

《综合英语（一）》教学大纲

于中华 编写

目 录

前 言.....	3
一、概述.....	3
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	3
三、课程主要内容及学时分配.....	3
四、具体教学安排.....	6
WEEK 1-2.....	7
WEEK 2-3.....	8
WEEK 4-5.....	9
WEEK 5-6.....	10
WEEK 7-8.....	11
WEEK 8-9.....	12
WEEK 10-11.....	13
WEEK 11-12.....	14
WEEK 13-14.....	15
WEEK 14-15.....	16
WEEK 16.....	17

前 言

一、概述

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288学时，共计16学分。每学期为72学时，4学分。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

“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传统文化，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。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

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	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	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。

	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。	态、主动语态、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 2,000-2,500 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%。
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。	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。

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。阅读速度为每分钟 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 Contemporary 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。
文化素养	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。	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。	

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 学时。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 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 4—5 课时一篇课文。

(一) 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 分钟左右。

(二) 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：10—30 分钟。

(三) 作业。

四、具体教学安排

综合英语 I (第 1 学期)

WEEK 1-2

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—4 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. 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 2-3

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—4 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 4-5

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—4 hours

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:

VI. Topics for further discussion:

1. What is the traditional social values of Thailand? Or the ongoing social changes in Thailand?
2. What would you say about the possible conflicts between different generations?
3. How do you understand the message of the land?

WEEK 5-6

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—4 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 7-8

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—4 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 pattern

WEEK 8-9

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—4 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 10-11

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—4 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 11-12

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—4 hours

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—4 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 14-15

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—4 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

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）
2. 课前口语操练（Presentation）
3. 测验和作业 quizzes/assignments

4. 口语考试（Oral test）

期中考试（Mid-term exam）

5. 期末考试（Final exam）

六、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。

《综合英语（二）》教学大纲

张青云 编写

目 录

前 言.....	21
一、概述.....	21
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	21
三、课程主要内容及学时分配.....	22
四、相关教学环节.....	22
Lesson 1 Another School Year ---What For?	23
Text A.....	23
Lesson 2 Maheegun My Brother.....	25
Text A.....	25
Lesson 3 More Crime and Less Punishment.....	27
Text A.....	27
Lesson 4 The Nightingale and the Rose.....	31
Text A.....	31
Lesson 5 Say Yes.....	33
Text A.....	33
Lesson 6 The Man in the Water.....	35
Text A.....	35
Lesson 7 The Greatest Invention.....	37
Text A.....	37
Lesson 8 Psychologically Speaking.....	40
Text A.....	40
Lesson 9 Quick Fix Society.....	43
Text A.....	43

前 言

一、概述

《综合英语》是为高等学校英语专业本科生基础阶段开设的专业必修课，为期2年，即四个学期。累计（96+96+96+96）384学时。该课程的前提是学生在语音方面，能熟练地运用拼读规则和音标读生词；能比较流利地朗读浅易材料，语音、语调大体正确。在语法方面，能识别词类；基本掌握名词、代词、数词、常用介词和连词、形容词和副词、冠词的用法及句法功能，了解动词的时态、语态及不定式和分词的用法。在词汇方面，认知词汇不少于2,000个；熟用1,200个左右的常用词和一定数量的短语。了解基本构词法。在听力方面，能听懂教师的讲课；听懂浅易材料，理解正确率达到70%。在口语方面，能熟练地就课文内容进行问答和讨论；能就日常话题进行初步的交际。在阅读方面，能读懂浅易读物并掌握主要内容和中心思想。在写作方面，能在20分钟内写出100个单词左右的短文，表达清楚，无严重语法错误。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程是一门综合英语技能课，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 and 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。熟悉中国传统文化；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；具有较强的创新意识和一定的创新能力。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，为升入高年级打下扎实基础。

对英语专业本科生而言，英语精读课是一门最主要的课程。它是英语学习的核心，通过精读课，学生可以学到英语语言知识，并能培养学生运用语言知识的综合能力。因此，本课程以课堂讲授为主，要求学生课前预习，广泛查阅各种资料（包括互联网资源）；课上做好笔记；课后复习，背诵课文重点段落。做到基本功扎实，在听说读写等方面全面得到训练和发展。

讲课中注意知识的层层递进，具有连续性，语言点突出，讲解清晰准确，通过典型例句解释语言现象。课堂上，遵循精讲多练，以学生为主的原则，采取问答、复述、听写、讨论、讲故事、表演等有利于学生学习英语并能引发学生对英语学习兴趣的多种课堂活动的方式，以便达到教学目的。本课程是培养学生综合能力、较好地掌握各门专业课程所必需的基础课，教学时应综合运用各门学科的理论 and 原则，为学生专业课的学习打下良好的基础。每天除了要布置具体作业外，还要敦促学生阅读指定的课外读物，写好英文日记。教师认真检查和批改。

期末成绩评定：1) 每天课前口语操练（新闻播报、时政讨论、小幽默等）占成绩总评5%；2) 课堂活动参与性（回答问题、表演等）占5%；3) 作业（作文+翻译+英文日记等）占5%；4) 三

次月考，分别占 10%、20%和 20%。5) 期末考，占 35%。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

第一年第二学期的任务：在 96 学时内完成第二册的教学，要求继续大力盘活中学所学内容。巩固学生良好语音。培养学生独立工作能力（如记笔记、会使用参考书查阅课文相关背景及人物等）具体为：

1. 语音：能自觉模仿和纠音，有初步节奏感和语调。
2. 语法和词汇：掌握各种从句句型和时态，语态。认知词汇达 4000-5000 个，熟用其中 2000-2500 个及其最基本搭配。提高语法和词汇的活用能力。
3. 听力：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或选用的录音材料（词数 150 左右，念四遍，语速 100 单词/分），错误率不超过 10%。
4. 口语：能分析课文内容并进行评论；能使用课文中的重点词汇和短语复述课文；能流利描述一幅漫画/图片并发表观点。能用英语正确表达以下功能意念：
 - 1) 询问对某人/物的印象及如何表达印象 (Asking about & expressing impressions)
 - 2) 表达忧虑和担心 (Expressing worries & concerns)
 - 3) 表达受挫和恼怒 (Expressing distress & annoyance)
 - 4) 表达可能与不可能 (Expressing possibility & impossibility)
 - 5) 询问和表达意见 (Asking & expressing opinions)
 - 6) 表达满意和不满 (Expressing satisfaction & dissatisfaction)
 - 7) 表达愿望和悔意 (Expressing wishes & regrets)
 - 8) 表达意图 (Expressing intentions)
 - 9) 表示警告 (Expressing warnings)
 - 10) 发布命令 (Expressing commands)
 - 11) 表达愤怒 (Expressing anger)
 - 12) 表达肯定和不肯定 (Expressing certainty & uncertainty)
 - 13) 赞成和反对 (Expressing agreement & disagreement)
 - 14) 表达失望 (Expressing disappointment)
 - 15) 表示相信和怀疑 (Expressing belief & disbelief)
5. 阅读和写作：能阅读难度相当于 *Thirty-Nine Steps*(简写本)的浅易读物及 *Reader's Digest*, 速度 80-120 词/分，理解大意，对难句能够释义 (paraphrase)。熟悉记叙文、说明文等各种文体。能改写或缩写课文内容。能正确书写便条等应用文。能熟练使用《英汉大词典》和英英词典(如 Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English)。

6. 翻译：能独立并正确完成课后翻译练习。

四、相关教学环节

综合英语课(即精读课)重点在口笔头运用能力的训练上，并训练学生的阅读理解能力与阅读技能，与单项技能课相辅相成。特点在于所使用的语言材料是系统的、精选的，技能的训练是综合的。本课程的先修课为《听力》、《语法》和《语音》

Lesson 1

Another School Year ---What For?

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge
 Vocabulary (word study): Verbal affixes: -ize/ise; -fy; -en
 Grammar Focus: 1)the way of expressing future time; 2)the use of emphasizing coordinate conjunctions
 Difficult sentences
 Writing Technique: Euphemism
 Structure Analysis
 Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Text A

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge:

- 1 . William Shakespeare,
- 2 . Bach, Homer,
- 3 . *THE ILIAD*,
- 4 . *THE ODYSSEY*,
- 5 . VIRGIL, or VERGI, DANTE,
- 6 . *The Divine Comedy*
- 7 . ,ARISTOTLE (384-322 BC),
- 8 . Geoffrey Chaucer, *The Canterbury Tales*,
- 9 . LA ROCHEFOUCAULD, Francois de (1613-80),
- 1 0 . Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT)

Vocabulary (word study): acquire, assume, certify, enroll, expose, generate, maintain, preside, rear, shudder, specialize, store, suffice, sensible, sensitive; Verbal affixes: -ize/ise; -fy; -en

Grammar Focus: 1)the way of expressing future time; 2)the use of emphasizing coordinate conjunctions: both ...and.../ not only ... but (also) / not...but... / either... or / neither...nor

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.

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

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.

Written Work

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

Further Reading

1. Read Text B

Lesson 2

Maheegun My Brother

Background knowledge

Vocabulary (word study):

Grammar Focus: 1)the function of infinitive; 2)the modal + have done

Difficult sentences

Writing Technique: Inversion, Simile & metaphor, Action expressions

Structure Analysis

How to appreciate literature

Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Text A

Background knowledge:

Vocabulary (word study): 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, 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,

Grammar Focus: 1)the function of infinitive; 2)the modal + have done

Difficult sentences

1. ...Maheegun 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.

Writing Technique: Inversion, Simile & metaphor, Action expressions

1.. Inversion

Gone was the puppy-wool coat.

In its place was a handsome black mantle.

In sailed Mrs. Yesno, wild anger, who demanded...

On the top was the clear outline of a great wolf sitting still.

There, about 50 feet away, crouched my two attackers...

There stood a giant black wolf.

2. Simile & metaphor

We hunted the grasshoppers that leaped about like little rockets.

For the next two years I was as busy as a squirrel storing nuts for the winter.

Gone was the puppy-wool coat. In its place was a handsome black mantle.

3.. Action expressions

The writer is successful in his description of natural scenes, the snowstorm, for example, and the wolf – his appearance, action and mood. The text is rich in verbs, phrases and idioms denoting action. Here are some describing Maheegun's actions: upset, scatter, poke his head around the corner, lay his head between his front paws, turning his head this way and that, lick at the dried blood.

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 begins in spring and ends in early spring, in the normal sequence of Nature.

How to appreciate literature:

Plot of the story:

Setting of the story:

Protagonist v.s. Antagonists:

Drama of the story lies in:

Writing technique:

Theme of the story:

Lesson 3

More Crime and Less Punishment

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

Vocabulary (word study): Expressions related to crime, law and court

Grammar Focus: Ways of expressing result, Ways of comparing things, Passive voice

Difficult sentences

Writing Technique: Statistical Information, Rhetorical Questions, Selective Use of Repetition, Analogy

Structure Analysis: typical essay writing structure

Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Text A

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge:

1. Richard Moran
2. Alcatraz Island
3. Jury system in America
4. Guiding principle in criminal court in America

Vocabulary (word study):

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,

Word formation: -al, non-,

Grammar Focus:

Ways of expressing result: so... that / so...as to... / so that.../ and / so / only to do.../ and so /

Ways of comparing things: as...as / more than / the more...the more /

Passive voice

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 are 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 prisoners 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 not feasible as a national policy?

Writing Technique:

1.Statistical Information: In an argumentative piece of writing, statistical evidence is convincing. In this article, the author chiefly uses statistical evidence including exact statistical information (on he re-imprisonment of paroled criminals) and approximate statistics (on the crime rate of the U. S.)

2.Rhetorical Questions: These are questions that do not expect an answer but express a strong feeling, opinion or impression.

3.Selective Use of Repetition: Repetition is used for emphasis and expression of a strong feeling.In Para. 6, the structure “of the /every... only/about” is used five times for emphasis.

4.Analogy: It is the comparison of two unlike things for the purpose of illustration. The comparison is possible because the two things have something in common.In Para. 4, the writer compares a criminal’s acceptance into a prison with the admission of a high-school graduate to a college.

5.language and style: Formal essay

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.

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?

Lesson 4

The Nightingale and the Rose

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

Vocabulary (word study):

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

Difficult sentences

Writing Technique : Figurative speeches used in the text: Personification

Simile and Metaphor; Climax and Anticlimax;

Structure Analysis

Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Text A

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

1. Oscar Wilde's early school years
2. Oscar Wilde's works

Oscar Wilde's belief: Art for art's sake--- The only purpose of the artist is art, not religion, or science, or interest. He who paints or writes only for financial return or to propagandize political and economic interests can only arouse feeling of disgust.

3. Criticism

Vocabulary (word study):

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

Verbs: 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 under

Word formation: -ty, -ity

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

Understanding the Text

Symbolic meanings of “Red rose”, “Lizard” “Butterfly” and “Nightingale”:

Red rose --- true love, which needs constant nourishment of passions of the lovers.

Lizard --- cynic (cynical people), cynic: a person who sees little or no good in anything and who has no belief in human progress; person who shows this by sneering and being contemptuous.

Nightingale --- a truthful, devoted pursuer of love, who dares to sacrifice his own precious life

Student --- not a true lover, ignorant of love, not persistent in pursuing love

Writing Techniques:

1. Figurative speeches used in the text:

Personification

Simile and Metaphor

Climax and Anticlimax

2. Genre of this story and its characteristics:

1) Fairy tales:

- fairies play a part
- contain supernatural or magical elements
- children's stories
- full of veiled comments on life

2) Characteristics:

- personification of birds, insects, animals and trees
- vivid, simple narration --- typical of the oral tradition of fairy tales
- repetitive pattern

3. Syntactic device:

Inversion: ...yet for want of a red rose is my life made wretched. (for emphasis) / ...Crimson was the girdle of petals, and crimson as ruby was the heart. / She passed through the grove like a shadow and like a shadow she she sailed across the garden. / Night after night have I sung of him.

Structure Analysis

Nightingale struck by the “the mystery of love”

Nightingale looking for a red rose to facilitate the love

Nightingale sacrificing her life for a red rose

Student discarding the red rose

Assignmen

1. Oral work: Use the dialogues in the text to dramatize the story.
2. Written work: Describe how the Nightingale built a red rose out of music in about 150 words.

Lesson 5

Say Yes

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

Vocabulary (word study):

Grammar Focus: 1.noun clauses introduced by wh-word 2.with + noun + preposition phrase / participle / adjective 3.the way

The theme of the text: racism

Writing Devices: 1. A direct, even non-dramatic, style of writing: 2.Verbs or phrases employed to show the inner feelings

Textual Structure schedule: On an ordinary night after supper → a common talk → different altitudes → conflicts

Analysis of husband

Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Text A

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

1. Tobias Wolff
2. Works of the author: *Back in the World*, *In the Garden of the North American Martyrs*,
3. Historical Context: The passage is written during the Republican years
4. Racism
5. KKK(Ku Klux Klan)
6. Creation of the Jim Crow South

Vocabulary (word study):

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

Prefix: hypo- , hyper- Suffixes: -ics, -ic

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, or so

Grammar Focus:

- 1.noun clauses introduced by wh-word
- 2.with + noun + preposition phrase / participle / adjective

3.the way

Understanding the theme

“Say Yes” is such a story about the relationship between husband and wife. Looking deeply, we find that it really is a discussion of subtle expressions of racist feelings that are found in many ordinary people.

The idea of racism is a theme in the story, for the implication of the husband’s racism is what causes the couple to quarrel. The wife dislikes her husband’s beliefs that African Americans are different from whites. He maintains that it is not that he is prejudiced against African Americans, but that they come from a different culture from white people? And they even have their own language. His protestation that I *like* hearing them talk because it makes him feel happy reveals much about his personality: his belief that African Americans are inherently foreign to whites, his condescending attitude, and his sense of otherness from himself? He needs something completely unlike himself to bring him pleasure.

The husband’s negative response to Ann’s question of whether he would marry her were she African American indicates the pervasive and destructive nature of his racism.

Writing Devices

1. A direct, even non-dramatic, style of writing: Wolff has often been likened to other writers of his generation such as Raymond Carver and Richard Ford. In his short stories, Wolff practices a direct, even non-dramatic, style of writing. This is certainly the case in his story “Say Yes” which takes as its backdrop an average evening in the life of a married couple. When the conversation delves into an issue on which the couple do not agree, the relationship experiences a newfound rockiness. The husband’s reaction to this argument demonstrates the secret undercurrents that run through relationships.

2. Verbs or phrases employed to show the inner feeling of both husband and wife: pinch her brows together, her lips pressed tight together, bite her lips, keep his mouth shut, plunge her hands under the surface, with her eyes closed, take a deep breath, snap through the pages, his throat tightened, his heart pounded

Textual Structure schedule

On an ordinary night after supper → a common talk → different attitudes → conflicts

Analysis of husband

The husband in the story is generally an unsympathetic character. He appears to have racist feelings and seems to be dishonest with himself. He claims to appreciate the stability his life with Ann provides him, but he still makes efforts to undermine it. He refuses to take responsibility for his actions. Throughout the evening, he is seen to be less than a genuine person; he does things for effect rather than out of a genuine, sincere desire. Within the confines of the story, his most significant trait is his rejection of his wife, which she takes quite seriously, much to his surprise. By the end of the story, the husband demonstrates yet another shift in mood: excitement as he realizes that, in certain ways, his wife is unknowable to him. The final scene has him awaiting his wife in their darkened bedroom, imagining that she is a stranger that he seems to embrace, as demonstrated by the excited pounding of his...

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.

Lesson 6

The Man in the Water

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge
 Theme of the Text: Heroism
 Vocabulary (word study): prefix im- in-
 Language Points:
 Grammar Focus: 1.Appositive clauses 2.Indefinite pronouns derived from:
 some, any no, every
 Difficult sentences
 Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Text A

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

1. About the author: Roger Rosenblatt
2. About the Air Crash
3. Moments After the Crash
4. Comments on the Event
5. Related information: Presidential Monuments: Washington Monument; Jefferson Memorial;
6. The Potomac Rive

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.

7. This is true heroism.

Vocabulary (word study): prefix im- in-

Language Points: as ... goes ... , chaotic, chaos, slap, aesthetic, aesthetics, 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

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 are 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 of four true feelings in this matter. (para. 8)*

Grammar Focus:

1. Appositive clauses

2. Indefinite pronouns derived from: some, any, no, every

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.”

Lesson 7

The Greatest Invention

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

Theme of the story: the purpose of science

Vocabulary (word study): the suffixes -ism, -th ; Language points: 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,

Grammar Focus: the use of "as" and "it"; relative clauses

Difficult sentences

Writing Technique: Type of writing: Fantasy, fable and modern fable

Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Text A

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

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

2. Germ warfare: Germ is an informal term for a disease-causing organism, particularly bacteria. Biological warfare, also known as germ warfare, is the use of any organism (bacteria, virus or other disease-causing organism) or toxin found in nature, as a weapon of war. It is meant to incapacitate or kill an adversary. Biological warfare is a cause for concern because a successful attack could conceivably result in thousands, possibly even millions, of deaths and could cause severe disruptions to societies and economies. However the consensus among military analysts is that except in the context of bioterrorism, biological warfare is militarily of little use.

3. Examples of biological warfare:

Rajneeshi Salmonella Attack: *In a small town in Oregon, followers of the Rajneesh Yoga attempted to control a local election by infecting a salad bar with salmonella. The attack caused about 900 people to get sick, and was thus quite effective.*

2001 anthrax attack: *In September and October of 2001, several cases of anthrax broke out in the United States in the 2001 anthrax attacks, caused deliberately. This was a well-publicized act of bioterrorism.*

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?

Language points (words and expressions): 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,

Grammar Focus: the use of "as" and "it"; relative clauses

Detailed analysis of the Text

1. What do you think is going to happen, Jorkens? (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?

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

4. "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"?

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

6. 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".

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

8. "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?

Writing Technique:

Type of writing: Fantasy, fable and modern fable

Fantasy:

It is a situation imagined by an individual or group, which does not correspond with reality but expresses certain desires or aims of its creator.

Fantasies typically involve situations which are impossible (such as the existence of magic powers) or highly unlikely (such as world peace)

In literature fantasy is a form of fiction, usually novels or short stories.

As a genre, fantasy is both associated and contrasted with science fiction and horror fiction.

"Fantasy" seems reserved for fiction that features magic, brave knights, damsels in distress, mythical beasts, and quests.

Fable:

a short moral story (often with animal characters)

In its strict sense a fable is a short story or folk tale with a moral at the end. It often, but not necessarily, makes metaphorical use of an animal as its central character. In some cases usage the term has been extended to include stories with mythical or legendary elements.

Modern fable:

fabled characters of more modern archetypes
using familiar characters in an unfamiliar setting
introduce people's characters in modern life
updated message with contemporary circumstance and plot line

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.

Lesson 8 Psychologically Speaking

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge
Vocabulary (word study): prefix fore-, -ish
Grammar Focus: if-clause
Difficult sentences
Writing Devices: a situational comedy, no particularly significant social or moral message, amusing story.
Textual Structure schedule: The story developed according to the conflicts.
Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Text A

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

1. to define what psychoanalysis is
2. Sigmund Freud
3. The First World War (1914-1918)

Fought between 1914 and 1918, was the first of the great world-wide conflicts of the twentieth century, pitting the 'Central Powers' of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey and smaller allies against the 'Entente,' notably the British Empire, France, Russia, Italy, Japan, the United States, and their allies.

4. Western Front

1) In World War One, the main theatre of war, the Western Front, was deadlocked 处于僵局 after the war's start in 1914 until a few months before its end in 1918, stretching in a continuous line of trenches from the English Channel to the Swiss frontier. By 1916 the forces of Germany, France and the British Empire, armies millions of men strong, measured advances in terms of a few miles gained over several months. Casualties for each big attack or 'push' ran into hundreds of thousands on both sides, with calculations for victory based on national birth-rates to replace the losses. This was not the kind of war that anyone, including the politicians and generals who directed it, wanted to fight.

2) By 1918, although the Western armies outnumbered the Germans, the Western Front began to slow down offensives 攻势 into another phase of static warfare, turning strategic situation into a murderous war of attrition 消耗战 in which each shattered side could no longer sustain an offensive. It was believed that a successful Allied attack in the region of St. Mihiel, the Metz, and Verdun would psychologically break the Germans will to fight. This psychological theory was similar to what had happened to the French armies at Verdun in 1917. Then the Americans, from their bases on the Rhine, could launch offensives into Germany. 12-16 Sept. 1918, the Western Front of France

5.the Battle of St. Mihiel.: One of the most significant battles of World War One was fought:

The engagement was the first battle in which American led forces,overcoming the bad weather

condition and in-depth series of trenches, wire obstacles, and machine-gun nests that the Germans installed to augment their defensive positions. It altered the strategic situation along the whole Western Front till the Germans lost the War.

6. Final Peace Treaty: The Versailles Treaty of June 28, 1919. This is the complete text of the Versailles Treaty which ended World War I.

7. Puritan: The term "Puritan" first began as a taunt or insult applied by traditional Anglicans to those who criticized or wished to "purify" the Church of England. In November 1620, a group of Puritan separatists, attempting to escape religious persecution, fled England on the Mayflower to settle in the New World. Within five months half of the original 101 colonists were dead.

"Puritan" refers to two distinct groups:

1) "separating" puritans, such as the Plymouth colonists, who believed that the Church of England was corrupt and that true Christians must separate themselves from it;

2) non-separating puritans, such as the colonists who settled the Massachusetts Bay Colony, believed in reforming the established church but not separation, and who believed in forming churches through voluntary compacts. The idea of compacts was central to the Puritans' conception of social, political, and religious organizations.

8. Puritan's belief

Like their counterparts in Britain they were extreme Calvinistic Protestants who viewed the Reformation as a victory of true Christianity over Roman Catholicism. They believed that the Universe was God-centered, and that man, inherently sinful and corrupt, rescued from damnation only by arbitrary divine grace, was duty-bound to do God's will, which he could understand best by studying the Bible and the universe which God had created and which he controlled.

9. "Quaker": from England in the mid 17th cen, refers to a member of the Religious Society of Friends.

"Quaker" rebelled against the rigid hierarchy and government control prevalent in the Anglican church, and began meeting in homes or buildings, waiting upon God silently to make His presence felt and inwardly heard. Any person could be called by God to rise and preach upon any occasion of worship. They were much persecuted in England before finding refuge in the American colonies.

10. Two reputed origins of the Quaker:

1) the first refers to people "quaking" or trembling when feeling moved by the Holy Spirit to speak in Meetings for Worship.

2) The other is: George Fox was arrested in Derby in October 1650 and charged with blasphemy. George Fox was questioned intermittently over an eight hour period, during which at one point George Fox told the magistrates who tried him "Tremble at the word of the Lord". It was Justice Bennett who coined the name "Quakers" for the followers of George Fox

11. Rules of the Quaker: formerly a Quaker background practices: simplicity, financial responsibility, work ethic, belief in the perfectibility of humankind...

Grammar Focus: if-clause

Vocabulary (word study): prefix fore-, -ish

Detailed Analysis of Language Points: claim, in some/great measure, respect, respectable, respectful, respected, respecting, respective, with honors, 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.

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

Prefix: fore-, Suffix: -ish

Textual Structure schedule

The story developed according to the conflicts.

In this comedy play, there are two conflicts. The chief conflict was between the mother who wanted to stick to the traditional way of life and the daughter who yearned for change and freedom, especially, as is often the case, in love and marriage. Of course, this conflict is not new, as we can find in our famous love story in the western culture *Romeo and Juliet*. What is unusual was the way the conflict was resolved. It was resolved in a melo-dramatic way by a psychologist. A minor conflict is the fight over Mrs.Kent between Mr. Kent, her husband, and the psychologist, who pretended to be her long-lost first husband coming back to claim her. It was interesting that the resolution of the first conflict occurred at the same time when the second conflict was resolved.

Writing Devices

This text is what we might call a situational comedy. It does not have a particularly significant social or moral message to give to the readers. Nor can it be regarded as a great work of art. The main merit is its amusing story.

Discussion:

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

Lesson 9

Quick Fix Society

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge
 Vocabulary (word study): prefix “super-” “pre-”
 Grammar Focus: V-ing form, attributive modifier
 Detailed analysis: some difficult sentences
 Writing Technique: Comparison-contrast; Examples; Rhetorical Questions;
 Repetition of structure and words; language and style
 Structure Analysis: introduction, body, conclusion
 Eight teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

Text A

Introduction to the author and related background knowledge

1 . Pennsylvania Dutch town

1) Location: Lancaster County, PA, The heart of the Pennsylvania Dutch Country is located in south central Pennsylvania 1 1/2 hours west of Philadelphia. Most of the Amish Country attractions are in Lancaster County, and almost all of the local Amish people live here as well.

2) People Amish: The Amish are a religious group who live in settlements in 22 states and Ontario, Canada. The oldest group of Old Order Amish, about 16-18,000 people live in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania. The Amish stress humility, family and community, and separation from the world.

3) Beliefs: The Amish was part of the early Anabaptist movement in Europe, which took place at the time of the Reformation. The Anabaptists believed that only adults who had confessed their faith should be baptized, and that they should remain separate from the larger society. They also believe in non-resistance and basic Bible doctrines.

4) Life style: They are a private people who believe God has kept them together. They are a strong example of a community that supports and cares for its members. They are a people apart; they are also a people together.

2 . Fast roads in America

Highways: connect cities•

Superhighways: a road with six or more lanes

Interstate highways: connect cities in different states

Freeways: roads within a city

Expressways: fast roads in or near cities

Turnpike: pay money before you use it.

3 . Cliff’s Notes: Cliff’s notes is a series of reference book written to help undergraduate students to understand and appreciate important literary works. With such notes, students don’t have to read the work

itself and be able to write papers and take exams

4 . Iceberg principle: "If a writer of prose knows enough about what he is writing about he may omit things that he knows and the reader, if the writer is writing truly enough, will have a feeling of those things as strongly as though the writer had stated them. The dignity of movement of the iceberg is due to only one-eighth of it being above water. The writer who omits things because he does not know them only makes hollow places in his writing

Vocabulary (word study): 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, more often than not, to get over with, to go back to

Grammar Focus: V-ing form; attributive modifier

Detailed analysis:

Part one

Questions:

- 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, has infected every level of our lives. (para. 5) Paraphrase the whole sentence.
- 3) And if our fast food doesn't 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?

Writing Technique:

1 . Comparison-contrast: It is a way of developing an essay. It means explaining the similarities and differences between events, people, ideas and so on. In this essay the writer concentrated on differences

rather than similarities. In the first two paragraphs, she contrasts her featureless ride driving on fast roads and the pleasure of the return trip of a different route. In Paragraph 4, she points out how Americans' lifestyle has changed from "saving for a rainy day" to "relax now, pay later", and what they did in the past when they wanted to lose weight, and how they try to get quick results today.

2 . Examples: Using an example or examples is one of the simplest ways of explaining anything. In Para. 5, several examples are given to illustrate how the "I-hate-to-wait" attitude is reflected in various aspects of American life. In the next paragraph, the writer lists facts to show how the iceberg principle applies to the way many Americans live their lives.

3 . Rhetorical Questions: In para. 3, 5 and 7 Why is it that the featureless turnpike and interstates are the route of choice for so many of us? Why doesn't everybody try slowing down and exploring the countryside?

4 . Repetition of structure and words: 1) Of structure: in Para. 4, four if-clause are used to contrast the way Americans did things in the past and the way they seek a quick fix today. 2) Of words: The writer repeats the word "fast" throughout Para. 5 with negative implications. 5 . language and style:

Informal essay

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

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.

《综合英语（三）》教学大纲

欧小琪 编写

目 录

前 言.....	49
一、概述.....	49
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	49
三、课程主要内容及学时分配.....	49
WEEK 1 (Sept. 4 - 8).....	53
WEEK 2 (Sept. 11 - 15).....	54
WEEK 3 (Sept. 18 - 22).....	55
WEEK 4 (Sept. 25 - 29).....	56
WEEK 5 (Oct. 2 - 6).....	57
WEEK 6 (Oct. 9 - 13).....	58
WEEK 7 (Oct. 16 - 20).....	59
WEEK 8 (Oct. 23 - 27).....	60
WEEK 9 (Oct. 30 – Nov. 3).....	61
WEEK 10 (Nov. 6 - 10).....	62
WEEK 11 (Nov. 13 - 17).....	63
WEEK 12 (Nov. 20 - 24).....	64
WEEK 13 (Nov. 27 – Dec. 1).....	65
WEEK 14 (Dec. 4 - 8).....	66
WEEK 15 (Dec. 11 - 15).....	67
WEEK 16 (Dec. 18 – 22).....	68
WEEK 17 (Dec. 25 - 29).....	69
WEEK 18 (Jan. 1 - 5).....	70

前 言

一、概述

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。

“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288学时，共计16学分。每学期为72学时，4学分。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

“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传统文化，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。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

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	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	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。

	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。	动语态、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%。
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。	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。
阅读	能以每分钟 60 个单词的	能阅读难度相当于	能读懂难度相当于美

	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。	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。	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。阅读速度为每分钟 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 Contemporary 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。
文化素养	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。	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。	

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 学时。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 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 4—5 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 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：10—30 分钟。

四) 作业。

具体安排：

WEEK 1 (Sept. 4 - 8)

I. Introduction to the Syllabus.

II. Lesson One: Your College Years

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

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*

3. Discussion:

1) *What is the purpose of education?*

2) *Have you experienced any developmental changes since you entered our university?*

4. Exercises.

III. Assignment: Handout 1.

WEEK 2 (Sept. 11 - 15)

I. Lesson One: Your College Years (cont'd)

II. Lesson Two : Discovery of a Father

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

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*

3. Discussion:

1) *What do you expect of an ideal father-son relationship?*

2) *What happened one day that changed the author's opinions of his father completely? What kind of a father did he finally discover?*

4. Exercises.

III. Assignment: Writing Task 1.

WEEK 3 (Sept. 18 - 22)

I. Lesson Two: Discovery of a Father (cont'd)

II. Assignment: Handout 2.

WEEK 4 (Sept. 25 - 29)

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

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *quota, inventory, feature, find, lifetime, quarter, grip, fast, under, frantic, stripped-down, top, down/up*

2) Phrases and expressions: *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*

3. Discussion:

1) *What lesson can we draw from Michael Dell's story?*

2) *What is your understanding of "success"?*

4. Exercises.

II. Assignment: Writing Task 2.

WEEK 5 (Oct. 2 - 6)

II. Lesson Three: Michael Dell's Two-Billion-Dollar Dream (cont'd)

II. Lesson Four : Wisdom of Bear Wood

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *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*

3. Discussion:

1) *Why is it that two people as different from each other as the boy and the old woman could develop such an enduring and rewarding friendship?*

2) *What is your opinion of friendship?*

4. Exercises.

III. Assignment: Handout 3.

IV. Holiday.

WEEK 6 (Oct. 9 - 13)

I. Lesson Four : Wisdom of Bear Wood (cont'd)

II. Assignment: Writing Task 3.

WEEK 7 (Oct. 16 - 20)

I. Lesson Five: Twelve Angry Men (Part One)

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *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*

3. Discussion:

1) *What do you know about the jury system in America?*

2) *What do you think was No. 8's motive for voting not guilty?*

4. Exercises.

II. Assignment: Handout 4.

WEEK 8 (Oct. 23 - 27)

I. Lesson Five: Twelve Angry Men (Part One) (cont'd)

II. Lesson Six : Twelve Angry Men (Part Two)

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

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*

3. Discussion:

1) *What do you think of the jury system in America?*

4. Exercises.

III. Assignment: Writing Task 4.

WEEK 9 (Oct. 30 – Nov. 3)

I. Lesson Six : Twelve Angry Men (Part Two) (cont'd)

II. Assignment: Handout 5.

WEEK 10 (Nov. 6 - 10)

I. Lesson Seven: The Rivals

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

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*

3. Discussion:

1) *How do you understand the title of this article?*

2) *What is the message of the text?*

4. Exercises.

II. Assignment: Writing Task 5.

WEEK 11 (Nov. 13 - 17)

I. Lesson Seven: The Rivals (cont'd)

II. Lesson Eight: "We're Only Human"

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *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*

3. Discussion:

1) *What is more important, nature or nurture?*

2) *What is your understanding of happiness?*

4. Exercises.

III. Assignment: Handout 6.

WEEK 12 (Nov. 20 - 24)

I. Lesson Eight: “We’re Only Human”(cont’d)

II. Assignment: Writing Task 6.

WEEK 13 (Nov. 27 – Dec. 1)

I. Lesson Nine: A Dill Pickle

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *exasperate, haunt, flap, hover, slumber, to, purr, scrape, egotist, engrossed, astounded*

2) Phrases and expressions: *to light (sth) up, like a maniac, out of proportion (to sth), to prick (sth) up, to make a grimace, to let sth go/pass, to breathe/say a word*

3. 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?*

4. Exercises.

II. Assignment: Handout 7.

WEEK 14 (Dec. 4 - 8)

I. Lesson Nine: A Dill Pickle (cont'd)

II. Lesson Ten : Diogenes and Alexander

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *lunatic, scant, satirize, convert, expound, complexity, extravagance, elaborate, procure, stamp, imprint, totter, chivalrous, automaton, emulate, fiery, kennel, titter, guffaw, nudge*

2) Phrases and expressions: *to know of sb/sth, look over sth, a corps of*

3. Discussion:

1) *What do you know about Diogenes's philosophy?*

2) *What do you think Diogenes and Alexander had in common?*

4. Exercises.

III. Assignment: Writing Task 7.

WEEK 15 (Dec. 11 - 15)

I. Lesson Ten : Diogenes and Alexander (cont'd)

II. Assignment: Handout 8.

WEEK 16 (Dec. 18 – 22)

I. Lesson Eleven: Silent Spring

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *drift, flame, flicker, shady, spell, sweep, throb, stricken, substantial, mould, span, impetuous, deliberate, futile, resurgence, crossfire, bounds, built-in, colossal, hitchhike, contend, potent, indiscriminately*

2) Phrases and expressions: *a blaze of sth, to feed on/off sth, to tamper with sth, to find your /its ' way (to / into), to gear sth to/towards sb/sth, to set the scene/stage, to be intermingled with, to be adapted to sth, to damp sth down*

3. Discussion:

1) *What is your opinion of Carson's views published some forty years ago?*

2) *What do you think of Rachel Carson's contributions to modern environmental movement?*

4. Exercises.

II. Assignment: Writing Task 8.

WEEK 17 (Dec. 25 - 29)

I. Lesson Eleven: Silent Spring (cont'd)

II. Lesson Twelve : The Needs that Drive Us All

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *genetic, destiny, clear-cut, mores, downtrodden, self-serving, expertise, pervasive, clout, coerce, payoff, unbridled, reword, frivolous, catalyst*

2) Phrases and expressions: *to attach sth to sth, to be a tribute to sth/sb, to get sth across, to band together, an eternity, to be in conflict with, much as, to branch out, to be a counterforce to sth*

3. Discussion:

1) *Is power a good thing or a bad thing? Give reasons for your answer.*

2) *Do you agree that the love of fun is also a basic human need? Why or why not?*

4. Exercises.

III. Assignment: Handout 9.

WEEK 18 (Jan. 1 - 5)

- I. Lesson Twelve : The Needs that Drive Us All (cont'd)
- II. Exam Revision

Notes:

- ¹. Handouts here are all the teaching materials provided by the teacher.
- ². Final Exam will not cover Text B.
3. Handouts 1-9 are those supplementary readings and exercises for students to do after class.
4. Writing Tasks 1-8 are due the following week after they are distributed to the students.
5. Lessons 13, 14 and 15 will be covered if time permits.

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. 口语考试 (Oral test)
5. 期中考试 (Mid-term exam)
6. 期末考试 (Final exam)

四、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。

《综合英语（四）》教学大纲

欧小琪 编写

目 录

前 言.....	73
一、概述.....	73
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	73
三、课程主要内容及学时分配.....	73
WEEK 1 (March 5 - 9).....	77
WEEK 2 (March 12 - 16).....	78
WEEK 3 (March 19 - 23).....	79
WEEK 4 (March 26 - 30).....	80
WEEK 5 (April 2 - 6).....	81
WEEK 6 (April 9 - 13).....	82
WEEK 7 (April 16 - 20).....	83
WEEK 8 (April 23 - 27).....	84
WEEK 9 (April 30 - May 4).....	85
WEEK 10 (May 7 - 11).....	86
WEEK 11 (May 14 - 18).....	87
WEEK 12 (May 21 - 25).....	88
WEEK 13 (May 28 - June 1).....	89
WEEK 14 (June 4 - 8).....	90
WEEK 15 (June 11 - 15).....	91
WEEK 16 (June 18 - 22).....	92
WEEK 17 (June 25 - 29).....	93
WEEK 18 (July 2 - 6).....	94

前 言

一、概述

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。

“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288学时，共计16学分。每学期为72学时，4学分。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

“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传统文化，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。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

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	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	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。

	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。	动语态、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%。
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。	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。
阅读	能以每分钟 60 个单词的	能阅读难度相当于	能读懂难度相当于美

	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。	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。	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。阅读速度为每分钟 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 Contemporary 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。
文化素养	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。	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。	

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 学时。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 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 4—5 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 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：10—30 分钟。

四) 作业。

综合英语 IV (第 4 学期)

WEEK 1 (March 5 - 9)

I. Introduction to the Syllabus.

1. Textbook (Text A + Exercises)
2. TEM 4 Preparation:
 - 1) Dictation
 - 2) Grammar and Vocabulary
 - 3) Cloze
 - 4) Note-writing
 - 5) Composition
 - 6) News Broadcast

II. Lesson One: Thinking as a Hobby

1. Introduction to the Text

- 1) Questions
- 2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

- 1) Words: *penal, oratory, hustle, hideous, reel, detestation, outnumber, flag*
- 2) Phrases and expressions: *if anything, to leap to one's feet, to endow sb. with sth., to be given to sth., to think well of sb, for my money, to be given the third degree, to make for, to confer sth on sb, few and far between, in the flesh, to aspire to sth, to do away with sth*

3. Discussion:

- 1) *In the text, the writer classifies thinking into three grades. What do you think the writer refers to by the three grades?*
- 2) *What do you think grade-one thinking is in the writer's mind?*
- 3) *Which category do you find yourself in, grade-one, two or three?*

4. Exercises.

III. TEM 4 Preparation

1. Lectures
2. TEM 4 exercise 1

IV. Assignment: Handout 1.

WEEK 2 (March 12 - 16)

- I. Lesson One: Thinking as a Hobby (cont'd)
- II. TEM 4 Preparation
 1. Lectures
 2. TEM 4 exercise 2
- III. Assignment: Writing Task 1.

WEEK 3 (March 19 - 23)

I. Lesson Two : Waiting for the Police

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *alot, gasp, gulp, alibi, oblige, ejaculate, glare, press*

2) Phrases and expressions: *to whip sb/ sth up, to start/set/get/keep the ball rolling, to take advantage of, to go by, a split second, to clear up sth, to powder one's nose, to come off, to put/ get sth out of your mind/ head, to turn on sb, to get on one's nerves*

3. Discussion:

1) *What can be said about the setting of the story?*

2) *What is your comment on the language of the story?*

4. Exercises.

II. TEM 4 Preparation

1. Lectures

2. TEM 4 exercise 3

III. Assignment: Handout 2.

WEEK 4 (March 26 - 30)

- I. Lesson Two: Waiting for the Police (cont'd)
- II. TEM 4 Preparation
 1. Lectures
 2. TEM 4 exercise 4
- III. Assignment: Writing Task 2.

WEEK 5 (April 2 - 6)

I. Lesson Three : Why Historians Disagree

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *denote, approximate, quest, deem, belligerent, interception, foolproof, elusive*

2) Phrases and expressions: *by way of, to be immersed in, a state of affairs, more or less, sb can not help but do sth, in a broad/ narrow/general sense, the high seas, to be relevant to sth, at work, to read about/of, in the event of, to one's advantage/disadvantage, to make of sth, to stem from, to give/attach weight to sth, to be destined to do sth, on the grounds that...*

3. Discussion:

1) *What is the purpose of studying history?*

2) *What would you say are the most important characteristics of a good historian?*

4. Exercises.

II. TEM 4 Preparation

1. Lectures

2. TEM 4 exercise 5

III. Assignment: Handout 3.

WEEK 6 (April 9 - 13)

- I. Lesson Three : Why Historians Disagree (cont'd)
- II. TEM 4 Preparation
 1. Lectures
 2. TEM 4 exercise 6
- III. Assignment: Writing Task 3.

WEEK 7 (April 16 - 20)

I. Lesson Four : A Drink in the Passage

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *oversight, reprimand, personage, outcry, avert, indulge, expel, slump*

2) Phrases and expressions: *golden jubilee, to bring/draw sth to a close, a departure from, to feel up to sth, to squint at sth (to have/take a squint at), out of the corner of one's eye, and all, at one's ease, to come from/out of nowhere, to break one's heart, to be/get beyond sb, to take a leap*

3. Discussion:

1) *What do you think are the possible sources of racism?*

2) *Is racism an international issue? Why or why not?*

4. Exercises.

II. TEM 4 Preparation

1. Lectures

2. TEM 4 2004/2005/2006

III. Assignment: Handout 4.

WEEK 8 (April 23 - 27)

I. Lesson Four : A Drink in the Passage (cont'd)

II. Assignment: Writing Task 4.

WEEK 9 (April 30 – May 4)

I. Lesson Five: Man of the Moment

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *obscene, undaunted, concern, crack, scrap, shake, outburst, pinion, onslaught, topple, thrash*

2) Phrases and expressions: *to get one's breath again/back, to sum sb/sth up, to come of/from sth, sick in the stomach (= sick to one's stomach), at the bottom of sth, to resign oneself to (doing) sth, not that..., to drift away, (all) to oneself, double glazing, to have a liking for sb/sth, to be instrumental in (doing) sth, to tail away/off, to be partial to sb/sth, to pull oneself together, I (can) take it, to stick with sb/sth, to take sb for granted, to cut one's losses, to lay a finger on sb, to land a blow, to prop sb/sth (up) (against sth)*

3. Discussion:

1) *What do you think of the functions of media?*

2) *What are the possible themes of the short play?*

4. Exercises.

II. Assignment: Handout 5.

III. Holiday

WEEK 10 (May 7 - 11)

I. Lesson Five: Man of the Moment (cont'd)

II. Lesson Six : Groundless Beliefs

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *proposition, staunch, reverse, credit, demonstrate, extend, belittle, dictate, stock*

2) Phrases and expressions: *to rest on/upon, a shadow of sth, to be consistent with, other than, to break down, in the light of sth, to shake sth off, to be beyond possibility or doubt, to consist in sth, no room for doubt, it pays (sb) to do sth, as a (general) rule, to attribute sth to sb/sth, to be/feel compelled to do (sth), to bear/have a grudge against sb, to dispose sb to do sth, to go to the dogs, to make allowance for sth*

3. Discussion:

1) *Why do you think groundless beliefs gain wide acceptance ?*

2) *Do you agree that human progress involves shaking off existing wrong beliefs? Give reasons for your answer.*

4. Exercises.

III. Assignment: Writing Task 5.

WEEK 11 (May 14 - 18)

I. Lesson Six : Groundless Beliefs (cont'd)

II. Assignment: Handout 6.

WEEK 12 (May 21 - 25)

I. Lesson Seven: Spring Sowing

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *imminence, rest, primeval, subjugate, crunch, cock, secure, draught, overpower, carry*

2) Phrases and expressions: *to be better off (doing sth), at this/that rate, to take hold of, to take sb/sth for sb/sth/to be sb/sth, to draw back, furrowed brows, to be chained to sb/sth, to sink into sth, to be dotted with, to cock one's head, to rob sb of sth, to revel in sth, a flash of sth, to cross one's mind*

3. Discussion:

1) *What changes do you think have taken place in social ethics since our grandfathers' time?*

2) *What qualities would you like to find in your future spouse?*

3) *What is your life's ambition?*

4. Exercises.

II. Assignment: Writing Task 6.

WEEK 13 (May 28 – June 1)

I. Lesson Seven: Spring Sowing (cont'd)

II. Lesson Eight: Globalization's Dual Power

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *erode, daunting, champion, combat, dwarf, hamstring, clamor, neutralize, ensue, downturn, relieve, project, implode, prevail*

2) Phrases and expressions: *at/on the edge of, a double-edged sword, to go on a binge, to be hard-pressed to do sth, to fare well/badly/better, to be prone to sth/to do sth, boom and bust, on both/several/all counts, to snowball into, a case for/against sth, to shield sb/sth (against/from sb/sth)*

3. Discussion:

1) *Are you for or against globalization? Why or why not?*

2) *How does globalization affect culture?*

3) *What is the role of the internet and communications technology in globalisation?*

4. Exercises.

III. Assignment: Handout 7.

WEEK 14 (June 4 - 8)

- I. Lesson Eight: Globalization's Dual Power (cont'd)
- II. Assignment: Writing Task 7.

