consideration for a return promise. Forbearance of an invalid claim or defense may also serve as consideration if the proponent of such claim or defense had a good faith belief in its validity and if there exists an objective uncertainty as to its validity.

Further reading assignment: Study the following cases:

Hamer v. Sidway Mills v. Wyman Webb v. McGowin Batsakis v. Demotis

Week Eight: Consideration (II)

Teaching objectives: In this session, students will continue to learn the rules related with consideration, such as the pre-existing duty rule, mutuality rule, and promissory estoppel.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Discharge of Obligation by Lesser or Greater Performance

Generally, a promise to pay a lesser amount than is owed or to partially perform a pre-existing obligation does not constitute a legal detriment since the promisor is merely doing that which he is already obligated to do. [Foakes v. Beer, H.L. 1884] However, if the promisor undertakes a greater obligation than is promised, such as paying or performing before the obligation is due, he incurs a legal detriment sufficient to form consideration for the discharge of the obligation.

II. Illusory Promises

An illusory promise cannot serve as consideration. An illusory promise may exist where a promise is subject to a condition which is within the control of the promisor, especially where such condition is related to the contract performance, or when the promisor, at the time of the promise is made, knows that such condition cannot occur.

III. Implied Promises of Best Efforts and Good Faith Dealing

Agreements for exclusive dealings may appear to be based on an illusory promise since the promisor's performance is subject to conditions within its control. Nevertheless, common law and the UCC have recognized an implied promise to use best efforts in an agreement for exclusive dealings, which furnishes the necessary consideration. [See Wood v. Lucy, Lady Duff-Gordon, 222 N.Y. 88 (1917) (involving an agreement by the defendant to give the plaintiff the exclusive right to market its name and designs); UCC § 2-306(2)]

IV. Nominal consideration

If nominal consideration is given as a mere formality in order to create a binding contract rather than as a bargained exchange, the consideration is insufficient. [Restatement § 71, illus.5] In option contracts, a payment or promise to pay nominal consideration is sufficient consideration to make enforceable a promise not to revoke, provided the option time is relatively short (e.g., 10 days) and the price to be paid if the option is exercised is a fair price. [See Restatement § 87, comment b]

V. Enforceable Promises Without Consideration

The following types of promises are enforceable without consideration:

- 1. promises that induce a foreseeable and detrimental change of position by the promisee (promissory estoppel)
 - 2. a new express or implied promise to pay a debt that has become barred by the statute of limitations
- 3. a new express promise to perform all or part of a pre-existing obligation that has become discharged in bankruptcy
- 4. where an original promise is voidable due to the promisor's incapacity, a new promise by such promisor upon attaining capacity
- 5. where an original promise is voidable due to a valid defense by the promisor such as mistake, misrepresentation or undue influence, a subsequent promise by such promisor
- 6. in contracts for the sale of goods, contract modifications [UCC § 2-209(1)], release of a claim by a signed writing [UCC § 1-107], and a written promise by a merchant not to revoke an offer [UCC § 2-205]
 - 7. in some states, contract modifications in non-sale-of-goods transactions.

VI. Promissory Estoppel

When a promisee foreseeably relies to his detriment on the promisor's promise, even in the absence of

an enforceable contract, the doctrine of promissory estoppel may be invoked to make such promise binding in order to prevent injustice. The remedy in such cases is based on the extent of the promisee's reliance, not his expectation. The Restatement, Second, eliminated the requirement from the Restatement, First, that the detriment be "substantial." [Restatement § 90(1)]

Further reading assignment: Study cases: Levine v. Blumenthal

Duncan v. Black

Wood v. Lucy, Lady Duff-Gordon Feld v. Henry S. Levy & Sons, Inc.

Wheeler v. White

Hoffman v. Red Owl Stones, Inc.

Goodman v. Dicker

Week Nine: Requirements of No Defenses (I)

Teaching objectives: Students will learn even if the contract is formed, it may not be enforceable as there may exist some defenses to the contract. In this session, students will mainly learn some contracts must satisfy the requirements of the Statute of Frauds in order to be enforceable.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Requirements of the Statute of Frauds

Certain agreements must satisfy the statute of frauds, which requires the agreement to:

- 1. be memorialized in a writing or record;
- 2. be signed by or on behalf of the party against whom enforcement is sought;
- 3. indicate that a contract has been made between the parties;
- 4. state with reasonable certainty the essential terms of the unperformed promises, in the case of non-goods contracts;
 - 5. specify the term of quantity, in the case of contracts for the sale of goods.

UCC § 2-201 specifically states that "a record is not insufficient because it omits or incorrectly states a term agreed upon but the contract is not enforceable . . . beyond the quantity of goods shown in the record."

II. Contracts Within the Statute of Frauds

The following types of agreements fall within the statute of frauds:

- 1) Agreements that by its terms cannot be performed within a year from the making of the contract The statute of frauds only applies if the contract specifically precludes performance within one year, not merely if performance would appear impossible to complete within one year of the making of the contract. (see § 6.04[3] for an exception to this writing requirement)
- 2) Promise to answer for the debt, default or miscarriage of another A promise by a surety or guarantor to a creditor to pay the debt or perform the obligation of a principal debtor must be in writing where the creditor has reason to know of the surety/guarantor relationship. Many states likewise require a

writing to memorialize a promise by an executor or other personal representatives to pay the obligations of the estate which they represent with their own funds. This requirement does not apply when the promise merely involves payment of another's debts with funds that belong to the debtor or which the promisor holds for the purpose of paying the debtor's obligations.

- 3) Agreements made upon consideration of marriage, other than mutual promises to marry, e.g., to provide a dowry or child support.
 - 4) Agreements for the sale of land and for an interest in land (see § 6.04[2] for an exception)
 - 5) Agreements for the lease of real property for longer than one year
- 6) Agreement by a purchaser of real property to pay an indebtedness secured by a mortgage or deed of trust upon the property, unless assumption of the indebtedness by the purchaser is specifically provided for in the conveyance of the property.
- 7) Contracts for the sale of goods for the price of \$500 or more [UCC § 2-201]; under the proposed revision, the price threshold is raised to \$5,000 (see § 6.04[1] for an exception)
- 8) Contracts for sale of other personal property e.g, intellectual property, royalties in the amount or value exceeding \$5,000 [UCC § 1-206]
 - 9) Leases of goods in the total amount of \$1,000 or more [UCC § 2A-201]
- 10) Agreements which creates a security interest in personal property if it is not in possession of the secured party, and agreements for the assignment of contract rights [UCC § 9-203(1)(a)]

Other types of agreements upon which different states have imposed a writing requirement include:

- 1) agreements that by its terms cannot be performed during the lifetime of the promisor;
- 2) agreements by which a principal appoints an agent to execute a contract which is itself within a provision of the statute of frauds ("equal dignities" rule)
 - 3) promises to pay debts, the enforcement of which was barred by the statute of limitations
 - 4) promises to pay debts discharged in bankruptcy
 - 5) agreements to pay a commission to a real estate agent

III. Signature

An agreement that falls within the statute of frauds must be signed by or on behalf of the party against whom enforcement is sought. An agreement may consist of several writings or records and only one need be signed if the circumstances clearly indicate that the various writings relate to the same transaction.

A signature may include any mark or symbol with which the signer intends to authenticate a writing. The signature may be written, printed, stamped, engraved, or otherwise marked on the writing. Signatures may include initials, imprinted signatures, letterhead, and firm logos.

Further reading assignment: Study the case: Boone v. Coe

Week Ten: Requirements of No Defenses (II)

Teaching objectives: In this session, students will continue to learn the rules related with defenses, such as void and voidable contracts, defenses regarding incapacity to contracts, unconscionability, public policy defense.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Distinction between Void and Voidable Contracts

Certain defenses – generally those that affect assent – can render a contract voidable by the aggrieved party. Other defenses – typically those that pertain to law and public policy

- may render a contract void. The distinction is not clear-cut; for example, while defenses such as incapacity, duress or mistake generally render a contract merely voidable, if the circumstances prevented a meeting of the minds, the contract will be deemed void. Likewise, contracts with an illegal purpose will generally be deemed void unless the parties are not *in pari delicto*.

The legal effects of a contract being deemed voidable as opposed to void are:

- 1) Where a contract is merely voidable, the innocent party may enforce the contract, but the contract cannot be enforced against him. If a contract is void, neither party can enforce the contract.
 - 2) Rights in a voidable contract are transferable; rights cannot be transferred in a void contract.
- 3) If a party improperly transfers property to a bona fide purchaser for value, the injured party may recover the property if the contract governing the transaction is void but not if it was voidable.
- 4) Voidable contracts may be ratified by the party with the power to avoid the contract once the reason for such avoidance such as minor age, mental impairment, duress, undue influence or mistake no longer exists. Void contracts cannot be ratified.

II. Defenses Affecting Assent

1. Incapacity to contract

(1) Minors

Contracts entered into by a minor (an "infant") – one below the age at which state law deems persons to possess capacity to contract, currently 18 years old in most states – are generally voidable by the minorparty, even if he misrepresented his age. A minor can furthermore avoid contractual obligations for a reasonable time after attaining the age of majority. However, if he fails to disaffirm within a reasonable time, the contract will become binding against him.

(2) Mental Impairment

Mental incapacity can result from mental illness or defect – e.g., senility, insanity, retardation – or drug or alcohol intoxication.

A party that suffers a mental illness or defect at the time the contract is made may avoid the contract where the mental impairment prevented him from:

- understanding the nature and consequences of the transaction; or
- acting in a reasonable manner in relation to the transaction, and the other party had reason to know of his condition.

However, if the contract is made on fair terms and the other party was without knowledge of the mental illness or defect, the incapacitated party may be precluded from avoiding the contract where:

- the contract has been fully or partially performed; or
- the circumstances have changed such that avoidance would be unjust.

[Restatement § 15]

A party that was intoxicated when the contract was made may avoid the contract only if the other party had reason to know that, by reason of intoxication, the party was unable to understand the nature and consequences of the transaction or was unable to act in a reasonable manner in relation to the transaction.

[Restatement § 16]

2. Duress

If assent to a contract was obtained by coercion constituting duress, the contract may be avoided by the person subjected to the duress. An improper threat of harm that induces the other party to assent to contract terms constitutes duress. "Improper threat" is established where:

- the threatened act would harm the recipient and would not significantly benefit the party making the threat;
- the effectiveness of the threat in inducing the manifestation of assent is significantly increased by prior unfair dealing by the party making the threat; or
 - what is threatened is otherwise a use of power for illegitimate ends. [Restatement § 176(2)]

3. Undue influence

A defense based on undue influence may arise where:

- one party takes advantage of the other party's position of weakness, e.g., based on age, illness, mental state, intoxication, etc., thus preventing the latter from exercising free will in the transaction; or
 - one party breaches a fiduciary relationship with the other party.

4. Mistake

A mistake is an erroneous belief related to the facts as they exist at the time the contract is made.

(1) Mutual mistake

The adversely affected party may void a contract based on mutual mistake made at the time of the contract formation where:

- 1) the mistake concerned a basic assumption on which the contract made;
- 2) the mistake materially affects the agreement; and
- 3) the adversely affected party does not bear the risk of the mistake. [Restatement § 152]

(2) Unilateral mistake

Common law provides that a party may avoid a contract based on a unilateral mistake where the mistake was palpable, i.e., the other party knew or had reason to know of the mistake, such as where the contract contains an egregiously erroneous recording of a price. If the unilateral mistake is not palpable, the aggrieved party may avoid the contract where:

- 1) enforcement of the contract against the mistaken party would be unconscionable; and
- 2) avoidance would not result in substantial hardship to the non-mistaken party.

Additionally, the following circumstances must exist in order to avoid a unilateral impalpable mistake:

- 1) the agreement is entirely executory or the other party can be placed in the status quo ante;
- 2) the mistake is substantial (but not astronomical as that would likely make the mistake palpable); and
 - 3) mistake is of a clerical or computational error or other such misconstruction of the terms.

5. Misrepresentation

An aggrieved party may avoid a contract based on misrepresentation where:

- 1) the assertion was either material or fraudulent; and
- 2) the person seeking to avoid the contract reasonably relied to his detriment on such assertion. [Restatement § 162]

III. Defenses Based on Unconscionability, Law and Public Policy

A contract, in whole or in part, may be void or voidable based on unconscionability, illegality, or

violation of public policy. If the contract performances are severable, the court may refuse to enforce the terms that offend law or public policy and enforce the remainder of the contract.

Further reading assignment: Study the following cases:

Jackson v. Seymour Sherwood v. Walker

Elsinore Union Elementary School Dist. V. Kastorff

Raffles v. Wichelhaus Cushman v. Kirby Waters v. Min Ltd.

Week Eleven: Parol Evidence Rule

Teaching objectives: In this session, students will learn an important rule in American contract law, which is Parol Evidence Rule.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Parol Evidence Rule

The parol evidence rule operates in situations where there is a writing that represents the final embodiment of the contract or some of its terms. The rule governs whether parties may introduce evidence of extrinsic agreements to prove the existence of additional or modified terms.

The parol evidence rule does not bar extrinsic evidence offered for the following purposes:

- to aid in the interpretation of existing terms
- to show that a writing is or is not an integration
- to establish that an integration is complete or partial
- to establish subsequent agreements or modifications between the parties
- to show that terms were the product of illegality, fraud, duress, mistake, lack of consideration or other invalidating cause

II. Complete Integration

If a writing is found to be a complete integration, the parol evidence rule precludes evidence of prior or contemporaneous agreements to contradict or supplement the contract. However, evidence of course of dealing, course of performance or trade usage that supplies a consistent additional term is permitted. [UCC § 2-202(1)]

III. Partial Integration

If a writing is found to be a partial integration, the parol evidence rule precludes the following types of extrinsic evidence:

- prior agreements (whether written or oral) that contradict a term in the contract
- contemporaneous oral agreements

Consistent additional terms to a partial integration may be established by evidence of:

contemporaneous writing(s)

• course of dealing, course of performance or trade usage [Restatement §§ 214-216; UCC § 2-202]

IV. Determining Whether a Writing is a Complete or Partial Integration

There are several approaches to determining whether a writing is a complete or partial integration:

- 1) "four corners" or "plain meaning" rule If the writing appears complete and final on its face, the writing is conclusively presumed to be a complete integration.
 - 2) "collateral contract" concept All final writings are deemed to be partial integrations.
- 3) "reasonable person" approach (from Williston's rules) If a writing appears to be a complete expression of the parties' agreement, it is a complete integration unless the additional terms are such that it would be natural to enter a separate agreement as to such terms, in which case the writing is a partial integration. This is the majority approach.
- 4) "intention of the parties" approach (Corbin) This approach allows all relevant evidence on the issue of intent, including evidence of prior negotiations. There is increasing acceptance of this approach, as it has been incorporated into the UCC and the Restatement Second. [See Restatement § 210, comment b; UCC § 2-202]

Further reading assignment: Case study: Mitchell v. Lath

Hatley v. Stafford

Week Twelve: Contract Interpretation

Teaching objectives: In this session, students will learn the rules related with the interpretation of contracts.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Approaches to Contract Interpretation

The approaches used to determine whether a writing is an integration are also employed to determine what evidence may be referred in the interpretation of a contract as a whole or its individual terms.

- 1) "Plain meaning" rule If a writing or term appears to be unambiguous on its face, it must be interpreted solely on the basis of such writing. The majority of jurisdictions apply this rule, despite growing criticism.
- 2) Williston's rules ("reasonable person" approach) If a writing is an integration, the meaning given to it as a whole or any individual terms therein is that of a reasonably intelligent person in the circumstances that surrounded the making of the contract. If the writing is not an integration and is unambiguous, the terms are to be interpreted by an objective test the interpretations that a reasonable person would give them. If the writing is not an integration and is ambiguous, subjective intent of the parties is relevant.
- 3) "Reasonable expectations of the parties" approach This approach, espoused by Corbin and incorporated by the Restatement and UCC, allows all relevant extrinsic evidence to assist in interpretation, including the subjective intent of the parties.

II. Rules of Interpretation

The following rules have developed to aid courts in interpretation:

- 1) Words and conduct of the parties are to be interpreted in light of all circumstances, giving weight to the principal purpose of the parties in making the contract, if such purpose is ascertainable.
- 2) A writing is to be interpreted as a whole, and if multiple writings pertain to the same transaction, all are to be interpreted together.
 - 3) Language is to be interpreted in accordance with its general prevailing meaning, if any.
 - 4) Technical terms and terms of art are to be given effect when used in relevant transactions.
- 5) Wherever possible, the manifestations of the parties' intentions are to be interpreted as consistent with each other and with any relevant course of performance, course of dealing or trade usage.

III. Standards of Preference

- 1) An interpretation which gives a reasonable, lawful and effective meaning to terms is preferred to an interpretation which imparts an unreasonable, unlawful or null effect.
- 2) In order of their significance and the weight to be given each are: express terms, course of performance, course of dealing and trade usage.
 - 3) Specific terms are to be given greater weight than general terms.
 - 4) Negotiated terms are to be given greater weight than standard terms.
- 5) In some cases, such as adhesion contracts, ambiguous language may be construed against the drafter. [See Restatement § 203, § 206; UCC § 2-208]

IV. Different Meanings Intended by the Parties

Where the parties attach different meanings to a term, the interpretation that prevails is that of the party that did not know (or had no reason to know) of any different meaning attached by the other, and the other knew (or had reason to know) the meaning attached by the first party. [Restatement § 201]

V. Adhesion Contracts

An adhesion contract is a contract drafted by one party and reduced to a form agreement that generally presents no opportunity for negotiation. While not per se objectionable, adhesion contracts are subject to greater scrutiny than contracts that result from negotiation between the parties. To protect the non-drafter, who is often in an inferior position, the Restatement provides that only those contractual provisions that a reasonable person would anticipate and agree to should be considered part of the contract. [Restatement § 211(3)]

Further reading assignment: Case study: *Howard v. Federal Crop Ins. Corp Mascioni v. I.B. Miller, Inc.*

Week Thirteen: Performance of Contracts (I)

Teaching objectives: In this session, students will learn what prevent the performance of a contract, mainly about rules of impossibility, impracticability and frustration of purpose.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Supervening Impossibility and Impracticability of Performance

If, after a contract is formed, circumstances arise which make a party's performance impossible or impracticable, his duty to render that performance is discharged. In order to prove impracticability:

- 1) an event must have occurred that makes performance, or performance in the contemplated sense, impossible or impracticable;
 - 2) the party seeking relief must not have been at fault in causing the event to occur;
- 3) non-occurrence of the event must have been a basic assumption upon which the contract was made; and
 - 4) the party seeking relief must not have assumed the risk of the event occurring.

[Restatement § 261]

Applying the same criteria, UCC § 2-615 provides that a seller's delayed delivery or non-delivery of goods based on impracticability is not a breach. The proposed revision expands the availability of the impracticability excuse to "performance" and "non-performance" of any and all sellers' contractual duties.

Events that may make performance of the contract impossible include:

- death or disability of a person indispensable to performance of the contract
- destruction of the subject matter of the contract or other thing necessary for the performance of the contract, provided the destruction is not the fault of the party asserting impossibility
 - failure of a specific thing necessary for performance to come into existence
 - supervening governmental action that makes performance of the contract illegal
 - where performance would subject the party to potential harm
 - shortages or significant price increases in materials due to embargo or war
- other circumstances that would involve "extreme or unreasonable difficulty, expenses, injury or loss." [Restatement § 261, comment d]

Increased cost alone does not excuse performance but an alternative performance that requires an unreasonable expenditure of resources may make performance of the contract impracticable.

II. Supervening Frustration of Purpose

If, after the contract is formed, circumstances arise which substantially frustrate a party's purpose in entering into the contract, the party's remaining duties are discharged, provided:

- 1) the party seeking discharge was not at fault;
- 2) the nonoccurrence of such event was a basic assumption on which the contract was made; and
- 3) the language or the circumstances do not prohibit excuse based on frustration of purpose. [Restatement § 265]

This principle does relieve a party for mere "economic" or "commercial" frustration, where all that is frustrated is the party's ability to make a profit but not the actual purpose of the contract.

Further reading assignment: Case study:

Nolan v. Whitney

Fursmidt v. Hotel Abbey Holding Corp.

Kingston v. Preston

Week Fourteen: Performance of Contracts (II)

Teaching objectives: In this session, students will continue to learn the rules related with performance of contracts, but focusing on the rules concerning conditions of performance.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Timing of Performance of Duties

Unless the contract specifies otherwise, some of the rules that dictate the order of performance of contractual duties are:

- 1) Promises capable of simultaneous performance are each due simultaneously, with each being constructively conditioned on tender of the other.
 - 2) Where the duty of only one party requires a period of time for performance, such duty is due first.
- 3) Where the contract provides for a series of performances and payments, performance of one part is a condition precedent to payment, which in turn becomes the condition precedent to the next performance installment.

II. Conditions

A condition is the occurrence or non-occurrence of an event that gives rise to or extinguishes a contractual duty. A conditional duty becomes due upon either the fulfillment or excuse of such condition. Fulfillment of conditions becomes due as follows:

- conditions precedent a promise which by its terms is to be performed prior to the return promise
- concurrent conditions promises that are capable of being performed simultaneously, and neither party has a duty to perform until the other has performed
 - conditions subsequent an event, occurring after a duty has arisen, that discharges such duty

1. Strict vs. Substantial Fulfillment

Express conditions, as well as implied conditions which may be found based on course of performance, course of dealing, trade usage or other conduct, must be strictly fulfilled in order to give rise to a conditional duty. E.g., the condition of tender of payment is likely one to require strict fulfillment.

Constructive conditions – which are judicially imposed in the interest of justice – may be fulfilled by substantial performance. Courts may interpret an express or implied condition as a constructive condition where substantial performance has been rendered in order to avoid a forfeiture.

2. Excuse of conditions

If a condition fails to occur, the other party may still be obligated to perform his contractual duties if the condition is excused. A condition may be excused by:

- 1) rejection of a proper tender of performance, where acceptance of the performance is a condition precedent to the rejecting party's duty to perform
- 2) wrongful prevention or hinderance of the other party's performance, if such performance was a condition of the aggrieving party's duty, and upon demonstration by the other party that he was otherwise ready, willing and able to perform
- 3) waiver of a non-material condition (e.g., time or manner of delivery) that has not yet failed. A waiver can be withdrawn and the condition reinstated if the other party has not relied on such waiver to his detriment. Waiver is only available for conditions that solely benefit the party waiving it.

- 4) election to continue performance after a condition has failed. Under the majority view, an election cannot be withdrawn, even if the other party has not relied to his detriment on it. If the failed condition constitutes a breach, election does not foreclose an action for damages.
 - 5) equitable estoppel where a party wrongfully prevented the occurrence of a condition
- 6) avoidance of disproportionate forfeiture unless the occurrence of such condition was a material part of the bargain
- 7) impossibility of performance of a non-material condition does not relieve the other party of his duty to perform if there would be forfeiture (need not be an extreme forfeiture in cases of impossibility)
 - 8) unreasonable withholding of approval by a third party in some circumstances

Further reading assignment: Study the following cases:

Porter v. Harrington

Parsons v. Britstol Dev. Co.

Week Fifteen: Breach of Contracts

Teaching objectives: In this session, students will get to know the rules related the breach of contract, such as what constitutes a breach, and whether breach is minor or material and anticipatory repudiation as well.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Breach Generally

1. What Constitutes a Breach

Any non-performance of a contractual duty which has become due constitutes a breach. An anticipatory repudiation of obligations also serves to breach a contract.

In contracts for the sale of goods, in addition to repudiation, a seller breaches the contract by offering a tender or delivery of non-conforming goods, and the buyer breaches by wrongfully rejecting goods, wrongfully revoking acceptance of goods, or failing to make a payment when due.

2. Material Breach in Non-Goods Contracts

If a party fails to perform a promise and the breach is material, and no cure is forthcoming, the aggrieved party may:

- cancel the contract and sue for all damages under the contract; or
- continue the contract and sue for partial damages

If the breach is not material, the aggrieved party may not cancel the contract and can only sue for partial damages.

Factors which are relevant to a determination of whether a breach is material are:

- the extent to which the aggrieved party will be deprived of the benefit he reasonably expected;
- the extent to which the aggrieved party can be adequately compensated for the benefit of which he will be deprived;
 - the extent to which the breaching party will suffer forfeiture;

- the likelihood that the breaching party will cure his failure, taking into account all the circumstances including any reasonable assurances;
- the extent to which the breaching party has acted according to standards of good faith and fair dealing. [Restatement § 241]

II. Anticipatory Repudiation

1. What Constitutes a Repudiation

A party repudiates a contractual duty by:

- making a statement indicating that he will breach the contract
- engaging in a voluntary affirmative act that renders him unable to perform the duty
- failing to provide an assurance of due performance in response to such a request by the other party when there exists reasonable grounds to believe that the obligor will not perform. [Restatement §§ 250, 251; UCC § 2-609(4), proposed revised § 2-610(2)]

2. Effect of Anticipatory Repudiation

In non-goods contracts, anticipatory repudiation by one party entitles the other party to:

- bring an action for damages for total breach
- discharge his remaining obligations. [Restatement § 253]

In goods contracts, an anticipatory repudiation which will substantially impair the value of the contact to the aggrieved party, allows the aggrieved party to:

- await performance by the repudiating party for a commercially reasonable time
- seek remedy for breach even if he has notified the repudiating party that he would await performance and has urged retraction
 - suspend his own performance. [UCC § 2-610]

Further reading assignment: Case study

Taylor v. Caldwell
Tompkins v. Dudley
American Trading & Production Corp. v. Shell International Marine, Ltd
Krell v. Henry

Week Sixteen: Remedies

Teaching objectives: In this session, students will learn what remedies are available when one party breaches, i.e. the types of remedies, plus the non-breaching party's duty of mitigation.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

I. Types of Remedies

1. Expectation damages

Expectation damages compensate the injured party for the benefit he would have received had the contract not been breached, minus any amount he would have spent in performance of the contract. Such damages must be proven with certainty, and may be measured by the contract price, loss in value, or lost

profits.

2. Reliance damages

Reliance damages compensate the injured party for expenses or loss incurred in reasonable reliance on the contract that was breached. Reliance damages are only awarded when expectation damages cannot be proven, and may not exceed the anticipated benefit of the bargain.

3. Restitution

Restitution compensates a party for the benefit conferred on the other party as a result of partial performance or reliance, and is aimed at preventing unjust enrichment.

Restitution damages may be measured by:

- the reasonable value of the benefit received in terms of what it would have cost to obtain such benefit from another source
- the extent to which the value of the party's property has been increased or his other interests advanced.

Restitution may be available:

- in cases of breach, to either party
- where a contract is unenforceable (e.g., due to lack of consideration or writing)
- where a contract is voidable
- where a duty is excused or discharged due to impracticability, frustration of purpose, nonoccurrence of a condition, or disclaimer by a beneficiary
 - in void contracts to a party not in pari delicto.

4. Stipulated damages (liquidated damages)

At the time the contract is formed, the parties may agree to a fixed sum of money or a set formula for setting damages in the event of a breach. Stipulated damages will be enforced if they reflect an honest effort to anticipate the harm caused by a breach. Stipulated damages will be deemed invalid if they represent an attempt to punish the breaching party, such as in the case of unreasonably large damages.

5. Punitive damages

Punitive damages are generally not available in contract actions, but if the conduct that causes the breach also constitutes a tort, punitive damages may be awarded.

6. Specific Enforcement

Specific enforcement is a remedy in the form of a court order that the breaching party render performance of the contract. Specific performance is not available if expectation damages are adequate to put the aggrieved party in as good a position as he would have been had the contract been fully performed. Expectation damages are deemed to be an inadequate remedy:

- where the subject matter is unique
- in real property transactions
- in goods contracts, "where goods are unique or in other proper circumstances," e.g., where the goods are in short supply. [UCC § 2-716]

II. Mitigation of Damages

A party aggrieved by a breach must use reasonable efforts to mitigate damages. In the specific case of breach of an employment contract, courts will not generally require an employee that has been discharged to take onerous or difficult measures to secure new employment, such as taking a far inferior position or relocating.

Further reading assignment: Case study

Hawkins v. McGee

Groves v. John Wunder Co.

Acme Mills & Elevator Co. v. Johnson Rockingham County v. Luten Bridge Co.

Hadley v. Baxendale

Week Seventeen: General Review and Questions & Answers

Teaching objectives: This is the last class before the final exam, so in this week, will lead students to have a general review of what have been discussed in the course, and take students' questions and comments.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Week Eighteen: Final exam

The final exam will be open-book, in which students' ability of understanding the American contract law and analytical skills will be tested. The exam will be 2 hours.

《法律案例阅读》教学大纲

沙丽金 编写

目 录

—,	前言	2
	 课程教学目的和基本要求	
三、	课程主要内容及学时分配	2
四、	教学重点与难点	2
五、	相关教学环节相关	2
六、	教材: 自编讲义	2
七、	主要参考书目:	2
八、	教学内容及进度安排:	3
Unit	One Introduction	4
Unit	Two Brown v. Board of Education (Constitutional law)	4
Unit	Three Leichtman v. WLW, et al (Torts)	6
Unit	Four Webster v. Blue Ship Tea Room, Inc (Contract)	7
	Five Katz v. United States (Criminal Procedure)	
Unit	Six Coker v. Georgia (Criminal Law)	14
Unit	Seven Pierson v. Post (Property Law)	20
	Eight Bank of the United States v. Deveaux (Company Law)	
	Nine KSR International Co. v. Teleflex Inc. et al	

一、前言

《法律案例阅读》为外国语学院四年级学生的选修课。本课程开设学期为第七学期。

本课程的内容以阅读原版英美法系的案例为主。以案例为语料,通过阅读和分析,使学生了解 英美法律制度、法官的语言特点和法律推理过程,培养学生的思辨能力和语言运用能力。

本大纲编写人员为沙丽金。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程的教学目的是经过一个学期的学习,使学生对英美法案例所特的形式和其所承载的法律 推理过程有初步的了解,并掌握一定的阅读技巧、法律术语和法律习惯表达法,能够写案例摘要。 本课程要求学生具有一定的法律基础知识、较高的英语水平。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

本课程以部门法为单位,内容涉及宪法、刑法、侵权法、合同法、知识产权法、诉讼法等。 本课程为2学分36学时,每个部门法4学时。

四、教学重点与难点

教学重点是了解案例的结构,把握阅读技巧,学习案例分析和案例摘要写作。

教学难点体现在三个方面:第一、中外法律文化差异;第二、英美法律知识;第三、法律术语及特殊表达方式。以上三个方面的问题会影响学生正确理解案例,甚至误解案例。在本课程的教学过程中,需要投入较大精力处理以上问题。

五、相关教学环节

《法律案例阅读》课程主要以课堂教学为主,课堂教学形式分为三种形式:教师讲授、学生讨论和技能训练,教师讲授以任务教学法为准,以提问形式处理案例中的法律知识问题、语言运用问题,学生通过回答问题,把握相关知识和技能。教学手段采用多媒体教学手段。教学评估采用形成性评估和终结性评估两种方式。

六、教材: 自编讲义

七、主要参考书目:

本杰明·卡多佐著,朱苏力译,《司法过程的性质》,商务印书馆,2000年版。

王振民, 《契约法》, 中国民主法制出版社, 2006。

何姗姗、向菲、《美国宪法》,中国民主法制出版社,2006。

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刘艳萍, 《美国专利法》, 中国民主法制出版社, 2006。

陈辉萍、Mary Szto, 《美国财产法》,中国民主法制出版社,2006。

姚俊华, 《美国证券法》, 中国民主法制出版社, 2006。

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高淩雲《英美法案例分析與法律寫作》,上海人民出版社,2005年版。

王军、高建学、《美国侵权法》,对外经济贸易大学出版社,2007。

何主宇, 《英美法案例研读全程指南》, 法律出版社, 2007年版。

八、教学内容及进度安排:

本课程的内容有 9 个单元,即英美法案例阅读导言和 8 个案例。导言 2 学时,每个案例 4 学时。具体内容及安排如下:

Unit One Introduction

Summary

The judicial opinion is briefly introduced including the structure, the types of judicial opinions, the process of legal reasoning, and case brief writing is to be introduced as well.

Aim

To know about the structure of judicial opinions and the way to make legal reasoning.

Teaching hours: 2 class hours

Contents:

- 1. Structure of judicial opinion
- 2. Types of judicial opinion
- 3. Process of legal reasoning
- 4. Case brief writing

Discussion

- 1. Students' goal of the course.
- 2. Differences between the judicial opinions in both China and the ones in common law countries.

Unit Two Brown v. Board of Education (Constitutional law)

Summary

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, 347 U.S. 483 (1954), was a landmark decision of the United States Supreme Court that declared state laws establishing separate public schools for black and white students unconstitutional. The decision overturned the *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision of 1896 which allowed state-sponsored segregation. Handed down on May 17, 1954, the Warren Court's unanimous (9-0) decision stated that "separate educational facilities are inherently unequal." As a result, de jure racial segregation was ruled a violation of the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution. This for integration the wav and the civil rights movement. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Brown_v._Board_of_Education)

Aim

- 1. To understand the rule made by the case.
- 2. To discuss the way to do legal reasoning.
- 3. To teach legal knowledge in the case.

Teaching hours: 4 class hours

Contents:

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas

SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES

(Edited Version – most original footnotes omitted) May 17, 1954

MR. CHIEF JUSTICE WARREN delivered the unanimous opinion of the Court.

These cases come to us from the States of Kansas, South Carolina, Virginia, and Delaware. They are premised on different facts and different local conditions, but a common legal question justifies their consideration together in this consolidated opinion. ...

The plaintiffs contend that segregated public schools are not "equal" and cannot be made "equal," and that hence they are deprived of the equal protection of the laws. Because of the obvious importance of the question presented, the Court took jurisdiction. Argument was heard in the 1952 Term, and reargument was heard this Term on certain questions propounded by the Court. ...

Here, there are findings below that the Negro and white schools involved have been equalized, or are being equalized, with respect to buildings, curricula, qualifications and salaries of teachers, and other "tangible" factors. Our decision, therefore, cannot turn on merely a comparison of these tangible factors in the Negro and white schools involved in each of the cases. We must look instead to the effect of segregation itself on public education.

In approaching this problem, we cannot turn the clock back to 1868 when the Amendment was adopted, or even to 1896 when <u>Plessy v. Ferguson</u> was written. We must consider public education in the light of its full development and its present place in American life throughout the Nation. Only in this way can it be determined if segregation in public schools deprives these plaintiffs of the equal protection of the laws.

Today, education is perhaps the most important function of state and local governments. Compulsory school attendance laws and the great expenditures for education both demonstrate our recognition of the importance of education to our democratic society. It is required in the performance of our most basic public responsibilities, even service in the armed forces. It is the very foundation of good citizenship. Today it is a principal instrument in awakening the child to cultural values, in preparing him for later professional training, and in helping him to adjust normally to his environment. In these days, it is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of an education. Such an opportunity, where the state has undertaken to provide it, is a right which must be made available to all on equal terms.

We come then to the question presented: Does segregation of children in public schools solely on the basis of race, even though the physical facilities and other "tangible" factors may be equal, deprive the children of the minority group of equal educational opportunities? We believe that it does....

Whatever may have been the extent of psychological knowledge at the time of <u>Plessy v. Ferguson</u>, this finding is amply supported by modern authority. Any language in <u>Plessy v. Ferguson</u> contrary to this finding is rejected.

We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of "separate but equal" has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. Therefore, we hold that the plaintiffs and others similarly situated for whom the actions have been brought are, by reason of the segregation complained of, deprived of the equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment. This disposition makes unnecessary any discussion whether such segregation also violates the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. ...

It is so ordered.

Discussion

What is the view of the students on the rule made in the case?

Unit Three Leichtman v. WLW, et al (Torts)

Summary

It is a case about intentional tort, the battery. Whether smoke may constitute a battery or not is a question to be settled in the case.

Aim

- 1. To discuss some legal terms.
- 2. To introduce the rule about intentional tort, especially the elements of battery.

Teaching hours: 4 class hours

Contents:

Court of Appeals of Ohio, First District, Hamilton County. LEICHTMAN v. WLW JACOR COMMUNICATIONS, INC. et al, 92 Ohio App.3d 232 (1994)

The plaintiff-appellant, Ahron Leichtman, appeals from the trial court's order dismissing his complaint against the defendants-appellees, WLW Jacor Communications ("WLW"), William Cunningham and Andy Furman, for battery... In his single assignment of error, Leichtman contends that his complaint was sufficient to state a claim upon which relief could be granted and, therefore, the trial court was in error when it granted the defendants' [motion to dismiss]. We agree in part.

In his complaint, Leichtman claims to be "a nationally known" antismoking advocate. Leichtman alleges that, on the date of the Great American Smokeout, he was invited to appear on the WLW Bill Cunningham radio talk show to discuss the harmful effects of smoking and breathing secondary smoke. He also alleges that, while he was in the studio, Furman, another WLW talk-show host, lit a cigar and repeatedly blew smoke in Leichtman's face "for the purpose of causing physical discomfort, humiliation and distress."

Leichtman contends that Furman's intentional act constituted a battery. The Restatement of the Law 2d, Torts (1965), states:

"An actor is subject to liability to another for battery if

- "(a) he acts intending to cause a harmful or offensive contact with the person of the other * * *, and
- "(b) a harmful contact with the person of the other directly or indirectly results[; or]

"[c] an offensive contact with the person of the other directly or indirectly results."

In determining if a person is liable for a battery, the [Ohio] Supreme Court has adopted the rule that "[c]ontact which is offensive to a reasonable sense of personal dignity is offensive contact." Love v. Port Clinton (1988), 37 Ohio St.3d 98, 99. It has defined "offensive" to mean "disagreeable or nauseating or painful because of outrage to taste and sensibilities or affronting insultingness." State v. Phipps (1979), 58 Ohio St.2d 271, 274. Furthermore, tobacco smoke, as "particulate matter," has the physical properties capable of making contact. R.C. 3704.01(B) and 5709.20(A); Ohio Adm.Code 3745-17.

As alleged in Leichtman's complaint, when Furman intentionally blew cigar smoke in Leichtman's face, under Ohio common law, he committed a battery. No matter how trivial the incident, a battery is actionable, even if damages are only one dollar. Lacey v. Laird (1956), 166 Ohio St. 12, paragraph two of the syllabus. The rationale is explained by Roscoe Pound in his essay "Liability": "[I]n civilized society men must be able to assume that others will do them no intentional injury-that others will commit no intentioned aggressions upon them." Pound, An Introduction to the Philosophy of Law (1922) 169.

Other jurisdictions also have concluded that a person can commit a battery by intentionally directing tobacco smoke at another. Richardson v. Hennly (1993), 209 Ga.App. 868, 871(Georgia). We do not, however, adopt or lend credence to the theory of a "smoker's battery," which imposes liability if there is substantial certainty that exhaled smoke will predictably contact a nonsmoker. Ezra, Smoker Battery: An Antidote to Second-Hand Smoke (1990), 63 S.Cal.L.Rev. 1061, 1090. [B]ecause Leichtman alleges that Furman deliberately blew smoke into his face, we find it unnecessary to address offensive contact from passive or secondary smoke ...

We ...reverse that portion of the trial court's order that dismissed the battery claim This cause is remanded for further proceedings consistent with law on that claim only.

Judgment accordingly.

DOAN, P.J., and HILDEBRANDT and GORMAN, JJ., concur.

Discussion

- 1. Have you ever experienced the suffering from second hand smoke?
- 2. What would be your response to the second hand smoke, to sue or to keep silent?
- 3. What is your opinion on the case?

Unit Four Webster v. Blue Ship Tea Room, Inc (Contract)

Aim

- 1. To discuss the rule in contract law.
- 2. To teach the legal terms

Teaching hours: 4 class hours

Contents:

Webster v. Blue Ship Tea Room, Inc.

Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, 1964

198 N.E.2d 309

REARDON, Justice

This is a case which by its nature evokes earnest study not only of the law but also of the culinary traditions of the Commonwealth which bear so heavily upon its outcome. It is an action to recover damages for personal injuries sustained by reason of a breach of implied warranty of food served by the defendant in its restaurant***

The jury could have found the following facts: On Saturday, April 25, 1959, about 1 p.m., the plaintiff, accompanied by her sister and her aunt, entered the Blue Ship Tea Room operated by the defendant. The group was seated at a table and supplied with menus.

This restaurant, which the plaintiff characterized as "quaint," was located in Boston "on the third floor of an old building on T Wharf which overlooks the ocean."

The plaintiff, who had been born and brought up in New England (a fact of some consequence), ordered clam chowder and crabmeat salad. Within a few minutes she received tidings to the effect that "there was no more clam chowder," whereupon she ordered a cup of fish chowder. Presently, there was set before her "a small bowl of fish chowder." She had previously enjoyed a breakfast about 9 a.m. which had given her no difficulty. "The fish chowder contained haddock, potatoes, milk, water and seasoning. The chowder was milky in color and not clear. The haddock and potatoes were in chunks" (also a fact of consequence). "She agitated it a little with the spoon and observed that it was a fairly full bowl * * * It was hot when she got it, but she did not tip it with her spoon because it was hot*** but stirred it in an up and under motion. She denied that she did this because she was looking for something, but it was rather because she wanted an even distribution of fish and potatoes." "She started to eat it, alternating between the chowder and crackers which were on the table with*** [some] rolls. She ate about 3 or 4 spoonfuls then stopped. She looked at the spoonfuls as she was eating. She saw equal parts of liquid, potato and fish as she spooned it into her mouth. She did not see anything unusual about it. After 3 or 4 spoonfuls she was aware that something had lodged in her throat because she couldn't swallow and couldn't clear her throat by gulping and she could feel it." This misadventure led to two esophagoscopies at the Massachusetts General Hospital, in the second of which, on April 27, 1959, a fish bone was found and removed. The sequence of events produced injury to the plaintiff which was not insubstantial.

We must decide whether a fish bone lurking in a fish chowder, about the ingredients of which there is no other complaint, constitutes a breach of implied warranty under applicable provisions of the Uniform Commercial Code,¹ the annotations to which are not helpful on this point. As the judge put it in his charge, "Was the fish chowder fit to be eaten and wholesome? *** [N]obody is claiming that the fish itself wasn't wholesome. . . . But the bone of contention here -- I don't mean that for a pun -- but was this fish bone a foreign substance that made the fish chowder unwholesome or not fit to be eaten?"

The plaintiff has vigorously reminded us of the high standards imposed by this court where the sale of food is involved (see *Flynn* v. *First Natl. Stores Inc.* 296 Mass. 521, 523) and has made reference to cases involving stones in beans (*Friend* v. *Childs Dining Hall Co.* 231 Mass. 65), trichinae in pork (*Holt* v. *Mann,* 294 Mass. 21, 22), and to certain other cases, here and elsewhere, serving to bolster her contention of breach of warranty.

The defendant asserts that here was a native New Englander eating fish chowder in a "quaint" Boston dining place where she had been before; that "[f]ish chowder, as it is served and enjoyed by New Englanders, is a hearty dish, originally designed to satisfy the appetites of our seamen and fishermen"; that "[t]his court knows well that we are not talking of some insipid broth as is customarily served to convalescents." We are asked to rule in such fashion that no chef is forced "to reduce the pieces of fish in the chowder to miniscule size in an effort to ascertain if they contained any pieces of bone." "In so ruling," we are told (in the defendant's brief), "the court will not only uphold its reputation for [***6] legal knowledge and acumen, but will, as loyal sons of Massachusetts, save our world-renowned fish chowder from degenerating into an insipid broth containing the mere essence of its former stature as a culinary masterpiece." Notwithstanding these passionate entreaties we are bound to examine with detachment the nature of fish chowder and what might happen to it under varying interpretations of the Uniform Commercial Code.

