

英语基础 写作教程



Basic English Writing:
From Writing Purposes to Essays

顾玉兰 ● 编著



西南财经大学出版社
Southwestern University of Finance & Economics Press

英语基础 写作教程



顾玉兰 ○ 编著



西南财经大学出版社
Southwestern University of Finance & Economics Press

中国·成都

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

英语基础写作教程/顾玉兰编著. —成都:西南财经大学出版社,
2017. 12

ISBN 978 - 7 - 5504 - 3313 - 7

I. ①英… II. ①顾… III. ①英语—写作—教材 IV. ①H319. 36

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2017)第 297403 号

英语基础写作教程

顾玉兰 编著

责任编辑:林伶

封面设计:何东琳设计工作室

责任印制:封俊川

出版发行	西南财经大学出版社(四川省成都市光华村街 55 号)
网 址	http://www.bookcj.com
电子邮件	bookcj@foxmail.com
邮政编码	610074
电 话	028 - 87353785 87352368
照 排	四川胜翔数码印务设计有限公司
印 刷	郫县犀浦印刷厂
成品尺寸	185mm × 260mm
印 张	13. 5
字 数	600 千字
版 次	2017 年 12 月第 1 版
印 次	2017 年 12 月第 1 次印刷
印 数	1—2000 册
书 号	ISBN 978 - 7 - 5504 - 3313 - 7
定 价	32. 80 元

1. 版权所有,翻印必究。
2. 如有印刷、装订等差错,可向本社营销部调换。
3. 本书封底无中公教育网数码防伪标识,不得销售。

前言

编写原则

写作是英语学习者综合应用能力的重要组成部分，更是英语语言应用能力的综合体现，因此英语写作教学在本科教学阶段非常重要。从事本科阶段英语写作教学工作以来，笔者用过也参考过多种英语写作教材。每种教材都有各自的编写原则和特色，但多数教材都遵循词、句、段、篇的编写体例。教师教学时也往往遵循这样的安排，学生写作时亦始于选词造句，而不是先确认写作目的、确定主旨大意，然后在写作目的的引导下，围绕这个主旨去展开、推进。而一篇好的文章应该是作者遵循先立意（篇）、后构思（段）、再写作（句）、又修改（词）的先后顺序写就，也就是说写作时的“推敲”往往发生于写作基本轮廓成形后的词、句选用斟酌阶段，而不是写作之初。学生写作之初就开始斟酌词句，往往很难写下去。兼受应试模板作文的影响，中国学生写出的英语作文往往空有框架，思想内容粗浅，逻辑性不强。

同时，教师在词、句、段、篇讲解时，重理论讲解，轻选词造句、联句成段、组段成篇的实践操作的具体指导；讲解篇章写作时，绝大多数教材将英语篇章分为四类——描写、记叙、说明和议论，并逐一讲解，但重点一般都放在说明和议论，描写和记叙，尤其是记叙，只是粗略涉及。有写作实践和教学经验的人都明白，描写和记叙对学生语言水平和创造性使用语言的要求实际上比说明和议论更高，学生更难把握。虽然英语对于中国学习者而言常常只是一种工作工具，描写和记叙并不比说明和议论用得更多，但作为一种语言交际工具，擅长描写与记叙会为英语使用者的工作和交流锦上添花。

基于对我国英语写作教材、写作教学及学生写作实践存在的这些问题的反思，笔者特编写这本遵循写作实践原则、注重实践操作指导的写作教材，从确定写作目的、作者身份、读者对象和主旨大意开始，带领学生构思篇章结构、推进段落发展、选词造句，最后修改初稿、完成写作。希望为有效促进中国英语学习者写作能力的发展与提高提供更具操作性的指导。

本教材的主要读者对象为大学本科阶段英语写作教学的英语教师和基础写作能力有待提高的大学生，对英语自学者也不失为一本指导性很强的参考用书。

教材结构

本教材分为七大部分。

第一部分为“英语写作基本规范”，讲解英语写作在标题格式、标点符号、大小写等方面的基本规范。让学生从学习写作、进行写作练习之初，就明了并遵循这些规则，规范自己的写作行为；教师在习作批改时也始终关注学生的基本写作规范，帮助学生养成良好的写作习惯。

第二部分为“阅读与写作”，讲解英语读写关系和读后写作的各种任务类型，是笔者“写作导向英语阅读教学”研究在写作教学中的实践。尝试通过本章内容的教学，引导学生在“理解导向”阅读活动基础上，开展“写作导向”阅读活动，学习在阅读过程中体悟、习得常用写作方法与技巧，同时尝试通过读后写作活动弥补传统写作教材对记叙和描写的不够重视并增加说明与议论的形式。