WEEK 15 (June 11 - 15)

I. Lesson Nine: The Most Dangerous Game

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *sip, stroll, execute, pent-up, ring, dress, wrench, pad, claim, dash, rumble, regard, furnish*

2) Phrases and expressions: *to rest with sb (to do sth), to venture to do sth, to fight one's way, to keep/lose one's nerve, to snap (sth) shut, to spur sb/sth (on) (to do sth), to get/take a grip (on oneself), to take stock (of sth), to strike off/out (somewhere), to blunder on, after a fashion, to be intent on sth/doing sth, to take (sth) up, to give way, to make sb/sth out, to fasten sth on/to sth, to shin up/down sth, at bay*

3. Discussion:

1) *What do you think is the moral of this story if there is any?*

2) *Do you agree that killing under any circumstances is wrong? Why or why not?*

4. Exercises.

II. Assignment: Handout 8.

WEEK 16 (June 18 – 22)

I. Lesson Nine: The Most Dangerous Game (cont'd)

II. Lesson Ten : The Telephone

1. Introduction to the Text

1) Questions

2) Pair/ Group work

2. Language points:

1) Words: *tingle, shun, congregate, shoo, rip*

2) Phrases and expressions: *east of, to keep/lose track of sb/sth, to roll by, to cave in, to incorporate sth in/into sth, (violence, tempers, etc.) flare (up), to call sb names, to get anywhere/somewhere/nowhere, to talk sb into/out of sth/doing sth, (of news or information, etc.) Word goes out that..., at sb's elbow, back and forth, to chime in, to deliver (from sth), a lucrative business/contract/market, fewer and fewer, more and more, (of sb's speech) to trail away/off*

3. Discussion:

1) *What changes do you think the internet has brought to our life?*

2) *Should we always embrace the new things? Why or why not?*

4. Exercises.

II. Assignment: Writing Task 8.

WEEK 17 (June 25 - 29)

- I. Lesson Ten: The Telephone (cont'd)
- II. Assignment: Handout 9.

WEEK 18 (July 2 - 6)

- I. Classroom Activities
- II. Final Exam Revision

Notes:

1. Handouts here are all the teaching materials provided by the teacher.
2. Final Exam will not cover Text B.
3. Handouts 1-9 are those supplementary readings and exercises for students to do after class.
4. Writing Tasks 1-8 are due the following week after they are distributed to the students.

《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 Introduction 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—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—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—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—元音、辅音的读音规则；相近、相似音素的区别
- 6、语音检测—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

1. 王桂珍,《英语语音教程》,高等教育出版社,2000
2. 何善芬,《实用英语语音学》,北京师范大学出版社,1992
3. 邵莉、刘颖勤、李辉,《语音进阶》,世界图书出版公司,1999
4. 孟宪忠,《英语语音学》,华东师范大学出版社,1999年3月
5. Cruttenden, A. *Gimson's Pronunciation of English* 外语教学与研究出版社,2000
6. Hancock, M. *English Pronunciation in Use*, Cambridge University Press, 2003

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. [ɑ :] → [æ] before [f, θ, s], and [m, n, ŋ]
2. [ɑ :, ɔ :, ɜ :, ə] → vowel+[r] when r occurs
3. [t] → similar [d] when unstress and between vowels
4. [w] → [hw]

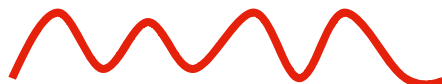
Difference in intonation

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

GB



GA



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 [i:]& [ɪ], [e] & [æ], [e] & [eɪ], [ɛ:] & [ə], [ɑ:]& [ʌ], [ɑ:] & [æ], [ɑ:] & [ɒ], [ɔ:]& [ɒ], [ɑɪ] & [æ], [u:]& [ʊ], [aʊ] & [aɪ], [aʊ] & [əʊ], [ɪə] & [eə], [eə] & [e]. Differences between them are described and emphasized, with the repetition of articulating rules for each. Some students are required to make demonstrations, while others point out the mistakes.

Some students are not sure about the differences between the long vowels [i:]& [ɪ], they just take the latter as a shortened form of the former, and it is not correct. For [i:], 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 [ɔ:]& [ɒ] and [u:]& [ʊ].

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], [ð], [s], [z], [ʃ], [ç],[h], [r] and affricates [tʃ] [dʒ] [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], [θ], [ʃ], [tʃ] seem to be problems:

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

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

For [ʃ], 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 [tʃ], 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 [ŋ], laterals [l] [ɫ], 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. [ɫ] 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] & [ɫ], [f] & [v],[v] & [w],[s] & [z],[s] & [ʃ], [ʃ] & [ç],[θ] & [s], [ð] & [z], [tʃ] & [ʃ], [dr] & [dʒ], [tr] & [ʃ], [v] & [w]. Differences between them are described and emphasized, with the repetition of articulating rules for each. Some students are required to make demonstrations, while others point out the mistakes.

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 (whether 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 tone 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.

《英语听力（一）（二）（三）（四）》 教学大纲

高 静 编写

目 录

前 言.....	111
一、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
Preparatory.....	114
Lesson 1.....	114
Preparatory.....	114
Lesson Two.....	114
Lesson One.....	115
Lesson Seven.....	115
For the second academic year.....	123
Lesson Two.....	124
Lesson Seven.....	125
Week Nine & Ten.....	127
Lesson 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	UNIT 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, Times II. 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:	
	Preparatory Lesson Five	I. Money II. Dialogues (1-4) IV. Dictation of Sentences:	
Week Three	Test		

	Lesson One	I. Dialogues (1-10) II.A. Discussion B. Interview III. Dictations (1-2)	Helps the students identify key words with the hope that they will be able to select key words on the own eventually. Differentiating some confusing sounds
Week Four	Lesson Two	I. Dialogues (1-10) II.A. Conversation B. Story 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 Seven	I. Dialogues (1-15) 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)	

	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) B. Hotel English II.A. Discussion B. Forum III. Spot Dictations (1-2)	Identifying major points Understanding main ideas The listening focus is the identification of major points and main ideas, which is based on the skill of key words identification.
Week Nine	Movie	Sound of Music	
	Lesson Eleven	I. A. Dialogues (1-6) 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 Thirteen	I. A. Dialogues (1-4) 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 & Twelve	Lesson Fourteen	I. Dialogues (1-8) II.A. Telephone Conversations (1-3) B. Shopping III. Dictations (1-16)	
	Lesson Fifteen	I. Dialogues (1-9) II.A. Quick Lunch B. Dinner C. Interview E. Why Can't I Do What I Like? III. Dictation	Drawing inference Exercises in these five units direct at logical guesswork about settings and relationships between people.
	Movie		Help the students develop their ability of relevant thinking as their linguistic skills.
Week Thirteen & Fourteen	Lesson Sixteen	I. Dialogues (1-8) II.A. Snack Bar B. Hotel English Dialogues (1-5) C. Parties D. Discussions III. Dictations (1-9)	
	Lesson Seventeen	I. Dialogues (1-6) II.A. Restaurant English Dialogues (1-3) B. In the Cinema C. A Science Fiction Story III. Dictation	
	Lesson Eighteen	I. Dialogues (1-8) II.A. Interview B. Discussion C. Past Mistakes D. Monologue III. Dictation	
Week Fifteen & Sixteen	Lesson Nineteen	I. Dialogues (1-9) 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 B. Telephone Call C. Old Arthur D. Dangerous Illusions III. Dictation	
	Lesson Twenty-One	I. Dialogue (1-6) II.A. Intentions B. Annual Presentation C. Discussions (1-2) D. Telephone Conversation	

Second semester:

Week One & Two	Lesson Twenty-Two	I. Dialogues (1-4) 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-Three	I. A. Dialogues (1-2) 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	

	Lesson Twenty-Four	<p>I. A. Calculations 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</p>	
Week Three & Four	Lesson Twenty-Five	<p>I. A. Numbers B. Dialogues (1-2) II. A. Memories B. Married life C. Superstitions D. Ghost E. A Strange Story III. Dictation IV. Introduction of Superstitions</p>	
	Lesson Twenty-Six	<p>I. A. Dates 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</p>	

	Lesson Twenty-Seven	<p>I. A. Announcement B. Telephone Message</p> <p>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</p> <p>III. Dictation</p>	
Week Five & Six	Test		
	Lesson Twenty-Eight	<p>I. Functions and happenings (1-7)</p> <p>II. A. Kinds of People B. Career Woman and Marriage C. The Uncle I Hardly Knew D. Bargains</p> <p>III. A. A Mugging B. Bank Robbery</p> <p>IV. Introduction of Judo</p>	
Week Seven & Eight	Lesson Twenty-Nine	<p>I. Airport Announcements (1-6)</p> <p>II. A. At the Lost Property Office B. Questions of Conscience C. Earthquake</p> <p>III. A. Who Needs Friends Like This B. A Day off Work</p>	
	Movie		
Week Nine & Ten	Mid-term Exam		

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

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

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 minutes of materials (consisting of around 150-180 words, and read four times at the speed of 120 words per minute) 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	UNIT TITLE	LANGUAGE POINTS	Skills

<p>Week One & Two</p>	<p>Lesson One</p>	<p>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</p>	<p>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</p>
	<p>Lesson Two</p>	<p>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</p>	
	<p>Lesson Three</p>	<p>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</p>	
<p>Week Three & Four</p>	<p>Lesson Four</p>	<p>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</p>	

	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 Seven	I. 1. Learning a Foreign Language 2. In the Library II. 1. United World Colleges 2. I Remember ... III.1. Study Skills: Learning to Rephrase 2. Dictation IV. Introduction of Credit Card	Lesson seven to twelve are designed to train students for the skill of rephrasing sentences for note-taking. Some techniques are introduced
	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	

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

Week Nine & Ten	Lesson Thirteen	IV. 1. Guess What People Are Talking About 2. Nice to See You! V. 1. What Do You Like About Your Job? 2. What Do You Think of Yourself? VI. Study Skills Recognizing the Main Idea	In lessons from thirteen to Eighteen, the students will learn how to recognize the main idea for notetaking.
	Lesson Fourteen	I. News Summary II.1. Bearded Lady 2. At a Youth Centre III. Recognizing the Main Idea	
Week Eleven & Twelve	Lesson Fifteen	V. 1. Capital Punishment 2. A New Way of Life VI. 1. The Work of Sigmund Freud 2. Cheese III. Recognizing the Main 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 Seventeen	I. 1. News in Brief 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 Fourteen	Lesson Eighteen	I. Energy Crisis II.1. The Years to Come (1) 2. The Years to Come (II) III. Recognizing the Main Idea IV. Enjoy Your English	

	Lesson Nineteen	I. 1. Estate Agent 2. Jazz Singer II.1. Setting Up a Home Computer 2. My Computer Makes Me Sick VII. Study Skills Main Ideas and Supporting Details	In lessons from nineteen to Twenty-three, the students will learn how to recognize the main ideas and supporting details, and how to using abbreviations for shorthand notetaking. Some abbreviations will be studies. Kinds of abbreviations: field abbreviations, commonly understood abbreviations, and personal abbreviations
	Lesson Twenty	I. 1. Fixing an Appointment 2. Last of the Airships? II. 1. Looking for a Flat 2. Moving In III. Main Ideas and Supporting Details IV. Introduction of airship	
Week Fifteen and Sixteen	Lesson Twenty One	I. 1. Talking About Television 2. Games II. Olympics III. Main Ideas and Supporting Details IV. Introduction of Tennis	
	Lesson Twenty Two	IV. Class in Britain and America V. 1. Autobiography: Seminole Girl (I) 2. Autobiography: Seminole Girl (II_ III. Main Ideas and Supporting Details	
	Lesson Twenty Three	I. 1. Finding a Job 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. Additionally, some supplementary materials will be provided in class to prepare the students for the national exam.
Week Two	Lesson Twenty Five	I. The Lucky Story of the Holiday Money II. 1. Parking in London 2. Mummy Dust III. Study Skills Outlining – the Standard Topic Outline Form	
Week Three	Lesson Twenty Six	I. Sport in Britain 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 Seven	I. Holistic Medicine 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 Nine	I. The Sad Life of an Old Man II. News Report: A New Victim in LA III. Outlining – the Standard Topic Outline Form	

	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 One	I. Graphology II. News Report: Smoking Harms Baby During Pregnancy III. Outlining	
Week Twelve	Lesson thirty-two	How to Keep Fit New Report: Neo-Nazi Outlining	
Week Thirteen	Lesson Thirty Three	I. A Coincidence in New York II. News Report: Election in Mexico III. Outlining	
Week Fourteen	Lesson Thirty Four	I. Interpreting Hands II. News Report: Negotiations in the Philippines III. Outlining	
Week Fifteen	Lesson Thirty Five	I. The Unfortunate Story of the Lost Money II. News Report: Drive-in Theatres in Trouble III. Outlining	
Week Sixteen	Lesson Thirty Six	I. Home Computers 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
一、概述.....	133
二、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
五、参考书目.....	134
Chapter I Introduction	135
Chapter II Introduction	139
Chapter III Introduction	143
Chapter 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. 逐步达到英语口语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：

为体验真实实际的语言环境，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

Week 4

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

Week 9

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?

Week 5

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

Week 14

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 on the social problems.

32 teaching hours is allocated for this chapter.

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?

Week 5

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.....	153
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	170

前 言

一、概述

英语泛读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 advocacy 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 narrowing 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 Death

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.....	174
Unit One Roger and Molly.....	176
Unit Two: The Roots of My Ambition	182
Unit Three: New Technologies.....	184
Unit Four : Dream Children: A Reverie	185
Unit Five : The Million-Pound Note	186
Unit Six : Jyre Eyre	188
Unit Seven : Inaugural Address.....	190
Unit Eight : In My Day	191
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。英语阅读课的目的旨在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

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

First Semester

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 4 学时

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	
中册	
Unit One	4 学时
What Life Means to Me(1)	
Unit Two	4 学时
What Life Means to Me(2)	
Unit Three	4 学时
Why I Write	
Unit Four	4 学时
Playhouse Memoranda	
Unit Five	4 学时
Two Casts of Mind	
Unit Six	4 学时
The Black and White about Basketball	
Unit Seven	4 学时
Araby	
Unit Eight	4 学时
How Should One Read a Book	
Unit Nine	4 学时
Impressions of America	
Unit Eleven	4 学时
On Walk to Forever	
Unit Twelve	4 学时
Grant and Lee	
Unit Thirteen	4 学时
A Modest Proposal	
Unit Fourteen	4 学时
So Long, So Long	
Unit Fifteen	4 学时
If I Were a Freshman Again	
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 debut debut [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 Charles Dickens, W. M. Thackeray, Charlotte Bronte, and George Eliot. 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 Charlotte Bronte. 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 Charlotte Bronte(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 *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 O Pioneers was published and in 1917 she wrote My Antonia 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 A Lost Lady 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 The Professor's House (1925), My Mortal Enemy (1926), and Death Comes for the Archbishop (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 Antonia 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 Antonia 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 Antonia 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 Willa Cather 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 Antonia 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, Jim Burden 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 Gaston Cleric. They spend a lot of time talking intimately, although Jim realizes that he is not an academic as Gaston is. One day Lena Lingard, 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 World, "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*.

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 became 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.

Most Famous Works

Growing Up (1982)

"Observer" -- syndicated column

Quotes:

“So 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.”

“Life 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.”

“Happiness is a small and unworthy goal for something as big and fancy as a whole lifetime, and should be taken in small doses.”

“The goal of all inanimate objects is to resist man and ultimately defeat him.”

“It seems to be a law in American life that whatever enriches us anywhere except in the wallet inevitably becomes uneconomic.”

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 Samuel Taylor Coleridge. 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 Percy Bysshe Shelley, 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, Virginia. He received his B.A. from the Krieger School of Arts & Sciences at Johns Hopkins University in 1947. 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* (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: /ˈaɪ zək ˈæzɪ ˈmɒ 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.^[1] 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.^[2] 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 etymologies 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 Jennings' 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 immediate 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. Dispensary, 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 kidnapers, 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 pastorate 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 Dudley Moore, Jonathan Miller, and Peter Cook, achieved instant fame by appearing at the Edinburgh Festival in the satirical revue Beyond the Fringe. After the Festival, the show continued in London and New York. He also appeared in My Father Knew Lloyd George. Bennett's first stage play, Forty Years On, was produced in 1968. He has written many short stories.

Many of Bennett's characters are unfortunate and downtrodden, as in the Talking Heads series of monologues for television which were later performed at the Comedy Theatre 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. (November 18, 1874 - December 28, 1935) was an American author. He was born in New York City. He graduated from Yale University 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 Navy in 1898, but developed crippling arthritis and spent the remainder of his life as a semi-invalid.

Day's most famous work is the autobiographical Life with Father (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 correspondent 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 educating 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, 1851 in St. Louis, Missouri, United States. Her father, Thomas O'Flaherty, was a very successful businessman who had immigrated from Galway, Ireland. Her mother, Eliza Faris, was a well-connected member of the French Creole community, and her maternal grandmother, Athena'ise Charleville, was of French descent.[1]

Kate's father died in 1855, when Kate was four. As a founder of the Pacific Railroad, he was aboard the inaugural trip when a bridge across the Gasconade River collapsed. Thomas was among the fatalities. That same year, Kate entered the St. Louis Academy of the Sacred Heart.

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 Walter Scott and Charles Dickens were among her favorite authors.

1863 was a bad year for Kate's family: her great-grandmother died, as did her half brother, George. A Confederate soldier, he died of typhoid fever as a prisoner of war. Kate dropped out of regular schooling and became even further engrossed in her world of books.

In 1865, she re-enrolled in formal schooling, returning ultimately to the Sacred Heart Academy. She began keeping a commonplace book. She graduated from Sacred Heart Academy in 1868, 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 June 9, 1870 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 Franco-Prussian War.

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 Anglican parish school in Henley-on-Thames, 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: St. Cyprian's School, in Eastbourne, Sussex. 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 "Such, Such Were the Joys". However, in his time at St. Cyprian's, the young Blair successfully earned scholarships to both Wellington and Eton.

After a year at Wellington, Blair moved to Eton, where he was a King's Scholar from 1917 to 1921. 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 Cyril Connolly, 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 (10 February 1775 — 27 December 1834) was an English essayist, best known for his Essays of Elia and for the children's book Tales from Shakespeare, 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 unconquerable 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 (Irish Seamus Seoighe; 2 February 1882 – 13 January 1941) was an Irish 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 Ulysses (1922). His other major works are the short story collection Dubliners (1914), the novels A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man (1916) and Finnegans Wake (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 Dublin 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 English language modernists.

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) (January 25, 1882 – March 28, 1941) is a British novelist who by reputation is regarded as one of the foremost modernist literary figures of the twentieth century. Though she is commonly regarded by many as feminist, 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 humanist (see Three Guineas).

Between the World Wars, Woolf was a significant figure in London literary society and a member of the Bloomsbury Group. Her most famous works include the novels Mrs. Dalloway, To the Lighthouse, Orlando, and her essay A Room of One's Own.

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 Anglo-Irish family, at 21 Westland Row, Dublin, to Sir William Wilde and his wife Jane Francesca Elgee. Jane was a successful writer and an Irish nationalist, known also as 'Speranza', while Sir William was Ireland's leading ear and eye surgeon, and wrote books on archaeology and folklore. He was a renowned philanthropist, and his dispensary for the care of the city's poor, in Lincoln Place at the rear of Trinity College, Dublin, 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 writer remembered for his humanistic essays and literary criticism, often esteemed the greatest English literary critic after Samuel Johnson. 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 Irish Protestant stock, and of a branch of it which moved in the reign of George I from the county of Antrim to Tipperary. His father went to the University of Glasgow (where he was contemporary with Adam Smith), graduated in about 1761, became a Unitarian, joined their ministry, and crossed over to England; being successively pastor at Wisbech in Cambridgeshire, at Marshfield in Gloucestershire, and at Maidstone. 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 [rɒli'ʌʌ]) (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.^[1] 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 historian of the American Civil War. He won a Pulitzer Prize for history in 1954 for A Stillness at Appomattox, his study of the final campaign of the war in Virginia.

Catton was known as a narrative historian 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 Shelby Foote 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 (Trinity College, Dublin), receiving his B.A. in 1686. Swift was studying for his Masters when political troubles in Ireland surrounding the Glorious Revolution forced him to leave for England in 1688, where his mother helped him get a position as secretary and personal assistant of Sir William Temple at Moor Park. Temple was an English diplomat who, having arranged the Triple Alliance of 1668, 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 William III, 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 Esther Johnson, 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] (Dublin, 26 July 1856 – 2 November 1950 in Hertfordshire) was an Irish playwright based in the United Kingdom. He was uniquely the winner of the Nobel Prize in Literature (in 1925) and an Academy Award for Writing Adapted Screenplay (in 1938 for Pygmalion). After those of William Shakespeare, 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 言.....	221
一、概述.....	221
二、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身热身阶段。

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 Schramper 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 (。), 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 clichés 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 given 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 Hitler 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 Napoleon 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. Quotation 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 comment
 - 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

- too many no's

《高级英语写作(一)、(二)》教学大纲

李 立 编写

目 录

前 言.....	253
一、概述.....	253
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	253
三、课程主要内容及课时分配.....	253
四、相关教学环节.....	254
五、使用教材.....	254
Chapter I Introduction to Advanced English Writing	255
Chapter II Planning an Essay	257
Chapter III Description	261
Chapter IV Narration.....	264
Chapter V Argumentation.....	269
Chapter VI Illustration	272
Chapter VII Definition.....	276
Chapter VIII Classification.....	279
Chapter IX Contrast and Comparison.....	283
Chapter X Understanding Cause and Effect Analysis	286
Chapter XI Process Analysis	290
Chapter XII Writing Letters	294
Chapter XIII Writing a Resume and a Cover Letter	298
Chapter XIV Writing Memos.....	301
参考书目.....	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 **purpose** 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 lightning 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 how 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 tense 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 Empididae, 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 within 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 as 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 get 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 conducive; 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.

Theologians 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 bum 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 nothing 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 Reuters to other members of the firm.

参考书目

祁寿华, 2001, 《高级英语写作指南》, 上海外语教育出版社

Slade, Carole, 2000 *Form and Style: Research Papers, Reports and Theses* (《如何写研究论文与学术报告》), 外语教学与研究出版社出版

王振昌等, 1996, 《高级英语写作教程》, 外语教学与研究出版社

周国强、罗淑兰等, 2004, 《高级英语写作教程》, 上海交通大学出版社。

另外：

《高等学校英语专业高年级英语教学大纲》(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
一、概述.....	307
二、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眼、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进行介绍，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、引伸法、移植法、替代法、释义法、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，调动他们的积极性和参与意识，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.

Further Reading

1. 周兆祥 翻译与人生 中国对外翻译出版公司 2000.6
2. 许钧 翻译思考录 湖北教育出版社 2000.11
3. Hettich, P.I. Learning Skill for College and Career. Brooks /Cole Publishing Company, 1992

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 *Introductory 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, Fraser 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.

Further Reading

1. 邓恩[美] 从利玛窦到汤若望 余三乐 石蓉译 上海古籍出版社 1993
2. 马祖毅 中国翻译简史 中国对外翻译出版公司 1998
3. Ellis, D. *Becoming a Master Student*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1995

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.

Fraser 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.

Further Reading

1. 谭载喜 新编奈达论翻译 中国对外翻译出版公司 2002.11
2. 刘宓庆 当代翻译理论 中国对外翻译出版公司 2001.8
3. Newmark, P. An Approach to Translation, Babel 79, 1973

Section Four

Three basic levels in translation

Lexical level (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. . .

Syntax level (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.

Textual level (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.

Further Reading

1. 许钧 当代美国翻译理论 湖北教育出版社 2002.9
2. 刘宓庆 翻译教学：实务与理论 罗进德主编著 中国对外翻译出版公司 2003.1
3. 黄忠廉 翻译变体研究 中国对外翻译出版公司 2000.1

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

1. 奈达, 新编奈达论翻译 谭载喜编著 中国对外翻译出版公司 2002.11
2. Nida, E.A. Language and Culture, Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, 2001

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 or a book may show 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 nothing 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 lackluster 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.

Further Reading

1. 许钧 当代美国翻译理论 湖北教育出版社 2002.9
2. 刘宓庆 翻译教学：实务与理论 罗进德主编 中国对外翻译出版公司 2003.1
3. 黄忠廉 翻译变体研究 中国对外翻译出版公司 2000.1

Section Three

Lexical level—converting of part of speech

"It often takes 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.

Further Reading

1. 张柏然 面向 21 世纪的译学研究 许钧主编 商务印书馆 2002.5
2. 陈忠诚 词语翻译从谈 中国对外翻译出版公司 2000.1
3. Nemser, W. Approximative System of Foreign Language Learning. IRAL 9: 115-123

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 and 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".

Further Reading

1. 方梦之 翁凤翔 实用翻译 浙江大学出版社 2002.4
2. 叶子南 英汉翻译对话录 北京大学出版社 2003.8

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 kernels 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.

Further Reading

1. 陈定安 英汉比较与翻译 赠订版 中国对外翻译出版公司 2002.11
2. Sotiriou, P. E. *Integrating College Study Skills*. Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1999

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.

Further Reading

1. 方梦之 译学词典 上海教育出版社 2004
2. 金圣华 困难见巧 黄国彬主编 中国对外翻译出版公司 2001.7
3. Cronin, Michael Translation and Identity, Routledge, 2006

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.

Further Reading

1. 刘重德. 英汉语比较与翻译. 山东: 青岛出版社, 1998
2. 冯伟年 最新英汉翻译实例评析 世界图书出版公司 2005.9
3. 杨自俭 刘学云 翻译新论 湖北教育出版社 1994

Section Eight

Three steps in the process of translating

Comprehending: The translator should read the whole piece 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 from the authors writing, we need also to know the background of it, and we are also to use the information from 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 different 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.

Further Reading

1. 连淑能 英汉对比研究 高等教育出版社 1993
2. Bermann, S. Language, and the Ethics of Translation, Princeton University Press, 2005

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 fit 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.

Further Reading

1. 孙万彪 英汉法律翻译教程 上海外语教育出版社 2003.1

2. Dam, H. V. Knowledge Systems and Translation, Walter de Gruyter, 2005

3. Peeters, Jean On the Relationships Between Translation Theory and Translation Practice, Peter Lang, 2005

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 by 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.

Further Reading

1. 许国列 英汉文学名著翻译笔录 陕西人民出版社 1985.7

2. Williams, M. Translation Quality Assessment : an Argumentation-Centred Approach, University of Toronto Press, 2004

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.

Further Reading

1. 薛富兴 东方神韵—意境论 人民文学出版社 2000
2. 张美芳 翻译研究的功能途径 上海外语教育出版社 2005
3. 郑诗鼎 语境与文学翻译 西南师范大学出版社 1997

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，嘴上就长一个疔，日后不得好死！”又听说道：“暖哟，咱们只顾说，看仔细有人来悄悄在外头听见！不如把这榻子都推开了，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。”

Further Reading

1. 曹雪芹 红楼梦 人民文学出版社 2002
2. 杨宪益，戴乃迭译 A Dream of Red Mansions 外文出版社，1994
3. 许渊冲 英汉对照唐诗三百首 高等教育出版社 2000
4. Gibbon, E. The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, Chatto and Windus, London, 1986
5. Pokorn; N.K. Challenging the Traditional Axioms. Translation into a Non-mother Tongue, Benjamins Publishing Company, 2005

Reference Books

- 胡壮林 1985 《语言学教程》, 北京大学出版社
- 柯平 1991 《英汉与汉英翻译教程》 北京大学出版社
- 刘宓庆 2003 《翻译教学: 实务与理论》 中国对外翻译出版公司
- 刘宓庆 2001 《当代翻译理论》 中国对外翻译出版公司
- 吕端昌 1983 《英汉翻译教程》 陕西人民出版社
- 谭裁喜 2002 《奈达论翻译》 中国对外翻译出版公司
- 王力 1959 《现代汉语语法》 香港中华书局
- 王佐良 1987 《英语文体学引论》 北京外语教学与研究出版社
- 袁锦翔 1990 《名家翻译研究与赏析》
- 钟述孔 1984 《英汉翻译手册》 中国对外翻译出版公司
- 陈忠诚 1998 《法窗译话》 中国对外翻译出版公司
- 单其昌 1999.4 (杨宪益校) 《汉英翻译技巧》 外语教学与研究出版社
- 王大伟 1999.7 《现代汉英翻译技巧》 世界图书出版公司
- 陈新 1999.4 《英汉文体翻译教程》 北京大学出版社
- 古今明 1997 《英汉翻译基础》 上海外语教学与研究出版社
- 郭章, 李庆生 1988 (99年修订) 《英汉互译实用教程》 武汉大学出版社
- 韩其顺等 1990 《英汉科技翻译教程》 (高等学校翻译教材) 高教出版社
- 刘重德 1991 文学翻译十讲 中国对外翻译出版公司
- 杨宪益等译 1997 A Dream of Red Mansions (《红楼梦》英译本) 外文出版社
- Eugene Nida 1963 《翻译科学探索》 (Towards a Science of Translating)

Eugene Nida 2001 《语言与文化——翻译中的语境》(Language and Culture) 上海外语教育出版社

Peter Newmark 1981 《翻译问题探讨》(Approaches to Translation)

Lyle F. Bachman 《语言测试要略》(Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing) 上海外语教育出版社

H.G. Widdowson 1999 《语言教学交际法》(Teaching Language as Communication) 上海外语教育出版社

H.H. Stern 1999 《语言教学的基本概念》(Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching) 上海外语教育出版社

H.G. Widdowson 1999 《语言教学面面观》(Aspects of Language Teaching) 上海外语教育出版社

另外：

1. 《高等学校英语专业高年级英语教学大纲》(试行本) 外语教学与研究出版社
2. 《中国翻译》 1980 以来各期，中国对外翻译出版公司

《翻译理论与技巧（二）》教学大纲

黄宜思 编写

目 录

前 言.....	329
一、概述.....	329
二、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
四、相关教学环节.....	330
Chapter I Introduction	331
Chapter II Commonly Used Methods.....	334
Chapter 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

<p>句子短有其语法结构上的原因。</p> <p>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排为显著特征的结构上的原因。</p> <p>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，是单层面的，其句法功能是隐含的(covert)。</p> <p>4. 重意合(parataxis)而形散神聚。</p>	<p>长。句子长有其语法结果上的原因。</p> <p>2. 当句子扩展为语段时，能形成环套式连接，不必断句另起。这是英语语段以组织结构严谨为显著特征的结构上的原因。</p> <p>3. 英语语段呈环扣式多层面延伸，以形相连，因而使形式呈外显(overt)，比较易于把握句子结构上的发展层次和关系。</p> <p>4. 重形合(hypotaxis)，在词语形态一级即有表现，语段重形式连接。</p>
--	--

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 from 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

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。

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 insulating language. As its name suggests, it does 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**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**就**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, 我国体育健儿赛出风格, 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. 天津港保税区已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，万吨轮通行无阻，五万吨轮可乘潮自由进出。
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；其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。它依山傍水，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 be achieved.

Examples:

大国有大国的的问题，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, following language materials are introduced:

立足当前、着眼长远	Stay firmly rooted in the present while looking ahead to the future
建立县、乡、村三级医疗卫生服务体系	set up a system of medical care that spans the 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、医生的医疗和用药行为	standardize the medical practices of hospitals 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 is 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 fit 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，凜乎其不可留也。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 spirit 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; 四川的峨眉山; 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, 令世界各国人们神往。

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
一、概述.....	347
二、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).....	348
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).....	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 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?

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 Twain—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 United 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 300 words 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 spoils 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). Grottesquerie
- (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

《法语（一、二、三、四）》教学大纲

赵静静 编写

目 录

前 言

一、概述

法语是面向外国语学院学生而开设的专业必修课。

从性质上看，本课程属于典型的语言教学，从基本发音开始，系统讲解语法，使学生充分感受世界上最美丽的语言—法语的魅力。但是本课程又不仅囿于单纯的语言教学，高瞻远瞩，以语言为平台，以文化为支撑，使学生从各个层面上了解法国，了解中法关系。

学习语言的主要目的在于交流，本课程通过丰富而有趣的教学活动为学生提供有益的法语氛围，使学生轻松掌握法语，做到听、说、读、写全面发展。此理念将贯穿于本大纲的始末。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

法语课程有如下教学目的：

- 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的法语资料；
- 2、培养学生的语感，使其能够用法语方式思维，顺利地实现法语和汉语两种思维方式的切换；
- 3、使学生能够听懂基础法语会话，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。

三、教学主要内容及学时分配

法语以课(leçon)为单位进行讲解，前 4 课每课 5-6 学时，5-35 课每课 6-7 学时。如需扩充知识或文章较难，可以适当增加学时。

前四课主要是语音，使学生掌握正确的语音语调，能够进行简单对话。

从第五课开始，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。法语语法将基本讲解完毕，通过学习，学生可以打下坚实的语言基础，能够阅读简单的法语读物，并且具备了很强的自学能力。

四、相关教学环节

法语课程使用多媒体，除了课堂讲解之外，有选择性地给学生播放法语录像、法语电影片断、法语经典歌曲，寓教于乐。

本课程以学生为主体，注重调动学生的积极性。在适当时机，组织学生进行课堂大讨论，或者以组为单位进行法语会话，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，使学生有更多实践法语的机会。

Chapitre I

Phonétique

L'apprentissage de la transcription phonétique.

L'intonation.

Expressions courantes.

Six heures pour chaque leçon.

Leçon 1

Bonjour, Monsieur. / Madame. / Mademoiselle. / Fanny.

Comment allez-vous ? Je vais bien, merci. Et vous ? Moi aussi, merci.

Comment vas-tu ? Très bien, merci. Et toi ? Moi aussi, merci.

Ça va ? Oui, ça va bien. Merci.

Salut Michèle. Salut Anne.

Comment vous appelez-vous ? Je m'appelle Jean.

Bonsoir. Au revoir. / Tchao. A bientôt. / A demain. Bonne journée.

Leçon 2

Qui est-ce ? Qui êtes-vous ? C'est Michèle. Je suis Michèle Dupont.

Qui est cette jeune fille ? C'est Isabelle.

Vous êtes Française ? Oui, je suis Parisienne.

Est-ce qu'il est Français ? Oui, il est Parisien.

Qu'est-ce qu'il fait ? Il est ouvrier. Qu'est-ce qu'elle fait ? Elle est étudiante.

Qu'est-ce que vous faites ? Je suis infirmière.

Qu'est-ce que c'est ? C'est une photo. / une veste. / un pantalon. / un dictionnaire. / un livre. / un papier. / un verre/ une table/ une chaise/ une cassette / une fenêtre/ une porte/ une clé/ une gomme/ un bâton de craie.

Où est-ce qu'elle habite ? Elle habite à Paris.

Leçon 3

Quelle heure est-il ?

Il est neuf heures.

Il est neuf heures moins dix.

Il est neuf heures et quart.

Il est neuf heures et demie.

A quelle heure commence (finit) la soirée?

Elle commence (finit) à dix heures.

Quel âge avez-vous?

Quel âge a-t-il? (la conjugaison du verbe « avoir »)

Devoir : Horaire des cours

8: 00-9: 35, 9: 45 (差一刻) -11: 20, 12: 30-15: 05, 16: 05-18: 45 (下午六点三刻)

Leçon 4

1. Ecouter l'enregistrement des trois premières leçons et les répéter
2. Composition : exemple

Je m'appelle Michèle. J'ai dix-huit ans. Je suis Anglaise. J'apprends le français à l'Institut des Langues Etrangères. Nous sommes trente dans la classe : neuf filles et vingt et un garçons. Notre famille habite à Londres. Mon père est ingénieur, il travaille dans une grande usine. Ma mère est journaliste, elle voyage beaucoup. J'ai une sœur, elle n'habite pas à Londres, elle habite à Paris. Nous sommes heureux.

Chapitre II

Les prépositions
L'impératif
Le futur proche
Les pronom personnels compléments d'objet directs

Six heures pour chaque leçon.

Leçon 5

◇ Combien de + n.pl.

Combien de soeurs avec-vous?

Combien avez-vous de soeurs ?

Combien de chambres avez-vous ?

Combien avez-vous de chambres?

◇ Chez qn.

Il habite chez moi.

Est-ce qu'il fait chaud chez vous?

Chez nous, il fait froid en hiver.

Ma soeur travaille chez Renault.

◇ Dans

Il est dans sa trentième année.

◇ Durer

La Fête Nationale dure sept jours.

◇ De...à...

Il travaille de samedi à dimanche./ Il faut seize heures de train de Paris à Marseille.

◇ Il fait -0°. (cette phrase doit être prononcée comme il fait moins dix degrés.)

◇ Avoir raison de + f. qch.

Le temps est agréable, vous avez raison de sortir.

Il fait très froid en hiver. Tu as raison de voyager en été.

◇ Pousser : v.i. grandir, se développer

Ses cheveux (sa barbe, ses dents) poussent vite.

Cet enfant pousse bien.

◇ Grossir (v.i. devenir plus gros, plus important)

Suivre un régime pour ne pas grossir

La foule grossit autour de l'accident. / Ses économies grossissent./ Les voix grossissent.

◇ La récolte

Action de recueillir : la récolte des blés, des fruits, du raisin, des pommes de terre

Produits ainsi recueillis : Les paysans rentrent la récolte.

◇ Beaucoup de (a lot of, much, many): sans article

Il y a beaucoup de monde.

Nous avons beaucoup de photos.

devoirs

I Les adjectifs numéraux :

- ✧ Un – vingt
- ✧ Vingt et un – vingt-neuf (trente, quarante, cinquante, soixante, soixante-dix : soixant et onze, soixante-douze, soixante-dix-sept)
- ✧ Quatre-vingts, quatre-vingt-un, quatre-vingt-deux, quatre-vingt-dix, quatre-vingt-onze, quatre-vingt-douze
- ✧ Cent, cent un, cent neuf, deux cents, deux cent un, deux cent deux
- ✧ Mille, mille un, deux mille, deux mille un
- ✧ Un million, deux millions cent mille, un milliard

Leçon 6

- ✧ Pour + n. ou inf.

Les paysans travaillent beaucoup pour la bonne récolte.

Pour trouver la station de métro, tu dois aller tout droit.

- ✧ Pardon (m.) interjection, formule de politesse adressée à qn qu'on dérange plus ou moins ou qu'on prie de ne pas se formaliser

Pardon de vous déranger (Excusez-moi)

Pardon, je ne suis pas d'accord avec vous.

Pardon, pour aller à la bibliothèque, s.v. p.

Pardon, voulez-vous répéter ?

- ✧ A pied, à ou en vélo

En voiture/ métro/ autobus/ train/ avion

- ✧ Complicé (e)

La grammaire française est un peu compliquée.

C'est une lecture compliquée. (difficile à comprendre)

- ✧ A 10 km d'ici = d'ici à 10 km

- ✧ Comment = how

Comment y vas-tu ? En voiture ou à pied ?

Comment remercier les amis d'Isabelle ? (How to do)

- ✧ Prendre (v.t.) = take

Un moyen de transport : le train, le métro, l'autobus, le taxi, le bateau, l'avion

Une route, une direction : prendre le chemin à droite

- ✧ D'abord (loc. Adv.)

Pour rire : pourquoi lorsque le bateau coule, on crie « Les femmes et les enfants d'abord. » ? Parce qu'après, les requins n'ont plus faim.

Il a d'abord très froid, ensuite, il a très chaud.

- ✧ Excusez-moi

Excusez-moi de vous interrompre.

Je m'excuse de vous contredire.

Les parents excusent facilement leurs enfants.

◇ Un peu (de)

La chambre est un peu chauffée. (très, bien, trop)

Ayez un peu de patience.

◇ Gros (grosse) – grossir (v.i.)

Qui a des dimensions importantes, en volume, en épaisseur : un gros arbre, un gros nez, une grosse femme, de grosses lèvres, être gros comme une vache/ comme un tonneau

Se dit de ce qui a des proportions particulièrement importantes : un gros bruit, avoir un gros appétit (solide), de gros soucis (grave)

◇ Parce que = because 引导的从句可以放前或后

Parce que l'automne est la saison des récoltés, les paysans travaillent beaucoup en cette saison.

◇ Matin (m.)

Avec un déterminant : une heure du matin, ce matin, le matin=chaque matin

Sans déterminant : dimanche matin, demain matin, Prenez ces médicaments matin et soir.

◇ En

La durée : en vingt ans, en une heure

Paris ne s'est pas fait en un jour.

◇ Prendre

Aliment : un repas, le petit déjeuner, des fruits et des légumes

Boisson : prendre un peu de vin

Leçon 7

◇ Depuis

+ date ou moment :

Il pleut depuis le 15 mars.

J'attends mon ami depuis midi. Depuis lundi, depuis une heure de l'après-midi

+ durée

Il habite en France depuis beaucoup d'années.

Ils se disputent depuis une heure. (dix minutes.)

◇ Matin (m.)

Avec un déterminant : une heure du matin, ce matin, le matin=chaque matin

Sans déterminant : dimanche matin, demain matin, Prenez ces médicaments matin et soir.

◇ En

La durée : en vingt ans, en une heure

Paris ne s'est pas fait en un jour.

◇ Prendre

Aliment : un repas, le petit déjeuner, des fruits et des légumes

Boisson : prendre un peu de vin

◇ Rentrer déjeuner

Elle vient danser. Ils vont patiner.

◇ Manger (v.i.)

Vous venez manger ici ? Je vais manger chez mon frère.

Manger (v.t.)

Manger du pain, de la viande, du fuit

Leçon 8

✧ Avoir envie (de)

J'ai très faim, c'est pourquoi j'ai envie d'aller manger au restaurant.

Pour aller au bal, les filles ont envie d'une belle robe.

✧ Proposer à qn. qch. (de f. qch.)

L'agence de voyages propose souvent aux voyageurs d'acheter leur guide bleu.

Elle propose ce film rigolo à toutes ses copines.

L'homme propose et Dieu dispose.

✧ Aller au cinéma=voir le film

✧ Il s'agit de

De quoi le film FanFan s'agit-il ?

Il s'agit d'une histoire d'amour romantique.

✧ A cause de (loc. prép.)

A cause du temps désagréable, la récolte de cette année n'est pas bonne.

✧ Vieux, vieil, vieille

Se dit d'une personne qui est d'un âge avancé : Le vieil homme se couche tôt.(âgé, contr. Jeune)

Se dit de ce qui existe depuis longtemps : Une vieille ville, de vieux vêtements(usé, contr. neuf)

Qui est depuis longtemps dans une situation : un de mes vieux amis, être de vieux habitués

✧ Se renseigner auprès de qn./ quelque institution

Ce célibataire se renseigne auprès d'une agence matrimoniale pour trouver une mariée.

✧ Auprès de

Elle reste toute la nuit auprès de son fils malade (au devant de)

Il y a une gare auprès de la station. (à côté de)

Leçon 9

✧ A : la destination

une machine à laver, une vase à fleurs

✧ A quel étage se trouve ton appartement ? Il se trouve au premier étage./ au rez-de-chaussée.

✧ Au fond de

Allez tout droit jusqu'au fond du couloir.

Tu vas trouver des lampes électriques au fond du rayon.

✧ Comme (conj.)

Devant un nom ou un adj., indique en quelle qualité, à quel titre on considère qn ou qch : Comme secrétaire d'un grand patron, elle travaille beaucoup.

Exprime un rapport de comparaison, de conformité : Ses deux filles se ressemblent comme deux gouttes d'eau.

✧ Aider qn. à f.qch./ qn dans qch

Je vous remercie de nous aider à trouver cette agence de voyages.

Pendant le festival du film, cette actrice m'aide beaucoup dans mon travail.

✧ D'accord ou être d'accord

Mon mari et moi, nous ne sommes pas complètement d'accord sur certaines questions.

D'accord pour le rendez-vous de ce soir, j'y vais à l'heure.

✧ Savoir : conjugaison. Tu sais=you know

✧ Servir à qn de

En général, le père sert à son fils de modèle.

Cela va servir de leçon à Veronique.

✧ Pendant (indique la simultanéité continue ou partielle)

On va passer un film pendant tout le festival. (au cours de)

Quelques fois, les Français dînent pendant trois heures.

✧ En

La matière ou les composants : Cette robe en soie. J'achète une montre en or.

Le lieu : en France, en province, il va de ville en ville, le Christ est mort en croix.

Le moment : En mon absence, en semaine, en mars

La durée : en une demi-heure

La manière d'être, l'état : Il entre en colère. Il est en bonne santé, en voyage. Il reste en attente.

Leçon 10

✧ S'asseoir

S'asseoir sur une chaise, à une table, par terre

Asseyez-vous ! Levez-vous !