Chowder is an ancient dish preexisting even "the appetites of our seamen and fishermen." It was perhaps the common ancestor of the "more refined cream soups, purees, and bisques." Berolzheimer, The American Woman's Cook Book (Publisher's Guild Inc., New York, 1941) p. 176. The word "chowder" comes from the French "chaudiere," meaning a "cauldron" or "pot." "In the fishing villages of Brittany *** 'faire la chaudiere' means to supply a cauldron in which is cooked a mess of fish and biscuit with some savoury condiments, a hodgepodge contributed by the fishermen themselves, each of whom in return receives his share of the prepared dish. The Breton fishermen probably carried the custom to Newfoundland, long famous for its chowder, whence it has spread to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and New England." A New English Dictionary (MacMillan and Co., 1893) p. 386. Our literature over the years abounds in references not only to the delights of chowder but also to its manufacture. A namesake of the plaintiff, Daniel Webster, had a recipe for fish chowder which has survived into a number of modern cookbooks and in which the removal of fish bones is not mentioned at all. One old time recipe recited in the New English Dictionary study defines chowder as "A dish made of fresh fish (esp. cod) or clams, stewed with slices of pork or bacon, onions, and biscuit. 'Cider and champagne are sometimes added.'" Hawthorne, in The House of the Seven Gables (Allyn and Bacon, Boston, 1957) p. 8, speaks of "[a] codfish of sixty pounds, caught in the bay, [which] had been dissolved into the rich liquid of a chowder." A

9

chowder variant, cod "Muddle," was made in Plymouth in the 1890s by taking "a three or four pound codfish, head added. Season with salt and pepper and boil in just enough water to keep from burning. When cooked, add milk and piece of butter."² The recitation of these ancient formulae suffices to indicate that in the construction of chowders in these parts in other years, worries about fish bones played no role whatsoever. This broad outlook on chowders has persisted in more modern cookbooks. "The chowder of today is much the same as the old chowder ***" The American Woman's Cook Book, *supra*, p. 176. The all embracing Fannie Farmer states in a portion of her recipe, fish chowder is made with a "fish skinned, but head and tail left on. Cut off head and tail and remove fish from backbone. Cut fish in 2-inch pieces and set aside. Put head, tail, and backbone broken in pieces, in stewpan; add 2 cups cold water and bring slowly to boiling point***" The liquor thus produced from the bones is added to the balance of the chowder. Farmer, The Boston Cooking School Cook Book (Little Brown Co., 1937) p. 166.

Thus, we consider a dish which for many long years, if well made, has been made generally as outlined above. It is not too much to say that a person sitting down in New England to consume a good New England fish chowder embarks on a gustatory adventure which may entail the removal of some fish bones from his bowl as he proceeds. We are not inclined to tamper with age old recipes by any amendment reflecting the plaintiff's view of the effect of the Uniform Commercial Code upon them. We are aware of the heavy body of case law involving foreign substances in food, but we sense a strong distinction between them and those relative to unwholesomeness of the food itself, e.g., tainted mackerel (Smith v. Gerrish, 256 Mass. 183), and a fish bone in a fish chowder. Certain Massachusetts cooks might cavil at the ingredients contained in the chowder in this case in that it lacked the heartening lift of salt pork. In any event, we consider that the joys of life in New England include the ready availability of fresh fish [***10] chowder. We should be prepared to cope with the hazards of fish bones, the occasional presence of which in chowders is, it seems to us, to be anticipated, and which, in the light of a hallowed tradition, do not impair their fitness or merchantability. While we are buoyed up in this conclusion by Shapiro v. Hotel Statler Corp. 132 F. Supp. 891 (S. D. Cal.), in which the bone which afflicted the plaintiff appeared in "Hot Barquette of Seafood Mornay," we know that the United States District Court of Southern California, situated as are we upon a coast, might be expected to share our views. We are most impressed, however, by Allen v. Grafton, 170 Ohio St. 249, where in Ohio, the Midwest, in a case where the plaintiff was injured by a piece of oyster shell in an order of friend oysters, Mr. Justice Taft (now Chief Justice) in a majority opinion held that "the possible presence of a piece of oyster shell in or attached to an oyster is so well known to anyone who eats oysters that we can say as a matter of law that one who eats oysters can reasonably anticipate and guard against eating such a piece of shell " (P. 259.)

Thus, while we sympathize with the plaintiff who has suffered a peculiarly New England injury, the order must be

Exceptions sustained. Judgment for the defendant.

Discussion

1. Describe the structure of the case.

- 2. Talk about the case brief.
- 3. What would you do when you are injured by the food in a restaurant?

Unit Five Katz v. United States (Criminal Procedure)

Aim

- 1. To discuss the rule made in the case.
- 2. To teach legal terms

Teaching hours: 4 class hours

Contents:

KATZ v. UNITED STATES, 389 U.S. 347 (1967)

MR. JUSTICE STEWART delivered the opinion of the Court.

The petitioner was convicted in the District Court for the Southern District of California under an eight-count indictment charging him with transmitting wagering information by telephone from Los Angeles to Miami and Boston, in violation of a federal statute. 1 At trial the Government was permitted, over the petitioner's objection, to introduce evidence of the petitioner's end of telephone conversations, overheard by FBI agents who had attached an electronic listening and recording device to the outside of the public telephone booth from which he had placed his calls. In affirming his conviction, the Court of Appeals rejected the contention that the recordings had been obtained in violation of the Fourth Amendment, because "[t]here was no physical entrance into the area occupied by [the petitioner]." We granted certiorari in order to consider the constitutional questions thus presented.

The petitioner has phrased those questions as follows:

- "A. Whether a public telephone booth is a constitutionally protected area so that evidence obtained by attaching an electronic listening recording device to the top of such a booth is obtained in violation of the right to privacy of the user of the booth. [389 U.S. 347, 350]
- "B. Whether physical penetration of a constitutionally protected area is necessary before a search and seizure can be said to be violative of the Fourth Amendment to the United States Constitution."

We decline to adopt this formulation of the issues. In the first place, the correct solution of Fourth Amendment problems is not necessarily promoted by incantation of the phrase "constitutionally protected area." Secondly, the Fourth Amendment cannot be translated into a general constitutional "right to privacy." That Amendment protects individual privacy against certain kinds of governmental intrusion, but its protections go further, and often have nothing to do with privacy at all. 4 Other provisions of the Constitution protect personal privacy from other forms of governmental invasion. But the protection of a person's general right to privacy - his right to be let alone by other people- is, like the [389 U.S. 347, 351] protection of his property and of his very life, left largely to the law of the individual States.

Because of the misleading way the issues have been formulated, the parties have attached great significance to the characterization of the telephone booth from which the petitioner placed his calls. The petitioner has strenuously argued that the booth was a "constitutionally protected area." The Government has maintained with equal vigor that it was not. But this effort to decide whether or not a given "area," viewed in the abstract, is "constitutionally protected" deflects attention from the problem presented by this

case. For the Fourth Amendment protects people, not places. What a person knowingly exposes to the public, even in his own home or office, is not a subject of Fourth Amendment protection. See Lewis v. United States, 385 U.S. 206, 210; United States v. Lee, 274 U.S. 559, 563. But what he seeks to preserve as private, even in an area accessible to the public, may be constitutionally protected. [389 U.S. 347, 352] See Rios v. United States, 364 U.S. 253; Ex parte Jackson, 96 U.S. 727, 733.

The Government stresses the fact that the telephone booth from which the petitioner made his calls was constructed partly of glass, so that he was as visible after he entered it as he would have been if he had remained outside. But what he sought to exclude when he entered the booth was not the intruding eye - it was the uninvited ear. He did not shed his right to do so simply because he made his calls from a place where he might be seen. No less than an individual in a business office, in a friend's apartment, or in a taxicab, a person in a telephone booth may rely upon the protection of the Fourth Amendment. One who occupies it, shuts the door behind him, and pays the toll that permits him to place a call is surely entitled to assume that the words he utters into the mouthpiece will not be broadcast to the world. To read the Constitution more narrowly is to ignore the vital role that the public telephone has come to play in private communication.

The Government contends, however, that the activities of its agents in this case should not be tested by Fourth Amendment requirements, for the surveillance technique they employed involved no physical penetration of the telephone booth from which the petitioner placed his calls. It is true that the absence of such penetration was at one time thought to foreclose further Fourth Amendment inquiry, Olmstead v. United States, 277 U.S. 438, 457, 464, 466; Goldman v. United States, 316 U.S. 129, 134-136, for that Amendment was thought to limit only searches and seizures of tangible [389 U.S. 347, 353] But "[t]he premise that property interests control the right of the Government to search and seize has been discredited." Warden v. Hayden, 387 U.S. 294, 304. Thus, although a closely divided Court supposed in Olmstead that surveillance without any trespass and without the seizure of any material object fell outside the ambit of the Constitution, we have since departed from the narrow view on which that decision rested. Indeed, we have expressly held that the Fourth Amendment governs not only the seizure of tangible items, but extends as well to the recording of oral statements, over-heard without any "technical trespass under . . . local property law." Silverman v. United States, 365 U.S. 505, 511. Once this much is acknowledged, and once it is recognized that the Fourth Amendment protects people - and not simply "areas" - against unreasonable searches and seizures, it becomes clear that the reach of that Amendment cannot turn upon the presence or absence of a physical intrusion into any given enclosure.

We conclude that the underpinnings of Olmstead and Goldman have been so eroded by our subsequent decisions that the "trespass" doctrine there enunciated can no longer be regarded as controlling. The Government's activities in electronically listening to and recording the petitioner's words violated the privacy upon which he justifiably relied while using the telephone booth and thus constituted a "search and seizure" within the meaning of the Fourth Amendment. The fact that the electronic device employed to achieve that end did not happen to penetrate the wall of the booth can have no constitutional significance. [389 U.S. 347, 354]

The question remaining for decision, then, is whether the search and seizure conducted in this case complied with constitutional standards. In that regard, the Government's position is that its agents acted in an entirely defensible manner: They did not begin their electronic surveillance until investigation of the petitioner's activities had established a strong probability that he was using the telephone in question to

transmit gambling information to persons in other States, in violation of federal law. Moreover, the surveillance was limited, both in scope and in duration, to the specific purpose of establishing the contents of the petitioner's unlawful telephonic communications. The agents confined their surveillance to the brief periods during which he used the telephone booth, and they took great care to overhear only the conversations of the petitioner himself.

Accepting this account of the Government's actions as accurate, it is clear that this surveillance was so narrowly circumscribed that a duly authorized magistrate, properly notified of the need for such investigation, specifically informed of the basis on which it was to proceed, and clearly apprised of the precise intrusion it would entail, could constitutionally have authorized, with appropriate safeguards, the very limited search and seizure that the Government asserts in fact took place. Only last Term we sustained the validity of [389 U.S. 347, 355] such an authorization, holding that, under sufficiently "precise and discriminate circumstances," a federal court may empower government agents to employ a concealed electronic device "for the narrow and particularized purpose of ascertaining the truth of the . . . allegations" of a "detailed factual affidavit alleging the commission of a specific criminal offense." Osborn v. United States, 385 U.S. 323, 329 -330. Discussing that holding, the Court in Berger v. New York, 388 U.S. 41, said that "the order authorizing the use of the electronic device" in Osborn "afforded similar protections to those . . . of conventional warrants authorizing the seizure of tangible evidence." Through those protections, "no greater invasion of privacy was permitted than was necessary under the circumstances." Id., at 57. Here, too, a similar [389 U.S. 347, 356] judicial order could have accommodated "the legitimate needs of law enforcement" by authorizing the carefully limited use of electronic surveillance.

The Government urges that, because its agents relied upon the decisions in Olmstead and Goldman, and because they did no more here than they might properly have done with prior judicial sanction, we should retroactively validate their conduct. That we cannot do. It is apparent that the agents in this case acted with restraint. Yet the inescapable fact is that this restraint was imposed by the agents themselves, not by a judicial officer. They were not required, before commencing the search, to present their estimate of probable cause for detached scrutiny by a neutral magistrate. They were not compelled, during the conduct of the search itself, to observe precise limits established in advance by a specific court order. Nor were they directed, after the search had been completed, to notify the authorizing magistrate in detail of all that had been seized. In the absence of such safeguards, this Court has never sustained a search upon the sole ground that officers reasonably expected to find evidence of a particular crime and voluntarily confined their activities to the least intrusive [389 U.S. 347, 357] means consistent with that end. Searches conducted without warrants have been held unlawful "notwithstanding facts unquestionably showing probable cause," Agnello v. United States, 269 U.S. 20, 33, for the Constitution requires "that the deliberate, impartial judgment of a judicial officer . . . be interposed between the citizen and the police "Wong Sun v. United States, 371 U.S. 471, 481 -482. "Over and again this Court has emphasized that the mandate of the [Fourth] Amendment requires adherence to judicial processes," United States v. Jeffers, 342 U.S. 48, 51, and that searches conducted outside the judicial process, without prior approval by judge or magistrate, are per se unreasonable under the Fourth Amendment- subject only to a few specifically established and well-delineated exceptions.

It is difficult to imagine how any of those exceptions could ever apply to the sort of search and seizure involved in this case. Even electronic surveillance substantially contemporaneous with an

individual's arrest could hardly be deemed an "incident" of that arrest. [389 U.S. 347, 358] Nor could the use of electronic surveillance without prior authorization be justified on grounds of "hot pursuit." And, of course, the very nature of electronic surveillance precludes its use pursuant to the suspect's consent.

The Government does not question these basic principles. Rather, it urges the creation of a new exception to cover this case. It argues that surveillance of a telephone booth should be exempted from the usual requirement of advance authorization by a magistrate upon a showing of probable cause. We cannot agree. Omission of such authorization

"bypasses the safeguards provided by an objective predetermination of probable cause, and substitutes instead the far less reliable procedure of an after-the-event justification for the . . . search, too likely to be subtly influenced by the familiar shortcomings of hindsight judgment." Beck v. Ohio, 379 U.S. 89, 96.

And bypassing a neutral predetermination of the scope of a search leaves individuals secure from Fourth Amendment [389 U.S. 347, 359] violations "only in the discretion of the police." Id., at 97.

These considerations do not vanish when the search in question is transferred from the setting of a home, an office, or a hotel room to that of a telephone booth. Wherever a man may be, he is entitled to know that he will remain free from unreasonable searches and seizures. The government agents here ignored "the procedure of antecedent justification . . . that is central to the Fourth Amendment," a procedure that we hold to be a constitutional precondition of the kind of electronic surveillance involved in this case. Because the surveillance here failed to meet that condition, and because it led to the petitioner's conviction, the judgment must be reversed.

It is so ordered.

MR. JUSTICE MARSHALL took no part in the consideration or decision of this case.

MR. JUSTICE DOUGLAS, with whom MR. JUSTICE BRENNAN joins, concurring.

MR. JUSTICE HARLAN, concurring. ...

MR. JUSTICE WHITE, concurring. ...

MR. JUSTICE BLACK, dissenting. ...

Discussion

- 1. Discuss the different judicial opinions.
- 2. How did the judge make his legal reasoning.
- 3. How to make a brief for this case?

Unit Six Coker v. Georgia (Criminal Law)

Aim

- 1. To know the rule made in the case.
- 2. To discuss the legal terms.

Teaching hours: 4 class hours

Contents:

MR. JUSTICE WHITE announced the judgment of the Court and filed an opinion in which MR. JUSTICE STEWART, MR. JUSTICE BLACKMUN, and MR. JUSTICE STEVENS, joined.

Georgia Code Ann. 26-2001 (1972) provides that "[a] person convicted of rape shall be punished by death or by imprisonment for life, or by imprisonment for not less than one nor more than 20 years." Punishment is determined by a jury in a separate sentencing proceeding in which at least one of the statutory aggravating circumstances must be found before the death penalty may be imposed. Petitioner Coker was convicted of rape and sentenced to death. Both the conviction and the sentence were affirmed by the Georgia Supreme Court. Coker was granted a writ of certiorari, 429 U.S. 815, limited to the single claim, rejected by the Georgia court, that the punishment of death for rape violates the Eighth Amendment, which proscribes "cruel and unusual punishments" and which must be observed by the States as well as the Federal Government. Robinson v. California, 370 U.S. 660 (1962). [433 U.S. 584, 587]

I

While serving various sentences for murder, rape, kidnaping, and aggravated assault, petitioner escaped from the Ware Correctional Institution near Waycross, Ga., on September 2, 1974. At approximately 11 o'clock that night, petitioner entered the house of Allen and Elnita Carver through an unlocked kitchen door. Threatening the couple with a "board," he tied up Mr. Carver in the bathroom, obtained a knife from the kitchen, and took Mr. Carver's money and the keys to the family car. Brandishing the knife and saying "you know what's going to happen to you if you try anything, don't you," Coker then raped Mrs. Carver. Soon thereafter, petitioner drove away in the Carver car, taking Mrs. Carver with him. Mr. Carver, freeing himself, notified the police; and not long thereafter petitioner was apprehended. Mrs. Carver was unharmed.

Petitioner was charged with escape, armed robbery, motor vehicle theft, kidnaping, and rape. Counsel was appointed to represent him. Having been found competent to stand trial, he was tried. The jury returned a verdict of guilty, rejecting his general plea of insanity. A sentencing hearing was then conducted in accordance with the procedures dealt with at length in Gregg v. Georgia, 428 U.S. 153 (1976), where this Court sustained the death penalty for murder when imposed pursuant to the statutory procedures. The jury was [433 U.S. 584, 588] cted that it could consider as aggravating circumstances whether the rape had been committed by a person with a prior record of conviction for a capital felony and whether the rape [433 U.S. had been committed in the course of committing another capital felony, namely, the armed robbery of Allen Carver. The court also instructed, pursuant to statute, that even if [433 aggravating circumstances were present, the death penalty need not be U.S. 584, 590] imposed if the jury found they were outweighed by mitigating circumstances, that is, circumstances not constituting justification or excuse for the offense in question, [433 U.S. 584, "but which, in fairness and mercy, may be considered as extenuating or reducing the degree" of moral culpability or punishment. App. 300. The jury's verdict on the rape count was death by electrocution. Both aggravating circumstances on which the court instructed were found to be present by the jury.

II

Furman v. Georgia, 408 U.S. 238 (1972), and the Court's decisions last Term in Gregg v. Georgia, 428 U.S. 153 (1976); Proffitt v. Florida, 428 U.S. 242 (1976); Jurek v. Texas, 428 U.S. 262 (1976); Woodson v. North Carolina, 428 U.S. 280 (1976); and Roberts v. Louisiana, 428 U.S. 325 (1976), make unnecessary the recanvassing of certain critical aspects of the controversy

about the constitutionality of capital punishment. It is now settled that the death penalty is not invariably cruel and unusual punishment within the meaning of the Eighth Amendment; it is not inherently barbaric or an unacceptable mode of punishment for crime; neither is it always disproportionate to the crime for which it is imposed. It is also established that imposing capital punishment, at least for murder, in accordance with the procedures provided under the Georgia statutes saves the sentence from the infirmities which led the Court to invalidate the prior Georgia capital punishment statute in Furman v. Georgia, supra.

In sustaining the imposition of the death penalty in Gregg, [433 U.S. 584, 592] the Court firmly embraced the holdings and dicta from prior cases, Furman v. Georgia, supra; Robinson v. California, 370 U.S. 660 (1962); Trop v. Dulles, 356 U.S. 86 (1958); and Weems v. United States, 217 U.S. 349 (1910), to the effect that the Eighth Amendment bars not only those punishments that are "barbaric" but also those that are "excessive" in relation to the crime committed. Under Gregg, a punishment is "excessive" and unconstitutional if it (1) makes no measurable contribution to acceptable goals of punishment and hence is nothing more than the purposeless and needless imposition of pain and suffering; or (2) is grossly out of proportion to the severity of the crime. A punishment might fail the test on either ground. Furthermore, these Eighth Amendment judgments should not be, or appear to be, merely the subjective views of individual Justices; judgment should be informed by objective factors to the maximum possible extent. To this end, attention must be given to the public attitudes concerning a particular sentence - history and precedent, legislative attitudes, and the response of juries reflected in their sentencing decisions are to be consulted. In Gregg, after giving due regard to such sources, the Court's judgment was that the death penalty for deliberate murder was neither the purposeless imposition of severe punishment nor a punishment grossly disproportionate to the crime. But the Court reserved the question of the constitutionality of the death penalty when imposed for other crimes. 428 U.S., at 187 n. 35.

Ш

That question, with respect to rape of an adult woman, is now before us. We have concluded that a sentence of death is grossly disproportionate and excessive punishment for the crime of rape and is therefore forbidden by the Eighth Amendment as cruel and unusual punishment. [4 33 U.S. 584, 593]

A

As advised by recent cases, we seek guidance in history and from the objective evidence of the country's present judgment concerning the acceptability of death as a penalty for rape of an adult woman. At no time in the last 50 years have a majority of the States authorized death as a punishment for rape. In 1925, 18 States, the District of Columbia, and the Federal Government authorized capital punishment for the rape of an adult female. By 1971 just prior to the decision in Furman v. Georgia, that number had declined, but not substantially, to 16 States plus the Federal Government. Furman then invalidated most of the capital punishment statutes in this country, including the rape statutes, because, among other reasons, of the manner in which the death penalty was imposed and utilized under those laws.

With their death penalty statutes for the most part invalidated, the States were faced with the choice of enacting modified capital punishment laws in an attempt to satisfy the requirements of Furman or of being satisfied with life imprisonment as the ultimate punishment for any offense. Thirty-five [433 U.S. 584, 594] States immediately reinstituted the death penalty for at least limited kinds of crime. Gregg v. Georgia, 428 U.S., at 179 n. 23. This public judgment as to the acceptability of capital punishment, evidenced by the immediate, post-Furman legislative reaction in a large majority of the States, heavily influenced the Court to sustain the death penalty for murder in Gregg v. Georgia, supra, at 179-182.

But if the "most marked indication of society's endorsement of the death penalty for murder is the legislative response to Furman," Gregg v. Georgia, supra, at 179-180, it should also be a telling datum that the public judgment with respect to rape, as reflected in the statutes providing the punishment for that crime, has been dramatically different. In reviving death penalty laws to satisfy Furman's mandate, none of the States that had not previously authorized death for rape chose to include rape among capital felonies. Of the 16 States in which rape had been a capital offense, only three provided the death penalty for rape of an adult woman in their revised statutes - Georgia, North Carolina, and Louisiana. In the latter two States, the death penalty was mandatory for those found guilty, and those laws were invalidated by Woodson and Roberts. When Louisiana and North Carolina, responding to those decisions, again revised their capital punishment laws, they re-enacted the death penalty for murder but not for rape; none of the seven other legislatures that to our knowledge have amended or replaced their death penalty statutes since July 2, 1976, including four States (in addition to Louisiana and North Carolina) that had authorized the death sentence for rape prior to 1972 and had reacted to Furman with mandatory statutes, included rape among the crimes for which death was an authorized punishment. [433 U.S. 584, 595]

Georgia argues that 11 of the 16 States that authorized death for rape in 1972 attempted to comply with Furman by enacting arguably mandatory death penalty legislation and that it is very likely that, aside from Louisiana and North Carolina, these States simply chose to eliminate rape as a capital offense rather than to require death for each and every instance of rape. The argument is not without force; but 4 of the 16 States did not take the mandatory course and also did not continue rape of an adult woman as a capital offense. Further, as we have indicated, the legislatures of 6 of the 11 arguably mandatory States have revised their death penalty laws since Woodson and Roberts without enacting a new death penalty for rape. And this is to say nothing of 19 other States that enacted nonmandatory, post-Furman statutes and chose not to sentence rapists to death.

It should be noted that Florida, Mississippi, and Tennessee also authorized the death penalty in some rape cases, but only where the victim was a child and the rapist an adult. The Tennessee statute has since been invalidated because the death sentence was mandatory. Collins v. State, 550 S. W. 2d 643 (Tenn. 1977). The upshot is that Georgia is the sole jurisdiction [433 U.S. 584, 596] in the United States at the present time that authorizes a sentence of death when the rape victim is an adult woman, and only two other jurisdictions provide capital punishment when the victim is a child.

The current judgment with respect to the death penalty for rape is not wholly unanimous among state legislatures, but it obviously weighs very heavily on the side of rejecting capital punishment as a suitable penalty for raping an adult woman.

В

It was also observed in Gregg that "[t]he jury . . . is a significant and reliable objective index of contemporary values because it is so directly involved," 428 U.S., at 181, and that it is thus important to look to the sentencing decisions that juries have made in the course of assessing whether capital punishment is an appropriate penalty for the crime being tried. Of course, the jury's judgment is meaningful only where the jury has an appropriate measure of choice as to whether the death penalty is to be imposed. As far as execution for rape is concerned, this is now true only in Georgia and in Florida; and in the latter State, capital punishment is authorized only for the rape of children.

According to the factual submissions in this Court, out of all rape convictions in Georgia since 1973 - and that total number has not been tendered - 63 cases had been reviewed by the Georgia Supreme Court as of the time of oral argument; and of these, 6 involved a death sentence, 1 of which was set aside, leaving 5 convicted rapists now under sentence [433 U.S. 584, 597] of death in the State of Georgia. Georgia juries have thus sentenced rapists to death six times since 1973. This obviously is not a negligible number; and the State argues that as a practical matter juries simply reserve the extreme sanction for extreme cases of rape and that recent experience surely does not prove that jurors consider the death penalty to be a disproportionate punishment for every conceivable instance of rape, no matter how aggravated. Nevertheless, it is true that in the vast majority of cases, at least 9 out of 10, juries have not imposed the death sentence.

IV

These recent events evidencing the attitude of state legislatures and sentencing juries do not wholly determine this controversy, for the Constitution contemplates that in the end our own judgment will be brought to bear on the question of the acceptability of the death penalty under the Eighth Amendment. Nevertheless, the legislative rejection of capital punishment for rape strongly confirms our own judgment, which is that death is indeed a disproportionate penalty for the crime of raping an adult woman.

We do not discount the seriousness of rape as a crime. It is highly reprehensible, both in a moral sense and in its almost total contempt for the personal integrity and autonomy of the female victim and for the latter's privilege of choosing those with whom intimate relationships are to be established. Short of homicide, it is the "ultimate violation of self." It is also a violent crime because it normally involves force, or the threat of force or intimidation, to overcome the will and the capacity of the victim to resist. Rape is very often accompanied [433 U.S. 584, 598]

by physical injury to the female and can also inflict mental and psychological damage. Because it undermines the community's sense of security, there is public injury as well.

Rape is without doubt deserving of serious punishment; but in terms of moral depravity and of the injury to the person and to the public, it does not compare with murder, which does involve the unjustified taking of human life. Although it may be accompanied by another crime, rape by definition does not include the death of or even the serious injury to another person. The murderer kills; the rapist, if no more than that, does not. Life is over for the victim of the murderer; for the rape victim, life may not be nearly so happy as it was, but it is not over and normally is not beyond repair. We have the abiding conviction that the death penalty, which "is

unique in its severity and irrevocability," Gregg v. Georgia, 428 U.S., at 187, is an excessive penalty for the rapist who, as such, does not take human life.

This does not end the matter; for under Georgia law, death may not be imposed for any capital offense, including rape, unless the jury or judge finds one of the statutory aggravating circumstances and then elects to impose that sentence. Ga. Code 26-3102 (1977); Gregg v. Georgia, supra, at 165-166. For the rapist to be executed in Georgia, it must therefore be found not only that he committed rape but also that one or more of the following aggravating circumstances were present: (1) that the rape was committed by a person with a prior record of conviction for a capital felony; (2) that the rape was committed while the offender was engaged in the commission of another capital felony, or aggravated battery; or (3) the rape "was outrageously or wantonly vile, horrible or [433 U.S. 584, 599] inhuman in that it involved torture, depravity of mind, or aggravated battery to the victim." Here, the first two of these aggravating circumstances were alleged and found by the jury.

Neither of these circumstances, nor both of them together, change our conclusion that the death sentence imposed on Coker is a disproportionate punishment for rape. Coker had prior convictions for capital felonies - rape, murder, and kidnaping - but these prior convictions do not change the fact that the instant crime being punished is a rape not involving the taking of life.

It is also true that the present rape occurred while Coker was committing armed robbery, a felony for which the Georgia statutes authorize the death penalty. But Coker was tried for the robbery offense as well as for rape and received a separate life sentence for this crime; the jury did not deem the robbery itself deserving of the death penalty, even though accompanied by the aggravating circumstance, which was stipulated, that Coker had been convicted of a prior capital crime. [433 U.S. 584, 600]

We note finally that in Georgia a person commits murder when he unlawfully and with malice aforethought, either express or implied, causes the death of another human being. He also commits that crime when in the commission of a felony he causes the death of another human being, irrespective of malice. But even where the killing is deliberate, it is not punishable by death absent proof of aggravating circumstances. It is difficult to accept the notion, and we do not, that the rapist, with or without aggravating circumstances, should be punished more heavily than the deliberate killer as long as the rapist does not himself take the life of his victim. The judgment of the Georgia Supreme Court upholding the death sentence is reversed, and the case is remanded to that court for further proceedings not inconsistent with this opinion.

So ordered.

Discussion

- 1. What is your opinion on death penalty?
- 2. What authorities are used to the legal reasoning in the case?

Unit Seven Pierson v. Post (Property Law)

Aim

- 1. To discuss the rule established in the case.
- 2. To know the legal reasoning process.

Teaching hours: 4 class hours

Contents:

TOMPKINS, J., delivered the opinion of the court:

This cause comes before us on a return to a certiorari directed to one of the justices of Queens County.

The question submitted by the counsel in this cause for our determination is, whether Lodowick Post, by the pursuit with his hounds in the manner alleged in his declaration, acquired such a right to, or property in, the fox as will sustain an action against Pierson [**5] for killing and taking him away?

The cause was argued with much ability by the counsel on both sides, and presents for our decision a novel and nice question. It is admitted that a fox is an animal fertoe naturoe, and that property in such animals is acquired by occupancy only. These admissions narrow the discussion to the simple question of what acts amount to occupancy, applied to acquiring right to wild animals.

If we have recourse to the ancient writers upon general principles of law, the judgment below is obviously erroneous. Justinian's Institutes (lib. 2, tit. 1, sec. 13), and Fleta (lib. 3, ch. 2, p. 175), adopt the principle, that pursuit alone vests no property or right in the huntsman; and that even pursuit, accompanied with wounding, is equally ineffectual for that purpose, unless the animal be actually taken. The same principle is recognized by Breton (lib. 2, ch. 1, p. 8).

Puffendorf (lib. 4, ch. 6, sec. 2 and 10) defines occupancy of beasts feroe naturoe, to be the actual corporeal possession of them, and Bynkershock is cited as coinciding in this definition. It is indeed with hesitation that Puffendorf affirms that a wild beast mortally wounded or greatly [**6] maimed, cannot be fairly intercepted by another, whilst the pursuit of [*178] the person inflicting the wound continues. The foregoing authorities are decisive to show that mere pursuit gave Post no legal right to the fox, but that he became the property of Pierson, who intercepted and killed him.

It, therefore, only remains to inquire whether there are any contrary principles or authorities, to be found in other books, which ought to induce a different decision. Most of the cases which have occurred in England, relating to property in wild animals, have either been discussed and decided upon the principles of their positive statute regulations, or have arisen between the

huntsman and the owner of the land upon which beasts feroe naturoe have been apprehended; the former claiming them by title of occupancy, and the latter ratione soli. Little satisfactory aid can, therefore, be derived from the English reporters.

Barbeyrac, in his notes on Puffendorf, does not accede to the definition of occupancy by the latter, but, on the contrary, affirms that actual bodily seizure is not, in all cases, necessary to constitute possession of wild animals. He does not, however, describe [**7] the acts which, according to his ideas, will amount to an appropriation of such animals to private use, so as to exclude the claims of all other persons, by title of occupancy, to the same animals; and he is far from averring that pursuit alone is sufficient for that purpose. To a certain extent, and as far as Barbeyrac appears to me to go, his objections to Puffendorf's definition of occupancy are reasonable and correct. That is to say, that actual bodily seizure is not indispensable to acquire right to, or possession of, wild beasts; but that, on the contrary, the mortal wounding of such beasts, by one not abandoning his pursuit, may, with the utmost propriety, be deemed possession of him; since thereby the pursuer manifests an unequivocal intention of appropriating the animal to his individual use, has deprived him of his natural liberty, and brought him within his certain control. So, also, encompassing and securing such animals with nets and toils, or otherwise intercepting them in such a manner as to deprive them of their natural liberty, and render escape impossible, may justly be deemed to give possession of them to those persons who, by their industry and labor, have used [**8] such means of apprehending them. Barbeyrac seems to have adopted and had in view in his notes, [*179] the more accurate opinion of Grotius, with respect to occupancy. That celebrated author (lib. 2, ch. 8, sec. 3, p. 309), speaking of occupancy, proceeds thus: "Requiritur autem corporalis quoedam possessio ad dominium adipiscendum; atque ideo, vulnerasse non sufficit." But in the following section he explains and qualifies this definition of occupancy: "Sed possessio illa potest non solis manibus, sed instrumentis, ut decipulis, ratibus, laqueis dum duo adsint; primum ut ipsa instrumenta sint in nostra potestate, deinde ut fera, ita inclusa sit, ut exire inde nequeat." This qualification embraces the full extent of Barbeyrac's objection to Puffendorf's definition, and allows as great a latitude to acquiring property by occupancy, as can reasonably be inferred from the words or ideas expressed by Barbeyrac in his notes. The case now under consideration is one of mere pursuit, and presents no circumstances or acts which can bring it within the definition of occupancy by Puffendorf, or Grotius, or the ideas of Barbeyrac upon that subject.

The case cited from 11 Mod. 74, 130, [**9] I think clearly distinguishable from the present; inasmuch as there the action was for maliciously hindering and

disturbing the plaintiff in the exercise and enjoyment of a private franchise; and in the report of the same case (3 Salk. 9), Holt, Ch. J., states, that the ducks were in the plaintiff's decoy pond, and so in his possession, from which it is obvious the court laid much stress in their opinion upon the plaintiff's possession of the ducks, ratione soli.

We are the more readily inclined to confine possession or occupancy of beasts feroe naturoe, within the limits prescribed by the learned authors above cited, for the sake of certainty, and preserving peace and order in society. If the first seeing, starting or pursuing such animals, without having so wounded, circumvented or ensnared them, so as to deprive them of their natural liberty, and subject them to the control of their pursuer, should afford the basis of actions against others for intercepting and killing them, it would prove a fertile source of quarrels and litigation.

However uncourteous or unkind the conduct of Pierson towards Post, in this instance, may have been, yet this act was productive of no injury [**10] or damage for which a legal remedy [*180] can be applied. We are of opinion the judgment below was erroneous, and ought to be reversed.

LIVINGSTON, J. My opinion differs from that of the court. Of six exceptions, taken to the proceedings below, all are abandoned except the third, which reduces the controversy to a single question.

Whether a person who, with his own hounds, starts and hunts a fox on waste and uninhabited ground, and is on the point of seizing his prey, acquires such an interest in the animal as to have a right of action against another, who in view of the huntsman and his dogs in full pursuit, and with knowledge of the chase, shall kill and carry him away.

This is a knotty point, and should have been submitted to the arbitration of sportsmen, without poring over Justinian, Fleta, Bracton, Puffendorf, Locke, Barbeyrac, or Blackstone, all of whom have been cited: they would have had no difficulty in coming to a prompt and correct conclusion. In a court thus constituted, the skin and carcass of poor Reynard would have been properly disposed of, and a precedent set, interfering with no usage or custom which the experience of ages has sanctioned, and which must be [**11] so well known to every votary of Diana. But the parties have referred the question to our judgment, and we must dispose of it as well as we can, from the partial lights we possess, leaving to a higher tribunal the correction of any mistake which we may be so unfortunate as to make. By the pleadings it is admitted that a fox is a "wild and noxious beast." Both parties have regarded him, as the law of

nations does a pirate, "hostem humani generis," and although "de mortuis nil nisi bonum" be a maxim of our profession, the memory of the deceased has not been spared. His depredations on farmers and on barnyards, have not been forgotten; and to put him to death wherever found, is allowed to be meritorious, and of public benefit. Hence it follows, that our decision should have in view the greatest possible encouragement to the destruction of an animal, so cunning and ruthless in his career. But who would keep a pack of hounds; or what gentleman, at the sound of the horn, and at peep of day, would mount his steed, and for [*181] hours together, "sub jove frigido," or a vertical sun, pursue the windings of this wily quadruped, if, just as night came on, and his stratagems [**12] and strength were nearly exhausted, a saucy intruder, who had not shared in the honors or labors of the chase, were permitted to come in at the death, and bear away in triumph the object of pursuit? Whatever Justinian may have thought of the matter, it must be recollected that his code was compiled many hundred years ago, and it would be very hard indeed, at the distance of so many centuries, not to have a right to establish a rule for ourselves. In his day, we read of no order of men who made it a business, in the language of the declaration in this cause, "with hounds and dogs to find, start, pursue, hunt, and chase," these animals, and that, too, without any other motive than the preservation of Roman poultry; if this diversion had been then in fashion, the lawyers who composed his institutes, would have taken care not to pass it by, without suitable encouragement. If anything, therefore, in the digests or pandects shall appear to militate against the defendant in error, who, on this occasion, was the fox hunter, we have only to say tempora mutantur; and if men themselves change with the times, why should not laws also undergo an alteration?

It may be expected, however, by [**13] the learned counsel, that more particular notice be taken of their authorities. I have examined them all, and feel great difficulty in determining, whether to acquire dominion over a thing, before in common, it be sufficient that we barely see it, or know where it is, or wish for it, or make a declaration of our will respecting it; or whether, in the case of wild beasts, setting a trap, or lying in wait, or starting, or pursuing, be enough; or if an actual wounding, or killing, or bodily tact and occupation be necessary. Writers on general law, who have favored us with their speculations on these points, differ on them all; but, great as is the diversity of sentiment among them, some conclusion must be adopted on the question immediately before us. After mature deliberation, I embrace that of Barbeyrac as the most rational and least liable to objection. If at liberty, we might imitate the courtesy of a certain emperor, who, to avoid giving [*182] offense to the advocates of any of these different doctrines, adopted a middle course, and by ingenious distinctions, rendered it difficult to say (as often happens after a

fierce and angry contest) to whom the palm of victory belonged. [**14] He ordained, that if a beast be followed with large dogs and hounds, he shall belong to the hunter, not to the chance occupant; and in like manner, if he be killed or wounded with a lance or sword; but if chased with beagles only, then he passed to the captor, not to the first pursuer. If slain with a dart, a sling, or a bow, he fell to the hunter, if still in chase, and not to him who might afterwards find and seize him.

Now, as we are without any municipal regulations of our own, and the pursuit here, for aught that appears on the case, being with dogs and hounds of imperial stature, we are at liberty to adopt one of the provisions just cited, which comports also with the learned conclusion of Barbeyrac, that property in animals feroe naturoe may be acquired without bodily touch or manucaption, provided the pursuer be within reach, or have a reasonable prospect (which certainly existed here) of taking what he has thus discovered an intention of converting to his own use.

When we reflect also that the interest of our husbandmen, the most useful of men in any community, will be advanced by the destruction of a beast so pernicious and incorrigible, we cannot greatly err in saying [**15] that a pursuit like the present, through waste and unoccupied lands, and which must inevitably and speedily have terminated in corporeal possession, or bodily seisin, confers such a right to the object of it, as to make any one a wrong-doer who shall interfere and shoulder the spoil. The justice's judgment ought, therefore, in my opinion, to be affirmed.

Judgment of reversal.

Discussion

- 1. What is the issue of the case?
- 2. How did the judge do the legal reasoning?

Unit Eight Bank of the United States v. Deveaux (Company Law)

Aim

- 1. To discuss the rule made in the case.
- 2. To study the legal terms in the case.

Teaching hours: 4 class hours

Contents:

MR. CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL delivered the opinion of the Court as follows: Two points have been made in this cause.

- 1. That a corporation composed of citizens of one state may sue a citizen of another state in the federal courts.
 - 2. That a right to sue in those courts is conferred on this bank by the law which incorporates it.

The last point will be first considered.

The judicial power of the United States, as defined in the Constitution, is dependent 1st on the nature of the case, and 2d on the character of the parties.

By the Judicial Act, the jurisdiction of the circuit courts is extended to cases where the constitutional right to plead and be impleaded in the courts of the union depends on the character of the parties; but where that right depends on the nature of the case, the circuit courts derive no jurisdiction from that act except in the single case of a controversy between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants from different states.

Unless, then, jurisdiction over this cause has been given to the circuit court by some other than the Judicial Act, the Bank of the United States had not a right to sue in that court upon the principle that the case arises under a law of the United States.

The plaintiffs contend that the incorporating act confers this jurisdiction.

That act creates the corporation, gives it a capacity to make contracts and to acquire property, and enables it "to sue and be sued, plead and be impleaded, answer and be answered, defend and be defended, in courts of record or any other place whatsoever."

This power, if not incident to a corporation, is conferred by every incorporating act, and is not understood to enlarge the jurisdiction of any particular court, but to give a capacity to the corporation to appear as a corporation in any court which would by law have cognizance of the cause if brought by individuals. If jurisdiction is given by this clause to the federal courts, it is equally given to all courts having original jurisdiction and for all sums, however small they may be.

But the 9th article of the 7th section of the act furnishes a conclusive argument against the construction for which the plaintiffs contend. That section subjects the president and directors, in their individual capacity, to the suit of any person aggrieved by their putting into circulation more notes than is permitted by law, and expressly authorizes the bringing of that action in the federal or state courts.

This evinces the opinion of Congress that the right to sue does not imply a right to sue in the courts of the union unless it be expressed. This idea is strengthened also by the law respecting patent rights. That law expressly recognizes the right of the patentee to sue in the circuit courts of the United States.

The Court, then, is of opinion that no right is conferred on the bank by the act of incorporation to sue in the federal courts.

2. The other point is one of much more difficulty.

The jurisdiction of this Court being limited, so far as respects the character of the parties in this particular case, "to controversies between citizens of different states," both parties must be citizens to come within the description.

That invisible, intangible, and artificial being, that mere legal entity, a corporation aggregate, is certainly not a citizen, and consequently cannot sue or be sued in the courts of the United States unless the rights of the members in this respect can be exercised in their corporate name. If the corporation be considered as a mere faculty, and not as a company of individuals who, in transacting their joint concerns, may use a legal name, they must be excluded from the courts of the union.

The duties of this Court to exercise jurisdiction where it is conferred and not to usurp it where it is not conferred are of equal obligation. The Constitution, therefore, and the law are to be expounded without a leaning the one way or the other, according to those general principles which usually govern in the construction of fundamental or other laws.

A Constitution, from its nature, deals in generals, not in detail. Its framers cannot perceive minute distinctions which arise in the progress of the nation, and therefore confine it to the establishment of broad and general principles.

The Judicial Department was introduced into the American Constitution under impressions and with views which are too apparent not to be perceived by all. However true the fact may be that the tribunals of the states will administer justice as impartially as those of the nation to parties of every description, it is not less true that the Constitution itself either entertains apprehensions on this subject or views with such indulgence the possible fears and apprehensions of suitors that it has established national tribunals for the decision of controversies between aliens and a citizen or between citizens of different states. Aliens or citizens of different states are not less susceptible of these apprehensions, nor can they be supposed to be less the objects of constitutional provision, because they are allowed to sue by a corporate name. That name, indeed, cannot be an alien or a citizen, but the persons whom it represents may be the one or the other, and the controversy is, in fact and in law, between those persons suing in their corporate character, by their corporate name, for a corporate right, and the individual against whom the suit may be instituted. Substantially and essentially, the parties in such a case, where the members of the corporation are aliens or citizens of a different state from the opposite party, come within the spirit and terms of the jurisdiction conferred by the Constitution of the national tribunals.

Such has been the universal understanding on the subject. Repeatedly has this Court decided causes between a corporation and an individual without feeling a doubt respecting its jurisdiction. Those decisions are not cited as authority, for they were made without considering this particular point; but they have much weight, as they show that this point neither occurred to the bar or the bench, and that the common understanding of intelligent men is in favor of the right of incorporated aliens, or citizens of a different state from the defendant, to sue in the national courts. It is by a course of acute, metaphysical, and abstruse reasoning, which has been most ably employed on this occasion, that this opinion is shaken.

As our ideas of a corporation, its privileges, and its disabilities, are derived entirely from the English books, we resort to them for aid in ascertaining its character. It is defined as a mere creature of the law, invisible, intangible, and incorporeal. Yet when we examine the subject further we find that corporations have been included within terms of description appropriated to real persons.

The statute of Henry VIII concerning bridges and highways enacts that bridges and highways shall be made and repaired by the "inhabitants of the city, shire, or riding," and that the justices shall have power to tax every "inhabitant of such city," &c., and that the collectors may "distrain every such inhabitant as shall be taxed and refuse payment thereof, in his lands, goods and chattels."

Under this statute, those have been construed inhabitants who hold lands within the city where the bridge to be repaired lies, although they reside elsewhere.

