

New Advanced English

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新编 高级英语教程

中国对外经济贸易出版社

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(京)新登字 062 号

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中国对外经济贸易出版社出版
(北京安定门外大街东后巷 28 号)

邮政编码 100710

新华书店北京发行所发行

北京外文印刷厂印刷

*

850×1168 毫米 大 32 开本 18 印张 467 千字

1994 年 4 月第 1 版 1994 年 4 月第 1 次印刷

印数 8000 册

ISBN 7-80004-406-8

H · 50

定价: 16.50 元

前 言

《新编高级英语教程》博采最新国外资料，联系中国实际，针对具有中级英语水平向高级英语水平迈进过程中，为进一步提高英语水平所遇到的困难而编写的。该书知识性和趣味性较强，内容涉及语言、文学、科技、医疗、经济、社会风情、政治、历史、体育等诸多方面，适合本科生、非英语专业研究生、出国培训班、英语进修班及广大自学者使用，也可供实用英语工作者和广大英语教师参考。

全书分二十个单元，每个单元自成体系，主体课文内容新颖、体裁广泛、语言严谨，充分体现出 90 年代英语的风范；书后有大量练习帮助读者解决提高英语水平过程中遇到的难点，如：语法要点、写作技巧、常用的修辞手段和基本的构词规律等。阅读本书，可使读者在提高英语水平的同时，扩大词汇量，增长多方面的知识，提高译写的技巧。

本书由北京邮电学院陈淑华教授等人编著。编著者在多年教学的基础上，经过严谨推敲、反复斟酌，推出了这册为读者所想、应读者之需的英语提高读本。书中的不足之处，欢迎广大读者批评指正。

编 著 者

1993 年 12 月

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Unit 1 A Glimpse of English

1 Languages are part of the history of the peoples who use them, intimately bound up with the changing patterns of the societies they serve. Decade by decade, generation by generation, a language responds to new needs and demands; it will receive an imprint from contact with invaders or immigrants; it will reflect, in new words and turns of phrase, in changes of pronunciation and in grammatical shifts, a community's experience of sustained exposure to other languages or cultures; the rise of new classes may be expected subtly to affect communal attitudes to linguistic behaviour; and the gradual extension of literacy will alter attitudes to linguistic propriety. Somewhere in a language's history there will be a record of almost every major change in circumstance or communicative need of the people who have used it, though the relationship between social cause and linguistic effect is intricate and complex, and often there is insufficient historical detail to allow us to uncover it.

2 English provides us with texts for almost the whole fifteen hundred year period during which it has existed and developed as a distinct language. For the first seven or eight centuries, however, the texts are relatively scanty. And for much of the whole period the majority of the populations which used it could neither read nor write. Thus we have only vestigial and indirect evidence as to how people spoke, and of the circumstances and needs which shaped everyday spoken discourse at different social levels. Not only is the historical record increasingly fragmentary the further back we go; the

actual detail of intrinsic change, in phonetic, grammatical, lexical and semantic systems, is in itself complicated enough to unravel.

3 Grammatical change is often less consciously felt than the adoption of new words or the creation of new meanings. Thus, it is difficult to isolate and describe changes that have been recently introduced into English. Yet when we stand back and view the changes that have occurred during the last 1,500 years, we see developments of a particularly striking kind. The grammar that the Anglo-Saxons used seems to have been a radically different kind of grammar from the one we use today. It has been suggested that this difference entitles us to classify Anglo-Saxon English and the English of today as languages of quite distinct types.

4 Today, the term 'grammar' is used in a number of different senses. It may be understood to be a full description of the form and meaning of the sentences of the language or else it may cover only certain, variously delimited, parts of such a description. In one of these narrower senses, grammar embraces syntax and morphology. Syntax deals with combinations of words, the way words combine to form sentences, while morphology with the form of words.

5 Words are not the only units that we need in describing the structure of sentences. The constituent structure analysis of a sentence identifies the forms and their hierarchical arrangement one within another. By definition, the sentence is the maximal syntactic construction, a group of words conveying a complete thought; the word the lowest unit of syntax. Words are like bricks and writers are architects. For different purposes, they build up their vocabulary into articles of great variety for persuasion, for argument, for convincing or advocating others.