✧ Avoir chaud (éprouver une sensation de chaleur) : contr. avoir froid

J'ai chaud. Je vais prendre une douche.

Il fait chaud. L'eau chaude. L'air chaud, un courant chaud, un vêtement chaud

✧ Lourd

Il fait lourd. / Il fait frais.

Ces valises sont trop lourdes pour moi.

J'ai eu un sommeil lourd.

Les dépenses pour cette voiture sont trop lourdes pour nous. Il faut la vendre.

✧ Dedans (adv.)

Il fait froid dehors, mais il fait chaud dedans, parce que la chambre est bien chauffée.

En dedans de la maison, il y a de très jolis meubles. (au-dedans de)

✧ Vouloir :

En réclamer la possession, la jouissance : Mon cadet veut un gâteau au chocolat comme cadeau.

(désirer ; demander)

Avoir l'intention plus ou moins arrêtée, le désir de : Il veut se faire remarquer. (avoir envie de)

Si tu veux/ si vous voulez./ comme tu veux 随您, 爱怎么办就怎么办

verbe auxiliaire, comme pouvoir, devoir, savoir

Cette fille veut quitter son village pauvre.

✧ Ranger

Placer dans un certain ordre : Vite, rangez vos affaires avant de partir. (classer, grouper)

Ranger un lieu (y mettre de l'ordre) : ranger un appartement, une armoire

✧ Déranger

Excusez-moi de vous déranger pour si peu.

Ne vous dérangez pas, je peux le faire moi-même.

✧ Pour : marque le terme d'un délai ou la durée, en ce sens, il peut être suivi d'une autre prép.

Je vous le promets pour la semaine prochaine, mais pour l'heure, je ne peux vous le promettre.

C'est pour aujourd'hui ou pour demain ?

✧ Profiter de

Comme il est malade, il profite de cet après-midi libre pour voir le médecin. (en tirer un avantage)

Il ne faut pas profiter de la bonté des autres. (en tirer un avantage)

Tout le monde veut profiter de la vie. (jouir de)

✧ De la part de qn

L'infirmière écrit elle-même au malade la part du médecin. (en son nom)

Il attend un accord de ma part.

✧ A (la caractérisation)

Un avion à réaction, une canne à sucre

✧ Volontiers(adv) = avec plaisir

Vous voulez nous aider ! Volontiers.

Chapitre III

Le futur simple

Les participes passés

Les pronoms relatifs

Six heures pour chaque leçon.

Leçon 12

✧ Amener (qui se conjugue comme acheter)

Il va nous amener ce soir au théâtre. (le faire venir avec soi)

Le train amène le charbon à Paris. (acheminer, porter)

✧ Environ (adv.)

Il y a environ cent cinquante kilomètres par la route de Paris à Rouen.

Trois cents personnes environ passent par la station de métro.

✧ Avoir de l'appétit

Elle a peu d'appétit en ce moment. (contr. beaucoup de)

Elle a un appétit d'oiseau. (contr. de loup)

✧ Il y a : marque le recul dans le temps par rapport au moment actuel ou par rapport à un moment du passé ou du futur

Il est mort il y a deux mois.

Il va y avoir 4 ans que nous demeurons dans cette maison.

✧ Conseiller à qn de f.qch / qch

Le chauffeur conseille aux voyageurs de changer de bus.

Conseil (m.)

J'ai vraiment besoin de vous demander des conseils.

Voulez-vous me donner des conseils sur mes recherches ?

Si je visite le professeur, je vais certainement prendre des conseils auprès de lui.

✧ Demander à qn qch/ ou de f.qch

Il arrive à demander une diminution de prix.

Ses parents ne lui demandent rien sur ses études.

Personne ne vous demande de partir maintenant.

✧ Attraper

Essaie un peu de m'attraper.

Il me reste 10 minutes pour aller à la gare, mais elle est loin, je ne peux pas attraper le train.

✧ Guérir (verbe du 2^{ème} groupe)

V. I. Ce rhume guérit vite. Sa plaie guérit vite. Si tu veux guérir vite, reste au lit.

V.T. Ces médicaments vont vous guérir de votre mal de dents.

C'est un bon médecin, il lui suffit huit jours pour me guérir de ma bronchite.

Leçon 13

✧ A partir de (temps ou lieu)

A partir de demain, je ne fume plus !

A partir d'ici, il faut faire attention, la route est dangereuse.

◇ Vers

On va faire un spectacle vers le 1^{er} octobre. (indique une approximation)

Tiens, c'est Pierre là-bas, il se dirige vers nous. (indique la direction prise)

Où habitez-vous ? Vers la Tour Eiffel. (auprès de, près de)

◇ Juste (adv.)

Il est 15 heures juste.

La poste ? Elle est juste en face de la Maison Blanche.

◇ Il paraît que, il paraît adj.+ inf ou que

Il paraît qu'on va avoir une nouvelle patronne.

Il paraît que vous êtes allé en Grèce cet été.

Il paraît juste de noter sa nouvelle adresse pour ne pas se tromper.

◇ Drôle de : se dit d'une personne ou d'une chose qui intrigue, qui paraît bizarre

C'est une drôle d'idée.

Il y a eu une drôle de tempête de sable hier.

Drôle : se dit d'une personne ou d'une chose qui porte à rire

C'est un homme très drôle, qui égaie toutes les réunions. (spirituel)

Raconter des histoires drôles (amusant, marrant, rigolo)

◇ Genre(m.)

Pendant trois jours, j'ai entendu tous les jours les chansons du même genre.

Ce spectacle n'est pas mon genre. (ne me plaît pas)

◇ Plusieurs (adj. indéfini, pl.)

Je peux vous citer plusieurs faits(plus d'un) . A plusieurs reprise= à maintes reprises

Ils se sont mis à plusieurs pour produire ce livre. (pron. indéfini, pl.)

◇ Bouger (v.i.)

Ne bouge pas, je te fais une photo.

Je n'ai pas bougé de chez moi cet après-midi. (ne pas sortir)

◇ Téléphoner à qn de f.qch

Il y a trois jours que je lui ai téléphoné de venir chez moi. (appeler)

Quelqu'un a appelé la police.

Leçon 14

◇ Pendant que + inf.

Ce n'est pas juste, tu t'amuses pendant que je travaille.

◇ S'apercevoir de + n./ que

Il s'est aperçu de mon trouble et s'en inquiète. (voir)

Je me suis aperçu que je n'écoutais plus ce que disaient les autres. (remarquer)

◇ Représenter

L'Avare (pièce de Molière) a été représenté pour la première fois le 9 septembre 1668 au théâtre du Palais-Royal. (jouer sur une scène)

Cet artiste s'applique à représenter avec exactitude la nature, les paysages. (les rendre présentes à la

vue au moyen d'un dessin, de la peinture, de la photographie etc) = peindre, reproduire

◇ Par

La distribution : il achète en gros, par douzaines. On l'a interrompu par deux fois. Je le vois plusieurs fois par mois. Entrez dans la salle trois par trois.

Le lieu où se fait un passage: Il est passé par l'Assemblée Nationale. Il est sorti par l'escalier de service.

Le lieu où se situe une action : le heurt par l'avant de deux véhicules. Etre assis par terre

Les circonstances de temps : Il se promène par cette température glaciale.

Le moyen, la manière, la cause ou le mobile : Il a obtenu ces renseignements par la torture. Assurer la paix par la négociation.

◇ Tant (adv.)

L'intensité d'une action verbale : Il a tant travaillé qu'il est tombé malade. (tellement... que....)

L'intensité d'une qualité : Cette vertu tant vantée ne se manifeste guère.

tant de + n. pl.

Tant d'attentions laissent prévoir quelque demande d'argent.

C'est une affreuse petite maison de banlieue comme il y en a tant. (tellement de)

devoirs

◇ Monsieur Andrieu a été ouvrier pendant 2 ans avant de devenir concierge.

M. André était ouvrier.

◇ M. André est sorti de la maison. Il neigeait encore dehors.

Madame la concierge nous parlait de son histoire quand son mari est entré.

Il regardait la télé pendant que nous faisions nos devoirs.

◇ Quand j'étais petit, j'allais tous les ans passer mes vacances à la campagne.

◇ Les enfants couraient, criaient, et sautaient sous le beau soleil du printemps.

Leçon 15

◇ Débarrasser

Débarrasser la table(ôter le couvert de la table après le repas)

Débarrasser de

On a eu de la peine à le débarrasser de cette mauvaise habitude. (l'obliger ou l'aider à se défaire de qch de nuisible, d'un défaut)

Débarrasser le de son manteau.(le dégager de ce qui constitue un encombrement, une gêne)

◇ Comme

Blanc comme neige

Se tenir raide comme un piquet

C'est simple comme bonjour.

Pierre s'est marié, mais il voudrait continuer à vivre comme quand il était célibataire.

Cela s'est passé comme je te l'avais dit.

◇ Servir

Servir d'interprète à qn

Tu me sers du vin, s'il te plaît.

A table, c'est servi.

Se servir

Voilà la viande, servez-vous, j'arrive.

✧ Etre à (devoir)

Ce dossier est à compléter.

Cette leçon est à ne pas oublier.

✧ Puisque (since en anglais)

Il m'ennuie, puisque vous êtes là, gardez-le, je m'en vais. (comme, étant donné que)

✧ A moitié (en partie)

Son verre est rempli à moitié. (à demi)

Pendant le film, je me suis à moitié endormi. (presque)

A moitié chemin : au milieu du parcours, du trajet

S'arrêter à moitié chemin = à mi-chemin

Leçon 16

✧ Des tas de = un tas de

Il a trouvé des tas de solutions pour ce problème.

✧ Trouver (penser, juger, estimer) : avec un attribut du compl. d'objet

Je vous trouve fatigué. (vous me paraissez fatigué) Trouver un plat trop salé.

L'image était vive, mais ne déplaissait pas à Pilate, qui la trouvait heureuse.

Je trouve que tu exagères.

✧ Attendre

Catherine et Isabelle attendaient avec impatience l'arrivée d'un grand auteur.

S'attendre à (regarder comme probable)

Nous nous attendons à une récolte abondante cette année. (prévoir)

Personne ne s'attend à cette fin tragique.

✧ Espérer+qch ; que ; inf.

Le gouvernement espère une reprise de l'activité économique dans les prochains mois.

Il font la pêche, ils espèrent avoir un peu de poisson pour nourrir la population.

Votre journal est très apprécié. Mais n'espérez pas que vous influencerez Washington ?

✧ Promettre à qn de qch/ f. qch./ que

Comme il a bien fait ses études, son père lui a promis une bicyclette pour Noël.

Je n'ose rien vous promettre.

Je vous promets de venir vous voir.

Leçon 17

✧ Rassurer qn(lui rendre la confiance, la tranquillité)

J'étais inquiète, heureusement, tu as téléphoné pour me rassurer.

Se rassurer

Rassurez-vous, il n'y a plus de danger.

✧ Marcher

Sur la table de nuit, un réveille-matin continuait à marcher. (fonctionner)

Nos affaires marchent mal à cause de cette grève. (tourner)

✧ (Etre) en train de + inf.

Un homme en train de lire

Quand je l'ai rencontrée, Simone était en train de déménager des meubles.

✧ Si + adj ou adv + que = so... that (en corrélation avec que, si annonce une subordonnée consécutive)

J'étais si loin que je ne pouvais rien entendre. (tellement)

Le vent a soufflé si fort qu'il y a eu des toitures arrachées, des arbres renversés.

✧ Combattre

Se battre contre qn : Nos troupes ont vaillamment combattu un ennemi supérieur en nombre.

S'opposer à une action, à la faire échouer : Les pompiers combattent l'incendie. (lutter contre) Vous combattez le mal, la maladie et les sorcières avec une passion égale.

✧ Développer + mot abstrait : le rendre plus important

Développer les échanges économiques avec les pays voisins (accroître, augmenter)

Le père cherche, pour son enfant, un jeu qui développe l'intelligence.

✧ Causer : en être la cause

Les pluies des derniers jours ont causé de graves inondations. (provoquer)

Voilà une lettre qui va lui causer bien des ennuis. (attirer, susciter)

✧ Toutes sortes de

Ce paysan élève toutes sortes d'oiseaux et cultive toutes sortes de plantes. (variété)

✧ Faire f.qch par ou à qn

La directrice fait écrire une lettre par Pierre.

Cet homme malin lui a fait dire des bêtises.

Faire + inf

Je fais entrer les enfants. = Je les fais entrer.

Leçon 18

✧ Voyons : sorte d'exhortation usitée pour encourager à l'action, pour demander que l'on parle ou l'on agisse, comme léger reproche

Voyons, parlez-moi franchement : que pensez-vous de sa conduite. (pour l'encouragement)

Un peu de bon sens, voyons.

✧ En avoir assez (de)

J'en ai assez de vos hésitations.

Vous m'importunez (déranger) sans cesse, j'en ai assez. (être excédé)

✧ Sur le plan de = dans le domaine de

Sur le plan de la conduite, il n'y a rien à dire ; mais sur le plan intellectuel, cet élève est déficient.

✧ Contester : ne pas le reconnaître fondé, exact

La légalité de cette décision est très contestée.

Nous ne contestons pas que votre rôle *ait été* important. (subj.)

✧ Mettre ... à + inf. : employer un certain temps pour

La viande a mis longtemps à cuire.

✧ Jamais : non accompagné de ne

Dans les réponses : Acceptez-vous sa collaboration ? Jamais.

En coordination : accompagné ou non de mais et ou :

Je travaille plusieurs heures par jour, mais jamais après dîner.

Allez-y maintenant ou jamais.

Avec un adj.: des leçons jamais sues

◇ Rien que = seulement

Arrêtez-vous rien que 5 minutes !

Rien qu'à la première lecture j'ai vu de nombreuses fautes.

◇ Plein(e) de

Le coupable a fui, les mains pleines de sang. (couvert)

◇ Permettre à qn de f.qch/ qch

Mon médecin m'a permis le café.

Qui t'a permis de douter du Seigneur ?

Devoir :

préparer la leçon 19

Chapitre IV

Le comparatif et le superlatif des adjectifs et des adverbes
La voix passive
Le futur dans le passé
Le futur antérieur

Six heures pour chaque leçon.

Leçon 20

◇ Penser

(v.t.) Tu dis ça, mais tu ne le penses pas.

Penser de : Que penses-tu de Pierre ? Oh, c'est un garçon très sympathique.

◇ Pour la plupart (loc. adv.)

Les employés de ce magasin bénéficient pour la plupart de 4 jours de congé.

◇ Familier (ère)

A force de la voir tous les jours, son visage m'est devenu familier. (connu, contr. étranger)

Le maniement du fusil lui était devenu familier. (se dit de choses dont on a acquis la pratique, que

l'on suit bien)

◇ Dans : indique le temps

La date : Dans combien de temps reviendrez-vous ? Dans une semaine.

La durée : Dans les siècles passés, l'hiver était plus difficile à supporter ?

◇ Jouer

Jouer du piano, du violon, de la flûte, de la trompette

Jouer au football, basketball, tennis

◇ Que voulez-vous ? ou Que veux-tu ? : la résignation le parti qu'on prend de qch

Ce n'est pas bien payé, mais que voulez-vous ? Il faut bien vivre !

◇ Faire : avoir comme poids, comme mesure

Une planche qui fait cinq centimètres d'épaisseur (mesurer)

Le circuit fait quinze kilomètres. (représenter)

Mon frère fait quatre-vingt-cinq kilos. (peser)

Ce livre fait trente euros. (coûter)

◇ Tout de même = quand même

Il a réussi tout de même. (après tout)

◇ Valoir la peine

Il est trop tard, ça ne vaut même plus la peine d'aller au cinéma, il n'y aura plus de place.

◇ Dès que

Je l'ai reconnu dès qu'il s'est mis à parler.

Dès : Ce film m'a plu dès le début.

◇ Cesser + n. ou cesser de f.qch

La plupart des ouvriers ont cessé le travail à midi.

La pluie n'a cessé de tomber depuis trois jours.

Leçon 21

✧ quotidien : adj et n.m.

Acheter un quotidien chaque jour

✧ Utiliser

Utiliser un réchaud électrique pour faire chauffer son déjeuner. (employer, se servir de)

✧ S'adresser à

Il faut vous adresser directement au ministre de la justice pour obtenir ce renseignement.

✧ Dans le but de = avec l'intention de, dans le dessein de

Il est parti dans le but de se trouver quelque temps au calme.

✧ Etre de nationalité australienne

Quelle est votre nationalité ?

✧ Préférer ... à

Elle préfère son fils aîné à ses autres enfants.

✧ Ne... plus... que (indique que la cessation s'arrête à la restriction indiquée)

La décision ne tient plus qu'à vous.

Il n'a plus que la peau et les os.

Ne... pas... que

On ne vit pas que d'air et d'eau fraîche.

✧ Ni

Dans la négation du verbe, il faut ajouter ne : Il ne boit ni ne mange.

Il ne boit pas, ni ne mange.

Ni le vent ni la pluie ne m'arrêtent.

✧ Egalement

De façon égale : Ici ou là, nous serons également bien.

Aussi, de même, en outre : La veste de velours et la culotte furent également mises dans la caisse.

Egal, égale, égaux

Cela m'est égal. (lui est égal) = cela me laisse indifférent.

✧ A la fois : en même temps

On ne peut être à la fois au four et au moulin.

✧ Approcher de

Une couleur qui approche de la couleur naturelle.

Il approche du but qu'il est fixé.

✧ Sans doute = probablement

Sans doute êtes-vous déjà au courant. (attention à l'inversion du sujet)

✧ Epouser : époux, épouse

Il épouse la fille de ses voisins.

Leçon 22

✧ Compter

En calculer le nombre ou la quantité : La fermière comptait ses poules. (dénombrer)

Le faire entrer dans un calcul d'ensemble, le mettre au nombre de : Cela pèse deux kilos, sans compter l'emballage. (tenir compte de)

(v.i.) avoir de l'importance : Je compte dans le pays, on me salue très bas quand je passe.

Compter sur qn (lui faire confiance) : Je compte sur vous pour régler cette affaire.

✧ Seul : valeur adverbialle

Un malheur ne vient jamais seul.

Seul un alpiniste aussi fort que lui peut faire cette ascension. (uniquement)

A elle seule, elle a fait autant de travail que ses trois camarades réunies.

✧ Dépasser

Mon plus grand voyage n'a pas dépassé une dizaine de kilomètres.

Il l'a dépassé d'une bonne demi-tête.

La superficie de sa maison a été dépassée par la mienne.

✧ Malgré :

Opposition de qch : Le taux de croissance reste élevé malgré la crise économique. (en dépit de)

Opposition de qn : Il est passionné pour l'art malgré l'opposition de son père. (contre)

✧ Faire partie de

C'est un livre qui fait partie de la littérature populaire.

Je sais perdre, cela fait aussi partie de mon excellente éducation.

✧ Retirer : le faire sortir de l'endroit où il est

Retirer de l'argent de la banque (prélever)

Retirer un noyé de l'eau. (repêcher)

Il a retiré de son sac tous ses vêtements.

Leçon 23

✧ Etre pressé de f. qch

Ne sois pas trop pressé de partir. Reste encore un peu avec nous.

Presser qn

Doucement, rien ne te presse.

✧ Sans article : 3 litres de lait, un paquet de sucre

Etre désolé de + inf.

Je suis désolé de vous avoir réveillé, excusez-moi.

✧ Tant pis

Le docteur que vous demandez n'est pas là. Tant pis, je reviendrai.

Contr. Il a réussi le concours, tant mieux.

✧ A : appartenance

C'est à nous de parler.

Ce stylo est à moi.

C'est un ami à moi.

✧ **Savoir vivre** : Plus...plus... (antonyme : plus...moins...)

Plus il se repose et plus il dit qu'il est fatigué. Je n'y comprends rien !

Plus on se dépêche, moins on réussit.

✧ Surtout

Les Durand, vont au restaurant surtout le samedi, rarement un autre jour.

Tu peux partir avec Francis, mais surtout faites bien attention sur la route.

✧ Se rendre compte de qch

Elle parle beaucoup, mais elle ne se rend pas compte de ce qu'elle a dit.

✧ C'est dommage/ quel dommage + que subj. / de f. qch

C'est dommage de laisser tout ce gâteau, personne n'en veut ?

Tu ne peux pas venir ce soir ? Dommage ! Ca sera amusant là-bas.

Quel dommage que Catherine ne soit pas là, elle qui aime tant la campagne !

Leçon 24

✧ Arroser... de...

Ses sabots arrosés de sang

Arroser les assaillants de pierres

✧ Porter : avoir sur soi comme vêtement, ornement

Porter une robe, un chapeau, des gants, des lunettes

Porter la barbe

✧ Ainsi... que...

Sa patience, ainsi que sa modestie, sont connues de tous. (et)

Cela s'est passé ainsi que je vous l'ai dit. (comme)

✧ Tirer profit de

Ne tire jamais profit des malheurs d'autrui. (exploiter)

Cet homme malin qui n'a rien fait ne sait qu'en tirer profit à la manière du troisième larron.

✧ Mettre (remettre) qch en question

Toutes les théories sur l'origine du monde sont aujourd'hui remises en question.

✧ Faire de qch, de qn

L'amour a fait d'elle une femme heureuse.

Il a fait de sa maison un lieu de rendez-vous.

✧ A quoi bon ?

Je voulais lui écrire, et puis... à quoi bon ? De toute façon, elle ne me répondra pas.

✧ Faire sauter

Faire sauter un bouton : l'arracher en se boutonnant ou en se déboutonnant

Faire sauter qn. : lui faire perdre son emploi, ses fonctions

Faire sauter des légumes, un poulet : le faire cuire à feu vif, avec du beurre ou de la graisse, en le remuant de temps en temps pour l'empêcher d'attacher

✧ A la place de qn

Je ne comprends pas du tout la décision de Danielle, à sa place, j'aurais agi autrement.

✧ Occuper qn/ son temps

Quand il pleut, c'est difficile d'occuper les enfants.

Quel étudiant travailleur ! Il occupe tous ses loisirs à la lecture.

Leçon 25

✧ Porter

Porter des lunettes, une montre, un chapeau, des gants

✧ Passer par/ sur / sous + un lieu

Vous passerez par Lyon pour aller dans le Midi ?

Quand tu passeras sur le pont, tu n'iras pas vite, c'est dangereux.

Comment ça se fait qu'il fait froid ici?

◇ Histoire

C'est un voisin très ennuyeux qui n'arrête pas de chercher aux autres des histoires.

◇ Se mettre à faire qch=commencer à faire qch

Se mettre à/en + n.

Se mettre au travail, en route

Ile se met à pleuvoir.

◇ désert

A cette heure, la plage est déserte.

Il parcourait les longs couloirs déserts.

◇ tourner

tourner un film, une scène, des extérieurs

tourner la clé dans la serrure.

Il tournait et retournait sa casquette entre ses mains.

Tourner la tête à droite, les yeux vers qn.

Leçon 26

◇ Sage

Cette enfant est sage comme une image.

Agir en homme sage

Une sage réponse

◇ servir à

A quoi lui ont servi tous ses diplômes?

Ce bateau sert à passer la rivière.

◇ déposer

Défense de déposer des ordures.

Déposer les armes

◇ sans +inf. (quand la principale et la subordonnée ont le même projet)

Elle travaille sans perdre une minute.

Il écoute sans comprendre. Le commandant criait ses ordures à l'équipage.

◇ Tandis que

1. simultanéité : Nous sommes arrivés tandis qu'il déjeunait.

2. contraste ou opposition : Vous reculez tandis qu'il faudrait avancer.

◇ admirable

Un admirable effort de redressement économique

Une oeuvre admirable qui ne donne prise à aucune critique.

Des tableaux admirables

◇ Crier

Un patient qui crie quand le dentiste touche à sa dent.

◇ retourner

retourner l'omelette dans la poêle

Il faut qu'il retourne chez le médecin.

Se retourner

La voiture est tombée dans un fossé et s'est complètement retournée.

Il ne fait que se tourner et se retourner dans son lit.

✧ Au milieu de

Un arbre se dresse au milieu du champ. (au centre de)

Se perdre au milieu de la foule (à l'intérieur de)

✧ exploit

Un vieux soldat raconte ses exploits. (hauts faits)

Une journée marquée par un brillant exploit sportif.

✧ pâle

La figure pâle d'un convalescent.

Il est pâle de rage (de peur).

✧ Aucun...ne, ne...aucun

Je n'ai aucune information à ce sujet.

Aucun d'entre nous ne permettra cette infamie.

Avez-vous trouvé des acheteurs pour votre maison? ---aucun.

Sans aucun doute

Vous êtes sans aucune patience.

Chapitre V

Le conditionnel présent

Le conditionnel passé

Le subjonctif présent

Le subjonctif passé

Six heures pour chaque leçon.

Leçon 28

◇ Remarquer

J'ai remarqué l'absence de Pierre pendant le festival.

Je lui ai fait remarquer que ses vêtements n'étaient pas propres.

◇ Reconnaître

Sa voix avait tellement(tant) changé que j'avais peine à la reconnaître.

On a reconnu le meurtrier à une cicatrice qu'il avait au front.

◇ Sembler

Cette couleur semble un peu vive. (paraître)

Quand le train roule, le paysage semble se déplacer. (paraître, donner l'impression de)

◇ Menacer qn. de qch.

Dans la colère, il me menace de mort.

L'institutrice mécontente a menacé cet élève de le renvoyer immédiatement.

◇ Ne...jamais ou Jamais...ne

Jamais il n'avait pensé à vous tromper.

Il sera peut-être reçu à son examen. On ne sait jamais.

◇ Il vaut mieux

Il vaudrait mieux ne pas se presser : le travail serait meilleur.

Il vaut mieux se taire que de dire des sottises.

Il écoute sans comprendre. Le commandant criait ses ordures à l'équipage.

◇ Prudent

Il n'est pas prudent de se pencher par la portière.

Les gens prudents évitent de se baigner à marée descendante. (sage)

3. simultanéité : Nous sommes arrivés tandis qu'il déjeunait.

4. contraste ou opposition : Vous reculez tandis qu'il faudrait avancer.

◇ composer

Les maisons composent le village.

La propriété est composée d'une maison et d'un jardin.

◇ comporter

Son discours comporte 3 parties. (se composer de)

Cette règle ne comporte aucune exception. (admettre)

◇ le déplacement

Le frais de déplacement

Il emmène son chien dans tous les déplacements. (voyage)

Leçon 29

◇ expérience

Il a une longue expérience en matière d'édition.

Avoir de l'expérience de la vie à la campagne.

◇ Satisfait

Ses parents sont tout à fait satisfaits de ses résultats d'études.

◇ Favorable

Il serait sans doute favorable à ce projet s'il n'y avait pas d'obstacle. (赞成)

Le moment est favorable pour parler au patron.

◇ Paraître

Une nuée se déchira et des étoiles parurent. (Sartre)

Le président paraît au balcon.

Tout paraissait noir sur le blanc de la neige, même le cheval gris.

◇ Apparaître

Se montrer brusquement, d'une manière inattendue

Des tâches apparaissent au ventre et aux jambes. (Camus)

◇ docteur ès lettres, docteur ès sciences, docteur en droit, docteur médecine

◇ carrière

Il a fait carrière dans la magistrature.

C'est une militaire de carrière.

Il a fait une brillante carrière politique.

◇ Faculté des sciences, des lettres

Faculté de médecine

Faculté de droit

Faculté de pharmacie

◇ Assistant(e)

Leçon 30

◇ enquête

Le commissaire de police est chargé de l'enquête est chargé de l'enquête sur ce vol.

◇ Placer qch (les mettre à telle ou telle place.)

Il a placé ses économies à la Caisse d'épargne.

Acheter un terrain pour placer son argent.

◇ Le solide (m.)

Le centre des affaires commerciales est un gratte-ciel basé sur du solide.

◇ Installer

Installer un téléphone, une tente, sa famille à Lyon.

S'installer à la terrasse d'un café (s'asseoir)

S'installer à un hôtel.

◇ S'offrir

Ils se sont offert des vacances en Égypte.

◇ Certain un certain +n.

Vous souvenez-vous d'une certaine promenade que nous avons faite en forêt ?

Connaissez-vous un certain M. Lambert qui prétend être vos amis ?

Il faut un certain courage pour entreprendre la lecture d'un tel ouvrage.

◇ Congé

1) autorisation spéciale donnée à qn de cesser son travail

Ex : congé payé, un congé de maladie, prendre un congé

2) courtes vacances :

Ex : Les écoliers ont eu 3 jours de congé en février.

= Les écoliers ont eu 3 jours de vacances en février.

Vacances : suspension légale annuelle des audiences des cours et tribunaux/ période de fermeture des écoles et des facultés : les vacances de Noël.

◇ Tomber bien (mal)= survenir à un moment opportun

Ça tombe bien, je voulais t'appeler et tu m'as devancé.

Il avait un besoin urgent d'argent, cet héritage tombe bien.

◇ racheter

J'ai perdu mon parapluie, il faut que j'en rachète un autre. (acheter de nouveau ou en plus)

J'ai racheté la voiture de mon collègue.

(acheter qch. à un particulier qui le revend)

◇ absolument

Nous sommes absolument du même avis. (tout à fait)

Ceci s'oppose absolument à ce que vous avez dit précédemment. (radicalement)

Tu prétends prouver le contraire ? Absolument. (certainement)

Leçon 31

◇ Juste

Estimer à sa juste valeur (convenable véritable)

Une montre juste précise)

Rendre une sentence juste (conforme au droit)

Ce directeur est juste à l'égard de ses subordonnés.

◇ Élever

Élever le niveau de vie de la population. (le porter plus haut)

Des parents ont qui élevé six enfants.(assurer leur développement physique, intellectuel, moral)

Élever des porcs et des moutons (assurer leur développement physique, les faire prospérer.)

◇ Autant (de)...que

S'il a fait cela, je peux en faire autant.

Il dit autant que moi.

J'ai fourni autant de preuves qu'il était possible.

Il a commis autant d'erreurs que nous.

◇ raisonnable

On voit des enfants se conduire comme des personnes raisonnables. (sage)

Un conseil raisonnable, une décision raisonnable

◇ A Par rapport à

Les étoiles nous paraissent très petites par rapport au Soleil. (par comparaison avec)

Une journée marquée par un brillant exploit sportif.

◇ Fier, ère

Depuis qu'il a fait fortune, il est devenu fier.

Être fier de qn ou de qch.

Il est fier de son fils.

◇ risquer

En essayant de sauver un noyé, il risquait sa vie.

Ne vous penchez pas par la fenêtre, vous risquez de tomber.

◇ davantage

Si vous voulez en apprendre davantage, allez le voir lui-même.

Il y a chaque année davantage de voitures dans les rues. (plus de)

◇ membre

membres du parti communiste chinois (P.C.C.)

pays membres de l'ONU (organisations des Nations Unies)

◇ secondaire

jouer un rôle secondaire

enseignement secondaire

secteur secondaire

acheter à des prix raisonnables (acceptable, modéré)

Leçon 32

◇ amuser

Le cirque amuse les enfants. (distraire)

◇ inquiétude : état pénible, trouble causé par la crainte, l'incertitude.

L'état du blessé m'inspire aucune inquiétude. (crainte, souci)

Avoir beaucoup de sujets d'inquiétude.

◇ accueillir

On accueille assez froidement le nouveau venu. (recevoir)

Accueillir qch (l'apprendre ou le recevoir en manifestant une certaine attitude)

On a accueilli avec émotion l'annonce de d'attentat. (apprendre)

Accueillant (e)

Une maison accueillante 舒适的

Une famille accueillante 好客的

◇ loger

V.T. L'hôtel a logé les nouveaux arrivés à l'annexe de l'hôtel. (=installer)

V.I. Loger rue du Bac (demeurer)

Loger dans notre rue (résider)

V.Pr. Il ne trouve aucun endroit où se loger.

◇ Convenir à qn, qch

Il n'y a pas de doute que ce soit un moyen de transport qui convient aux gens pressés.

Ce magasin vend des articles qui conviennent à toutes les bourses.

Il convient de + inf.

Il convient que = subj.(exprimer ce qui est requis par la situation, les bienséances, ce qui est souhaitable.)

Il convient que chacun soit prudent pour éviter de graves inconvénients.

= Il convient d'être prudent pour éviter de graves inconvénients.

◇ emmener

C'était la première fois que sa mère l'emmenait en Allemagne.

Il a emmené un livre pour se distraire pendant le trajet. (emporter)

◇ les assises

passer devant les assises (être envoyé aux assises)

le jury des assises l'a reconnu coupable.

Juridictions pénales

premier degré

deuxième degré

Tribunal de police

Tribunal de correctionnel

cour d'appel

cour de cassation

Tribunal d'assises

(cour d'assises)

◇ interroger qn sur qch pour inf.

Le juge interroge les inculpés sur le vol commis à la banque. (questionner)

L'examineur interroge un candidat pour obtenir ses informations personnelles.

◇ méchant

Je ne crois pas que cet homme soit méchant envers les faibles. (brutal)

Un homme méchant (malveillant)

◇ battre

Cet enfant est méchant, il bat ses camarades de classe. (frapper)

Il faut battre le fer pendant qu'il est chaud.

◇ Se défendre (résister à une agression, à une attaque)

Il s'est défendu à coup de fourche.

◇ naturel

les phénomènes naturels

les sciences naturelles

Il est naturel que les deux partis en viennent à des négociations après une longue dispute de pouvoir.

Leçon 33

◇ profiter à

L'épargne profite à l'édification du pays.

Des aliments qui profitent au malade.

Bien mal acquis ne profite jamais.

◇ À moins que

J'irais chez vous à moins que vous ne sortiez.

A moins que vous ne soyez pris, nous vous invitons dimanche.

◇ Bien que

Bien que le chauffage central fonctionne normalement, nous avons eu froid ces derniers jours de

janvier.

◇ L'Union européenne

Le Conseil européen

Le Conseil des ministres

Le parlement européen

Les pays membres européens de l'original 15 des syndicats, sont respectivement France, Allemagne, Italie, Hollande, Belgique, Luxembourg, Danemark, Irlande, Angleterre, Grèce, Espagne, Portugal, Autriche, Finlande, Suède. Après le 1er mai 2004, l'union européenne a augmenté 10 pays membres, Pologne, Hongrie, Tchèque(捷克共和国), Slovaquie (斯洛伐克), Estonie (爱沙尼亚, 欧洲国家, 临波罗的海), Lettonie (拉脱维亚波罗的海沿岸国家), Lituanie (立陶宛, 波罗的海沿岸国家), Slovénie (斯洛文尼亚, 中南欧国家), Malte (马耳他, 地中海中部岛国) et Chypre (塞浦路斯, 地中海东部岛国).

la capitale de l'union européenne: Bruxelles

Le parlement: Strasbourg, France

La monnaie de l'union européenne: euro

Elle a une population de 455 millions d'habitants

Actuellement, elle a 25 membres avec une superficie de 4000000 km²

Leçon 34

◇ Lequel, laquelle, lesquels, lesquelles

Les études auxquelles tu te consacres sont très importantes.

Parmi la dizaine de collaborateurs réguliers avec lesquels je travaille depuis des années, il y en a un que je n'ai jamais rencontré.

La table sur laquelle tu poses la télécarte et le téléphone sans fil est de meilleure qualité.

La réussite est due à leur aide sans laquelle vous n'auriez pas abouti.

Le phénomène à l'étude duquel il se consacre est rare.

Les personnes autorisées avec le concours desquelles nous avons créé la banque du sang habitent aux environs de Paris.

Il rencontra beaucoup d'amis étrangers, parmi lesquels deux ou trois Français.

Pilar avait fait relever les hommes exténués, parmi lesquels, le sous-officier d'Olivenza.

J'ai vu la mère de Monsieur Li, laquelle était malade.

Il y a une édition de cet ouvrage, laquelle se vend fort bien.

Leçon 35

◇ Prendre le temps de

Prenez ton temps.

Prenez le temps de vous reposer.

◇ Ce pays ne produit que du pétrole.

◇ La proposition subordonnée de temps

Tout le monde est resté là, jusqu'à ce qu'il fasse nuit.

Lorsque ma mère allait au marché, elle me laissait dans la classe de mon père.

Je serai libre dès que j'aurai fini mon travail.

◇ La proposition subordonnée de cause

Puisque Paul est malade, il n'ira pas à l'école.

Comme la technique a fait de grands progrès, nous pouvons téléphoner partout dans le monde.

◇ La proposition subordonnée de concession

Quoique l'adresse ne soit pas complète, la lettre est bien arrivée.

Bien qu'il ait peu de temps, il répond à toutes les lettres.

◇ La proposition subordonnée de but

Aidez-la afin qu'elle finisse ce travail avant ce soir.

J'essayerai de lui expliquer de sorte qu'il s'aperçoive de ses fautes.

◇ La proposition subordonnée de comparaison

Pierre est plus vieux qu'il paraît.

Il travaille autant qu'il peut.

◇ La proposition subordonnée de condition

Téléphonez-lui à moins que vous ne préfériez le voir avant son départ.

Prenez votre parapluie au cas où il pleuvrait.

◇ La proposition subordonnée de conséquence

La télé ne marche pas de sorte qu'il n'y a pas de son.

La professeur parle de manière que toute la classe l'entend bien.

◇ La proposition subordonnée de lieu

J'entre dans la maison d'où il vient de sortir.

Je suis allé là où vous avez été.

《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
日语的发音.....	398
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

第十一課

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. 表示疑問的数量詞

*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)

第十二課

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。

第十三課

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（知っているの否定）

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. 辞书形的变化

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. 动词た形的变化

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」の普通形
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。

第二十一課

1. 助詞 と

・今晚雨が降ると思います。

2. ～と思います。

(1)推量 ・今晚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。

第二十二課

1. 连体修飾

・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+名)

・リーさんが実習する会社(普通体+名)

2. 表示修飾句主语的助词「が」

・ラオさんが実習する会社は 東京電気です。

3. 修飾句的例句

・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. 授受表現
 - (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覚えてもらいました。
 - (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. 条件的表現
 - (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、～ ー ～ 就～

・昼ごはんを食べたら、すぐ行きます。

2. 逆態接続的假定表現

～ても、～ 即使～也～

動詞でも ・スイッチを入れても機械が動きません。

い形容詞でも ・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
一、概述.....	413
二、教材.....	413
三、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	413
四、课程主要内容及学时分配.....	413
五、相关教学环节.....	413
第 2 6 课.....	414
第 2 7 课.....	414
第 2 8 课.....	415
第 2 9 课.....	416
第 3 0 课.....	417
第 3 1 课.....	417
第 3 2 课.....	418
第 3 3 课.....	418
第 3 4 课.....	419
第 3 5 课.....	420
第 3 6 课.....	421
第 3 7 课.....	421
第 3 8 课.....	422
第 3 9 课.....	423
第 4 0 课.....	423
第 4 1 课.....	424
第 4 2 课.....	424
第 4 3 课.....	426
第 4 4 课.....	426
第 4 5 课.....	427
第 4 6 课.....	427
第 4 7 课.....	428
第 4 8 课.....	429
第 4 9 课.....	429
第 5 0 课.....	430

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 ～んです

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 ～んですか

洗濯機が動かないんですが、ちょっと見てくださいますか。

2-4 不使用“～んです” の場合

私はインドのラオです。(×ーーラオなんです)

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. 表示対比的“は”

2-1 这节课学习表示对比意思的“は”的用法。

* 今日には行きませんが、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、タクシーで帰ります。
 - 3-2 荷物も多いし、雨も降っているし、タクシーで帰ります。
 - 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: セロテープはどこですか。
B: セロテープはかばんに入っています。(さっきみしました。)
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31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. 表現主体的“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 3 2 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 3 3 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、(節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. (節1) て形

(節1) ない形+ないで + (節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. (節1) ない形+ないで、 (節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。(その代わりに) 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. 条件形的構成方法

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。

変換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。(○)

時間があると、行きます。(×)

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。(○)

国へ帰れば、すぐ手紙を書いてください。(×)

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、今はほとんど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。(○)

B: いいえ、またなりません。(×)

* 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。(○)

あのテレビは大きなです。(×)

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 37 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

* 課長は私をしかったです。

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。(×)

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。(○)

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。(○)

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+形容词

* 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+形容词

* 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 — 普通形

→のを知っています

な形容词 — 普通形

名词 — ~だ→~な

* 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。(○)

* リーさんは日本語をはなすのができません。(×)

- *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。(×)
- *日本料理を食べたことがあります。(○)
- *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。(○)
 - *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。(○)
 - *明日会議があつて、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。(×)
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41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くださいました。

* 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いただけますませんか。

* 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 ーために

- 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 ーに

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つて、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つて、買い物に便利です。_____ここは近くにスーパーがあつて、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 4 3 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×)
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 4 4 課

1. ～すぎです
 - 1-1 意思
 - * タ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 ~のに、が、ても

* 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×)

* 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+いるところでは

- * 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 4 8 課

1. 使役動詞的構成方法

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) 強制

* 私は息子を買物に行かせました。

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. 使役動詞的て形+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 4 9 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) 謙讓語

* 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 ~ (ら)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. 謙讓語
- 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“謙讓語”

* 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。

《英语语法》教学大纲

孙平华 编写

目 录

前 言.....	435
一、概述.....	435
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	435
三、课程主要内容及学时分配.....	435
Outline for each week Week 4 Introduction to the course: English Grammar (syllabus, teaching plan, description of assessment, self-introduction) / Introduction: Grammatical Hierarchy // Sentence structure	437
Week 5 Subject-verb Concord (I), (II).....	439
Week 6 Noun and noun phrase // Genitive noun	443
Week 7 (Sports meeting, 27 th , Oct. Friday) Week 8 Determiners (I), (II) // Pronoun (I), (II).....	446
Week 9 Pronoun (I), (II)	449
Week 10 Verb and Verb Phrase // Tense and aspect (I), (II)	452
Week 11 Means of expressing future time / Passive voice (I), (II).....	455
Week 12 Subjunctive mood / Auxiliaries (I), (II).....	457
Week 13 Infinitive (I), (II), / -ing participle, / -ed participle *(Important Lectures)	459
Week 14 Adjective and adjective phrase / adverb and adverb phrase / Comparison and comparative construction / preposition and prepositional phrase	461
Week 15 Statement, question, command, exclamation / Existential sentence / It-pattern / Coordination	464
Week 16 Subordination (I), (II) / Relative clause/ conditional sentence / direct and indirect speech	466
Week 17 Modification / substitution / ellipsis	469
Week 18 Postponement, fronting and inversion / From sentence to text.....	471
Week 19-20 Testing Weeks.....	473

前 言

一、概述

英语语法 (English Grammar) 是英语语言的组织规律, 它赋予语言以结构体系, 而词汇则是语言的建筑材料, 它通过语法而赋予语言以意义内容。英语的语法结构具有层次性。它可以分为五个不同的层次, 即句子、分句、词组、词和词素。作为一门外语学科, 学习和掌握英语语法是十分必要的, 这是因为学生语言能力的发展离不开对语法能力的培养, 语法能力被许多语言学家当作语言能力的重要组成部分。

英语语法教学大纲是指导英语语法教学的纲领性文献, 教学大纲的起草和制定对指导英语语法教学起到重要的作用。首先, 有了教学大纲, 教学的基本要求和教学目标就得到了明确, 教学内容就有了大致的安排, 课堂上的教学活动就有了大致的范围, 教学评价的方式也有了大致的描绘。另外, 教学大纲还为本课程提供一份较为翔实的参考书目。因此, 教学大纲的编写目的是为了能够更好地增强教学的计划性, 减少盲目性。

英语语法课程是我校外国语学院专门为英语专业一年级学生安排的一门基础课程。本课程设置的目的是为了让学生学习和掌握基本而又系统的语法知识, 培养语法能力, 教师通过对语法知识的系统教授, 学生能够借助于丰富的语法知识和大量的课内外练习。在学习语法的同时, 学生的词汇量进一步扩大, 语言知识进一步丰富, 从而为进一步学习英语专业课程打好语言基础。

本教学大纲有任课教师孙平华同志编写, 孙平华老师曾经任教过 2005 级、2006 级英语专业学生的英语语法课程, 对英语语法有过较为深入地探讨和研究。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

英语语法课作为英语专业学生的一门必修基础课程, 其教学目的是: 1) 让学生系统地学习和掌握语法知识; 2) 培养语法能力; 3) 提高综合语言运用能力。具体来说包括: 学习基础的语法规则、概念、掌握其意义; 2) 让学生通过英语语法课的学习更好地理解语法规则; 3) 达到正确使用语法规则的目的。

英语语法课程的基本要求是: 学生通过课堂学习和课外练习, 基本掌握主要的语法规则, 通过大量的阅读材料, 扩充词汇量, 增强语言感受能力, 培养正确使用语法的能力, 从而发展自己的综合语言运用能力, 提高整体英语语言水平。

三、课程主要内容及学时分配

以章振邦主编的《新编英语语法教程》为教材。本教材的主要内容共包括简介和 40 讲内容, 包括英语语法的各个方面。主要涉及到: 句子结构、主谓一致、各类词 (包括名词、动词、形容词、副词、介词等) 的用法、动词的各种时态的用法、被动语态的用法、动词不定式、动词-ing 和-ed 形式、各种句子结构、各种主从复合句、直接引语和间接引语、语篇手段等。并且, 本课程全面介绍了将来时的表示法, 简化了虚拟语气, 注意了语法结构和词汇意义的关系以及语法和语篇的关系, 从而在一定程度上提高了英语语法教学的广度和深度。

本课程授课总时间为 18 学时, 主要内容和学时安排如下:

All sessions take place on both Mondays and Wednesdays (18-1)

Week 1-3 (No lessons)

Week 4 Introduction to the course: English Grammar (syllabus, teaching plan, description of

assessment, self-introduction) / Introduction: Grammatical Hierarchy // Sentence structure

Week 5 Subject-verb Concord (I), (II)

Week 6 Noun and noun phrase // Genitive noun

Week 7 (Sports meeting 27th, Oct.)