Lord Coke says

"Every corporation and body politic residing in any county, riding, city, or town corporate or having lands or tenements in any shire, *quae propriis manibus et sumptibus possident et habent,* are said to be inhabitants there within the purview of this statute."

The tax is not imposed on the person, whether he be a member of the corporation or not, who may happen to reside on the lands, but is imposed on the corporation itself, and consequently this ideal existence is considered as an inhabitant when the general spirit and purpose of the law requires it.

In the case of *King v. Gardner*, reported by Cowper, a corporation was decided, by the Court of King's bench, to come within the description of "occupiers or inhabitants." In that case, the poor rates, to which the lands of the corporation were declared to be liable, were not assessed to the actual occupant, for there was none, but to the corporation. And the principle established by the case appears to be that the poor rates on vacant ground belonging to a corporation may be assessed to the corporation as being inhabitants or occupiers of that ground. In this case Lord Mansfield notices and overrules an inconsiderate *dictum* of Justice Yates that a corporation could not be an inhabitant or occupier.

These opinions are not precisely in point, but they serve to show that for the general purposes and objects of a law, this invisible, incorporeal creature of the law may be considered as having corporeal qualities.

It is true that as far as these cases go, they serve to show that the corporation itself, in its incorporeal character, may be considered as an inhabitant or an occupier, and the argument from them would be more strong in favor of considering the corporation itself as endowed for this special purpose with the character of a citizen, then to consider the character of the individuals who compose it as a subject which the court can inspect, when they use the name of the corporation for the purpose of asserting their corporate rights. Still the cases show that this technical definition of a corporation does not uniformly circumscribe its capacities, but that courts for legitimate purposes will contemplate it more substantially.

There is a case, however, reported in 12 Mod., which is thought precisely in point. The Corporation of London brought a suit against Wood by its corporate name in the mayor's court. The suit was brought by the mayor and commonalty, and was tried before the mayor and aldermen. The judgment rendered in this cause was brought before the Court of King's bench and reversed because the court was deprived of its jurisdiction by the character of the individuals who were members of the corporation.

In that case, the objection, that a corporation was an invisible, intangible thing, a mere incorporeal legal entity in which the characters of the individuals who composed it were completely merged, was urged and was considered. The judges unanimously declared that they could look beyond the corporate name and notice the character of the individual. In the opinions, which were delivered *seriatim*, several cases are put which serve to illustrate the principle, and fortify the decision.

The case of *Mayor and Commonalty v. Wood* is the stronger, because it is on the point of jurisdiction. It appears to the Court to be a full authority for the case now under consideration. It seems not possible to distinguish them from each other.

If, then, the Congress of the United States had in terms enacted that incorporated aliens might sue a citizen or that the incorporated citizens of one state might sue a citizen of another state in the federal courts by its corporate name, this Court would not have felt itself justified in declaring that such a law transcended the Constitution.

The controversy is substantially between aliens, suing by a corporate name, and a citizen, or between citizens of one state, suing by a corporate name, and those of another state. When these are said to be substantially the parties to the controversy, the Court does not mean to liken it to the case of a trustee. A trustee is a real person capable of being a citizen or an alien, who has the whole legal estate in himself. At

law, he is the real proprietor, and he represents himself and sues in his own right. But in this case the corporate name represents persons who are members of the corporation.

If the Constitution would authorize Congress to give the courts of the union jurisdiction in this case in consequence of the character of the members of the corporation, then the Judicial Act ought to be construed to give it. For the term "citizen" ought to be understood as it is used in the Constitution and as it is used in other laws -- that is, to describe the real persons who come into court, in this case under their corporate name.

That corporations composed of citizens are considered by the legislature as citizens under certain circumstances is to be strongly inferred from the registering act. It never could be intended that an American registered vessel, abandoned to an insurance company composed of citizens should lose her character as an American vessel, and yet this would be the consequence of declaring that the members of the corporation were, to every intent and purpose, out of view and merged in the corporation.

The Court feels itself authorized by the case in 12 Mod. on a question of jurisdiction, to look to the character of the individuals who compose the corporation, and it thinks that the precedents of this Court, though they were not decisions on argument, ought not to be absolutely disregarded.

If a corporation may sue in the courts of the union, the Court is of opinion that the averment in this case is sufficient.

Being authorized to sue in it corporate name, it could make the averment, and it must apply to the plaintiffs as individuals, because it could not be true as applied to the corporation.

Judgment reversed, plea in abatement overruled, and cause remanded.

Judge LIVINGSTON, having an interest in the question, gave no opinion.

Discussion

- 1. What rule has been established in the case?
- 2. How to brief the case?

Unit Nine KSR International Co. v. Teleflex Inc. et al

(Intellectual Property Law)

Aim

- 1. To analyze the rule established in the case.
- 2. To discuss legal terms

Teaching hours: 4 class hours

Contents:

Justice KENNEDY delivered the opinion of the Court.

Teleflex Incorporated and its subsidiary Technology Holding Company-both referred to here as Teleflex-sued KSR International Company for patent infringement. The patent at issue, United States Patent No. 6,237,565 B1, is entitled "Adjustable Pedal Assembly With Electronic Throttle Control." Supplemental App. 1. The patentee is Steven J. Engelgau, and the patent is referred to as "the Engelgau patent." Teleflex holds the exclusive license to the patent.

Claim 4 of the Engelgau patent describes a mechanism for combining an electronic sensor with an adjustable automobile pedal so the pedal's position can be transmitted to a computer that controls the throttle in the vehicle's engine. When Teleflex accused KSR of infringing the Engelgau patent by adding an electronic sensor to one of KSR's previously designed pedals, KSR countered that claim 4 was invalid under the Patent Act, 35 U.S.C. § 103, because its subject matter was obvious.

Section 103 forbids issuance of a patent when "the differences between the subject matter sought to be patented and the prior art are such that the subject matter as a whole would have been obvious at the time the invention was made to a person having ordinary skill in the art to which said subject matter pertains."

In *Graham v. John Deere Co. of Kansas City*, 383 U.S. 1, 86 S.Ct. 684, 15 L.Ed.2d 545 (1966), the Court set out a framework for applying the statutory language of § 103, language itself based on the logic of the earlier decision in *Hotchkiss v. Greenwood*, 11 How. 248, 13 L.Ed. 683 (1851), and its progeny. See 383 U.S., at 15-17, 86 S.Ct. 684. The analysis is objective:

"Under § 103, the scope and content of the prior art are to be determined; differences between the prior art and the claims at issue are to be ascertained; and the level of ordinary skill in the pertinent art resolved. Against this background the obviousness or nonobviousness of the subject matter is determined. Such secondary considerations as commercial success, long felt but unsolved needs, failure of others, etc., might be utilized to give light to the circumstances surrounding the origin of the subject matter sought to be patented." *Id.*, at 17-18, 86 S.Ct. 684.

While the sequence of these questions might be reordered in any particular case, the factors continue to define the inquiry that controls. If a court, or patent examiner, conducts this analysis and concludes the claimed subject matter was obvious, the claim is invalid under § 103.

Seeking to resolve the question of obviousness with more uniformity and consistency, the Court of Appeals for the Federal Circuit has employed an approach referred to by the parties as the "teaching, suggestion, or motivation" test (TSM test), under which a patent claim is only proved obvious if "some motivation or suggestion to combine the prior art teachings" can be found in the prior art, the nature of the problem, or the knowledge of a person having ordinary skill in the art. See, *e.g.*, *Al-Site Corp. v. VSI Int'l, Inc.*, 174 F.3d 1308, 1323-1324 (C.A.Fed.1999). KSR challenges that test, or at least its application in this case. See 119 Fed.Appx. 282, 286-290 (C.A.Fed.2005). Because the Court of Appeals addressed the question of obviousness in a manner contrary to § 103 and our precedents, we granted certiorari, 547 U.S. ----, 126 S.Ct. 2965, 165 L.Ed.2d 949 (2006). We now reverse.

Ι

Α

In car engines without computer-controlled throttles, the accelerator pedal interacts with the throttle via cable or other mechanical link. The pedal arm acts as a lever rotating around a pivot point. In a cable-actuated throttle control the rotation caused by pushing down the pedal pulls a cable, which in turn pulls open valves in the carburetor or fuel injection unit. The wider the valves open, the more fuel and air are released, causing combustion to increase and the car to accelerate. When the driver takes his foot off the pedal, the opposite occurs as the cable is released and the valves slide closed.

In the 1990's it became more common to install computers in cars to control engine operation. Computer-controlled throttles open and close valves in response to electronic signals, not through force transferred from the pedal by a mechanical link. Constant, delicate adjustments of air and fuel mixture are possible. The computer's rapid processing of factors beyond the pedal's position improves fuel efficiency and engine performance.

For a computer-controlled throttle to respond to a driver's operation of the car, the computer must know what is happening with the pedal. A cable or mechanical link does not suffice for this purpose; at some point, an electronic sensor is necessary to translate the mechanical operation into digital data the computer can understand.

Before discussing sensors further we turn to the mechanical design of the pedal itself. In the traditional design a pedal can be pushed down or released but cannot have its position in the footwell adjusted by sliding the pedal forward or back. As a result, a driver who wishes to be closer or farther from the pedal must either reposition himself in the driver's seat or move the seat in some way. In cars with deep footwells these are imperfect solutions for drivers of smaller stature. To solve the problem, inventors, beginning in the 1970's, designed pedals that could be adjusted to change their location in the footwell. Important for this case are two adjustable pedals disclosed in U.S. Patent Nos. 5,010,782 (filed July 28, 1989) (Asano) and 5,460,061 (filed Sept. 17, 1993) (Redding). The Asano patent reveals a support structure that houses the pedal so that even when the pedal location is adjusted relative to the driver, one of the pedal's pivot points stays fixed. The pedal is also designed so that the force necessary to push the pedal down is the same regardless of adjustments to its location. The Redding patent reveals a different, sliding mechanism where both the pedal and the pivot point are adjusted.

We return to sensors. Well before Engelgau applied for his challenged patent, some inventors had obtained patents involving electronic pedal sensors for computer-controlled throttles. These inventions, such as the device disclosed in U.S. Patent No. 5,241,936 (filed Sept. 9, 1991) ('936), taught that it was preferable to detect the pedal's position in the pedal assembly, not in the engine. The '936 patent disclosed a pedal with an electronic sensor on a pivot point in the pedal assembly. U.S. Patent No. 5,063,811 (filed July 9, 1990) (Smith) taught that to prevent the *1736 wires connecting the sensor to the computer from chafing and wearing out, and to avoid grime and damage from the driver's foot, the sensor should be put on a fixed part of the pedal assembly rather than in or on the pedal's footpad.

In addition to patents for pedals with integrated sensors inventors obtained patents for self-contained modular sensors. A modular sensor is designed independently of a given pedal so that it can be taken off the shelf and attached to mechanical pedals of various sorts, enabling the pedals to be used in automobiles with computer-controlled throttles. One such sensor was disclosed in U.S. Patent No. 5,385,068 (filed Dec. 18, 1992) ('068). In 1994, Chevrolet manufactured a line of trucks using modular sensors "attached to the pedal support bracket, adjacent to the pedal and engaged with the pivot shaft about which the pedal rotates in operation." 298 F.Supp.2d 581, 589 (E.D.Mich.2003).

The prior art contained patents involving the placement of sensors on adjustable pedals as well. For example, U.S. Patent No. 5,819,593 (filed Aug. 17, 1995) (Rixon) discloses an adjustable pedal assembly with an electronic sensor for detecting the pedal's position. In the Rixon pedal the sensor is located in the pedal footpad. The Rixon pedal was known to suffer from wire chafing when the pedal was depressed and released.

This short account of pedal and sensor technology leads to the instant case.

В

KSR, a Canadian company, manufactures and supplies auto parts, including pedal systems. Ford Motor Company hired KSR in 1998 to supply an adjustable pedal system for various lines of automobiles with cable-actuated throttle controls. KSR developed an adjustable mechanical pedal for Ford and obtained U.S. Patent No. 6,151,976 (filed July 16, 1999) ('976) for the design. In 2000, KSR was chosen by General Motors Corporation (GMC or GM) to supply adjustable pedal systems for Chevrolet and GMC light trucks that used engines with computer-controlled throttles. To make the '976 pedal compatible with the trucks, KSR merely took that design and added a modular sensor.

Teleflex is a rival to KSR in the design and manufacture of adjustable pedals. As noted, it is the exclusive licensee of the Engelgau patent. Engelgau filed the patent application on August 22, 2000 as a continuation of a previous application for U.S. Patent No. 6,109,241, which was filed on January 26, 1999. He has sworn he invented the patent's subject matter on February 14, 1998. The Engelgau patent discloses an adjustable electronic pedal described in the specification as a "simplified vehicle control pedal assembly that is less expensive, and which uses fewer parts and is easier to package within the vehicle." Engelgau, col. 2, lines 2-5, Supplemental App. 6. Claim 4 of the patent, at issue here, describes:

"A vehicle control pedal apparatus comprising:

a support adapted to be mounted to a vehicle structure;

an adjustable pedal assembly having a pedal arm moveable in for[e] and aft directions with respect to said support;

a pivot for pivotally supporting said adjustable pedal assembly with respect to said support and defining a pivot axis; and an electronic control attached to said support for controlling a vehicle system;

said apparatus characterized by said electronic control being responsive to said pivot for providing a signal that corresponds to pedal arm position as said pedal arm pivots about said pivot axis between rest and applied positions wherein the position of said pivot remains constant while said pedal arm moves in fore and aft directions with respect to said pivot." *Id.*, col. 6, lines 17-36, Supplemental App. 8 (diagram numbers omitted).

We agree with the District Court that the claim discloses "a position-adjustable pedal assembly with an electronic pedal position sensor attached to the support member of the pedal assembly. Attaching the sensor to the support member allows the sensor to remain in a fixed position while the driver adjusts the pedal." 298 F.Supp.2d, at 586-587.

Before issuing the Engelgau patent the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office (PTO) rejected one of the patent claims that was similar to, but broader than, the present claim 4. The claim did not include the requirement that the sensor be placed on a fixed pivot point. The PTO concluded the claim was an obvious combination of the prior art disclosed in Redding and Smith, explaining:

" 'Since the prior ar[t] references are from the field of endeavor, the purpose disclosed ... would have been recognized in the pertinent art of Redding. Therefore

it would have been obvious ... to provide the device of Redding with the ... means attached to a support member as taught by Smith.' " *Id.*, at 595.

In other words Redding provided an example of an adjustable pedal and Smith explained how to mount a sensor on a pedal's support structure, and the rejected patent claim merely put these two teachings together.

Although the broader claim was rejected, claim 4 was later allowed because it included the limitation of a fixed pivot point, which distinguished the design from Redding's. *Ibid.* Engelgau had not included Asano among the prior art references, and Asano was not mentioned in the patent's prosecution. Thus, the PTO did not have before it an adjustable pedal with a fixed pivot point. The patent issued on May 29, 2001 and was assigned to Teleflex.

Upon learning of KSR's design for GM, Teleflex sent a warning letter informing KSR that its proposal would violate the Engelgau patent. " 'Teleflex believes that any supplier of a product that combines an adjustable pedal with an electronic throttle control necessarily employs technology covered by one or more' " of Teleflex's patents. Id., at 585. KSR refused to enter a royalty arrangement with Teleflex; so Teleflex sued for infringement, asserting KSR's pedal infringed the Engelgau patent and two other patents. Ibid. Teleflex later abandoned its claims regarding the other patents and dedicated the patents to the public. The remaining contention was that KSR's pedal system for GM infringed claim 4 of the Engelgau patent. Teleflex has not argued that the other three claims of the patent are infringed by KSR's pedal, nor has Teleflex argued that the mechanical adjustable pedal designed by KSR for Ford infringed any of its patents.

C

The District Court granted summary judgment in KSR's favor. After reviewing the pertinent history of pedal design, the scope of the Engelgau patent, and the relevant prior art, the court considered the validity of the contested claim. By direction of 35 U.S.C. § 282, an issued patent is presumed valid. The District Court applied *Graham's* framework to determine whether under summary-judgment standards KSR had overcome the presumption and demonstrated that claim 4 was obvious in light of the prior art in existence when the claimed subject matter was invented. See § 102(a).

The District Court determined, in light of the expert testimony and the parties' stipulations, that the level of ordinary skill in pedal design was " 'an undergraduate degree in mechanical engineering (or an equivalent amount of industry experience) [and] familiarity with pedal control systems for vehicles.' " 298 F.Supp.2d, at 590. The court then set forth the relevant prior art, including the patents and pedal designs

described above.

Following *Graham's* direction, the court compared the teachings of the prior art to the claims of Engelgau. It found "little difference." 298 F.Supp.2d, at 590. Asano taught everything contained in claim 4 except the use of a sensor to detect the pedal's position and transmit it to the computer controlling the throttle. That additional aspect was revealed in sources such as the '068 patent and the sensors used by Chevrolet.

Under the controlling cases from the Court of Appeals for the Federal Circuit, however, the District Court was not permitted to stop there. The court was required also to apply the TSM test. The District Court held KSR had satisfied the test. It reasoned (1) the state of the industry would lead inevitably to combinations of electronic sensors and adjustable pedals, (2) Rixon provided the basis for these developments, and (3) Smith taught a solution to the wire chafing problems in Rixon, namely locating the sensor on the fixed structure of the pedal. This could lead to the combination of Asano, or a pedal like it, with a pedal position sensor.

The conclusion that the Engelgau design was obvious was supported, in the District Court's view, by the PTO's rejection of the broader version of claim 4. Had Engelgau included Asano in his patent application, it reasoned, the PTO would have found claim 4 to be an obvious combination of Asano and Smith, as it had found the broader version an obvious combination of Redding and Smith. As a final matter, the District Court held that the secondary factor of Teleflex's commercial success with pedals based on Engelgau's design did not alter its conclusion. The District Court granted summary judgment for KSR.

With principal reliance on the TSM test, the Court of Appeals reversed. It ruled the District Court had not been strict enough in applying the test, having failed to make "'finding[s] as to the specific understanding or principle within the knowledge of a skilled artisan that would have motivated one with no knowledge of [the] invention' ... to attach an electronic control to the support bracket of the Asano assembly." 119 Fed.Appx., at 288 (brackets in original) (quoting *In re Kotzab*, 217 F.3d 1365, 1371 (C.A.Fed.2000)). The Court of Appeals held that the District Court was incorrect that the nature of the problem to be solved satisfied this requirement because unless the "prior art references address[ed] the precise problem that the patentee was trying to solve," the problem would not motivate an inventor to look at those references. 119 Fed.Appx., at 288.

Here, the Court of Appeals found, the Asano pedal was designed to solve the "'constant ratio problem' "-that is, to ensure that the force required to depress the pedal is the same no matter how the pedal is adjusted-whereas Engelgau sought to

provide a simpler, smaller, cheaper adjustable electronic pedal. *Ibid.* As for Rixon, the court explained, that pedal suffered from the problem of wire chafing but was not designed to solve it. In the court's view Rixon did not teach anything helpful to Engelgau's purpose. Smith, in turn, did not relate to adjustable pedals and did not "necessarily go to the issue of motivation to attach the electronic control on the support bracket of the pedal assembly." *Ibid.* When the patents were interpreted in this way, the Court of Appeals held, they would not have led a person of ordinary skill to put a sensor on the sort of pedal described in Asano.

That it might have been obvious to try the combination of Asano and a sensor was likewise irrelevant, in the court's view, because "'"[o]bvious to try" has long been held not to constitute obviousness." *Id.*, at 289 (quoting *In re Deuel*, 51 F.3d 1552, 1559 (C.A.Fed.1995)).

The Court of Appeals also faulted the District Court's consideration of the PTO's rejection of the broader version of claim 4. The District Court's role, the Court of Appeals explained, was not to speculate regarding what the PTO might have done had the Engelgau patent mentioned Asano. Rather, the court held, the District Court was obliged first to presume that the issued patent was valid and then to render its own independent judgment of obviousness based on a review of the prior art. The fact that the PTO had rejected the broader version of claim 4, the Court of Appeals said, had no place in that analysis.

The Court of Appeals further held that genuine issues of material fact precluded summary judgment. Teleflex had proffered statements from one expert that claim 4 " 'was a simple, elegant, and novel combination of features,' " 119 Fed.Appx., at 290, compared to Rixon, and from another expert that claim 4 was nonobvious because, unlike in Rixon, the sensor was mounted on the support bracket rather than the pedal itself. This evidence, the court concluded, sufficed to require a trial.

ΙΙ

Α

We begin by rejecting the rigid approach of the Court of Appeals. Throughout this Court's engagement with the question of obviousness, our cases have set forth an expansive and flexible approach inconsistent with the way the Court of Appeals applied its TSM test here. To be sure, *Graham* recognized the need for "uniformity and definiteness." 383 U.S., at 18, 86 S.Ct. 684. Yet the principles laid down in *Graham* reaffirmed the "functional approach" of *Hotchkiss*, 11 How. 248, 13 L.Ed. 683. See 383 U.S., at 12, 86 S.Ct. 684. To this end, *Graham* set forth a broad inquiry and invited courts, where appropriate, to look at any secondary considerations that would prove

instructive. Id., at 17, 86 S.Ct. 684.

Neither the enactment of § 103 nor the analysis in *Graham* disturbed this Court's earlier instructions concerning the need for caution in granting a patent based on the combination of elements found in the prior art . For over a half century, the Court has held that a "patent for a combination which only unites old elements with no change in their respective functions ... obviously withdraws what is already known into the field of its monopoly and diminishes the resources available to skillful men." *Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Co. v. Supermarket Equipment Corp.*, 340 U.S. 147, 152, 71 S.Ct. 127, 95 L.Ed. 162 (1950). This is a principal reason for declining to allow patents for what is obvious. The combination of familiar elements according to known methods is likely to be obvious when it does no more than yield predictable results. Three cases decided after *Graham* illustrate the application of this doctrine.

In *United States v. Adams*, 383 U.S. 39, 40, 86 S.Ct. 708, 15 L.Ed.2d 572 (1966), a companion case to Graham, the Court considered the obviousness of a "wet battery" that varied from prior designs in two ways: It contained water, rather than the acids conventionally employed in storage batteries; and its electrodes were magnesium and cuprous chloride, rather than zinc and silver chloride. The Court recognized that when a patent claims a structure already known in the prior art that is altered by the mere substitution of one element for another known in the field, the combination must do more than yield a predictable result. 383 U.S., at 50-51, 86 S.Ct. 708. It nevertheless rejected the Government's claim that Adams's battery was obvious. The Court relied upon the corollary principle that when the prior art teaches away from combining certain known elements, discovery of a successful means of combining them is more likely to be nonobvious. Id., at 51-52, 86 S.Ct. 708. When Adams designed his battery, the prior art warned that risks were involved in using the types of electrodes he employed. The fact that the elements worked together in an unexpected and fruitful manner supported the conclusion that Adams's design was not obvious to those skilled in the art.

In *Anderson's-Black Rock, Inc. v. Pavement Salvage Co.*, 396 U.S. 57, 90 S.Ct. 305, 24 L.Ed.2d 258 (1969), the Court elaborated on this approach. The subject matter of the patent before the Court was a device combining two pre-existing elements: a radiant-heat burner and a paving machine. The device, the Court concluded, did not create some new synergy: The radiant-heat burner functioned just as a burner was expected to function; and the paving machine did the same. The two in combination did no more than they would in separate, sequential operation. *Id.*, at 60-62, 90 S.Ct. 305. In those circumstances, "while the combination of old elements performed a useful function, it added nothing to the nature and quality of the radiant-heat burner already patented," and the patent failed under § 103. *Id.*, at 62, 90 S.Ct. 305 (footnote omitted).

Finally, in *Sakraida v. Ag Pro, Inc.*, 425 U.S. 273, 96 S.Ct. 1532, 47 L.Ed.2d 784 (1976), the Court derived from the precedents the conclusion that when a patent "simply arranges old elements with each performing the same function it had been known to perform" and yields no more than one would expect from such an arrangement, the combination is obvious. *Id.*, at 282, 96 S.Ct. 1532.

The principles underlying these cases are instructive when the question is whether a patent claiming the combination of elements of prior art is obvious. When a work is available in one field of endeavor, design incentives and other market forces can prompt variations of it, either in the same field or a different one. If a person of ordinary skill can implement a predictable variation, § 103 likely bars its patentability. For the same reason, if a technique has been used to improve one device, and a person of ordinary skill in the art would recognize that it would improve similar devices in the same way, using the technique is obvious unless its actual application is beyond his or her skill. Sakraida and Anderson's-Black Rock are illustrative-a court must ask whether the improvement is more than the predictable use of prior art elements according to their established functions.

Following these principles may be more difficult in other cases than it is here because the claimed subject matter may involve more than the simple substitution of one known element for another or the mere application of a known technique to a piece of prior art ready for the improvement. Often, it will be necessary for a court to look to interrelated teachings of multiple patents; the effects of demands known to the design community or present in the marketplace; and the background knowledge possessed by a person having *1741 ordinary skill in the art, all in order to determine whether there was an apparent reason to combine the known elements in the fashion claimed by the patent at issue. To facilitate review, this analysis should be made explicit. See *In re Kahn*, 441 F.3d 977, 988 (C.A.Fed.2006) ("[R]ejections on obviousness grounds cannot be sustained by mere conclusory statements; instead, there must be some articulated reasoning with some rational underpinning to support the legal conclusion of obviousness"). As our precedents make clear, however, the analysis need not seek out precise teachings directed to the specific subject matter of the challenged claim, for a court can take account of the inferences and creative steps that a person of ordinary skill in the art would employ.

В

When it first established the requirement of demonstrating a teaching, suggestion, or motivation to combine known elements in order to show that the combination is obvious, the Court of Customs and Patent Appeals captured a helpful

insight. See *Application of Bergel*, 48 C.C.P.A. 1102, 292 F.2d 955, 956-957 (1961). As is clear from cases such as *Adams*, a patent composed of several elements is not proved obvious merely by demonstrating that each of its elements was, independently, known in the prior art. Although common sense directs one to look with care at a patent application that claims as innovation the combination of two known devices according to their established functions, it can be important to identify a reason that would have prompted a person of ordinary skill in the relevant field to combine the elements in the way the claimed new invention does. This is so because inventions in most, if not all, instances rely upon building blocks long since uncovered, and claimed discoveries almost of necessity will be combinations of what, in some sense, is already known.

Helpful insights, however, need not become rigid and mandatory formulas; and when it is so applied, the TSM test is incompatible with our precedents. The obviousness analysis cannot be confined by a formalistic conception of the words teaching, suggestion, and motivation, or by overemphasis on the importance of published articles and the explicit content of issued patents. The diversity of inventive pursuits and of modern technology counsels against limiting the analysis in this way. In many fields it may be that there is little discussion of obvious techniques or combinations, and it often may be the case that market demand, rather than scientific literature, will drive design trends. Granting patent protection to advances that would occur in the ordinary course without real innovation retards progress and may, in the case of patents combining previously known elements, deprive prior inventions of their value or utility.

In the years since the Court of Customs and Patent Appeals set forth the essence of the TSM test, the Court of Appeals no doubt has applied the test in accord with these principles in many cases. There is no necessary inconsistency between the idea underlying the TSM test and the *Graham* analysis. But when a court transforms the general principle into a rigid rule that limits the obviousness inquiry, as the Court of Appeals did here, it errs.

C

The flaws in the analysis of the Court of Appeals relate for the most part to the court's narrow conception of the obviousness inquiry reflected in its application of the TSM test. In determining whether the subject matter of a patent claim is obvious, neither the particular motivation nor the avowed purpose of the patentee controls. What matters is the objective reach of the claim. If the claim extends to what is obvious, it is invalid under § 103. One of the ways in which a patent's subject matter can be proved obvious is by noting that there existed at the time of invention a known problem for which there was an obvious solution encompassed

by the patent's claims.

The first error of the Court of Appeals in this case was to foreclose this reasoning by holding that courts and patent examiners should look only to the problem the patentee was trying to solve. 119 Fed.Appx., at 288. The Court of Appeals failed to recognize that the problem motivating the patentee may be only one of many addressed by the patent's subject matter. The question is not whether the combination was obvious to the patentee but whether the combination was obvious to a person with ordinary skill in the art. Under the correct analysis, any need or problem known in the field of endeavor at the time of invention and addressed by the patent can provide a reason for combining the elements in the manner claimed.

The second error of the Court of Appeals lay in its assumption that a person of ordinary skill attempting to solve a problem will be led only to those elements of prior art designed to solve the same problem. *Ibid.* The primary purpose of Asano was solving the constant ratio problem; so, the court concluded, an inventor considering how to put a sensor on an adjustable pedal would have no reason to consider putting it on the Asano pedal. *Ibid.* Common sense teaches, however, that familiar items may have obvious uses beyond their primary purposes, and in many cases a person of ordinary skill will be able to fit the teachings of multiple patents together like pieces of a puzzle. Regardless of Asano's primary purpose, the design provided an obvious example of an adjustable pedal with a fixed pivot point; and the prior art was replete with patents indicating that a fixed pivot point was an ideal mount for a sensor. The idea that a designer hoping to make an adjustable electronic pedal would ignore Asano because Asano was designed to solve the constant ratio problem makes little sense. A person of ordinary skill is also a person of ordinary creativity, not an automaton.

The same constricted analysis led the Court of Appeals to conclude, in error, that a patent claim cannot be proved obvious merely by showing that the combination of elements was "obvious to try." *Id.*, at 289 (internal quotation marks omitted). When there is a design need or market pressure to solve a problem and there are a finite number of identified, predictable solutions, a person of ordinary skill has good reason to pursue the known options within his or her technical grasp. If this leads to the anticipated success, it is likely the product not of innovation but of ordinary skill and common sense. In that instance the fact that a combination was obvious to try might show that it was obvious under § 103.

The Court of Appeals, finally, drew the wrong conclusion from the risk of courts and patent examiners falling prey to hindsight bias. A factfinder should be aware, of course, of the distortion caused by hindsight bias and must be cautious of arguments reliant upon *ex post* reasoning. See *Graham*, 383 U.S., at 36, 86 S.Ct. 684

(warning against a "temptation to read into the prior art the teachings of the invention in issue" and instructing courts to " 'guard against slipping into the use of hindsight' " (quoting *Monroe Auto Equipment Co. v. Heckethorn Mfg. & Supply Co.,* 332 F.2d 406, 412 (C.A.6 1964))). Rigid preventative rules that deny factfinders recourse to common sense, however, are neither necessary under our case law nor consistent with it.

We note the Court of Appeals has since elaborated a broader conception of the TSM test than was applied in the instant matter. See, e.g., DyStar Textilfarben GmbH & Co. Deutschland KG v. C.H. Patrick Co., 464 F.3d 1356, 1367 (2006) ("Our suggestion test is in actuality quite flexible and not only permits, but requires, consideration of common knowledge and common sense"); Alza Corp. v. Mylan Labs., Inc., 464 F.3d 1286, 1291 (2006) ("There is flexibility in our obviousness jurisprudence because a motivation may be found implicitly in the prior art. We do not have a rigid test that requires an actual teaching to combine ..."). Those decisions, of course, are not now before us and do not correct the errors of law made by the Court of Appeals in this case. The extent to which they may describe an analysis more consistent with our earlier precedents and our decision here is a matter for the Court of Appeals to consider in its future cases. What we hold is that the fundamental misunderstandings identified above led the Court of Appeals in this case to apply a test inconsistent with our patent law decisions.

III

When we apply the standards we have explained to the instant facts, claim 4 must be found obvious. We agree with and adopt the District Court's recitation of the relevant prior art and its determination of the level of ordinary skill in the field. As did the District Court, we see little difference between the teachings of Asano and Smith and the adjustable electronic pedal disclosed in claim 4 of the Engelgau patent. A person having ordinary skill in the art could have combined Asano with a pedal position sensor in a fashion encompassed by claim 4, and would have seen the benefits of doing so.

Α

Teleflex argues in passing that the Asano pedal cannot be combined with a sensor in the manner described by claim 4 because of the design of Asano's pivot mechanisms. See Brief for Respondents 48-49, and n. 17. Therefore, Teleflex reasons, even if adding a sensor to Asano was obvious, that does not establish that claim 4 encompasses obvious subject matter. This argument was not, however, raised before the District Court. There Teleflex was content to assert only that the problem motivating the invention claimed by the Engelgau patent would not lead to the solution of combining of Asano with a sensor. See Teleflex's Response to KSR's

Motion for Summary Judgment of Invalidity in No. 02-74586 (ED Mich.), pp. 18-20, App. 144a-146a. It is also unclear whether the current argument was raised before the Court of Appeals, where Teleflex advanced the nonspecific, conclusory contention that combining Asano with a sensor would not satisfy the limitations of claim 4. See Brief for Plaintiffs-Appellants in No. 04-1152 (CA Fed.), pp. 42-44. Teleflex's own expert declarations, moreover, do not support the point Teleflex now raises. See Declaration of Clark J. Radcliffe, Ph.D., Supplemental App. 204-207; Declaration of Timothy L. Andresen, *id.*, at 208-210. The only statement in either declaration that might bear on the argument is found in the Radcliffe declaration:

"Asano ... and Rixon ... are complex mechanical linkage-based devices that are expensive to produce and assemble and difficult to package. It is exactly these difficulties with prior art designs that [Engelgau] resolves. The use of an adjustable pedal with a single pivot reflecting pedal position combined with an electronic control mounted between the *1744 support and the adjustment assembly at that pivot was a simple, elegant, and novel combination of features in the Engelgau '565 patent." *Id.*, at 206, \P 16.

Read in the context of the declaration as a whole this is best interpreted to mean that Asano could not be used to solve "[t]he problem addressed by Engelgau '565[:] to provide a less expensive, more quickly assembled, and smaller package adjustable pedal assembly with electronic control." *Id.*, at 205, \P 10.

The District Court found that combining Asano with a pivot-mounted pedal position sensor fell within the scope of claim 4. 298 F.Supp.2d, at 592-593. Given the sigificance of that finding to the District Court's judgment, it is apparent that Teleflex would have made clearer challenges to it if it intended to preserve this claim. In light of Teleflex's failure to raise the argument in a clear fashion, and the silence of the Court of Appeals on the issue, we take the District Court's conclusion on the point to be correct.

В

The District Court was correct to conclude that, as of the time Engelgau designed the subject matter in claim 4, it was obvious to a person of ordinary skill to combine Asano with a pivot-mounted pedal position sensor. There then existed a marketplace that created a strong incentive to convert mechanical pedals to electronic pedals, and the prior art taught a number of methods for achieving this advance. The Court of Appeals considered the issue too narrowly by, in effect, asking whether a pedal designer writing on a blank slate would have chosen both Asano and a modular sensor similar to the ones used in the Chevrolet truckline and disclosed in the '068 patent. The District Court employed this narrow inquiry as well, though it reached the correct result nevertheless. The proper question to have

asked was whether a pedal designer of ordinary skill, facing the wide range of needs created by developments in the field of endeavor, would have seen a benefit to upgrading Asano with a sensor.

In automotive design, as in many other fields, the interaction of multiple components means that changing one component often requires the others to be modified as well. Technological developments made it clear that engines using computer-controlled throttles would become standard. As a result, designers might have decided to design new pedals from scratch; but they also would have had reason to make pre-existing pedals work with the new engines. Indeed, upgrading its own pre-existing model led KSR to design the pedal now accused of infringing the Engelgau patent.

For a designer starting with Asano, the question was where to attach the sensor. The consequent legal question, then, is whether a pedal designer of ordinary skill starting with Asano would have found it obvious to put the sensor on a fixed pivot point. The prior art discussed above leads us to the conclusion that attaching the sensor where both KSR and Engelgau put it would have been obvious to a person of ordinary skill.

The '936 patent taught the utility of putting the sensor on the pedal device, not in the engine. Smith, in turn, explained to put the sensor not on the pedal's footpad but instead on its support structure. And from the known wire-chafing problems of Rixon, and Smith's teaching that "the pedal assemblies must not precipitate any motion in the connecting wires," Smith, col. 1, lines 35-37, Supplemental App. 274, the designer would know to place the sensor on a nonmoving part of the pedal structure. The most obvious nonmoving point on the structure from which a sensor can easily detect the pedal's position is a pivot point. The designer, accordingly, would follow Smith in mounting the sensor on a pivot, thereby designing an adjustable electronic pedal covered by claim 4.

Just as it was possible to begin with the objective to upgrade Asano to work with a computer-controlled throttle, so too was it possible to take an adjustable electronic pedal like Rixon and seek an improvement that would avoid the wire-chafing problem. Following similar steps to those just explained, a designer would learn from Smith to avoid sensor movement and would come, thereby, to Asano because Asano disclosed an adjustable pedal with a fixed pivot.

Teleflex indirectly argues that the prior art taught away from attaching a sensor to Asano because Asano in its view is bulky, complex, and expensive. The only evidence Teleflex marshals in support of this argument, however, is the Radcliffe declaration, which merely indicates that Asano would not have solved Engelgau's

goal of making a small, simple, and inexpensive pedal. What the declaration does not indicate is that Asano was somehow so flawed that there was no reason to upgrade it, or pedals like it, to be compatible with modern engines. Indeed, Teleflex's own declarations refute this conclusion. Dr. Radcliffe states that Rixon suffered from the same bulk and complexity as did Asano. See *id.*, at 206. Teleflex's other expert, however, explained that Rixon was itself designed by adding a sensor to a pre-existing mechanical pedal. See *id.*, at 209. If Rixon's base pedal was not too flawed to upgrade, then Dr. Radcliffe's declaration does not show Asano was either. Teleflex may have made a plausible argument that Asano is inefficient as compared to Engelgau's preferred embodiment, but to judge Asano against Engelgau would be to engage in the very hindsight bias Teleflex rightly urges must be avoided. Accordingly, Teleflex has not shown anything in the prior art that taught away from the use of Asano.

Like the District Court, finally, we conclude Teleflex has shown no secondary factors to dislodge the determination that claim 4 is obvious. Proper application of *Graham* and our other precedents to these facts therefore leads to the conclusion that claim 4 encompassed obvious subject matter. As a result, the claim fails to meet the requirement of § 103.

We need not reach the question whether the failure to disclose Asano during the prosecution of Engelgau voids the presumption of validity given to issued patents, for claim 4 is obvious despite the presumption. We nevertheless think it appropriate to note that the rationale underlying the presumption-that the PTO, in its expertise, has approved the claim-seems much diminished here.

ΙV

A separate ground the Court of Appeals gave for reversing the order for summary judgment was the existence of a dispute over an issue of material fact. We disagree with the Court of Appeals on this point as well. To the extent the court understood the *Graham* approach to exclude the possibility of summary judgment when an expert provides a conclusory affidavit addressing the question of obviousness, it misunderstood the role expert testimony plays in the analysis. In considering summary judgment on that question the district court can and should take into account expert testimony, which may resolve or keep open certain questions of fact. That is not the end of the issue, however. The ultimate judgment of obviousness is a legal determination. *Graham*, 383 U.S., at 17, 86 S.Ct. 684. Where, as here, the content of the prior art, the scope of the patent claim, and the level of ordinary skill in the art are not in material dispute, and the obviousness of the claim is apparent in light of these factors, summary judgment is appropriate. Nothing in the declarations proffered by Teleflex prevented the District Court from reaching the careful conclusions underlying its order for summary judgment in this case.

* * *

We build and create by bringing to the tangible and palpable reality around us new works based on instinct, simple logic, ordinary inferences, extraordinary ideas, and sometimes even genius. These advances, once part of our shared knowledge, define a new threshold from which innovation starts once more. And as progress beginning from higher levels of achievement is expected in the normal course, the results of ordinary innovation are not the subject of exclusive rights under the patent laws. Were it otherwise patents might stifle, rather than promote, the progress of useful arts. See U.S. Const., Art. I, § 8, cl. 8. These premises led to the bar on patents claiming obvious subject matter established in *Hotchkiss* and codified in § 103. Application of the bar must not be confined within a test or formulation too constrained to serve its purpose.

KSR provided convincing evidence that mounting a modular sensor on a fixed pivot point of the Asano pedal was a design step well within the grasp of a person of ordinary skill in the relevant art. Its arguments, and the record, demonstrate that claim 4 of the Engelgau patent is obvious. In rejecting the District Court's rulings, the Court of Appeals analyzed the issue in a narrow, rigid manner inconsistent with § 103 and our precedents. The judgment of the Court of Appeals is reversed, and the case remanded for further proceedings consistent with this opinion.

It is so ordered.

Discussion

- 1. What have you learned from the case?
- 2. What is the issue of the case?
- 3. What is the opinion of the court on the issue?

《法律语言学导论》教学大纲

张清 编写

目 录

一、前言	2
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	
四、相关教学环节	
五、教材:	
六、参考书目:	
Part One Language and Law	
Part Two History of Legal Language	8
Part Three Nature of Legal Language	.11
Part Four Language in the Courtroom	20
Part Five Reforming the Language of the Law	

一、前言

《法律语言学导论》为外国语学院四年级学生的专业选修课。本课程开设学期为第七学期。

法律语言学属于法学与语言学的交叉学科。作为法科院校为主的英语专业学生,学习了解法律语言学是很有必要及有现实意义的。其一,法律是用语言表述的,没有语言便没有法律;其二,只有理解了语言,才有可能理解法律。语词是法律人用来实现他们的目标的工具。立法者运用语言创制法律,法官运用语言陈述他们的判决理由,检察官运用语言对被告人进行控诉,律师在法庭上运用语言为当事人辩护,法学家运用语言表达他们的观点和思想。本课程的设置可为跨学科学习与研究提供一定的工具及途径。

本大纲的编写人员是长期从事此学科第一线教学工作的教师。其专业背景兼具法学和语言学两个学科,是教授与编写此大纲的较佳人选。

本大纲编写人员为张清。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程的教学目的是经过一个学期的学习,使学生初步了解法律语言学的研究对象、法律语言的历史、特点以及法律语言的研究内容及现状等,为将来进一步研究相关领域打下基础。

本课程要求学生兼具一定的法律基础知识及良好的英语水平,因为本课程不是一般的英语课程,而是具有一定难度的专业跨学科英语课程。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

作为导论性质的课程,主要给学生介绍一些本学科基本的知识和体系。主要分为五大部分,第一部分介绍法律语言的概述,介绍法律语言的定义、研究对象、特点、分类等;第二大部分介绍法律语言的起源;第三大部分介绍法律语言的性质;第四大部分介绍法庭中的法律语言;第五部分介绍法律语言的改革等。

本课程为 2 学分 36 学时,第一部分占用 4 学时;第二部分占用 6 学时;第三部分占用 10 学时;第四部分占用 8 学时;第五部分占用 6 学时。讲授时间共占用 34 学时,最后 2 学时用于复习答疑。本课程考核形式为提交不少于 3000 字的英语学术论文。

四、相关教学环节

法律语言学导论主要以课堂教学为主,课堂教学形式分为两种形式:教师讲授和学生讨论。教学手段采用多媒体教学手段,附以教学片使学生置身于外国文化的氛围之中感受其法律制度。采用任务教学法,引导学生积极参加实践活动,通过完成教师布置的任务来掌握学习内容,从而激发学生的学习兴趣、培养信心、提高综合素质。

五、教材:

Peter M. Tiersma, Legal Language, The University of Chicago Press, 1999.

六、参考书目:

- 1. Gail Stygail, Trial Language, John Benjamins B.V., 1994.
- 2. Judith N. Levi and Anne Graffam Walker (edited), *Language in the Judicial Process*, Plenum Press, 1990.
 - 3. John Gibbons (edited), Language and the Law, Longman Group UK Limited, 1994.
- 4. John Gibbons, *Forensic Linguistics An Introduction to Language in the Justice System*, Blackwell Publishing, 2003.
- 5. John Olsson, Forensic Linguistics An Introduction to Language, Crime and the Law, Continuum, 2004.
- 6. Malcolm Coulthard and Alison Johnson, *An Introduction to Forensic Linguistics*, Routledge, 2007.
 - 7. David Mellinkoff, *The Language of the Law, Little*, Brown and Company, 1963.

Part One Language and Law

Aim: To let students get to know some general knowledge about language and law, and forensic linguistics, and the characteristics of legal language as well.