6 As we move downwards beyond the word we pass from syntax

into morphology. Morphology studies or describes word formation including inflection, derivation and compounding; the system of word-forming elements and processes; as well as structure or form in a language. By various morphological processes, other words are formed from the stock of simple stems—the smallest and not analysable morphological units. Among various morphological processes, compounding and affixation are the two traditionally recognized as the most important.

7 Compounding involves adding two stems together, as when we join *black* and *bird* to form *blackbird*, or *gold* and *smith* to form *goldsmith*, and so on. Blackbird and goldsmith are said to be compound stems.

8 In affixation, an affix is added to a stem to yield a complex stem. More specifically, we can distinguish between prefixes like *pre-*, *sub-*, *in-*, *un-*, *trans-*, which are added to the left of the stem, and suffixes like *-able*, *-ed*, *-ing*, *-ion*, *-iness*, which are added to the right. Thus the complex stems *substandard* and *unkind* are formed by prefixation, *payable* and *goodness* by suffixation. Words may be formed by the application of more than one morphological process, e.g. *unselfconsciousness*, *discriminating*.

9 A third type of morphological process, particularly important in the grammar of English, is conversion. This is exemplified in the formation the verb *bottle* (as in *I must bottle some plums*) from the noun *bottle*. We take the noun and verb to be distinct words (hence distinct stems), with the noun *bottle* being primary: The verb is then formed by conversion of the stem from one class to another.

10 Just as compounding and affixation can combine, so either of them can combine with conversion. For example, the verb *soundproof* (I'm going to soundproof my study) is derived by conver-

sion from the adjective *soundproof* (The room is soundproof), which is in turn formed by compounding from the simple stems *sound* and *proof*. Thus, starting from being only a small tongue with its not big vocabulary in Shakespeares' days, English has collected its words in such an exploding way to make a person's success in the language closely related to his or her vocabulary and language skill.

11 Remember: Words are not the only units that we need in describing the structure of sentences. Although we can break a sentence down into a sequence of words, we will not go from sentence to word in a single step but will recognise units intermediate in size between sentence and word. A given sequence of words may be a constituent in one sentence but not in another, and the constituent structure analysis of a sentence identifies the forms and their hierarchical arrangement one within another. In the first place, the various forms will be assigned to syntactic classes and subclasses on the basis of various types of shared properties. Thus words will be assigned to such primary classes as noun, verb, adjective, etc., and to such subclasses as proper noun, common noun, transitive verb, etc. Forms occurring higher in the constituent hierarchy can be classified in an analogous way as noun phrases, verb phrases, clauses, interrogative clauses, and so on.

12 In the hierarchical arrangement of English, the sentence may go into a great length.

13 Linguistically, the relations between forms fall into two fundamentally distinct types: syntagmatic and paradigmatic. Less standard but more transparent terms are respectively 'and-relations' and 'or-relations'. Thus the *knew* of *John knew Max* could be replaced by *had known*, *knows*, *warned*, *had warned*, etc. in a paradigmatic way while the forms *John*, *knew* and *Max* are

related syntagmatically in that they occur together in the larger structure. Syntactic functions, such as subject, predicator, object are established to handle syntagmatic relations and the set of forms in paradigmatic relation is enormously large.

14 Being the synthetic rules, grammar of basic English or essential English is also to be remembered fast and used skillfully, which the Chinese students who are learning English often ignore, at least overlook. They pay too much attention to remember the rules instead of practising the hierarchical patterns and the expected downheart consequence is they could tell what is right or what is wrong but not say fluent or write correct English.

15 Each language is a natural growth and not an instrument which people shape for their own purposes. In the natural development, language would reflect people's thought, habit, culture, history, way of life, beliefs and what not. While attention and practice should be given to grammar, what must be remembered is that both English and Chinese are not grammatical. They are both of structure and for analysis in their unique way. Or may we say they have been refined in their long history into rhetoric languages, which is naturally generated through sense or imagination. Aren't sense or imagination producing creativeness? No one can negate this, but most overlook it.