Week 8 Determiners (I), (II)

Week 9 Pronoun (I), (II) // Verb and Verb Phrase // Tense and aspect (I), (II)

Week 10 Verb and Verb Phrase // Tense and aspect (I), (II)

Week 11 Means of expressing future time / Passive voice (I), (II)

Week 12 Subjunctive mood / Auxiliaries (I), (II)

Week 13 Infinitive (I), (II), / -ing participle, / -ed participle

Week 14 Adjective and adjective phrase / adverb and adverb phrase / Comparison and comparative construction / preposition and prepositional phrase

Week 15 Statement, question, command, exclamation / Existential sentence / It-pattern / Coordination

Week 16 Subordination (I), (II) / Relative clause/ conditional sentence / direct and indirect speech

Week 17 Modification / substitution / ellipsis

Week 18 Postponement, fronting and inversion / From sentence to text

Week 19-20 Testing Weeks

Outline for each week

Week 4 Introduction to the course: English Grammar (syllabus, teaching plan, description of assessment, self-introduction) / Introduction: Grammatical Hierarchy // Sentence structure

1. Introduction: Grammatical Hierarchy (Introduction Section)

Grammar is the structural system of a language. The grammar of the English language is organized into five ranks: the sentence, the clause, the phrase, the word and the morpheme. Each rank is composed of one or more than one grammatical unit of the immediate lower rank. Thus the sentence is a grammatical unit that consists of one or more than one clause; the clause, one or more than one phrase; the phrase, one or more than one word; and the word, one or more than one morpheme. The sentence is the highest rank of grammatical unit while the morpheme is the minimum or the lowest rank. A full sentence can generally be segmented rank by rank down to its smallest constituents—the morphemes.

0.1 Morphemes

The morpheme is the minimum or smallest grammatical unit, also the smallest meaningful element of speech. Morphemes fall into two categories: free morphemes and bound morphemes.

- 1) Free morphemes
- 2) Bound morphemes
- 3) Allomorphs

0.2 Words

The word is composed of one or more than one morpheme. Words can be classified in two ways:

- 1) Classification in terms of word-formation
- 2) Classification in terms of grammatical function

0.3 Phrases

The phrase is composed of one or more than one word. Generally, the phrase is a group of words organized in a specific way with a key word as its head. The word class of the head determines the class of the phrase and the way in which the words are organized.

- 1) The noun phrase
- 2) The verb phrase
- 3) The adjective phrase
- 4) The adverb phrase
- 5) The prepositional phrase

0.4 Clauses

The clause is composed of one or more than one phrase. A full-fledged clause is structurally a sequence of phrases and logically a construction of “subject + predicate”.

- 1) Independent and dependent clauses

- 2) Simple and complex clauses
- 3) Main and subordinate clauses
- 4) Finite and non-finite clauses
- 5) Verbless clauses

0.5 Sentences

The sentence is the highest rank of grammatical unit. Based on one or more than one clause, the sentence is also the basic linguistic unit of connected discourse; it can stand alone and perform a function in social communication. Thus, a sentence can be defined as a grammatical unit that can stand by its and perform a communicative function.

- 1) Full and minor sentences
- 2) Simple, compound, complex and compound-complex sentences

2. Sentence structure (Lecture 1)

Owing to the fact that sentences in authentic language differ structurally in thousands of ways, what is described here as sentence structure, sentence elements, or sentence patterns is only concerned with the simple sentence, or rather with the clause.

1.1 Clause element

As has been pointed out before, the clause or the simple sentence is structurally a sequence of phrases and logically a construction of “subject +predicate”. That is to say, the clause or the simple sentence is not just an agglomeration of phrase; it is a group of phrases organized into a construction of “subject +predicate”.

- 1) Subject and predicate
- 2) Two ways of sentence analysis

1.2 Basic clause types and their transformation and expansion

In terms of the different combinations of clause elements, English clauses can be classified into seven types. Innumerable authentic sentences are structured on the basis of these clause types.

- 1) Basic clause types
- 2) Transformation and expansion of basic clause types

The basic clause types and their variants can also be expanded levels, and these larger units can again be expanded through coordination and subordination into compound, complex and compound-complex sentences.

Week 5 Subject-verb Concord (I), (II)

Lecture 2: Subject-verb Concord (I)

By subject-verb concord is meant agreement between subject and predicate verb in number.

2.1 Guiding principles

There are three principles guiding subject-verb concord; they are principles of grammatical concord, notional concord and proximity.

1) Grammatical concord

The principle of grammatical concord refers to the rule that the verb must match its subject in number. If the subject is plural, the verb should take the plural form; if, on the other hand, the subject is singular or is a mass noun, the verb should take the singular form, eg:

Both boys have their own merits.

Every girl comes on time.

Much effort is wasted.

Difficulties arise when this principle comes into conflict with the other two principles: principle of notional concord and principle of proximity.

2) Notional concord

The principle of notional concord refers to the rule that the verb can sometimes agree with the subject according to the notion of number rather than to the actual presence of the grammatical marker for that notion, eg:

The government have asked the country to decide by a vote.

Fifteen miles seems like a long walk to me.

3) Proximity

The principle of proximity denotes agreement of the verb with a closely preceding noun phrase in preference to agreement with the head of the noun phrase that functions as subject, eg:

Either my brothers or my father is coming.

No one except his own supporters agree with him.

Neither Julia nor I am going.

Note that grammatical concord is the basic principle, but when the subject is realized by a collective noun, a coordinate form or an expression of quantity, the other two principles will have to be considered.

2.2 Problems of concord with nouns ending in -s

There are quite a few nouns that end in -s but which are not countable. Some of these nouns are treated as singular, some as plural, and some either as singular or as plural. All this can be dealt with under the following headings.

1) Disease and game names ending in -s

Names of disease ending in -s are mostly treated as singular, but there are a few such names (as measles and rickets) which can be used either as singular or as plural.

Game names ending in -s are generally used as singular with the exception of cards which is usually treated as plural.

2) Subject names ending in -ics

Names of subjects ending in -ics are generally singular nouns, but some such nouns are treated as

plural when used in other senses than subject names. Compare:

Acoustics is the science of sound.

The acoustics in the new concert hall are faultless.

Economics is a required course for all the students.

The economics of the project are still being considered.

3)Geographical names ending in –s

Geographical names such as the names of archipelagos, mountain ranges, straits and falls are generally used as plural, except for a few treated as singular when used as country names, eg:

The Himalayas have a magnificent variety of plant and animal life.

The Straits of Gibraltar have not lost their strategic importance.

In early January 1976, the Netherlands was hit by its worst storm since 1953.

4)Other nouns ending in –s

Names for things made of two parts such as scissors, pincers, etc are usually used as plural. But when they are preceded by such unit nouns as a pair of and two pairs of, the number form of the following verb is generally determined by the number marker of the unit noun.

Nouns usually taking plural endings such as archives, arms and clothes are generally used as plural with the exception of whereabouts, dramatics, etc which may be treated either as plural or as singular.

Nouns ending in –ing such as clippings, diggings, etc are generally used as plural with the exception of tidings which can be used both ways.

There are also nouns such as barracks and headquarters whose singular and plural number share the same form. These nouns are treated as plural when used in the plural sense, or vice versa.

2.3 Problems of concord with collective nouns as subject

Collective nouns are singular in form but plural in meaning. The choice between grammatical and notional concord is mostly dictated by usage.

1)Collective nouns usually used as plural

These include people, police, cattle, militia, poultry, vermin, etc.:

The Chinese people are a great people.

Domestic cattle provide us with milk, beef and hides.

2)Collective nouns usually used as singular

These include foliage, machinery, equipment, furniture, merchandise, etc.:

All the merchandise has arrived undamaged.

All the machinery in the factory is made in China.

3)Collective nouns used either as plural or as singular

There are collective nouns that can be used either as plural or as singular. The choice of the verb form following such nouns depends on the exact meaning of the noun in a specific context. When the noun is used in the sense of a collective as a whole, the verb takes the singular form. If, on the other hand, the noun is used in the sense of the individuals that make the collective, the verb takes the plural form. Compare:

The anti-crime committee is to make its report tomorrow.

The committee are divided in opinion about this problem.

That group of soldiers is a top-notch fighting unit.

That group of soldiers have the best ratings of individual performance.

4) A committee of, etc + plural noun

When a plural noun is preceded by a committee of / a board of / a panel of, the verb usually takes the singular form, eg.:

A committee of five men and three women is to consider the matter.

The board of directors is responsible for the management of the company.

Lecture 3: Subject-verb Concord (II)

This lecture deals with problems of concord with a coordinate construction, a quantitative expression, or a nominal clause as subject.

3.1 Problems of concord with a coordinate subject

The following rules are to be observed in the case of a coordinate subject.

1) Coordination with “and” or “both ... and”

Coordination by “and” or “both ... and” is usually treated as plural when it refers to two or more than two persons / things, but it is treated as singular when it refers to only one person or thing. Compare:

Both Pauline and Bob have gone fishing on Miramar Lake.

Rain, hail and wind have caused an estimated \$ 200,000,000 damage to crops and livestock.

The secretary and treasurer was absent from the meeting.

Ham and eggs is a good breakfast.

2) Coordination with “or” / “either ... or”, “nor” / “neither ... nor”, “not only ... but also”

Here the problem of concord is generally dealt with according to the principle of proximity. But in informal style, items coordinated by “neither ... nor” or “not only ... but also” can sometimes be regarded as plural, eg:

My sisters or my brother is likely to be at home.

Either my father or my brothers are coming.

Neither the players nor the coach was / (were) overconfident.

Not only the switches but also the old wiring has / (have) been changed.

3.2 Problems of concord with expressions of quantity as subject

Quantitative expressions fall into two categories: definite and indefinite.

1) Concord with expression of definite quantity as subject

2) Concord with expression of indefinite quantity as subject

3.3 Other problems of subject-verb concord

There are other problems of subject-verb concord that are worth mentioning.

1) Problems of concord with a nominal clause as subject

When the subject is a nominal clause introduced by what, who, which, how, why, whether, etc, the verb usually takes the singular form. But when two or more such clauses are coordinated by and or both ... and, a plural verb is required.

2) Subject-verb concord with a non-finite clause as subject

When subject is a non-finite clause, the verb of the main clause usually takes the singular form. But when two or more such clauses are coordinated by and, the verb of the main clause takes the singular form

when the subject refers to one thing, and the plural form when the subject refers to separate things.

3) Subject-verb concord in relative clauses

In the construction of “one of + plural noun + relative clause”, the principle of grammatical concord is generally observed. Sometimes, especially in British English, in order to lay emphasis on “one”, the verb can also take the singular form. When “one” is preceded by “the” or “the only”, the verb can only be singular.

4) Subject-verb concord in cleft-sentences

In cleft-sentences, subject-verb concord in that- / who-clause is generally determined by the number of the focal element functioning as subject in the clause. There is one point that should be noted: When the focal element is “I”, the verb TO BE in the following who- / that-clause usually agrees with “I” in both person and number; if, on the other hand, the focal element is “me” instead of “I”, the verb TO BE in the following who- / that-clause should take the third person singular number.

5) Subject-verb concord in existential sentences

In existential sentences, subject-verb concord is generally determined by the number of the “notional subject”, but in informal style, especially in spoken language, the verb often agrees with the “formal subject” and takes the singular form, even though the notional subject is plural. When the notional subject is a coordinate construction, the verb form goes with the first coordinate element of the notional subject, singular or plural.

Week 6 Noun and noun phrase // Genitive noun

Lecture 4 Noun and Noun Phrase

As has been pointed out, the noun phrase is a phrase with a noun as its head. It is the noun head that determines the way the noun phrase is organized.

4.1 Classification of nouns and function of noun phrases

1) Classification of nouns

Nouns can be classified according to word formation, lexical meaning and grammatical form.

a) Simple, compound and derivative nouns

According to word formation, nouns can be divided into simple, compound and derivative nouns. A **simple noun** is a noun that contains only one free morpheme (e.g. man, chair, land, faith). A **compound noun** is a noun that is composed of two or more morphemes (mostly free morphemes) (eg: armchair, farmland, seaside, roommate). A derivative noun is a noun that comes from a verb, an adjective or a simple noun with affix (prefix, or suffix, eg.: arrangement, greatness, patriotism, forget-me-not).

b) Proper and common nouns

According to lexical meaning, nouns fall into two major categories: proper nouns and common nouns. A **proper noun** is a name used for a particular person, place or thing, and spelt with a capital initial letter (eg: Anderson, Britain, The New York Times). A **common noun** is a name common to a class of people, things or abstract ideas. Common nouns can be further classified into individual, collective, material, and abstract nouns (eg: boy, tiger, family, team, water, air, honesty, glory).

c) Count and noncount nouns

According to grammatical form, noun can be divided into two classes: count nouns and noncount nouns. A **count noun** (or countable noun) is a noun that has a plural and which can collocate with numbers and with such determiners as a(No, many, few, these, those, several. etc. (eg: a car, two cars, many cars, several cars). A **noncount noun** (or uncountable noun) is a noun that cannot go with the above-mentioned words (eg: bread, furniture, merchandise).

2) Function of noun phrases

The noun phrase can function as all the elements in a sentence except the predicate verb:

Children at play seldom remember what time it is. (Subject)

That was *an attractive little black chair*. (Subject complement)

In the hall I saw *some extremely valuable pictures*. (object)

They elected him *chairman of the board*. (object complement)

Mr Brown, *director of the coal mine*, should be responsible for the accident. (appositive)

Teachers should be concerned about *the students' moral culture*. (prepositional complementation)

He returned *last night*. (adverbial)

A photo is taken *each time* this button is pushed. (conjunction)

(Keys to 4A: 1. description 2.arrangement 3.attendance 4.peculiarity 5.expectation 6.argument 7.dependence 8.originality 9.exaggeration 10.measurement 11.purity 12.persistence 13.extension 14.statement 15.generosity 16.entrance 17.loneliness 18.forgetfulness 19.happiness 20.seriousness)

4.2 Number forms of nouns

Number is a grammatical distinction which determines whether a noun or determiner is singular or plural.

1) Regular and irregular plural

Individual nouns are all countable and therefore have singular and plural forms. The singular form of an individual noun, which shares the same form as the base of the word, can take such determiners as a(n) and one (eg: a/ one desk, an / one article).

The plural form of an individual noun can be regular or irregular. The regular plural is formed by adding -s or -es to the base, while the irregular is not formed in the above way but by other means such as by changing the internal vowel or by changing the ending of the noun (eg: tooth—teeth, man—men, mouse—mice, child—children, ox—oxen).

Irregular plurals also include some words of foreign origin, borrowed from Greek, Latin or French. The plural forms of these borrowed words are known as “foreign plurals”, eg:

basis—bases, criterion—criteria, stratum—strata, alumnus—alumni

Some borrowed words have two plural forms: a foreign plural and an English plural, eg:

medium—media—mediums

index—indices—indexes

formula—formulae—formulas

curriculum—curricula—curriculum

For some nouns, their singular and plural number share the same form, eg:

A deer—ten deer, one fish—several fish, a Japanese—a group of Japanese, an aircraft—a hundred aircraft

2) Number forms of the collective, material, abstract and proper noun

a) Number forms of the collective noun

Some collective nouns are countable, some are not. Countable collective nouns behave just like individual nouns. An uncountable collective noun has no plural form. If we want to count the number, we will have to use a kind of individual noun related semantically to the collective (eg: a piece of furniture, two articles of equipment)

b) Number forms of the material noun

Material nouns are generally uncountable and have no plural forms. But there are some such items that can be used either uncountably or countably. When used to mean the material itself, they are uncountable, but when used in other senses, for example, two coffees in the sense of “two cups of coffee”, they are countable, behaving just like individual nouns. There are also material nouns that can take plural endings, for example, sands/waters in the sense of “large expanse of sand or water” and foods/fruits in the sense of “a variety of food or fruit”; these nouns, though ending in -s, remain uncountable.

c) Number forms of the abstract noun

Abstract nouns are mostly uncountable. They cannot take such determiners as a(n)/ one or plural forms. But there are a few abstract nouns (eg: a victory—two victories) that are countable like individual nouns. There are also abstract nouns that have plural endings but which are uncountable.

In the case of some abstract nouns, the mere addition of a plural ending has the effect of changing the meaning of the base.

We meet once a year to exchange our teaching *experience*. (经验)

We told each other our *experiences* in foreign countries. (经历)

d) Number forms of the proper noun

Proper nouns are unique reference and therefore have no plural forms, except for such proper names as the United States, the Philipines, the Netherlands, etc which are themselves plural in form. When a proper noun takes a plural endings, it takes on some characteristics of a common noun, eg:

Have you invited the Browns?

There are two Miss Smiths/Misses Smith in our class.

4.3 Partitives

Partitives, also called unit nouns, are commonly used to denote a part of a whole or the quantity of an undifferentiated mass. Both count and noncount nouns can enter partitive constructions. With plural count nouns, partitive constructions can denote the idea of “a group”, “a pack”, etc. With noncount nouns, such constructions can achieve countability. Partitives fall into the following categories:

- 1) General partitives
- 2) Partitives related to the shape of things
- 3) Partitives related to volume
- 4) Partitives related the state of action
- 5) Partitives denoting pairs, groups, flocks, etc.

Week 7 (Sports meeting, 27th, Oct. Friday)

Week 8 Determiners (I), (II) // Pronoun (I), (II)

Lecture 6

Determiner (I)

Words that precede any premodifying adjectives in a noun phrase and which denote such referential meanings as specific reference, generic reference, definite quantity or indefinite quantity are referred to as determiners.

Determiners, as a class of words, include: articles (definite article, indefinite article, zero article), possessive determiners, genitive nouns, demonstrative determiners, relative determiners, interrogative determiners, indefinite determiners, cardinal and ordinal numerals, fractional and multiplicative numerals, and other quantifiers.

The head of a noun phrase limits the choice of determiners, and when more than one determiner occurs in the noun phrase, there is the problem of word order between determiners.

6.1 Collocations between determiners and nouns

The choice of determiners is closely related to what might be called the three classes of nouns: singular count nouns, plural count nouns and noncount nouns. These three classes of nouns demand appropriate determiners to collocate with.

- 1) Determiners with all three classes of nouns
- 2) Determiners with singular count nouns only
- 3) Determiners with plural count nouns only
- 4) Determiners with noncount nouns only
- 5) Determiners with singulars and plural count nouns only
- 6) Determiners with singular and noncount nouns only
- 7) Determiners with plural and noncount nouns only

6.2 Collocations between determiners

As has been mentioned before, besides the collocations between determiners and nouns, there is the problem of word order between determiners if a noun phrase contains more than one determiner.

- 1) Central determiners, predeterminers and postdeterminers

According to their potential position, determiners fall into three subclasses: central determiners, predeterminers and postdeterminers.

- 2) Word order of three subclasses of determiners

When a noun phrase contains all three subclasses of determiners, their normal order is “predeterminer + central determiner + postdeterminer(s)”:

All the four students

All these last few days

Both his two sisters

6.3 A comparative study of some determiner usage

- 1) many, much, a lot of, lots of, plenty of

- 2) (a) few, (a) little

3) some, any

4) all, both, every, each, either, neither, any

II. Lecture 7

Determiners (II) Articles

In the previous lecture we touched upon the fact that articles are the most typical of determiners. Now we will concentrate on this topic.

English has two articles: the definite and the indefinite article. As we know, all English common nouns have article contrast, so with plural count nouns and noncount nouns, the absence of an article signals the presence of another kind of article—the zero article. It is in this sense that we may also say that English has three articles—the definite, the indefinite, and the zero article.

7.1 Generic and specific reference

In discussing the use of articles, we must distinguish between generic and specific reference.

1) Generic reference

When we say the reference is generic, we are talking about any member representative of a class of people or things. All the three forms of article (the, a(n), and zero) can be used generically to refer to the member of a class as a whole.

2) Specific reference

Specific reference is different from generic reference in that it does not refer to a class of people or things in general but to a particular specimen of the class. Specific reference falls into two kinds: definite specific reference and indefinite specific reference.

3) Anaphoric, cataphoric and situational reference

Definite specific reference can be anaphoric, cataphoric, or situational. The word anaphoric means “pointing backward”. When what is referred to occurs in a previous context and the definite article has to point backward for its meaning, this is known as “anaphoric reference”. The anaphoric use of the definite article is called “anaphoric THE”. Eg.

He ordered a book some time ago. The book has now arrived.

His car struck a tree; you can still see the mark on the tree.

Cataphoric reference is also a kind of definite specific reference. The word cataphoric means “pointing forward”. When the referential meaning of the definite article is determined by what follows the article and the head, and the article has to point forward for its own interpretation, that is cataphoric reference. The cataphoric use of the definite article is called “cataphoric THE”. Eg.

Is this the train for Shanghai?

This is the place where I first met her.

Situational reference is a kind of definite specific reference that depends not on any referent that has occurred in the context but solely on the common knowledge shared by speaker and hearer or on a specific situation in which the reference is made clear. Situational reference is most commonly denoted by the definite article, but in certain situations the same function can also be performed by zero. Eg.

What's on the radio?

How's the cough today?

Shut the door, please.

7.2 Articles in use with different classes of noun

The use of articles is often a headache for us Chinese learners. This is not only because there is no article contrast in Chinese common nouns, but also because there are too many exceptions to the rules guiding the use of articles. As a matter of fact, the choice of an article in quite a few idiomatic expressions is just a matter of usage which is difficult or even impossible to explain in terms of a few grammatical rules. The following is a brief description of the use of articles with different classes of noun.

- 1) article in use with proper noun
- 2) article in use with common noun
- 3) other uses of articles

Week 9 Pronoun (I), (II)

Lecture 8

Pronouns (I)

Pronouns are a varied closed-class words with nominal function. English has a developed pronoun system, comprising personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, reflective pronouns, reciprocal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, relative pronouns, and indefinite pronouns. The present lecture will deal with the concord of pronouns (and corresponding determiners) with their antecedents in number, gender and person.

8.1 Pronoun concord in number

Personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, reflective pronouns, and corresponding determiners have their singular and plural forms. The number contrast of pronouns differs from that of nouns in that pronoun number contrast is morphologically unrelated, as in I / we, he /they, as opposed to the typical regular formation of noun plurals: boy / boys.

The choice of pronoun number forms is generally determined by the number of its antecedent, that is to say, a pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number. Here are a few points that merit our attention.

1) Pronoun concord with every-, some-, any- compounds as antecedent

When the antecedent is compound such as everyone, everybody, someone, somebody, anyone, anybody, no one, nobody, the pronoun and the corresponding determiner usually follow the principle of grammatical concord and take the singular form. But in informal style, they can follow the principle of notional concord and take the plural form, esp. when the antecedent is everybody or everyone. Note that with everything, something, anything and nothing, the pronoun and corresponding determiner can only take the singular form.

Anybody can attend the meeting if he is interested.

Everybody talked at the top of his voice.

Everyone was clapping their hands.

Anything on the table can be thrown away, can't it?

2) Pronouns concord with coordinate construction as antecedent

When the antecedent is a coordinate construction, the number forms of the pronoun and corresponding determiner are generally determined by the plural or singular meaning of the coordination, eg.

My friend and roommate has agreed to lend me his car.

My friend and my roommate have agreed to lend me their cars.

3) Pronoun concord with collective noun as antecedent

When the antecedent is a collective noun, the choice of the number forms of the pronoun and corresponding determiner depends on the meaning of the collective noun in the context, eg:

The team has won its first game.

The team are now on the floor taking their practice shots at the basket.

4) Pronoun concord with “plural noun / pronoun + each” as antecedent

When the subject of a sentence is a construction of “plural noun/ pronoun + each”, the choice of the number forms of the pronoun and corresponding determiner depends on the position of the appositive each: if the appositive occurs before the verb, the following pronoun and corresponding determiner take the plural form; if, on the other hand, the appositive appears after the verb, the pronoun and corresponding determiner take the singular form, eg:

They each had their problems.

They had each his own problem.

8.2 pronoun concord in gender

Gender is a grammatical category. It is a set of grammatical forms of nouns, determiners and adjectives that tell of the distinctions of sex. Unlike some European language such as German, French and Russian that have a complicated gender system, the English language is not marked with any gender distinctions except for some pronouns. Therefore, when we follow the traditional description and say that English nouns have four genders (the masculine, feminine, neuter, and common gender), we do not mean any overt grammatical forms that show the distinctions of sex, but the differences of natural sex denoted by the lexical meaning of nouns.

The gender distinctions are largely restricted to the third person singular of personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns and corresponding determiners. In the use of these pronouns and determiners we must see to it that they agree with their antecedents in gender.

1) Pronouns concord with male/ female noun as antecedent

When the antecedent is a personal male /female noun, the pronoun and corresponding determiner should be masculine or feminine respectively.

2) Pronoun concord with common gender noun as antecedent

Some common gender nouns, such as baby, child, customer, doctor, engineer, infant, lawyer, parent, patient, person, scholar, secretary etc, are dual in nature. They can either be male or female.

In formal writing as in legal documents, we can use “he or she”, “his or her”, etc to refer to a common gender noun.

3) Pronoun concord with neutral gender noun as antecedent

When the antecedent is a singular noun of neutral gender, ie a noun that denotes an inanimate or nonpersonal object, we generally use the neutral pronoun or determiner (it /itself / its).

8.3 Pronoun concord in person

Person is a grammatical category. It is a grammatical form that shows the referential meaning of pronouns. In English, personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns and corresponding determiners have three special forms that tell of reference to the speaker (first person), to the one spoken to (second person), and to the human being or thing spoken about (third person).

1) Pronoun concord in person on sentential level

In a sentence or in a sequence of sentences, the person of a pronoun is determined by the person of its antecedent. Generally speaking, all noun phrases are third person for purposes of concord.

2) Pronoun concord in person on textual level

In a text, pronouns should be consistent in person from beginning to end. This is a matter of speaking or writing from what point of view, from the speaker's or writer's point of view or from that of a third party. A consistent point of view is a guarantee of clarity in writing.

Lecture 9 Pronouns (II)

This lecture will deal with some other problems in the use of pronouns: chiefly the choice of pronoun case forms, the use of possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns, the generic use of personal pronouns, and some problems concerning pronoun reference.

9.1 Choice of pronoun case forms

- 1) Choice between subjective and objective case
- 2) Choice between objective and genitive case

9.2 Possessive pronouns, reflexive pronouns and generic use of personal pronouns

- 1) Possessive pronouns
- 2) Reflexive pronouns
 - a) Reflexives as appositive
 - b) Reflexives as prepositional complementation
 - c) Reflexives as object
 - d) Other uses of reflexives
- 3) Generic use of personal pronouns

9.3 Pronoun reference

Pronoun reference is a kind of reference realized through the use of pronouns. When a pronoun is used, it must refer to somebody or something. What is referred to is called referent or antecedent. It is the antecedent that indicates the referential meaning of the pronoun.

- 1) Anaphoric, cataphoric and situational reference
- 2) Personal reference
- 3) Demonstrative reference

Week 10 Verb and Verb Phrase // Tense and aspect (I), (II)

II. Lecture 10

Verb and Verb Phrase

From this lecture on, we are going to talk about verbs and verb phrases. We will begin with a classification of verbs and a survey of tense, aspect, voice and mood of the verb so as to form some basic concepts.

10.1 Classification of verbs (I)

A knowledge to the classification of verbs from various angles will go a long way toward understanding verbs and verb phrases both grammatically and semantically.

1) Main verbs and auxiliaries

Main verbs are also called notional verbs functioning as the head and indicating the basic meaning of a verb phrase. The grammatical function of auxiliaries is to help main verbs, which will be dealt with more fully in a number of ways later on, to express various grammatical and modal meanings such as progressive or perfective aspect and obligation or removal of obligation.

a) Primary auxiliaries

b) Modal auxiliaries

c) Semi-auxiliaries

2) Transitive verbs, intransitive verbs and linking verbs

Main verbs can be divided into transitive verbs, intransitive verbs and linking verbs in accordance with whether or not they must be followed by obligatory elements functioning as complementation and what kind of elements that must follow.

a) Transitive verbs

b) Intransitive verbs

c) Linking verbs

3) Dynamic verbs and stative verbs

According to lexical meaning, main verbs can be dynamic and stative. Dynamic verbs are verbs that refer to actions. Stative verbs are verbs that refer to states, i.e. to a relatively stable state of affairs.

a) Dynamic verbs

b) Stative verbs

10.2 Classification of verbs (II)

According to word formation and grammatical forms, English verbs may be divided into single-word verbs and phrasal verbs, finite verbs and non-finite verbs, regular verbs and irregular verbs.

1) Single-word verbs and phrasal verbs

2) Finite verbs and non-finite verbs

3) Regular verbs and irregular verbs

10.3 A survey of tense, aspect, voice and mood

In this section we are going to have a quick survey of the four important grammatical categories of the English verb: tense, aspect, voice and mood.

1) Tense and aspect

- 2) Active voice and passive voice
- 3) Indicative mood, imperative mood and subjective mood
- 4) Finite verb phrase and non-finite verb phrases

Lecture 11

Tense and Aspect (I)

In this and the next five lectures we are going to deal with the features of tenses, aspect, voice and mood expressed by the verb phrase. We will start with uses of the simple present, the simple past, the present progressive and the past progressive.

11.1 Use of simple present

The simple present is the present tense form which is not accompanied by the category of aspect, that is, which is not marked for the progressive or the perfective aspect.

- 1) Timeless present
- 2) Habitual present
- 3) Momentary and instantaneous present
- 4) Simple present referring to the future
- 5) Simple present referring to the past

11.2 Uses of simple past

The simple past is the past tense form which is not marked for the progressive or the perfective aspect. This tense form can be used to denote the following meanings:

- 1) Past event and past habit
- 2) Attitudinal and hypothetical past

11.3 Uses of present progressive

The present progressive has the following uses:

- 1) To denote an action in progress at the moment of speaking
- 2) To denote an action in progress at a period of time including the present
- 3) To denote a future happening according to a definite plan or arrangement
- 4) To denote other meanings

11.4 Uses of past progressive

The use of the past progressive (was/were+ -ing participle) has much in common with that of the present progressive, only the time reference being pushed back to the past, often overtly expressed by a time-when adverbial. The following are the uses of the past progressive.

- 1) To denote an action in progress at a definite point or period of past time
- 2) To denote a past habitual action
- 3) To denote futurity in the past
- 4) To make polite requests and express hypothetical meanings
- 5) Contrast between past progressive and simple past

Lecture 12

Tense and Aspect (II)

The perfective aspect can combine with the two tenses, forming present perfective and past perfective, which can again combine with the progressive aspect, resulting in present perfective progressive and past perfective progressive.

12.1 Uses of present perfective

This section deals with the two chief uses of the present perfective and how the present perfective is distinguished in meaning from the simple past.

- 1) Present perfective
- 2) Present perfective progressive
- 3) Contrast between present perfective (progressive) and simple past

12.2 Uses of past perfective (progressive)

Let us now turn to the uses of the past perfective (progressive).

- 1) Past perfective
- 2) Past perfective progressive
- 3) Past perfective in sentences with when /before/ after/ until clauses
- 4) Imaginary use of past perfective

12.3 More on the use of perfective aspect

There are a few more points that merit our attention concerning the use of the perfective aspect.

- 1) Perfective aspect and since-clause
- 2) Perfective aspect vs have got / have got to
- 3) Perfective aspect in “It is the first time + that-clause”

Week 11 Means of expressing future time / Passive voice (I), (II)

Lecture 13 Meaning of expressing Future Time

In its long history, English has not developed a special verb form that might be rightly labelled FUTURE TENSE corresponding to the time /tense parallel for present and past. When we say that English has no future tense, we certainly do not mean that English has not the means of expressing future time. Instead there are a number of constructions that can be used to denote futurity in English.

13.1 Constructions denoting future time

In English, future time is expressed by means of modal auxiliaries, by semi-auxiliaries, or by the simple present and present progressive forms.

- 1) Will / shall + infinitive
- 2) Will /shall +progressive /perfective infinitive
- 3) Be going to + infinitive
- 4) Present progressive
- 5) Be to + infinitive
- 6) Simple present

13.2 Means of expressing past future

The future time discussed in the preceding section is viewed from the present. If the speaker refers to a future even from a viewpoint in the past, that is past future. Most of the future constructions just discussed can be used in the past tense to refer to past future events.

- 1) Would + infinitive
- 2) Was / were going to + infinitive
- 3) Was /were to + infinitive
- 4) Past progressive and simple past
- 5) Was /were about to + infinitive

Lecture 14 Passive Voice (I)

This lecture deals with the uses of the passive voice.

14.1 Active sentence and passive sentence

As has been pointed out, a sentence /clause whose predicator (predicate verb) is active is called an “active sentence”, and a sentence / clause whose predicator (predicate verb) is passive is called a “passive sentence”. The subject in the active sentence is the agent or doer of an action, and in the passive the recipient of the action.

- 1) Rules of change into the passive
- 2) Voice constraints

14.2 Passive voice of phrase verbs

When used transitively, phrasal verbs can be made passive.

- 1) Passive voice of basic phrasal verbs
- 2) Passive voice of “verb + noun + preposition”

14.3 Passive voice of non-finite verbs

English verbs have three non-finite forms: the infinitive, the –ing participle, and the –ed participle, of

which the first two may occur in the passive.

- 1) passive infinitive
- 2) Passive -ing participle
- 3) Contrast between passive infinitive and passive -ing participle

Lecture 15 Passive Voice (II)

This lecture is concerned with the uses of passive sentences and the expression of passive meanings.

15.1 Uses of passive sentences

In this section we are going to deal with cases where the passive is used and two related types of passive sentences.

- 1) Cases where the passive is used
- 2) Two related types of passive sentences

15.2 Passive constructions and passive meanings

This section is concerned with passive constructions and passive meanings.

- 1) Contrast between English and Chinese passives
- 2) Active constructions expressing passive meanings
- 3) Passive constructions or “linking verb + complement” constructions

Week 12 Subjunctive mood / Auxiliaries (I), (II)

Lecture 16 Subjunctive Mood

There are two forms of the subjunctive: be-subjunctive and were-subjunctive. The present lecture will dwell on the uses of these two subjunctive forms – remnants of Old English—expressing hypothetical and non-factual meanings.

16.1 Be-subjunctive

The be-subjunctive, like the imperative, is realized by the base form of the verb. Whatever the person of the subject, the predicator invariably takes the base form. Consequently, where the clause has a plural subject, there is normally no distinction between indicative and subjunctive forms, except for the verb be. The subjunctive form of be is be for all persons. The be-subjunctive is used:

- 1) In certain that-cause
- 2) In certain adverbial clauses
- 3) In certain formulaic expressions

16.2 Were-subjunctive

The were-subjunctive has only one form were, which applies to subjects of all persons, but which formally contrasts with the indicative form was only when it is used with first and third person singular subjects.

The were-subjunctive is hypothetical or unreal in meaning and is used:

- 1) In certain adverbial clauses
- 2) In certain nominal clauses

16.3 Some few notes on ways of expressing hypothetical meanings.

Modern English has a number of devices for expressing hypothetical meanings. In addition to the be-subjunctive and the were-subjunctive, we can use past tense forms of verbs and past tense modals for the same purpose.

- 1) Use of past tense forms of verbs
- 2) Use of past tense modals

Lecture 17 Auxiliaries

As has been pointed out before, English verbs, in terms of their functions in forming verbs and auxiliaries. Auxiliaries can again be divided into primary auxiliaries, modal auxiliaries, and semi-auxiliaries. The function of primary auxiliaries (be, do, have) is to combine with main verbs to form complex verb phrases, and this has been dealt with in the previous lectures. The present lecture will concentrate on the use of modal auxiliaries and the next on semi-auxiliaries.

17.1 Modals and modal meanings

This section examines, in terms of semantics, modality and the English modals incorporating some related semi-auxiliaries.

- 1) Ability and possibility
- 2) Permission, and prohibition
- 3) Obligation and necessity
- 4) Prediction and predicatability

5) Willingness, intention and determination

6) Other modal meanings

17.2 Epistemic and Non-epistemic use of modals

As has been pointed out, modals are mostly polysemous. In terms of the meanings they express, modals can be divided into two categories—epistemic and non-epistemic. The function of epistemic modals is to make judgements about the possibility or necessity that something is or is not the case. The non-epistemic category only describes the fact as it is.

1) Epistemic modals

2) Syntactic features of epistemic modals

3) Time reference of epistemic modals

Lecture 18 Auxiliaries

This lecture is concerned with semi-auxiliaries and contracted forms of auxiliaries.

18.1 Semi-auxiliaries

Semi-auxiliaries constitute a category of verbs between auxiliaries proper and main verbs.

1) Types of semi-auxiliaries

2) Semi-auxiliaries and “it ... that-clause”

18.2 Contracted forms of auxiliaries

All the primary and modal auxiliaries have contracted forms, which may be divided into two types: negative contractions and positive contractions.

1) Negative contractions

2) Positive contractions

3) Restrictions on the use of positive contractions

Week 13 Infinitive (I), (II), / -ing participle, / -ed participle *(Important Lectures)

Lecture 19 Infinitive (I)

As has been pointed out, English verbs have three non-finite forms: infinitive, -ing participle and -ed participle. In this and the next three lectures we are going to talk about the uses of the non-finites. As for non-finite clauses, they will be treated in Lecture 32. In the present lecture we will start off with the infinitive.

19.1 Forms of the infinitive

There are two types of infinitive: to-infinitive and bare infinitive. The bare infinitive is just the infinitive without to, which is identical in form with the base of the verb.

- 1) Grammatical forms
- 2) To-infinitive and bare infinitive
- 19.2 Some few notes on the use of the infinitive sign

This section is concerned with the use of the infinitive sign and with other questions involved.

- 1) Infinitive sign used alone
- 2) Ellipsis of the infinitive sign
- 3) Infinitive to or preposition to
 - a) Verb + preposition to
 - b) Verb + noun / pronoun + preposition to
 - c) Verb + -ed participle + preposition to
 - d) Verb + adverb participle + preposition to
 - e) Adjective + preposition to
 - f) Noun + preposition to

Lecture 20 Infinitive (II)

This lecture is concerned with combinations of infinitives with adjectives, nouns, and verbs.

20.1 Adjective + infinitive

Here “adjective + infinitive” refers to the combination that acts as complement in SVC patterns. These combinations are superficially similar but semantically different constructions, varying in meaning, that is, in “deep structure”, with the different categories of adjectives. Semantically, these combinations fall into three types, each of which contains several sub-types.

- 1) Type I
- 2) Type II
- 3) Type III

20.2 Noun (phrase) + infinitive

Here, the infinitive is used as postmodification in noun phrases. About “noun + infinitive”, there are three points worth mentioning.

- 1) Semantic relations
- 2) Infinitive—active or passive
- 3) “Noun + infinitive” vs “noun + preposition + -ing”

20.3 Verb + infinitive

Some verbs can be followed by an infinitive to form a verb-object relation, that is, the infinitive functions as the object of the verb. These collections fall into three types: 1) verb + infinitive

- 2) verb + objective + infinitive
- 3) verb + (object) + infinitive

Lecture 21 -ing Participle

In this book, the term “-ing participle” is used to include both the traditional “present participle” and the “gerund”. The present lecture is devoted to the collocation of -ing participle with verbs. If need be, mention will also be made of the contrast between -ing participle and corresponding use of the infinitive.

21.1 Collocation of -ing participle with verbs

This section is concerned with two collocations: “verb + -ing form” and “verb + object + preposition + -ing form”.

- 1) Verb + -ing form
- 2) Verb + object + preposition + -ing form

21.2 Verbs followed either by infinitive or by -ing participle

There are verbs that can be followed either by an -ing form or by an infinitive. With some of these verbs, the choice between the two makes no difference in meaning; with others, however, different choices result in different interpretations.

- 1) Either infinitive or -ing participle without change of meaning
- 2) Either infinitive or -ing form with different meanings

Lecture 22

This lecture is devoted to -ed participle (traditionally known as “past participle”) used as premodifier and as subject / object complement.

22.1 -ed participle as premodifier

As premodifier in a noun phrase, -ed participles are mostly derived from transitive verbs: only a few come from intransitive verbs.

- 1) -ed participle derived from transitive verbs
- 2) -ed participle derived from intransitive verbs

22.2 -ed participle as complement

- 1) Old English -ed participles
- 2) Verbs admitting of -ed participle as object complement

22.3 Some few notes on “dangling participles”

Let us first of all take a look at the “attachment rule” for identifying the subject.

- 1) “Attachment rule” and “dangling participles”
- 2) Problems about the acceptability of “dangling participles”

Week 14 Adjective and adjective phrase / adverb and adverb phrase / Comparison and comparative construction / preposition and prepositional phrase

Lecture 23 Adjective and Adjective Phrase

Adjectives are open-class words. They are chiefly used as modifying elements in a sentence. In this lecture we shall talk about classification and morphology of adjectives as well as formation and uses of adjective phrases.

23.1 Classification of adjectives

Adjectives may be divided into one-word and compound adjectives, central and peripheral adjectives, dynamic and stative adjectives, gradable and non-gradable adjectives.

- 1) One-word and compound adjectives
- 2) Central and peripheral adjectives
- 3) Dynamic and stative adjectives
- 4) Gradable and non-gradable adjectives

23.2 Adjectives and participles

As has been mentioned before, participles can sometimes be used as modifiers in the noun phrase. Some participles have all the features characteristic of the adjective. They admit of modification by very; they have forms of comparative and superlative degrees; and they may be used as complement in the sentence.

- 1) Adjectives derived from –ing participles
- 2) Adjectives derived from –ed participles
- 3) Active vs passive meanings

23.3 Adjective (phrase) as modifier in noun phrases

As has been mentioned before, most adjectives can function both as modifier and as complement. In any cases, these two functions are interchangeable.

- 1) Premodifying and postmodifying adjectives
- 2) Predicative adjectives
- 3) Adjective phrase vs relative clause

23.4 Adjective phrases as complement

As subject / object complement, an adjective phrase may consist of only an adjective; it may also take the form of “modifier + adjective” or “adjective + complementation”. In this section we are going to talk about the three kinds of adjective complement.

- 1) Adjective + prepositional phrase
- 2) Adjective + to-infinitive
- 3) Adjective + that-clause

Lecture 24 Adverb and Adverb Phrase

Like adjectives, adverbs are a class of words that chiefly function as modifying elements, but what is modified by an adverb is normally a verb, an adjective, a preposition, a conjunction or another adverb. As a clause element, adverb phrases may be used as adverbials of time, place, manner, etc; they may also be

used as disjuncts, expressing the speaker's attitude or assessment on an accompanying clause, or as conjuncts, playing the role of connectives.

24.1 Chief uses of adverbs and adverb phrases

Adverbs and adverb phrases are chiefly used as modifiers in phrases and as adverbials in clauses or sentences.

- 1) Adverbs as modifier in phrase
- 2) Adverb phrases as adverbial in clauses or sentences

24.2 Adverbs with or without -ly

There are adverbs that have two forms: one is identical with a corresponding adjective, the other is with -ly.

- 1) Two forms with no difference in basic meaning
- 2) Two forms different or slightly different in meaning
- 3) Two forms entirely different in meaning

Lecture 25 Comparison and Comparative Constructions

As has been shown, most adjectives and adverbs are gradable and can be used in comparative clauses. When appearing in comparative constructions, adjectives and adverbs take special grammatical forms which are called "forms of comparison".

25.1 Comparison of adjectives and adverbs

With gradable adjectives and adverbs, there are three degrees of comparison: positive / absolute degree, comparative degree and superlative degree.

- 1) Regular comparison of adjectives
- 2) Regular comparison of adverbs
- 3) Irregular comparison of adjectives and adverbs

25.2 Comparative constructions

There are three types of comparative constructions

- 1) "As ... as" construction
- 2) "More ... than" construction
- 3) "(The) + superlative adjective / adverb + scope of comparison"

25.3 Contrast between comparative constructions

Four pairs of related patterns may be noted.

- 1) "more ... than" vs quasi-coordinative type
- 2) "Not so ... as" vs "not so much ... as"
- 3) "Not more / -er ... than" vs "no more / -er ... than"
- 4) "The more ... the more" vs "more and more"

Lecture 26 Preposition and Prepositional Phrase

English today is basically an analytic language in which inflections have practically been replaced by structural words and a relatively fixed word order. Prepositions are just a class of structural words that indicate various semantic relations between words or expressions.

26.1 Collocation of prepositions with adjectives, verbs and nouns

- 1) Prepositions after adjectives

- 2) Prepositions after verbs
- 3) Collocation of prepositions with nouns

26.2 Complex prepositions

Complex prepositions, also known as “multi-word prepositions”, refer to combinations that consist of two or more than two words and which perform the function of simple prepositions. In terms of word formation, complex prepositions can be divided into:

- 1) Two-word prepositions
- 2) Three-word prepositions
- 3) Four-word prepositions

26.3 Transformational relations between prepositional phrases and subordinate clauses

Prepositional phrases, which are chiefly used as adverbials in clauses and as modifiers in noun phrases, have transformational relations with some subordinate clauses that perform the same syntactic functions.

- 1) Prepositional phrase vs that-clause
- 2) Prepositional phrase vs adverbial clause
- 3) Prepositional phrase vs relative clause

Week 15 Statement, question, command, exclamation / Existential sentence / It-pattern / Coordination

Lecture 27 Statement, question, command, exclamation

The sentence is the highest rank of grammatical construction. In terms of their communicative functions, sentences may be divided into four types: statement, question, command, and exclamation.

27.1 Statements

In communication, statements (also known as “declarative sentences”) are chiefly used to state a fact or non-fact, that is, to affirm or negate something. Thus, statements may be divided into positive statements and negative statements.