Teaching hours: 4 class hours

Introduction: Language and law

- Forensic linguistics is an application of linguistics. And forensic linguistics is the increasingly important branch of linguistics which deals with the interface between language, crime and the law.——John Olsson
 - Few professions are as concerned with language as is the law. ——Tiersma
 - Our law is a law of words.
 - Laws all consist of words.
- Morality or custom may be embedded in human behavior, but law comes into being through language.
- Legal profession focuses intensely on the words that constitute the law, whether in the form of statutes, regulations, or judicial opinions.
 - It is utterly impossible to conceive of law without language. (Tiesma)
 - Words are also a lawyer's most essential tools.
- Attorneys use language to discuss what the law means, to advise clients, to argue before a court or jury, and to question witnesses.
- The legal rights and obligations of their clients are created, modified, and terminated by the language contained in contracts, deeds, and wills.
 - The average lawyer's daily routine consists almost entirely of reading, speaking, and writing.

The relationship between language and law

- Language is essential to law in at least two ways. First, laws or legal norms cannot exist without the ability to articulate or describe them in language. Secondly, language is an essential tool in carrying out the business of law. There is, without any doubt, an extremely close relationship between language and law.
 - According to Prof. Liao Meizhen, law is language, and law problems are language problems.

Interdisciplinary study

- The marginality or obscurity of the field
- Though language is essential to law, the field of language and law, an interdisciplinary field, remains a relatively obscure and marginal discipline.
- The Internet search results indicate that language and law is a field of study whose significance has not up to now been fully appreciated.

An underappreciated discipline

- Failure to engage the legal profession
- Legal education and the legal profession more generally pay very little explicit attention to the

study of language and law.

- Lawyers and law professors tend to view language as a tool, rather than as an object of study.
- Lawyers are users—often very good users—of language, but most of them don't consciously think about it very much.
 - Law schools devote little attention to language and the law as a subject.

The language of the legal profession

- Scholars have done a fair amount of analysis of the language of lawyers, or the language of the law, and how it differs from ordinary speech and writing.
 - Mellinkoff (1963); Tiersma (1999).
- Still far from enough. Generally, law schools seem to regard the study of legal language as part of the skills curriculum, if they think about it at all. Or, in the alternative, legal language may so integral to the study of law that legal academics seldom explicitly distinguish it from the substantive areas in which they are interested.
- A practical application of the work done on legal language has been the movement to make the law more understandable to the public at large, especially in the case of contracts, leases, warnings, and other legal documents that are directed at consumers.
 - This is the focus of the plain English movement.
 - The classic book in this area is Wydick (1994).

Areas covered under the study of language and law

• Law and literature: Richard Posner (1988), Stanley Fish (1989)

Analysis of literary themes in legal texts, legal themes in literary texts, and discussion of whether and how literary theory might have relevance to the problem of legal interpretation; also authorship attibution.

• Law and semiotics: Bernard Jackson (1985)

International Journal for Semiotics of Law

Focusing on different forms of textual analysis to the discourses of law.

• Law and rhetoric: Peter Goodrich (1987), Austin Sarat (see, Sarat and Kearns 1994)

Focusing on linguistic devices.

• **Discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, and law**: Janet Cotterill's (2003), Gail Stygall's (1994), William O'Barr (1990)

Study on the discourse strategies that occur in the courtroom, involving analysis of the interaction b/w legal professionals and ordinary citizens during trials.

Focusing on how legal professionals use language as a tool of power and domination.

• Multilingualism and legal translation: Bhatia, Candlin, Engberg, & Trosborg (2003)

Focusing on language policy and rights as well as legal translation.

- **Philosophy of language and law**: Kurzon (1986), Bix (1993): Called jurisprudence, speech act theory; philosophical approaches to legal interpretation.
- **Forensic linguistics**: the use of linguistic knowledge and methodologies to solve factual issues that are relevant to legal disputes.

What is forensic linguistics?

- The term "Forensic Linguistics" can be used narrowly to refer only to the issue of language evidence. However it is becoming accepted as a cover term for language and the law issues.
- So, narrowly, it is an important part of the field of language and law; broadly, it is as a synonym for the phrase "language and law" (Gibbons 2003).
- However, Tiersma does not accept this view, who thinks that forensic linguistics is an importance part of the field of language and law, but it is not synonymous with the broader discipline of language and law.
- The study of any text or item of spoken language which has relevance to a criminal or civil dispute, or which relates to what goes on in a court of law, or to the language of the law itself. Thus the linguist may be called upon to analyze a very wide variety of documents, e.g. agreements relating to ancient territorial disputes, the quality of court interpreting, an allegation of 'verballing' (claims by defendants that their statements were altered by police officers), a disputed will, a suicide note, a ransom demand, etc.

The areas of forensic linguistics

- 1. The study of the language of the law, including the language of legal documents and the language of the courts, the police and prisons.
- 2. The study, the provision and the improvement of professional legal interpreting and translation services.
 - 3. The alleviation of disadvantage produced by language in legal processes.
- 4. The provision of forensic linguistic evidence that is based on the best available linguistic expertise.
- 5. The provision of linguistic expertise in issues of legal drafting and interpretation, including plain language drafting.
 - Voice identification
 - Author identification
 - Discourse analysis
 - Linguistic proficiency
 - Dialectology
 - "Linguistic origin analysis"
 - "Linguistic veracity analysis"
 - Disciplines of forensic linguistics:
 - Authorship identification
 - Mode identification
 - Legal interpreting and translation
 - Transcribing verbal statements
 - The language and discourse of courtrooms
 - Language rights
 - Statement analysis
 - Forensic phonetics
 - Textual status

Characteristics of the Language of the Law

- 1. Frequent use of common words with uncommon meanings. E.g. action, consideration, instrument, party, said
- 2. Frequent use of Old English and Middle English words once in common use, but now rare, e.g. aforesaid, hereafter, thereafter, whereby
- 3. Frequent use of Latin words and phrases. E.g. affidavit, bona fide, habeas corpus, prima facie, versus
- 4. Use of Old French and Anglo-Norman words which have not been taken into the general vocabulary.
 - 5. Use of terms of art. E.g. appeal, felony, dictum, demurrer, lessor, lessee, injunction
 - 6. Use of argot. E.g. alleged, cause of action, issue of fact, issue of law, reasonable man
 - 7. Frequent use of formal words. E.g.

In judgments: Now Therefore, It Is Ordered, Adjudged, and Decreed.

- 8. Deliberate use of words and expressions with flexible meanings. E.g. adequate compensation, clear and convincing, gross
 - 9. Attempts at extreme precision of expression. E.g.

Choices of absolutes: all, none, never, last clear chance, whoever, wherever.

Discussion: What is the relationship between language and law?

Further reading:

- 1. Gail Stygail, Trial Language, John Benjamins B.V., 1994.
- 2. Judith N. Levi and Anne Graffam Walker (edited), *Language in the Judicial Process*, Plenum Press, 1990.
 - 8. John Gibbons (edited), Language and the Law, Longman Group UK Limited, 1994.
- 9. John Gibbons, *Forensic Linguistics An Introduction to Language in the Justice System*, Blackwell Publishing, 2003.
- 10. John Olsson, Forensic Linguistics An Introduction to Language, Crime and the Law, Continuum, 2004.
- 11. Malcolm Coulthard and Alison Johnson, *An Introduction to Forensic Linguistics*, Routledge, 2007.
 - 12. David Mellinkoff, *The Language of the Law, Little*, Brown and Company, 1963.

Part Two History of Legal Language

Aim: To have the general understanding of the history of legal language in western world, esp. in Britain and America.

Teaching hours: 6 class hours

1. CELTS, ANGLO-SAXONS, AND DANES

The Celts

There are virtually no remnants of the legal language of the original Celtic inhabitants of England, although there are some indications that it was poetic and not particularly comprehensible for ordinary people, a theme that continues to resonate.

The Anglo-Saxons

The Anglo-Saxons pushed the Celtic language to the fringes of Britain. Some Anglo-Saxon words or legal terms have survived to today, including writ, ordeal, witness, deem, oath and moot. Words had an almost magical quality in Anglo-Saxon legal culture. Their law used alliteration and conjoined phrases, a practice that has, to a limited extent, survived to the present (as in rest, residue and remainder). The increasing linguistic complexity of Anglo-Saxon laws led to more complicated legal language, suggesting that the complexity of legal language may to some extent simply reflect an increasingly complicated society.

Latin and the Advent of Christianity

Christian missionaries landed in 597 and (re)introduced Latin. Latin terms that entered legal language in this period include words like clerk. One impact of Christianity was to encourage the use of writing, which was later to have a tremendous impact on the law. Although Latin was incomprehensible to most of the population, it enhanced communication at a time when there was no standard for written English.

The Scandinavians

Vikings raided the English coast, and eventually settled down. Legal terms from Norse include the word law itself, but otherwise the language did not have a large impact on legal English.

2. THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND THE INTRODUCTION OF FRENCH

William the Conqueror Invades England

The Norman conquest in 1066 placed French-speaking Normans in virtually all important positions in England; French thus became the language of power. Virtually all English words relating to government are originally French. The Normans initially used Latin rather than French as a written language of the law. Only around 200 years after the conquest did French statutes appear. They remain French until the 1480s. Strong evidence that the courts operated in French did not appear until the end of the 13th century. The use of French in courts seems tied to the expansion of jurisdiction of royal courts during this period; royal courts were logically conducted in French, which was still the language of the aristocracy and royal household at this time. In a sense, therefore, adoption of French for legal purposes could initially have promoted communication with those most affected by royal law.

Ironically, at the same time that French was in ascendancy as the language of the law, use of Anglo-

French as a living language was beginning to decline. It is probably no accident that this was also the period when a professional class of lawyers arose. Soon after 1400, Anglo-French was virtually extinct as a living language, but it had become firmly entrenched as the professional language of lawyers.

The Continuing Use of Latin

Throughout this period, Latin continued to be used as a legal language. It came to be known as "Law Latin," and included various legal terms of French origin, as well as English words when clerks did not know the Latin. Legal maxims, even today, are often in Latin, which gives them a sense of heightened dignity and authority. Names of writs (mandamus, certiorari) and terminology for case names (versus, ex rel., etc.) are still in Latin, perhaps a reflection of the use of Latin for writs and court records until the early 18th century.

Law French

French eventually became a language used only by lawyers, and became known as "Law French." Early efforts to abolish it in court proceedings failed. Possible reasons for the retention of Law French after its demise as a living language include claims that it allowed for more precise communication, especially with its extensive technical vocabulary; the dangers of having ordinary people read legal texts without expert guidance; the conservatism of the profession; and a possible desire by lawyers to justify their fees and to monopolize provision of legal services. If nothing else, it reflects the conservatism of the profession at the time.

Some of the characteristics of Law French that have left traces in today's legal language include addition of initial e to words like squire, creating esquire; adjectives that follow nouns (attorney general); simplification of the French verb system, so that all verbs eventually ended in -er, as in demurrer or waiver; and a large amount of technical vocabulary, including many of the most basic words in our legal system. Law French eventually was reduced to around 1000 words, forcing lawyers to add English words to their French texts with abandon. A notorious example is the "brickbat" case from 1631.

Trilingualism and Code-switching

During this period, lawyers had to be trilingual in French, Latin and English. Each language was traditionally used in specified domains. Even more than today, perhaps, law was in those days a profession of words.

3. THE RESURGENCE OF ENGLISH

The Demise of Latin and Law French

Use of Latin and Law French for legal purposes gradually declined, and was given a final coup de grâce in 1730.

The Increasing Importance of Writing and Printing

Legal language was originally entirely oral. If there was a writing of a legal event, it was merely a report of the oral ceremony. Eventually, the writing became a type of autoritative text, the dispositive or operative event itself. What now mattered was what was written, and what was said became largely or entirely irrelevant. This progression can be seen in written reports of court proceedings, which first merely documented an oral event, but which later became the event itself, so that what is said in an appellate court in the United States today is legally immaterial; what matters is the written opinion. Legislation also went through this progression. Printing contributed to these trends by allowing for a standardized and widely-available version of the written text. Now all that matters is the enacted text of a

statute, or the published version of a judicial opinion, which has led to an ever increasing fixation on the exact words of legislation, and has permitted the development of the doctrine of precedent.

Further Developments in England

As pleadings became written, rather than oral, they also became subject to increasing textual scrutiny and were often rejected for the smallest linguistic slip. This encouraged use of formbooks, which had a conservatizing effect on legal language by promoting continuing reuse of antiquated phrasing. And legal documents became ever longer as clerks and lawyers charged by the page. In part for these reasons, the legal profession began to find itself in low repute.

Legal English Throughout the World

English colonizers transported legal English throughout the British Empire, including North America. Despite antipathy towards lawyers and the English, the Americans maintained English legal language. The Articles of Confederation were linguistically very convoluted and full of legalese. Thomas Jefferson advocated improving the style of statutes, although did not really follow through. The Declaration of Independence and American Constitution are elegant and relatively simple, but in general, American legal language closely resembled that of their former colonial masters. The same is true in other former English colonies. To a large extent, the retention of English legal language is closely related to the retention or adoption of English common law. People who adopt concepts from another culture tend also to adopt the words used to describe those concepts.

Conclusion

Lawyers did not invent Law French, or today's legal language, for the purpose of monopolizing the profession. It developed naturally, under the influence of diverse languages and cultures, as well as the growing complexity of the legal system and the shift from predominantly oral to mainly written communication. Yet to some extent, legal language does have the effect of enabling lawyers to retain their virtual monopoly on providing legal services. The fact that laymen remain dependent on lawyers for creating and "translating" legal texts makes it hard for lawyers to abandon their distinctive language.

Discussion:

- 1. How did legal language get to be the way that it is?
- 2. Is it the result of a conspiracy by lawyers to retain their monopoly?
- 3. Did it just develop naturally over the centuries?

Further reading:

- 1. Gail Stygail, *Trial Language*, John Benjamins B.V., 1994.
- 2. Judith N. Levi and Anne Graffam Walker (edited), *Language in the Judicial Process*, Plenum Press, 1990.
 - 3. John Gibbons (edited), Language and the Law, Longman Group UK Limited, 1994.
- 4. John Gibbons, *Forensic Linguistics An Introduction to Language in the Justice System*, Blackwell Publishing, 2003.
- 5. John Olsson, Forensic Linguistics An Introduction to Language, Crime and the Law, Continuum, 2004.
 - 6. Malcolm Coulthard and Alison Johnson, An Introduction to Forensic Linguistics, Routledge, 2007.
 - 7. David Mellinkoff, *The Language of the Law, Little*, Brown and Company, 1963.

Part Three Nature of Legal Language

Aim: To let students get to know the nature of legal language.

Teaching hours: 10 class hours

1. TALKING LIKE A LAWYER

Lawyers seem to have developed some linguistic quirks that have little communicative function, and serve mainly to mark them as members of the legal fraternity.

Pronunciation and Spelling as Markers of Group Cohesion

The odd pronunciation of defendant (with a full vowel in the last syllable, rhyming with ant) and the spelling judgment (consistently without an e) seem to serve as a marker of group cohesion. Ironically, when pronouncing words of Latin or Law French origin, the recent trend is not to follow the expected traditional pronunciation of the legal profession (i.e., as though the words were English), but rather to use the articulation taught in foreign language classes. The reason may be that the traditional legal pronunciation sounds unsophisticated to the modern ear, and lawyers are very concerned about appearing prestigious.

Lengthy and complex sentences

Studies show that sentences in legal language are quite a bit longer than in other styles, and also have more embeddings, making them more complex. Sometimes there seems to be an attempt to state an entire statute or linguistic principle in a single sentence, as illustrated by a California law against insuring lotteries. Such a statute can easily be broken down into more digestible pieces with no loss in content, so there is no justification for such long sentences today.

Wordiness and redundancy

Lawyers are very prone to use wordy and redundant phraseology, including what is sometimes called boilerplate. Lawyers also tend to use ponderous phrases (such as at slow speed or subsequent to) where a single word would suffice (slowly; after). On the other hand, sometimes legal language is not overly wordy at all, but highly compact or dense. The economic incentives and strategic motivations under which lawyers operate seem to be significant here: when clients are paying a large fee, there is a motivation to be verbose; when a document is written for a busy court, however, lawyers realize they have to get to the point quickly.

Conjoined phrases

Conjoined phrases consist of words like by and or, as in I give, devise and bequeath the rest, residue and remainder... They have been used since Anglo-Saxon times. Conjoining words is still extremely common in legal language. One reason for such lists of words is to be as comprehensive as possible. They also can add emphasis. But they can lead to ambiguity because of the rule of interpretation that every word should be given meaning and nothing treated as surplusage. Thus, careful communication requires that lawyers use such conjoined phrases with care.

Unusual sentence structure

Lawyers make use of unusual sentence structures, as in a proposal to effect with the Society an assurance, which is taken from an insurance policy. Often these unusual structures result in separating the subject from the verb, or splitting the verb complex, which can reduce comprehension.

Negation

Legal language seems to use an inordinate amount of negation. To some extent this may result from the tendency to regulate by prohibition; judges prefer negative injunctions, for example. Research reveals that especially multiple negation impairs communication and should be avoided.

Impersonal Constructions

A related characteristic of legal style is impersonal constructions. The best example is avoidance of first and second person expression (I and you). Using the third person in statutes does make some communicative sense (as in Sex offenders shall register with the police...) because the statute "speaks" not only to sex offenders, but to the police and the courts; you might therefore be inappropriate or ambiguous. Elsewhere (as in the tendency of judges to refer to themselves as the court rather than I) it creates an impression of objectivity and authority, thus helping to legitimate the legal system. Multi-judge panels seem less reluctant to use *we*, and will even use this pronoun to refer to a decision made by their predecessors long ago. Here, the first person stresses the continuity and perceived timelessness of the law.

Conclusion

Many of the quirky or stylistic features of legal writing serve little or no communicative function and could easily be dispensed with, especially because they may reduce comprehension.

2. THE QUEST FOR PRECISION

One of the main justifications for a distinct legal language is that it is capable of extremely precise communication.

Avoiding Pronouns: "Player Promises That Player Will Play..."

One means of gaining precision is to repeat nouns (e.g., player), rather than using a pronoun (e.g., he) after a person or thing is introduced. Pronouns can sometimes have ambiguous reference, so this technique can indeed enhance precision. Lawyers, however, avoid pronouns almost routinely, even where no ambiguity is possible. Avoiding pronouns does have an unintended benefit: it reduces the use of sexist language.

Undermining Precision: "The Masculine Shall Include the Feminine"

Legal documents often declare that the masculine includes the feminine, the singular includes the plural, or that one tense includes the other. This may originally have functioned to reduce verbosity, as suggested by Jeremy Bentham, but it obviously can undermine precise communication when reference to a specific gender, number or tense is desired. Perhaps legal language is not always so precise, after all.

Strategic Imprecision: Obscuring the Actor Through Passives and Nominalizations

Passive sentences allow the speaker or writer to omit reference to the actor (as in the girl was injured at 5:30). One reason lawyers use passives is for strategic reasons: to deliberately de-emphasize or obscure who the actor is. Passives are therefore impersonal, giving them an aura of objectivity and authoritativeness; this may explain why they are common in court orders. They are less common in contracts, where the parties typically wish to spell out exactly who is to do what, and thus have an interest in precise reference to the actors.

Nominalizations are nouns derived from verbs (e.g., injury from the verb injure). Like passives, they can be used to obscure the actor (the injury occurred at 5:30). A legitimate function of nominalizations is that they allow the law to be stated as generally and objectively as possible. Lawyers often use passives and nominalizations strategically, however. They avoid them when they wish to be as precise as possible,

and use them when they wish to be deliberately imprecise.

Flexible, General, or Vague Language

Some legal terms are not precise at all, but are noted for their generality, flexibility, or even vagueness (e.g., reasonable or due process). Flexibility has a valid communicative function; a term like reasonable can change with the times and circumstances. Because it can change with the times, flexible language is characteristic of constitutions. It may also be valuable when lawyers wish to be as comprehensive as possible. Yet sometimes a term like obscene or indecent is felt to be too pliable, because it gives great discretion to the decisionmaker; the Supreme Court has tried to limit that flexibility by tying obscenity to community standards. Flexibility is likewise less appropriate in criminal statutes in general, because people ought to know in advance what is legal and what is not. Lawyers also are nervous of overly flexible language, because it may be interpreted in an unintended way in the future.

The Tension Between Flexibility and Precision

Lawyers are often torn between the conflicting goals of flexible communication (through the use of general language) and precision (often by using word lists of specific examples). Sometimes it is possible to avoid the vagueness problems inherent in flexible terms by using a word list, which tends to allow for more precise communication. This is illustrated by a hunter harassment statute, which a court struck down on vagueness grounds when it forbade harassing hunters in general terms, but later upheld after the legislature added a specific list of prohibited activities. But aiming for precision by using lists has its costs.

There are several interpretive maxims, including noscitur a sociis, ejusdem generis, and expressio unius, which all tend to restrict, rather than expand, the interpretation of items in a list. Elsewhere, flexible language has sometimes proven preferable to precise lists, as shown by developments in the prudent investment rule. Lawyers consequently aim to achieve the best of both worlds by using phrases like any X, including but not limited to a, b, and c, thus marrying the general and the specific, but there will inevitably be tensions between the two.

Conclusion

Legal language can, in some ways, communicate quite precisely. But other characteristics undermine precision, and certain features can be used strategically to be deliberately imprecise. Furthermore, lawyers may opt for flexible communication, which is in some ways the opposite of precision and is often in tension with it.

3. THE LEGAL LEXICON

Another way in which the language of the law is claimed to promote clear and concise communication is through a specific legal vocabulary.

Legal Archaisms

A common criticism of the legal vocabulary is that it is full of antiquated features. These include archaic morphology (further affiant sayeth not); the legal use of same, said, aforesaid, such and to wit; use of the subjunctive, especially in the passive (be it known); and words like herewith, thereunder, and whereto. Although these expressions often had a legitimate function in the past, the claim that archaic words or expressions should be preserved because they are somehow more precise than ordinary language is simply not defensible.

Linguistic Creativity: New Wine in New Bottles

Even though some legal language is quite archaic, many other old legal terms have died off as the

concepts to which they refer became obsolescent. In fact, some areas of the legal lexicon are very innovative, as in terms like zoning and palimony. Such terms give the law the ability to deal with novel circumstances and legal developments.

Asylees, Escapees and Tippees

Another example of linguistic creativity in legal language is the frequent formation of new words ending in -ee, which contrast to those ending in -or (mortgagee/mortgagor). Although these pairs are confusing for the lay public, they can enhance communication within the profession by filling lexical gaps that exist in ordinary language.

Conservative or Innovative?

Legal language is neither hopelessly conservative nor remarkably innovative. Often there are reasons for using antiquated vocabulary. Like religious language, the language of the law is quite conservative with regard to sacred or authoritative texts, which adherents are reluctant to change or even to translate for fear of affecting the meaning. The fact that courts have authoritatively interpreted a term does inspire caution, of course. Further, using proven language over and over can be economical. A less palatable reason is that because archaic language is hard for most people to understand, lawyers sometimes have a financial incentive to use it to help justify their fees. Yet when dealing with new legal concepts for which there is no existing word, lawyers do not hesitate to create novel terminology. As a result of these conflicting motivations and goals, legal language is an odd mixture of archaic alongside very innovative features.

Formal and Ritualistic Terminology

The legal lexicon also has many formal or ritualistic words and phrases. One function of such language is to emphasize that a proceeding is separate from ordinary life. Often ritualistic language frames a legal event by signaling the beginning and the end. In private legal documents, ritualistic and formal language indicates that something like a will is an important legal act, sometimes called the ritual or cautionary function of legal formalities. Of course, this function could be fulfilled by means that are more comprehensible. In fact, taken to extremes, formal language is simply pompous and serves little function besides its possible prestige value.

Do and Shall

When do is used in a declarative sentence, it is normally to add emphasis. This is not its function in legal language (e.g., The People of California do enact...) Here, it marks that something is a performative. The adverb hereby (as in the People of California hereby enact...) fulfills the same function: indicating that by saying enact, the legislature by those very words engages in the act of enacting. Because do is anachronistic and unusual in this usage, it should be avoided; hereby can easily communicate performativity, where necessary.

Shall is also used in an unusual sense in legal language. It is commonly said that legal use of shall does not indicate the future, but the imposition of obligation. But shall appears to function also in promises or declarations. In reality, shall seems to mark that the phrase in which it occurs is part of the content or proposition of a performative phrase. Thus, in a contract the parties perform the act of promising by signing the contract; the content of their promises is indicated by shall. Shall does have the function of indicating that the document in which it occurs is legal, which may help explain its pervasiveness in legal language. Generally, however, the meaning of shall can be communicated more comprehensibly by must or will or is.

Jargon, Argot and Technical Terms

It is sometimes said that the legal vocabulary is full of argot. Argot is generally used to communicate in secret among a small group; this does not properly typify legal language. Others claim that legal terminology is largely jargon. I use the term jargon to refer to language of a profession that is not sufficiently precise to qualify as a technical term (e.g., conclusory). Jargon can be useful in facilitating ingroup communication, but should obviously be avoided in communicating with the public.

If the distinctive legal vocabulary actually enhances communication, it must be mainly through technical terms, or terms of art. It is sometimes claimed that legal language has few true terms of art. Any law dictionary reveals that there are large numbers of technical terms, however. Those who claim otherwise may have too strict a notion of the precision required for a technical term. As long as an expression has a relatively exact meaning, is used by a particular trade or profession, and promotes brevity of expression, it fulfills an important communicative function and can properly be called a technical term. Such terms are less exact in law than in the hard sciences because legal terms typically refer to concepts that change over time, or are slightly different in divergent jurisdictions. And they may be modified by judicial decisions. Contrary to expectations, judicial decisions, by following the intent of the drafter over the "plain meaning" of a word, often make the meaning of the word less precise. Courts and the legal profession could work together to make legal terminology much more exact, but it would come at the cost of negating the intentions of speakers who use a term in a different sense. Legal terminology will therefore never be as precise as the profession might hope.

Relationships Among Words

In ordinary English words exhibit certain systematic lexical relationships. The same is true for legal language, but with a number of deviations that can trap the uninitiated.

One way that words can be related is as homonyms, or via polysemy. In either case, one word or sound sequence has two or more meanings. This can cause communication problems when legal terms have both an ordinary meaning and a divergent legal meaning (as in consideration or personal property). These words, which I call legal homonyms, are particularly problematic because laymen are very likely to (mis)interpret them in their ordinary sense, and even courts are sometimes unsure whether the ordinary or technical meaning was intended.

Words can also be related as synonyms, which refers to words with very similar meanings. On the one hand, lawyers are told to avoid synonyms or elegant variation. Using a different word is assumed to invoke a different meaning. On the other hand, lawyers have a great love for long lists of synonyms, especially in conjoined phrases. Lists of synonyms can thus create interpretative problems.

A final relationship is antonymy, or lexical opposites. Legal language has a tendency to create such opposition where it does not normally occur. Speech and conduct overlap in ordinary language, but American courts now treat them legally as opposites: if something is speech, the First Amendment applies; if an action is mere conduct, it does not. Yet it must be confusing for the layperson to read that burning an American flag is free "speech."

4. INTERPRETATION AND MEANING

This section discusses several ways in which legal interpretation and meaning differ from ordinary language interpretation, and some of the reasons why.

Definitions

Definitions nowadays are normally descriptive, which means they are based on usage. In common law countries, no one has the authority to dictate how a word ought to be used, which would constitute a prescriptive definition. Definitions in legal language, however, are prescriptive because here there is an institution that can dictate how a word ought to be used: the legislature.

I call these declaratory definitions. They also occur in contracts and other legal documents. Such definitions can promote more precise drafting by stipulating that one of several possible meanings is intended. But they are also hazardous, because the reader may not always realize that what seems to be an ordinary word is defined in a specific--sometimes, aberrant--way. There are also incorporating definitions, which are not really definitions at all. They simply take a large amount of text and define it as X, allowing the text to be removed from the body of the statute and placed with the definitions. Although the practice can minimize redundancy in the text, it can also make less transparent and harder to find.

Reference

Reference is important to the law; the law of trademarks is largely about preserving the unambiguous reference of marks. Ambiguity of reference can also cause problems in wills. To avoid referential ambiguity in legal documents, lawyers often use what I call declaratory reference, declaring in a document that Garcia shall refer to Hilda Garcia, an individual residing in San Antonio, Texas. Linguists also distinguish between referential descriptions (a specific person or thing) and attributive descriptions (whoever meets the description). This is quite relevant in the law of wills, where a gift of my car could be either referential—the car I now own—or attributive (whatever car I own at death). Further, legislation is almost always written in an attributive (thus, objective) way, applying to any person who fits a description. This can be abused, however, as when a tax break that seems to be attributive in fact refers to a specific person or entity.

Meaning

Legal interpretation differs in several ways from ordinary understanding. In ordinary language, what really matters is what a speaker means by an utterance (speaker's meaning), rather than what a word or utterance means (word or sentence meaning). Irony provides a good example, because here the sentence meaning (I love being hit on the head by a brick) is highly misleading. In theory, legal interpretation of private documents also focuses on the speaker's meaning, but this is undermined by the evidentiary limitations of the parol evidence rule. With statutory interpretation, courts now often look to the intent of the speakers (legislative intent). Yet referring to legislative intent is controversial, especially in the theory of interpretation called textualism, which has revived the plain meaning rule. The plain meaning rule excludes consideration of extrinsic evidence when the meaning of a statute is plain from a reading of the text itself. This is completely inconsistent with ordinary language interpretation, which uses any cues it can--such as shared background knowledge or information on the circumstances of an utterance--to determine the speaker's meaning.

But the plain meaning rule is not entirely irrational; it derives to some extent from the historic shift from oral to written communication. We tend to interpret written texts differently from speech. Someone who writes a text often tries to make it as autonomous as possible, so that any information needed to interpret it is contained in the text itself. This is often necessary, because the reader of a text may be in a very different location, at a very different time, and may know little or nothing about the circumstances surrounding the writer. Logically enough, legal documents are written to be very autonomous. One

view of the plain meaning rule, therefore, is that judges will assume that the drafter was successful in creating an autonomous document, so that ideally extrinsic evidence should not be needed. At least as an initial assumption, this seems sensible.

Another reason for legal interpretation to place less emphasis on the speaker's meaning is the problem of collective authorship, as well as the fact that one or more of the authors may be dead or otherwise unavailable. Furthermore, legal interpretation must deal with the problem of gaps, when the text is silent on a particular point. In a spoken conversation, one interlocutor can ask the other to fill the gap. With most legal documents, courts must find some other means of deciding what to do when the text is silent. Courts thus necessarily construct meaning where there was none before, rather than simply interpreting the text. This is sometimes difficult to spot because courts prefer not to act in overtly authoritative ways, so they continue to speak of interpretation while actually engaging in construction.

A final difference between legal and ordinary interpretation derives from the fact that an interpreter must always keep in mind the rules and conventions used by the speaker or writer. There is a symbiotic relationship between encoding and decoding language. The evidence accumulated in this book suggests that legal writers do indeed use language and drafting conventions that are distinct from ordinary language. An example is that normally if someone uses synonyms, we assume she is engaging in elegant variation and that the synonymous terms refer to the same thing. Legal drafters generally try to avoid such variation; the legal interpreter will thus assume that the synonyms in fact refers to something different. Most students of legal interpretation have concentrated on what courts do, but they should perhaps pay more attention to the legal language and conventions of the drafters.

5. VARIATION IN LEGAL LANGUAGE

Legal Dialects

Dialects reflect linguistic variation on the basis of geography. Legal language is not a dialect, but it does have dialects of its own in that it varies according to place. Some of this dialectal variation results from differences in legal systems; English lawyers speak of solicitors and barristers, a distinction not made in the United States. Elsewhere, the concepts are similar, but words for them are different (British company law versus American corporate law). In countries such as India, legal English is infused with many terms for indigenous legal concepts. Thus, even though legal language is quite conservative in some senses, in other ways it again reveals itself as a relatively flexible means of communication by readily adapting to the situation in which it is used.

Spoken Legal Language

Legal language further varies depending on whether it is spoken or written. The most salient characteristics of legalese--archaic vocabulary, long and convoluted sentences, use of passives and nominalizations--are far more evident in written legal language. Written language is also more compact and dense. Spoken legal language tends to be less formal overall. An oral judgment by an English judge is perhaps the most formal type of spoken legal English. Oral arguments to a court tend to be in standard English, while addressing a jury might very well be in a regional variety of English that is aimed at identifying with the local population. As with medieval lawyers, choice of language variety in specified domains is dictated to some extent by tradition, but these days strategy also plays an important role.

Telegraphic Speech

Telegraphic speech leaves out all words that could be supplied by context; it is common in telegrams

and headlines. It is often heard in the courtroom (lawyer: Objection! Judge: Overruled), but also in some quite formal settings, as at the end of an opinion (appeal dismissed). It again illustrates that lawyers can cut out excess verbiage when its suits their purpose.

Legal Slang

Despite claims that their speech habits are very formal, even pompous, lawyers not infrequently use legal slang. Slang enhances group cohesion and is often shorter (thus more "linguistically efficient") than more formal language. Examples include rogs for interrogatories, TRO for temporary restraining order, SLAPP suit for strategic lawsuit against public participation, and idioms like grant cert for grant a writ of certiorari.

Variation and Genre

There are various genres, or types, of legal writing. They illustrate again that legal language is not monolithic, but can vary substantially depending on the situation. Pleadings, petitions, orders, contracts, deeds and wills can be called operative legal documents because they create and modify legal relations. They tend to use a great deal of legalese. Expository documents are those that explain the law, including office memoranda, judicial opinions, and client letters. They tend to be in formal but standard English, with little legalese, except that they do use many technical terms. Especially judicial opinions have a fair amount of stylistic freedom, making use of metaphors and sometimes even poetry. Persuasive documents include briefs to a court and memoranda of points and authorities; their language is similar to expository documents. It is interesting and ironic to observe that documents drafted more directly for clients (operative documents like wills and contracts) seem to contain the most legalese, while those directed to colleagues within the profession (expository and persuasive documents) contain relatively less.

So What Is Legal Language Exactly?

Legal language has been called an argot, a dialect, a register, a style, and even a separate language. In fact, it is best described with the relatively new term sublanguage. A sublanguage has its own specialized grammar, a limited subject matter, contains lexical, syntactic, and semantic restrictions, and allows "deviant" rules of grammar that are not acceptable in the standard language. However we describe it, legal language is a complex collection of linguistic habits that have developed over many centuries and that lawyers have learned to use quite strategically.

Discussion:

- 1. How does the language of the law differ from ordinary speech and writing?
- 2. Do these differences enhance clear and precise communication, as lawyers typically claim, or detract from it?

Further reading:

- 1. Gail Stygail, *Trial Language*, John Benjamins B.V., 1994.
- 2. Judith N. Levi and Anne Graffam Walker (edited), *Language in the Judicial Process*, Plenum Press, 1990.
 - 3. John Gibbons (edited), Language and the Law, Longman Group UK Limited, 1994.
- 4. John Gibbons, Forensic Linguistics An Introduction to Language in the Justice System, Blackwell Publishing, 2003.
 - 5. John Olsson, Forensic Linguistics An Introduction to Language, Crime and the Law,

Continuum, 2004.

- 6. Malcolm Coulthard and Alison Johnson, An Introduction to Forensic Linguistics, Routledge, 2007.
- 7. David Mellinkoff, *The Language of the Law, Little*, Brown and Company, 1963.

Part Four Language in the Courtroom

Aim: To let students learn the features of language in the courtroom.

Teaching hours: 8 class hours

1. PLEADINGS: CONSTRUCTING THE LEGAL NARRATIVE

Narratives

A very general narrative structure, sufficient for our purposes, begins with some background information, continues with a chronological description of a series of events that leads to a problem or crisis. The narrative ends with the resolution of the problem or crisis.

Pleadings

The pleading stage, which begins a lawsuit, is where the plaintiff tells his story to the court. As a narrative, it is incomplete in at least two important ways. Unlike an ordinary story, which is asserted as truth, the story told in a complaint is merely alleged to be true; its truth remains to be established at trial. And it is incomplete in the sense that there has not yet been a resolution of the problem or crisis; this depends on the outcome of the trial.

The defendant can respond to the pleading in various ways: arguing that the story in the complaint is not legally adequate, or that the decisionmaker does not have the authority to offer a resolution (jurisdiction). Another option is to admit that the story is adequate, but to challenge its truth by denying the facts, or offering a counternarrative.

Pleadings tend to be extremely ritualistic in language. In medieval times, what mattered was not so much the content of a pleading as the words that were used; one slip could be fatal. Pleading remains formal and ritualistic, but currently the content has become far more important than the form.

Once the pleadings have determined that the plaintiff's story is legally adequate, the trial--to determine the truth--can begin.

2. TESTIMONY AND TRUTH

Many cases do not actually go to trial, but are settled. In criminal law, the settlement process is called plea bargaining, a process that can be quite informal and has developed a jargon or slang of its own.

When a case does not settle, it proceeds to trial. Various rituals signal that a trial is about to commence. The first order of business in a jury trial is the voir dire of the jurors. The search for truth can then commence. Most of the examples in the next two chapters derive from two murder trials, including that of O.J. Simpson.

Language Variation and Code-Switching in the Courtroom

Just as lawyers switch between language varieties when writing, they do the same when speaking in the courtroom. Normally, choice of one variety over another depends on the topic of conversation, or the ability of the hearer to understand a particular type of speech. Yet using a particular variety of language also has social implications in that we judge people by the language they use. Furthermore, use of a common variety of language can create a sense of group cohesion. Lawyers are inclined to use standard English in court when they wish to appear intelligent and competent, and regional varieties of English when they wish to bond with a jury.

Questioning of Witnesses

Witnesses come to court to tell their own story, which forms part of the larger narrative that is on trial. Although they generally prefer to tell their tales in narrative form, the legal system forces them to testify through a rigid question and answer format, which allocates control over testimony to the examining lawyer.

Direct Examination.

Direct examination generally begins with giving the witness an opportunity to present a very brief narrative. The examining lawyer then generally follows up with increasingly coercive or controlling questions, including wh-questions, which limit the witness to a brief response, or yes/no or alternative questions, which allow only two possible responses.

Lawyers use such questioning strategically, to ensure that all and only legally relevant facts are told, as well as to keep problematic facts from emerging, if possible. Careful questioning can also enhance precise communication by clarifying ambiguities in a witness's answer, or by asking the witness to explain unusual terminology.

Cross-Examination.

Cross-examination allows an even more coercive question type: leading questions. Such questions are not tied to any specific form, but have in common that they suggest a single answer. One function of such questions is to muddy the waters by undermining the clarity of the witness's communication during direct examination. Or they can be used to undermine credibility by eliciting a clear statement that can later be contradicted by other evidence, as Simpson's lawyers did during cross-examination of Detective Mark Fuhrman.

The Language of Questioning

Lawyers are well aware that if they wish to communicate effectively with the jury though questioning, they must generally use ordinary English, not legalese. Their language tends to be fairly formal, however, to convey to jurors that they are intelligent and competent. Out of the presence of jurors, as during sidebar conferences, lawyers tend to be less formal and may even use slang, perhaps to emphasize that although they are adversaries, they belong to the same profession.

Implications of the Questioning Process

Questioning is not a neutral and transparent process of obtaining information. Narrative answers are generally more accurate than fragmented responses, for example. The wording of a question can influence the responses given by witnesses, according to psycholinguistic tests. Research also confirms that leading questions can influence the recall of witnesses. While objections by counsel can limit these influences, suggestive questioning is particularly problematic when it is used to subtly coach witnesses, out of the presence of a jury or opposing counsel.

The way that questions are answered can also influence the perceived credibility of the witness, the examining attorney, or both. Witnesses who speak in a powerful style (using little hedging and hesitation, for example), as well as those who speak formal standard English, tend to be evaluated as more intelligent, competent, and truthful. This is especially problematic for witnesses who cannot easily change their speech style. Ironically, trial lawyers have become aware of the research and are attempting to incorporate it into their trial strategies.

Creating a Written Record

The testimony of witnesses is transcribed by a court reporter. It is not truly verbatim and complete.

One reason is that nonverbal information is not consistently included, although lawyers will sometimes ask that the record reflect nonverbal information. More troubling is that reporters sometimes "clean up" the language of lawyers and judges, to enhance their feelings of prestige.

As in other areas of the law, the written text of the record has become what matters once the trial is over, making the actual oral event virtually irrelevant in subsequent proceedings. Lawyers consciously try to create an advantageous record through their questioning strategies. And as with other written legal documents, the record tends to be interpreted as an autonomous text. Thus, in perjury prosecutions, courts fixate on the language of the record to determine whether a witness made a false statement, largely ignoring the speaker's actual intentions.

3. COMPLETING THE STORY

After the lawyers have produced evidence (largely testimony) to prove or negate the plaintiff's story, they make their summation or closing argument.

Closing Arguments

In closing, the plaintiff's attorney must weave together a complete narrative out of the disorganized fragments that were presented by various witnesses and other evidence at trial, much like a film editor. She must also persuade the jury that the story is true. Although lawyers tend to favor long lists of synonyms, for example, in closing they typically chose one or two that convey a sense or connotation that favors their strategic interest (as in calling an unborn child a baby in an abortion prosecution). They also use antonymy by contrasting one term with its opposite.

Although some lawyers use fairly formal standard English, they generally tend to be more effective if they use a somewhat more conversational variety. During her summation in the Simpson case, prosecutor Marcia Clark tried to bond with the female jurors by opening herself up and revealing her emotions, but was not really successful. Prosecutor Darden may have been somewhat more successful, carefully using second person pronouns to suggest that the murder victim, Nicole Simpson, was sending jurors a message from beyond the grave.

Defense attorny Johnny Cochran successfully personalized his client by emphasizing that he was Orenthal James Simpson, not merely the defendant. Like Anglo-Saxons of long ago, he used conjoined alliterative phrases (that the evidence was compromised, contaminated and corrupted) and rhyme (if it doesn't fit, you must acquit). Unlike Clark, Cochran successfully bonded with the mainly African American jury by invoking themes and images of the civil rights movement, and speaking like a preacher in a Black church. He used inclusive we to suggest a shared journey towards justice. Overall, by using relatively formal and standard English, he came across as well educated, while the subtle intonation and accents of a Black preacher allowed him to invoke group solidarity.

Instructing the Jury

In many proceedings, it is members of the public--the jury--who must decide the truth of the plaintiffs story. To some extent, the jury must also decide whether the story is legally adequate. Judges tell the jury how to go about this task by means of jury instructions. Unfortunately, most jury instructions are essentially written legal language, though presented orally, and thus do not communicate the law very well to the lay members of the jury. And judges seem to prefer formal language to appear objective by distancing themselves from other participants.

The reasonable doubt instruction is especially problematic; there is substantial evidence that jurors do

not understand it very well, in part because it tracks the language of an 1850 case. Unfortunately, judges are extremely reluctant to explain the instructions in ordinary language, treating them as sacred text, and generally rereading them verbatim if the jury inquires regarding their meaning.

Resolving the Conflict

Just as lawyers use stories to present their cases, research indicates that jurors use them to determine the truth. The "truth" determined by the verdict is not factual truth, however, but "declared truth," which governs all later legal proceedings. After this "truth" is established, the judge is in a position to complete the unfinished narrative of the complaint by offering a resolution (or denying one) in her judgment.

Discussion:

- 1. What is the process of a trial?
- 2. What are the language features in each stage?

Further reading:

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- 5. John Olsson, Forensic Linguistics An Introduction to Language, Crime and the Law, Continuum, 2004.
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Part Five Reforming the Language of the Law

Aim: To let students know the Plain English Movement.

Teaching hours: 6 class hours

THE PLAIN ENGLISH MOVEMENT

JUDGE: The charge here is theft of frozen chickens. Are you the defendant?

DEFENDANT: No, sir, I'm the guy who stole the chickens.

The premise behind the plain English movement is that legal documents ought to be plainer--and more comprehensible--to the average person. It's probably fair to say that the modern movement began in the 1970s. But people have objected to the obscurity of lawyer's language for many centuries.

The first major struggle in England was to get legal texts into English, the language of the people, rather than French or Latin. The problem largely arose when William, Duke of Normandy, defeated the Anglo-Saxon king Harold at the Battle of Hastings in 1066 and became king of England. William and his followers spoke a type of French. And their legal documents were mainly in Latin, and later also in French. English, in contrast, was the lower-class language of a subjugated people.

The vast majority of the English people had always been English speakers. Nor surprisingly, by 1422, the new king, Henry VI, was a native English speaker. Yet French did not die out among English lawyers. Au contraire, it thrived. Unhappiness about this state of affairs led to what might be considered the first plain English law: the Statute of Pleading, enacted in 1362. The law, written in French, recited that French was much unknown in the realm; it therefore required that all pleas be "pleaded, shewed, defended, answered, debated, and judged in the English Tongue."