16 Don't you want to get your English? If affirmative, look out for their syntax, morphology, phonology, semantics, logic, idioms and rhetorics and practice.

(based on "Introduction to the Grammar of English"

by Rodney Huddleston and 'A Social History of
English' by Dick Leith)

Notes:

1. Subject—The standard notional definition of subject equates it with the 'topic' of the sentence, i.e. what the sentence is about. The subject here contrasts with the predicate, which is equated with the 'comment', i.e. what is said about the topic. In other words, the subject 'names what we are thinking about in a sentence', while the predicate 'states what we are thinking about the subject'. In English, the subject can be noun, pronoun, infinitive, gerund, or clause; In Chinese, the subject can be noun, pronoun, numbered measurer, even adverb. Besides, there are not infinitive, gerund and participles in Chinese, which must be cautioned in translation.
2. Complements—There are a number of different types of complement which differs from adjuncts which are always omissible. Complement means a word or words that complete the meaning of the predicate (Ex.: foreman in 'make him foreman'). Objects (O) and predicative complements(PC) are the two most standardly recognised kinds. Object means a noun or substantive receiving the action of a verb or governed by a preposition. We need in fact to distinguish two types of object: direct and indirect, and two types of complement: subject and object. The indirect object almost always precedes the direct object; it is characteristically (though by no means always) a noun referring to a person. e.g.

S	P	O	S	P	PC
John	loves	Mary.	John	is	fond of Mary.
S	P	IO	DO		
John	teaches	English.	John	teaches	Mary English.

The relationship between semantic and syntactic structure is more straightforward in S-P-O than in S-P-PC patterns.

3. Adverb and adverbial—The prefix *ad-* comes from Latin and means 'motion towards, addition to, nearness to'. *Ad-* is assimilated to *ac-*, *af-*, *ag-*, *al-*, *an-*, *ap-*, *ar-*, *as-*, *at-*, and *a-* before certain consonants. Verb is a word developed from the Latin word 'verbum' meaning word. Thus, adverb means etymologically 'more at word'. Today, an adverb means a word used to modify a verb, adjective, or another adverb, by expressing time, place, manner, degree, cause, etc. Generally speaking, there are eight kinds of adverbs:

- 1) of manner: quickly, bravely, happily, hard, fast, well……
- 2) of place: here, there, up, down, near, by, above, about……
- 3) of time: now, soon, yet, still, then, today, yesterday……
- 4) of frequency: twice, often, never, always, occasionally……
- 5) of certainty: certainly, surely, definitely, obviously……
- 6) of degree: very, fairly, rather, quite, too, hardly……
- 7) interrogative: when, where, why, how, how much,……
- 8) relative: when, where, why,……

In English, an adverbial can be adverb, infinitive, participle, prepositional phrase or clause.

The position of adverbials often depends on the rhetorical meaning, normally, the more emphasized, the more shifted ahead in a sentence.

Exercises:

I. Work on the text: Identify the following to be true(T) or false(F):

- () 1. Languages are historical and closely associated with different and various societies in which they are used.

- () 2. In the long history of development, English has formed its own system which is not easily perceptible to the senses or mind.
- () 3. The adoption of new words or the creation of new meanings are more quickly felt than the changes in grammar.
- () 4. Morphology is made up of morph— from Greek meaning ‘form’ and —ology from Greek into Latin meaning ‘doctrine, theory or science’.
- () 5. Hierarchical is the adjective derived from hierarchy meaning in this text ‘a graded or ranked series’. The hierarchical arrangement in English structure is very important for one to master the language but the pity is most overlook this graded structural system of English.
- () 6. From this text, one can see that a wise way to enlarge vocabulary reasonably and logically is to be aware of some knowledge on morphology.
- () 7. Languages are intimately bound up with the thought, culture, history, way of life of the native speakers.
- () 8. Syntax or syntactic rules are only touched without being described in detail in the text because they have been taught in what you learned before.

II. Grammar:

- 1) Translate the following into Chinese after identifying the subject of each statement.
 1. Grammar means the study of the formal feature of a language, as the sounds, morphemes, words, or sentences.
 2. The beauty of English is far from being grammatical only.