- 1) Positive statements
- 2) Negative statements

27.2 Questions

In terms of syntactic structure and communicative function, questions (also known as “interrogative sentences”) fall into four major types: general question, special question, alternative question and tag question.

- 1) General questions
- 2) Special questions
- 3) Alternative questions
- 4) Tag questions

27.3 Commands and exclamations

Let us move on to commands and exclamations.

- 1) Commands
- 2) Exclamations

Lecture 28 Existential sentence

The existential sentence is a special type of sentence structure that denotes the existence of something. The communicative function of an existential sentence is to elicit a new topic, which, as focus of information, is generally expressed by the “notional subject” coming after the verb phrase.

28.1 Structural properties of existential sentences

There + be + NP + locative /temporal adverbial

- 1) Introductory there
- 2) Notional subject
- 3) Predicator in existential sentence

28.2 Non-finite existential clauses

A non-finite existential clause is one whose predicator is a non-finite verb phrase. There are two types of non-finite existential clauses:

There to be / (to have been) + NP + locative /temporal adverbial

There being / having been + NP + locative / temporal adverbial

These forms can be used:

- 1) As prepositional complementation
- 2) As object
- 3) As subject and adverbial

Lecture 29 It-pattern / Coordination

The present lecture will deal with three types of sentence with non-referring it as formal subject. They are sentences with it as formal subject denoting time, distance, and atmospheric conditions, sentences with anticipatory it as subject, and cleft sentences introduced by it. The word it in these patterns is called respectively "empty it", "anticipatory it", and it as introductory word of cleft sentences.

29.1 Empty it and anticipatory it

It may be useful to give a summary of the chief uses of empty it and anticipatory it.

- 1) Empty it
- 2) Anticipatory it

29.2 It as introductory word of cleft sentences

It as formal subject also occurs in cleft sentences.

- 1) Cleft sentence defined
It + be + focal element + that- / who- clause
- 2) Introductory it in cleft sentences vs anticipatory it
- 3) Pseudo-cleft sentences

Lecture 30 Coordination

A coordination construction is a sequence of semantically-related grammatical units that are similar in form, equal in rank of structure, identical in function and are connected by coordinators.

30.1 Type of coordinate constructions

- 1) Formation of coordinate constructions
- 2) Coordinating devices
- 3) Insertion between coordinated items
- 4) Symmetrical organization of coordinate constructions

30.2 Coordinators semantically considered

- 1) And-group coordinators
- 2) Or- group coordinators
- 3) But- group coordinators

Week 16 Subordination (I), (II) / Relative clause/ conditional sentence / direct and indirect speech

Lecture 31 Subordination (I)

Subordination means putting a grammatical unit in a lower rank or position. A grammatical unit that functions as a constituent of another unit of equal or lower rank of structure is called a subordinate construction, which might be a finite clause, a non-finite clause, a verbless, or a phrase.

31.1 Coordination and subordination

- 1) Ways of subordinating minor ideas
- 2) Subordinators

31.2 Subordinate clauses (finite)

- 1) Nominal clauses
- 2) Relative clauses
- 3) Adverbial clauses

31.3 Some few notes on adverbial clauses

- 1) Adverbial clauses of time
- 2) Adverbial clauses of cause
- 3) So that vs so ... that
- 4) Unless and if ... not
- 5) Though and although

Lecture 32 Subordination (II)

In this lecture we shall talk about non-finite clauses and verbless clauses. A non-finite clause is a clause with a non-finite verb phrase as predicator. A verbless clause is a clause without any form of verb element. Non-finite clauses include infinitive clause, -ing participle clause, and -ed participle clause.

32.1 Infinitive clause

An infinitive clause is a “subject+ predicate” construction with an infinitive as predicator.

- 1) Types of infinitive clauses
- 2) Syntactic functions of infinitive clauses

32.2 -ing participle clause

An -ing participle clause is a “subject + predicate” construction with an -ing participle as predicator.

- 1) Types of -ing participle clauses
- 2) Syntactic functions of -ing participle clauses

32.3 -ed participle clauses

An -ed participle clause is a “subject + predicate: construction with an -ed participle as predicator.

- 1) Types of -ed participle clauses
- 2) Syntactic functions of -ed participle clauses

32.4 Verbless clauses

A verbless clause is a clause without any form of verb element as predicator. A verbless clause is just an SVC construction with its subject and predicator ellipted.

- 1) Types of verbless clauses

2) Syntactic functions of verbless clauses

32.5 “Absolute constructions”

Now it is time we had a summing-up of the types and meanings of “absolute constructions”.

- 1) Types of “absolute constructions
- 2) Uses of “absolute constructions

Lecture 33 Relative clause

A relative clause is a clause that is introduced by a relative word—either by a relative pronoun or by a relative determiner or by a relative adverb.

33.1 Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

- 1) Restrictive relative clauses
- 2) Non-restrictive relative clauses

33.2 Choice of relative words

- 1) Choice of relative pronouns in restrictive clauses
- 2) Some other problems of usage concerning choice of relative pronouns in restrictive clauses
- 3) Choice of relative pronouns in non-restrictive clauses
- 4) Ellipsis of relative words

33.3 Clauses introduced by “preposition + relative pronoun”

- 1) Finite clauses introduced by “preposition + relative pronoun”
- 2) Non-finite clauses introduced by “preposition + relative pronoun”

33.4 Double relative clauses and embedded relative clauses

Double and embedded relative clauses are more complicated phenomena than we have illustrated so far.

- 1) Double relative clauses
- 2) Embedded relative clauses

Lecture 34 Conditional sentence

A conditional sentence is commonly composed of two parts: conditional clause + main clause. Despite the many possible sequences of verb forms in conditionals, the following four types represent perhaps the commonest and the most useful ones:

- I. If you heat ice, it melts.
- II. If we catch the 10 o'clock train, we will get there by lunchtime.
- III. If we caught the 10 o'clock train, we would get there by lunchtime.
- IV. If we had caught the 10 o'clock train, we would have got there by lunchtime.

34.1 Conditionals—Type I

- 1) Universal truth or general validity
- 2) Present habitual action
- 3) Past habitual action

34.2 Conditionals—Type II

- 1) Type II—basic forms
- 2) Type II—variant forms
- 3) Type II—alternative forms

34.3 Conditionals—Type III

- 1) Type III—basic forms
- 2) Type III—variant forms

34.4 Conditionals—Type IV

- 1) Type IV—basic forms
- 2) Types IV—variant forms

Lecture 35 Direct and indirect speech

In quoting someone's words, we can either use the direct speech or use the indirect speech. Direct speech is usually put in quotation marks; indirect speech normally occurs after a reporting verb without being put in quotation marks. The present lecture is devoted to the transformation of direct speech into indirect speech, and this transformation usually entails some changes in tense forms, word order, pronouns, determiners, temporal or locative adverbials as well as other aspects of grammar.

35.1 Indirect statements

When a statement is turned from direct into indirect speech, there is no change of tense if the reporting verb is in the present. But the time reference is usually back-shifted if the reporting verb is in the past tense.

- 1) Present time back-shifted to the past
- 2) Past time back-shifted to past in the past
- 3) Future time back-shifted to future in the past
- 4) Other changes in indirect speech

35.2 Indirect questions

- 1) Introductory word of indirect questions
- 2) Communicative functions of indirect questions

35.3 Indirect commands and exclamations

- 1) Indirect commands
- 2) Indirect exclamations

35.4 Mixed types of indirect speech

- 1) Adding connectives or other expressions
- 2) Rephrasing the original utterance

Week 17 Modification / substitution / ellipsis

Lecture 36 Modification

Modification is an important grammatical device for description and sentence expansion. In this present lecture, we will elaborate on modification in noun phrases as well as on appositives and adverbials.

36.1 Modification in noun phrases

- 1) Premodification and postmodification
- 2) Restrictive and non-restrictive modifiers
- 3) Discontinuous modification

36.2 Appositives

An appositive to a noun phrase is also a sort of postmodification, which might be considered as a reduced relative clause.

- 1) Forms of appositives
- 2) Indicators of appositives
- 3) Modifiers of appositives
- 4) Restrictive vs non-restrictive appositives

36.3 Adverbials

An adverbial is also a sort of modifier, but it is a clause element, as distinguished from a modifier in the noun phrase. Adverbials fall into three categories: adjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts.

- 1) Adjuncts
- 2) Disjuncts
- 3) Conjuncts

Lecture 37 Substitution

Substitution is a grammatical device for avoiding repetition and achieving textual cohesion. There are three kinds of substitution: nominal substitution, verbal substitution, and clausal substitution, and therefore three kinds of substitutes: nominal substitutes, verbal substitutes, and clausal substitutes.

37.1 Nominal substitution

- 1) What is nominal substitution
- 2) Uses of one / ones as substitutes
- 3) Nominal substitute vs generic pronoun or cardinal numeral
- 4) Nominal substitute vs one / ones as lexical item

37.2 Verbal substitution

- 1) What is verbal substitution
- 2) Uses of verbal substitutes

37.3 Clausal substitution

- 1) What is clausal substitution
- 2) Uses of clausal substitutes

Lecture 38 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is also a grammatical device for avoiding repetition and achieving textual cohesion.

38.1 Ellipsis in coordinate constructions

Ellipsis is most frequently found in coordinate constructions—in compound sentences, coordinate noun phrases, and coordinate prepositional phrases.

- 1) Ellipsis in compound sentences
- 2) Ellipsis in noun phrases
- 3) Ellipsis in prepositional phrases

38.2 Ellipsis in complex sentences

In complex sentences, ellipsis commonly occurs in subordinate clauses, which in main clauses only the initial elements are likely to be ellipted.

- 1) Ellipsis in main clauses
- 2) Ellipsis in adverbial clauses
- 3) Ellipsis in nominal that-clauses
- 4) Ellipsis in nominal wh-clauses

Week 18 Postponement, fronting and inversion / From sentence to text

Lecture 39 Postponement, fronting and inversion

Modern English has a more or less fixed word order in sentence construction. According to its normal, or natural, order, the subject usually comes first and the predicate follows the subject. Apart from the adverbial which is mobile, the positions of the other four clause elements—subject, predicator, object, and complement—are almost fixed, that is, the subject precedes the predicator which is followed by the object or the complement, if any.

39.1 Postponement

Postponement means delaying the appearance of a grammatical unit till a later time. Before elaborating on this grammatical device, we will start with the principles of “end focus” and “end weight” which are closely related to postponement as a device for achieving emphasis.

- 1) End focus and end weight
- 2) Postponement of key words

39.2 Fronting and Inversion

Fronting means the placement of a normally non-initial element at the head of a sentence so as to give prominence and lead emphasis. There are two types of fronting: fronting without inversion and fronting with inversion.

- 1) Fronting without inversion
- 2) Fronting with inversion

Lecture 40 From sentence to text

In this lecture, we shall examine the role of sentences in the construction of a text or connected discourse.

40.1 Sentence and text

A text, spoken or written, is a structurally cohesive and semantically coherent unit realized by a string of sentences for communicative purposes.

- 1) Sentence meaning and communicative function
- 2) Correctness and appropriacy

40.2 Textual connectors

There are various devices for cementing sentences into a text. They are called textual connectors, which may be divided into three groups: logical connectors, grammatical connectors and lexical connectors.

- 1) Logical connectors
- 2) Grammatical connectors
- 3) Lexical connectors

40.3 Text building—sentence, sentence group, text

- 1) What is sentence group
- 2) From sentence group to text

40.4 Topic sentence (group) vs supporting sentence (group)

- 1) Single- and multi- sentence group texts
- 2) Topic sentence (group) and supporting sentence (group)

Week 19-20 Testing Weeks

（四）教学环节及评价手段

英语语法课程主要授课形式采取教师讲授，并结合学生讨论包括双人讨论、小组讨论，而且还利用一部分时间分配学生完成课外学习和研究项目（Project）。首先，针对各讲内容的不同特点，采用丰富多样的教学方法，将知识传授与能力培养结合起来。让学生在较为愉快的教学气氛中完成较为枯燥的语法学习任务。其具体教学手段包括使用多媒体教学课件、让学生利用所学的语言知识和现有的语言能力参与社会调查研究、完成各自的学习项目。通过学生的学习报告形式，将更多的学习机会和练习机会给与学生。从而培养学生自主学习、合作学习和研究性学习的能力，为将来的学习打下坚实的基础。

英语语法课程的评价手段：笔试占 80%，作业和出勤情况占 10%，项目完成情况占 10%。

（五）复习与思考题

英语语法课程是一门语言时间性很强的课程，在学习语法规则的同时，必须通过大量的语法练习，一般每讲都设有几十道练习题目。这些练习题目与所讲内容密切配合，成为学生掌握语法知识的重要组成部分，是形成语法能力的重要训练手段和具体措施。这些练习题目一般由学生自行完成，教师提供参考答案。通过练习，学生能够及时发现问题，并能够通过课堂交流随时解决。每讲之后的练习形式多种多样，不同的练习形式取决于不同的语法内容。各种不同的练习力求带有启发性，避免机械性。一般的练习往往是在语篇中练习掌握语法知识和语法规则以及培养使用语法的能力，以增强英语语法教学的实践性。

（六）拓展阅读书目

章振邦，2004，《新编英语语法教程》（第四版）（学生用书），上海：上海外语教育出版社。（学生用教材）

章振邦，2004，《新编英语语法教程》（第四版）（教师用书），上海：上海外语教育出版社。

章振邦等，1985，《新编英语语法概要》，上海：上海译文出版社。

张道真，1984，《实用英语语法》，北京：商务印书馆。

许汝民、孔凡富，1994，《新编英语语法精义》，西安：陕西人民出版社。

崔正勤、刘敏，1998，《现代英语句法结构》，济南：山东教育出版社。

亚历山大，1999，《朗文高级英语语法》，北京：外语教学与研究出版社。

附：教师简介

孙平华（1964—），山东单县人，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。主要研究应用语言学、英语教师职业发展论、课程与教学论。开设过的课程有：英语写作、英汉翻译、英语语法、研究生基础英语、研究生听说英语、大学英语综合课、大学英语听说课、大学英语网络实验课等课程。先后在《中小学外语教学》、《中小学英语教学与研究》、《广东外语外贸大学学报》、《课程·教材·教法》、《中国外语教育》等发表中英文论文 30 余篇，并被中国教育学会外语教学专业委员会聘请为《中小学英语教育》（会刊）编辑部主任兼常务副主编。

《口译》教学大纲

王增森 编写

目 录

前 言.....	477
一、概述.....	477
二、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
Chapter One General Introduction.....	479
Chapter Two Note-taking.....	480
Chapter Three Dissolution and Reorganization of Sentence Structures.....	482
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.

§ Eu 夫

+Rss

└─ 6% / ⊕

≈ US

≈> 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.

§ || / Af. M. S.
) M. S. = 通+ →/
 || > →/ ↑
 SHR 干 1, Ys ./
 ∴ N. Af. < S. Eu

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，尽管地中海历史上是通道，但更是障碍。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。

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 “它” 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。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。[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 "它", 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.....	491
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	495
Chapter III. Period III. The End Of The Middle Ages. About 1350 To About 1500	496
Chapter IV. The Medieval Drama	497
Chapter V. Period IV. The Sixteenth Century. The Renaissance And The Reign Of Elizabeth.....	498
Chapter VI. The Drama From About 1550 To 1642.....	500
Chapter VII. Period V. The Seventeenth Century, 1603-1660. Prose And Poetry	502
Chapter VIII. Period VI. The Restoration, 1660-1700	503
Chapter X. Period VIII. The Romantic Triumph, 1798 To About 1830	506
Chapter XI. Period IX. The Victorian Period. About 1830 To 1901	508

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。

使学生了解和认识英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 4 课时
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

《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. 1066

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 necessities 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 Years' 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 Raleigh 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 Shakspeare'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 Shakspeare's early contemporaries, and the one from whom Shakspeare learned the most.

SHAKESPEARE, 1564-1616. William Shakspeare, 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 Shakspeare, 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 Shakspeare 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 Shakspeare 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 Shakspeare. 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. Shakspeare's early contemporaries, about 1580 to about 1593: Lyly, Peele, Greene, Kyd, Marlowe. II. Shakspeare. III. Shakspeare'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 Shakspeare), 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 lyricist 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 Shakespeare 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 excitable 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-blackening 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 blackening 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. Obligated 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 the futurist 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

四、本课程参考文献

Abrams, M. H. (General Editor). *The Norton Anthology of English Literature* (the 6th edition) (in 2 volumes), W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1993.

Booz, B. Elizabeth. *A Brief Introduction to Modern English Literature*, Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, 1984.

Chen Jia eds. *A History of English Literature* (in 4 volumes), The Commercial Press, 1986.

Chen Jia eds. *Selected Readings in English Literature* (in 3 volumes), The Commercial Press, 1984.

- Colin Swatridge. *British Fiction: A Student's A to Z*, Macmillan Publishers Ltd, 1985.
- Evans, Ifor. *A Short History of English Literature*, Penguin Books, 1978.
- Fan Cunzhong. *History of English Literature, A Brief Outline*, Sichuan People's Press, 1993.
- Ian Milligan. *The Novel in English: An Introduction*, The Macmillan Press Ltd, 1983.
- Liu Binshan eds. *A Short History of English Literature (New Revised Edition)*, Henan People's Press, 1993.
- Luo Jingguo eds. *A New Anthology of English Literature (in 2 volumes)*, Beijing University Press, 1996.
- R.J. Rees. *English Literature: An Introduction for Foreign Readers*. The Macmillan Press Limited, 1984.
- Yang Qishen & Sun Zhu ed. *Selected Readings in English Literature (in 3 volumes)*, Shanghai Translation Press, 1981-1983.
- 常耀信著《英国文学简史》（英文版），南开大学出版社，2006年1月版。
- 戴桂玉编著《新编英美文学欣赏教程》，中国社会科学出版社，2001年3月第1版。
- 顾曰国主编《文学阅读与欣赏》外语教学与研究出版社，1998年4月第1版，2003年3月第8次印刷。
- 侯维瑞主编，《英国文学通史》，上海外语教育出版社，1999年9月第1版。
- 胡宗锋主编《英美文学精要问答》，西北大学出版社，1999年4月第1版。
- 李公昭主编《新编英国文学教程》（上、下）世界图书出版公司，1998年1月第1版。
- 李永强主编《英美文学选读同步辅导与模拟冲刺》，化学工业出版社，2002年6月第1版。
- 李正栓等编著，郭群英等审订《英国文学学习指南》清华大学出版社，1998年12月第1版。
- 申富英编著《英国文学学习指南》，山东大学出版社，1999年6月第11版。
- 王虹编《英国文学阅读与欣赏》，华南理工大学出版社，2000年8月第1版。
- 王佩兰等主编《英国文学史及作品选选》，东北师范大学出版社，2000年6月第6次印刷。
- 万莉等主编《英美文学选读》（新修版），光明日报出版社，2003年5月第2版，2003年9月第1次印刷。
- 王守仁主编《英国文学选读》，高等教育出版社，2001年9月第1版。
- 张伯香主编《英国文学教程》（修订版，上、下），武汉大学出版社2005年8月修订版第2次印刷。
- 《高等学校英语专业英语教学大纲》，高等学校外语专业教学指导委员会英语组（上海外语教育出版社、外语教学与研究出版社，2003年9月）。

《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年来，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。通过对美国各历史年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

1. The Background
 2. The American Enlightenment
 3. Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790)
 4. The Political Pamphlet: Thomas Paine (1737-1809)
 5. Neoclassicism: 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 and 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)
 5. 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 Realism
6. Novels of Social Awareness
7. The Harlem Renaissance
8. Literary Currents: 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. African-American Poetry

Unit Eight : American Prose Since 1945: Realism and Experimentation 10 学时

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 lullabies (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

In 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

Walt 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)

Samuel 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

Wharton'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.

7 Jack 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

Many 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

Although 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 of 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

Since 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

American 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

Traditional 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.IDIOSYNCRATIC POETS

Poets 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

Women'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 Glück, 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

Narrative 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

As 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

By 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 southern literary renaissance that also included such figures as Truman Capote (1924-1984) and Flannery O'Connor (1925-1964). Although Capote wrote short stories and novels, fiction and nonfiction, his masterpiece was In Cold Blood, 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," Tom Wolfe (1931-) was one of the founders of "New Journalism," who honed his art in such essays as The Kandy-Kolored Tangerine-Flake Streamline Baby and Radical Chic before he moved on to book-length efforts, such as his history of the American manned space program The Right Stuff and probably his best-known novel Bonfire of the Vanities. Other writers steeped in the Southern tradition include John Kennedy Toole (1937-1969) and Tom Robbins (1936-).

Unit Ten: African American Literature

African American literature is literature written by, about, and sometimes specifically for African-Americans. The genre began during the 18th and 19th centuries with writers such as poet Phillis Wheatley and orator Frederick Douglass. Among the themes and issues explored in African American literature are the role of African Americans within the larger American society, African American culture, racism, slavery, and equality.

Before the American Civil War, African American literature primarily focused on the issue of slavery, as indicated by the popular subgenre of slave narratives. At the turn of the 20th century, books by authors such as W.E.B. Du Bois and Booker T. Washington debated whether to confront or appease racist attitudes in the United States.

Unit Eleven: Jewish American Literature

The United States has had a community and tradition of writing by Jewish 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 Saul Bellow, Philip Roth, Bernard Malamud, Grace Paley, Isaac Bashevis Singer, Chaim Potok, Isaac Asimov, and Woody Allen, among others. The New Yorker 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
二、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
Literature 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 removal 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 (围困) 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.

LOCAL 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 more than 6,000 islands, the two biggest being Great Britain and Ireland. 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

Ulster: Arranmore, Tory Island

Northern Ireland: Rathlin Island

Connacht: Achill Island, Clew Bay islands, Inishturk, Inishbofin, Inishark, Aran Islands

Munster: Blasket Islands, Valentia Island, Cape Clear, Sherkin Island, Great Island

Leinster: Lambay Island, Ireland's Eye

See also: List of islands of Ireland

Isle of Man

See also: List of islands of Isle of Man

The Channel Islands 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 Scottish Highlands in the northern part of Great Britain are mountainous, with Ben Nevis being the highest point in the British Isles at 1,344 metres (4,409 ft). 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 Lough Neagh in Northern Ireland is an exception, covering 147 square miles (381 km²); the largest freshwater body in Great Britain is Loch Lomond at 27.5 square miles (71.1 km²). Neither are rivers particularly long, the rivers Severn at 219 miles (354 km) and Shannon at 240 miles (386 km) being the longest.

The British Isles have a temperate marine climate, the North Atlantic Drift ("Gulf Stream") which flows from the Gulf of Mexico brings with it significant moisture and raises temperatures 11 degrees Celsius above the global average for the islands' latitudes.^[5] Winters are thus warm and wet, with summers mild and also wet. Most Atlantic depressions pass to the north of the islands, combined with the general westerly circulation 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 tectonic mountain building. These orogenic belts form a complex geology which records a huge and varied span of earth history.^[7] Of particular note was the Caledonian Orogeny during the Ordovician Period, ca. 488-444 Ma and early Silurian period, when the craton Baltica collided with the terrane Avalonia 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 Variscan orogeny in the Devonian and Carboniferous periods, forming the hills of Munster, 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 equator 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 ice ages of the distant past. The first historical mention of the region is from the Massaliote Periplus, a sailing manual for merchants thought to date to the 6th century BC, although cultural and trade links with the continent had existed for millennia prior to this. Pytheas of Massilia wrote of his trading journey to the island around 325 BC. Later writers such as Pliny the Elder (quoting Timaeus) and Diodorus Siculus (probably drawing on Poseidonius) 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, Homo erectus brought Palaeolithic 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 Homo heidelbergensis found at Boxgrove. It appears that the glaciation of ice ages successively cleared all human life from the area, though human occupation occurred during warmer interglacial periods. Modern humans appear with the Aurignacian culture about 30,000 years ago, famously with the "Red Lady of Paviland" in modern Wales. The last ice age ended around 10,000 years ago, and Mesolithic hunter-gatherers 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 Basque Country, with a smaller immigration from refuges in the modern Ukraine and Moldavia. 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 410 in order to concentrate on difficulties closer to home, present day England was progressively settled by successive and often complementary waves of Germanic tribesmen.

The prevailing view is that waves of Germanic people, Jutes together with large numbers of Frisians, Saxons from northern Germany and Angles from what is now southern Denmark - commonly known as Anglo-Saxons - who had been partly displaced on mainland Europe, invaded Britain in the mid 5th century and again around the middle of the 6th century. 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 Celtic languages in the British Isles into the Brythonic 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 Caledonians or Picts 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 Vikings arrived in Britain and Ireland in the 790's with raids on Lindisfarne, Iona, and the west of Ireland. They provided another wave of immigration, settling in Orkney and Shetland and then Western Isles, Caithness, Sutherland, Isle of Man, Galloway, in various places around Ireland, Northumbria, East Anglia and Mercia. Wessex prevented the further expansion of the Vikings, and achieved a united kingdom of England in 927, which was then ruled by both English and Viking kings until 1066. Further north, in 900 A.D. Donald II was the first king of Alba 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 Tweed in 1018. 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. Ireland was divided among around eighty to a hundred petty kingdoms grouped under larger regional kingdoms and then a weak High King. The Vikings founded Dublin 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 Brian Boru in 1014 who effectively united Ireland, but only until his death.

England during the Middle Ages

The defeat of King Harold Godwinson at the Battle of Hastings in 1066 at the hands of William of Normandy, later styled William I of England and the subsequent Norman takeover of Saxon England 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 Anglo-Norman, 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 sheepwalks 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 James I of England, 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 Main Plot and Bye Plots of 1603, and most famously, on November 5, 1605, the Gunpowder Plot, by a group of Catholic conspirators, led by Guy Fawkes, 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 Tudors, who centralised government in England, Ireland, and Wales. In 1603 James VI of Scotland brought England and Scotland into personal union and promoted the existence of a modern British identity.

These changes happened at the same time as the Protestant reformation 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 recusancy 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 Presbyterian Calvinists (who were the majority in much of Scotland) and Independents to episcopal Calvinists (in the Church of Ireland and parts of Scotland) to Protestant Episcopalians that retained formal liturgy (especially the Church of England) to Roman Catholicism (which retained a large majority in Ireland).

Kingdom of Great Britain and social revolutions

The 1707 Act of Union united England and Scotland in the Kingdom of Great Britain. The next century saw the start of great social changes. Enclosure had been taking place over a long period in England, but the agricultural revolution 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 industrial revolution saw the displacement of cottage industries by large-scale factories and the rapid growth of industrial towns and cities. The British Empire grew substantially, stoking the growth

in industrial production, bringing in wealth, giving rise to large-scale emigration, and making London 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 Act of Union of 1800 formally assimilated Ireland within the British political process, and created a new state "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland" with effect from 1 January 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 United Kingdom. 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 Irish War of Independence and subsequent Irish Civil War led to the 1922 formation of the Irish Free State, which was a dominion until becoming a republic in 1949. Six Irish counties remained part of the United Kingdom as Northern Ireland, initially with devolved government. Since then there have been extensive periods of unrest. Both the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland joined the European Economic Community (now the European Union) in 1973. Currently there are devolved governments in Wales and Scotland, though in Northern Ireland the devolved assembly 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 Gross

Domestic Product per capita now exceeds that of the United Kingdom. The end of the British Empire in the latter half of the 20th century saw the end of large-scale emigration; instead, there was immigration to Britain, especially from the West Indies and the Indian sub-continent, and recently to both Britain and Ireland from eastern Europe.

Sport and Culture

Despite the split between the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom, a limited number of sport or cultural events operate across the isles as a whole, especially where an all-Ireland team competes internationally. The British and Irish Lions is a rugby union team made up of players from the entire archipelago; they compete in tours of Southern Hemisphere rugby playing nations. Prior to 1979, the Ryder Cup was played between the United States and the British Isles, before it was expanded to include the whole of Europe. Bowls continues to have a British Isles championship.

There can also be strong links in cultural activities. For example, the Mercury Music Prize 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, U2 won the best international group award at the 2001 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 mountaineering 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 House of Commons, 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 sessions. Each usually lasts for one year - normally beginning and ending in October or November. There are 'adjournments' 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 Archbishops 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 may, 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 takes 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 ministers 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 protect 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 indigenous peoples (both First Nations and Inuit) have inhabited the region that is now Canada for thousands of years and have their own diverse histories. Aside from spiritual explanations of indigenous origins, anthropologists continue to argue over various possible models of migration to modern day Canada, as well as their pre-contact populations. The Inuit 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 Viking contact is supported by the remains of a viking settlement in L'Anse aux Meadows, Newfoundland. This may well have been the place Icelandic Norseman Leifur Eiriksson, referred to as Vinland around the year 1000.

New France (*Nouvelle-France*) 1604-1763

After Champlain's founding of Quebec City in 1608 it became the capital of New France. While the coastal communities were based upon the cod fishery, the economy of the interior revolved around beaver fur 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 guns, gun powder, textiles 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 Seven Years' War and the signing of the Treaty of Paris on February 10, 1763, 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 habitants. 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.^[2] John A. Macdonald had spoken of "founding a great British monarchy" and wanted the newly country to be called the "Kingdom of Canada."^[3] 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 First World War helped create a sense of independence from Britain. The high point of Canadian military achievement came at the Battle of Vimy Ridge on April 9, 1917, 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 William Barker and Billy Bishop, 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 Second World War, 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 Dominion of Newfoundland 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 the Cold War was deeply connected to that of its neighbour to the south, demonstrated by the establishment an air defence system with the United States, NORAD.

History of Canada (1960-1981)

In the 1960s, a Quiet Revolution took place in Quebec, increasing the tensions between Québécois nationalists and English Canada, until violence erupted during the 1970 October Crisis. During his long tenure in the office (1968–79, 1980–84), Prime Minister Trudeau attempted to reunify Canadian citizens.

History of Canada (1982-1992)

As the highlight of his 1980s years as prime minister, Trudeau brought about the Patriation of the Canadian Constitution in 1982, which gave Canada a Charter of Rights 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 Meech Lake Accord failed to smooth over. During the same decade, Canada engaged in violent conflict both abroad in the Gulf War and at home, during the Oka Crisis. Also this period saw the Mount Cashel Boys Home Scandal.

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 (Jean Chrétien), a second Quebec referendum on sovereignty, and the creation of a new territory, Nunavut. In 1993, the Canadian government set a target of 1% per capita population growth from immigration, the highest per capita immigration rate in the world. 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;^[25] this 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 wealthiest nations with a high per capita income, a member of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and Group of Eight (G8). Canada is a free market economy with slightly more government intervention than the United States, but much less than most European nations.^[36] 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 2001 national census recorded 30,007,094 people; the population is currently estimated by Statistics Canada to be 32.623 million people.^[46] Population growth is largely accomplished through immigration 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.^[47] A similar proportion live in urban areas concentrated in the Quebec City-Windsor Corridor (notably the Toronto-Hamilton, Montreal, and Ottawa census metropolitan areas), the BC Lower Mainland (Vancouver and environs), and the Calgary-Edmonton Corridor in Alberta.

Language

Canada's two official languages, English and French, are the mother tongues of 59.7% and 23.2% of the population, respectively.^[55] On July 7, 1969, under the Official Languages Act, French was made commensurate to English throughout the federal government. This started a process that led to Canada redefining itself as an officially "bilingual" 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 square kilometres (2,967,909 sq. mi) landmass is on the Indo-Australian Plate. Surrounded by the Indian, Southern and Pacific oceans, Australia is separated from Asia by the Arafura and Timor seas. Australia has a total 25,760 kilometres (16,007 mi) of coastline and claims an extensive Exclusive Economic Zone of 8,148,250 square kilometres (3,146,057 sq. mi). This exclusive economic zone does not include the Australian Antarctic Territory.

Economy

Australia has a prosperous, Western-style mixed economy, with a per capita GDP slightly higher than the UK, Germany and France in terms of purchasing power parity. The country was ranked third in

the United Nations' 2005 Human Development Index and sixth in The Economist 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 current account deficit 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 Great Britain and Ireland. Australia's population has quadrupled since the end of World War I,^[21] spurred by an ambitious immigration program. In 2001, the five largest groups of the 23.1% of Australians who were born overseas were from the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Italy, Vietnam and China.^[19] Following the abolition of the White Australia policy in 1973, numerous government initiatives have been established to encourage and promote racial harmony based on a policy of multiculturalism.

Culture

The primary basis of Australian culture until the mid-20th century was Anglo-Celtic, although distinctive Australian features had been evolving from the environment and indigenous 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 plains. The highest peak is Carrauntuohill (Irish: Carrán Tuathail), which is 1,041 m (3,414 feet).^[2] The island is bisected by the River Shannon, at 386 km (240 miles) the longest river in Ireland.^[5] The island's lush vegetation, a product of its mild climate and frequent but soft rainfall, earns it the sobriquet "Emerald Isle". The island's area is 84,412 km²^[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 Kilkenny Castle, County Kilkenny on 26 June 1887. The coldest air temperature was -19.1°C (-2.38°F) at Markree Castle, County Sligo on 16 January 1881.^[7] 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 Galway 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 Irish Civil War which lasted until 1923. In 1922, in the middle of this civil war, the **Irish Free State** came into being. For its first years the new state was governed by the victors of the Civil War. However, in the 1930s Fianna Fáil, the party of the opponents of the treaty, were elected into government. The party introduced a new constitution in 1937 which renamed the state "**Éire**" 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 Protestant and Catholic communities in Northern Ireland each voted almost entirely along sectarian lines, meaning that the government of Northern Ireland (elected by "first past the post" from 1929) was always controlled by the Ulster Unionist Party. Consequently, Catholics could not participate in the government, which at times openly encouraged discrimination 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 vernacular poetry in Europe with the earliest examples dating from the 6th century; Jonathan Swift, still often called the foremost satirist in the English language, was wildly popular in his day (*Gulliver's Travels*, *A Modest Proposal*, etc.) and remains so in modern times amongst both children and adults. In more recent times, Ireland has produced four winners of the Nobel Prize for Literature: George Bernard Shaw, William Butler Yeats, Samuel Beckett and Seamus Heaney.

Music and dance

The Irish tradition of folk music and dance 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 folk music movement, there was a revival of interest in the Irish tradition. This revival was led by such groups as The Dubliners, The Chieftains, the Clancy Brothers, Sweeney's Men, and individuals like Seán Ó Riada and Danny O'Flaherty. Irish and Scottish traditional music are similar.

Demographics

Ireland has been inhabited for at least 9,000 years, although little is known about the paleolithic or neolithic 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 Dublin Airport, Cork International Airport and Shannon Airport. 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 Aer Lingus and low-cost operator Ryanair 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 rail network in Ireland was developed by various private companies, some of which received British Government funding in the late 19th century. The network reached its greatest extent by 1920. The broad gauge of 5 foot 3 inches (1,600 mm) was eventually settled upon throughout the island, although there were narrow gauge (3 ft / 91.4 cm) railways also. Ireland also has one of the largest freight railways

in Europe, operated by Bord na Móna. This company has a narrow gauge railway of 1,200 miles (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. Polynesian settlers arrived in their waka some time between the 13th century and the 15th century to establish the indigenous Māori culture. New Zealand's Māori name, *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 New South Wales, and it became a separate colony in November 1840. The first capital was Okiato or old Russell in the Bay of Islands but it soon moved to Auckland.

Government

New Zealand is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary democracy. Under the New Zealand Royal Titles Act (1953), Queen Elizabeth II is Queen of New Zealand and is represented as head of state by the Governor-General, Anand Satyanand.

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 provinces. These were abolished in 1876 so that government could be centralised, for financial reasons. As a result, New Zealand has no separately represented subnational entities 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 Māori) and a number of smaller islands. The total land area, 268,680 square kilometres (103,738 sq miles), is a little less than that of Italy and Japan, and a little more than the United Kingdom. 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 rugby union, with other popular sports including, cricket, netball, lawn bowling, soccer (perhaps surprisingly, the most popular football code in terms of participation in New Zealand) and rugby league. Also popular are golf, tennis, cycling, softball (current Men's International Softball Federation World Champions, 1996, 2000, 2004) and a variety of water sports, particularly surfing, sailing, whitewater kayaking, surf lifesaving skills and rowing.

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》

编著：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 Bloomfield 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 entirely 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 Recreational 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:

David, Crystal.1992. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*[M]. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Robins, R. H.1989. *General Linguistics*[M]. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Saussure, F.1966. *Course in General Linguistics*[M]. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sampson, G. 1980.*Schools of Linguistics* [M]. Standford: Standford University Press.

Widdowson, H.G. 1996. *Linguistics*[M]. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

刘润清, 1995, 西方语言学流派[M].北京: 外语教学与研究出版社。

张连文, 2005a, 原则与参数系统的科学论述—《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, the 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 of 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.

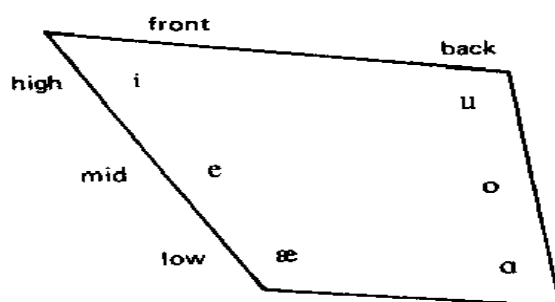
The manner of articulation is very important during the production of the sound. It is based on the size of the air passage. When the articulators are brought close together and the airflow in the oral cavity is completely blocked, the resultant manner of articulation is termed a stop. Stops are divided 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, 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 /i/ 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:

/p/ → [p⁻]/[p^h]_____

[ph] elsewhere

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.

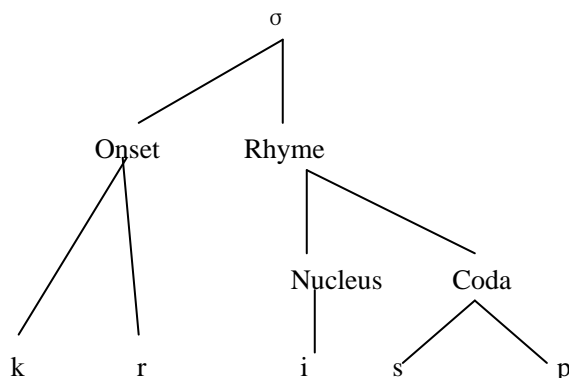
2.4.2 Syllable Theory

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)V (((C)C)C)C). The Chinese syllable allows at most one consonant in the onset position and only nasals [n, ʮ] 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 state the rule.

Further Reading:

Ball, M and J. Rahilly.1999. *Phonetics: The Science of Speech*. London: Edward Arnold.

Davenport, M and S.J. Hannahs. 1998. *Introducing Phonetics and Phonology*. London: Edward Arnold.

Ladefoged, Peter. 2000. *Vowels and Consonant*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Spencer, Andrew.1996. *Phonology*. Oxford: Blackwell.

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: *ungrateful*, *insufficient*, *childish*, *goodness*, *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 noun, 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 from *donation*, *beg* from *beggar*, *peddle* from *peddler*, *burgle* from *burgler*. 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. Determine the original term 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.

Further Readings:

- Bauer, L. 1983. *English Word Formation*[M]. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bauer, L. 1988. *Introducing Linguistic Morphology*[M]. Edinburgh University Press.
- Denning, K. & L. Williams. 1995. *English Vocabulary Elements*[M]. Oxford University Press.
- Katamba, F. 1993. *Morphology*[M]. Hampshire: Macmillan, 1993
- Nattinger, J.R. 1992. *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching*[M]. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

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 of the formation of sentences. Since language is 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 have 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 it 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.

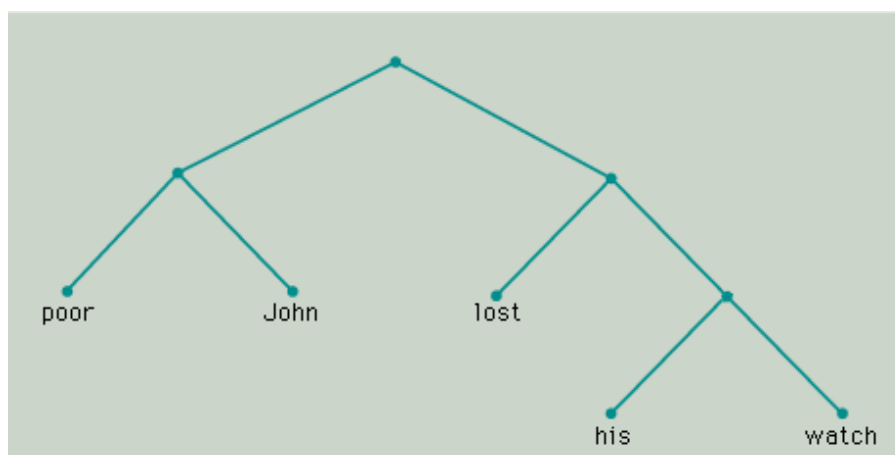
4.2.2 Immediate Constituent Analysis

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.

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 tired.* 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	
(ii)	NP + VP	by rule (1)
(iii)	NP + Verb + NP	by rule (2)
(iv)	Det + N + Verb + NP	by rule (3)
(v)	Det + N + Verb + Det + N	by rule (3)
(vi)	Det + N + Aux + V + Det + N	by rule (4)
(vii)	<i>the</i> + N + Aux + V + Det + N	by rule (5)
(viii)	<i>the</i> + N + Aux + V + <i>the</i> + N	by rule (5)
(ix)	<i>the</i> + <i>man</i> + Aux + V + <i>the</i> + N	by rule (6)
(x)	<i>the</i> + <i>man</i> + Aux + V + <i>the</i> + <i>ball</i>	by rule (6)
(xi)	<i>the</i> + <i>man</i> + <i>will</i> + V + <i>the</i> + <i>ball</i>	by rule (7)
(xii)	<i>the</i> + <i>man</i> + <i>will</i> + <i>hit</i> + <i>the</i> + <i>ball</i>	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* (Chomsky 1965). 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*.

Further Readings:

- Chomsky, N.1965. Aspects of The Theory of Syntax. Cambridge, Mass: MIT.
- Chomsky, N.1966. Topics in the Theory of Generative Grammar. Hague: Mouton.
- Chomsky, N. 1981. Lectures on Government and Binding Theory. Dordrecht: Foris.
- Chomsky, N.1982 Some Concepts and Consequences of the Theory of Government. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press
- Chomsky, N.1995. Minimalist Program. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press
- Chomsky, Noam.1998. Minimalist Inquiries: The Framework. In Roger Martin, David Michaels, and Juan Uriageka(eds.) Step by Step: Essays on Minimalist Syntax in Honor of Howard Lasnik. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press
- Firbas, Jan.1992. Functional sentence perspective in written and spoken communication. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Thompson, Geoff. 1996, Introducing Functional Grammar. 1st ed. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K.1994. An Introduction to Functional Grammar. 2nd ed. London: Edward Arnold.
- Luo, Xuanmin.1991. A Textual Approach to the Analysis of Literary Translation. Proceedings of the XIIIth Congress of the International Comparative Literature Association, The Force of Vision, Vol. 6, Tokyo University Press.
- 胡壮麟, 1994, 《语篇的衔接与连贯》。上海: 上海外语教育出版社。

郎天万, 1996, 主位结构与话语分析,《外国语》第 6 期。

肖俊洪,1992,评韩礼德(1994)和弗巴斯(1992)的主述位观,《解放军外国语学院学报》。第 1 期。

朱永生, 1990, 主位与信息分布,《外语教学与研究》第 4 期。

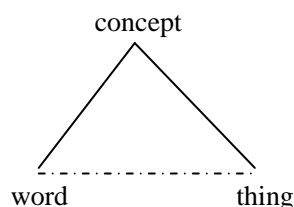
Chapter 5 Meaning

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 of meanings have favored”. There are 16 major 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]; Girl 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 and 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) $L(b,c) \ \& \ \sim L(a,c)$ (b) $M(a, b)$ (c) $\exists x (L(x, b))$

Further Readings:

Anders, P.L. and C.S. Bos 1986. Semantic feature analysis: An interactive strategy for vocabulary development and text comprehension. *Journal of Reading*, 29(7), 610-616.

Katz, J.J. & Postal, P.M. 1964. *An Integrated Theory of Linguistic Descriptions*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.

Saeed, J.J. 1997. *Semantics*[M]. Oxford: Blackwell.

Szabó, Z.G. 2000. Compositionality as Supervenience[J]. *Linguistics and Philosophy* 23: 475–505.

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.

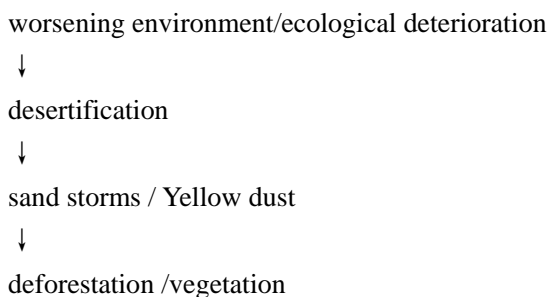
6.3. Discourse/text Interpretation

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’ (Anderson 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.:



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 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 Hayes 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 out 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) .

Further Readings:

Aitchison, J. 1987. *Words in the Mind. An Introduction to the Mental Lexicon*[M]. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Aitchison, J. 1990. Language and Mind. *Psycholinguistics*[M]. In N.E. Collige (ed.) *An Encyclopaedia of Language*. Routledge.333-370.

Garman, Mi. 1990. *Psycholinguistics*[M]. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kess, J.F. 1992. *Psycholinguistics: Psychology, Linguistics and the Study of Natural Language*[M]. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 29-222.