An even sterner critic was Jeremy Bentham, who excoriated the language of lawyers as "excrementitious matter" and "literary garbage." Bentham advocated codification, in which all of the law would be systematically divided into codes on various topics. Individual parts of each code should be small enough for people to remember, and written clearly enough for citizens to know the "exact idea of the will of the legislator." Bentham argued that plain legal language is essential to proper governance. "Until, therefore, the nomenclature and language of law shall be improved, the great end of good government cannot be fully attained."

At about the same time, the newly independent American states were also engaged in trying to achieve the great end of good government. Some of the founding fathers were well aware of the problems with legal language. John Adams criticized English legal language and the "useless words" in the colonial charters. He hoped that "common sense in common language" would become fashionable. Likewise, Thomas Jefferson lambasted the traditional style of statutes,

which from their verbosity, their endless tautologies, their involutions of case within case, and parenthesis within parenthesis, and their multiplied efforts at certainty by saids and aforesaids, by ors and by ands, to make them more plain, do really render them more perplexed and incomprehensible, not only to common readers, but to lawyers themselves.

Unfortunately, the revolutionary fervor of the early Americans did not extend to overthrowing the

language of the law. They ultimately imitated the ponderous style of his Majesty's statutes, if not their substance.

A modern plain English movement did not really arise until the 1970s. David Mellinkoff's book, The Language of the Law, pointed out the many absurdities of traditional legalese. On a more practical level, Richard Wydick's Plain English for Lawyers has been widely used to teach law students the art of legal writing. In fact, plain English principles have been incorporated into the writing curriculum of most law schools.

The crusade to make legal language less convoluted and more accessible to average citizens has also resonated outside the academy. In the United States, some of the earliest efforts to improve legal language directed at consumers were initiated by the Federal government, beginning rather modestly in the 1940s. In 1978 President Carter signed an executive order that required that Federal regulations be "as simple and clear as possible." Federal law now requires clear, conspicuous, accurate, or understandable language in many types of consumer transactions, including the Truth in Lending Act, the Fair Credit Reporting Act, and the Magnuson-Moss Warranty Act.

Egged on by the consumer movement, the states also responded. New York enacted America's first general plain language law in 1978, and several states have followed. Most states now require straightforward language in specific transactions, especially insurance policies. Click here for a sample of state plain language laws.

After slowing during much of the 1980s, the movement has recently picked up steam. Some states are in the process of making their jury instructions more understandable, or have recently done so. The Securities and Exchange Commission has begun to require that the summary and certain other portions of prospectuses be in ordinary language. And the Clinton administration mandated in 1998 that federal regulations be written in plainer prose; in fact, it was part of their "reinventing government" initiative.

Statutory drafters have not remained oblivious to these developments. American legislative drafting manuals now advocate the use of plain language principles. One such manual recommends avoiding elegant variation, as well as legalistic terms such as such, said, aforesaid, and to wit. It also favors the active voice over the passive. These are, of course, standard guidelines for clear writing.

The movement has also taken root in English-speaking countries outside of the United States. At about the time that Citibank released its promissory note, the Australian Sentry Life Insurance Company, responding to a survey of its customers, produced a plain language insurance policy. The United Kingdom has the Plain English Campaign, started by a Liverpool woman who was fed up with unintelligible government forms. She took hundreds of the offending documents, proceeded to Parliament Square, and publicly shredded the lot. Her Majesty's government seems to have been sufficiently embarrassed; it soon began systematic revision of its forms. In addition, in 1999 the English court system implemented new rules of civil procedure. They received a fair amount of press attention because they had abolishes some time-honored legal terms for modern equivalents. A subpoena is now a witness summons, an in camera hearing is now a private hearing, and a writ is now a claim form. Even the venerable term plaintiff has been replaced by claimant.

Anyone who pages through a book of statutes will realize that we still have a long way to go. A statute is not something that the average person can readily understand. In fact, requiring that all statutes be understandable to the lay public is almost surely an unrealistic goal. As the world around us becomes ever more complex, statutes inevitably are becoming longer, denser, and more specialized. Arguably,

many statutes--such as those relating to bankruptcy, civil procedure and evidence, corporations, public utilities, the structure of government, and the military--are not directed to the general public at all, but are rather addressed to a subcommunity of experts. Few of these specialized subjects lend themselves to ready explanation to a lay audience. And often ordinary people may not care all that much, anyway.

Yet there are statutory areas that are of intense interest to the public. Examples include the criminal law, as well as laws relating to the family, divorce, community property, inheritance, employment, civil rights, landlord-tenant relations, and consumer protection. Surely ordinary citizens ought to be able to understand the rights conferred and obligations imposed by such statutes. At the same time, it may be that the law cannot or should not be stated too plainly. Lawyers often argue that important nuances would be lost if the law were stated in plain English. In addition, legal language facilitates communication within the profession; it might be very time-consuming the try to explain the entire law in fully understandable language.

One solution has been proposed by Paul H. Robinson, Peter D. Greene, and Natasha B. Goldstein, in an article entitled Making Criminal Codes Functional: A Code of Conduct and a Code of Adjudication, 86 J. Crim. L. & Criminology 304 (1996). They note that most criminal statutes have a dual audience: members of the public and adjudicators. They suggest that adjudicators can tolerate the complexity that is inherent in most current criminal codes, but that members of the public have a right to a criminal code that they can understand. In essence, there ought to be two criminal codes, one for the public and one for judges. The authors then proceed to offer a draft code of conduct that explains to the public, in plain English, what they can and cannot do, as well as a draft code of adjudication in legalese for judges and other professionals.

The interesting thing about this proposal is that it recognizes quite explicitly that legal language and ordinary English are, in a sense, two different languages. It suggests that perhaps the job of lawyers, who are essentially bilingual, is to translate legal language into ordinary speech. At the same time, I am somewhat reluctant to embrace the bilingual view, because it largely removes the pressure on the system to speak more clearly. A consumer about to sign a lease or to purchase a refrigerator on credit should not have to pay a lawyer to explain what the legalese in the relevant documents means.

There are certain categories of legal documents--particularly those that affect the rights and obligations of ordinary consumers--that should stated as plainly as possible. On the other hand, it is far less of a problem if agreements between large multinational corporations which are all represented by lawyers are impenetrable to the average consumer, although even these agreements can often be drafted much more clearly than they currently are.

It is more difficult to decide what to do with statutes. Realistically, we doubt that we will be seeing a plain English Internal Revenue Code in our lifetimes. On the other hand, it seems to me that it should not be that terribly difficult to improve the language of the criminal codes. Several American states have managed to craft relatively plain jury instructions, which explain the criminal law to jurors in ordinary language. If we cannot express the criminal law in ordinary English, how can we expect ordinary citizens to obey the law?

Overall, the language of the law is definitely better than it was twenty or thirty years ago. But there remains much room for improvement.

Discussion:

- 1. What makes legal language difficult to understand?
- 2. What is Plain English Movement?
- 3. Why should legal English be plain?

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《英语教学法》教学大纲

孙平华 编写

目 录

—,	前言	2
=,	课程教学目的和基本要求	2
三、	课程主要内容及学时分配	2
	第一讲(Unit 1): Language and Learning	3
	第二讲(Unit 2): Communicative Principles and Task-based Language Teaching	4
	第三讲(Unit 3): The National English Curriculum/Lesson Planning	6
	第四讲(Unit 4): Classroom Management	7
	第五讲(Unit 5): Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary	9
	第六讲(Unit 6): Teaching Listening	10
	第七讲(Unit 7): Teaching Speaking	12
	第八讲(Unit 8): Teaching Reading	13
	第九讲(Unit 9): Teaching Writing	14
	第十讲(Unit 10): Assessment in Language Teaching	16
	第十一讲(Unit 11): Learner Differences and Learner Training	17
	第十二讲(Unit 12): Fundamental Features of English Classroom Teaching	18
四、	相关教学环节	19
五、	复习与思考题	19
六、	拓展阅读书目	19

一、前言

英语教学法是英语专业选修课程。该课程以英语课堂教学的方法作为研讨的重要内容,是学生结合所学知识并运用知识与教育实践的一门应用型课程。

编写课程教学大纲可以有效地指导具体课堂教学,为课堂教学提供指南。从教学理念上、教学方法上、教学措施和计划上、教学管理上、教学技能的培养等多个方面提出明确的要求,有利于该门课程教学工作的顺利开展。

该课程采用由高等教育出版社出版的:《英语教学法教程》一书,由王蔷教授主编。本教程共分为12讲内容,即12个单元,讲授时间一般每个单元2课时,主要涉及到语言和学习、交际法和任务型教学法、国家课程标准和教学计划、课堂管理、教授语音、语法和词汇、教授听力、口语、阅读和写作、语言教学的评、英语语言课堂教学的基本特征、学习者个体差异及学习者培训、评价和改编教材等。

该课程教学大纲由中国政法大学外国语学院孙平华副教授编写。编写人员的基本概况如下:编写者系北京师范大学英语语言文学硕士,英国华威大学英语语言教学硕士,中国政法大学人权法学博士。现任中国政法大学副教授、英语语言文学研究所副所长、"大学英语研究中心"副主任、硕士生导师。主要研究兴趣:人权法学、应用语言学、英语教师职业发展论、课程与教学论。参与多项国家及省部级科研课题研究,主持国家社会科学基金后期资助项目等国家级科研课题三项。近几年在各类核心期刊发表中、英文学术论文 50 余篇,其中英语学术论文 8篇,法学类学术论文 15篇包括英语译文 4篇,7篇被中国人民大学书报资料中心《国际法学》、《宪法学、行政法学》和《中小学外语教学》全文转载。2006年担任全国外语教学专业委员会会刊——《中小学外语教育》(第1-5期)编辑部主任。2007年由高等教育出版社出版学术专著 1部:《聚焦英语教育中的教学与科研》。2008年应邀为英国著名出版社 Multilingual Matters Ltd.撰写英文学术论著。教学成果"大学英语'四位一体'教学模式的创新与实践"获得 2008年北京市教育教学成果二等奖。博士论文——《世界人权宣言研究》(全文 35 万字) 2010年申报首届《国家哲学社会科学优秀成果文库》,并被纳入"国家社会科学基金后期资助项目"。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

课程教学目的:能够说使学生掌握基本的语言教学知识,培养和发展基本的教学能力,为走向社会打下专业基础。

课程教学基本要求是: 1) 系统讲授英语教学法知识; 2) 初步培养学生的教学基本技能; 3) 实现教师和学生的互动和合作。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

每个单元2课时,共12个单元,共计24课时。具体内容如下:

第一讲 (Unit 1): Language and Learning

第二讲 (Unit 2): Communicative Principles and Task-based Language Teaching

第三讲 (Unit 3): The National English Curriculum/Lesson Planning

第四讲 (Unit 4): Classroom Management

第五讲 (Unit 5): Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary

第六讲 (Unit 6): Teaching Listening

- 第七讲 (Unit 7): Teaching Speaking
- 第八讲 (Unit 8): Teaching Reading
- 第九讲 (Unit 9): Teaching Writing
- 第十讲 (Unit 10): Assessment in Language Teaching
- 第十一讲 (Unit 11): Learner Differences and Learner Training
- 第十二讲 (Unit 12): Fundamental Features of English Classroom Teaching

附: 各讲的主要内容

第一讲 (Unit 1): Language and Learning

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this lecture we will discuss some general matters about language learning and teaching. We are going to discuss five questions in particular:

- 1.1 How do we learn language?
- 1.2 What are the common views on language?
- 1.3 What are the common views on language learning?
- 1.4 What makes a good language teacher?/What are the qualities of a good language teacher?
- 1.5 How can one become a good language teacher?
- 1.6 An overview of the course

2. Important and key points of this unit

- 1) Structural view
- 2) Functional view
- 3) International view
- 4) Behaviourist theory
- 5) Cognitive theory
- 6) Constructivist theory
- 7) Socio-constructivist theory

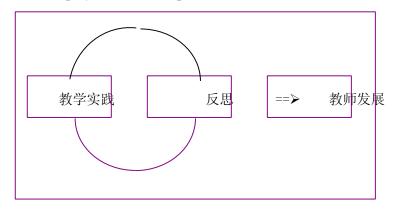
3. A good language teacher

Ethic devotion, professional qualities and personal styles (Parrot 1993)

Kind, creative, resourceful, well-prepared, accurate, caring, dynamic, patient, attentive, flexible, enthusiastic, disciplined, authoritative, well-informed, warm-hearted, intuitive, humourous, professionally-trained, hardworking, fair, reflective

(Adapted from Tasks for Language Teaching, Martin Parrot, 1993)

4. Teacher's professional development



循环反思模式

5. Tasks for students

The textbook provides us with 7 tasks.

- Task 1 Discuss about the table consisting of 10 questions
- Task 2 Brainstorming for the answers to Task 1.
- Task 3 Brainstorming the answers to the two questions relevant to the views on language learning and learning in general.
- Task 4 Work in groups. Reflect on your own learning experiences from early school years to the university.
 - Task 5 Work in group. Talking about ethic devotion, professional qualities and personal styles.
 - Task 6 Pair work. Discussing how one can become a professionally competent teacher of English.
- Task 7 Group work for students, talking about the reflective models for teacher's professional development.

第二讲(Unit 2): Communicative Principles and Task-based Language Teaching

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this lecture we will discuss the two most influential approaches in second/foreign language teaching in recent years. That is the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT). We will mainly focus on the following aspects:

- 2.1 Language use in real life vs. traditional pedagogy
- 2.2 What is Communicative Competence?
- 2.3 Implications for teaching and learning
- 2.4 Principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)
- 2.5 CLT and the teaching of language skills
- 2.6 Main features of communicative activities
- 2.7 Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)
- 2.8 PPP and Task-based Language Teaching
- 2.9 How to design tasks?
- 2.10 Appropriateness of CLT and TBLT in the Chinese context

2. Important and key points of this unit

- 1) Language use in real life
- 2) Traditional pedagogy
- 3) Communicative competence (competence vs. performance)
- 4) Linguistic competence
- 5) Pragmatic competence
- 6) Discourse competence
- 7) Strategic competence
- 8) Fluency

3. Principles of Communicative Language Teaching

- 1) Communication principle: Activities that involve real communication promote learning.
- 2) Task principle: Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning.
 - 3) Meaningfulness principle: Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.

4. Main features of communicative activities

The key assumption in CLT is that students learn the language through engaging in a variety of communicative activities. But what are communicative activities?

Littlewood (1981) introduced a classification of communicative activities as follows:

Functional communicative activities

- Identifying pictures
- Discovering identical pairs
- Discovering sequences or locations
- Discovering missing information
- Discovering missing features
- Discovering 'secrets'
- Communicative patterns and pictures
- Communicative models
- Discovering differences
- Following directions
- Reconstructing story-sequences
- Pooling information to solve a problem

Social interaction activities

- Role-playing through cued dialogues
- Role-playing through cues and information
- Role-playing through situation and goals
- Role-playing through debate or discussion
- Large-scale simulation activities
- Improvisation

5. Task-based language teaching

- 1) Definitions of a task
- 2) Four components of a task
- 3) Exercises, exercise tasks and tasks
- 4) PPP vs. TBLT

6. Five steps in designing tasks

- Step 1: Think about students' needs, interests, and abilities
- Step 2: Brainstorm possible tasks
- Step 3 Evaluate the list
- Step 4 Choose the language items
- Step 5 Prepare materials

第三讲 (Unit 3): The National English Curriculum/Lesson Planning

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this lecture, we are going to focus on the following topics:

- 3.1 A brief history of foreign language teaching in China
- 3.2 Designing principles for the National English Curriculum
- 3.3 Goals and objectives of English Language Teaching
- 3.4 Design of the National English Curriculum
- 3.5 Performance standards for different levels of competence
- 3.6 Challenges facing English language teachers
- 3.7 Why is lesson planning important?
- 3.8 Principles for good lesson planning
- 3.9 Macro planning vs. micro planning
- 3.10 Components of a lesson plan
- 3.11 Sample lesson plans

2. Important and key points of this unit

- 2.1 Different phases of foreign language teaching
- Foreign language teaching before 1978
- A phase of restoration (1978-1985)
- A phase of rapid development (1986-1992)
- A phase of reform (1993-2000)
- A phase of innovation from 2000
- 2.2 Designing principles for the National English Curriculum
- Aims for educating all students, and emphasise quality-oriented education
- Promote learner-certredness, and respect individual differences
- Develop competence-based objectives, and allow flexibility and adaptability
- Pay close attention to the learning process, and advocate experiential learning and participation
- Attach particular importance to formative assessment, and give special attention to the develop of competence
 - Optimize learning resources, and maximize opportunities for learning and using the language

3. Challenges facing English language teachers

For any educational change, teachers are the crucial factors as they are the agents for implementing the new ideas. Their contributions to and participations in the innovation are essential. Without their willingness, understanding, cooperation and participation, there can be no changes.

Faced with the new curriculum, English teachers are expected to change in many ways as follows:

- They are expected to change their views about language.
- They are expected to change their traditional role of a knowledge transmitter to a multi-role educator.
- Teachers are expected to use more task-based activities and put the students in the centre of learning.
 - Teachers are expected to use more formative assessment in addition to using tests.

• Teachers are expected to use modern technology in teaching, creating more effective resources for learning and for using language.

All these changes that teachers face will create a lot of emotional and professional pressure on the teachers.

4. Principles for good lesson planning

Lessons may have different focuses.

- Aim means the realistic goals for the lesson.
- Variety means planning a number of different types of activities.
- Flexibility means preparing some extra and alternative tasks and activities.
- Learnability means the contents and tasks planned for the lesson should be within the learning capability of the students.
- Linkage means the stages and the steps within each stage are planned in such a way that they are someway linked with one another.

5. Components of a lesson plan

- 5.1 Macro planning vs. micro planning
- Knowing about the profession
- Knowing about the institution
- Knowing about the learners
- Knowing about the curriculum/syllabus
- Knowing about the textbook'
- Knowing about the objectives
- 5.2 Components of a lesson plan
- Background information
- Teaching aims
- Language contents and skills
- Stages and procedures (PPP—Presentation, practice and production; 3-stage model: pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading)
 - Teaching aids
 - End of lesson summary
 - Optional activities and assignments
 - After lesson reflection

6. Assignment for learners: Write a sample of a lesson plan

第四讲 (Unit 4): Classroom Management

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this unit, we are going to discuss how language teachers can manage the classroom more effectively and efficiently. We will focus on the following:

- 4.1 The role of the teacher
- 4.2 Classroom instructions
- 4.3 Student grouping

- 4.4 Discipline in the language classroom
- 4.5 Questioning in the classroom
- 4.6 Dealing with errors

2. The role of the teacher

- Controller
- Assessor
- Organizer
- Prompter
- Participant
- Resource-provider
- Teacher's new roles

3. Classroom instructions

Classroom instructions refer to the type of language teachers use to organize or guide learning. They include giving directions to tasks or activities, providing explanations to a concept or language structure, setting requirements, checking comprehension, drawing attention, motivating learners, giving feedback, and assigning homework, etc. Generally they include all classroom language that teachers may use for teaching purposes as well as for managing teaching.

4. Student grouping

- Whole class work
- Pair work
- Group work
- Individual study

5. Discipline in the language classroom

- Discipline vs. indiscipline
- Maintaining discipline

Harmer (1993) suggests the following measures for indisciplined acts and badly behaving students:

- Act immediately
- Stop the class
- Rearrange the seats
- Change the activity
- Talk to the students after class
- Create a code of behaviour

6. Questioning in the classroom

Classification of question types:

- Knowledge
- Comprehension
- Application
- Analysis
- Synthesis
- Evaluation

7. Dealing with errors

Error and mistakes

- Dealing with spoken errors
- When to correct
- How to correct

8. Assignment: Additional reading material from 《中国期刊网》: /见孙平华,2005a,教师就学生语言错误应持的对策,《广东外语外贸大学学报》第 16 卷第 1 期,第 85-92 页。 (**Sun, Pinghua.** 2005a. Strategies for Teachers towards Learners' Errors.《广东外语外贸大学学报》16/1:85-92.)(注:广东外语外贸大学主办,**多学科综合性学术期刊。**)

第五讲 (Unit 5): Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this lecture, we are going to discuss how to teach grammar and vocabulary. In this part, we will mainly talk about the following:

- 5.1 The role of grammar in language learning
- 5.2 Grammar presentation
- 5.3 Grammar practice
- 5.4 Understanding vocabulary and vocabulary learning
- 5.5 What does knowing a word involve?
- 5.6 Ways of presenting vocabulary
- 5.7 Ways of consolidating vocabulary
- 5.8 Developing vocabulary learning strategies

2. Grammar presentation

- The deductive method
- The inductive method
- The guided discovery method

3. Grammar practice

- Mechanical practice
- Meaningful practice
- Using prompts for practice (such as pictures, mimes or gestures, information sheet, key phrases or key words, chained phrases for story telling, created situations)

4. What does knowing a word involve?

- What does it mean to know a word?
- Denotative meaning
- Connotative meaning
- Collections
- Synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms
- Receptive and productive vocabulary

5. Ways of presenting vocabulary

Vocabulary can be presented in many different ways:

- Try to provide a visual or physical demonstration whenever possible
- Provide a verbal context to demonstrate meaning

- Use synonyms or antonyms to show relations of words and their meanings
- Use lexical sets or hyponyms to show relations of words and their meanings
- Use word formation rules and common affixes to build new lexical knowledge
- Teach vocabulary in chunks

6. Ways of consolidating vocabulary

- Labelling
- Spot the difference
- Describe and draw
- Play a game
- Use word series
- Word bingo
- Word association
- Find synonyms and antonyms
- Categories
- Using word net-work
- Using the Internet resources for more ideas

7. Developing vocabulary learning strategies

- Review regularly
- Guess meaning from context
- Organize vocabulary effectively
- Use a dictionary
- Manage strategy use

第六讲 (Unit 6): Teaching Listening

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this use, we are going to discuss how to teach listening. We will focus on the following:

- 6.1 Why does listening seem so difficult?
- 6.2 What do we listen to in everyday life?
- 6.3 Characteristics of the listening process
- 6.4 Principles and models for teaching listening
- 6.5 The common activities in teaching listening

2. Why does listening seem so difficult?

A list of problems are reported by learners when listening to an English text:

- Quickly forget what is heard
- Do not recognize words they know
- Understand the words but not the intended message
- Neglect the next part when thinking about meaning
- Unable to form a mental representation from words heard
- Do not understand subsequent parts of input because of earlier problems

Listening can be more difficult than reading for the following reasons:

- Different speakers produce the same sounds in different ways
- The listener has little or no control over the speed of the input of spoken materials and accents, stress, rhythms, intonations, mispronunciations, etc.
 - Spoken material is often heard only once and in most cases, we cannot go back and listen again.
 - The listener cannot pause to work out the meaning of the heard material
- Speech is more likely to be distorted by the media which transmit sounds or background noise that can make it difficult to hear clearly

3. Characteristics of the listening process

- Spontaneity
- Context
- Visual clues
- Listener's response
- Speaker's adjustment

4. Principles and models for teaching listening

- Focus on process
- Combine listening with other skills
- Focus on the comprehension of meaning
- Grade difficulty level appropriately
- Principles for selecting and using listening activities
- Bottom-up model
- Top-down model

5. The common activities in teaching listening

- 1) Pre-listening activities
- Setting the scene
- Listening for the gist
- Listening for specific information
- Summary on pre-listening activities
- 2) While-listening activities
- No specific responses
- Listen and tick
- Listen and sequence
- Listen and act
- Listen and draw
- Listen and fill
- Listen and take notes
- Summary on while-listening activities
- 3) Post-listening activities
- Multiple-choice questions
- Answering questions
- Note-taking and gap-filling
- Dictogloss
- Summary on post-listening activities

第七讲 (Unit 7): Teaching Speaking

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this unit, we are going to discuss how to teach speaking. We will focus on the following:

- 7.1 Differences between spoken and written language
- 7.2 Principles for teaching speaking
- 7.3 Designing speaking tasks
- 7.4 Types of speaking tasks
- 7.5 Organising speaking tasks

2. Differences between spoken and written language

According to Bygate (1987), there are four common features of spoken language:

- Using less complex syntax
- Taking short cuts, e.g. incomplete sentences
- Using fixed conventional phrases / chunks
- Using devices such as fillers, hesitation device to give time to think before speaking

3. Principles for teaching speaking

- Balancing accuracy-based with fluency-based practices
- Contextualizing practice
- Personalizing practice
- Building up confidence
- Maximizing meaningful interactions
- Helping students develop speaking strategies
- Making the best use of classroom learning environment to provide sufficient language input and practice for the students

4. Designing speaking tasks

- Maximum foreign talk
- Even participation
- High motivation
- Right language level

5. Types of speaking tasks

- Controlled activities
- Semi-controlled activities
- Communicative activities
- 1) Information-gap activities
- 2) Dialogues and role-plays
- 3) Activities using pictures
- 4) Problem-solving activities
- 5) Other speaking activities
- 6) Find someone who ...
- 7) Change the story

8) Human scrabble

第八讲 (Unit 8): Teaching Reading

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this unit, we are going to discuss how to teach reading. We will focus on the following:

- 8.1 Reflecting on your own reading experiences
- 8.2 How do we read?
- 8.3 What do we read?
- 8.4 Strategies involved in reading comprehension
- 8.5 The role of vocabulary in reading
- 8.6 Principles and models for teaching reading
- 8.7 The common activities in teaching reading

2. How do we read?

Reading aloud and silent reading are two different types of reading practice:

- Reading aloud and silent reading
- What do effective readers do?

The effective readers

- 1) have a clear purpose in reading
- 2) read silently
- 3) read phrase by phrase, rather than word by word
- 4) concentrate on the important bits, skim the rest, and skip the insignificant parts
- 5) use different speeds and strategies for different reading tasks
- 6) perceive the information in the target language rather than mentally translate
- 7) guess the meaning of new words from the context, or ignore them
- 8) have and use background information to help understand the text

3. Strategies involved in reading comprehension

- Specifying a purpose for reading
- Planning what to do / what steps to take
- Previewing the text
- Predicting the contents of the text
- Checking predictions
- Skimming the text for the main idea
- Scanning the text for specific information
- Finding answers to posed questions
- Connected text to background knowledge
- Summarizing information
- Making inferences
- Using discourse markers to see relationships
- Identifying difficulties
- Critiquing the author

4. Principles and models for teaching reading

- Bottom-up model
- Top-down model
- Interactive model

5. The common activities in teaching listening

- Pre-reading
- 1) Predicting
- 2) Predicting based on the title
- 3) Predicting based on vocabulary
- 4) Predicting based on the T/F questions
- 5) Setting the scene
- 6) Skimming
- 7) Scanning
- While-reading

Example 1

Example 2

- 1) Purposes of transition device
- 2) Reading comprehension questions
- 3) Understanding references
- 4) Making inferences
- 5) Summary on while-reading activities
- Post-reading
- 1) Discussion question
- 2) Reproducing the text
- 3) Role play
- 4) Gap-filling
- 5) Discussion
- 6) Retelling
- 7) writing

第九讲 (Unit 9): Teaching Writing

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this unit, we are going to discuss how teachers can help students develop their writing skills. We will focus on the following:

- 9.1 What, why and how do we write?
- 9.2 A communicative approach to writing
- 9.3 Problems in writing tasks
- 9.4 A process approach to writing
- 9.5 Motivating students to write
- 9.6 Designing writing tasks

9.7 Using the Internet to promote process writing

2. What, why and how do we write?

On a day to day basis, we write many things, we write for various reasons, and we write in various ways. But are there any common things that we all have to write, common reasons for all of our writing, and common rules that we all should follow in writing?

Comparing writing in our English teaching classroom with writing in reality, it is easy to find two major differences.

- First, writing in ELT classroom is often seen as a means to consolidate language that is recently studied.
- Second, in the ELT classroom, especially in traditional pedagogy, writing often goes this way: the teacher gives a topic or a selection of topics, a set of requirements, and a time limit.

3. A communicative approach to writing

- Activity 1
- Activity 2
- Activity 3
- Activity 4
- Activity 5
- Activity 6
- Activity 7
- Activity 8

4. Problems in writing tasks

- They are mainly accuracy-based.
- They are designed to practice a certain target structures.
- There is insufficient preparation before the writing stage.
- There is no sense of audience.
- There is no sense of authenticity.
- Students are given ideas to express rather than being invited to invent their own.
- Many of them are test-oriented.

5. A process approach to writing

- Creating a motivation to write
- Brainstorming
- Mapping
- Free-writing
- Outlining
- Drafting
- Editing
- Revising
- Proofreading
- Conferencing

6. Motivating students to write

The following principles can help teachers motivate students to write:

• Make the topic of writing as close as possible to students' life.

- Leave students enough room for creativity and imagination.
- Prepare students well before writing.
- Encourage collaborative group writing as well as individual writing.
- Provide opportunities for students to share their writings.
- Provide constructive and positive feedback.
- Treat students' errors strategically.
- Give students a sense of achievement from time to time.

第十讲 (Unit 10): Assessment in Language Teaching

1. The teaching aims of this unit

In this unit, we are going to discuss how to conduct assessment in language teaching. We will mainly talk about the following:

- 10.1 Understanding assessment
- 10.2 Assessment purposes
- 10.3 Methods for assessment
- 10.4 Criteria for assessment
- 10.5 Assessment principles
- 10.6 Tests in assessment

2. Understanding assessment

- Testing
- Assessment
- Evaluation

3. Assessment purposes

- Administrators
- Teachers
- Parents
- Students

4. Methods for assessment

- Summative and formative assessment
- Teacher's observation
- Continuous assessment
- Self-assessment and peer assessment
- Project work
- Portfolios

5. Criteria for assessment

- Criterion-referenced assessment
- Norm-referenced assessment
- Individual-referenced assessment
- How to assess portfolios

5. Assessment principles

Assessment should:

- Assess authentic use of language in reading, writing, speaking, and listening.
- Assess literacy and language in a variety of contexts
- Assess processes as well as products
- Analyse patterns of errors in language and literacy.
- Based assessment on normal developmental patterns and behaviour in language and literacy acquisition.
 - Clarify and use standards when assessing reading, writing, and content knowledge.
- Involve students and parents, as well as other personnel such as the ESL or mainstream teacher, in the assessment process.
 - Make assessment an ongoing part of every day.

(Taken form Law and Eckes, 1995: 9)

6. Tests in assessment

- Ouestions and answers
- True or false questions
- Multiple-choice questions
- Gap-filling or completion
- Matching questions
- Dictation
- Transformation
- Translation
- Essay writing
- Interview

第十一讲 (Unit 11): Learner Differences and Learner Training

1. The aims of this unit

In this unit, we are going to discuss learner differences and learner training. We will focus on the following:

- 12.1 How learners are different?
- 12.2 What is learner training?
- 12.3 What can we do in learner training?
- 12.4 How can we help learners to become more autonomous?

2. Understanding learner difference

- Visual learners
- Auditory learners
- Tactile learners
- Kinesthetic learners
- Group learners
- Individual learners
- Authority oriented learners

Reflective learners

3. Gardner's theory about multiple-intelligence

- Verbal / Linguistics Intelligence
- Musical Intelligence
- Logical / Mathematical Intelligence
- Spatial / Visual Intelligence
- Bodily / Kinesthetic Intelligence
- Interpersonal Intelligence
- Intrapersonal Intelligence
- Naturalist Intelligence

4. Learner training in language teaching

Different scholars have different viewpoints about the contents and procedures of learner training in language teaching. Generally speaking, the following are some ideas which may be adapted in learner training:

- Involve students in an overview of the textbook at the beginning
- Involve students in finding out about themselves
- Introduce students to a number of different learning strategies
- Help learners set up their own learning goals and make their own plans
- Share lesson aims with students in class and review them by the end o the lesson
- Use learner diaries as a way to help student reflect on their learning Guide student to make plans for learning
 - Use portfolios to promote more autonomous learning
 - Help students learn to use resources

第十二讲 (Unit 12): Fundamental Features of English Classroom Teaching

1. The aims of this unit

Classroom teaching has currently become the essential part of English teaching, understanding of the essential features of English classroom teaching consists of the important section of English classroom teaching perspective. On the basis of literature review of the understanding of different scholars both from China and from abroad, the present paper focuses on exploring the following ten essential features of English classroom teaching:

2. The major components of this unit

- 11.1 Four key factors of classroom teaching;
- 11.2 Language input, intake and output in the classroom;
- 11.3 The relationship between teaching theory and practice;
- 11.4 Dynamic and ecological system of classroom teaching;
- 11.5 Teacher's roles and responsibilities;
- 11.6 Students' roles and responsibilities;
- 11.7 Cooperative relationship between the teacher and students;
- 11.8 Contextual factors of classroom teaching;

- 11.9 Purposes, planning and Flexibility of Classroom teaching;
- 11.10 General criteria for evaluating English classroom teaching.

3. The significance of exploring the features of English classroom teaching

The exploration into the features of English classroom teaching will help teachers to better understand the characteristics of English classroom teaching, to improve the quality and efficiency of classroom teaching, and to provide English classroom teaching in China with theoretical supports.

四、相关教学环节

该课程教学主要采取教授方式,同时使用课堂讨论包括双人活动、小组活动、教学展示等多种 形式。

五、复习与思考题

- 1. How do we learn languages?
- 2. What are the common views on language/on learning/on teaching?
- 3. How can one become a good language teacher?
- 4. What are the implications of CLT to teaching and learning?
- 5. How is Task-based Language Teaching different from PPP?
- 6. What are the designing principles for the National English Curriculum?
- 7. What are the components of a lesson plan?
- 8. How can teachers treat students' errors in the classroom?
- 9. How can teachers help the students to improve pronunciation?
- 10. What is the role of grammar in language learning?
- 11. What are the principles and models of teaching listening?
- 12. What are the typical types of speaking activities?
- 13. What are the principles and models for teaching reading?
- 14. What are the problems in writing tasks in existing textbooks and classroom teaching?
- 15. What are the fundamental features of English classroom teaching?

六、拓展阅读书目

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- 4. Grellet, F. 1981. Developing Reading Skills. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (该书 2000 年由人民教育出版社引进,书名为:《英语阅读教学》)
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《英语教育史》教学大纲

孙平华 编写

目 录

一、前言	
二、课程教学目的和基本要求	
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	2
第一讲:中国早期的外语教育(1840年以前)	4
第一节:我国早期国际交往概括	4
第二节:我国最早的外国语文学校	4
第二讲:中国近代的外语教育(1840年至1919年)	5
第一节:中国近代外语教育的历史背景	5
第二节 我国近代的外国语文学校	5
第三讲:新中国建立前出国留学及外国人在华办学对我国外语教育的影	影响(1870-1949)6
第一节: 出国留学	6
第二节:外国人在华办学	6
第四讲:新中国建立前三十年的外语教育(1919年至1949年)	7
第一节:建国前中国共产党领导下的外语教育	7
第二节: 国民党统治下的外语教育	7
第五讲:新中国外语教育的发展过程	8
第一阶段: 1949 年至 1956 年	8
第二阶段: 1957 年至 1966 年	
第六讲: 党和国家领导人对外语教育的关怀和指导	10
第七讲: 高等外语院系的外语教育	11
第一节: 概述	11
第二节: 教学计划	11
第三节: 教学大纲	12
第四节: 教材	12
第五节:师资队伍建设与研究生培养	12
第八讲:科学研究工作	
第一节: 学会与机构	
第二节: 刊物	
第三节:教材、辞书及各类译著	14
第四节: 教学理论与方法研究	
第九讲:公共外语教学	15
第一节: 教学目的与要求	15
第二节:师资与教材	15
第十讲:中小学外语教学与外国语学校的外语教学	
第一节:中小学外语教学	
第二节:外国语学校的外语教学	
第十一讲:业余外语教育	
第十二讲:对我国外语教育的展望	18
四、相关教学环节	
五、复习与思考题	
六、拓展阅读书目	19

一、前言

英语教育史是英语专业选修课程。该课程从外语教育的不同角度开展讨论,系统而较为全面地讲授我国英语教育发展历程,是学生结合所学知识并运用知识与教育实践的一门应用型课程。

编写课程教学大纲可以有效地指导具体课堂教学,为课堂教学提供指南。从教学理念上、教学方法上、教学措施和计划上、教学管理上、教学技能的培养等多个方面提出明确的要求,有利于该门课程教学工作的顺利开展。

该课程采用由上海外语教育出版社出版的:《中国外语教育史》一书,由付克著。本教程共分为 12 讲内容,即 12 个单元,讲授时间一般每个单元 2 课时,主要涉及到教学内容主要涉及中国早期的外语教育、中国近代的外语教育、建国前的外语教育、建国后前 30 年的外语教育、新中国外语教育的发展过程、党和国领导人对外语教育的关怀和指导、高等外语院系的外语教育、科学研究工作、公共外语教学、中小学外语教学、外国语学校的外语教学、业余外语教育、对外汉语教学、外语电教工作等。

该课程教学大纲由中国政法大学外国语学院孙平华副教授编写。编写人员的基本概况如下:编写者系北京师范大学英语语言文学硕士,英国华威大学英语语言教学硕士,中国政法大学人权法学博士。现任中国政法大学副教授、英语语言文学研究所副所长、"大学英语研究中心"副主任、硕士生导师。主要研究兴趣:应用语言学、英语教师职业发展论、课程与教学论、人权法学。参与多项国家及省部级科研课题研究,主持国家社会科学基金后期资助项目等国家级科研课题三项。近几年在各类核心期刊发表中、英文学术论文 50 余篇,其中英语学术论文 8 篇,法学类学术论文 15 篇包括英语译文 4 篇,7 篇被中国人民大学书报资料中心《国际法学》、《宪法学、行政法学》和《中小学外语教学》全文转载。2006 年担任全国外语教学专业委员会会刊——《中小学外语教育》(第1-5 期)编辑部主任。2007 年由高等教育出版社出版学术专著 1 部:《聚焦英语教育中的教学与科研》。2008 年应邀为英国著名出版社 Multilingual Matters Ltd.撰写英文学术论著。教学成果"大学英语'四位一体'教学模式的创新与实践"获得 2008 年北京市教育教学成果二等奖。学术论文——《世界人权宣言研究》(全文 35 万字)2010 年申报首届《国家哲学社会科学优秀成果文库》,并被纳入"国家社会科学基金后期资助项目"(批准号为 10FFX010),系中国政法大学参加国家首次《国家哲学社会科学优秀成果文库》评选中获准资助的唯一一项学术成果。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

课程教学目的: 能够说使学生掌握英语教育的基本发展脉络,系统了解外语教育的历史,增进对我国外语教育发展的理论、政策和教育实践的了解,为走向社会打下专业基础。

课程教学基本要求是: 1) 系统讲授外语教育史知识; 2) 培养学生的专业基本功; 3) 实现教师和学生的互动和合作。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

每个单元至少2课时(第7-18周上),共12个单元,共计24课时。具体内容如下:

第一讲:中国早期的外语教育(1840年以前)

第二讲:中国近代的外语教育(1840年至1919年)

第三讲:新中国建立前出国留学及外国人在华办学对我国外语教育的影响(1870-1949)

第四讲:新中国建立前三十年的外语教育(1919年至1949年)

第五讲: 新中国外语教育的发展过程

第六讲: 党和国家领导人对外语教育的关怀和指导

第七讲: 高等外语院系的外语教育

第八讲:科学研究工作

第九讲:公共外语教学

第十讲:中小学外语教学与外国语学校的外语教学

第十一讲: 业余外语教育

第十二讲:对我国外语教育的展望

每个单元2课时,共12个单元,共计24课时。具体内容要点如下:

第一讲:中国早期的外语教育(1840年以前)

第一节: 我国早期国际交往概括

我国与外国的贸易、文化和科技往来,早在公元前的秦汉时代就开始了。

在古代,我国对外交往途径主要是陆上和海上"丝绸之路"。

西汉的张骞和东汉的班超在我国历史上经由"丝绸之路"对国际交往做出了突出的贡献。

张骞两次出使西域,与中亚各地人民建立了友好关系,促进了经济和文化的交流与发展。

班超曾派甘英为使者出访大秦(及罗马帝国),虽因大海所阻,未能到达目的地,但却丰富了当时我国对中亚各国的知识。

西汉时,汉武帝派使者率领船队经雷州半岛,到达印度半岛的海岸,用中国的特产丝绸交换沿途各地的珍珠、宝石和其他物品。公元 266 年,叙利亚商人法比亚受罗马帝国的委派,乘船到中国,同东汉政府互赠礼品,这是中国通罗马帝国的第一次直接交往。

明朝郑和和侯显在通过海路同外国进行友好交往的历史上占有重要地位,两人在促进中国和亚非各国的仅仅文化交流中做出了重大的贡献。

通过陆上和海上"丝绸之路",我国四大发明相继传入世界各地,成为我国对于世界文明的四大贡献。同时,我国古代的哲学、文学、一书,乃至各种生产技艺也都传至世界各地。据文献记载,外国学生来中国留学自汉朝就已开始。唐代自贞观之治时期,由于国力强盛,教育发达,各国派遣弟子来我国留学的日益增多。

在文化交流过程中,宗教传入以及经书翻译占着显著的地位。玄奘、鸠摩罗什和真谛并称为我 国佛教三大翻译家,为我国翻译事业奠定了基础。

1728年,清政府在北京国子监下设立"俄罗斯学馆",根据俄国要求,汉、满族教师为俄国留学生教授汉、满语文及经史典籍。

天主教曾于元代传入我国,后中断,明末(十六世纪)又再度传入。

到了十九世纪,基督教新教教士来到我国。

总之,自公元二世纪至 1940 年鸦片战争爆发前的二千多年历史中,我国同外国的贸易、文化、科技交流史十分频繁的。在我国历史上,很早就有人精通外语。随郑和下"西洋"的马欢能"通译番书",哈三精通几国语言。可惜,那时人们是怎样学习外语的,怎样进行外语教学的,都没有史料可查。而作为专门培养外语人才的学校,据可靠史料,以元朝的"回回国子学"为最早。其后,则有明朝的"四夷馆"以及清初的"俄罗斯文馆"。

第二节: 我国最早的外国语文学校

- "回回国子学"
- "四夷馆"
- "俄罗斯文馆"

第二讲:中国近代的外语教育(1840年至1919年)

第一节:中国近代外语教育的历史背景

1840年中英鸦片战争之后,帝国主义列强邮箱中国陆续发动了英法联军战争(1857年)、中法战争(1884年)、中日甲午战争(1894年)和八国联军战争(1900年)。清政府被迫签订了一个又一个丧权辱国的不平等条约,使独立的中国一步一步地沦为半封建半殖民地社会。

从 1840 年鸦片战争至 1919 年五四运动前的八十年间,社会经济的不断变化,帝国主义列强的文化教育侵略,是中国的文化教育也跟着发生剧烈的变化。

鸦片战争前后,统治者态度的变化:从夜郎自大、闭关自守、盲目排外的政策,到了解和学习"西洋"文明,谋求振兴,巩固清廷统治。正是在这种背景下,外语教育才被提到了重要的地位。所采取的具体措施如下:

- 创办外国语文学校,培养外语人才,借以加强对列强的交涉。
- 开办各类理工科技学校,并把外语列为主课,让学生运用外语这个工具去学习西洋"测算之学、格物之理、制品尚象之术、治军之法",以求振兴。
 - 废科举,办学堂,广设外语课,借以培养"博通时务"、"具备艺能"的"通材"。

第二节 我国近代的外国语文学校

在中国近代教育史上,最先创办的新式学校大多是外国语文学校。最早的新式学校是 1862 年建立的京师同文馆,接着有 1863 年设立的上海广方言馆,1864 年开办的广州广方言馆。稍后,又有湖北自强学堂、湘乡东山精舍方言斋和京师译学馆等。

- 京师同文馆
- 上海广方言馆和广州广方言馆
- 湖北自强学堂
- 京师译学馆

外语课在近代各类学校的开设情况

- 洋务运动中各类学堂的外语课
- 维新变法后大中学校外语课的普遍设置
- 辛亥革命至五四运动之间的外语课

第三讲:新中国建立前出国留学及外国人在华办学对我国外语教育的影响(1870-1949)