3. English is extraordinarily receptive and adaptable and has taken to itself material from almost everywhere in the world and has made the new elements of language its own with varied ease and readiness.
 4. The order of the words in English sentences is relatively fixed. That is why we should pay great attention to the structures of English.
 5. It is a sort of psychological medicine to watch a tragedy.
 6. To watch a tragedy is a sort of psychological medicine.
 7. To go to Pompeii today is to take a trip backward in time.
 8. To assemble means to put together different parts of a product.
 9. To comprehend form in its full spatial existence is what the sculptor must do.
 10. Selecting books is a complicated matter.
 11. Making patients' appointment through a computer saves a lot of time, so does keeping patients' records on a computer.
 12. Denying this will be shutting one's eyes to facts.
 13. What is remarkable about the laws of nature is the accuracy of simple approximations.
 14. Whoever is capable of giving of himself is rich.
 15. Whether you are going to take the job or not must be decided within three days.
 16. Who is right, who is wrong, does not matter. The conversation is on wings in its nature.
- 2) Translate the following into English, pay attention to the subject of your translation:
1. 英语作为一门语言有其自身的语法。英语语法在那些把英语作为一门外语来学习的人的心目中占据了过于突出

的位置。这是一种遗憾，因为英语的语法在很大程度上是拉丁语的舶来品（从拉丁语借用而来的），还因为英语之美妙远非仅止是语法。

2. 在那儿站一会儿意味着浑身尽湿。他为什么在那儿站那么久，我真不明白。依我看来，原因肯定是他魂不守舍或者心乱非常。

3) Fill in the blanks properly with the verbs given:

In its fifteen centuries of history, English ____ 1 ____ (adapt) to changing social functions in different periods, and it ____ 2 ____ (co-exist) with other languages. We ____ 3 ____ (trace) the origins of English as the vernacular (the native language or dialect of a country or place, the common, everyday language of ordinary people in a particular locality, the shoptalk of a profession or trade) of certain Germanic tribes on the continent of Europe, at a time when much of that area ____ 4 ____ (dominate) by the institutions and language of the Roman Empire.

In describing the Anglo-Saxon settlement of what ____ 5 ____ (be) now England, we ____ 6 ____ (see) how English ____ 7 ____ (come) into contact with the Celtic language of the Britons, and how it ____ 8 ____ (develop) a literature under the influence of Latin. As the various kingdoms of the Anglo-Saxons ____ 9 ____ (create) institutions and ____ 10 ____ (extend) literacy, they ____ 11 ____ (come, threaten) by the Vikings, who ____ 12 ____ (speak) a different though closely related language. There ____ 13 ____ (follow) two other cases of language-contact, involving different varieties of the same language: Norman-French after the Norman Conquest (1066), ____ 14 ____ (follow) by the Central French of the Paris area after 1204. Finally, we ____ 15 ____ (see) how an early form of lan-

guage—loyalty ____ 16 ____ (surface) in the 14th century to cause English to become the national language of England. At no point during the period under discussion ____ 17 ____ (be) there a standard variety of English accepted as such wherever the language ____ 18 ____ (speak). Rather we ____ 19 ____ (see) a growing trend towards dialectal variation, as different centres of power ____ 20 ____ (exert) their influence over local speech.

III. Vocabulary:

There are 29 suffixes in English that form modifiers that function as an adjective or adverb.

—al (or its variant spelling —ial), —ar, —ary, —ic, —id, —ile, —ine, —ish, —oid, and —ory are adjective suffixes meaning (1) of, pertaining to, of the nature of, like; (2) having, related to, or serving for.

Fill in the blanks under the help of the given morphological units:

1. The children _____ (always pop) in and out.
2. They _____ (pop) a question at him.
3. It is a _____ (pop, —ule, —ar) belief that black cats bring bad luck.
4. It is very cold in the _____ (pole, —ar) regions.
5. _____ (simile, —ar) means 'like something else or one another, but not identical'.
6. An _____ member is granted the membership as an _____, usually without powers, duties, or salary. (honor)
7. _____ (tradition) grammarians gave prescriptive rules of usage.
8. The use of language to communicate our ideas is often called _____, _____, or _____ (referent, proposition, ideation).