桂诗春, 2000, 《新编心理语言学》。上海: 上海外语教育出版社。

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 than 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. Words in 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, Halliday's 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

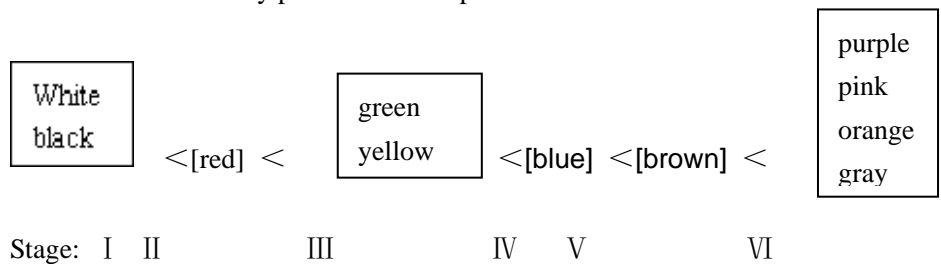
phenomena of the universe'. Another characteristic of the Hopi tongue is that there is just a single word – 'masaytaka' - for everything that flies, including insects, aeroplanes and pilots.

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.



Stage: I II III IV V VI

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. Jespersen 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?

Further Readings:

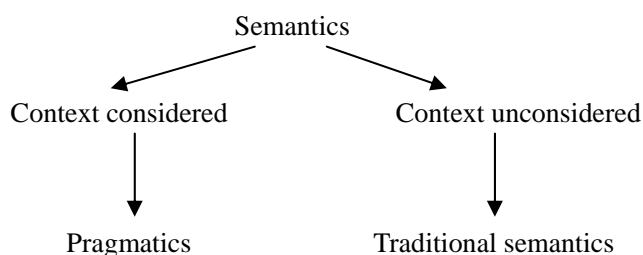
- Berlin, Brent and Paul Kay 1991. *Basic Color Terms: Their Universality and Evolution*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Black, M. 1962. *Models and Metaphors*. New York: Cornell University Press.
- Brown, Roger L. 1968. *Wilhelm von Humboldt's Conception of Linguistic Relativity*. Paris: Mouton.
- Ellis, A. and Beattie, G. 1986. *The Psychology of Language and Communication*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Fasold, Ralph 1999. *The Sociolinguistics of Language*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Jiang, Wenying. 2000. The relationship between culture and language[J]. *ELT Journal* 54(4):328-334
- Lyons, J. 1981. *Language and Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Penn, J. 1972. *Linguistic Relativity versus Innate Ideas*. Paris: Mouton.
- Rossi-Landi, F. 1973. *Ideologies of Linguistic Relativity*. Paris: Mouton.
- Slobin, D. 1974. *Psycholinguistics*. London: Scott, Foresman and Company.

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 Performatives, 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 said to be true or false. The uttering of these sentences is the doing of an action. So they are called Performatives.

- 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 performed 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 from 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 and 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 ostensive 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 Q 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; ostensive 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.

Further Readings:

Blakemore, Diane. 1987. *Semantic Constraints on Relevance*. Blackwell, Oxford .

Sperber, D and Wilson, D. 1995/1986. *Relevance: Communication and Cognition*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Wilson, Deirdre. 1999. Relevance and relevance theory. In R. Wilson & F. Keil (eds.) MIT Encyclopedia of the Cognitive Sciences: 719-22. MIT Press, Cambridge MA .

Wilson, Deirdre. 2000. Metarepresentation in linguistic communication. In D. Sperber (ed.) *Metarepresentations: An Interdisciplinary Perspective*: 411-448. Oxford University Press, Oxford .

Wilson, Deirdre & Sperber, Dan. 1986. Pragmatics and modularity. *Chicago Linguistic Society 22, Parasession on Pragmatics and Grammatical Theory*: 68-74. Reprinted in Steven Davis 1991: 583-95.

Wilson, Deirdre & Sperber, Deirdre. 1992. On verbal irony. *Lingua 87*: 53-76.

Wilson, Deirdre & Sperber, Deirdre. 1993. Linguistic form and relevance. *Lingua 90*: 1-25.

姜望琦, 2000, 《语用学—理论及应用》(英文)。北京大学出版社。

Chapter 9 Language and Computer

Computational linguistics can be seen a branch of applied linguistics, dealing with 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) and 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 term 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 know 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.

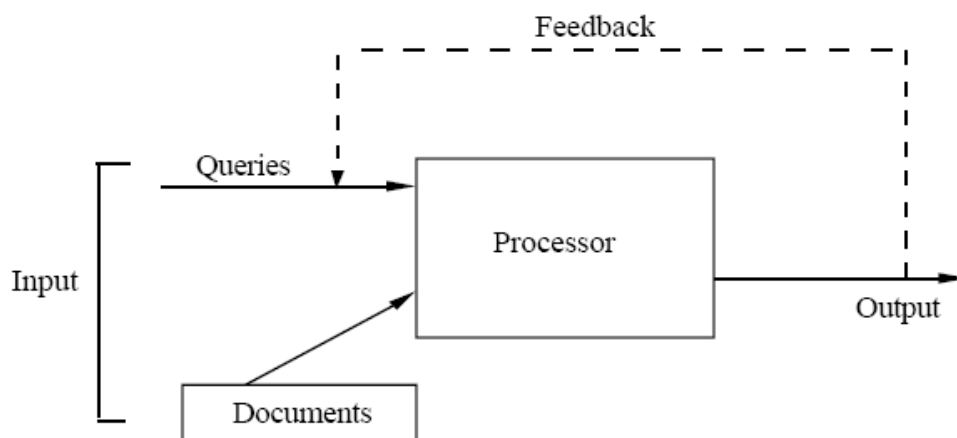


Figure: A Typical IR System

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.

Further Readings:

Barber, A.S., Barraclough, E.D. and Gray, W.A. 1973. 'On-line information retrieval as a scientist's tool'. *Information Storage and Retrieval* 9: 429-44.

Biber, Douglas, Susan Conrad, Randi Reppen.1998. *Corpus Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lancaster, F.W.1968. *Information Retrieval Systems: Characteristics, Testing and Evaluation*. Wiley, New York.

Grishman, R. 1986. *Computational linguistics: An Introduction*. Cambridge: CUP.

Leech, G. and Gandlin, C.N. 1986. *Computers in English Language Teaching and Research*. Harlow: Longman.

六、主要参考书目和论文

Aitchison, J. 1987. *Words in the Mind. An Introduction to the Mental Lexicon*[M]. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Aitchison, J. 1990. Language and Mind. *Psycholinguistics*[M]. In N.E. Collige (ed.) *An Encyclopaedia of Language*. Routledge.333-370.

Allan, Ketth. 2001. *Natural Language Semantics*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.

Ball, M and J. Rahilly.1999. *Phonetics: The Science of Speech*[M] London: Edward Arnold.

Barber, A.S., Barraclough, E.D. and Gray, W.A. 1973. 'On-line information retrieval as a scientist's tool'. *Information Storage and Retrieval* 9: 429-44.

Biber, Douglas, Susan Conrad, Randi Reppen.1998. *Corpus Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Blake, B. J. 2001. *Case*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bouchard, D. 1995. *The Semantics of Syntax*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Bresnan, J. 2001. *Lexical-Functional Syntax*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Chomsky, N.1957. *Syntactic Structures*. Hague: Mouton.

Chomsky, N.1965. *Aspects of The Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT.

Chomsky, N.1966. *Topics in the Theory of Generative Grammar*. Hague: Mouton

Chomsky, N.1972. *Studies on Semantics in Generative Grammar*. Hague: Mouton

Chomsky, N.1975a. *The Logical Structure of Linguistic Theory*. New York: Plenum.

Chomsky, N.1975b. *Questions of Form and Interpretation*. *Linguistic Analysis*1:75-109.

Chomsky, N. 1981. *Lectures on Government and Binding Theory*. Dordrecht: Foris.

- Chomsky, N.1982. *Some Concepts and Consequences of the Theory of Government*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N.1995. *Minimalist Program*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press
- Chomsky, Noam.1998. Minimalist Inquiries: The Framework. In Roger Martin, David Michaels, and Juan Uriageka(eds.) *Step by Step: Essays on Minimalist Syntax in Honor of Howard Lasnik*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.
- Davenport, M and S.J. Hhannahs. 1998. *Introducing Phonetics and Phonology*[M].London: Edward Arnold.
- Firbas, Jan.1992. Functional sentence perspective in written and spoken communication. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Halliday, M.A.K.1994. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. 2nd ed. London: Edward Arnold.
- Hawkins, J.A. 1988 *Explaining Language Universals*. Oxford: Blackwell
- Heim, I. and A. Kratzer.1998. *Semantics in Generative Grammar*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Heine ,B. 1997. *Cognitive Foundations of Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Huang,C.-T. J.1982b. *Logical Relations in Chinese and the Theory of Grammar*. Ph.D Dissertation, MIT.
- Jackendoff, R. 1992. *Languages of the Mind: Essays on Mental Representation*. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.
- Ladefoged, Peter. 2000. *Vowels and Consonant*[M]. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Robins, R. H.1989. *General Linguistics*[M]. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Saeed, J.J. 1997. *Semantics*[M]. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Saussure, F.1966. *Course in General Linguistics*[M]. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Sampson, G. 1980.*Schools of Linguistics* [M]. Standford: Standford University Press.
- Spencer, Andrew.1996. *Phonology*[M]. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Thompson, Geoff. 1996, *Introducing Functional Grammar*. 1st ed. London: Edward Arnold.
- Szabó, Z.G. 2000. Compositionality as Supervenience[J]. *Linguistics and Philosophy* 23: 475–505.
- Wilson, Deirdre. 2000. Metarepresentation in linguistic communication. In D. Sperber (ed.) *Metarepresentations: An Interdisciplinary Perspective*: 411-448. Oxford University Press, Oxford .
- Wilson, Deirdre & Sperber, Dan. 1986. Pragmatics and modularity. *Chicago Linguistic Society* 22, *Parasession on Pragmatics and Grammatical Theory*: 68-74. Reprinted in Steven Davis1991: 583-95.
- Wilson, Deirdre & Sperber, Deirdre. 1992. On verbal irony. *Lingua* 87: 53-76.
- Wilson, Deirdre & Sperber, Deirdre. 1993. Linguistic form and relevance. *Lingua* 90: 1-25.
- 程雨民, 1997, 《语言系统及其运作》。上海外语教育出版社。
- 程工, 1998a, Chomsky 最简方案形成的理论动因[J]。《外语教学与研究》1: 1-7。
- 程工, 1998b, 生成语法中的汉语研究课题与问题[J]。《当代语言学》2: 2-10。
- 方立, 2000), 《逻辑语义学》。北京: 北京语言文化大学出版社。
- 桂诗春, 2000, 《新编心理语言学》。上海: 上海外语教育出版社。
- 韩景泉, 2000, 乔姆斯基的形式语言研究。《外语教学与研究》1: 34-41。
- 何向东, 1999, 《逻辑学教程》。北京: 高等教育出版社。
- 胡壮麟, 2000, 功能主义纵横谈[M]。北京: 外语教学与研究出版社。
- 黄国文, 2000, 韩礼德系统功能语言学 40 年发展述评[J]。《外语教学与研究》1: 15。

- 李延福, 1996, 《国外语言学通观》。济南: 山东教育出版社。
- 姜望琦, 2000, 《语用学—理论及应用》(英文)。北京大学出版社。
- 刘润清, 1995, 西方语言学流派[M]。北京: 外语教学与研究出版社。
- 戚雨村, 1997, 现代语言学的特点和发展趋势[M]。上海: 上海外语教育出版社。
- 石定栩, 2002, 乔姆斯基的形式句法[M]。北京: 北京语言文化大学出版社。
- 袁毓林, 1998, 语言的认知研究和计算分析。北京: 北京大学出版社。
- 徐烈炯, 1997, 语言学理论与语言事实。《现代外语》77: 26-32。
- 张连文, 2005a, 原则与参数系统的科学论述—《当代句法学导论》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。
- 张连文, 2005c, 再谈 Wh-移位中的不对称。《外语学刊》6: 37-41。
- 张连文, 2006a, 再谈 Wh-移位中的不对称(续)。《外语学刊》1: 73-78。
- 张连文, 2006b, 《现代汉语篇章回指研究》述评。《世界汉语教学》1: 136-139。
- 张连文, 2006c, 句子主题的所指依存和信息结构层。《四川外语学院学报》第4期。
- 周流溪, 1997, 1998, 近五十年来语言学的发展。《外语教学与研究》第1, 3, 4期。
- 周流溪、张连文, 2006, 生成语法的全新论述—《更简句法》述评。《外语教学与研究》2: 142-147。
- 朱德熙, 1980, 《现代汉语语法研究》。北京: 商务印书馆。

《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	633
三、课程主要内容及课时分配	633
四、相关教学环节	633
五、使用教材	634
Chapter I What is Graduation Thesis for BA?	635
Chapter II Choosing a Topic: Writing about Linguistics and TEFL	640
Reading	642
Chapter III Choosing a Topic: Writing about Literature and Translation Studies	643
Chapter IV Reviewing Related Literature and Evaluating Materials	646
Chapter V Organizing Ideas and Writing the Outline	649
Chapter VI Writing the First Draft	652
Reading	655
Chapter VII Revising and Editing	656
Reading	658
Chapter VIII Documentation: Citing and Listing Sources	659
Reading	660
Chapter IX Writing the Abstract	661
Reading	664
Chapter X Preparing for the Final Draft and Oral Defense	665
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 with 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 eighth 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 satisfactorily 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 indicate 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*, and 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*, (1606/7) 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.

7.1 The 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; (2) 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)

参考书目

程晓堂 郑敏 2002 《英语学习策略》 外语教学与研究出版社

胡壮麟 1985 《语言学教程》，北京大学出版社

柯 平 1991 《英汉与汉英翻译教程》 北京大学出版社

H.G. Widdowson 1999 《语言教学交际法》 (Teaching Language as Communication) 上海外语教育出版社

H.H. Stern 1999 《语言教学的基本概念》 (Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching) 上海外语教育出版社

H.G. Widdowson 1999 《语言教学面面观》 (Aspects of Language Teaching) 上海外语教育出版社

Lyle F. Bachman 《语言测试要略》(Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing) 上海外语教育出版社

Slade, Carole, 2000 *Form and Style: Research Papers, Reports and Theses* (《如何写研究论文与学术报告》), 外语教学与研究出版社出版

肖礼全 2002 《英语教学方法论》 外语教学与研究出版社

王蕾 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纲》(试行本) 外语教学与研究出版社

《英语应用文写作》教学大纲

李 立 编写

目 录

前 言.....	673
一、概述.....	673
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	673
三、课程主要内容及课时分配.....	673
四、相关教学环节.....	674
五、使用教材.....	674
Chapter I Introduction to Practical English Writing	676
Chapter II Writing Resumes.....	678
Chapter III Writing Application Letters	683
Chapter IV Writing Cover Letters	687
Chapter V Writing Reference Letters.....	689
Chapter VI Writing Memos	692
Chapter VII Writing Abstracts and Summaries	696
Chapter VIII Writing Instructions.....	699
Chapter X Preparing Oral Presentations.....	702
Chapter XI Writing Contracts.....	704
参考书目	707

前 言

一、概述

《英语应用文写作》(A Course for Practical English Writing)是为外国语学院英语专业本科二年级学生开设的一门课程。

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。

在人际交往日益频繁的现代社会中,要求学生能够比较熟练地掌握各种文体的基本知识和写作方法。了解各种常见应用文类型的主题、材料、结构和表达方式,应用文的语言,实用文体写作的意义和方法等,以及这些应用文的语体特征及表达方式,应用文的文本模式,应用文的写作过程,应用文的写作规律。提高英语应用文写作水平,对于我们在日常工作中以应用文作为管理的工具,有效地开展各项工作,有重要的意义。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

通过学习,使学生增强对应用文写作重要性的认识,了解各种应用文的主旨、基本内涵、特点及写作与表述要领,系统掌握常用的应用文体的写作知识和方法,获取必备的应用文写作能力和文章分析处理能力,使他们的实际写作水平得到一定程度的提高,以适应当前和今后在学习、生活、工作以及科学研究中的写作需要,并为毕业论文写作做好充分的知识准备。

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(20%);(2)作业(40%)和(3)期末考试(40%)。

三、课程主要内容及课时分配

本课程注重将学科最新发展成果和教改成果引入教学,课程的教学内容强调其基础性并较好地体现了先进性,同时,本课程强调与英语专业本科核心课程的配套。课程的教学从介绍应用文的写作意义、特征和功能、模块思维、范式变动入手,重点介绍重要的几种常见文体,包括公文类、会议类、经济类等具体文体。

课程各个单元的编排由以下几个部分组成:1、介绍应用文的结构模式、语体特点、语言要求和读者要求;2、课堂应用文写作训练;3、课堂讲解;4、课外练习和讲解等几个方面。为了强化

学生对应用文具体应用的认识，布置了大量的课外练习，目的在于引导学生学习写作知识和文体常识，训练思维方法，分析例文结构及思路，掌握文章写作技巧，以达到实现有效交际的目的。课程教学内容强调理论联系实际，强调学生的能力培养。要求学生根据具体的语境，写出合适得体的应用文。通过实践培养学生分析问题和解决问题的能力，从而使课程达到最佳的教学效果。

课程安排：本课程以每周一次(2课时)计，共上一学期，36学时，包括2学时期中考试及6学时作业讲评。

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》对应用文写作的要求，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。

本课的教学，必须坚持理论与实践的统一，在加强基本理论的讲授的同时，还应注重范文阅读和技能训练。在做到讲读结合，讲练并重的前提下，要在实践性教学环节，或者说写作训练的安排上多下功夫。此外，在本门课程的教学过程中，要注意与学生所学其它专业课程的配合和衔接，特别是在实际写作训练中，尤其要注意这一点。一些专业性较强的文体的写作，可使相关的专业知识直接得到应用。教师讲授为主、学生自学及课堂讨论为辅。突出重点，不要面面俱到，把为数不多的教学时间集中起来解决主要矛盾，要使学生从理论上把握所学文体，掌握必备的写作理论知识。采用多媒体课件教学。采用了比较科学的框架结构，便于讲课中对内容的重新组合，为教师教学的个性化发挥提供了基础。在教学中，知识的讲授应当结合例文的分析进行，以加深对所学文体的全面的认识。勤写多练，指导学生进行有效的写作训练，以通过写作实践形成良好的写作习惯和熟练的写作技巧。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

《实用英语写作》，何小平编著，中国农业大学出版社，1999.8

主要参考书：

2. 《应用文写作》，汪祥云主编，上海交通大学出版社，2003.3
3. 《英语应用文写作》，石坚 帅培天主编，四川出版集团 四川人民出版社，2008.1
4. 《英语应用文大全》，周邦友主编，中国科学技术大学出版社，2007.5

Chapter I

Introduction to Practical English Writing

Contents:

1.1 Introduction to Practical English Writing

1.2 Class discussion

1.3 Group discussion

1.4 Assignment

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

1.1 Introduction to Practical English Writing

● **Course Description:** This course will consist of two parts. Part One is intended as an overview of practical English writing, including different types of practical writing, their common features and principles, etc. Part Two is the major part, introducing separately each type of practical writing, including resume, cover letter, application letter, reference letter, memorandum, interview, abstract and summary.

● **Course Objectives:** The aims of the course are: (1) to let students know different types of practical English writing and their significant roles in their future career; (2) to instruct and support students in producing different types of practical English writing.

● **Teaching Arrangements:** With 2 periods per week, this course is scheduled for 1 semester.

● **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 types of practical writing.

● **Class sessions:**

Introduction to the Practical English Writing Class

Introduction of practical English writing

Resume

Writing Resumes

Application letter

Cover letter

Mid-term test

Reference Letter

Writing Letters

Memorandum

Writing Memos

Abstract and Summary

Instruction

Oral presentation

Contract

Revision

Course Requirements: Assessment will be based on (1) your regular participation in class lectures and group discussions (20%); (2) Assignments (40%) and (3) Final exam (40%).

Reference Books:

《实用英语写作》，何小平编著，中国农业大学出版社，1999.8.

1.2 Class discussion

Discuss the following topics in class:

Why is practical writing so important?

What is good practical writing?

1.3. Group discussion

Work in 4 or 5, discuss the following questions:

Do you know any types of practical English writing and their general features and principles? Do practical writings have general formats? Do you need to adjust the formats according to the actual needs?

When was the last time you wrote a practical English writing? 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 practical 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 produce an excellent practical English writing? 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?

1.4 Assignment

Write a paper about 200 – 300 words about the features and significance of practical English writing.

Further Reading

《应用文写作》，汪祥云主编，上海交通大学出版社，2003.3.

Chapter II Writing Resumes

Contents:

- 2.1 Function of a resume
- 2.2 Parts of a resume
- 2.3 Sample resumes
- 2.4 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

2.1 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** 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.

2.2 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 wide space is necessary.

2.3 Sample resumes

Sample 1

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)

Sample 2

James Huang
6543 Meadowrun
Spring Heights
Dayton, Ohio 45435
(555) 666-7777

EXPERIENCE

1973--Present *Business Weekly*, Athens, Ohio

1979--Present Director of Operations

Direct 30 regional managers and offices with 300 employees. Responsible for all local operations

- Increased ad sales by \$ 7 million.
- Initiated cost-cutting measures.

1973--1979 Assistant to General Manager

- Introduced use of high-speed, double circumference presses.
- Planned and implemented all edition changes.
- Planned and implemented subscription promotions.

1961--1972 *Science Magazine*, New York, New York.

1969-1972 Assistant Publisher

- Reduced magazine to standard size: saved \$1 million annually in paper and production costs.
- Led magazine through difficult transition period, to meet the changing needs of audience and advertisers.

1961--1969 Director of Advertising Sales

- Generated \$ 300,000 revenues.
- Increased circulation by 220,000 each year.

1953--1960 *Family Magazine*

Regional Manager

PERSONAL ACTIVITIES

- American Marketing Association, secretary
- National Book and Periodical Publishers Association, member

EDUCATION

Columbia University, M. A., Journalism, 1953

Boston University, B. A., English, 1952

REFERENCE

Available upon request.

2.4 Writing Assignment

I. Prepare a resume for the career job you plan to get into after completion of your college education. Address it to the firm of your choice and the particular individual who should receive it. The resume

should be neatly and accurately typed.

Information concerned:

- A brief summary of your education background and work experience.
- Reasons for doing the study.
- Financial source provided.
- Request for school information (brochure, application form, etc.).

II. Case Study

The following five paragraphs represent imaginary work histories for five different people. Read through each paragraph, decide whether a chronological or functional resume would probably better present the worker's qualifications, and explain why. After you have decided for yourself, read the discussion of these case studies at the end of this part.

1. Ann Carter-Bowman is thirty-eight years old. She worked as a medical secretary for several years until her daughter was born. She quit working to stay home with her baby, and although she did some volunteer work at a local hospital and acted as an unpaid campaign manager for a friend who ran for city council, she did not hold full-time job for quite a few years. Now her child is grown up, and Anne wants to return to work full-time.

2. Joel Henry Wilson just graduated from law school. His father paid all his school expenses, and it was not necessary for Joel to work while in school. Joel has no work history, but he was an excellent student and participated in a number of impressive extracurricular activities.

3. Cynthia Willis began working as a sales clerk at Bloomfield's department store right after she graduated from high school instead of going on to college. She worked hard, and about a year later was made department manager of women's sportswear. She liked her work and took some night classes in retailing at a nearby junior college. Eventually, she was promoted to assistant manager. Working with the manager, Cynthia learned how to spot coming fashion trends and how to assess the local market. Now the manager is retiring, and Cynthia wants the job.

4. John Avery was a carpenter at the local furniture factory for sixteen years, but he lost his job when the factory closed six months ago. There isn't another packing house within commuting distance, and John is reluctant to relocate because his wife has a good job and his children are still in school. Although his work experience is confined to one kind of job, John has many hobbies: woodworking, gardening, and training hunting dogs.

5. David Grant took time off after graduating from engineering school and toured Europe by bicycle with friends. When he got back six months later, he had trouble getting a job in his field because of economic conditions in his part of the country. At the time, Grant didn't want to leave his hometown to look for work, and so he took temporary jobs as a bartender, store clerk, and delivery-van driver. Finally, two years later, he got a good job with a prestigious firm and worked there for three years. Now he wants to relocate to larger city and needs to write a resume to send to potential employers.

Analysis

1. Carter-Bowman has good experience with which to secure a job, but it must be presented in such a manner that the employer will see how it is relevant. Because Carter-Bowman has a long gap in her work history and some unpaid--although still valid--work experience, the functional resume format would probably present her qualifications in the best light.

2. Wilson has no work history, and a chronological format--which is a history--would just emphasize that fact. He should spotlight his abilities-gained from his course work and extracurricular activities--in a functional resume format.

3. Willis does want to emphasize her work history because it proves she has worked hard to earn the opportunity at a top job. The dedication and hard work her work history demonstrates are among her best credentials for job. She should definitely use a chronological format.

4. Avery is in a difficult position. All his work experience is in one job, and that job doesn't exist anymore in his part of the country. Under these circumstances, the chronological format would be useless to him in securing a job in a new field. Avery will have to abstract the qualities he demonstrated in his old job (diligence, punctuality, willingness to learn, and so forth) and apply them to a new situation. He will also have to bring in data from outside his work history--abilities he acquired pursuing his hobbies, for example. He should use a functional resume format.

5. Either format might work for Grant. On the one hand, he will want to minimize his irrelevant job experience and six-month gap in his work history; and a functional format would handle the problem. On the other hand, he wouldn't want to minimize his impressive job experience with the prestigious firm in the process. In a combination of the two forms, Grant could organize the resume in chronological order to spotlight his one impressive credential, which he would describe in great detail, then group his unimpressive jobs under a heading such as "Other Work Experience." Remember, you don't have to give all the information about yourself, nor do you have to treat all information equally. If some of your credentials are more relevant to the job than others, make the resume reflect that fact.

Chapter III

Writing Application Letters

Contents:

- 3.1 Function of an application letter
- 3.2 Parts of an application letter
- 3.3 Sample application letters
- 3.4 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

3.1 Function of an application letter

When you apply for a job, you will use your **application letter** to show your intention to a potential employer. A letter of application is mailed along with a resume. The resume supplies key facts about you in a very concentrated and efficient form. Therefore, in your application letter you're free to emphasize and develop your strongest selling points.

The **guideline** below may help you plan the content of your persuasive application letter.

In the beginning paragraph of your application letter, you should summarize your two or three outstanding qualifications related to the job or school you seek. Like the first paragraph of a newspaper article, the summary states the important points you will discuss in the message.

If someone -- especially a person well known to the reader -- has suggested you apply to a particular firm for a job, you can use that person's name in the opening -- unless he or she has asked you to keep it confidential. If you are answering a job ad, refer to it and the name of the publication, along with what you can offer. Avoid repeating requirements stated in the ad.

A properly phrased question used at the beginning of your application letter can show your understanding of the potential employer's problem or need and your desire to help.

To mention a news event about a significant achievement or new changes of the potential employer can help you achieve the goal of application.

The development paragraphs in application letter emphasizes the points you selected from your resume. They go along with the facts which must relate to the employer's benefit. In this part, you should discuss your strengths and minimize your shortcomings. The order of the application letter is also important. You will organize your paragraphs in the same order as the qualifications are listed in the opening -- with the most important qualification first.

Your previous job experiences, full or part time, related or unrelated to the position you are applying for, will help strengthen your qualifications. Try to tell concisely how you performed some functions and what you accomplished, you can show:

- You gained experience that will help you understand or learn faster the special techniques required for the new job.
- You can adapt to people and like to work with them.
- You can handle responsibilities.

- You are a hard worker.

In development paragraphs, you also need to discuss:

- your ability to work with people
- your attitude toward employment
- your personal qualities

3.2 Parts of an application letter

An application letter points to a specific job or employer; a standard application letter would usually include **the following sections**:

The Introduction (Attention)

1. Business beginning. Usually choose one or two.

Summary --- list two or three outstanding qualifications

Name --- an individual or office the reader is familiar with or the publication in which the reader's ad appeared

Question --- for reader benefit

News item --- related to employer

Other relevant reader --- oriented statement

2. Mention of specific job or field of interest

The Body (Interest, Desire, Conviction)

1. Discussion of your qualifications from a reader-benefit or reader-interest viewpoint. Include:

- Education and training --- related to job requirements
- Work experience --- related to job requirements
- Significant personal attitudes, interests, activities, and qualities --- related to job requirements

2. Reference to resume

The Close (Action)

1. Request for interview at reader's convenience, with suggestions when you will be available

2. Easy action

- Phone number
- Hours you can be reached

3.3 Sample application letters

Below is a solicited application letter for a staff supervisor position.

64 Barton Drive

Ann Arbor, MI 48104--0022

February 6, 200 ___

Mr. John Q. Lorgen

Personnel Representative

Education & Training Dept.

Imabo Sales Inc.

1820 Hightower Building

I.os Angeles, CA 90080 8888

Dear Mr. Lorgen,

Your name comes to me from Professor James Hams, who told me your firm is looking for a reliable staff supervisor. With thorough university training in accounting and related studies, facility with three languages, and responsible accounting work, I can be an asset to your firm.

To prepare adequately for public accounting career, I have completed 40 hours in accounting as an undergraduate at the University of Michigan and 60 hours graduate studies at the University of Detroit, where my grade point was 7.8 (8=A). Besides my emphasis on accounting, I also took courses such as electronic data processing, governmental taxation, international accounting, and policy and control of large corporations.

Since your firm specializes in foreign accounts, I believe I can be of significant benefit in international accounting because of foreign language competence in French and German. I have had considerable experience translating European subsidiary financial statements into United States generally accepted accounting principles. Additionally, I made several trips overseas to visit with German accountants, working with them as they prepared data for the home office.

As audit supervisor of a regional public accounting firm. I also worked part time for two years, as shown on the enclosed resume. That position brought me into contact with both large and small firms, while supervising two staff persons as they worked on payroll and long range financial forecasts. This experience will be useful in audit and analyses for cost control. Equally important, I passed the C. P.A. examination.

Serving as treasurer of the accounting honorary and chair of two charity drives required honesty, tact, and initiative. These qualities are a vital part of my personal code of ethics as a public accountant.

Will you call me at (333) 555-7777 to indicate a time when I can come, at your convenience, to talk with you about joining your firm as a staff supervisor? I am usually home after 6 p.m. each weekday.

Cordially,
(signature)
Tom Ducca

(Note: this application letter is enclosed with your resume.)

3.4 Writing Assignment

I. Prepare a list of 10 or more questions to which you must know the answers before you can write your application. All the questions must relate to a particular job or job area. Listed below are several questions to consider.

A. What are the basic qualifications that you look for when you screen a recent college graduate for a job in your career area?

B. For this type of work what major do you think is best?

C. Outside the major, what courses (business or nonbusiness) do you think will be helpful on the job?

D. What kind of previous experience do you look for in the applicant?

E. How do you evaluate personality from a written job presentation?

F. How important are grades?

G. To get into this type of work, what initial job should I apply for?

II. Prepare a letter of application with an accompanying resume for the career job you plan to get into after completion of your college education. Address it to the firm of your choice and the particular individual who should receive it. Both application letter and resume should be neatly and accurately typed.

III. Write an application for your planned academic study in an English speaking country.
Information concerned:

A. A brief summary of your education background and work experience.

B. Reasons for doing the study.

C. Financial source provided.

D. Request for school information (brochure, application form, etc.).

Chapter IV

Writing Cover Letters

Contents:

- 4.1 Function of a cover letter
- 4.2 Parts of a cover letter
- 4.3 Sample cover letters
- 4.4 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

4.1 Function of a cover letter

When you apply for study or research, you will use your summarizing and writing skills to prepare an effective cover letter. You will use your **cover letter** to introduce yourself to a potential employer.

The **cover letter** is your personal introduction to a potential employer (or institution, if you apply for study or research) to show how experiences and skills match those of a specific position or entrance requirements.

The **guideline** below may help you plan the content of your persuasive cover letter.

- The cover letter should always accompany the resume.
- It should always be addressed to a specific individual (name and title).
- One 8_{1/2}"×11" page is recommended (error free).
- Show confidence in the letter (this includes a brief summary of your strengths and qualifications).
- Don't be apologetic or negative.
- The letter should be typed, not photocopied.

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 **cover letter**:

- 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.

4.2 Parts of a cover letter

A cover letter may be tailored for a specific job or employer; a standard resume would usually include **the following sections**:

Beginning paragraph: Tell how you heard about the position or school and how your background would be an asset.

Middle paragraph: Summarize the highlights of your experience and how these accomplishments and skills relate to the position.

Ending paragraph: Indicate you want a prompt reply or an interview.

4.3 Sample cover letters

John Jones
Vice President, Personnel
ABC Company
20 Pine Street
New York, New York 91682
September 20, 1988

Dear Mr. Jones,

In response to your ad for a General Sales Manager, I am enclosing my resume for your consideration.

My professional background demonstrates an excellent track record with major accomplishments in sales, marketing, advertising, and management.

I will be happy to discuss my background with you in greater detail in a personal interview. I will contact you shortly to arrange a mutually convenient meeting.

Sincerely,
(signature)

Tom Baker

(Note: This resume is accompanied by the sample Cover Letter 1 given below)

4.4 Writing Assignment

1. Send a resume and a cover 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 V

Writing Reference Letters

Contents:

5.1 Elements of a reference letter

5.2 Sample reference letters

5.3 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

5.1 Elements of a reference letter

Sometimes in your business career or academic career, you are likely to be asked to supply information about a person who was under your supervision. Here in this textbook, though the background information is more business oriented, the principles of writing a reference letter in business situations also apply to writing a reference letter in academic circumstances.

Note:

1. Recommendation letter only refers to giving a high opinion of an applicant whom you are familiar with. You sincerely believe that he or she would be an asset to the company or school applied to.

2. Writing reference letter is a serious matter. Creating any false information (to make a wild boast about someone or to be devoid of any merit of someone) would result in damaging your image or casting a stain on your fame.

Guidelines:

- Express your pleasure in writing on behalf of the applicant.
- Describe the qualities that make the applicant a qualified applicant.
- If appropriate, explain the reasons for the former employee's leaving the firm.
- Add any personal testimonial concerning the candidate that you believe could strengthen that person's chances of obtaining the position or gaining access to academic study or research.

5.2 Sample reference letters

A. Favorable Reference

(date and inside address omitted)

Dear Mrs. Seaton,

It is my pleasure to write on behalf of George Alexander, who has applied for the position of computer programmer in your company.

I have known George Alexander for over three years, first as a fellow programmer and later as his supervisor. I consider him an extremely competent person, highly dependable, and very intelligent. He works well with people, and I consider his record here outstanding.

When George told me that he was leaving us (he had to return to the family farm in Iowa because of his father's illness), I was very sorry to see him go. In my opinion, the organization that employs George Alexander will make no mistake.

Sincerely yours,
(signature)
John Baker
(official capacity omitted)

B. Recommendation

Dear Graduate Admissions Office,

It is my great pleasure to recommend to you one of my colleague, Ms. He Xiaoping who would like very much to conduct her research and further studies in your honored University.

Ms. He Xiaoping was graduated with honors in all major subjects from the English Department of Beijing Languages Institute in February 1983. Right after graduation, she was assigned to teach the advanced English courses at our University, which, to my thinking, has proved that she is very capable and conscientious. One year later, she was officially sent by our University to the United States where she first entered Case Western Reserve University as a Visiting Scholar in American Studies Program and then was successfully enrolled in the Department of English, Wright State University. There she worked steadily on degree in English for two years, taking the responsibility for teaching writing courses at the same time. Ever since her return to our University in 1987, she has been teaching English courses to Master and Ph. D students. Her teaching has been excellent. Her formal teaching evaluations are very high, and many of her students have spoken highly about her and her teaching. In addition to her excellent teaching work, she has also demonstrated remarkable academic ability by translating various books and articles and by doing research on English language education. In view of her outstanding performance in teaching and research work, she was awarded a Prize offered by Henry Fok Education Foundation.

Ms. He Xiaoping has been a good teacher and a valuable colleague, and I'm very pleased, and indeed honored, to have had her as a member of our Foreign Languages Teaching Department for some ten years. In my opinion, she is very honest, enthusiastic and cooperative, and one of the most promising young teachers in our department. Not only I myself but also my other colleagues would be extremely grateful if you could offer Ms. He Xiaoping a chance to continue her studies and research at your University.

Respectfully yours,
(signature)

Bryan Chou
Director of Department of Foreign Languages

5.3 Writing Assignment

John Smith joined McDonald's on February 16 of the recent year as a general clerk in the department of human resources. He left the company on August 22 by giving his reason that: "I don't like this job or this company." His attitude was sullen, he was habitually late for work and often sneaked out before closing time, and his job performance was unsatisfactory.

Actually, it is your opinion that Smith was underemployed--that is, he appeared to be very intelligent, but because he felt that the job was far beneath his capabilities, he simply did it irresponsibly. You explained that the best way to get a more challenging and important position in the company was to handle his present job in a highly capable manner. He refused to accept this advice. Recently, you received a form letter from Shell Chemical Company asking for your assessment of Smith, Who has applied for the position of assistant customer services manager.

a. Assume that it is the policy in your company to give only basic facts about an unsatisfactory employee, saying nothing derogatory. Write the letter.

b. Assume that you are free to supply complete details to Shell Chemical Company about John Smith's employment record at McDonald's. Write the letter.

Chapter VI Writing Memos

Contents:

6.1 Layout of a Memorandum

6.2 Sample memos

6.3 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

6.1 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:

6.1.1. 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.

6.1.2 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.

6.1.3. 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.

6.1.4. 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

6.1.5. 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.

6.2 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.

6.3 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 Reuters to other members of the firm.

Chapter VII Writing Abstracts and Summaries

Contents:

- 7.1 Introduction to abstracts and summaries
- 7.2 Procedures of writing abstracts and summaries
- 7.3 Sample abstracts and summaries
- 7.4 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

7.1 Introduction to Abstracts and Summaries

Abstracts and summaries provide readers with the key points of a longer document, article or even book. They help readers to decide whether or not to read them or help preview or review them.

Abstracts, usually preceding journal articles or technical reports, condense the text to give readers essential information about subjects, methods, results, conclusions, and recommendations.

Summaries are less concerned with condensing the text than with emphasizing results, conclusions, and recommendations. The following is a comparison of abstracts and summaries.

7.2 Procedures of Writing Abstracts and Summaries

Principles:

- High comprehension and an understanding of relationships among ideas
- A great deal of revision
- Maintain the tone and focus of the original document

Procedures:

- Planning
- Drafting
- Revision

In the planning stage, you have to assess the audience's purpose for reading the abstract. Use a descriptive abstract if the purpose is to help the reader decide whether to read the document article or book; employ informative abstract if the reader wants information in decision making. Sometimes both a descriptive abstract and an informative abstract are applied for a long text. Be sure to cite the material being abstracted completely, so researchers know where to locate the document.

In the drafting stage, you might follow the sequence of information below ~

- purpose or rationale of study
- methodology
- results
- conclusions

In the revision stage, you need to:

- ensure the logical sequence of content and the inclusion of essential information
- eliminate any repetition and unnecessary detail
- eliminate technical jargon
- check any grammatical or mechanical errors
-

7.3 Sample abstracts and summaries

Sample 1 Descriptive abstract

The influence of science and technology has transformed a great number of technical terms into popular usage. By a comparison of various dictionaries, the article reveals an interesting development of scientific language and accents the current significance of the specialized language. The illustrations show that technical language can evolve into common usage and thereby acquires new meanings. Sample 2 Giving Instructions.

Sample 2 Informative abstract

The waves of the industrial revolution have helped language development surge ahead. The influence of science and technology is so profound that it becomes the source in recent years of a growing number of popular annotations and denotations. Many of these new words and meanings have been well covered by dictionaries, but popular meanings that appear to conflict with the underlying scientific ones are obviously absent from some or all major American dictionaries.

A comparison of various dictionaries reveals an interesting development of scientific language and accents the current significance of the specialized language. A few examples will illustrate the current significance of scientific terms: catalyst, parameter and syndrome. All of each of these three popular words has a specific and limited etymology, their popular meanings indicate that the definitions and usage of these words have been extended.

The standard chemical meaning of "catalyst" is included in all dictionaries. That is: "a substance which when present in small amounts increases the rate of chemical reaction or process but which is chemically unchanged by the reaction; a catalyst agent." Only Webster's New World, 2nd college edition includes the now commonly used meaning. Other dictionaries include the limited meaning of this word either directly or indirectly. Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 8th edition, defines the extended sense of catalysis as "an action or reaction between two or more persons or forces precipitated by a separate agent and esp. by one that is essentially unaltered by the reaction." The figurative meaning does not ordinarily imply that the person or thing precipitating the reaction is itself unchanged by the reaction. The highly technical dictionary defines "parameter" as an "arbitrary constant whose value characterizes a member of system (as a family of curves)"; and "any of a set of physical properties whose values determine the characteristics or behavior of something." However, the popular sense is amplified as "a characteristic element" with the label "broadly". The Barnhart Dictionary of New English Since 1963 defines it as "any defining or characteristic factor." Webster's Third (1961) includes a sense of "syndrome" as "a set of concurrent things: concurrence." Yet the first printing of the eighth edition of Webster's New Collegiate (1973) only included the popular sense, defining it as "a distinctive pattern of behavior." The word has been added to recent prints of the New Collegiate (1977), where it is well defined as "a set of concurrent things (as emotions or actions) that usu. form an identifiable pattern."

The above illustrations show that technical language can evolve into common usage and thereby acquire new meanings. Scientific terms in popular usage seem to enjoy a life of their own independent of the dictionary definition. The illustrations indicate that the meaning of a scientific term begins to grow once it becomes a part of everyday language.

Change is inevitable. To trace and to record the transformation of the technical language are the serious responsibilities for language workers.

Sample 3 Summary

The influence of science and technology is so profound that it becomes the source in recent years of a growing number of popular annotations as well as denotations. Many of these new words and meanings have been well covered by dictionaries, but popular meanings that appear to conflict with underlying scientific ones are obviously absent from some or all of the major American dictionaries.

A comparison of various dictionaries reveals an interesting development of scientific language and accents the current significance of the specialized language. Three examples will illustrate the current significance of scientific terms: catalyst, parameter and syndrome. All of each of these three popular words has a specific and limited etymology, their popular meanings indicate that the definitions and usage of these words have been extended. The illustrations show that technical language can evolve into common usage and thereby acquire new meanings. They also indicate that the meaning of a scientific term begins to grow once it becomes a part of everyday language. To trace and to record the transformation of technical language are the serious responsibilities of the language worker. As you can see from the above samples, the memos should be written as short as possible without being abrupt.

7.3 Writing Assignment

1. What would be the advantage and disadvantage of an abstract or summary prepared by: A. the author of the document? B. an expert in the field other than the author?

2. Select and photocopy an article from science or some other periodical that regularly uses abstracts. Skip over the abstract, but carefully read the article. After reading the article, write an abstract and then compare your version with the one preceding the article. Marginally annotate your paragraph to identify differences with the published abstract. Write a paragraph that discusses the differences between the two abstracts.

3. Prepare a bibliography of current articles from professional journals and business magazines about some subject that interests you in your professional work or about some specific area of technical communications related to your work. After you have read each article, decide if it fits in with your selected focus for the bibliography, write a descriptive abstract, the result will be an annotated bibliography, useful for academic or industrial research.

Chapter VIII

Writing Instructions

Contents:

- 8.1 Function of instructions
- 8.2 Types of a cover letter
- 8.3 Sample instructions
- 8.4 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

8.1 Function of instructions

Instructions are designed to help a reader complete a task. They generally fall into four categories. The first category focuses on human behavior because many instructions manage or regulate personnel. The second category directs a person to make (assemble, construct) something. The third category directs a person to operate tools or equipment in order to complete a process. The fourth category focuses on the implementation of a process.

8.2 Types of instructions

Direct the actions/behavior of personnel

- complete job/school application form
- specify incoming inspection procedures
- recommend approaches for dealing with traffic jam
- establish official communication channels for public correspondence
- specify questions for preliminary interviews

Direct the assembly of construction of objects or mechanisms

- install automatic washing machine
- assemble a personal computer
- install built-in vacuum system
- assemble build-it-yourself stereo
- install cable TV antenna
- construct a portable clothes cabinet

Direct the operation of equipment

- operate a sewing machine
- operate video display terminal (VDT)
- use micrometer to determine size
- operate a telephone switchboard
- calibrate electronic inspection equipment
- operate a language laboratory

Direct the implementation of a process

- identify a shoddy electric appliance
- install chips on a circuit board
- conduct random-sample survey
- install rooftop solar panel
- conduct a dietary analysis
- conduct a student evaluation

8.3 Sample instructions

Operation Instructions

1. Automatic Rice Cooker may be used not only for cooking rice, but also for other boiling or steaming purposes ,such as stewing tonic, or nutriment etc. The Cooker is equipped with a "Permanent Magnetic. Controlling System",so that its temper_ ature for cooking can be automatically and accurately adjusted, making it easy to control. It is also beautiful in design, exquisite and durable in construction, with less power consumption and excellent insulation properties.

2. After the rice is measured and cleaned with fresh water in another container, ' put it into the Pot with a suitable amount of water. Usually the ratio of 1 1/2 cups of water to 1 cup of rice is preferable (See Fig. 1).

3. Be careful not to wash the rice directly in the Pot,since the inside parts of the Cooker may be deformed by bumping,caus ing destruction to the performace of the Cooker.

4. Before switching on,place the Pot inside the Cooker and move it around so as to make it touch closely with the Heating Plate. This is the key to prolong the lifetime of the Cooker and make the rice well done in a shorter period of time. (As Fig. 2)

5. Press the push-button, and the pilot lamp would light up simultaneously, showing that the Cooker is in normal operation. When the rice is well cooked, the push-button would be automatically released and the pilot lamp will then go out, which is a signal indicating that the rice is ready. It is neecessaw, however, to keep the lid on for at least 10 more minutes to make the rice more tasteful.