第一节: 出国留学

自 1970 年至 1949 年全国解放前的八十年间,我国有成千上万的学生出国留学,足迹几乎遍及世界各地,其中以留美、留日者居多,留法、留苏也为数不少。

- 赴英留学
- 赴日留学
- 赴欧留学
- 赴苏留学

出国留学对我国外语教育的影响:

出国留学对发展我国的外语教育事业确实起到了不小的作用。

- 通过出国留学,学到了各国活的语言,改变了过去主要从书本学习外文的现象。
- 大批留学生归国后积极从事外语教育工作,出现了一大批做出了优异成绩的外语教育和 科研工作者(如朱光潜、林语堂、梁实秋、范存忠、陈嘉、钱钟书、吴景荣、王佐良、许国璋、李 赋宁、曹靖华、梁宗岱、季羡林等)。
- 非外语专业的留学生中,不少人回国后也从事教育和科研工作。他们大多采用外文原版书籍或使用外语授课,这对学生学习和掌握外语具有很大的助益。
- 留学归来的学者、专家们对我国翻译事业、中外文化的比较研究,也做出了贡献,例如瞿秋白、鲁迅、陈望道等翻译了许多世界名著和经典作品,如陈望道翻译《共产党宣言》等。严复在《天演论》(1898年出版)首卷的《译例言》中提出了著名"信、达、雅"翻译标准。鲁迅和瞿秋白总结的许多宝贵翻译经验和翻译标准,一直是我国外语教学(尤其是翻译教学)的重要教学内容。
 - 党和国家领导人对外语教育的重视和关注是我国外语教育事业蓬勃发展的重要动力。

第二节: 外国人在华办学

鸦片战争之后,帝国主义列强不仅在军事进行侵略、经济上进行掠夺之外,还在文化教育上进行渗透和侵略活动。

教会学校相继开办,形成了一个庞大的教育系统。教会中小学及大学的相继开设实现了有组织、有纲领地对中国进行教育侵略的活动。

教会大学有一个共同特点,可以概括为:"根在外国,全在教会,西人为主,外国方式"。

- 以上海圣约翰大学为例进行简要剖析。
- 以徐汇公学为例来剖析。

以教会中小学,施行奴化教育的同时,也不乏从事正常教育者,一些外国教育者也为我国的外语教育事业的发展做出过积极的贡献,如帮助编写了外语书籍、培养了外语师资和外语工作者等。

第四讲:新中国建立前三十年的外语教育(1919年至1949年)

第一节: 建国前中国共产党领导下的外语教育

在整个新民主主义革命时期,学习和掌握外国语,既是学习革命理论和革命经验的需要,也是 反帝、反法西斯斗争的需要。其中,我党在极其困难的情况下,开办了一些学校,培养了一批懂外 语的革命干部。外国语学社、上海大学、延安大学、延安外国语学校、东北民主联军总司令部附设 外国语学校等,在我国的外语教育史上都留下了光辉的篇章。

- 外国语学社(我党1920年在上海创办的第一所外国语专门学校。)
- 上海大学(中国共产党诞生后最早创办的培养革命干部的学校,该大学的外语课程有俄文、英文、德文和日文。五年中,上海大学造就了不少对民族复兴和共产主义运动极有贡献的人才和社会知名人士。它在中国教育史及中国外语教育史上均占有特殊的地位。)

抗日根据地的外语教育:

- 延安大学(是我党在革命根据地最早创办的一所综合性大学。)
- 延安外国语学校(是根据反法西斯斗争的国际形势而设立的,该校的培养目标比较明确,最初是培养军事翻译,以便同苏联红军联合作战。后来俄文系分为军事班和政治班,开设英文系后,有增加了培养外事翻译的任务。这为新中国创办新型外国语学校、培养懂外语的革命干部创造了十分宝贵的经验。)

解放战争时期解放区的外语教育: 东北民主联军总司令部附设外国语学校等

第二节: 国民党统治下的外语教育

- 中学外语教育
- 高校外语教育

1949年新中国成立前夕,全国共有205所高等学校(包括教会大学及解放区的高校,台湾省高校未统计在内。其中41所学校有外国文学(或英国文学)系科;10所学校设有外语(英语)师范系科;13所学校设有俄文系科(包括俄文师范科);1所学校设有东方语文系;1所需读小设有西方语文系;2所学校设法文系。

第五讲:新中国外语教育的发展过程

建国后,我国外语教育的大致经历了如下几个发展历程:

第一阶段: 1949 年至 1956 年

首先,为了向苏联学习,必须培养一批懂俄语的人才。1949年上半年,北京外国语学校创立。1953年我国开始执行第一个五年计划。1954年4月3日《关于全国俄文教学工作的指示》颁发全国。这是建国后第一次由政府发布的有关外语教育的重要文件。给文件规定:

- 一、俄文专科学校的任务是培养翻译干部(约占 70%)和一部分俄文师资(约占 30%),学习年限是三年。
- 二、各校教学计划要根据高等教育部颁发的三年制和四年制教学计划草案,结合本校具体条件加以规定和执行。
- 三、俄文专科学校、高等学校的俄文系、俄文专修科及其高等学校和高中的俄文课,一概采取循序渐进的正规教学方法,而不采取"速成"突击的方法。

四、高等学校应开设俄文课,但可根据各校、各系和学生的具体情况决定。

1956年4月高教部召开了高等俄语院校教学大纲审定会议,审定了俄语专业15门课程的教学大纲。同年12月,教育部颁发了高级中学俄语教学大纲(草案),高级中学俄语课本也于1956年前后编辑出版。

因此 1949 年至 1956 年是我国俄语教育迅速发展的 7年。经过这 7年的努力,俄语教育工作走上了正轨。

第二阶段: 1957年至1966年

1964年10月制定的《外语教育七年规划纲要》提出了发展外语教育的四条方针:

- 专业外语教育与共同外语教育并重。
- 学校外语教育与业余外语教育并举。
- 在学校外语教育中确定英语为第一外语,大力调整高等学校与中等学校开设外语课的语 种比例。
 - 在大力发展数量、调整语种比例的同时要特别注意保证质量。

正如为研究高等外语院系的教学改革问题,高等教育部于 1965 年 6 月 22 日至 7 月 6 日所召开的会议所指出的那样:十几年来高等教育取得了很大成绩,外语院系从 1956 年的 30 余所发展到 78 所,在校学生增加到 4 万余人,外语语种也从全国解放时的 12 种发展到 42 种。高等外语教育出现了朝气蓬勃的形式。

第三阶段节: 1966 年至 1976 年

"文化大革命"中外语教育受到了严重破坏。

第四阶段: 1976年至1985年(恢复阶段)

第五阶段: 1986 年至 1992 年 (快速发展阶段)

第六阶段: 1993年至2000年(改革阶段)

第七阶段: 2000年至今(创新阶段)

这几个部分(第四阶段至第七阶段,参考北京师范大学王蔷教授主编的《英语教学法教程》, 高等教育出版社 2006 年 5 月第二版,第 38 页。)

第六讲: 党和国家领导人对外语教育的关怀和指导

新中国的外语教育事业之所以有如此巨大的发展,这同我国党、政领导人的关怀和支持是分不 开的。

早在 20 世纪 20 年代初,中国无产阶级革命的先驱者们在凑见中国共产党的同时,就在上海创办了一所外国语学社,为培养早期的革命干部发挥了作用。

抗日战争时期,革命根据地延安,在党中央的直接关怀下,延安抗日军政大学第三分校俄文队在 1943年3月成立,同年9月又改为延安军事学院俄文科俄文大队。朱德总司令兼任军事学院院长。

1942年2月8日,毛泽东在延安干部会上做了《反对党八股》的讲话,再次谈到学习语言的问题。他说:"为什么语言要学,并且要用很大的气力去学呢?因为语言这东西,不是随便可以学好的,非下苦功夫不可。"

1944年初,周恩来副主席从重庆回到延安。当他听了俄文学校领导人的工作汇报后,当即指出不能只局限于培养俄文干部,眼光要放得远一些,要看到未来世界发展的趋势。他说,世界上多数国家用的是英文,英文干部将来大有永无之地,因而除了办好俄文系外,还应开办英文系。党中央根据这一建议于1944年4月将军委俄文学校改为延安外国语学校。

周恩来还专门为外国语学校推荐师资,提供教学材料等。

在解放战争期间,党中央也一如既往地十分重视外语教育工作,决定由周恩来副主席亲自抓这项工作。

1949年1月31日,北平宣告和平解放。毛泽东和当中要进入北京后不久,就将华北联大外专正式改为北京外国语学校。同年10月,在周总理的亲自关怀下,又建立起北京俄文专修学校。

新中国成立后不久,上海又建立了一所俄文专科学校,隶属于华东人民革命大学,这所学校也 是在党中央的亲切关怀下建立和发展起来的。

1949年秋,时任上海市市长的陈毅同志积极倡议兴办学校,培养外语人才。

我国的党政领导人对建国初期全国掀起的俄语学习高潮非常支持,他们在1951年国庆节出版的《俄文教学》杂志创刊号上都亲笔题了词。

刘少奇、周恩来、朱德、郭沫若都为该杂志题词。

毛泽东、朱德、周恩来都极为重视俄语教学工作,不仅指出大的发展方向,就是具体的事宜也给予高度重视,如全国俄文教学指导委员会的人选都是周恩来会同教育部、组织部、中共中央俄文编译局商定后批准任命的。

1962年,陈毅副总理对外语院系的学术还做了一次语重心长的谈话,全面系统地阐述了外语教育的方针政策、学习方法等。

1963年,周恩来总理和廖承志副委员长提出了远见卓识的建议——我国高水平的外语人才应该用"一条龙"的办法来加以培养,才能保证质量。从儿童开始就学习外语,能收到最好的效果,学到地道的外语,形成外语的思维能力和运用外语的习惯。因此,除北京外,还在上海、广州、重庆等十大城市分别建立了从小学三年级或初中一年级开始学习外语为主的外国语学校,对提高我国外语教育的质量具有很大作用。

新时期,李岚清副总理在外语教育发展方面发表了一系列的重要文章,对我国外语教育政策的制订发挥了重要作用。2004年他的《为了13亿人的教育》一书以英文版出版,系统里展现了我国外语教育的各个方面。

参见: 李岚清,《为了 13 亿人的教育》(Education For 1.3 Billion),外语教学与研究出版社/培生教育出版集团 2004 年版。

第七讲: 高等外语院系的外语教育

第一节: 概述

新中国建立前夕,全国 205 所高等学校中,有 62 所设有外语系科,所开设的语种总共不过十余种,主要是英、德、法、日、俄语,只有小部分人学习西班牙语、缅甸、越南等语言。

建国 35 年来,高等外语院系有了迅猛的发展,专门的外语院校 10 所,它们是:北京外国语学院、上海外国语学院、西安外国语学院、四川外国语学院、北京第二外国语学院、北京语言学院、广州外国语学院、国际关系学院、天津外国语学院和大连外国语学院。

设有外语(文)系的综合性大学、师范院校及理工科等院校 421 所。开设的外语种类 34 个,院校之多、语种之广,是旧中国所无法比拟的。

32 所综合性大学均设有外文系。

设有科技外语系科的理工科大学有11所。

开设的主要语种有英语(全国 321 所高等外语院系均设有英语专业)、俄语(1983 年调整后有 29 所院校)、德语(全国 21 所院校)、法语(25 所院校)、日语(40 所院校)和西班牙语(11 所院校)。

第二节: 教学计划

新中国高等外语院系十分重视:

- 政治思想教育工作,政治理论课余思想教育课贯穿在各个学年之中,使学生培养成为具有社会主义觉悟的、立场坚定的外语人才;
 - 课程设置、内容和教学方法强调少而精、学以致用;
 - 重视增强学生体质和身体健康,体育课及课外体育活动在教学计划中占有重要位置。

1955年起,全面学习苏联教育经验。通过向苏联学习,我们建立了新的教学体质和管理制度,稳定了教学秩序,制订了教学计划和大纲,编写了教材,培养了外语人才,建立了一直骨干队伍,为今后的正规化办学奠定了基础。但由于在向苏联学习的过程中,结合我国国情不够,因而也产生了一些消极的影响。

党的十一届三中全会之后,经过拨乱反正,外语教育出现了新气象。经过五年来的努力,可测很难过、教材、教学方法都有了很大的进步。1983年12月下旬,经教育部批准,基础阶段英语专业课设置讨论会在上海召开,会上就如何设置基础阶段课程提出了两种方案:

- 以精读课(建议更名为综合英语课)为主体,分设贩毒泛读、听说、语音、语法、写作等课程;
 - 以综合英语课为主体,由基础语言知识、基本语言技能和文化知识三类课程组成。

1983 年初,高校外语教材编委会英语编审组与中国英语教学研究会在北京召开了由 25 所高等外语院系代表参加的英语专业高年级教学座谈会。会议对高年级教学的主要任务及设置的指导思想,高年级的课程设置、教材、大纲、师资培养等问题进行了深入的讨论。

这两次会议对高低年级的课程设置都提出了很好的建议和方案。

第三节: 教学大纲

1980年8月河11月教育部先后在烟台和青岛召开会议,制定了一份《高等学校英语专业基础阶段英语课程教学大纲(修改稿)。该教学大纲提出了:

- 英语专业队新生入学的最低要求
- 经过基础阶段的训练,学生应达到的要求
- 教学内容
- 教学原则和方法
- 考查和考试

第四节: 教材

教材从完全依赖外人编写, 到中外联合编写, 再到建立我国自己的教材体系。

1961 年制订的外语教材编写的基本原则, 文科教材会议之后, 着重研究了和讨论了编写外语教材工作的几个关系问题。

我国第一套有影响的通编教材,就是许国璋教授主编的《英语》(1-4 册)。这套教材在我国英语教育界有很大影响,不仅英语专业,而且广大业余的英语学习者也都以它为主要教科书。至今,仍然是外语教学与研究出版社的主打教材之一。

十一届三中全会后,英语专业、俄语专业、德语专业、法语专业、日语专业等都编写了系统的 专业教材。这些教材从教学指导思想来看也有所突破。

第五节: 师资队伍建设与研究生培养

新中国建立以后,在培养新师资的具体工作上,当时的主要做法是:

- 开办师资班;
- 开办研究生班:
- 选拔一批有培养前途的高中毕业生和俄语本科生赴苏留学3至5年。

至于已在校任教的教师,则采取脱产进修或在职进修来帮助他们提高业务水平。

1957年以后,英语教学任务逐渐增多。到了六十年代,全国普遍恢复了英语教学,扩大英语教师队伍、提高其质量已成为急需解决的问题。解决的办法同样是选留毕业生充实师资队伍和通过各种途径提高认可教师的水平。另外,充分发挥英语专业老年教师的作用;充分发挥外国专家、外籍教师的特长。

第八讲: 科学研究工作

要提高外语教育水平,最关键的是师资的业务水平;而师资业务水平的提高,在很大程度上又取决于科学研究工作的开展。科学研究的目的是为了提高教学质量和学术水平,完成一定的科研任务,促进外语学科的发展,为实现四个现代化做出积极地贡献。高等学校的教师在完成教学任务的同时,必须积极参加各类研究工作,完成一定的科学研究任务。

教师在教学工作中遇到的新课题,可以通过科研工作予以解决,而科研成果又能不断补充、应用到教学之中,两者相辅相成,互相促进。另一方面,高校还要面向社会,为社会服务,对外语学科来说,如编写书籍、提供和翻译各种信息和资料,研究社会各类成员学习外语的特点并设计相应对策等。

旧中国的外语学科的科学研究工作很落后。新中国成立后,我国的高等学校开始重视科学研究工作。但外语学科的研究工作与其他学科相比还有很大差距。

从各校的研究项目看,主要有外国语言、语言学及语言理论、外国文学、外语教学法、辞书教 材编写、翻译理论、汉外对比、对外汉语、双语教学、地区及国别文化、比较文学、电话教学等等。 近年来外语研究也取得了巨大成绩。

第一节: 学会与机构

新中国成立后,为了适应外语教学事业发展的需要,在不同时期成立过一些学会:

- 全国俄文教学指导委员会
- 中国外语教学研究会
- 中国英语教学研究会
- 申国俄语教学研究会
- 中国法语教学研究会
- 中国德语教学研究会
- 中国日语教学研究会
- 中国西班牙语葡萄牙语教学研究会
- 中国公共外语教学研究会
- 申国中小学外语教学研究会
- 中国翻译工作者协会
- 高等外语院校教育研究协作组
- 中国教育学会外语教学专业委员会

除了全国性的研究学会之外,不少地区、省市构建了协会机构。今年各大学外语院系又建立起 了很多研究室或研究所或研究中心。外语教育研究的成果也越来越多、越来越好。

第二节: 刊物

解放前曾出版过一些外文刊物,主要语种有:英语、日语、世界语等。 新中华国成立后,我国出版的第一本外语刊物是《俄文教学》。文革后,随着外语教育的蓬勃 发展,各类外语类刊物如雨后春笋。

- 外国语言研究与教学类刊物
- 外国文学研究与翻译类刊物
- 其他类刊物

第三节: 教材、辞书及各类译著

1961年成立全国文科教材编审委员会,设外国语言文学专业组。

1980年经教育部批准成立了全国高等学校外语专业教材变身委员会几个语种编审小组,之后理工科公共外语教材编审委员会也相继成立。

1980年11月,经教育部批准,高等学校外语专业教材编审委员会成立,同时成立的还有理工科公共外语教材编审委员会及英语、日语、德语、法语、俄语、公共英语等六个编审小组。成立大会上规划教材四百多种,并落实主编单位、审稿与出版日期。这些教材将由商务印书馆、光华出版社、译文出版社、外语教学与研究出版社、上海外语教育出版社分别承担出版任务。

第四节: 教学理论与方法研究

我国的外语教学理论与方法研究取得了显著的成就。

- 开展应用语言学的研究
- 重新修订教学计划与教学大纲
- 开展大规模的语言测试(公共英语等级考试、出国人员外语考试等)

第九讲:公共外语教学

第一节: 教学目的与要求

关于公共外语教学目的、任务的正式提法,最早是在1953年。

长期以来,在公共外语教学界对公共外语教学目的、要求,以及达到目的、要求的途径和方法等问题,存在较大的分歧意见:

第一种意见认为,在中学外语基础没有大号打好基础的前提下,莫若继续打好基础,慢谈专业阅读。

第二种意见与第一种意见截然相反,认为科技人员和理工科学生学习外语主要是为了理解国外的科学技术,所以主要是阅读。

第三种意见介乎前二者之间。认为学生外语学习起点低,继续打好基础十分必要,但由于理工 科外语教学的学士少,因此必须有针对性地打基础。

1984年5月修订的公共英语教学大纲分六个部分(详细内容见教材):

- 教学对象、目的和要求;
- 教学安排;
- 各阶段教学要求;
- 关于公共英语教学的几个基本原则;
- 测试
- 教学组织

此外,该大纲还有语法结构表、意念表、语言技能表、基础词汇表等四个附表。

第二节: 师资与教材

师资与教材是完成公共英语教学的重要保障,我国现有的大学都开设供应公共外语课程,师资质量越来越好。今年来拥有硕士学位和博士学位的人数也增长很快。我国公共外语教学的质量和水平都有很大的提高。外语教材的出版也从无到有、从有到系统化,现在各类教材出现了一个大繁荣的局面。外语教学与研究出版社、上海外语教育出版社在出版、高等教育出版社、人民教育出版社等在外语教材出版方面做出了突出贡献(详细内容参见教材)。

第十讲:中小学外语教学与外国语学校的外语教学

第一节:中小学外语教学

我国中小学把外语作为一门正式课程列入教学计划,始于清光绪二十九年(1903年)。最初的外语教学课时比较多、教学方法以语法翻译法为主,侧重于阅读和翻译能力,所采取用的教材为旧日的外国课本或教会人士所编的书籍。

1922年实行"新学制",整个教育设施,从学制、学科、教材到教学法,由模仿日本为主改为模仿英美为主,至全国解放。这一时期中小学外语教学的特点是课时趋于减少、西方语言学、外语教学法的新理论对这一时期的中小学外语教学产生一定影响、外语教材品种较多、学生接触外语机会较多。

1949年建国以后,外语教学又可以大致分为若干个不同的阶段,这一点我们在前面的讲解中已经论及,这里不再赘述。

在教学目的与要求方面,建国后 60 多年来,也发生了巨大变化,进行了多次调整,尤其是党的十一届三中全会之后,1993 年新大纲之后,及 2001 年新课标颁布之后,新课标提高了教学要求,以适应新世纪社会需求和国际化需要。往年大纲修改与变化参考刘道义教授有关文献。

教学内容和教学用书与各个时期的教学目的和要求相适应,也呈现出不同的特点,中小学外语教材的出版(尤其是英语教材)以人民教育出版社做出的贡献最大。教材的编写、修订历程也可参考刘道义教授的有关文献。

中小学外语师资队伍建设一直是我国提高外语教学质量的重要环节,这方面也有许多问题值得研究,本人在《聚焦英语教育中的教学与科研》一书中对这一问题给予了关注,有几篇内容是关于教师职业发展内容的,也可以通过期刊网获取相关文献。

第二节: 外国语学校的外语教学

创建外国语学校也是根据国家社会发展的需要,由国家领导人提倡,教育部积极落实并在各地 兴办的一种办学形式。目前这一类学校仍在发挥着重要的作用。

- 周恩来和廖承志提倡"一条龙"培养外语人才
- 1959 年创办了北京外国语学院附属中学和1960 年开办了被机构是外国语学校
- 1961年4月教育部根据上级的指示,提出了"关于设立外国语学校的初步意见"
- 1963 年秋季分别在上海、广州、重庆、长春、西安等市创办了外国语学校各一所
- 目前,全国有外国语学校五十多所,北京有朝阳外国语学校、西城外国语学校、海淀外 国语学校、实验外国语学校等(外国语学校一览表)。

两个具体的案例:

- 北京外国语学院附校
- ▶ 上海外国语学院附属外国语学校

新课标中也为外国语学校的外语教学目标设定了灵活性要求,但在中学阶段这些要求要比一般中学高一些(以《英语课程标准》的新规定为例)。

第十一讲: 业余外语教育

建国以来,业余外语教育一项向受到社会的欢迎,它是整个外语教育的有机组成部分,是全日制外语教育的重要补充。业余外语教学的特点:

首先,业余外语教学是利用学院的业余时间进行教学;其次,学员未经过专业训练,语言实际运用基础不扎实;其三,业余教学时数比正规教育少。

● 夜校外语教育

采取的一系列措施:

- 一、做好思想政治工作,对学员进行学习目的性和艰苦性的教育,把学习目的与国家建设联系起来,使学员树立决心、信心和恒心,帮助他们正确处理工作和学习的关系;
 - 二、合理安排教学内容:
 - 三、扎实打好外语基本功;
 - 四、鼓励、支持学员组织课外互助活动小组;
 - 五、抓好教学管理工作,做到制度化。
- 一般说来,夜大学、业余大学、职工大学的外语教学质量尚有保证。而生活上出现的形形色色的外语补习学校、补习班,甚至私人办的额家庭教学班等,在师资质量上、教材教法上、收费标准上都存在不少问题, 有待加强领导和管理。
 - 外语广播和电视教学

中央人民广播电台在北京外国语学院、国际关系学院的协助下开办的英语广播教学,影响遍及全国。陈琳、申葆青等对全国英语广播教学都作出了十分有益的贡献。

中央电视台组办的《Follow Me》电视教学以及《星期日英语》、《星期日日语》、《法语入门》等,吸引了成千上万的观众。

1979年2月成立的中央广播电视大学,在其制订的教学计划中,规定电大毕业生也必须掌握一门外语。

在外语电视教学和外语广播教学中,除了前面提到的陈琳、申葆青等老师外,北京外国语学院的胡文仲、中央广播电视台的彭文兰、北京大学的郑培蒂、陈忠美、杜秉正、上海外国语学院的杨小石、徐百康、复旦大学外语系的徐祖琼、华东师大的翁贤青、上海师范学院的干凤仪等,都对业余外语教学作出了贡献。

● 高等外语教育自学考试

为了调动广大群众的学习积极性,通过多种途径发展高等教育,加速培养和选拔专门人才,更好地适应我国社会主义现在化建设事业的发展需要,教育部制订了《高等教育自学考试试行办法》,经国务院于1981年1月批准,先后在北京、天津、上海等地进行试点。

高等教育自学考试是由国家授权的单位举办的,是根据国家规定要求,经考试合格后,才承认 其学历,因此它属于国家考试,国家承认其学历。自学考试制度为广阔开辟人才培养的途径做出了 贡献,是鼓励广大群众尤其是青年人自学成才的重要措施,对提高全民族的科学文化水平发挥了重 要作用。

- 群众性的外语学习活动
- ——上海市人民公园的"外语角"
- ——汉口滨江公园露天英语学习班
- ——很多大学都设立周末"英语角",如中国人民大学"英语角"活动等

第十二讲:对我国外语教育的展望

1983年9月,邓小平同志为毕竟景山学校题词:"教育要面向现代化,面向世界,面向未来。"外语教育的根本问题在于提高教育质量、培养优秀人才。从发展方向上看,应做到以下几点:

● 坚持发展多语种教学

英语无疑是一个十分重要的语种,但仅开设英语这一单一语种是不够的,随着国际交流的日益频繁,各种语种都会派上用场,也都需要有相关人才,我国作为一个用重要影响的大国,必须坚持发展多语种外语教学。

● 改革课程设置,改变以语言文学为主的单一教学模式

教育改革对外语教学的课程设置提出了崭新的要求,改革课程设置对培养未来社会所需人才是十分必要的。要适应未来社会发展的需要,必须照顾的各个方面的发展需求,外语教育的目的是能够满足社会方方面面的需要。

切实抓好教学规格的制订和检测工作,调动师生教与学两个方面的积极性

外语教育成功与否主要的因素离不开教师和学生两个重要因素, 教师的教和学生的学都应该关注其积极主动性。

● 采取有力措施培养各种规格的外语师资,并抓好现有教师的进修提高

师资水平的提高在提高教育质量方面发挥着重要作用,因此提高外语师资水平仍然是摆在我们 面前的一件大事,必须抓紧、抓好。

四、相关教学环节

该课程教学主要采取教授方式,同时使用课堂讨论包括双人活动、小组活动、教学展示等多种 形式。

五、复习与思考题

- 1. 我国最早的外国语文学校有哪些?
- 2. 外语课在近代各类学校的开设情况如何?
- 3. 外国人在华办学对我国外语教育有何影响?
- 4. 建国前中国共产党领导下的外语教育?
- 5. 新中国外语教育的主要经历了几个阶段?
- 6. 党和国家领导人对外语教育的给予了哪些关怀和指导?
- 7. 高校外语院系的师资队伍建设与研究生培养情况如何?
- 8. 我国的教学理论和教学方法研究取得了哪些主要成绩?
- 9. 公共外语教学的目的与要求是什么?公共外语教学所使用的教材有哪些?
- 10. 论述我国中小学外语教学的教学内容与师资队伍建设。
- 11. 简述外国语学校的师资、教材及教学特点。
- 12. 业余外语教育的种类及其意义是什么?
- 13. 如何开展中外合作促进各国汉语教学?
- 14. 比较各级学校外语电教的情况异同。
- 15. 我国外语教育中教学与科研的关系如何?

16. 我国外语教育所面临的问题和解决的途径是什么?

六、拓展阅读书目

- 1. 付克著,《中国外语教育史》,上海外语教育出版社,1986年版。
- 2. 李传松,许宝发著,《中国近现代外语教育史》,上海外语教育出版社,2006年版。
- 3. 孙平华著,《聚焦英语教育中的教学与科研》,高等教育出版社,2007年版。

《英语测试》教学大纲

闫琛 编写

目 录

前 言		3
第一部分	英语测试概述	4
	[教学目的和要求]	4
	[内容提要]	4
	[教学重点与难点问题]	5
	- [拓展阅读书目]	
第二部分	考试功能及其类别	6
	[教学目的和要求]	6
	[内容提要]	
	- [教学重点与难点问题]	
		7
	- [拓展阅读书目]	
第三部分	- 考试要素	8
	[教学目的和要求]	8
		8
	- [教学重点与难点问题]	9
	- [拓展阅读书目]	9
第四部分	阅读测试	10
	[教学目的和要求]	
	- [内容提要]	.10
	[教学重点与难点问题]	10
	[复习思考题]	.10
	[拓展阅读书目]	10
第五部分	写作测试	11
	[教学目的和要求]	.11
	[内容提要]	.11
	[教学重点与难点问题]	.11
	[复习思考题]	.11
	[拓展阅读书目]	
第六部分	听力测试	12
	[教学目的和要求]	12
	[内容提要]	
	[教学重点与难点问题]	
	[复习思考题]	
	[拓展阅读书目]	
	口语测试	
	[教学目的和要求]	
	[内容提要]	
	[教学重点与难点问题]	
	[复习思考题]	
	[拓展阅读书目]	
	试卷设计	
	[教学目的和要求]	
	[内容提要]	
	[教学重点与难点问题]	16

[复习思考题]	17
[拓展阅读书目]	
第九部分 考试成绩分析(1)	
[教学目的和要求]	
[内容提要]	
[教学重点与难点问题]	
[复习思考题]	
[拓展阅读书目]	19
第十部分 考试成绩分析 (2)	20
[教学目的和要求]	
[内容提要]	
[教学重点与难点问题]	20
[复习思考题]	
[拓展阅读书目]	

前言

《英语测试的理论与实践》这门课程主要介绍了英语考试功能及其类别、考试要素、考试规范的制定、测试评估手段及其功能、阅读测试、写作测试、听力测试、口语测试、试卷设计与施考事项、考试成绩反馈、考试成绩分析,通过本课程的学习,让学生了解英语测试流程中的诸多环节,如考试的宏观,微观功能,考试总体设计,掌握单项语言能力的测试方法,包括命题,施考,考试分析及考试信息反馈。

第一部分 英语测试概述

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:了解语言测试的基本理论及近些年测试方面的发展动态,在教学中正确,恰当地使 用测试。

教学要求: 掌握语言测试的基本理论。

[内容提要]

一、四种英语语言测试法

There are four general approaches for English language test:

The first is the essay-translation Approach. It mainly has the following characteristics: 1. It does not require special skills and expertise, and relies mainly on the subjective sense of teachers. 2. Papers usually include translation, writing and grammar analysis and other projects. 3. Paper content with relatively strong literary or cultural features. 4. Questions are answered in writing—the general form of papers, and are marked by hand.

The second is structural / psychological measurement. It is based on the theory of structural linguistics, emphasizing that the different language components can be tested separately, such as voice, grammar and vocabulary can be tested separately from the context of the test. Its characteristic is the use of some methods of psychological measurement, and the typical form is multiple-choice questions, for statistical analysis after the test.

The third is the integrative approach. It has the following characteristics: 1. Language Test to be conducted in a certain context. 2. It dose not pursue individual distinction between the language composition, skills or capability, while emphasizing on the comprehensive assessment about two or more than tow aspects. Main types of questions are: Cloze, Dictation, Translation, Writing, and test of students' capabilities on grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension.

The fourth is the communicative approach. It has similarities with the integrative approach to some extent, that they all emphasize the meaning of language rather than language form and structure; the distinction is that the communicative approach emphasizes more language use in the communication process. Main features: 1. Exams are equipped with information gaps which enable students to obtain information about the unknown through the known information. 2. Test tasks have relations with the project (task dependency), that is, a project based on the completion of the previous one. 3. Examination emphasizes pertinence, to design the test content according to the specific needs of the students, such as some special-purpose English.

二、近20年的发展动态

In 1990 L. F. Bachman proposed a model of communicative competence in *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. That model is by far the most influential and landmark model for communicative language competence (Skehan, 1991), and the theory basis of the communicative English

language test design, the reference for the content of the Communicative English tests. It also introduces the types of the Communicative language tests.

Weir (1990) elaborated on the theoretical principles of the communicative language testing (CLT), and also introduced subject types. UK IELTS better reflected the principles of CLT. Authenticity and interaction are the souls of CLT. The communicative English test is much more complex than the traditional test, and it has higher requirements on the examination syllabus design, proposition design, grading personnel. Currently many of our English tests communication still have a great distance from the communicative English test. It is relatively well done in 1999, when our Examination Center in Ministry of Education developed the Public English Test (PETS) with the Cambridge University of England.

The direct test for meeting the communicative test requirements proposed challenges to the reliability of test. How to search for a balance point between validity and reliability, how to control the scoring reliability, score or rating system are questions to be answered by the communicative language test.

三、当代国内外大规模考试一览

China: PET-1,2,3,4,5 (Public English Test)

CET-4,6 (College English Test)

TEM-4,8 (Test for English Majors)

BEC-1,2,3 (Business English Certificate)

Outside China: TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language)

IELTS (International English Language Testing System)

GRE (Graduate Record Examination)

GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test)

LSAT (Law School Admission Test)

TSE (Test of Spoken English)

SAT (Scholastic Assessment Test)

TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication)

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点: 四种英语语言测试法 教学难点: 语言测试的基本理论

[复习思考题]

- 1. 英语测试领域里是否有不同的语言测试法?
- 2. 在过去 20 年中英语语言测试界所关注的热点有那些?

[拓展阅读书目]

陈军洲,《英语测试类型及原则概述》,黄石教育学院学报,2005年1期

第二部分 考试功能及其类别

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:关注考试广义上的作用和意义。 教学要求:掌握考试的功能及其分类。

[内容提要]

四、测量、考试与评估

The three concepts (testing, measurement & evaluation) are set with respective meaning.

Testing is the running of a system or a program against a predetermined series of data to arrive at a predictable result for the purpose of establishing the acceptability of the system or program. English Testing is one of key processes in English language teaching. Its purpose is to prove the success of English Teaching and learning, and also helps students to review their learning and learn more. Testing includes testing target, testing contents and testing approach.

Measurement in English testing is a means of telling learners what are their scores in the test and what level they have comparatively in a group or a unity.

Evaluation in testing refers to the explanation of the scores. It solves the problem of "How"---how are the scores? High, low, medium or else, in other words, in what degree they have learnt.

五、考试功能

In details, the functions are:

For students:

- 1. Teachers are encouraged to expatiate more clearly of their teaching object, and students are naturally and correspondently encouraged and improved.
- 2. Before the schedule of testing, students are required to review, consolidate, and comprehend what t hey have learnt. On the other hand, it also helps learners to revise their knowledge.
 - 3. Testing is also helpful for students together to compare and compete.
- 4. Self-evaluation after having known the scores by testing is also very useful for students to know the mselves to learn and improve gradually.

For teachers: testing is a feedback of their effect and efficiency in teaching, especially their teaching s kills and methodology, etc.

六、考试类别

Test categories are divided according to different standard.

For examples: according to the organizations from different countries, the tests can be divided into two main parts:

China: PET-1,2,3,4,5 (Public English Test)
CET-4,6 (College English Test)

TEM-4,8 (Test for English Majors)

BEC-1,2,3 (Business English Certificate)

America: TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language)

GRE (Graduate Record Examination)

GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test)

LSAT (Law School Admission Test)

TSE (Test of Spoken English)

SAT (Scholastic Assessment Test)

England: IELTS (International English Language Testing System)

Others: TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication)

IELTS (International English Language Testing System)

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点:考试的功能及其分类

教学难点:考试的功能

[复习思考题]

- 1. 教学过程中为什么要考试?
- 2. 除了教学外考试,还有其它用途吗?

[拓展阅读书目]

危捷,《大学英语四、六级考试制度改革研究》 2008 年 厦门大学: 高等教育学

第三部分 考试要素

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:了解评价与保证考试质量的六个方面 教学要求: 掌握保证考试质量的六个方面内容

[内容提要]

七、考试信度

Although there are different types of educational tests, no matter what kind of educational testing, the first requirement is reliable test results. That is known as the test reliability. Reliability refers to the accuracy or credibility of test results. Reliability reflects the stability and reliability of the index test. Statistic which indicates the size of the reliability is called the reliability coefficient, and its maximum is 1. The reliability index is generally based on the correlation between results of two tests, and it shows reliability of a test when reflecting the actual level of the tested subject.

The objectivity of scores has an impact on test reliability, because the reliability coefficient is based on the variance calculated from obtained score. If all exam questions are the objective type, and the scoring criteria is clear, the requirements are strict, then scoring is less susceptible to subjective judgments, and that helps improve the test reliability. But for the paper test or subjective type questions, standards of each rater measurement are not uniform, and are susceptible to other psychological factors. That will make the scores not that easily objective, and the reliability is not guaranteed.

八、考试效度

Test validity is the accuracy of the examination, which reflects the degree of agreement between examination content and the teaching or examination syllabus. A paper with high efficiency can accurately test degree of reality that the students master and apply the knowledge. Propositions are made under the syllabus or outline of the, and the scores of each unit item allocation an distribution of the number of study hours stay the same, presenting proportional relationship, which is the basis to ensure the test validity.

Factors which affect the validity include: whether reference and scoring standards made at the same time when proposition developed; whether collective marking and in routine practice; whether review is careful; whether scores are true and so on.

九、真实性

Authenticity, also known as validity, refers to the match degree between the measured value and actual value, so it is also known accuracy. The indicators for evaluating and screening the test authenticity are: sensitivity and false-negative rate, specificity and false positive rate, the correct index, likelihood ratio and compliance rates.

十、交互性

Interactivity is an important feature of contemporary examination. It refers to the extent and form of using personal characteristics in a process where candidates complete test task. How to improve the test interactivity in the test environment, thus helps effectively observe the candidate's actual ability, is the aspect with which the test design and development staff has always been concerned.

十一、后效作用

English test has dual roles of positive and negative. It can provide teachers with information on student learning, assess students' absorption of the learned knowledge in a stage, grasp the situation and also provide training opportunity for students, accumulate experience and skills for exam. But it is undeniable that it often brings students anxiety and guidance that scores are above all else, making students focus just on study of written knowledge while ignoring the practical application and exchange. These will mislead the teachers and influence students' overall development. By analyzing the role of the test aftereffect, we can improve the quality of language teaching, and enhance their English language proficiency.

十二、可操作性

Operability refers to the degree of principles, methods, and standards being specially implemented in the real production level. In English test, achievement of teaching goals, implementation of various forms of teaching methods, and all aspects have certain operability. Operability can be improved by making practical programs according to the actual situation, and it is the presentation of teaching staff's creativity.

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点:考试信度、考试效度 教学难点:考试效度

[复习思考题]

- 1. 在考试设计过程中我们应该注意那些问题?
- 2. 通过什么方法可以了解考试分数的可靠性?

[拓展阅读书目]

许有平,李伟彬,《英语测试的基本原则》考试周刊 2009 年 27 期

第四部分 阅读测试

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:了解阅读测试规范及阅读测试的拟题方法。

教学要求: 掌握阅读规范的制定方法及阅读测试的拟题方法。

[内容提要]

十三、什么是阅读

Reading is the process of obtaining information from written materials. Written

materials are mainly words, also symbols, formulas, charts and so on. First, words and symbols are changed into sounds, then to the understanding of the written materials. Reading is an active process, and it can be adjusted and controlled by readers depending on different purposes.

十四、什么是阅读能力

The so-called reading ability is the comprehension, analysis, generalization and association ability in reading practice and the following reading comprehension. Reading ability is not formed at once, but is gradually developed in a long-term process. As with other accumulation of knowledge, the cultivation of reading ability has a gradual process from lower to higher.

The so-called reading ability generally includes the four following aspects: first, the perceptual ability; second, the ability to understand the intrinsic relationship. Third, the appreciative understanding ability, also the evaluation ability. Fourth, the creative understanding ability. The first two belong to reading ability of the initial stage, and the latter two belong to the reading ability advanced stage.

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点:如何编制阅读试卷 教学难点:阅读能力的性质

[复习思考题]

- 1. 在拟阅读考卷之前我们应该注意那些方面?
- 2. 阅读材料选材时需要考虑那几点?

[拓展阅读书目]

矫永芹,《阅读测试中不同测试形式的效度对比研究》 2006 - 鲁东大学: 英语语言文学

第五部分 写作测试

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的: 学习写作测试规范的制定方法及写作测试的拟题方法。

教学要求: 掌握写作测试的拟题方法

[内容提要]

十五、什么是写作能力

Writing ability is the written expression ability, including: 1, clear presentation, letting people know the true intentions of writers; 2, well organized, and the reader does not need further refining and induction by themselves; 3, compliance with norms, such as documents, notices and the like; 4, writers' own feelings are expressed between the lines, such as the lyrical prose, poetry, etc.; 5, the text can cause resonance, making the reader feel the same way.

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点:如何编制写作试卷 教学难点:写作能力的性质

[复习思考题]

- 1. 什么是写作能力?
- 2. 在出写作考卷前应该考虑那些方面?

[拓展阅读书目]

修旭东,《英语写作测试中"理论效度"的理论依据模式》外语与外语教学 2002年11期

第六部分 听力测试

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的: 学习写听力测试规范及听力测试的拟题方法。

教学要求: 掌握听力测试的拟题方法

[内容提要]

十六、听力活动特点

Listening activities are complex psychological and physiological process centered on understanding of the semantic content, and are also the process where listeners transform the speaker's external language (audio language) into their own internal language (thinking).

Listening activities have the following three characteristics: 1, Intentionality. Listening activities are that language information stimulates the auditory nerve through the auditory organ, introduced into the brain center and absorbed. This is an orderly process, during which it firstly makes central nervous system in the brain come into being "advantage excitement centers", producing the intention of conscious attention.

- 2, Perceptibility. Listeners absorb the language information, but the process is absolutely not the same as a computer which mechanically accepts and stores all the incoming language information. It is a process of mental activity through and thinking and understanding of the contents of. Hearing must be accompanied by "know" and "know" is to understand. Without "know", listening activities will become meaningless.
- 3, Spatial and temporal nature. The activities of the listener constrained by the speaker, but the words of the speaker are fleeting, and also in certain circumstances, with a particular object. The listener does activities with the speaker's words and fully grasps the language information instantly. He focuses on the pertinence of the speaker's words, and quickly processes them to understand the speaker's words, thus he forms first memory points in the brain and

completes one listening activity.

十七、什么是听力

The constituent elements of listening ability:

- 1, The ability to recognize pronunciation and meaning: the listener can recognize and memorize the semantic content through the form of the speaker's voice.
 - 2, The ability to understand the meaning: to understand the meaning is a relatively complicated process. There are mainly two factors. First, the listener needs to understand the meaning expressed by a variety of sentences. Second, to be able to mix semantics, that is, the listener clears the language connections, summarizes key points of discourse, and grasps the discourse center according to the words by speaker.

3,The ability to assess the discourse: this ability is to make reasonable judgment on the basis of a comprehensive understanding of the speaker's semantic content, and having generated feelings for the heard words. It is also as the ability to identify right or wrong of the semantics and assess the performance of the language skills.

十八、听力命题有关事宜

The choice of listening material should follow the eight standards:

 \gtrsim language---the listening material should not be too difficult, but have some challenges, so that students can learn something after hearing.

Alength—the length is usually between half a minute to two minutes. If too short, it cannot provide sufficient time for students to be accustomed to the subject matter or the speaker's tone; too long, it will form a great pressure on students, making them easily distracted, impatient

\$\times\$ content—should be interesting enough to inspire students to search for knowledge and acquire information.

☆ the use of visual support material—can help students understand listening materials, especially some unknown subject matters

America, England, Canada, etc. This can make preparations for students to communicate with people from those countries.

\$\triangleq\$ the speed of delivery—the teachers should train the students to gradually understand listening materials at normal speed.

\$\times\$ spontaneity—the more spontaneous, the better. In this way the materials can have the characteristics belong to language.

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点:如何编制听力试卷 教学难点:听力能力的性质

[复习思考题]

- 1. 什么是听力?
- 2. 听力活动有什么特点?

[拓展阅读书目]

李晓光,《在英语听力测试中测量语言交际能力》 2007 - 东北师范大学: 外国语言学及应用语言学

第七部分 口语测试

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的: 学习写口语测试规范及口语测试的拟题方法。

教学要求:掌握口语测试规范的写作方法及口语测试的拟题方法。

[内容提要]

十九、什么是口语能力

Oral skills are composed by three types:

- 1. Micro-linguistic skills. They refer to the language forms, including: pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary and so on.
- 2. Routine skills. They refer to the typical skills of daily communication and delivery of information. These include:
- (1) The skills to use "greeting, thanks, apology, regret, opinions, wishes, complaints, advice" and other terms of daily communication.
 - (2) The skills to describe and narrate events, things and people, etc.
- 3. Improvisation skills. They refer to skills to solve problems and complete communication. For example, skills to clarify and verify special meanings, skills to alter wording, skills to correct the errors in interpretation and skills to ensure adequate participation in the interaction.

The micro-linguistic skills are the basis of the oral skills. People cannot do oral communication without certain knowledge of language structure, but still unable when just having language knowledge instead of knowing the rules of daily communication. Accidents always happen during communication, for example, the speaker is mistaken, the other side is not interested in the things you say, or the speaker is suddenly interrupted by someone, be asked to answer the questions raised by others and so on. Communicative adaptability in language communication becomes even more important.

二十、如何编制口语试卷

Teachers can make some orals papers suitable for the level of students, according to the status of students. Each oral test can be selected from these kinds of questions, made a combination of oral papers. Paper can be paper-based, multimedia courseware and combined with the questions from teachers on the spot. Students can make preparations in advance for the questions, or do a lot of practice, and also make reactions on the spot. Oral examination questions must be able to reflect the student's verbal ability and the real language communication skills.

二十一、如何评价口试

The standards of oral English marking can be roughly divided into two categories: overall score and. Overall score is based on the impression of candidates' content and capabilities, and the oral examiners will mark a grade or score in general. While analysis score separate the various components of the candidate's content of expression and ability, and then grade. Both methods have their advantages and

disadvantages. Better to use both standards, so that they can complement each other.

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点:如何编制口语试卷 教学难点:口语能力的性质

[复习思考题]

- 1. 什么是口语能力?
- 2. 口语活动有什么特点?

[拓展阅读书目]

覃朝宪,符存,《对英语口语测试真实性的多维分析》西南大学学报(人文社会科学版)2007年3期

第八部分 试卷设计

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:关注试卷设计或施考事项。 教学要求:掌握试卷设计的方法。

[内容提要]

二十二、考试设计

Here are some questions of the oral papers: (choosing questions according to the actual situation to compose papers every time)

- A. Self-introduction:
- B. Read the following words (ten taught, to examine the memory ability and study attitude; ten not have been taught, to examine the spelling ability and on-site response capabilities)
- C. Read the following sentences (exclamatory, questioning, and declarative sentences). The sentences are selected from the textbook, prompting some students to read the textbooks, but also including some extra sentences, to test how students deal with a new sentence.
- D. Chinese into English translation of the following (provide a number of oral sentences which are practical and commonly used).
 - E. Read tongue twisters.
- F. Read a short passage picked at random (a handout with 10 short passages issued one week in advance, and select from the passages at random. This can check the pronunciation, and also encourage students to do practice). Asking students questions about the contents of short passages (to know the real oral English level of students without preparation).
- G. To discuss a topic at random (students can be informed of the 10 topics one week in advance, so that the students can have time to practice). Students should answer the teacher's questions according to the subject discussed (to test the real oral English level of students without preparation). In addition to checking the effectiveness of teaching, all the tests have another purpose, and that is to promote the practice by test.
- H: Picture Talk: it can be a simple description of the picture, or to express their point of view about the content of the picture.
- I: Repeat what has been heard: Play a recording, which can be a fable story downloaded, or short passages recorded for students to hear. Students are asked to repeat or answer questions after listening. This can be done with English listening test.
- J: Provide students with a number of scenes, then the students can rehearsal and make dialogues in groups. The teachers mark respectively according to different performance of different roles

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点:考试设计 教学难点:试卷设计

[复习思考题]

- 2. 如何编排一张测试多技能的试卷?
- 3. 如果一个考试包括多种题型,应如何安排题型的顺序?

[拓展阅读书目]

白璐, 《用统计手段分析英语试卷质量》2007 - 大连海事大学: 外国语言学及应用语言学

第九部分 考试成绩分析(1)

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的: 学习如何对成绩反馈信息进行分析。

教学要求: 掌握通过对成绩的具体分析,得到量化信息反馈的方法。

[内容提要]

二十三、分数的集中量

Focus is to describe the central tendency of a group of numbers. Focus on measures of the can be used in comparison between different classes which participate in the same test. There are three types: mean, median and modal number.

Mean: the average, that is, the arithmetic mean of raw scores. Means are reliable, representative, easy to calculate, and easy to understand. The disadvantage is susceptible to the influence of extreme values, which makes detriment of its representation.

Median: the median is also called the median value or number. It refers to the middle score when the raw scores of all candidates are in alignment from the high to the low. If the number of candidates is even, then the median is taken from the average of the two numbers in the middle. The median is clear and free from the extreme values. Once the average value loss its representative because of the existence of the extreme values, the median can act as a representative value of this group of data. Its disadvantage is lack of sensitivity, and it cannot be calculated in algebraic method.

Modal number: also known as normal. It is the score which occurs most frequently of the original score. It is meaningful only when the number of tested students is large and obviously with central tendency. In the case when the number of tested students is small, there may be no modal number, or there could be two or more modal numbers. However, these situations appear less with the examinee population reduces. Therefore, in the normal condition, modal number of large-scale test is always the only one. The modal number reflects the central tendency with frequency, and is free from the extreme values. The more proportion its frequency has in the overall, the stronger its representation will be. Its shortcoming is less reliable to reflect central tendency than the mean, and cannot be moreover cannot calculated accurately in algebraic methods.

二十四、分数的差异量

The difference quantity is statistics to describe the degree of difference or the number of discrete trends of a number of scores. Focus is a point, and the scores are distributed around that point. While the difference quantity is a statistical distance which reflects the distance between the scores and a quantity or the center point. Only after knowing the difference quantity, can we understand the representative of the focus. The larger the difference quantity is, the less representative the focus is, and vice versa.

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点:分数的频数分布、分数的集中量

教学难点:分数的差异量

[复习思考题]

- 1. 如何对一组杂乱无序的分数进行初步整理?
- 2. 通过哪些方法我们可以得知分数分布的集中趋势或典型水平?

[拓展阅读书目]

金微敏,《英语专业四级考试等值化的优化设计》 2008 - 北京邮电大学: 外国语言学及应用语言学

第十部分 考试成绩分析 (2)

[教学目的和要求]

教学目的:学习从考试成绩分析中获取有关题目质量信息的方法。 教学要求:掌握从考试成绩分析中获取有关题目质量信息的方法。

[内容提要]

二十五、题目难易度

Difficulty is the degree of difficulty of questions. There are a variety of methods to determine the difficulty. When in the preparation of examination questions, generally the subjects are made moderate difficult. A question, if the tested students are all correct or all wrong, namely, the difficulty is 0 or 1, so that it become unable to distinguish the abilities. The closer the difficulty is to 0.5, the higher degree of distinguish it has. So the questions of 0.5 difficulty should be selected to form the papers of, but it is not absolute. If all the questions of a paper is 0.5 difficulty, the degree of distinguish will reduce as the questions are too homogeneous. Therefore, when choosing the questions, in addition to making the average degree of difficulty close to 0.5, but also making the difficulty of the questions properly dispersed. Actually, choosing the difficulty of the questions should also take the aim of tests into account.

二十六、题目区分度

Discrimination is the degree of distinction or the ability to identify of the tested items for the testees. There are a variety of methods to calculate the discrimination, and the common approach is grouping at both ends. It is to compare the ratio of passing the question at the high and low ends. PH and PL, respectively, assumed a high group and low group by the percentage of passing a question, then the following formula provides the discrimination indicator of the question: D=PH-PL. D is the discrimination indicator, and its value ranges between -1 and +1. If D=+1, it shows that the high scores group is all right, while the low scores group is all wrong; if D=-1, then it is a totally different situation: the high scores group is all wrong, while the low scores group is all right; if D=0, then two groups' ratio of passing the question are the same. Generally, if D is above 0.4, then it is fairly good.

二十七、选择项分析

Selection analysis is in terms of multiple choices. It is based on the analysis of difficulty and discrimination, and it helps teachers by providing them the reference information for modifying questions.

[教学重点与难点问题]

教学重点:题目难易度 教学难点:选择项分析

[复习思考题]

- 1. 如何了解具体题目的难易度?
- 2. 怎样来判断一道题目是否能区分不同水平的学生?

[拓展阅读书目]

赵淑芬,《关于 CET-6 听力试卷的结构效度研究》 2009 - 河北师范大学: 外国语言学及应用语言学

《语言学习理论》教学大纲

张洪芹 编写

目 录

一、前言	2
二、课程教学的目的和要求	2
三、课程主要内容及学时分配	
四、教学方法和教学形式建议	
五、使用教材	
参考文献	
Chapter One An introduction to language.	
Further reading	
Questions and exercises	
Chapter Two Grammar and linguistics.	
Further reading.	
Questions and exercises.	
Chapter Three Social context relevant to LLN.	
Further reading.	
Questions and exercises.	
Chapter Four the nature of language and language proficiency	
Further reading.	
Questions and exercises.	
Chapter Five The relationship between language and thinking.	
Further reading	
Questions and exercises	
Further reading	
Questions and exercises	14
Chapter Seven Acquisition and language learning.	15
Further reading	
Questions and exercises	17
Chapter Eight Theories of language learning.	18
Further reading	19
Questions and exercises.	19
Chapter Nine Learning strategies.	20
Further reading.	21
Questions and exercises.	
Chapter Ten The nature of language teaching.	22

一、前言

"语言学习理论"主要研究语言学习的心理过程与学习规律,属于一门跨学科的理论。它跟语言学、心理学、教育学、心理语言学、应用语言学和神经语言学等学科有着非常紧密的关系,涉及到各种不同类型的语言学习。语言学习理论的研究是一门实验性很强的应用研究。

"语言学习理论"是英语语言文学专业本科高年级学生的一门选修课,本课程学时为 36, 共 2 学分,开设一个学期。语言学习理论就是要解释"谁在怎样的条件下学习了何种语言到了什么程度"。该课旨在培养本科生运用英语进行社会交际的能力,培养学生分析和理解语言的能力,培养学生的创新思维能力;培养学生独立分析和解决问题的能力,为今后从事语言教学和研究打下良好的基础。

二、课程教学的目的和要求

本课程旨在使学生(1)理解语言学习的基本理论,力求贯通;(2)了解和掌握语言学习基本理论和各个分支流派的理念及原则;(3)提高学生对语言本质的认识,对人的认知能力和认知过程以及大脑功能的认知,因而对语言学、心理学、人类文化学、社会语言学、心理语言学、神经语言学等学科的发展,都有很大意义;(4)了解学习规律,自觉把握学习过程,有助于学生发挥自己的主观能动性,提高学习能力。语言学习理论的研究有语言学习理论研究的直接意义还在于提高语言教学的效果。"教"是为了"学",一切教学活动必须符合学习的规律,"教"与"学"一致起来才能取得好的效果。

本课程要求学生完成以下三个方面并以此综合评分: (1)上课出勤及课堂讨论(10%), (2) 作业(20%)和期末考试(70%)。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

课程的主要内容:第二语言学习中的输入与输出;语言学与语言学习:普通语法理论方法;第二语言学习的功能/语用视角;第二语言学习的认知理论方法;第二语言学习:社会文化视角;第二语言学习的社会语言学视角。

第一章是对语言的描述,包括语言定义、功能及结构,此部分是语言学习的语言学基础;第二章阐述语法和语言学的分支,这是学习理论各流派之理论基础;第三章介绍语言学习的社会环境,包括情景环境和语言环境,此部分投入了语言学习的语境视角;第四章解释语言学习的语言学视角,包括其结构、生成、功能、语用和认知视角;第五章讨论语言学习和思维之间的关系,涉及语言系统、过程、生产、理解、语言生成、习得和变异;第六章关于语言学习环境,心理、社会、文化、教育、个性、学习策略、习得;第七章主要阐述克拉申的五个假说,学得和习得假说、监控假说、自然顺序假说、输入假说、情感过滤假说,进而阐述其与语言学习的关系;第八章讨论语言学习理论,即行为主义、心理主义和人文主义;第九章是语言学习策略,学习策略的界定、分类、策略对学习过程的重要性以及学习者的因素;第十章概述语言教学之特性。

课程安排:本课程以每周一次(2课时)计,每学期36学时,包括2学时期中考试及6学时作业讲评。共讲授一个学期。

四、教学方法和教学形式建议

1. 教学紧密围绕"输入"与"输出"中心,结合语言学、应用语言学、心理学、神经语言学

等学科理论,加深对语言的认识; 2. 利用语言环境,建立课堂学习与自然习得相结合的教学体系; 3. 扩大学生的输入渠道,发挥学习者的主观能动性,提高学习者的语言交际能力。

五、使用教材

Mitchel l, R. & Myles, F. *Second Language Learning Theories*[M]. Oxford University Press, 1998. Brown, H. D. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, 3rdEd* [M]. N. J: Englewood Cliffs, Prentice - Hall, 1994.

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- 2. 侯冰洁、刘希彦,《英语教学方法论》[M], 吉林大学出版社, 2008年。
- 3. Bernard Spolsky. *Conditions for Second Language Learning*[M].Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000.
- 4. Bialystok, E. *A Ttheoretical Model of Second Language Learning*[J]. Language Learni ng ,1978(28): 69-84.
- 5. Brown, H. D. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, 3rd Ed* [M]. N. J: Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall, 1994.
 - 6. Krashen, S. The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications[M]. London: Longman, 1985.
 - 7. Leila Ranta et al. How Languages are Learned [M]. Oxford:Oxford University Press, 1993.
 - 8. McLaughlin, B. *Theories of Second Language Learning*[M]. London: Edward Arnold, 1987.
 - 9. Mitchel I, R. & Myles, F. Second Language Learning Theories[M]. Oxford University Press, 1998.

- W = I

Chapter One An introduction to Language	2 学时				
1. Definitions of language					
2. Function of language					
3. Structure of language					
Chapter Two Grammar and linguistics	2 学时				
1. Three kinds of grammar					
2. Branches of linguistics					
Chaper Three Social context relevant to LLN	2 学时				
1. Context or situation of language communication					
2. An analysis of speech events					
Chapter Four The nature of language and language proficiency	2 学时				
1. Structuralism					
2. Generativism					
3. Functionalism					
4. Pragmatism					
5. Cognitivism					
6. Language proficiency					
Chapter Five The relationship between language and thinking	2 学时				

1. The study of linguistic system 2. The study of linguistic process 3. Tthe study of linguistic production 4. The study of language perception 5. The study of language acquisition 6. The study of language variation 4 学时 Chapter Six Language learning environment 1. Linguistic 2. Psychological 3. Social 4. Cultural 5. Educational 6. Individual 7. Learning strategy Chapter Seven Acquisition and language learning 6学时 1. Krashen and his work in SLA 2. Key terms in SLA 3. Five components of Krashen's theory 4. Detailed analysis Chapter Eight Theories of language learning 6学时 1. Behaviorism 2. Mentalism 3. Humanism Chapter Nine Learning strategies 6学时 1. Definitions of language learning strategies 2. Taxonomy of language learning strategies 3. The importance of strategies to the learning process 4. Learner factors

Chapter Ten The nature of language teaching

1. Objectives of FLT

5. Language testing

3. Roles of teachers and learners4. Teaching Materials evaluation

2. Syllabus

4 学时

Chapter One An introduction to language

This chaper introduces some basic concepts and ideas in linguistic in relevance to Language Learning Theories (LLT)

1.1 Definition of language

Language has three fundamental ways: speaking, writing and gesture. The nature of language is listed as below:

1.1.1 Arbitrariness

The relationship between speech sounds and the meanings they represent in the languages of the words is, for the most part, an arbitrary one. The Swiss linguist de Saussure regarded the linguistic sign as composed of signifier (sound image) and signified (referent). In his view, there is no inherent relation between the two. A building we live in with our family is called *house* in English, *maison* in French, *dom* in Russian, *casa* in Spanish. If the relationship between speech sounds and meanings were motivated, the words in these languages that stand for the same thing would sound the same or similar, then people would not need to learn foreign languages.

1.1.2 Vocality

Language is defined as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication. Vocality refers to the quality or state of being vocal; utterableness; resonance; the vocality of the letters.

1.1.3 Symbolicity

Symbolicity is defined as the state, condition, and tendency of people to organize their perceptions and experience into symbols and symbol systems, while nativistic movement refers to the process and efforts by which an ethnic group returns to a more glorious time in their prior history and retrieves a symbol for contemporary use.

- 1.1.4 Duality: (1) structure of sounds → phonology
- (2) structure of meaning units → grammar

Language contains two subsystems, one of sounds and the other of meanings. The only function of sounds is to combine with one another to form units that have meaning, such as words. We call sounds here secondary units as opposed to such primary units as words, since the secondary units are meaningless and the primary units have distinct and identifiable meaning.

1.1.5 Productivity: rules(limited)----utterances---quality

The duality contributes greatly to the productivity of language. A large number of different units can be formed out of a small number of elements---for instance, tens of thousands of words out of a small set of sounds, around 48 in the case of the English language. And out of the huge number of words, there can be endless number of sentences, which in turn can form unlimited number of texts.

1.1.6 Creativity---quantity

Language is resourceful because of its duality and its recursiveness. It can create new meanings. The creativity of language partly originates from its duality. Because of duality the speaker is able to combine the basic linguistic units to form an infinite set of sentences, most of which are never before produced or heard. Language is creative in another sense, that is, its potential to create endless sentences. The recursive nature of language provides a theoretical basis for this possibility.

1.1.7 Cultural transmission

Language is not merely genetically transmitted from generation to generation. Children pick up their mother tongue in the processes of socialization. Animal communication systems are genetically transmitted. Admittedly, the capacity for language has a genetic basis, but the particular language a person requires or learns is a cultural fact, not a biological fact. As language is arbitrary and conventional, a child can only acquire his mother tongue through interacting with people around him.

1.1.8. Displacement language if free, not abound by time and space

Language can be used to refer to things real or imagined, past, present, or future. When we listen to news broadcast, we know what has happened far and wide in the world. What can be spoken is not limited by time and space, while animals can merely communicate about what happens here and now. The cleverest dog cannot bark to tell others how badly its parents were treated by their owner. This feature of language is due to the fact that the human brain is specially structured for language and that the brains of other species are not comparable in terms of the capacities of memory and abstraction.

1.2 Functions of language

1.2.2 Informative: to give information

For most people the informative function is predominantly the major role of language. Language is the instrument of thought. The use of language to record the facts is a prerequisite of social development. This is indeed an important function of language.

1.2.2 Interrogative: to ask for information

When language is used to obtain information, it serves an interrogative function. This includes all questions that expect replies, statements, imperatives etc., according to the indirective speech act theory, may have this function as well.

1.2.3 Expressive: to express speaker's ideas

The expressive function is the use of language to reveal something about the feelings or attitudes of the speaker. Subconscious emotional ejaculations are good examples, like "I'm sorry about the delay". While language is use for the informative function to pass judgment on the truth or falsehood of statements, language used for the expressive function evaluates, appraises or asserts the speaker's own attitudes.

1.2.4 Evocative: arouse feelings

The evocative function is the use of language to create certain feelings in the hearer. It's aim, for example, to amuse, startle, antagonize, soothe, worry or please. Jokes are supposed to amuse or entertain the listener. Obviously, the expressive and the evocative functions often go together.

1.2.5 Directive

The directive function means that language may be used to get the hearer to do something. Most imperative sentences perform this function.

1.2.6 Commissive

Commit the speaker (again in varying degrees) to some future course of action. Directives and commissives (which will informally be called requests and promises here) always deal with a future action. They differ in whether the action is to be taken by the speaker or the hearer.

1.2.7 Phatic

The phatic function refers to language being used for setting up a certain atmosphere or maintaining social contacts (rather than for exchanging information or ideas).

1.2.8 Performatory

This means people speak to do things or to perform actions. On certain occasions

the utterance itself as an action is more important than what words or sounds constitute the uttered sentence.

- 1.3 Structure of language
- 1.3.1 Phonological structure

Phonology studies the rules governing the structure, distribution, and sequencing

of speech sounds and the shape of syllables. It deals with the sound system of a language by treating phoneme as the point of departure.

1.3.2 Morphological structure

Morphology is concerned with the internal organization of words. It studies the minimal units of meaning—morphemes and word-formation processes.

1.3.3 Syntactic structure

Syntax is about principles of forming and understanding correct English

sentences. The form or structure of a sentence is governed by the rules of syntax. These rules specify word order, sentence organization, and the relationship between words, word classes and other sentence elements.

1.3.4 Semantic structure

Semantics examines how meaning is encoded in a language. It is not only

concerned with meanings of words as lexical items, but also with levels of language below the word and above it.

1.3.5 Textual structure

Text refers to the verbal record of a communicative act, either in written form or

in spoken form. The notion of text as a printed record is familiar in the study of literature. A text may be differently presented in different editions, with different type-face, on different sizes of paper, in one or two columns.

Further reading

- 1. Course in General Linguistics. Saussure, d. F. 外语教学与研究出版社, 2001。
- 2. General Linguistics. Robin, R. H.外语教学与研究出版社, 2001。
- 3. 《语言学教程》, 胡壮麟, 北京大学出版社, 1988。

Questions and exercises

What is language?

What are the functions of language? Please list examples.

Chapter Two Grammar and linguistics

2.1 Three kinds of grammar

2.1.1 Prescriptive grammar

Prescriptive grammar refers to the structure of a language as certain people think it should be used.

2.12 Descriptive grammar

Descriptive grammar refers to the structure of a language as it is actually used by speakers and writers.

2.13 Educational grammar

Educational grammar can be regarded as a description of the grammar of a

language made for teaching and learning purposes, to aid in the teaching and learning of that language, so pedagogical phonetics and phonology can be regarded as a description of the sound system and pronunciation of a language for the purpose of allowing teachers to teach it more effectively and learners to learn it more effectively.

2.2 Branches of linguistics.

2.2.1 General linguistics

General linguistics is concerned with human language as a universal and recognizable part of human behaviour and of the human faculties, perhaps one of the most essential to human life as we know it, and one of the most far-reaching of human capabilities in relation to the whole span of mankind's achievements. It includes a number of related subjects involved in the study of language such as descriptive linguistics, historical linguistics, and comparative linguistics.

2.2.2 Specific linguistics

2.2.3 Theoretical linguistics

Theoretical linguistics is the branch of linguistics that is most concerned with developing models of linguistic knowledge. The fields that are generally considered the core of theoretical linguistics are syntax, phonology, morphology, and semantics. Although phonetics often informs phonology, it is often excluded from the purview of theoretical linguistics, along with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. Theoretical linguistics also involves the search for an explanation of linguistic universals, that is, properties all languages have in common.

2.2.4 Applied linguistics

Applied linguistics concerns the application of linguistic principles and theories to language teaching and learning.

2.2.5 Synchronic linguistics

Synchronically linguistics refers to the study of a given language at a given time. Modern linguistics is mainly synchronic, focusing on the present-day language.

2.2.6 Diachronic linguistics

Diachronic linguistics is the study of language change through time. A diachronic study of language is a historical study, which studies the historical development of language over a period of time.

2.2.7 Microlinguistics

Microlinguistics is a branch of linguistics that concerns itself with the study of language systems in

the abstract, without regard to the meaning.

2.2.8 Macrolinguistics

Macrolinguistics includes psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistics and computational linguistics.

2.2.9 Prescriptive linguistics

Prescription aims to lay down rules for "correct" behavior, to tell people what they should say and what should not say.

2.3. Descriptive linguistics

Descriptive linguistic study describes and analyzes the language people actually use.

2.3.1 Phonetics and phonology

Phonetics studies the characteristics of speech sounds and provides methods for their description, classification and transcription. A phonetist is mainly interested in the physical properties of the speech sounds, whereas a phonologist studies what he believes are meaningful sounds related with their semantic features, morphological features, and the way they are conceived printed in the depth of mind.

2.3.2 Morphology and syntax

Morphology is the branch of grammar that studies the internal structure of words, and the rules by which words are formed.

Syntax is the study of the rules governing the ways in which words, word groups and phrases are combined to form sentences in a language, or the study of the interrelationships between sentential elements.

2.3.3 Semantics and pragmatics

Semantics refers to the study of the communication of meaning through language. Or simply, it is the study of meaning.

Pragmatics is the study of meaning that is not accounted for in semantics. The context of situation in which a sentence or utterance occurs means a lot to its meaning, which can hardly be explained by grammatical means or by semantic means.

Further reading

- 1. How to Do Things with Words. Austin, J., Cambridge, Harvard University. 1962.
- 2. Semantics. Lyons, J. Cambridge University Press. 1977.
- 3. 《简明英语语言学教程》, 戴炜栋等, 上海外语教育出版社, 1995。

Ouestions and exercises

What is the relation between phonetics and phonology; semantics and pragmatics?

What is the difference between diachronic linguistics and synchronic linguistics; prescriptive and descriptive linguistics?

Chapter Three Social context relevant to LLN

3.1 Context or situation of language communication: time, place, occasion, theme

There are two observable contexts: situational context and linguistic context. The following factors are closely related to the situational context, 1) the speaker and the hearer 2) the actions they are performing at the same time 3) various external objects and events 4) deictic features.

The linguistic context is another aspects of contextualism. It considers the probability of one word's co-occurrence or collocation with another, which forms part of meaning, and an important factor in communication.

- 3.2 An analysis of speech event: speaker, hero, message, channel, and code
- 3.2.1 Encoding (shaping your information)

Encoding concerns the idea, structure, sound effect, brain order tongue, speaking.

3.2.2 Transmission

This means that language is not biologically transmitted from generation to

generation, but that the details of the linguistic system must be learned anew by each speaker. It is true that the capacity for language in human beings has a genetic basis, but the particular language a person learns to speak is a cultural one other than a genetic one like the dog's barking system.

3.2.3 Decoding (understanding the message)

Decoding refers to the hearing, nervous system passes and selects, sound recognition, structures, analysis, meaning and intention.

Further reading

An Introduction to Language and Communication. 4th edn. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1984.

Questions and exercises

What is the function of encoding and decoding?

How do contexts or situations help contribute to the explanation of decoding?

Chapter Four the nature of language and language proficiency

4.1 Structuralism

Structuralism refers to the study of any language that regards language itself as an independent phonological, grammatical and lexical system.

4.2 Generativism-generative grammar was introduced and formulated in the mid-1950s by Noam Chomsky, who studies the similarities between languages rather than differences.

4.3 Functionalism

Halliday's systemic theory attaches great importance to the sociological aspects of language and views language as a form of doing rather than knowing.

4.4 Pragmatism

Pragmatics is an interdisciplinary international journal for discussing pragmatism, and applying pragmatism to current topics.

4.5 Cognitivism

Cognitivism has two major components, one methodological, the other theoretical. Methodologically, cognitivism adopts a positivist approach and the belief that psychology can be (in principle) fully explained by the use of experiment, measurement and the scientific method. [citation needed] This is also largely a reductionist goal, with the belief that individual components of mental function (the "cognitive architecture") can be identified and meaningfully understood. The second is the belief that cognition consists of discrete, internal mental states (representations or symbols) whose manipulation can be described in terms of rules or algorithms.

4.6 Language proficiency

Language proficiency or linguistic proficiency is the ability of an individual to speak or perform in an acquired language. As theories vary among pedagogues as to what constitutes proficiency, there is little consistency as to how different organizations classify it. Additionally, fluency and language competence are generally recognized as being related, but separate controversial subjects. In predominant frameworks in the United States, proficient speakers demonstrate both accuracy and fluency, and use a variety of discourse strategies. Thus, native speakers of a language can be fluent without being considered proficient.

Further reading

- 1. 《系统功能语法概论》, 胡壮麟、朱永生、张德禄, 湖南教育出版社, 1989。
- 2. 《西方语言学流派》,刘润清,外语教学与研究出版社,1995。
- 3. 《认知语言学概论》, 赵艳芳, 上海外语教育出版社, 2001。

Questions and exercises

What is speech act theory?

What are the meta-functions in systemic functional grammar?

What is a cognitive approach?

Chapter Five The relationship between language and thinking

5.1 The study of linguistic system

The connection between language and thought is profound. Language and thought are interdependent. Language is a regular part of the process of thinking. It is not a question of one notion taking precedence over the other, but of both notions being essential.

5.2 The study of linguistic process

Language is neutral to the thought which it conveys; it is merely a medium for transporting thought from one person to another, or as a tool for organizing and manipulating our rational thought. Language merely assists thought, just like a computer does to its user, and it can hardly be argued that they are interdependent.

5.3 The study of linguistic production

Linguistic production process roughly covers sentence production and discourse production in the area of speaking and writing. The productive skills are different in many ways. In order for communication to be successful we have to structure our discourse in such a way that it will be understood by our listeners or readers. Spontaneous speech may appear considerably more chaotic and disorganized than a lot of writing.

- 5.4 The study of language perception
- 5.5 The study of language acquisition

Acquisition is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon. First, there is a distinction between acquistion and learning, second, there is a disagreement about what kind of performance providing the best evidence of acquisition. It is for this reason that it is important to examine carefully the nature of the data used and the way in which acquisition has been measured, when reading reports of actual studies.

5.6 The study of language variation

Language variation covers various factors, mainly 1). class; 2) gender; 3) age; 4) ethnic identity; 5) education background; 6) occupation, and 7) religious belief.

Further reading

- 1. The relationship between language and thinking. Thomas Tsoi (02592751) *LIN 1001 Discovering Linguistics*
- 2. Language, thought and reality: Selected writings of Benjamin Lee Whorf Carroll (Ed.), Massachusette: The M.I.T. Press.

Questions and exercises

How does language vary in daily life according to your observation? What's the difference of learning and acquisition?

Chapter Six Language learning environment

6.1 Linguistic environment

Linguistic environments are two sorts: artificial or formal environments and natural or informal environments. The informal environments provide the necessary input for acquisition while the classroom aids in increasing learned competence. It seems plausible that the classroom can accomplish both learning and acquisition simultaneously. As a formal linguistic environment, providing rule isolation and feedback for the development of the monitor, and, to the extent language use is emphasized, simultaneously as a source of primary linguistic data for language acquisition.

6.2 Psychological

Individual psychological factor includes self beliefs and emotions, chiefly academic self-efficacy. School psychological environment shows two forms such as goal dimension and relationship dimension, self-consciousness. School psychological environment

6.3 Social environment

In everyday life, not all of our learning derives from direct participation (classical and operant conditioning). Social learning is a form of vicarious (= observational) (rather than direct) learning, which occurs as a result of observing both the behavior of others and the environmental outcomes of the behavior observed.

6.4 Cultural environment

Language learning is bound to culture. Initials that live in groups may have the opportunity to learn to recognize unfamiliar predators by observing the fright responses of experienced individuals in the group.

6.5 Educational environment

Teaching is transmission of knowledge from teachers to students. Students get models of language from textbooks, reading materials of all sorts, and from audio and videotapes.

6.6 Individual environment

This view implies that the character of an environment depends on the nature of its members and that the dominant features of an environment depend on the typical characteristics of its members, such as age, sex, socioeconomic status, abilities, group, memberships, physique, and other back-ground data.

6.7 Learning strategy

Learning strategies can be defined as behaviors and thoughts in which a learner engages and which are intended to influence the learner's encoding process. Thus, the goal of any particular learning strategy may be to affect the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge. Good teaching includes teaching students how to learn, remember, think, and motivate themselves. Teachers enter the classroom with two distinctly different kinds of goals which are teaching students "what" to learn and teaching students "how" to learn. Some major categories of learning strategies are: (1) rehearsal strategies such as copying, underlining, or shadowing; (2) elaboration strategies such as paraphrasing or summarizing; (3) organizational strategies such as outlining or creating a hierarchy; (4) comprehension monitoring strategies such as checking for comprehension failures; and (5) affective strategies such as being alert and relaxed. Many current approaches to classroom learning emphasize the role of the learner in creating, monitoring, and controlling a suitable learning environment. Learning

Further reading

- 1. Formal and Informal Linguistic Environments in Language Acquisition and Language Learning, *TESOL Quarterly*. Vol. 10, No. 2, 1976. Stephen D. Krashen.
- 2. Perceptions of the School Psychological Environment and Early Adolescents' Psychological and Behavioral Functionning in School: The Mediating Role of Goals and Belonging. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 88, No. 3, 408-422, 1996.
- 3. Cultural Transmission and Cultural Change Edward M. Bruner *Southwestern Journal of Anthropology* Vol 12, No. 2, 1956.

Questions and exercises

What are the social factors in language learning? How do social factors influence language learning?

Chapter Seven Acquisition and language learning

7.1 Krashen and his work in SLA

Dr. Krashen (1941-), linguist in educational research in University of Southern California, has published more than 350 papers and books, contributing to the fields of second language acquisition (SLA), bilingual education, and reading. He is credited with introducing various influential concepts and terms in the study of second language acquisition, including five Hypotheses. Most recently, Krashen promotes the use of free voluntary reading during second language acquisition, which he says "is the most powerful tool we have in language education, first and second."

His works include: *The Natural Approach—Krashen's (1983) Five Hypotheses, MA Applied Linguistics/TESOL*; *Stephen Krashen's L2 Acquisition Theory, Explorations in Language Acquisition and Use, Krashen's Critical Elements, Language Acquisition Theory and Its Application*, etc.

7.2 Key terms in SLA

7.2.1 The deference between language learning and acquisition(学习和习得的区别)

This hypothesis actually fuses two fundamental theories of how individuals learn languages. Krashen has concluded that there are two systems of language acquisition that are independent but related: the acquired system and the learned system.

The acquired system relates to the unconscious aspect of language acquisition. When people learn their first language by speaking the language naturally in daily interaction with others who speak their native language, this acquired system is at work. In this system, speakers are less concerned with the structure of their utterances than with the act of communicating meaning. Krashen privileges the acquired system over the learned system. The learned system relates to formal instruction where students engage in formal study to acquire knowledge about the target language. For example, studying the rules of syntax is part of the learned system.

7.2.2 Monitor hypothesis

The monitor hypothesis seeks to elucidate how the acquired system is affected by the learned system. When second language learners monitor their speech, they are applying their understanding of learned grammar to edit, plan, and initiate their communication. This action can only occur when speakers have ample time to think about the form and structure of their sentences.

The amount of monitoring occurs on a continuum. Some language learners over-monitor and some use very little of their learned knowledge and are said to under-monitor. Ideally, speakers strike a balance and monitor at a level where they use their knowledge but are not overly inhibited by it.

7.2.3 Hypothesis of input

This hypothesis seeks to explain how second languages are acquired. In its most basic form, the input hypothesis argues that learners' progress along the natural order only when they encounter second language input that is one step beyond where they are in the natural order. Therefore, if a learner is at step one from the above list; they will only proceed along the natural order when they encounter input that is at the second step.

7.2.4 Natural order hypothesis

This hypothesis argues that there is a natural order to the way second language learners acquire their

target language. Research suggests that this natural order seems to transcend age, the learner's native language, the target language, and the conditions under which the second language is being learned. The order that the learners follow has four steps:

- a. They produce single words.
- b. They string words together based on meaning and not syntax.
- c. They begin to identify elements that begin and end sentences.
- d. They begin to identify different elements within sentences and can rearrange them to produce questions.

7.2.5 Affective filter hypothesis

This hypothesis describes external factors that can act as a filter that impedes acquisition. These factors include motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. For example, if a learner has very low motivation, very low self-confidence, and a high level of anxiety, the affective filter comes into place and inhibits the learner from acquiring the new language. Students who are motivated, confident, and relaxed about learning the target language have much more success acquiring a second language than those who are trying to learn with the affective filter in place.

7.3 Five components of Krashen's theory

Krashen's theory is composed of five parts, acquisition and learning hypothesis, monitor hypothesis, natural order hypothesis, input hypothesis, and affective filter hypothesis.

- 7.4. Detailed analysis
- 7.4.1 Two independent systems for second language performance

Acquisition and learning cover two independent systems for second language

performance: Acquired system--- subconscious process--- prompt and natural ---expression of language for communication purpose: learning system--- conscious process--- well structural knowledge of L2.

7.4.2 Monitor hypothesis

It covers /encapsulates the relationship between acquisition and learning. Acquisition is the initiator for utterance and learning is the monitor editor. Three conditions for monitor to operate: ① SLA learner has sufficient time ② she focuses on form and correctness; ③ she knows the rule three ways of monitoring: a. pretalking: to plan the possible utterance; b. in –talking; to edit the possible form; c. post-talking: to check and correct.

Further reading

- 1. Formal and informal linguistic environment in language acquisition and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly* 10: 157-68.
- 2. Second language Acquisition and Second Language Learning. Krashen, S. 1978. Oxford: Pergamon.
 - 3. *Language and Mind. Psycholinguistics*. Aitchison, J. 1990. In N.E. Collige (ed.) An Encyclopaedia of Language. Routledge.333-370.

Questions and exercises

In what aspects does monitor work?

What's your view on Krashen's five hypotheses?

What is the positive interference in SLA learner's monitor and its impact on oral performance? (hints-pronunciation, vocabulary, morphology, syntax, appropriacy; different user: a. over-user: use monitor all the time b. under-user: reluctant to use monitor c. optimal user: use monitor appropriately 口头语和书面语表达时,笔头语全面监控。)

Chapter Eight Theories of language learning

Language learning theories are underlying various theoretical perspectives along a kind of continuum: behaviorism—mentalism—humanism.

8.1 Behaviorism

Stimulus-response psychology requires all behavior is viewed as a response to stimuli, whether the behavior is overt or covert. The process of habit formation, or conditioning, was thought to be of three basic types: Classical conditioning; Operant conditioning; Multiple-response learning.

8.2 Mentalism

Mentalist theories of language learning emphasize the learner's innate mental capacities for acquiring a language, and minimize the contribution of the linguistic environment.

8.2.1 Universal grammar

Universal grammar is a theory in linguistics that suggests that there are properties that all possible natural human languages have. Usually credited to Noam Chomsky, the theory suggests that some rules of grammar are hard-wired into the brain, and manifest without being taught. UG is the term often used by Chomsky for those aspects of the human brain which cause language to be the way it is (i.e. are Universal Grammar in the sense used here) but here for discussion it is used for those aspects which are furthermore specific to language (thus UG, as Chomsky uses it, is just an abbreviation for Universal Grammar, but UG as used here is a subset of Universal Grammar).

8.2.1.1 LAD

A highly influenced mentalist viewpoint grew out of Chomsky's work is that children are born with some kind of special language processing ability, called "language acquisition device" (LAD) as listed below:

- a. the ability to distinguish speech sounds from other sounds
- b. the ability to organize language into a system of structures
- c. the knowledge of what was possible and what was not possible in any linguistic system
- d. the ability of construct the simplest possible system based on the linguistic data to which one was exposed.
 - 8.2.1.2 The main premises of Universal Grammar
 - a. Language is a species-specific, genetically determined capacity.
 - b. Language learning is governed by biological mechanisms.
- c. The ultimate form of any human language is a function of language universals, a set of fixed abstract principles that are innate.
 - d. Each language has its own "parameters" whose "settings" are learned on the basis of linguistic data.
- e. There is a "core grammar", congruent with universal principles, and a "peripheral grammar" consisting of features that are not part of universal grammar.
 - f. Core grammar rules are thought to be relatively easier to acquire, in general, than peripheral rules.
 - 8.2.2 The monitor model

Karshen's Monior Model has enjoyed considerably wide discussion in language learning research. It consists of five central hypotheses: the acquisition learning hypothesis; the natural order hypothesis; the

monitor hypothesis; the input hypothesis; the affective filter hypothesis (cf. Chapter Seven)

8.3 Humanism

Second language learning is related to the personality and affective psychology of the individual. Language learning should be associated with an introduction to the ideas of humanistic psychology. Out of the notion that learners are at the center of the learning process, and that learning is a process of self-discovery, grew experiential learning, such as cognitive theory of education.

Further reading

- 1. Psycholinguistics: Central topics. Garnham, A. 1985. London Methuen.
- 2. 《生成语法理论》,徐烈炯,上海外语教育出版社,1988。

Questions and exercises

How does each discipline (humanism, mentalism, behaviorism) help language learning?

Chapter Nine Learning strategies

9.1 Definitions of language learning strategies

Many researchers who focus their attention on L2 learning strategies attempt to define L2 learning strategies in a variety of ways as listed in the table below.

Source	Definition
Stern 1983	'In our view strategy is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behavior.'
Weinstein and Mayer 1986	'Learning strategies are the behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process.'
Chamot 1987	'Learning strategies are the techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information.'
Rubin 1987	'Learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly.'
Oxford 1989	'Language learning strategies are behaviors or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable.'
Cook 2000	'Learning strategy is a choice that the learner makes while learning or using the second language that affects learning.'
Cohen 2000	'Learning strategies are the conscious thoughts and behaviors used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language.'
Nunan 2001	'Learning strategies are the mental and communicative procedures or techniques learners use to learn and use language effectively. I define learning strategies as explicit or implicit techniques or behaviors used by learners to facilitate language learning.'
Wen Qiufang 1995	'Learning strategies are seen as measures taken by learners to learn effectively.'

9.2 Taxonomy of language learning strategies

Language learning strategies can be classified into three categories — metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/affective strategies. They perceived that learners could control their own cognitive strategies effectively by coordinative metacognitive strategies. Cohen (1998: 65) also underscored that English learning strategies could be trained effectively with the support of teaching

contents.

- 9.3 The importance of strategies to the learning process
- 9.4 Learner factors:
- 9.4.1 Age: pre-school children, young school children, adolescents, and adults differing psychologically in their approach to second language learning
 - 9.4.2 Aptitude: the auditory capacity; the ability to establish sound- symbol relations; grammatical abilities; verbal memory
 - 9.4.3 Cognitive styles: field independence and dependence; reflectivity and impulsivity; broad and narrow category width
 - 9.4.4 Attitudes and motivation: attitudes towards the community and people who

speak the L2; attitudes towards learning the language concerned; attitudes towards languages and language learning in general

9.4.5 Personality: extroversion/introversion; social skills; inhibition;

Further reading

- 1. Principles of Language Learning and Teaching 4th edn, Brown, H,D. 2000.
- 2. Motivation—the teacher's responsibility? ELT journal 31/4.

Questions and exercises

What makes up learning strategies?

How do learner's factors influence his/her learning?

Chapter Ten The nature of language teaching

10.1 Objectives of FLT

Foreign language teaching attempts to specify what learners can do in the target language; to specify the linguistic elements necessary to carry out the tasks specified;

specify the level of proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing. They are arranged into five major goal areas, i.e. communication, cultures, connections, comparisons, and communities.

10.2 Syllabus

A language teaching syllabus involves the integration of subject matter (what to talk about) and linguistic matter (how to talk about it); that is, the actual matter that makes up teaching. Several distinct types of language teaching syllabuses exist, and these different types may be implemented in various teaching situations.

10.2.1 The structural syllabus

The structural syllabus concentrates only on the grammatical forms and meaning of vocabulary and therefore students are expected to accumulate pieces of vocabulary and grammatical rules, combine them into natural sentences. As a result, communicative incompetently is proved to be the major drawback .This is teacher-centered approach.

10.2.2 The notional/functional syllabus

The concept of notion refers to the meaning one wants to convey; function means that what one can do with the language. So in the case of Notional-functional syllabus, it focuses on the knowledge of language structures as well as the ability of using them in different situations. Obviously, the learner's motivation is highly stimulated because of close relation between the learning objective and the learner's personal needs. Despite of its merits, it has a number of disadvantages. It is impossible to make an exhaustive list of notions or functions, and it is very difficult to order them scientifically. In addition, there is no one-to-one relationship between notions\functions and language forms.

10.2.3 The situational syllabus

The situational syllabus aims to specify the situations in which the target language is used. This approach may still be teacher-centered, but one of main advantages is more participation get involved. However, since the situational syllabus relies on whatever linguistic description is available, and thus such a syllabus is essentially grammatical.

10.2.4 The Communicative syllabus

Communicative syllabus concentrates on the learners' communicative competence. Based on notional-functional syllabus, it teaches needed languages in different functions, meanwhile emphasize the process of communication.

10.2.5 The skill-based syllabus

Writing is an important skill that students should grasp in learning English, but the teaching and learning of writing is a difficult task. To teach freshmen with little knowledge of writing is extremely difficult. However, the skill-based syllabus is of great usefulness. It enables students to master the very basic writing skill, which helps them to keep pace with the writing requirements assigned by the textbooks, and to improve their overall writing skills so as to fulfill the requirements by the national College English Curriculum.

10.2.6 The task-based syllabus

The task-based syllabus refers to the selecting and grading of content. Task-based syllabuses are constructed with varieties of tasks as the basic blocks, focusing on using the target language in real world rather than drilling on the isolate grammatical items.