6. After the pilot lamp went out, the temperature of the rice in the Cooker would drop to the range of 60470 C. And the Pilot lamp would begin to flicker, indicating that the automatic Heat Preservation Unit had begun to work.

7. The push-button would only be automatically released when the Cooker is used for cooking rice. When stewing tonic, or nutriment, or the like, you must release the button by hand to cut out current when the stuff is well cooked; otherwise, the push-button would not be released automatically until the stuff is dried-up.

8. When steaming left-over rice or other food stuff, put the steaming plate (which has a lot of holes) into the Pot, pour in a suitable amount of water, and then set the food stuff to be steamed onto the top of the steaming plate. Switch on, and the power button would be released automatically when water is dried-up.

8.4 Writing Assignment

I. Directions:

- A. Answer each of the following questions and give your justification with a realistic example.

-
- a. Is it necessary for an operator to understand why each step is included in a set of instructions?
 - b. Does the operator's understanding ensure the instructions will be more carefully followed?
 - c. Do reasons and explanations take up too much space, thus making the instructions too long and cumbersome"?

B. Problem-solving

Instructions accompanying foreign-made products are sometimes written in unnatural, nonidiomatic English. How do you react to this? Are your trust in the product or understanding the accuracy of the instructions affected? If a product made by your company were intended for export, how would you avoid such problems in translation?

C. Examine this list of items that are usually included in a manual. Tell which you believe is the most important and explain why.

- Table of contents
- List of figures
- Primary headings
- Secondary headings
- Index

II. Directions: Write instructions on the following tasks.

- A. How to change a light globe.
- B. How to replace the ribbon on a typewriter.
- C. How to prepare yourself to take an intelligence test.
- D. How to operate a word processor.
- E. How to select a science fiction novel.

Chapter X Preparing Oral Presentations

Contents:

10.1 Purpose of oral presentations

10.2 Methods of delivering the message

10.3 Sample cover letters

10.4 Ways to control stage fright

Time Allotment:

Two teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

10.1 Purpose of oral presentations

There are many kinds of oral presentations in either business field or everyday life. The purposes of doing the oral presentations may vary; for example, to inform or instruct, to persuade and to entertain. Or very often, you are required to present a research paper before an academic group or professional audience. No matter for what kind of purpose, the basic guideline would be the same for doing a presentation.

- Determine the purpose
- Analyze the audience and the situation
- Choose the main ideas for your message
- Research your topic thoroughly
- Organize the data and write you draft
- Plan visual aids if desirable
- Rehearse the talk and revise where necessary

The visual aids may include chalkboards, cards or posters, and projectors. In your rehearsal, you need to imagine the audience in front of you, avoid long sentences and unusual words, use transitional phrases and sentences to show the relationships between sections of your report, anticipate questions from the audience, and finally count the time of speech.

10.2 Methods of Delivering the Message

- Extemporaneous Method: Speak from a previously prepared outline or notes.
 - Manuscript-Reading Method: Read parts On your manuscript (technical or complex data and quotations from authorities) if the Speech is long. Be sure to keep eye contact with the audience.
 - Memorization Method: Memorize a short talk and make it sound spontaneous. Or memorize the main ideas not the exact words. It is applicable for short speech.
 - Impromptu Method: Speak on the spur of the moment without specific preparation.
- 4.3 Sample cover letters

10.3 Ways to Control Stage Fright

Few people can approach an audience without some feeling of discomfort. To help control stage fright, follow the suggestions below used by successful speakers and performers:

- Rehearse your talk several time. If possible, rehearse in the same room where you will speak.
- Request, in advance, a podium or lectern. It helps not only your notes but also, occasionally, a trembling hand.
- Precheck any equipment you will need projector, screen, extension cord.
- Take with you a pen, your notes, a pencil and use it as pointer and as something to touch, which can help you calm the nervousness.
- Know your subject well and approach the lectern with assurance and enthusiasm.
- Move during the speech. Some movement holds audience attention and releases nervous energy.

In addition to the three parts mentioned above, you also need to pay attention to posture, movement, facial expressions, appearance, and gestures which convey nonverbal cues. Voice usage in pitch, rate, and volume should also be concerned.

Chapter XI Writing Contracts

Contents:

11.1 Layout of a contract

11.2 Sample contracts

11.3 Writing assignment

Time Allotment:

Four teaching hours are allocated for this chapter.

11.1 Layout of a Contract

A **contract (agreement)** is one of the most commonly used form of written communication in business. It is different from a business letter and is used at all levels of an organization. It may exist between any two parties if necessary. A contract usually contains title, commencement and recitals, body of the text, and ending of the text.

Title

The title of a contract shall indicate the nature of the contract, such as “Share Purchase Agreement”, “Joint Venture Agreement”, “Loan Agreement”, “Distribution Agreement”, “License Agreement”. And in a business contract, the number of a contract shall also be indicated. For example:

CHINA NATIONAL CEREALS, OILS
AND FOODSTUFFS IMPORT AND EXPORT
CORPORATION SALES CONTRACT
No. SC94008

Commencement and recitals

The purpose of the commencement and recitals is to introduce briefly the parties, content, time, place and objects of the contract. The first part, commencement, is to specify the parties’ name, nationality, domicile or the main establishment and the day of the contract. The second part, recitals or preambles, consists of many sentences beginning with “Whereas”, which are usually called “Whereas clauses”. These sentences are the common understanding of the parties on the facts, such as the purpose and background of the contract.

Body of the text

The body of a contract usually contains two kinds of terms, the special provisions and the general provisions. The so-called special provisions refer to certain terms that only exist in some special contracts while the general provisions are terms that are commonly included in most kinds of contracts. The terms and conditions shall be listed one after another.

Ending of the text

The ending part of a contract includes the ending words and the signature. The ending words usually fall into the same format. For example: IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the parties hereto have caused this Agreement to be executed by duly authorized representatives of both parties on the date and year first

written above _____. If the parties are companies, the signature should include the seal of the company as well as the name and title of their representatives.

Classification of contracts

- Form-style contract
- Clause-style contract

11.2 Sample contracts

TIMBER SALE CONTRACT - SAMPLE

The following document offers excellent guidelines when preparing a timber sale contract. Separate articles may be added to suit specific circumstances. It is advised that the Seller and Purchaser employ legal counsel to review the contract prior to its endorsement.

Contract entered into this _____ day of _____, 20____, by and between _____ of _____ Illinois, hereinafter called the Seller, and _____, of _____ (city), _____ (state), Illinois Timber Buyer License Number _____, hereinafter called the Purchaser, WITNESSETH:

1. The Seller agrees to sell and the Purchaser agrees to buy for the total sum of _____ dollars (\$_____) under the conditions set forth in this contract all of the live standing timber marked or designated for cutting and all of the dead or down timber marked or designated upon an area of approximately _____ acres, situated in the _____ of Section _____, Twp. _____ R. _____, _____ County, Illinois, on land owned and recorded in the name of _____.

The Purchaser further agrees to pay to the Seller as an initial payment under this contract the sum of _____ dollars (\$_____), receipt of which is hereby acknowledged, and a final payment in the sum of _____ dollars (\$_____), prior to any cutting or removal of timber under this contract.

2. The Seller further agrees to mark and dispose of the timber conveyed in this contract in strict accordance with the following conditions:

(a) All trees to be included in this sale will be marked with a distinctive mark on the bole and stump of each tree.

(b) No trees under _____ inches in diameter at a point 4 1/2 feet from the ground will be marked for cutting.

(c) No concurrent contract involving the area or period covered in this contract has been or will be entered into by the Seller without the written consent of the Purchaser

(d) The Purchaser and his employees shall have access to the area at all reasonable

times and seasons for the purpose of carrying out the terms of this contract.

(e) Unless otherwise specified, all material contained in the marked or designated trees is included in this sale

(f)

(g)

3. The Purchaser further agrees to cut and remove all of the timber conveyed in this contract in strict accordance with the following conditions:

(a) Unless an extension of time is agreed upon in writing between the Seller and Purchaser, all timber shall be paid for, cut, and removed on or before and none after the _____ day of _____, 20____, and any material not so removed shall revert to the Seller.

(b) Unmarked trees and young timber shall be protected against unnecessary injury from felling and logging operations. If, however, unmarked trees are cut, damages shall be paid the Seller at the rate of \$1 per tree per M bd. ft. for all other species, and in the event that any such trees are cut, said trees shall remain upon the premises and shall be the property of the Seller.

(c) Necessary logging roads shall be cleared by the Purchaser only after their locations have been definitely agreed upon with the Seller or his representative, and any trees to be removed in the clearing operations shall first be marked by the Seller.

(d) During the life of this contract and on the area covered, care shall be exercised by the Purchaser and his employees against the starting and spread of fire, and they shall do all in their power to prevent and control fires.

(e) Any liability for damage, destruction, or restoration of private or public improvements or personal damages occasioned by or in the exercise of this contract shall be the sole responsibility of the Purchaser, and the Purchaser shall save harmless the Seller on account of such damages.

(f) The risk if loss or damage to the trees herein purchased, from any and all causes whatever, shall be borne by purchasers from the date hereof.

(g) The Purchaser will not assign this agreement without the written consent of the Seller.

(h)

(g)

(i)

4. The Seller and Purchaser mutually agree as follows:

(a) All modifications of the contract will be reduced to writing, dated, signed, and witnessed and attached to this contract.

(b) Any need for reassignment of interest of either party may be changed within 10 days following written consent by both parties. All terms of this contract legally bind the named representatives to excuse this document as written.

(c) The total number of trees conveyed is _____ (having a volume of approximately _____bd. ft.) composed as follows:

_____ white oak, _____ red and black oak, _____,

_____ , _____ , _____ .

(d) In case of dispute over the terms of this contract, final decision shall rest with a reputable person to be mutually agreed upon by parties to this contract. If the parties hereto do not agree upon a third party within 10 days following the initiation of the dispute, or in the case of further disagreement, then within 15 days from the initiation of the dispute, it shall be submitted to a Board of Arbitration of three persons, one to be selected by each party to this contract and the third to be selected by the other two. The Board shall decide the dispute within 5 days after the matter is referred to it.

In the event that damages are awarded to the Seller by the Board of Arbitration and are not paid on the date that the award is made, then all operations of the Purchaser shall immediately cease, and if the award is not paid or satisfied within 30 days after the date of award, the Seller may take immediate possession of the premises upon which the timber is located, shall retain as liquidated damages all money paid by the Purchaser, and the title to all timber shall revert to and become the property of the seller.

In witness whereof, the parties hereto have set their hands and seals this _____ day of _____ 20____.

WITNESSES:

for the Purchaser

Purchaser

for the Seller

Seller

11.3 Writing Assignment

Suppose you are the representatives of ABC Steel Co. Ltd. and want to buy 500 million ton iron ore from MN Iron Mine. You have to draft a sale contract after having negotiated with the representatives of the mine. Write the contract.

参考书目

1. 《应用文写作》，汪祥云主编，上海交通大学出版社，2003. 3
2. 《英语应用文写作》，石坚 帅培天主编，四川出版集团 四川人民出版社，2008. 1
3. 《英语应用文大全》，周邦友主编，中国科学技术大学出版社，2007. 5

《外国报刊选读》教学大纲

徐新燕 编写

目 录

前 言.....	709
一、概述.....	709
二、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
Chapter II Headlines in News Reports	713
Chapter III Brief Introduction to English News Leads	718
Chapter IV Introduction to English Report Styles	721

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:

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 headline 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 heed 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 from 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 taxes 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 as 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 willing 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 soaring 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
一. 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.....	732

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，让学生囫圇吞枣、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） |
| 2. G.I. Jane | （第3—4周） |
| 3. Death and the Maiden | （第5—6周） |
| 4. Sunshine | （第7—8周） |
| 5. The Red Violin | （第9—10周） |
| 6. Far and Away | （第11—12周） |
| 7. Rogue Trader | （第13—14周） |
| 8. The Firm | （第15—16周） |
| 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) |
| 3.Kramer vs Kramern | (第23—24周) |
| 4.The Bridges of Madison County | (第25—26周) |
| 5.Innocence | (第27—28周) |
| 6.Meet Joe Black | (第29—30周) |
| 7.The Horse Whisper | (第31—32周) |
| 8.The English Patient | (第33—34周) |
| 9.Shakespeare in Love | (第35—36周) |

(一) 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 1973 to 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 repent. 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 build the 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.

(二) 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 of 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 beloved 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,旨在培养学生的阅读策略和文化意识。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 international multi-sport event that took place in Beijing, People's Republic of China, from August 8 (except football, 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 2004 Games. The 2008 Beijing Olympics marked the first occasion that either the Summer or Winter Games were hosted in China, making it the 22nd nation to do so. It also became the third time that Olympic events have been held in the territories of two different National Olympic Committees (NOC), as the equestrian events were being held in Hong Kong.

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 Chinese government 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 Jacques Rogge 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 NGOs concerned about China's human rights 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
 - 2.1 Venues
 - 2.1.1 Beijing National Stadium
 - 2.2 Transport
 - 2.3 Marketing
 - 2.4 Broadcasting
 - 2.4.1 Online coverage
- 3 Torch relay
- 4 The Games

- 4.1 Opening ceremony
- 4.2 Closing ceremony
- 4.3 Participating NOCs
 - 4.3.1 Participation changes
- 4.4 Sports
- 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 human spaceflight mission of the Chinese space program. The mission, which included an extra-vehicular activity (EVA) carried out by crewmembers Zhai Zhigang and Liu Boming, marked the commencement of the second phase of the Chinese government's Project 921.

The Shenzhou spacecraft carrying the three crewmembers was launched September 25, 2008, by a Long March 2F (CZ-2F) rocket which lifted off from the Jiuquan Satellite Launch Center at 21:10 CST. The mission lasted three days, after which the craft landed safely in Siziwang Banner in central Inner Mongolia 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
 - 1.1 Backup crew
- 2 Mission highlights
 - 2.1 China's first three-person mission
 - 2.2 China's first spacewalk
 - 2.3 Solid lubricant experiment
 - 2.4 Release of miniaturized satellite
 - 2.5 Data relay satellite
- 3 Mission support and preparation
 - 3.1 Subsystems
 - 3.2 Water training pool
 - 3.3 Modifications to the CZ-2F carrier rocket
 - 3.4 Modifications to the spacecraft
 - 3.5 New space tracking ships
 - 3.6 Toilets
 - 3.7 Project management
- 4 Controversies
 - 4.1 False news report
 - 4.2 Passing close to the International Space Station
- 5 See also
- 6 References

Space Exploration

Space exploration is the use of astronomy and space technology to explore outer space.^[1] Physical exploration of space is conducted both by human spaceflights and by robotic spacecraft.

While the observation of objects in space—known as astronomy—pre-dates reliable recorded history, it was the development of large liquid-fueled rocket engines 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 Space Shuttle program, and from competition to cooperation as with the International Space Station.

From the 1990s onwards, private interests began promoting space tourism and now private space exploration of the Moon (see GLXP).

In the 2000s, China initiated a successful manned spaceflight program, 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
 - 1.2 First human flights
 - 1.3 Key people in early space exploration
- 2 Future of Space Exploration
 - 2.1 Private Ventures
- 3 Targets of exploration
 - 3.1 Astrobiology
 - 3.2 The Sun
 - 3.3 Mercury
 - 3.4 Venus
 - 3.5 Earth
 - 3.6 Earth's Moon
 - 3.7 Mars
 - 3.7.1 Phobos
 - 3.8 Jupiter
 - 3.9 Saturn
 - 3.10 Uranus
 - 3.11 Neptune
 - 3.12 Pluto
 - 3.13 Asteroids
- 4 Rationales
- 5 Opposition

- 6 Related topics
 - 6.1 Spaceflight
 - 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 earthquake's epicenter in Wenchuan County, Sichuan province. The epicenter was 80 kilometers (50 mi) west-northwest of Chengdu, 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 Beijing and Shanghai — 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 CST) 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 1976 Tangshan earthquake, which killed at least 240,000 people, and the strongest since the 1950 Chayu earthquake in the country, which registered at 8.5 on Richter magnitude scale.

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
 - 1.1 Extent of tremors
 - 1.2 Aftershocks
 - 1.3 Intensities and damage area
 - 1.4 Tectonics
- 2 Immediate aftermath
- 3 Casualties
 - 3.1 Property damage
 - 3.2 Later Casualties
 - 3.2.1 Government data
- 4 Rescue efforts
 - 4.1 The "quake lakes"
- 5 Reactions within China

- 6 Collapse of schools
- 7 Foreign and domestic aid
 - 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 Sanlu powder milk	Fonterra
9/15/2008	Melamine was detected from products of Haoniu Dairy of Gansu Province. Haoniu is a partner of Fonterra Sanlu, and Xinhua News follow Fonterra Sanlu production guideline	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	Andrew Ferrier
9/14/2008	Reporting and Discussion of the case was banned by The Propaganda Department of the CCP, except that by the official Xinhua News Agency	Internet Cache
9/13/2008	hundreds of thousands little kids flooded hospitals around the country to do ultrasound scan, which revealed 20-30% had developed varies stages kidney stones.	Jinling Evening Daily, Dr. Feng's Blog
9/13/2008	Health Minister Gao Qiang held press conference, and denied any government awareness of the case before 9/8/2008	Health Minister Gao Qiang
9/12/2008	Evening: Health Ministry notified WHO, and launched Public Recall, 700 tons could not be traced	News Report
9/12/2008	Morning: 800 police stormed 41 dairy farms. 78 farmers were questioned and 19 were arrested for allegedly mixing melamine into milk	News Report
9/11/2008	A Gansu newspaper named Sanlu in connection with infant kidney failures	Nes Report
9/10/2008	Professor Sun Xizhao of Nanjing University wrote to newspaper questioned an Unnamed Milk Powder caused infant kidney failure. The same day Sanlu denied any knowledge of it	News Report, Sanlu website
9/9/2008	Health Ministry ordered recall	Health Ministry Gao Qiang
9/9/2008	Baidu refused to honor the 'protection status' agreement when requested by Sanlu	Baidu
9/8/2008	Prime Minister Helen Clark met with cabinet regarding the situation and ordered Fonterra to notify Beijing	Helen Clark
9/8/2008	Sanlu submit a written report to Hebei Province, Health Minister Gao Qiang claimed that this was the first time Sanlu notified government officials of any level	Health Minister Gao Qiang
9/5/2008	New Zealand Prime Minister was informed of the situation	Prime Minister Helen Clark
8/27/2008	Dr. Zhang Wen of Huazhong University of Science and	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	
8/17/2008	National top food safety agency AQSIG visited Sanlu but didn't make any decision	News Report
8/14/2008	New Zealand Embassy in Beijing was informed of the crisis	Helen Clark
8/11/2008	A memo from Sanlu's PR Consulting Firm Beijing Lantaotonglue noted numerous negative reference of Sanlu with connection to infants kidney failures. The memo laid out 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	FAX from Lantaotonglue
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 melamine	Tian Wenhua, Chairwoman of Sanlu
8/4/2008	Sanlu stopped 2,000 tons of powder milk from entering market, and secretly withdrew 8080 tons of powder milk contaminated with Melamine through the Health Ministry	Tian Wenhua, Chairwoman of Sanlu
8/3/2008	Sanlu alerted the situation to the City of Shijiazhuang, Hebei Province and Health Ministry	Tian Wenhua, Chairwoman of Sanlu
8/2/2008	Fonterra learnt of the situation	Fonterra
8/1/2008	Melamine was detected and documented	Sanlu, Tian Wenhua, Sun Dongdong, Professor of Beijing University and expert of the Health Ministry
7/23/2008	Hunan TV Metropolitan Channel reported a sudden alarming rise in infant kidney stones cases. In one hospital received 16 infants with severe kidney stones. The TV program revealed 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	Hunan TV
7/1/2008	Sanlu launched investigation into infants kidney failures after drinking Sanlu infant formula	Tian Wenhua
2/2/2008	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 seriousness of the issue, the consumer accepted an exchange of 4 boxes of Sanlu powder milk. He posted his story on a popular Internet community Tianya. This is the first documented exposure of this scandal.	Internet Cache, Wu Yuanping (the consumer)
3/1/2008	Reports of mass infant kidney failure started arriving Sanlu, Sanlu asked government agency's help to test dairy products	Sanlu

- 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
- 5/8/2007** 399 samples of export food products and 800 domestic food products, and failed to find any trace of melamine. AQSIQ AQSIQ hail the result a testimony of excellent food quality in China.
- AQSIQ ordered all food export must go through melamine
- 4/20/2007** tests AQSIQ
- US FDA declared Melamine was detected in pet food
- 3/30/2007** imported from China. Hundreds of cats and little dogs became news Report sick or dead after eating import pet food.
- New Zealand based Fonterra Acquired 43% of Sanlu, Fonterra
- 11/25/2005** has 3 representations on Sanlu's 7 persons board Public Record, Fonterra
- 900 packages of Sanlu yoghurt were confiscated by Tianjin
- 7/5/2005** authorities for post-dating production date News Report
- 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 has 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)]

Amendment XIV [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

Defendants 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 President and Vice President of the United States are indirect elections in which voters cast ballots for a slate of electors of the U.S. Electoral College, who in turn directly elect the President and Vice President. They occur quadrennially (the count beginning with the year 1792) on Election Day, the first Tuesday after the first Monday of November.[1] The most recent election occurred on November 4, 2008, with the next one scheduled for November 6, 2012.

The process is regulated by a combination of both federal and state laws. Each state is allocated a number of Electoral College electors equal to the number of its Senators and Representatives in the U.S. Congress. [2] Additionally, Washington, D.C. 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.S. Constitution, each state legislature 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 unpledged elector or faithless elector – they vote for their designated candidates and their votes are certified by Congress in early January. The Congress is the final judge of the electors; the last serious dispute was in United States presidential election, 2000.

The nomination process, including the primary elections and the nominating conventions, were never specified in the Constitution, and were instead developed by the states and the political parties.

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. Democrat Barack Obama, the junior United States Senator from Illinois, won decisively, defeating Republican Party nominee, John McCain, the senior United States Senator from Arizona. Incumbent Republican President George W. Bush's policies and McCain's support for them, in both foreign and domestic matters, were key issues throughout the campaign. Domestic policy and the economy eventually emerged as the main themes in the last few months of the election campaign, particularly after the onset of the 2008 economic crisis. 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 quadrennial United States presidential election. The selected electors from each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia voted for President and Vice President of the United States on December 15, 2008. Those votes will be tallied before a joint session of Congress on January 8, 2009, thus making the projected electoral votes official, barring any faithless electors.

The 2008 election was the first time in U.S. history that an African American was elected president, and the first time a Roman Catholic 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 1952 that neither the incumbent president nor the incumbent vice president was a candidate in the general election and the first time since the 1928 election 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
 - 2.1 Democratic nomination
 - 2.2 Republican nomination
 - 2.3 Party conventions
- 3 General election campaign
 - 3.1 Campaign Issues
 - 3.2 Presidential and vice-presidential debates
 - 3.3 Campaign costs
- 4 Election controversies
 - 4.1 Criticism of media coverage
- 5 Election results
 - 5.1 Election Day
 - 5.2 Grand total
 - 5.3 Popular vote
 - 5.4 Close states/districts
 - 5.5 Voter demographics
 - 5.6 Ballot access
 - 5.7 Analysis
- 6 International reaction

- 7 Opinion polling
- 8 See also
 - 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. Ferguson* served 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 [Radio in Virginia](#) 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 banking panics, and many recessions coincided with these panics. Other situations that are often called financial crises include stock market crashes and the bursting of other financial bubbles, currency crises, and sovereign defaults.

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
 - 1.1 Banking crises
 - 1.2 Speculative bubbles and crashes
 - 1.3 International financial crises
 - 1.4 Wider economic crises
- 2 Causes and consequences of financial crises
 - 2.1 Strategic complementarities in financial markets
 - 2.2 Leverage
 - 2.3 Asset-liability mismatch
 - 2.4 Regulatory failures
 - 2.5 Fraud
 - 2.6 Ecopathy
 - 2.7 Contagion
 - 2.8 Recessionary effects
- 3 Theories of financial crises
 - 3.1 World systems theory
 - 3.2 Minsky's theory
 - 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 in 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	784
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.....	794

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,力图使学生在课程学习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 (亲和力) 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 (雅各布森), 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: $C^{0-3}VC^{0-4}$

(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 “他是一位英国籍教师”。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 marrying –and moreover for coming into Hertfordshire 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 Republic.

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

B

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 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 graphological 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 may be 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 works 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 meaningless to outsiders. E.g.

“Ready?”

“Cold?”

“Engh.”

2). Casual: used between friends, acquaintances and insiders, marked by ellipsis and colloquialism, e.g.

“Sure, I can.”

“Friend of mine.”

“Been a good thing if...”

3). Consultative(商洽性): a norm for coming to terms with strangers, marked by its syntactic completeness and features of politeness, e.g.

“ May I help you?”

“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.

-
- 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 an 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(单栏单行标题), two-column-two-line-head (双栏双行标题).

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 the indented 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.

B. 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...

use of special journalistic words

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

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.

initials

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, in 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 □ 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 is 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

1). Rhythm and Rhyme

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:

- a. Iambus Iambic foot 抑扬格 ~ -
- b. Troches, trochaic foot 扬抑格 - ~
- c. Dactyl, dactylic foot 扬抑抑格 - ~ ~
- d. Anapaest, anapaestic foot 抑抑扬格 ~ ~ -

A line consists of several foets. 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

∨ - | ∨ - | ∨ - | ∨ - | ∨ - |

When you are old and gray and full of sleep,

∨ - | ∨ - | ∨ - | ∨ - | ∨ - |

And nodding by the fires, take down this book,

(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.

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. I had 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.

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.

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.

Other 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) X, 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.

Reference Books

1. Leech, Geoffrey. 1969. *A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry*. London: Longman.
2. Crystal, David and Davy, Derek. 1969. *Investigating English Style*. London: Longman.
3. Traugott, Elizabeth and Pratt, Mary. 1980. *Linguistics for Students of Literature*. New York and London: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
4. Widdowson, H. G. 1992. *Practical Linguistics*. Oxford University Press.
5. Leech, Geoffrey & Short, Michael H. *Style in Fiction*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
6. 胡壮麟, 《理论文体学》, 外语教学与研究出版社, 2000。
7. 秦秀白, 《文体学概论》, 湖南教育出版社 1986。
8. 王守元, 《英语文体要略》, 山东大学出版社, 2000。

《英国社会与文化》教学大纲

辛衍君 编写

目 录

前 言.....	799
一、概述.....	799
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	799
三、课程主要教学内容及学时分配.....	799
四、相关教学环节.....	799
五、考核方法.....	799
六、教学方法和手段.....	799
Unit One: A General Survey of the United Kingdom.....	800
Unit Two: The Government of the United Kingdom.....	801
Unit Three: Politics, Class, and Race.....	802
Unit Four: The UK Economy.....	803
Unit Five: British Literature.....	804
Unit Six: The Education System.....	805
Unit Seven: British Foreign Relations.....	806
Unit Eight: The British Media.....	807
Unit Nine: Sports in Britain.....	808
Unit Ten: Holidays and Festivals in Britain.....	809

前 言

一、概述

《英国社会与文化》是英语专业本科的一门选修课。本课程的学习旨在使学生了解英国的历史、地理、社会、经济、文化、政治、教育、宗教等方面的情况及其文化传统，促进对英语语言的深层理解和应用，拓展学生的西方文化视野。本大纲编写人员为辛衍君。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

本课程以社会、文化为纲，多方面系统地概括和介绍英国的社会与文化方面的种种特点。通过该课程的学习，学生应对英国的历史和现状有一定的了解；对英国的社会与文化有一个总体的把握，从而能从广义的文化哲学层面去审视西方文明的精髓，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，培养和提高学生的跨文化交际能力。

三、课程主要教学内容及学时分配

本课程为英语专业二年级开设的课程，时间为一学期，共 18 周，每周 2 学时，总课时为 36 学时。主要教学参考书目为：

- 1、朱永涛、王立礼主编的《英语国家社会与文化入门》，高等教育出版社
- 2、吴斐主编的《英国社会与文化》，武汉大学出版社
- 3、周宝娣主编的《主要英语国家概况》，重庆大学出版社。

四、相关教学环节

该课程采取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，力求教学内容直观、多样。课堂教学环节包括重点内容的精讲、欣赏以及分组讨论等等；课后练习环节包括课后拓展阅读、相关资料收集以及阶段论文等等。

五、考核方法

平时成绩占 30%，期末考试成绩占 70%

六、教学方法和手段

本课程的教学大体分三个层次：第一个层次为提供基本信息；第二个层次为组织学生利用所学的信息进行比较、分析和讨论；第三个层次为拓展部分，调动学生的学习兴趣，开展课外阅读，激发深入探讨英国社会与文化的學習热情。

Unit One: A General Survey of the United Kingdom

1. Introductory Questions

(1).What was the British Empire? What do you know about it?

2. Focal Points

- (1).a complicated country with a complicated name
- (2).effects of its imperial past
- (3).a member of the European Union
- (4).a multiracial society
- (5).remarkable class, regional and economic differences
- (6).the significant role of London
- (7).cultural and economic differences
- (8).cultural and economic dominance of England
- (9).invasion from the Roman Empire
- (10).settlement of the Anglo-Saxons
- (11).parliament's dominance over the throne
- (12).physical features of Scotland
- (13).cultural division between highland and lowland
- (14).union with England in 1707
- (15).strong Scottish identity
- (16).brief introduction to Wales
- (17).a history of invasions
- (18).Wales's unification with the UK
- (19).population and physical of Northern Ireland
- (20).economy of Northern Ireland
- (21).the collapse of the power-sharing mechanism
- (22).cooperation between the British and Irish governments

3. Main Topics of this Unit

- (1).England
- (2).Scotland
- (3).Wales
- (4).Northern Ireland

4. Group Discussion on Class

- (1). "British history has been a history of invasion", please illustrate this point with examples.
- (2).How does each of the invasions influence English culture?

5. Assignments

- (3). Are there any differences between England, Scotland and Wales in terms of cultural tradition?

Unit Two: The Government of the United Kingdom

1. Introductory Questions

(1).What are the characteristics of British government?

2. Focal Points

- (1).Divine right of the kings
- (2).The civil war
- (3).Magna Carta
- (4).The Great Council
- (5).The Cabinet
- (6).The Prime Minister
- (7).The Constitution
- (8).The power and functions of the Parliament
- (9).The role of the monarch
- (10).The House of Lords
- (11).The House of Commons

3. Main Topics

- (1).The Monarchy
- (2).The Parliament
- (3).The Birth of the Prime Minister and Cabinet
- (4).The British Government Today
 - A. The Constitution
 - B. Parliament
 - C. The Role of Monarchy Today
 - D. The House of Lords and the House of Commons

4. Group Discussion on Class

- (1).What is the history of English parliament? What role did the parliament play in the Civil War?
- (2).What kind of institution is the House of Lords? What role does it play in British government?

5. Assignments

- (3).Write a paper on the major characteristics and the main content of the British constitution.

Unit Three: Politics, Class, and Race

1. Introductory Questions

- (1).What do you know about the general elections?
- (2).What are the three big parties in the UK?

2. Focal Points

- (1).Importance of general elections
- (2).Formation of the government
- (3).Vote of no confidence
- (4).Procedure of the general elections
- (5).The Conservative Party
- (6).The Labor Party
- (7).Liberal Democrats
- (8).Recent political trends in the UK
- (9).Margaret Thatcher
- (10).Class system in the British society
- (11).Upper middle-class and lower middle-class
- (12).The hereditary aristocracy
- (13).Oxbridge
- (14).Ethnic relations in Britain

3. Main Topics

- (1).General Elections
- (2).The Political Parties
- (3).Recent Political Trends
- (4).Current Issues
- (5).Class
- (6).Race

4. Group Discussion on Class

- (1).What are some of the recent political trends in the UK? Are these trends more democratic or undemocratic?
- (2).How are the people in the UK divided into different classes? What are some of the main features in the division? Is the class system similar to that of the United States?

5. Assignments

- (1).Ethnic relations in the UK

Unit Four: The UK Economy

1. Introductory Questions

- (1).What do you know about UK economy?

2. Focal Points

- (1).Absolute decline and relative decline of British economy
- (2).The main sectors of the UK economy
- (3).Primary industries
- (4).Secondary industries
- (5).Tertiary industries/ service industries
- (6).Agriculture
- (7).Energy production
- (8).The off shore oil industry
- (9).The manufacturing industry
- (10).The aerospace industry

3. Main Topics

- (1).Absolute Decline and Relative Decline
- (2).Recent History
- (3). The Current UK Economy
- (4).Case Study: The Aerospace Industry

4. Group Discussion on Class

- (1).What are the three main areas in national economies? Describe the development of each of the three areas in the UK economy.

5. Assignments

- (1).Define “absolute and relative decline” in the UK economy.

Unit Five: British Literature

1. Introductory Questions

(1).Can you name some of the famous British novelists and their master pieces?

2. Focal Points

- (1).Beowulf
- (2).The Canterbury Tales
- (3).Stories about King Arthur
- (4).William Shakespeare
- (5).John Milton
- (6).Romantic Poets of the 19th century
- (7).The Bronte sisters
- (8).Charles Dickens
- (9).Sir Walter Scott
- (10).Robert Louis Stevenson
- (11).Modernism
- (12).Joseph Conrad
- (13).Virginia Woolf
- (14).D.H. Lawrence
- (15).E.M Foster

3. Main Topics

- (1).Early writing
- (2).Elizabethan Drama
- (3).The 17th Century
- (4).The 18th Century
- (5).The Romantic Period
- (6).The 19th Century Novel
- (7).20th Century Literature

4. Group Discussion on Class

(1).Do you think Elizabethan Drama occupies a significant position in British literature? Who is the most important figure in Elizabethan Drama? What are some of his well known plays?

5. Assignments

(1).What is Modernism and what is Postmodernism? Illustrate your points with specific writers or their books as examples.

Unit Six: The Education System

1. Introductory Questions

- (1).What are the purposes of the British education system?

2. Focal Points

- (1).The relationship between education and social class
- (2).The influences of the Church on schooling
- (3).Comprehensive schools
- (4).The National Curriculum
- (5).Public schools
- (6).Old universities
- (7).The Open University

3. Main Topics

- (1).Introduction
- (2).History
- (3).The Present Education System
- (4).Higher Education

4. Group Discussion on Class

- (1).How does the British education system reflect social class?

5. Assignments

- (1).What is the Open University in Britain?

Unit Seven: British Foreign Relations

1. Introductory Questions

(1).What and how did the British empire end?

2. Focal Points

(1).Foreign policy influenced by its history and geopolitical traits

(2).Long-term physical separation from the European continent

(3).The involvement of the Foreign and Commonwealth Office the Treasury

(4).The permanent member of the UN Security Council the member of the EU

(5).The member of the Commonwealth

(6).The special relationship with the United States

(7).The presence of the superpower bases in the Britain in participation in NATO

3. Main Topics

(1)British Then and Now

(2).How Foreign Policy Is Made

(3).Britain and International Institutions

(4).British and the United States

(5).British Security and Defense Policy

4. Group Discussion on Class

(1).What are the foundations of Britain's foreign policy?

5. Assignments

(1).Why does Britain have a "special relationship" with the United States? Does the relationship still exist?

Unit Eight: The British Media

1. Introductory Questions

(1).Have you ever listened to BBC broadcasting? What program do you like best?

2. Focal Points

(1).Popularity and functions of the media

(2).The quality press

(3).The *Observer*

(4).The *Times*

(5).The *Guardian*

(6).The *Telegraph*

(7).The *Financial Times*

(8).Tabloids

(9).Television and radio

(10).The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC)

(11).The Independent Television Commission

3. Main Topics

(1).British Newspapers

(2).The Broadcast Media

4. Group Discussion on Class

(1).What are some of the characteristics of British newspaper culture?

5. Assignments

(1).How does the BBC operate? How is it different from American broadcasting system?

Unit Nine: Sports in Britain

1. Introductory Questions

(1).What do you know about British sport?

2. Focal Points

(1).Football

(2). “Football hooligans”

(3).FA

(4).Tennis

(5).Wimbledon

(6).Cricket

(7).Golf

(8).Horse racing

(9).The Grand National

(10).The Royal Ascot

(11).Hunting

3. Main Topics

(1).Football

(2).Tennis

(3).Cricket

(4).Golf

(5).Horse racing, Hunting and Equestrianism

4. Group Discussion on Class

(1).Find some examples from the text to demonstrate how Christian Church has influenced the sports and leisure activities of the British?

5. Assignments

(1).Why is cricket very English? Why does the cricket associated with a set of English values?

Unit Ten: Holidays and Festivals in Britain

1. Introductory Questions

(1).Do you know how the British people celebrate Christmas?

2. Focal Points

(1).Christmas

(2).Three traditions of Christmas

(3).Boxing Day

(4).Easter

(5).Bonfire Night

(6).The Battle of the Boyne

(7).Orange Marches

(8).St Patrick's Day

(9).Hogmanay

(10).Burns Night

(11).Halloween

(12).The Eisteddfod

3. Main Topics

(1).Religious Holidays

(2). National Holidays

(3).Holidays in the 4 Nations

4. Group Discussion on Class

(1).In what way does the holiday and the ways of celebration in Britain reflect western cultural tradition in general and British traditions in particular?

5. Assignments

(1).In what way are the Welsh people different from England, Scotland and Northern Ireland in celebrating their holidays?

《美国社会与文化》教学大纲

张立新 编写

目 录

前 言.....	813
一、概述.....	813
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	813
三、教学基本内容及学时分配：.....	813
Chapter One Geography.....	816
Chapter Two History.....	818
Chapter Three The Government.....	821
四、教材及主要参考书.....	822

前 言

一、概述

《美国社会与文化》课是英语专业（本科）的一门专业选修课。通过本课程的学习，使学生了解美国的历史、地理、社会、经济、政治、教育、宗教、体育等方面的情况及其文化传统，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。提高学生对文化差异的敏感性、宽容性和处理文化差异的灵活性，培养学生跨文化交际能力，扩大学生的文化知识面，促进英语语言的学习和应用。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

介绍美国的地理概貌、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，有助于学生了解美利坚民族的思维方式、价值观念及生活方式，掌握美国的地理特征、重大历史事件和政治经济制度；更好地掌握和运用英语语言，加深对语言和文化理解，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。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知识。正确认识课程的性质、任务及其研究对象。全面了解课程的体系、结构，对美国社会与文化有一个总体的把握。对美国的历史和现状有一般性的了解；对美国的政治制度和教育制度有较好的认识；不断提高阅读能力，尤其提高社会科学英语书籍的阅读能力。

三、教学基本内容及学时分配：

Chapter One Geography _____ 7 课时

1.THE LAND

2.THE CLIMATE

3.THE VEGETATION

4.THE SOILS

5.THE REGIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

1)NEW ENGLAND

2)MIDDLE ATLANTIC

3)THE SOUTH

4)THE MIDWEST

5)THE SOUTHWEST

6)THE WEST

6.THE FRONTIER SPIRIT

Chapter Two History _____ 7 课时

1.NATIVE AMERICANS

2.THE NEW SETTLEMENTS

3.THE FOUNDING OF THE NATION

4.THE WAR BETWEEN THE BROTHERS

5.THE GILDED TIMES

6.THE REFORM

7.WORLD WAR ONE

8.THE HARDEST TIMES

9.WORLD WAR II

10.THE COLD WAR

11.THE ONLY POWER

Chapter Three The Government_____ 7 课时

1.THE CONSTITUTION

2.BILL OF RIGHTS

3.LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

4.EXECUTIVE BRANCH

5.JUDICIAL BRANCH

6.THE PRESIDENCY

7.POLITICAL PARTIES AND ELECTIONS

Chapter Four Culture_____ 10 课时

1.SPORTS

1).BASEBALL

2).BASKETBALL

2. MOVIES

3. MUSIC

1).POP MUSIC

2).JAZZ

3).ROCK AND ROLL AND COUNTRY

4.THE MEDIA

1).NEWSPAPERS

2).MAGAZINES

3). RADIO

4).TELEVISION

5.Cities with the Largest Population 1994

6.National Flag and National Anthem

7. ATTS

1).The Globalization of Art

2).What Is An American Artist?

3).The Impact of Electronic Media

4).The Changing Nature of Public Art

5).The Expanded Role of the Museum

Chapter Five Education_____ 5 课时

1.MANY CHOICES

2.EDUCATION, A LOCAL MATTER

3.CHANGING STANDARDS

4.LOCIAL ISSUES IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

5.A SNAPSHOT OF AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION
6.LIBERAL OR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION?

共计 36 课时

具体内容：

Chapter One Geography

1. THE LAND

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.

2. 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.

3. THE VEGETATION

For most of the inhabited portions of America today, The "natural" vegetation is seldom found now. In the Southeast, for example, the original mixed broadleaf and needleleaf forests were cut and replaced by the economically more important needleleaf forests. The grasses of the plains and prairies are mostly European imports. Their native American forests are gone either because they offered an inferior grass for farm animals or because they could not withstand the invading of modern humanity and its imported weeds. Most of what climax vegetation remains is in the West and North.

4. THE SOILS

Most soils of the major agricultural zones of the eastern United States are moderately to strongly acidic(酸性). Lime (石灰) must be added periodically to neutralize that acidity before these soils can be used to produce most row crops.

The U.S. Department of Agriculture has developed a soil classification system that indicates the most important soil types for an area of the country. *Aridisols*, (旱成土) found mostly in the Southwest, gain their name from arid. These soils of dry climates are low in organic content and have little agricultural value. *Spodosols* (灰土) generally develop in cool, moist climates, although they are found in northern

Florida. They are quite acidic and low in nutrients (有营养的), and are of agricultural value only for acid-loving crops. *Tundra soils*, which also have little agricultural value, are associated with a cold, moist climate such as Alaska. The soil is shallow, and with a subsurface of frozen ground. *Highland soils*, found in West Virginia, Utah, and Alaska, are little developed and agriculturally worthless.

5. THE REGIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

New England, made up of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island.

The Middle Atlantic, comprising New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland.

The South, which runs from Virginia south to Florida and west as far as central Texas. This region also includes West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, and parts of Missouri and Oklahoma.

The Midwest, a broad collection of states sweeping westward from Ohio to Nebraska and including Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, Illinois, Minnesota, Iowa, parts of Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Kansas, and eastern Colorado.

The Southwest, made up of western Texas, portions of Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, and the southern interior part of California.

The West, comprising Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, Utah, California, Nevada, Idaho, Oregon, Washington, Alaska, and Hawaii.

Chapter Two History

1. 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."

2. 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.

3. 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.

4. 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).

5. 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 removal 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)."

6.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.

7.WORLD WAR ONE

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.

8.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."

9.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.

10.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 (围困) 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) .

11.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.

Chapter Three The Government

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.

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.

6.THE PRESIDENCY

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.

Chapter Four Culture

1.SPORTS

2. MOVIES

3. MUSIC

4.THE MEDIA

5.Cities with the Largest Population 1994

6.National Flag and National Anthem

7. ATTS

Chapter Five Education

1.MANY CHOICES

2.EDUCATION, A LOCAL MATTER

3.CHANGING STANDARDS

4.LOCIAL ISSUES IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

5.A SNAPSHOT OF AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION

6.LIBERAL OR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION?

四、教材及主要参考书

- [1] 张奎武. 英美概况. 吉林: 吉林科学技术出版社.2000年3月
- [2] 王恩铭. 美国社会与文化. 上海: 上海外语教育出版社.2003年6月
- [3] 周宝娣. 主要英语国家概况. 重庆: 重庆大学出版社.2004年8月
- [4] Ethel Tiersky ad Martin, Tiersky,
The U.S.A.
Customs and Institutions
New Jersey, Prentice Hall Regent, 1990

《西方文化入门》教学大纲

张洪芹 编写

目 录

前 言.....	825
一、概述.....	825
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	825
三、教学基本内容及学时分配.....	825
Chapter One Culture in Ancient Greece.....	828
Chapter 2 Culture in Ancient Rome.....	829
Chapter 3 Jewish Culture and the Old Testament.....	830
Chapter 4 Christianity and the New Testament.....	832
Chapter 5 The Middle Ages and Germanic Culture.....	834
Chapter 6 Culture during the Renaissance.....	836
Chapter 7 Culture during the Enlightenment.....	839
Chapter 8 Romanticism, Realism and Naturalism.....	841
Chapter 9 Ideology and Philosophy during the 18th and 19th Centuries.....	842
Chapter 10 The Modernist Movement and Literary Achievement.....	843
Chapter 11 Historical Development of the Modern Age.....	845
Chapter 12 Artistic Development in the 20th Century.....	846
四、教学相关环节.....	847
五、参考资料.....	847

前 言

一、概述

通过全面、扼要地介绍和评介西方文化的主要内容，让学生接触和了解西方社会在文明进程中，在文化、思想、社会与政治制度、艺术、文学、科学、技术等各个方面所取得主要成就，这些文化成就所取得的成因和其内涵，以及这些成就何以对人类社会的进步产生深远的影响。同时希望通过这门课程的学习，能够进一步激发学生对西方文化的兴趣，能够自觉更广泛、更深入去学习和探索西方文化，了解和借鉴其长处，为中华文明的崛起和发扬光大尽一己之力。通过中西文化的对比，认识中西文化的长短优劣，正确认识和反思中国传统文化，进而培养面向世界的文化意识。

二、课程教学目的和基本要求

《西方文化入门》是本科英语专业高年级的一门专业知识课，供英语专业高年级学生选修。课程教学主要目的在于使学生了解西方国家的历史、地理、社会、经济、政治、教育等方面的情况及其文化传统，开拓学生的知识视野，丰富和完善学生的人文知识结构，加强学生的人文修养，增强学生对文化差异的敏感性、宽容性和处理文化差异的灵活性，培养学生跨文化交际能力，提高大学生综合素质。

《西方文化入门》教学应达到以下基本要求：了解西方各主要文明时期发展的基本脉络及主要文化特征，形成这种文化现象的历史原因及其影响；熟知各个文化时期一些主要文化领域内的代表性人物和代表性作品；运用图书馆、互联网和工具书查找教材上没有或不够详尽的相关资料，使学生拥有较多的背景知识，提高理解能力，从而达到通过文化来更好的学习语言的目的。

三、教学基本内容及学时分配

《西方文化入门》主要涉及西方历史、文学、艺术、哲学、宗教等文化领域，包括该文化的源头（古希腊—罗马文化和犹太—基督教文化），该文化的发展（蛮族文化，教会的发展），其形成法律文化市场变化（文艺复兴、启蒙运动、工业文化等）以及代表西方文化的思想理论，如浪漫主义、现实主义、自然主义、新古典主义、现代派和后现代派。乌托邦思想、德国古典哲学、马克思主义、达尔文主义、实证主义、功利主义、实用主义、弗洛伊德的精神分析等。

《西方文化入门》共分 12 个专题：古希腊文化、古罗马文化、犹太文化、基督教文化、日耳曼文化、文艺复兴时期的文化、启蒙运动时期的文化、浪漫主义+现实主义+自然主义思想、十八—十九世纪欧洲的社会和哲学思想、现代主义文化及二十世纪西方文化。这 12 个专题包含了西方文化的产生、传播、发展，它们汇合成西方文化的源和流。

学时分配：该课程共开一学期，36 学时。讲授采用专题讲座方式，采用教师讲授与学生参与分析相结合的方式，围绕以下中心题目进行扩展，

- | | |
|--|------|
| Chapter 1 Culture in Ancient Greece | 3 学时 |
| 1. The Early Period of Greek Civilization | |
| 2. The Development and End of Greek Civilization | |
| 3. Greek Culture: Greek mythology, religion, philosophy and literature (Socrates, Plato and Aristotle) | |
| Chapter 2 Culture in Ancient Rome | 3 学时 |
| 1. The Historical Development and Social and Economic Conditions | |
| 2. Cultural Achievements: Myth, Religion, Literature, History, Philosophy, Art and Architecture | |

Chapter 3. Jewish Culture and the Old Testament	3 学时
1 Jewish History	
2 Jewish Art and Literature	
3 Judaism and Jewish Festivals	
4 Introduction to the Old Testament	
Chapter 4 Christianity and The New Testament	4 学时
1. The Background of the Birth of Christianity	
2. The Development of Christianity	
3. The Principal Doctrines of Christianity	
4. The Christian Schism and its Principal Factions	
5. An introduction to The New Testament	
Chapter 5. The Middle Ages and Germanic Culture	3 学时
1. The Setting of the Middle Age	
2. The Formation and Development of German Culture	
3. Byzantine Culture	
4. Medieval Social Ideology	
5. Literature, Art and Politics	
Chapter 6 Culture during the Renaissance	3 学时
1. Background to the Renaissance	
2. Source, features and significance	
3. Cultural achievements of the Renaissance	
4. Social Ideology and Religious Reformation	
5. Development of Natural Science	
6. Beginning of Modern Philosophy	
7. Classicism and the Cultural Salon	
Chapter 7 Culture during the Enlightenment	2 学时
1. Background	
2. Empiricist Influences from Britain	
3. Representative Figures and Their Ideas	
4. Literature and the Significance of the Enlightenment	
Chapter 8 Romanticism, Realism and Naturalism	2 学时
1. Romanticism: Characteristics, the Romanticist School and its Achievement	
2. Realism: Definition and Performance	
3. Naturalism: Novels and Naturalist art	
Chapter 9 Ideology and Philosophy During the 18th and 19th Centuries	2 学时
1. English Utilitarianism	
2. German Social and Philosophical Ideas	
3. French Utopian Socialism	
Chapter 10 The modernist Movement and Literary Achievement	4 学时
1. General Condition	
2. Modernist Trend of Literature	
3. Modernist Literature in UK and Other Countries	

4. Literary and Cultural Criticism of Post-Modernism	
Chapter 11 Historical Development of the Modern Age	4 学时
1. Important Theories and Ideological Schools	
2. Later Changes in Christian Ideas	
3. The later Philosophical Schools	
Chapter 12 Artistic Development in the 20th Century	3 学时
1 Background of Modern Art	
2 Modern Achievements in Painting and Architecture	
3 Popular Culture	

Chapter One Culture in Ancient Greece

1. The Early Period of Greek Civilization

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.

Cretan culture(克利特岛人的) contributed much to the development of Mycenaean(美锡尼人的)culture initially established by the Achaeans who had moved from elsewhere into the middle and south of Greece. At that time the artefacts developed by Mycenaean were far beyond those by Cretans. At the end of Mycenaean civilization, the Trojan War had helped to produce two famous epics, *Odyssey*(奥德赛) and *Iliad*(伊利亚特), which were initially created in the 11th centuries BC.

2. The Development and End of Greek Civilization

Greek civilization clearly demonstrated strong signs of vigorous and dynamic development in its long history. These marvellous 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.

3. 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, Plato and Aristotle. Socrates has a reputation for irony and a sense of humour, Plato developed models for an ideal state in his *Republic*, *Symposium*(论文集) 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.

Chapter 2 Culture in Ancient Rome

1. 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 favoured 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

Influenced by 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 by the Stoic and Epicurean schools. Roman philosophers provided practical explanation and application of philosophical principles, which developed the genre to some extent.

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 Colosseum, aqueducts(地下水管道) and the Pantheon(罗马万神殿).

Chapter 3 Jewish Culture and the Old Testament

1. Jewish History

Jewish history is the history of the Jewish people, faith, and culture. Jewish history encompasses nearly four thousand years and hundreds of different populations. The whole history of Jewish social and cultural development is pervaded by paradoxical historical events. In the 16th BC Jews settled on both sides of the Jordan River. The Jewish people weathered the storms of all kinds of ethnic difficulties and disasters over the long periods of being exiled from one country to another in Europe and elsewhere in the world.

2. Jewish Art and Literature

Jewish people have made remarkable cultural achievements and have produced many important figures in philosophy, literature, art and other areas of the humanities.

3. Judaism and Jewish Festivals

Jewish culture has contributed considerably to the Western historical development by providing substantial religious ingredients and many other aspects of the whole basic framework of Western society. In the early period of the Jews' settlement in Palestine, they had religious beliefs such as worship of trees, stone pillars and all kinds of natural forces. During their Babylonian Captivity(巴比伦之囚), Jews began to establish a new religion. Only from that time was monotheistic Judaism, exclusive among all the other religions and protective of its priesthood and aristocracy, finally set up.

A complete collection of all the documents left by the ancient Hebrews was compiled into a book called the *Bible*. The Judaist Bible was adopted by Christianity, which was renamed The Old Testament to distinguish it from The New Testament. The later period of Judaism, had the objectives not too difficult from Christianity. Worship of the Holy Temple was no longer practiced after its ruin and the migration of the Jewish people to every corner of the world. Only Moses' *Ten Commandments* (摩西十诫) and the rabbis' interpretations of the prophet's doctrines were retained as the core of Judaism.

The Ten Commandments were God's instructions which were turned into the following commandments:

- i. You shall have no other god;
- ii. You shall not speak the name of the Lord lightly;
- iii. Remember the Lord's Day so as to keep it holy. For six days you shall work and do all your labour, but the seventh day is consecrated to God:
- iv. Honour your father and your mother;
- v. You shall not kill;
- vi. You shall not commit impurity;
- vii. You shall not steal;
- viii. You shall not lie;
- ix. You shall have no impure desire;
- x. You shall not covet what belongs to your neighbour

4. Introduction to the Old Testament

The Bible of Judaism is the same as the The Old Testament of Christianity and so totals 39 books and falls into three parts: Pentateuch(摩西五书), Prophets(《先知书》), and Hagiographa(《圣录》) and Apocrypha(旧约·伪经).

Pentateuch is the first part of The Old Testament and consists of five books, which are *Genesis*(创世纪), *Exodus*(出埃及记), *Leviticus*(利未记), *Numbers*(民数记) and *Deuteronomy*(申命记). It includes history, biography, religious doctrine, law, prophecies, 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 prophecies, 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.

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*(前先知). *The Latter Prophet*(后先知)s consist of three principal prophets and twelve minor prophets.

Chapter 4 Christianity and the New Testament

1. The Background of the Birth of Christianity

The earliest Christian document is *The Revelation of John* (圣约翰启示录) 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 2nd 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 “epistles” or Christian doctrines, embodying the central beliefs of early Christianity *The Gospels* (福音书), *The Messengers’ Letters* (信徒短信) 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, slaves 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.

3. The Principal Doctrines of Christianity

In the history of Christianity, there are two documents which contributed much to an accurate definition and unified knowledge of Christianity, namely *The Nicene Creed* (尼西亚教义) and *The Orchiland Agreement* (奥吉兰教规).

The Nicene Creed was passed at the Nicaea Council hosted by Constantine the Great and the delegates. The Nicene Creed has been binding on all Christians ever since. It actually describes the fundamental beliefs of the Christian faith.

In AD 529, the Orchiland Council (奥吉兰会议) agreed to what Saint Augustine proposed about sin and redemption. The following document was a result of that council. Because of the sin committed by the first man, one can not make any free choice. Hence if without God’s benefaction, no one could willingly love God or trust God or offer kind service for God... All those who have received baptism and received God’s benefaction have the sight and duty, with Jesus; help and cooperation, to do everything, which could save the souls if he laboured devotedly.

4. The Christian Schism and its Principal Factions

In 1054, the Christian church in Constantinople refused to accept the supremacy of the Roman Pope and was thus excommunicated by the latter. Christianity was initially divided into two parts: the Roman Catholic Church and the Orthodox Eastern Church. The second split took place in the 1520s, Christianity fell into three parts: the Roman Catholic Church, the Orthodox Eastern Church and Protestantism, all of which claiming true representatives of Christianity.

Some of their principal assertions are Catholicism, Eastern Orthodoxy and Protestantism. Roman Catholicism has its own view and interpretation of the proper relation the church and the state, and of

other Christian traditions based upon Roman Catholic doctrine. To a certain extent, this doctrine is similar to that held by orthodox Christians of every label and consists of a belief in *The Bible*. Roman Catholic doctrine appears to go beyond the shared beliefs, which constitute the doctrine of each of the Christian groups. Eastern Orthodoxy(东正教) and Roman Catholicism(天主教) are largely in agreement, while Protestantism differs from both Eastern Orthodoxy and Roman Catholicism on several issues. For example, Roman Catholic theology defines and numbers the sacraments differently from Orthodox theology; but, over against Protestantism, Roman Catholic doctrine insists, as does Eastern Orthodoxy, upon the centrality of the seven sacraments(圣事)baptism(洗礼), confirmation(坚振), Eucharist(圣体), extreme unction(给临终者涂油礼), penance, matrimony(婚配), and holy orders as channels of divine grace.

5. An introduction to 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 manuscript 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*(使徒行书), *Letters*(短信), and *The Revelations of John*.

Chapter 5 The Middle Ages and Germanic Culture

1. 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. The Formation and Development of German Culture

The Carolingian (王朝的) culture was developed under the influence of the Christian Church. This was first demonstrated in the monopoly of education by the Church. Those who received education were mostly priests and monks. Many of the teaching staff in parish schools was priests. The language used in teaching was Latin and the seven subjects, seven arts, namely, grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music. Carolingian literature, education and culture in general advanced through borrowing from late Roman and contemporary Byzantine models and techniques. Artists added decorations to enhance books for priests to use in their religious services to enhance their importance. In the Roman basilica style, these illuminations usually demonstrated what artists felt and thought, rather than what they saw. However, Charlemagne's chapel at Aachen borrowed from the architectural style of the Byzantine imperial palace in its octagonal concept. This highlighted the imperial nobility and majesty of the structure by joining the imageries of heaven and earth.

The cultural tradition of Greece and Rome was well preserved and even continued in a way, but the development of the Eastern Roman Empire was based on its absorbing some eastern culture. Therefore the cultural significance became more complex and sophisticated than its predecessor Roman culture. Among the foremost cultural accomplishments of the Eastern Church was the founding of the University of Constantinople whose head, Leo, and his successors turned it into a successful institute of learning in literary and religious subjects. Its inheritance and development of the tradition of classical culture was demonstrated in many respects, such as the founding of Neoplatonism, Platonic and Aristotelian philosophy with eastern mysticism. The principal books of this period included *Tours among the Oriental countries*, *The History of the Justinian War*, and *The Secret History*. The architecture of Byzantium(拜占庭) was quite characteristic of both the classical ages and that of the eastern countries.

3. Byzantine Culture

There was a glorious tradition of Byzantine historiography, which was maintained by a number of figures like George Acropolites, historian of the Empire of Nicaea, George Pachymeres, Gregoras and finally, Emperor John VI Cantacuzenus, who wrote his memoirs after

abdicated in 1354.

4. Medieval Social Ideology

In the early and middle periods of the Medieval Age the dominant scholarly studies, more emphases were placed on the defence of the divinity. Ideas concerning all kinds in feudal societies were associated with religious theologies. A major principle was to regard all human life and social phenomena as being created and controlled by God. The development of productive forces and scientific and technological advances in the middle and later periods of the Middle Ages, thus prepared the ideological conditions for the Renaissance with its resurgence of art and literature. Scholasticism owed its birth to having provided a means to resist anti-Christian tendencies.

Scholasticism was initiated by the Medieval theologians to defend and consolidate the status of Christianity, which had been threatened by increasing suspicion among both its disciples and the ordinary people. The scholars used Plato and Aristotle's philosophies to explain Christian doctrines. Scholasticism maintained holiness of the Christian doctrines by meticulous reasoning and inference. Scholasticism regarded the *Bible* as the only source of absolute truth, making reason submit to religious faith. In opposition to Scholasticism were the ideas of materialism, represented by men such as Averroes and Roger Bacon. Averroes denied the absurd ideas of religion and asserted that philosophy should adopt rational thinking as its basis. Another representative was the Englishman Roger Bacon, whose interest lay in mathematics and experimental sciences, especially optics. He made a distinction between philosophy and theology, and between rational and philosophy on the one hand and various religious beliefs on the other.

5. Literature, Art and Politics

Medieval literature was represented in poems, particularly in hymns expressing the intense religious feelings of love of God. Foremost of these literary works were epics like *The Song of Roland*(French), *The Song of the Cid*(Spanish), *The Song of the Niebelungs*(German). Italian poem such as Dante's *Divine Comedy* was an epoch-making event. The artistic achievements of the Medieval Age mostly related to religious representations. This was evidenced in the architecture, sculpture and painting of the period. Gothic buildings were in a phase of rapid development and remained the major style in most of European countries into the 16th century and onwards. Typical buildings were Notre Dame Cathedral in Paris, Cologne Cathedral(科隆大教堂) in Germany, Canterbury and Lincoln Cathedrals in Britain, and Milan Cathedral in Italy.

Chapter 6 Culture during the Renaissance

1. 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(查理曼大帝 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.

3. 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*(岩间圣母), *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(米开朗琪罗). 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 (提香·韦切利奥) (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.

4. 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(但丁), Petrarch(彼特拉克), Boccaccio(薄伽丘) and Machiavelli(马基雅维里).

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.

5. Development of Natural Science

The Renaissance witnessed the development of natural science especially in the field of scientific revolution by Copernicus(1473-1543) and in scientific achievement by Galileo and Newton. Copernicus put forward the hypothesis that the earth and the other planets orbited about the sun and that the earth was not therefore at the centre of the universe. Galileo's achievements include the discovery of the isochronisms of the pendulum and the demonstration that acceleration of a falling body does not depend on its mass. He constructed telescopes and discovered Jupiter's satellites and observed the sunspots and the mountainous nature of the moon. He also experimented with the concept of flying. Isaac Newton developed the theory of differential calculus. Besides he studied diffraction and interference of light waves and invented the reflecting telescope. Finally, Newton's analysis of the so-called mutual perturbations of the planets, caused by their individual gravitational fields predicted the natural collapse of the solar system unless God acted to set things right again. Other scientists included William Gilbert (1544-1603) discovered and demonstrated the circulation of blood.

6. Beginning of Modern Philosophy

Francis Bacon was the founder of materialism and experimental science. His

books of Essays, *Instauratio Magna*(伟大复兴), a project for the complete reorganization of human knowledge, claimed knowledge is power. 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*(方法论), he divests himself of all previously held beliefs "I am thinking, therefore I exist."

7. Classicism and the Cultural Salon

Classicism tends naturally to be expressed by the adoption of certain classical forms, such as the alexandrine, the heroic couplet, and the ode in association with verse, in addition to the forms other than literature, like the Palladian style and in painting, the idealized landscape of Claude and Poussin. In respect of language features, classicist drama is also distinguished by its moral irony, formal beauty as well as brevity and understatement.

The cultural salon was a meeting place for men of letters and the nobility and flourished as an established institution to the mutual advantage of both from 1617 until 1665. The guests at Catherine de Vivonne's salon included quite a number of notables of the time and the discussion was an assembly of wits, artists, writers or other men and women of society, who gathered to exchange ideas about various kinds of cultural subjects. The enthusiastic operation of the cultural salon received much attention and support from the French court. Other kinds of salons appeared afterwards such as a club under the leadership of Louis XIII (1629) and the French Academy (1637). Besides, drama was the most vigorous and popular cultural activity, represented by Moliere, whose famous comedy was *Tartuffe*(答尔丢夫).

Chapter 7 Culture during the Enlightenment

1. Background

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, Louisiana, 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.

2. Empiricist Influences from Britain

Beginning from the Renaissance, amongst the intellectuals there was a preoccupation with the natural world. The thinkers of the Enlightenment processed to utilize what they knew of the realities of nature to attempt an empirical account of the structure of the human mind. Ultimately the school of so-called British Empiricism responded to the practical needs of the time. Such views dominated this aspect of Enlightenment philosophy in Europe for a considerable period, at last up to the time of Kant. In contrast to the metaphysical and rationalistic philosophy of the late Renaissance, that of the Enlightenment was epistemological and empiricist in emphasis. The representatives of empiricists are generally believed to be John Locke, George Berkeley, and David Hume.

3. Representative Figures and Their Ideas

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(伏尔泰) 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(孟德斯鸠) 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.

4. 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).

The profound repudiation of royal monarchy and Christian Church during the Enlightenment went far beyond those made by the Renaissance in both breadth and depth. The ideas of social equality, human right and liberty and atheism had spread all over France and Europe, greatly shaking the foundation of royal autocracy and its status in people's minds. The Enlightenment provides the theoretical and ideological preparation for the arrival of the French Revolution. The revolutionary and ideological principles they elucidated and interpreted contributed immensely to the French Revolution in its preliminary stage. The core ideas in the Enlightenment were the bourgeois resistance to the feudal landlord class and the challenge of rationalism to theological ideas. The banner of liberty, equality and philanthropy was the best gift that the thinkers of the Enlightenment offered to the French Revolution. The *Encyclopaedia* had widespread influence as an expression of progressive thought and served, in effect, as an intellectual prologue to the French Revolution. In this sense, one can say that without the Enlightenment's theoretical and ideological preparation, the French Revolution is beyond imagination. The *Encyclopaedia* was a showcase for representatives of the new schools of thought in all branches of intellectual activity. The work was notable for its attitude of tolerance, liberalism, and also for its innovative coverage of the trades and mechanical arts. In its skepticism, its emphasis on scientific determinism, and its criticism of the abuses perpetrated the contemporary legal, judicial, and clerical institutions. The *Encyclopaedia's* publication, opposed as it was by conservative ecclesiastics and government officials almost from the start, and meeting with Jesuit censorship and suffering the suppression of several volumes by the French Council of State (1752), nevertheless proved to be one of the most valuable books of its kind and has endured the test of time.

Chapter 8 Romanticism, Realism and Naturalism

1. 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.

The French artists characterized their work by intense linear drawings and bold contrasts of light and shade. This type of artistic style was further developed by the following generation in a genre of English Romantic landscapes represented by the works of J. M. W. Turner and John Constable. They were inclined to display a variety of transient and dramatic effects of light and colour by focusing in their landscapes on a natural world's dynamic capability for arousing awe and grandeur. In Germany, a group of talented composers created works of lasting value and influence during this period, including Beethoven, Hayden, Mozart, Schubert and Schumann. Romantic poetry emerged principally in England and is represented by two groups: the Lake Poets and the young radical poets. The former group includes Wordsworth and Coleridge while the latter includes Byron, Shelley and Keats.

2. Realism: Definition and Performance

Realism refers to the accurate, detailed, non-ornamented depiction of nature or of human life. Realism rejects any subjective, imaginative or idealized portrayal but advocates a close observation of outward appearances. Hence, realism has generally existed in many artistic currents in different civilizations. It is both a way of thinking and a method of creation in the arts. The realist mode is reflected both in writing and in painting, too.

3. Naturalism: Novels and Naturalist art

A tendency occurred in literature and the visual arts during the late 19th- and early 20th -century when some writers and artists were inclined, under the influence of scientific knowledge and experiment, to adopt the principles and methods of natural science, especially the Darwinian view of nature, to literature and art.

In literature, the writing intentionally offered no moral judgment y assuming scientific determinism that emphasized man's accidental, physiological nature rather than his moral or rational qualities. The first major novelist who expounded the tenets of naturalism was Emile Zola (1840-1902). In art André Antoine and the Freie Bühne of Berlin faithfully reflected nature and it was always a nature "red in tooth and claw." As a historical movement, naturalism contributed to art an enrichment of realism, new areas of subject matter and a scope and formlessness that were indeed closer to life than to art. Its multiplicity of impressions conveyed the sense of a world in constant flux.

Chapter 9 Ideology and Philosophy during the 18th and 19th Centuries

1. English Utilitarianism

Utilitarianism represented an enthusiasm for promoting private interests with a freedom to run business and make contracts. As well, it believed in free trade and free exploitation of workers. They held that the state is only like a security vigil (值夜监视人) at night, responsible for the protection of the safety of the people and their properties, for the protection of the safety of the people and their properties, for the maintenance of a society based on civilian freedom. They emphasized that the state should make no interference in economic life. These ideas are to be located in the Utilitarianist thought represented principally in the works of Jeremy Bentham and John Mill.

2. German Social and Philosophical Ideas

The German philosophy departed from French materialism and set out on the road to idealism. Classical German philosophy arose at the same time when the French Revolution occurred when the Industrial Revolution developed vigorously in Britain and while the bourgeois revolution was spreading widely all over the European continent. The German philosophers, while receiving influences from the French bourgeois revolution and making such demands as individual freedom, protection of human rights and private property, carried on its own kind of German modification by claiming that the people had no right to riot or torture, or to execute a monarch when they accepted Rousseau's ideas on freedom. German philosophy substituted science for theory, bourgeois freedom and equality for the absolutist theory of divine right and did provide a theoretical weapon with which the bourgeoisie could demand political power. Kant was a philosopher with dualist tendency. Among Kant's philosophical ideas, the concept of "things in themselves" certainly had a wide influence. Fichte(费希特) demonstrated his nationalism in his essay *An Appeal to the German Citizens*. Hegel set up the most massive system of objective idealism in the history of European philosophy. In opposition to Hegel's rationalism, Schopenhauer(叔本华) emphasized the importance of will. Nietzsche was among the earliest to regard the initiator of the modern philosophy of human life. He showed great impact on the Chinese intellectuals.

3. French Utopian Socialism

The French Bourgeois Revolution and the British Industrial Revolution provided two general conditions for the birth of Utopianism. The immature theory agrees with the immature conditions of capitalist production and the immature state of classes. The theory of Utopian Socialism was born in such circumstances. It's representatives were the Frenchmen Saint-Simons and Charles Fourier and the Englishman Robert Owen. The Utopian thinkers believed in the return of human nature, assuming natural character could contribute a lot to the carrying out of essential reform. They emphasized the anticipated change in man, socialism as a non-political socialism. They dreamed of taking the road of peaceful reformation. Maybe some of their ideas are credible, but obviously, such advocacy(拥护) was not easy to carry out at the time. This is why they had to fail.

Chapter 10 The Modernist Movement and Literary Achievement

1. General Condition

The general condition of the modernist movement can be summed up into two points: the unprecedented development of the capitalist society and industry, and the political situation in the west as well. The first social condition can be expounded into three specific ones: mechanization replacing manual work, great increase of productivity, the intensification of overseas expansion and the appearance of large cities and companies. The political situation included some important political events, consolidation of the bourgeois democracy and the emergence of a powerful Germany.

2. Modernist Trend of Literature

Partly under the influence of the psycho-analytical theories of Freud and Jung, Modernist writers combined intuition with hallucination (幻觉), imagination and illusion, reality and dream. They adopted free association techniques, substituted psychological time for physical time, and represented the inner world of man by multilayered levels of consciousness and utilized multiple points of view. The most typical example of this kind is the writer of the stream of consciousness, like Marcel Proust, James Joyce, Virginia Woolf and William Faulkner. Many critics regard such work as among the greatest artistic achievements of the 20th century, if not of all time.

3. Modernist Literature in Britain and Other English-Speaking Countries

Many contemporary critics in the West argue that Yeats' work as a poet and Joyce's work as a novelist is the most important Modernist achievements of the period. In spite of the fact that imagist poetry had scored some noticeable achievements, World War I brought this first period of the modernist revolution to an end. Some novelists and poets parodied traditional forms and styles, in their view made redundant by the immensity and horror of the war. D.H. Lawrence could be regarded as one of the earlier representative figures in modernist fiction of English language. Lawrence and Eliot continued to contribute to English literature in the 1920s. The modernist writers after the Second World War were Graham Green, William Golding and George Orwell in addition to the Angry Young Men and the Theatre of the Absurd. They all focused on an exploration of human nature during physical and spiritual crises, particularly its dark side. By the mid-1950s, however, some younger poets began to escape the influence of T.S. Eliot and metaphysical poetry to adopt more romantic or more prosaic models. They included Charles Olson, Robert Creeley, Robert Duncan, Edward Dorn, and Denise Levertov who treated the poem as an unfolding process. Others were the Beat poets including Allen Ginsberg, Lawrence Ferlinghetti, Gregory Corso, and Gary Snyder, the latter continuing the American tradition of nature poetry.

Apart from what was achieved in Britain and the United States, Modernism also made limited progress in other English-speaking countries in the early decades of the 20th century. Canada seemed to respond quite early to the modernist influence. Canadian fiction falls into two groups: those in English and those in French. Canadian English literature began to shape its national form by exploiting both modernist techniques and local colour. Morley Callaghan is perhaps the most established and reputed novelist.

4. Literary and Cultural Criticism of Post-Modernism

Literary criticism has gained rapid development in the 20th century. Maybe it is appropriate to use the word “unprecedented”(空前的) to describe its variety and influence. Beginning from the birth of formalism, literary criticism has pervaded a series of phases of development like neo-criticism, structuralism, myth and archetypal criticism, Marxist criticism, psychoanalytical criticism, post-colonialist studies, new historicism and cultural materialism(唯物主义). Among those critical schools, some appeared or operated before the 1960s or even during the Second World War while some came into being more recently.

Chapter 11 Historical Development of the Modern Age

1. Important Theories and Ideological Schools

With the unparalleled increase of productive forces and unprecedented development of science and technology in the latter half of the 19th century, the bourgeoisie began to play less of a social controlling role, granting more freedom to intellectual and ideological development. Some important theories and ideological schools made noticeable progress or were among those being introduced ceaselessly, such as Marxism(马克思主义), Darwinism(进化论), Pragmatism(实用主义), Positivism(实证主义), Bergson's Intuitionism(直观论), Freud's psycho-analysis(精神分析) and Sartre's Existentialism(存在主义).

2. Later Changes in Christian Ideas

Following the religious reform of the 16th century led by Martin Luther, Christian ideology appears to have pursued several paths. It reached another important turning-point when the bourgeoisie came to power in most European countries in the second half of the 19th century. The increasing power of capitalist economic development was due to the efficiency of its systems of production. These conveniently ignored and even mocked the ideological bondage imposed on the bourgeoisie and the working classes by the authority of the Catholic Church and other branches of Christianity. At the same time, the appearance of new ideas, such as those in both science and philosophy, which were of more progressive and therefore more acceptable to the average people, weakened the authority of religions. These people had been exposed to the ideas of the Renaissance and Enlightenment and become intellectually closer to the new social ideas and hostile to Christian and other conservative ideologies.

3. The later Philosophical Schools

Germany and France are generally regarded as the major sources of the leading ideological and philosophical schools from the 19th century into the 20th century. This view is validated by the development in classical philosophy and the appearance of the Existentialist philosophy. However, challenges to orthodox philosophical positions were coming from other countries. For instance, it was no surprise that Britain originated such important philosophical schools as Logical Atomism and Logical Positivism, since it was a leader in the Industrial Revolution and had actually created all the conditions necessary for initiating new philosophical ideas. Logical Atomism was created by Russell(1846-1924) to solve various paradoxical issues that could be seen in the discourse practiced every day. His theory of atomism intended to explain aspects of the material world. Wittgenstein revised Russell's logical Atomism(逻辑原子论) and created the newly styled Positivism---later called Logical Positivism(逻辑的实证主义). Naturalistic Philosophy started in ancient times. It emphasized the foremost importance of nature in viewing and understanding everything about human life and the world. Everything was based on a naturalistic order and nature itself was the only existence for everything. There were quite a number of branches of naturalistic philosophy, but the most active and independent were Scientific Naturalism and Anthropologic Naturalism. Postmodernism covers such a wide area that it goes even beyond the traditional humanities, like art, literature and philosophy, to everyday life. It can be summarized as having the following identifying properties: prone to sarcasm, irony, and parody, mosaic pluralism(多元论) and to eclecticism(折衷主义).

Chapter 12 Artistic Development in the 20th Century

1 Background of Modern Art

The end of the two world wars did not appear to bring any real sense of security or stability to the West. It was especially so after the Second World War because of the rise of the socialist camp headed by the Soviet Union, together with the emergence of the powerful drive for independence by a large group of former colonial or semi-colonial countries. Regional wars and turmoil occurred one after another in the decades not long after the Second World War, such as the Middle East War flaring up after the founding of Israel, the Korean war, the Cuban crisis, the Algerian war, the Vietnam war. However, these conflicts or so-called cold wars largely belonged in the areas outside of Europe and the United States where a comparatively peaceful and stable social development secured rapid economic growth and cultural prosperity. It was in the midst of the 1950s and 1960s that Western society was on the threshold of drastic transformation from the phase of post-war recovery to an unprecedented industrial and commercial boom that provided a solid basis for the later intellectual and cultural achievement.

2 Modern Achievements in Painting and Architecture

Modernist development was promoted vigorously and comprehensively from the end of the 19th century through the first half of the 20th century, covering all the major forms of art, including painting, music, dance, literature, theatre, and architecture.

Painters eventually acquired the freedom to invent their own visual language and to experiment with new forms and unconventional techniques. Such example could be found in the use of sculpture in painting to produce three-dimensional abstract designs or the placement of real objects on the canvas in collage fashion. One of the post-impressionism representatives was Van Gogh(1853-1890). In addition to impressionism and post-impressionism, painting of the last two centuries has produced quite a number of schools and fashions in its modernist stages of development. Decorative art developed in the 19th century into a movement called “new art”. It affected not only illustrative art, but also printing technology and posters. In music, drastic changes also occurred in the Modern Age from the even and balanced tones and rhythms to discords and syncopated music---odd numbered rhythms in strange and contrasting combinations.

3 Popular Culture

Popular culture moved to a new stage in Europe and the United States after World War II. This is ascribed to two factors. First, the rapid economic development has generated and accumulated a huge fortune and laid a solid material foundation for cultural expression. Secondly, technological progress endorsed and accelerated the improvement of forms of entertainment. Cinema has greatly changed ways of living in the West since its initial invention by Thomas Edison in 1894. Almost in the first couple of days, so to speak, in the history of cinema, Britain, Europe and the US presented different styles in the films they produced.

TV broadcasting is generally said to have come into being in the West in the 1930s. Much progress has been made since then in terms of technological development and on the entertainment side. A statistical figure has been quoted that fifteen years out of a westerner’s life is devoted to watching TV, which suggests the important link TV has made between the individual and private aspects of human life

and the public or social side of life. Popular music has been increasingly associated with the everyday life of the Westerner since the invention of phonograph and the operation of commercial and government radio in the 1920s. Approximately from 1950 onwards, two groups began experimenting with serious electronic music, one in Cologne and the other in Paris. The work of the latter was defined as *musique concrete*, which advocated that pre-existing, or “concrete” recorded sounds served as the basis of all sonorities in the finished work. The two approaches find in common their connection with music of the past. Electronic compositions exist on a tape (or disc), and can be made audible by a speaker system. The harmonious effect of electronic music seems charming and even intoxicating whereas its merciless steadiness keeps passing a message while apparently ignoring human emotions.

四、教学相关环节

《西方文化入门》教学使用多媒体等现代化教学手段。除了课堂讲解外，还有选择性地给学生播放录像、电影片断，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。组织学生进行课堂大讨论，训练学生查找相关专题资料的能力。

五、参考资料

《西方文化入门》采用的教材是叶胜年著，2005年上海外语教育出版社出版的《*Western Culture: An Introduction*》，此外，还辅以多种参考资料（如下所示）。

Hause Steven & William Maltby. 1999. *Western Civilization: A History Of European Society*. An International Thomson Publishing Company.

董小燕，2001，《西方文明史纲》，浙江大学出版社。

高福进，2001，《西方文化史论》，上海交通大学出版社。

吴克礼，2002，《文化学教程》，上海外语教育出版社。

《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.....	858
Chapter Five More On Implicatures.....	860
Chapter Six Speech Acts.....	862
Chapter 7 More About Speech Acts.....	866
Chapter 8 Politeness.....	869
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、语用学是对语言各层面的功能性综观。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 and Annie are in the living room. Mike 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 is 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*. (Linguistische Berichte 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 in any context (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 awful wine? (b) This wine is awful.
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 awful wine, did you? (b) This wine is awful.

Presupposition triggers: definite noun phrase – existential presupposition as in (6).

6. (a) Did Mike give Anne that chocolate 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 utterances (unlike presuppositions and entailments). They are dependent on the context of the utterance and shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer. Grice has proposed 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: I managed to pass the exam.

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 as 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 extent is Grice original claim supported, i.e., formal logic = logic of natural language. Ambiguity? Vagueness?

An important point concerns the case of “or”: $P \text{ or } Q$ means $P \vee Q$, i.e., one of following is the case:

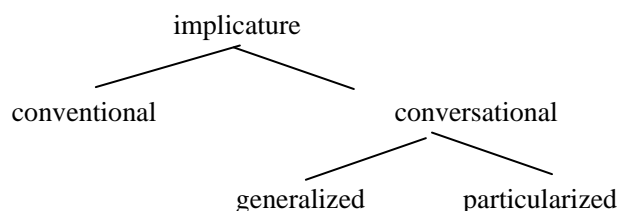
4. (a) P is true and Q is false
- (b) P is false and Q is true
- (c) P is true and Q is true

Normally if we say P or Q we assume that there is a reasonable argument with P or Q as its conclusion, but it 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 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 multiplied beyond necessity.

Types of implicature can be formalized as follows:

5.



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 constatives, 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 officials 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 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 and 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 or 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 Performative 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

I promise I'll be there.

I admit I was foolish.

I apologize.

I thank you.

I order you to sit down.

Constative

I'll be there.

I was foolish.

I'm sorry.

I'm very grateful.

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.

Further Reading:

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 implicature[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 that 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 has 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, declaratives, 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.

Further Reading:

Clark, Herbert H. 1979. Responding to Indirect Speech Acts[J]. *Cognitive Psychology*, 1: 430-477. New York: Academic Press.

Levinson, Stephen C. 1983. *Pragmatics*[M]. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Prevost, Scott.1996. Modeling Contrast in the Generation and Synthesis of Spoken Language. In *Proceedings of the Fourth International Conference on Spoken Language Processing*[C], 1349-1352.

Searle, John R. 1975. Indirect Speech Acts. In Peter Cole and Jerry L. Morgan (eds.), *Syntax and Semantics*[C], vol.3: Speech Acts, 59-82.

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 and 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 Compliment	Yes (39.3%) Yes (1.0%)
Returning the Compliment	Yes (18.5%) No
Thanking and Denigrating	No Yes (3.4%)
Deflecting	Yes (29.5%) No
Rejecting the Compliment	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 Pragmatic Meaning	Possible Meaning as Understood by Hearer
American	Your child is one smart girl.	Your child is one smart girl.	She thinks her child is 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 Pragmatic Meaning	Possible Meaning as Understood by Hearer
Japanese	Your presentation last week was spectacular.	Your presentation last week was spectacular.	I don't really believe this, but it's not polite to argue with her.
American	Why, thank you.	I don't really believe this, but it's not polite to argue with her.	This person is full of herself.

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.

Further Reading:

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. 1987. *Politeness: Some universals in language use*[M]. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Chen, R. 1993. Responding to compliments: A contrastive study of politeness strategies between American English and Chinese speakers[J]. *Journal of Pragmatics* 20, 49-75.

Daikuhara, M. 1986. A study of compliments from a cross-cultural perspective: Japanese vs. American English[A]. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics*[C] 17(1), 25-35.

Leech, G. N. 1983. *Principles of pragmatics*[M]. London, UK: Longman.

Savignon, S. J. 1983. *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice*[M]. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

Scarcella, R. 1979. On speaking politely in a second language[A]. In Yorio, C. K. P. & J. Schachter. (eds.). *On TESOL'79* [C]. Washington D.C.: TESOL.

Tomasello, M., & Herron, C. 1989. Feedback for language transfer error: The garden path technique[J]. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 11, 385-395.

六、主要参考书目、教材和论文集

Adger, C. 1987. Accommodation cultural differences in conversational style: a case study [A]. In Lantolf, J. & A. Labarca(eds.). *Research in Second Language Learnin: Focus on the Classroom* [C]. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex.

Blum-Kulka S 1997. Discourse pragmatics[A]. In T. A. van Dijk (ed.) *Discourse as social interaction*[C]. London:Sage,38-63.

Brown, Gillian and George Yule. 1983. *Discourse Analysis*[M]. Cambridge University Press.

Brown P. & Levinson S. 1987. *Politeness*[M]. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Doerge, F.C. 2006. *Illocutionary Acts – Austin’s Account and What Searle Made Out of It*. Tuebingen: Tuebingen University.

Green M. Georgia. 1989. *Pragmatics and natural language understanding*[M]. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Grundy, Peter Edward Arnold, 1995. *Doing Pragmatics*[M]. London: Edward Arnold.

Gutt, Ernst-August. 1991. *Translation and Relevance: Cognition and Context*[M]. Oxford. Basil Blackwell.

Jiang, Wangqi. 2000. *Pragmatics: Theories and Applications*[M]. Beijing: Beijing University Press.

- Leech, G. 1981. *Semantics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Leech G N. 1983. *Principles of Pragmatics*[M]. London: Longman Group Ltd.
- Levinson, S.C. 1983. *Pragmatics*[M]. Cambridge: CUP.
- Levinson, S.C. 2000. *Presumptive Meaning: The Theory of Generalized Conversational Implicature*. Cambridge, Mass.: The MIT Press.
- Mey, J. 2001. *Pragmatics: An Introduction*[M]. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Peccei, J.S. 1999. *Pragmatics*. London: Routledge.
- Searle J .R. 1979. *Expression and meaning*[M]. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Simpson, P. 1993. *Language, Ideology and Point of View*, London: Routledge.
- Tannen, D. 1984. *Conversational Style. Analyzing Talk Among Friends*[M]. Norwood, N.J : Ablex.
- Verschueren, J. 1999. *Understanding Pragmatics*. London: Arnold.
- Wierzbicka, A. 1991. *Cross-cultural pragmatics. The semantics of human interaction*[M]. Berlin & New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Yule, George. 1996. *Pragmatics*[M]. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Yule, George. 1996. *The Study of Language*[M]. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 戴炜华, 1998, 言语行为和事件的跨文化语用研究[J], 《外国语》第6期。
- 顾曰国, 1992, 礼貌、语用与文化[J], 《外语教学与研究》第4期。
- 何兆熊, 2000, 《新编语用学概要》, 上海外语教育出版社。
- 何自然, 1988, 《语用学概论》, 湖南教育出版社。
- 何自然, 1997, 《语用学与英语学习》, 上海外语教育出版社。
- 何自然, 1998, 《社会语用建设论文集》, 广东外语外贸大学。
- 何自然, 2000, 《语用学探索》, 世界图书出版社。
- 何自然、冉永平(主编), 2001, 《语用与认知——关联理论研究》, 外语教学研究出版社。
- 姜望琪, 2000, 《语用学——理论与应用》。北京大学出版社。
- 熊学亮, 《认知语用学概论》。上海外语教育出版社。
- 钱冠连, 1997, 《汉语文化语用学》。清华大学出版社。
- 束定芳, 2000, 《中国语用学论文精选》。上海外语教育出版社。
- 索振羽, 2000, 《语用学教程》, 北京大学出版社。
- 张绍杰、杨忠(主编), 1999, 《语用、认知、交际》, 东北师范大学出版社。
- 赵艳芳, 2001, 《认知语言学概论》。上海外语教育出版社。

《英语词汇学》教学大纲

张和军 编写

目 录

前 言.....	879
一、概述.....	879
二、课程教学目的和基本要求.....	879
三、课程主要内容及学时分配.....	880
四、相关教学环节.....	880
Chapter I Introduction	882
Chapter II Word Meaning	885
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學習。

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學習关联。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：本课程主要要求學生學習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學習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。既要培養學生理解语言现象和分析语言问题的理论水平，又要提高學生运用英语的实际能力，同时提高學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、谚语和短語动词；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，对學生有词

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 following statements by supplying an appropriate term for each blank.

- Borrowed words which still sound foreign and look foreign are _____.
- There is no _____ relationship between sound and _____ as the connection between them is _____ and conventional.
- _____ are 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 a _____ frequency 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

胡壮麟、刘润清、李延福，《语言学教程》，北京大学出版社，1988
林承璋，《英语词汇学引论》，武汉大学出版社，1987

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

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

Chapter II Word Meaning

Types of Meaning
Polysemy and Homonymy

Section One

Types of Meaning

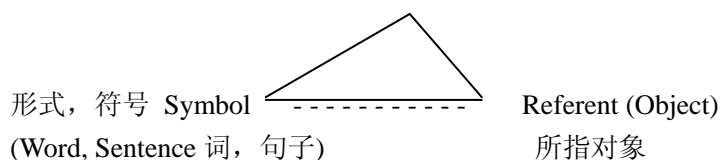
I. The Relationship between Meaning and the Object

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)

意义 (概念)



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 relationship between word-form and meaning is _____ and _____, and most words can be said to be _____. That is, the 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. It explains the connection between the _____ and _____ of the word.

3) Lexical meaning and _____ meaning make up the word-meaning. It is known that the

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 _____.

Further Reading

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

汪榕培、卢晓娟：《英语词汇学教程》，上海外语教育出版社，1997

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

胡壮麟、刘润清、李延福，《语言学教程》，北京大学出版社，1988

汪榕培、卢晓娟，《英语词汇学教程》，上海外语教育出版社，1997

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-----lift 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----lend 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 from 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 Work:

1 Fill in the blanks according to the text.

The language used between 450 and _____ is called _____, which has a vocabulary of _____. Middle English refers to the language spoken from 1150 to _____, followed by 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 than 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, simlized idioms, twin words and proverbs.

III. Metaphorical idioms (figurative idioms)

IV. Simlized idioms

V. Phrasal verbs (multi-word verbs)

Home Work

What are the characteristics of Metaphorical idioms, Simlized 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, Etnne 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 Nathaniel 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 Translation*, *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 Dictionary*, *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

《美国知识产权法》教学大纲

齐 筠 编写

目 录

前 言.....	895
一、概述.....	895
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修课。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: Public 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*
 2. 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

沙丽金 编写

目 录

前 言.....	907
一、概述.....	907
二、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
四、相关教学环节.....	908
Lesson One.....	909
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.	909
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	909
Lesson Two	910
2.Text.....	910
Legal System.....	910
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.	910
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	910
4. Supplementary Reading: Common Law	910
Lesson Three	911
2. Text.....	911
Legal Education.....	911
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.	911
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	911
4. Supplementary Reading: Legal Education	911
Lesson Four.....	913
2. Text.....	913
Court System.....	913
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.	913
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	913
4. Supplementary Reading: The English Court Structure	913
Lesson Five	914
2. Text.....	914
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.	914
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	914
4. Supplementary Reading: Federal System Created by the Constitution.....	914
Lesson 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 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 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	920
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.	920
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	920
4. Supplementary Reading: Civil Procedure in the United States.....	920
Lesson Ten.....	921
2. Text.....	921
Torts.....	921
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.	921
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	921
4. Supplementary Reading: The Evolution of Tort Concepts and Remedies	922
Lesson Eleven	923
2. Text.....	923
Contract.....	923
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	923
4. Supplementary Reading: Introduction to Contract.....	924
Lesson Twelve.....	925
2. Text.....	925
II. Choose a proper word listed below for each of the following blanks, and change the form where necessary.	925
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	925
4. Supplementary Reading: 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.	931
V. What is your idea about the following topic? Please support your opinion with examples.....	932
4. Supplementary Reading: Burdens of Proof.....	932

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

5. Further Reading:

- (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

5. Further Reading:

- (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]马迪阿斯·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

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) 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

5. Further Reading:

- (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 you think you should have. Why do you think it is important for you 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

5. Further Reading:

(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

5. Further Reading:

(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*, 3rd 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) 迈克尔·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**