10.3 Roles of teachers and learners

It is the roles that teachers and learners adopt that control the nature of the linguistic environment in the classroom. The effects of role choice and distribution are potentially of great importance in the language teaching-learning process: the teacher as controller; the teacher as director; the teacher as manager; the teacher as facilitator; the teacher as resource; the student as resister; the student as receptacle; the student as raw material; the student as democratic explorer.

- 10.4 Teaching Materials evaluation
- 10.4.1 The role of teaching materials

Teaching materials play a crucial role in teaching-learning. When these take the form of a textbook it is essential that the textbook be carefully selected to meet both external requirements and the needs of the teachers.

- 10.4.2 Guidelines for teaching materials evaluation
- 10.5 Language testing
- 10.5.1 Types of test: placement tests; diagnostic tests; progress tests; course tests; proficiency tests
- 10.5.2 Validity and reliability of testing

A valid test of reading ability is one that actually measures reading ability and not 20/20 vision, previous knowledge in a subject, or some other variable of questionable relevance. Reliability test is a test that is consistent and dependable. Sources of unreliability may lie in the test itself or in the scoring of the test, known respectively as test reliability and rater (or scorer) reliability.

Questions and discussion

- 1. 第二语言的学习策略及其分析
- 2. 听力中的翻译隐性干扰
- 3. 二语阅读过程中的语篇分析与二语阅读
- 4. 二语习得中词汇和语义的变差
- 5. 第二语言的接受过程及其心理背景
- 6. 心理语言学与语言教学
- 7. 口语交际过程中的语用制约
- 8. 第二语言交际过程的分析
- 9. 非线性的语篇模式和阅读理解
- 10. 二语学习者的写作与语篇意识
- 11. 语篇中的联合手段对阅读理解的影响
- 12. 二语学习者认知语境因素和口头表达的偏差
- 13. 课堂交互现象的格式及其对学习者参与的影响.
- 14. 语言与思维的关系----母语思维与二语习得的关系(社会距离,心理距离)
- 15. 学习成就与外语习得的策略关系(元认知,认知,和社会情感)
- 16. 第二语言的轮替转换对学习的影响

《商务英语》教学大纲

张和军 编写

目 录

2
2
2
2
4
5
7
9
11
13
15
17
20
22
25
28
30
32
34

一、课程说明

- 1.课程代码: 408001042
- 2.课程中文名称: 商务英语
- 3.课程英文名称: Commercial English
- 4.课程总学时数: 36
- 5.课程学分数: 2
- 6.授课对象: 英语专业二年级学生第学期。商务英语是中国政法大学外语学院面向英语专业本科二年级同学开设的选修课程。大学英语完成四级以上课程学习的本科学生。

二、教学目的:

了解商务知识;理解商务英语中涉及的商务理念;提高学习者在经济贸易和商务活动的一般工作环境中使用英语的能力(听、说、读、写);掌握国际商务写作格式和惯例;掌握国际商务交际礼仪知识;具备较高的跨文化商务沟通能力;为顺利通过各种英语考试,获得标准统一的权威证书打下良好和坚实的基础。此项学习成绩可作为各类经济部门特别是涉外经济部门和外资企业职员英语能力及水平的证明,是求职、就业、晋升的凭证之一。

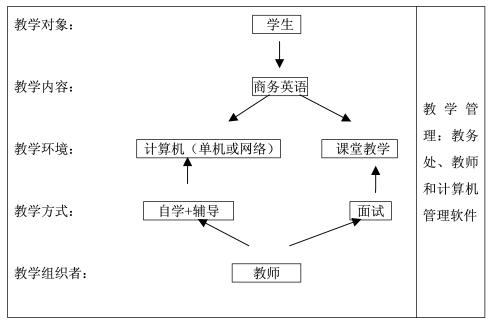
三、内容提要:

商务英语是根据剑桥商务英语证书(BEC)考试的需要而设置的。本课程主要学习团队合作、交流、招待客户、商务接待、定货、现金流量、品牌、公共关系、迁址安置、报告、健康与安全、工作中的权利和商务费用、商务旅行等内容。通过本课程的学习,学生应达到普通高等学校商务英语专业基础阶段的水平。

四、授课模式:

基于计算机和课堂的英语多媒体教学模式是为了帮助学生达到大学英语应用提高阶段教学要求所设计的一种新型英语教学模式。强调个性化教学与自主学习,以及教师可通过课堂进行辅导,传授知识和技能的特点,使学生可在教师的指导下,根据自己的特点、水平、时间,选择合适的学习内容,借助计算机的帮助,迅速提高自己的英语综合实用能力,达到最佳学习效果。

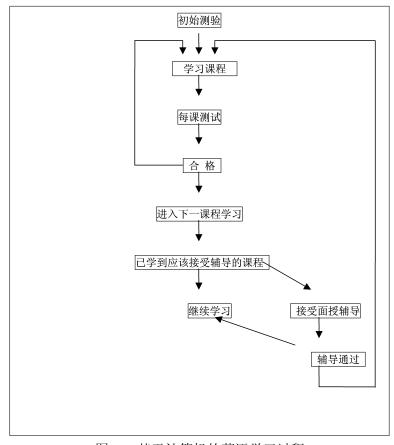
1、教学模式的构成



图一、基于计算机和课堂的英语多媒体教学模式

2、英语学习过程

大学外语应用提高教学阶段各门课程采用"以传统教学模式为主,以网络自主学习模式为辅"的教学模式。如下图:



图二、基于计算机的英语学习过程

五、学习方法:

依据建构主义学习理论,在教学中采用自主学习、讨论学习等教学方法,采用学生为主体进行自主学习和训练及教师为主导进行讲授相结合的教学方法。

通过课前预习准备、课堂情景体验、课堂知识归纳、课堂及课后知识和语言运用等四个阶段的教学活动设计,倡导体验式自主学习——以任务型和小组合作、案例教学方法为依托,体验英语语言和文化知识学习的过程,在实践中学,以学习者已有的语言知识及文化知识和经验为整个学习过程的出发点,强调通过学习者积极、主动地参与各种真实目的语中语言、文化现象和实践活动来学习。

商务英语

Unit 1a Teamwork

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 三、 understand the concept of teamwork;
- 四、identify the features of a good team;
- \pm . read for gist and specific information;
- know how to set up the concept of teamwork in a business;
- 七、 enable students to make and change arrangements;
- 八、 know how to choose a training course.

II. Procedures

1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:

What does the abbreviation of BEC stand for?

What skills do you need to pass exam?

What is the feature of this course?

What is teamwork?

How to build team spirit?

2. The points to be highlighted:

the concept of teamwork, the features of a good team

building teamwork in a business, training course

3. Study the unit in detail:

Learn the important language points and make some sentences.

- ➤ Words: profile, allocate, subsidiary
- ➤ Phrases: major brand, sales department, sales staff, company culture, management consultant, managerial skill, creative thinking, team building, team member

Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:

- The members work towards a common objective. (Assessing teams Ex 1)
- > They discuss roles and allocate them to team members.
- They help individuals develop within the team.
- Everyone makes an equal contribution to the team.
- Cussons entered Poland by taking over a manufacturer of cleaning products in Wroclaw. (Assessing teams Ex 2)
- ➤ But in spite of these successes, it is still hard to develop new approaches.
- The company culture here is the result of fifty years of regulation and control.
- To help solve these problems, Cussons brought in three expatriate managers to work closely with the local sales staff in project teams.
- > We wanted to throw new light on old problems.
- ➤ We need to ensure that what happens on the programme happens back in the workplace.
- The programmes also form the basis of monthly reviews, in which progress is measured against targets set in the programmes.

- ➤ Would the week commencing 11 February be convenient for Steve and Joni? (Arranging a course Ex 1)
- Could you let me know ASAP about the dates and which provider you prefer?

4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Assessing teams

- Ex 1 Speaking: Discussing the characteristics of a good team
 - Explain the concept of teamwork.
 - Form groups of four and discuss the characteristics of a good team.
 - The speaker of each team delivers a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 2 Reading: How Cussons set up the concept of teamwork
 - The students read the passage and finish related exercises within the time allowed.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize the means of setting up the concept of teamwork.

Arranging a course

- Ex 1 Reading: How to build a team
 - The students read the passage and finish related exercises within the time allowed.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize the means of building a team.
- Ex 2 Speaking: How to choose a training course. (optional, depending on the time left.)
 - Discuss and prepare one-minute talk on "What is important when choosing a course?)
 - ➤ Deliver the speech.

Ⅲ. Self-assessments:

On a scale 1 to 5, where 1 means "not at all," 2 means "not very well", 3 means "moderately well," 4 means "well," and 5 means "very well," rate how well you have mastered the objectives set at the beginning of this unit:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the concept of teamwork.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I could identify the key points of the unit.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I could identify the characteristics of a good team.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how to set up the concept of teamwork.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how to deliver a one-minute talk.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how to choose a training course.

Unit 1b Communication

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 1. talk about means of communication and their advantages and disadvantages;
- 2. know how to speak English effectively as a native speaker;
- 3. listen for gist and specific information;
- 4. know how to leave and take messages.

II. Procedures

1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:

How do you keep in touch with your family, friends?

Among the means of communications which one do you use most often?

Which means of communication do you think is most convenient? Most effective?

Have you communicate with any native speakers of English? What part do you find affected your communication?

2. The points to be highlighted:

means of communication; advantages and disadvantages of each means of communication ways of using English more effectively

ways of taking messages

3. Study the unit in detail:

Learn the important language points and make some sentences.

- ➤ Words: exceed, bilingual, overestimate, simplify, understate, culture-specific, deadline, interpret.
- ➤ Phrases: manageable chunks, idiomatic expression, get down to, cross-culture issues, followup evaluation, voice mail, complimentary ticket, get off, put back, get back, time schedule.

Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:

- ➤ Is Your English Too English? (Keeping in touch Ex 2)
- Although a company might use English, its employees are unlikely to be bilingual.
- We are always assume that because their language skills are better than ours, they understand everything we say.
- Reduce what you're saying to manageable chunks.
- ...they insist on using humor which is so culture-specific that no-one understands it.
- The majority of English native speakers are insensitive to the stress of trying to understand a foreign language in a work environment because they rely on the business world speaking their language.
- ▶I'm afraid it's not going to work out because of deadlines here. (Leaving voice mail Ex 1)
- ➤ Could you get back to me ASAP?
- ➤ I think the time schedule looks a bit on the optimistic side, as well.
- ...which I'll get off to you today.

- ➤ I'll put the tickets in the post today. (Taking messages Ex 1)
- ►I'll put you through.
- ➤But I'm not available the following week.
- And could she call me to confirm the date?

4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Keeping in touch

- Ex 1 Speaking: Discussing the means of communication ,the frequency of using them and the advantages and disadvantages of each..
 - Form groups of four and discuss the topic.
 - The speaker of each team delivers a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 2 Reading: How for native speakers to use English more effectively
 - The students read the passage and finish related exercises within the time allowed.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize the means of using English effectively for native speakers.

Leaving voice mails

- Ex 1 listening: listen for the gist
 - The students listen to the recording twice and do the exercise.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize the means of leaving voice mails and approach to doing this test.

Taking messages

- Ex 1 listening: listen for specific
 - The students listen to the recording twice and fill in the form with words or number.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize the phrases used in taking messages and the approach to doing this test.

Ⅲ. Self-assessments:

On a scale 1 to 5, where 1 means "not at all," 2 means "not very well", 3 means "moderately well," 4 means "well," and 5 means "very well," rate how well you have mastered the objectives set at the beginning of this unit:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know many different means of communication, their advantages and disadvantages.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I could identify the key points of the unit.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know some important rules of using English more effectively.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how to listen for the gist and specific.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how to leave voice mail.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how to take messages.

Unit 2a Entertaining a client

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 5. talk on one-minute talk topic: What is important when choosing a restaurant?"
- 6. know how to keep conversations going;
- 7. read for specific;
- 8. listen for gist.

II. Procedures

1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:

Talk about the restaurant you have eaten in which you like most.

When you need to take a client to dinner, what factors will you consider to choose the restaurant?

2. The points to be highlighted:

choosing restaurant to entertain a client, restaurant facilities

keeping conversations going.

3. Study the unit in detail:

Learn the important language points and make some sentences.

- ➤ Words: criteria, location, atmosphere, comfort, cleanliness, questionnaire, evolve, semiprivate, flexibility.
- ➤ Phrases: customer satisfaction form, staff friendliness, staff attentiveness, speed of service, quality of food, quality of drink, value for money, mezzanine floor, catering requirement, wine tasting.

Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:

- ➤ ...with the sole objective of serving quality, exciting English food at very reasonable prices. (Choosing a restaurant Ex 3)
- We have always prided ourselves on our complete flexibility...
- ➤ What do you think of Rio? (Making conversation Ex 1)
- ➤...then I got stopped at Customs.
- And apparently, my luggage is somewhere between here and Cape town.
- >Still, we got through quite a lot and made some progress.
- ➤ But I think we're still a long way from a decision.
- >OK, but it was a bit too heavy for me.
- ➤ But then I go and have a secret steak.
- 4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Choosing a restaurant

- Ex 1 Speaking: Discussing the topic: "What is important when choosing a restaurant?"
 - Form groups of four and discuss the topic.
 - The speaker of each team deliver a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 2 Reading: restaurant facilities
 - The students read the passage and finish related exercises within the time allowed.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize the rules to follow when choosing a restaurant for some events.

Making conversation

- Ex 1 listening: listen for the gist
 - The students listen to the recording twice and do the exercise.
 - ➤ Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize again the tips on doing such listening test.
- Ex 2-3 Speaking: keep a conversation going
 - Discuss the ways of keeping a conversation going.
 - Develop the statements into conversations, using the techniques discussed.
 - ➤ Summarize the techniques

III. Self-assessments:

On a scale 1 to 5, where 1 means "not at all," 2 means "not very well", 3 means "moderately well," 4 means "well," and 5 means "very well," rate how well you have mastered the objectives set at the beginning of this unit:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know what to consider when choosing a restaurant to dine.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know some criteria for judging a restaurant.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can use tips on doing listening test.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know some ways of keeping a conversation going.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can use these means practically.

Unit 2b Corporate hospitality

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 9. able to make a decision based on the information given and explain the reasons;
- 10. read for the gist and specific information;
- 11. know how to mix business with pleasure;
- 12. know ways of writing a formal letter;
- 13. distinguish formal and informal phrases.

II. Procedures

1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:

What ways do you choose to entertain a client?

When choosing ways of entertaining a client what factors do you have in your mind?

How to mix business with work?

Do you know the format of a formal letter?

2. The points to be highlighted:

make decisions and explain reasons, read for the gist and specific

write formal letters

3. Study the unit in detail:

Learn the important language points and make some sentences.

- ➤ Words: corporate, profile, entertain, fact-finding, substantial, stopover, contact, timing, recipe, accessories, facilities, theatre-goer.
- ➤ Phrases: valued customer, add up to, put...at sb.'s disposal, in due course, drop a line.

Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:

- It is not surprising that they see this as a chance simply to stand around having free drinks on the company...(Mixing business with pleasure Ex 2,3,4)
- >Yet too much social chit-chat and getting-to-know-you-type conversation adds up to missed opportunities.
- Some people simply have poor timing.
- As you would be our guest, we would of course meet all your expenses. (Arranging a company visit Ex 1, 2, 3)
- > We can also put a company car and a driver at your disposal during your stay in London.
- ➤In terms of possible dates, we were hoping that we could arrange something for the end of the month.
- ➤ I look forward to hearing from you in due course.
- 4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Mixing business with pleasure

- Ex 1 Speaking: Discussing the topic: "Choosing a proper way of entertainment for the guest"
 - Form groups of four and discuss the topic.
 - The speaker of each team deliver a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 2 Reading: mixing business with pleasure
 - The students read the passage and finish related exercises within the time allowed.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize the ways of missing business with pleasure.

Arranging a company visit

- Ex 1 Reading for the gist
 - The students read the passage and answer the question.
 - ➤ Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
- Ex 2-3 Reading for specific
 - The students read the passage and answer the questions.
 - > Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize the format and language of formal business letters.

III. Self-assessments:

On a scale 1 to 5, where 1 means "not at all," 2 means "not very well", 3 means "moderately well," 4 means "well," and 5 means "very well," rate how well you have mastered the objectives set at the beginning of this unit:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I can make an adjustment and make myself understood.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can summarize the main idea of paragraphs.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how to mix business with pleasure.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the format and language of a formal letter.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can write a formal letter.

Unit 3a Ordering goods

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 14. talk about the factors to consider when choosing a supplier;
- 15. know the features of mail order house
- 16. write a good fax in terms of layout, paragraph, connector, sentence and accuracy;
- 17. know the letter and telephone phrases with different functions;
- 18. find the extra words in the lines of a paragraph.

II. Procedures

- 2. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 19. If you need a supplier, what qualities do you want to find from it?
 - 3. The points to be highlighted:
- 20. choosing a supplier, writing a good fax
- 21. telephone phrases with different functions, finding extra words
 - 4. Study the unit in detail:
- 22. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: finalize, catalogue, contact, vendor.
 - > Phrases: mail order company, sort out, further to, measurements chart, summer collection.
- 23. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - Mr. Hubner and the other buyers have finalized their reports and recommendations for the summer collection. (Placing an order Ex 2)
 - ➤ Please let me know ASAP.
 - When Mr. Hubner left Italy I thought we had sorted the problems out.
 - 5. Practical exercises
- 24. Offer some time to do the exercises.
- 25. Explain each exercise briefly.
- 26. Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Placing an order

- Ex 1 Speaking: Discussing the topic: "What is important when choosing a new supplier?"
 - Form groups of four and discuss the topic.
 - The speaker of each team delivers a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 2,3 Reading: read for the gist and specific
 - The students read the passage and finish related exercises within the time allowed.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
- Ex 4 Improving the poor fax.
 - Analyze the poor fax.
 - ➤ Write a clearer version of the fax.

Discussing changes

- Ex 1 Listening for the gist
 - The students listen to the recording twice and answer the questions.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.

Ex 2-3 Functions

- The students distinguish the telephone and letter phrases.
- > The students match the phrases with functions.

Confirming changes

- Ex 1 Reading: choose the extra words
 - The students read the passage and choose the extra words.
 - > The teach check out the answer and give tips on doing such exercise.

Ⅲ. Self-assessments:

On a scale 1 to 5, where 1 means "not at all," 2 means "not very well", 3 means "moderately well," 4 means "well," and 5 means "very well," rate how well you have mastered the objectives set at the beginning of this unit:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the important criteria for choosing a supplier.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can deliver a one-minute talk on "what is important when choosing a supplier?"
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how to write a good fax.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know some letter phrases and telephone phrases and their functions.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can find the extra words from lines of a paragraph.

Unit 3b Cash flow

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 27. know the concept of cash flow, inflow and outflow;
- 28. understand the problem of cash flow faced by small company;
- 29. know ways of improve cash flow;
- 30. listen for the gist and specific.

II. Procedures

- 1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 31. Have you heard about the term "cash flow"?
- 32. Do you know inflow and outflow? What are your typical inflows and outflows?
- 2. The points to be highlighted:
- 1. cash flow, cash flow problem with small companies
- 2. ways of dealing with cash flow problem
- 3. Study the unit in detail:
- 33. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: inflow, outflow, gap, remainder, discount, calculate, finance, over-trading, wow, margin.
 - ➤ Phrases: cash flow, down payment, early settlement discount, direct labor cost, credit term, order book, figure out, make a big difference, what if, financing costs, get the point, outstanding balance.
- 34. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - ➤...Steve charges 10 per cent of the total sales price as down payment. (Managing cash flow E 2,3,4)
 - The customer is then billed for the remainder after the system has been installed.
 - ➤ Steve always takes advantage of early settlement discounts.
 - The customer is then billed and given credit terms of 30 days.
 - Finally, on day 65, Steve receives the outstanding balance of \$9000.

4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Managing cash flow

- Ex 1 Speaking: talk about the typical inflows and outflows.
 - The students in turn talk about their inflows and outflows.
 - The students discuss the typical inflows and outflows of a company.
- Ex 2,3 Reading: the cash flow gap
 - The students read the passage and finish related exercises within the time allowed.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.

- Ex 4 Speaking: the reasons why small companies fail.
 - The students discuss the topic.
 - ➤ Speaker of each team deliver their speech.

Improving cash flow

- Ex 1,2 Writing e-mail
 - The students read the information given and write an e-mail
 - The students read their e-mails for others to comment.
- Ex 3-4 Listening: Ways of dealing with cash flow
 - The students listen to the recording twice and answer the questions.
 - > Check out the answer and explain the necessary part.

III. Self-assessments:

On a scale 1 to 5, where 1 means "not at all," 2 means "not very well", 3 means "moderately well," 4 means "well," and 5 means "very well," rate how well you have mastered the objectives set at the beginning of this unit:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the concept of cash flow.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I understand the case of cash flow.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know why small companies are more likely to fail.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know some ways of improve cash flow.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can listen for both the gist and specific.

Unit 4a Brand power

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 35. talk about selling point;
- 36. know the concept of brandstreching;
- 37. know how can a brand stretch into new markets;
- 38. know the advantages of new bank launched by retail chains.

II. Procedures

- 1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 39. Do you have a mobile phone/radio recorder/car/laptop/fridge?
- 40. When you bought it, what part of it made you make up your mind?
- 41. What might be a selling point of a product?
 - 2. The points to be highlighted:
- 3. selling point, brandstretching
- 4. new bank
 - 3. Study the unit in detail:
- 42. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: brandstretching, diversify, commitment, incentive, mortgage, overheads, performance, saturated, strength, environment-friendliness, profitability, user-friendliness.
 - ➤ Phrases: brand loyalty, competitive advantage, cut-price goods, damage a brand, loyalty scheme, own-label product, target customer, banking sector, boost profits, supermarket chain, credit card, prospect of growth.
- 43. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - ► I want my car to say something about me. (Selling point Ex 2)
 - And then I saw that advert on TV...
 - ➤ You ask how much they cost and you get all this stuff about monthly service contracts and different tariffs at different times of day.
 - ➤ I worked out that the best deal for me was a one-year-all-inclusive package.
 - ➤ It lasted years and I never had any problems with it.
 - ...and it's been back to the shop twice already.
 - As supermarkets continue to diversify into new markets...(Brandstretching Ex 1)
 - ➤ Is a quiet revolution under way in the nation's shopping habits?
 - People don't have the time to shop around...
 - ➤...Austin firmly believes that the supermarkets' diversification is set to continue.
 - The UK retail food market is saturated, so their only real prospect of growth is either to enter foreign markets or diversify into new markets at home.
 - ➤ However, there are question marks over long-term profitability.
 - ...there bound to come to a point when the new banks will eventually want to widen margins and boost profits.

- How will a major supermarket react, for instance, when it is faced with having to repossess a regular shopper's home?
- ...shoppers will continue to buy a wider range of goods and services from supermarkets.
- Loyalty schemes are another incentive for customers.
- ...it really pays to stay loyal to the brand in all its diversified forms.
- ...how do you market its brand? (Sainsbury's Bank Ex 3)
- So the vast majority of marketing is either through in-store or through direct mail.
- ➤ How does a new bank like Sainsbury's succeed in attracting people away from the High Street banks?
- Simply by offering value for money and excellent customer service standards.
- ➤ Well, our key operational advantages are that, as a telephone-only operation Sainsbury's Bank doesn't have the high overheads that a branch network does.
- 4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Selling point

- Ex 1 Speaking: talk about selling point
 - Form groups of four and discuss the topic.
 - The speaker of each team delivers a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 2 Listening: listen for the specific
 - The students listen to the recording twice and work out the answer.
 - Check out the answers and explain where is necessary.
 - Summarize the idea of selling point.

Brandstretching

- Ex 1 Reading: diversification
 - The students read the passage and do relevant exercises within the time allowed.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.

Sainsbury's Bank

- Ex 1, 2 Reading and speaking: Sainsbury's Bank's service
 - The students read the information given and work out the answer to the multiple question.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.
 - Talk about the advantages and disadvantages of buying all the financial products from the same provider.
- Ex 3-4 Listening: Sainsbury's Bank's way of doing business
 - The students listen to the recording twice for enough information to answer the questions.
 - > Check out the answer and explain.

Ⅲ. Self-assessments:

On a scale 1 to 5, where 1 means "not at all," 2 means "not very well", 3 means "moderately well," 4 means "well," and 5 means "very well," rate how well you have mastered the objectives set at the

beginning of this unit:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the concept of selling points
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can talk about the selling point of the product I bought.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know why and how the UK supermarket chains diversify into new markets.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know Sainsbury's Bank's services.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how Sainsbury's Bank attract customers.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can read and listen enough information to answer questions.

Unit 4b Public relations

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 44. know the idea or public relations;
- 45. know and talk about the differences between marketing and public relations;
- 46. know the benefits of good public relations brings to a company;
- 47. know the steps of organizing a public relations event.

- 1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 48. Do you know the idea of public relations?
- 49. What are the duties of public relations?
- 50. What are the difference between the duties of public relations and those of marketing?
 - 2. The points to be highlighted:
- 5. public relations, duties of public relations
- 6. benefits of good public relations, public relations event
 - 3. Study the unit in detail:
- 51. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: image, available, survey, venue
 - ➤ Phrases: advertising campaign, company values, deal with the press, independent opinion, maintain goodwill, meet needs, press coverage, product launch
- 52. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - >...as well as communications with the public and personnel in our UK dealership. (What is Public Relations Ex 1)
 - Our objective is to give an accurate picture of the company, its brands and what it believes in.
 - ...because you work with them on a regular basis and trust is absolutely essential.
 - it would be fair to say that the company had a genuine image problem. (The benefits for good PR Ex 1)
 - >...in 1995, we put a huge emphasis on advertising, everything from national advertising to point-of-sale material in the showrooms.
 - ➤ Well, you certainly won over the press.
 - Skoda recently came top of a major consumer magazine's annual survey of car owners.
 - ▶But the real indication of our success is the record growth in sales since 1995.
 - ➤ It's down to me to sort out any problems...
 - Ensure all equipment, branding displays and paperwork etc. are transported to venue. (Organizing a PR event Ex 1)
 - >Send guests confirmed details of venue, dates, times and format.
 - ➤ Vehicles arrive for preparation and running in.
 - ➤ Prepare welcome information and itineraries for guests.
 - 4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

What is public relations

- Ex 1 speaking
 - The teacher briefly introduces the concept of marketing and PR.
 - Form groups of four and discuss the difference between the duties of marketing and those of PR
 - The speaker of each team delivers a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 1 Listening: listen for the specific—the duties of marketing and PR
 - The students listen to the recording twice and work out the answer.
 - > Check out the answers and explain
 - ➤ Summarize the idea of PR

The benefits of good PR

- Ex 1 Listening: listen for the gist—Skoda's PR
 - The students listen to the recording twice and work out the answer to the question.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.
- Ex 2 Listening: listen for the specific—multiple choice
 - The students listen to the recording twice and work out the answer.
 - >Check out the answer and explain.
 - Summarize the benefits of good PR.

Organizing a PR event

- Ex 1 Reading: the process of organizing a PR event
 - The students read the information given and complete the launch schedule within the time allowed.
 - > Check out the answer and explain.
 - Summarize the process.

Ⅲ. Self-assessments:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the idea of public relations.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can talk about the differences between public relations and marketing.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can listen for enough information to answer multiple questions.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can understand the process of a PR event and complete the launch schedule.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the benefits of good PR

Unit 5a Relocation

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 53. know the concept of relocation;
- 54. know why companies relocate;
- 55. know why people relocate and preparation for relocation;
- 56. know how to choose a good relocation company;
- 57. write a report.

- 1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 58. Do you know why companies move form one city or country to another?
- 2. The points to be highlighted:
- 7. relocation, Ireland's attractions
- 8. relocation company, report
- 3. Study the unit in detail:
- 59. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: assistance, brochure, grant, sophisticated, infrastructure, investment, tariff.
 - ➤ Phrases: financial aid, fulfill needs, rate of inflation, running costs, work permit.
- 60. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - ➤ Ireland enjoys some of the lowest employment costs, one of the lowest rates of inflation and one of the lowest telecommunications tariffs in Europe. (Why do companies relocate Ex 2)
 - ➤ Generous grants are available towards set-up costs.
 - This includes capital investment, training and employment costs, as well as grants towards investment in R & D projects.
 - Successive governments have recognized the importance of providing appropriate infrastructures and fostering an environment that is supportive of industry.
 - Legislators and regulatory authorities work closely with companies to ensure that start-up and expansions plans run smoothly.
 - ...which brings most of Europe within 24-48 hours by truck.
 - >...frequent scheduled flights from international airports located throughout the country provide direct access to other European countries and the United States.
 - ...and some of the most spectacular scenery in Europe are always nearby.
 - Residents enjoy ready access to a range of leisure activities...
 - ERS's costs compare favorably with competitors. (Arranging to relocate Ex2)
 - Although it offers no partner employment, ERS does place children in local schools.
 - ERS also arranges all necessary documentation and offers full packing, storage and shipping services.
 - ➤ Do they stand up to ERS (Arranging to relocate Ex 4)
 - ➤ No problems there.

- ➤ I think this is something you can handle form the Sattle end.
- And another interesting thing is that they run orientation and integration programmes.
- ➤...but there's on one else in the picture.
- ➤...it isn't a major issue here.
- That's the main problem for me with ERS.
- ➤ You're closest to this.
- 4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

What is public relations

- Ex 1 speaking
 - Form groups of four and discuss the reasons why companies relocate to other countries.
 - The speaker of each team deliver a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 2 Reading: read the attractions of Ireland to companies
 - The students read the passage and finish the exercise within time allowed.
 - >Check out the answers and explain
 - Summarize the attractions of Ireland.

Arranging to relocate

- Ex 1 Speaking: speak about the reasons people move from one place to another
 - Form groups of four and discuss the reasons why people relocate to other countries and what arrangements they have to make.
 - The speaker of each team deliver a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 2 Reading: complete a table of relocation company's service
 - The students read the report and complete part of the table.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.
- Ex 4 Listening: listen to the services provided by another company and complete the table in Ex 2
 - The students listen to the recording twice and complete the table.
 - > Check out the answer and explain.
 - ➤ Compare the services of the two companies.
- Ex 6 Writing: compare the two companies and write a report to recommend one.
 - > Summarize the writing tips on report.
 - > The students do oral composition.

Ⅲ. Self-assessments:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the idea of relocation
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know why companies relocate to other countries.

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know what arrangements need to make for relocation of people.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can talk about the attractions of Ireland.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can compare the services of relocation company and write a report.

Unit 5b New premises

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 61. know how to give directions;
- 62. listen to the recording and find the destination on the map;
- 63. write a letter according to the information given;
- 64. read for specific information.

- 1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 65. When you want to go to some place and you don't know how, what do you do?
- 66. Do you know any phrases used to ask way and give directions? List them.
- 2. The points to be highlighted:
- 9. implication of premises, finding the right location
- 10. write a letter
- 3. Study the unit in detail:
- 67. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: premises, access, amenities, boardroom, lease, leasehold, freehold, property, renovation, tenant, numerous, metro, range.
 - ➤ Phrases: immediate area, office site, public transport, reception area, cross over, kee straight on.
- 68. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - >PLP, Immobilier. Bonjour. (Finding the right location Ex 1)
 - ...and in rue de Tournelles...
 - You turn left there and cross over to the other side of the street.
 - Then take the first road on the right.
 - >Keep going along that street until you come to a theatre.
 - > You go down there, and about halfway along is a kind of square, with a statue in the middle.
 - ➤You can't miss it.
 - ▶4 place Jean Moulin is prominently located in a well-established and fast growing corporate business area. (Finding the right location Ex 3)
 - The site is shared with an impressive selection of companies and organizations.
 - There is easy access to public transport from 4 place Jean Moulin with numerous bus routes servicing the area.
 - Two metro stations are also within walking distance.
 - In the immediate locality there is a wide range of bars and restaurants as well as most major high street shops.
 - It offers a flexible mixture of office sizes with two large conference rooms on floors of approximately 410 sq.m with excellent natural light.
 - ➤ ...additional surface car parking is available nearby by separate arrangement.

- ► It's not what you are, it's where you are. (Finding the right location Ex 4)
- > Just as the world seems to be becoming more homogenized, with consumers finding it difficult to distinguish between myriad similar products and services, so corporate image is recognized as being increasingly important way to win and retain clients.
- ➤ However, opinions differ as to what exactly 'image' entails.
- For some companies it is limited to a recognizable logo and memorable slogan.
- For others, it has more far-reaching implications affecting everything from the choice of star endorsing their products, to....
- ➤Or do you underline your optimism, self belief and modernity by moving into a specially designed building in the heart of the new, out of center, business development, alongside successful multinationals and quite possibly, some of your competitors?
- Even having a modest office attached to a factory on the edge of a run down industrial estate could be seen to reflect your company's work ethic and dedication to investing in essentials, rather than wasting money on such trivialities as a Miro or a Monet for the boardroom.

4 Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Finding the right location

- Ex 1, 2 Listening and speaking: giving directions
 - The students and the teach think of together the phrased used giving directions.
 - The students listen to the recording twice and find the location on the map.
 - The students work in pairs to practice asking the way and giving directions.
- Ex 3 Writing: writing a letter
 - The students read the advertisement and the teacher explain where is necessary.
 - The students do oral letter composition.
 - The teacher comment on the students' work.
- Ex 1 Speaking: speak about the reasons people move from one place to another
 - Form groups of four and discuss the reasons why people relocate to other countries and what arrangements they have to make.
 - The speaker of each team deliver a speech on the topic.
 - Summarize the discussion and speech.
- Ex 4, 5 Reading: read for the gist and specific information
 - The students read the passage about premises and work out the answer to questions.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.
 - Summarize the implication of premises.

Ⅲ. Self-assessments:

On a scale 1 to 5, where 1 means "not at all," 2 means "not very well", 3 means "moderately well," 4 means "well," and 5 means "very well," rate how well you have mastered the objectives set at the beginning of this unit:

1 2 3 4 5 I know the idea of premises.

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know some useful phrases used to give directions.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can use the phrases successfully in pair work.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can write a letter according to given information.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can read for the gist and specific information to answer questions.

Unit 6a Reporting results

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 69. know and use some useful phrases to describe tendency;
- 70. know the information used to measure a company's performance;
- 71. do the test of matching sentences with texts;
- 72. write a report.

- 1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 73. Do you know how to measure a person's performance?
- 74. Then what information can be used to measure the performance of a company?
- 75. Where can you get such information?
- 2. The points to be highlighted:
- 11. describing tendency, company performance
- 12. matching sentences with texts, writing report
- 3. Study the unit in detail:
- 76. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: acquisition, assets, disposal, dividend, merger, offset, streamline, restructure, revenue, rumor, peak, recover, improve, collapse.
 - ➤ Phrases: annual report, chairman's statement, cost-cutting measures, trading results, trading volume, share price, sales volume, shoot up.
- 77. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - For the six months, pre-tax profits rose sharply be 9.8%, which brought the final figure for the year to just over 6.3m. (Measuring the performance, Ex 2)
 - That's up from just over 5.8m last year.
 - The divided is up.
 - > If you're one of their shareholders, you can expect half a penny per share.
 - ...which specializes in developing computer-based home shopping.
 - ➤ However, the business is only operating at break-even and isn't expected to do much more this year, it has to be said.
 - As you can see, it's been pretty volatile.
 - After steady progress throughout the first half of the year, it really shot up at the end of the summer, when everyone thought there'd be a takeover.
 - At the height of the rumors, in September, you can see that shares peaked at just over 80 pence.
 - The takeover didn't happen, though, and the price collapsed.
 - And it has to be said, the share price is marginally up on last February, so shareholders are in profit over the 12 month period.
 - ➤ Strike action and unfavorable exchange rates led to losses that were almost balanced by gains from our ongoing resource efficiency programme which delivered an impressive £100m of

cost performance improvements. (Annual reports Ex 1)

- Another source of revenue was the recent disposal of Dennox, our wholly-owned subsidiary.
- Trading volume increased by 4.5%, which was well up on recent years...
- >Operating margins also, increased, as a result of the restructuring programme that was completed at the end of last year.

4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Finding the right location

- Ex 1 Speaking: information to measure the performance of a company
- The students discuss together all the information that is possibly used for measuring the performance of a company.
 - The teacher summarizes the discussion.
- Ex 2, 3 Listening for the gist and specific information to answer questions about a company's performance
 - The students listen to the recording twice and answer the questions.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.
 - Summarize the phrases used for describing tendency.

Annual reports

- Ex 1 Reading: read the paragraphs and match the sentences with the paragraphs
 - Read the information given and work out the answer in the time allowed.
 - Check out the answer and explain.
 - The teacher make clear the tips on this test.
- Ex 4 Writing: compare the performance of two companies and write a report to recommend which company should be invested in.
 - The teacher explain necessary information and go over the format of a report.
 - The students do oral composition first and then write the report in the time allowed.
 - The students do peer evaluation and read the good one to the class.

III. Self-assessments:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know how to measure a company's performance.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know some useful phrases used to describe tendency.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can use the phrases successfully in describing tendency.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can match sentences with paragraphs within the time allowed.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can write a report to compare two companies' performance.

Unit 6b Environmental report

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 78. know some criteria for assessing environmental impact;
- 79. listen for the specific information.

II. Procedures

- 1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 80. What ways do you know can reduce the impact of human activities on the environment?
- 81. What things can you do to reduce your impact on the environment?
- 82. What things can our school do to reduce its impact on the environment?
- 2. The points to be highlighted:
- 13. assessing environmental impact.
- 3. Study the unit in detail:
- 83. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: by-product, energy-efficient, guidelines, hazardous, priority, recycle, subsidy, subsidize, shareholder
 - Phrases: comply with regulations, energy consumption, environmental issues/ legislation/programme, fulfill an obligation, meet regulations, product life cycle, reach a target, pose a threat
- 84. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - The first ICI environmental project was the result of the realization that, as a major player in the chemical industry, ICI would have to address these growing public concerns.
 - Many of the steps we took back then have since become government legislation.
 - ...so we committed the largest share of our annualbudget to the project.
 - As things developed we soon realized that there were no cheap options or quick fixes.
 - The starting point for this reduction would be the 1995 level.
 - ➤ We decided to concentrate on those wastes which pose the greatest threat to the environment and give their reduction the highest priority.
 - At ICI we realize that we have a commitment not only to our customers, employees and shareholders, but also to the communities in which we work and produce our goods.

4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Assessing environmental impact

- Ex 1 Speaking: talk about the ways of reducing environmental impact.
 - The students talk about the ways of reducing environmental impact.
 - The teacher summarizes the discussion.

Environmental performance

- Ex 1 Listening for the specific information to answer questions about a company's environmental performance
 - The students listen to the recording twice and answer the questions.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.
 - Summarize the tips on answering multiple choice listening test.

Ex 2 Speaking

- ➤ Read the typescript
- Summarize the main points of the project.
- Ex 4 Speaking: a presentation--how to balance the interest of customers and shareholders with a commitment to the environment.
 - The students discuss in group, and list a outline of a presentation.
 - A speaker of each group deliver the presentation.
- The students comment on their peers and the teacher summarizes whether they pay attention to the rules of delivering a presentation.

III. Self-assessments:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know and can talk about the ways of reducing environmental impact.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know what I should do to reduce my impact on the environment.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can listen for the specific information to answer questions.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the rules of delivering a presentation.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can take part in the discussion and deliver the presentation for our group.

Unit 7a Health and safety

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 85. present a one-minute talk on making a work place safe;
- 86. listen for the specific information to complete a form;
- 87. do sentence level gap filling.

II. Procedures

- 1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 88. Have you ever been injured at work or school? Have you ever heard such things?
- 89. What might cause injury in school?
- 90. How do you prevent it?
- 2. The points to be highlighted:
- 91. injury at work, making office safe.
- 3. Study the unit in detail:
- 92. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: findings, handle, liability, lift, painkillers, slip, stitches, strike, trip, workplace.
 - ➤ Phrases: absent from work, cause for concern, first aid, lose one's balance, take precautions, take into account.
- 93. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - Yes, that looks nasty. (Injuries at work Ex 4)
 - ...that's the job for maintenance.
 - ➤ But the light kept going on and off all day.
 - >I caught my head on the edge of a filing cabinet.
 - ➤ Do you feel sick or dizzy?
 - ➤ Will I need any stitches, do you think?
 - ►I'll just clean and dress it.
 - ➤ But it's a nasty bump thought.
 - Are you taking any medication at the moment?
 - ➤ Here are some painkillers.
 - Take two of these three times a day for the next two or three days.
 - And pop in tomorrow some time...
 - ➤...and look afresh at what could reasonably be expected to cause harm. (How safe is your workplace? Ex 1)
 - ...if you become involved in an action for civil liability.
- 4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Injuries at work

- Ex 1, 3 Speaking: talk about the possible injuries that might happen at school
 - The students discuss on the topic and deliver discussion report on behalf of the team.
 - The students then discuss on how to prevent these injuries.
- Ex 4 Listening: listen for the specific information to complete the form
 - The students listen to the recording twice and complete the form.
 - > Check out the answer and explain.
 - Summarize the tips on working out this test.

How safe is your workplace?

- Ex 1,2 Reading: read for both the gist and specific information to answer the questions
 - The students read the passage and answer the questions.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.
 - Summarize the tips on answering sentence level gap filling.

Ⅲ. Self-assessments:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I know to make office safer.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can give a one-minute talk on such topic.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can listen for the specific information to complete a form.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the rules to follow when assessing risks.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I grasp some tips on work out sentence level gap filling.

Unit 7b Rights at work

I. Learning Objectives

After learning this unit you are able to master:

- 94. make your idea clear and explain reasons logically;
- 95. read for the gist information;
- 96. listen for the gist information.

- 1. Before studying the unit, you should talk about the following questions:
- 97. What rights do you have?
- 98. Do you smoke?
- 99. If you don't smoke do you think other people have the right to smoke?
- 100. How do you feel if you have to be with a heavy smoker, when you do not smoke?
- 2. The points to be highlighted:
- 14. the right to smoke, problems at work
- 3. Study the unit in detail:
- 101. Learn the important language points and make some sentences.
 - ➤ Words: ban, grievance, plaintiff, workload, commute, solicitor, prioritize.
 - ➤ Phrases: abuse a system, dismiss/sack an employee, formulate a policy, industrial tribunal, keep up with work, put up with a disturbance, sexual harassment, verbal/written warning, work overtime.
- 102. Try to understand and paraphrase the following difficult sentences:
 - ➤ However, the policy did not go far enough to solve the problem for the plaintiff. (Know your rights Ex 2)
 - > She was finally told either to put up with the smoke or leave, which she did.
 - The plaintiff was awarded damages.
 - ➤ Unless they take care, they could be faced with unfair dismissal claims from smokers-precisely what they were trying to avoid with non-smokers.
 - ➤I felt it was justified. (Problems at work Ex 1)
 - ➤ ...so I honestly didn't think they'd mind.
 - ...that was a completely different story.
 - ➤I was having problems because I just couldn't seem to prioritize my work and organize my time.
 - ...but I just couldn't seem to keep up with the workload.
 - ...this was a place where results were everything.
 - ➤I suppose they didn't want to carry me any longer.
 - ➤I think people just got fed up with having to cover for me and take on all my work when I was away.
 - ▶But it seems a pretty poor show to sack someone for something that isn't their fault.

4. Practical exercises

Offer some time to do the exercises.

Explain each exercise briefly.

Make a discussion about the mutual difficulties and problems.

Know your rights

- Ex 1 Speaking: talk about the rights to smoke at work
 - The students discuss on the range of topics.
 - The students with same opinion for a team to debate with the team with opposite opinion.
- Ex 2,3 Reading: read for the gist information
 - The students read the passage and work out the answer within the time allowed.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.
 - ➤ Summarize the tips on working out this test.
- Ex 6 Writing: oral composition
 - The student organize the memo in their mind and then deliver the memo orally.

Problems at work

- Ex 1 Listening: listen for the gist information
 - The students listen to the recording twice and complete matching test.
 - ➤ Check out the answer and explain.
 - Summarize the tips on answering matching monologues with topics

Ⅲ. Self-assessments:

- 1 2 3 4 5 I can show my opinion on smoking at work.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can read for the gist information and answer questions.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can make up oral composition and deliver it orally.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I know the tip for answer the question of matching monologues with topics.
- 1 2 3 4 5 I can listen for the gist and match the monologues with topics.