第三部分为“写什么”，讲解作文内容的构思。学生苦于写作的主要原因是不知道写什么，笔者将其归因于写作目的、作者身份和读者对象不明确，尝试通过本章内容的教学，引导学生提笔写作前明确自己的写作目的、作为作者的身份立场和自己的读者对象，完成写作内容的粗略设想。

第四部分和第五部分都为“怎么写”，讲解作文写作时联句成段、组段成篇的具体操作。尝试通过这两章内容的教学，引导学生以第三部分确立的写作目的为纲，构思全文框架，此所谓“举纲”，然后根据构思，选择段落推展策略进行段落写作，此所谓“张目”。以“举纲张目”之过程教学，指导学生写出框架结构合理科学、内容充实富有逻辑的英语作文，避免“东奔西突”式写作之后的不知所云。

第六部分为“选词造句”，讲解词、句类型及功能。尝试通过本章内容的教学，引导学生斟酌、推敲初具框架、基本成形的作文的选词造句细节，甄别、遴选恰当句型和词汇，清楚准确、生动形象地传情达意。

第七部分为“作文修改”，讲解如何修改初稿作文。尝试通过本章内容的教学，培养学生“好作文是改出来的”的写作意识，培养学生修改作文的良好写作习惯。

本教材不讲解应用文写作，因为应用文写作往往属于具体语境下的格式写作，学生基础写作水平和能力达到一定程度后，应用文写作也是可以自学的。

本教材也不讲解学术论文写作，一是因为写作是一门实践性较强的课程，需要学生进行大量写作实践，也需要教师在课堂上讲评学生习作，以帮助学生学会灵活运用

所学知识，讲解学术论文写作会减少基础写作讲、练、评的时间，且学术论文写作讲解也只能蜻蜓点水；二是因为学生基础写作水平和能力达到一定程度后，毕业论文写作主要是选题和格式问题，学生完全可以通过自学解决。

本教材特色

(1) 本教材注重写作目的、作者身份和读者对象意识的培养。著名教育家叶圣陶曾说：“文章不是吃饱了没事做，写来作为消遣的，也不是恐怕被人认做书呆子，不得不找几句话来说，然后勉强动笔的，凡是好文章必须有不得不写的缘故。”本教材设专门章节讲解写作目的、作者身份和读者对象的确立，有助于学生明确写作的目的。

(2) 写作实践练习与阅读活动深度结合。本教材设立专门章节讲解读后写作活动，为后面章节的写作实践活动设计奠定基础。限于篇幅，并不是所有实践活动都配备阅读材料，但教学过程中，教师可以根据具体语境，参考第二部分自行设计读写活动，让学生在特定语境中为特定目的进行写作练习，培养学生为特定目的而写的写作意识。根据具体语境自行设计实践活动是所有教材使用者应该具备的“用教材”意识，这也是为什么本教材讲解写作规范之后首先讲解读后写作任务的用意所在。

(3) 讲解英语作文基本规范中的标点符号的正确使用时，本教材不止于简单列举标点符号的语篇功能，还增加了标点符号与连接词、副词的相互关系的讲解，帮助学生学会综合所学知识，进行灵活运用。

(4) 本教材中的错误示例大多数选自学生习作，是中国英语学习者实实在在会犯的 error，而不是办公室里假想的学生可能出现的错误，更具代表性、说服力和警示作用。

2017年8月

目 录

Part One Manuscript Form	(1)
I. Arrangement	(1)
II. Capitalization	(3)
III. Word Division	(3)
IV. Punctuation	(4)
1. The Comma	(5)
2. The Period	(6)
3. The Semicolon	(7)
4. The Colon	(7)
 Part Two Reading and Writing	(13)
I. The Relationship Between Reading and Writing	(13)
II. Writing After Reading	(15)
1. The Summary	(15)
2. The Book Report	(21)
3. Creative Writing After Reading	(24)
 Part Three What We Write	(46)
I. Why We Write	(46)
1. Benefits of Writing Activities	(46)
2. Functions of Specific Writings	(48)
II. Who We Are & Who We Write For	(49)
III. What We Write	(50)
1. Reader-Oriented Writing	(51)

2. Types of Writing (59)

Part Four How We Write: The Composition Organization (61)

I. The Outline (61)

1. Brainstorming (62)

2. Working Out the Outline (62)

II. Three Main Parts (64)

1. The Beginning Part (64)

2. The Body Part (68)

3. The Concluding Part (69)

III. The Composition Organization (71)

1. Narration (72)

2. Description (75)

3. Exposition (82)

4. Argumentation (112)

IV. Principles of Good Composition (118)

1. Unified (118)

2. Well-Organized (119)

3. Proportioned (119)

4. Justified (119)

Part Five How We Write: The Paragraph Development (127)

I. Paragraphs in Essays (128)

1. Paragraphs That Signal a New Idea (128)

2. Paragraphs That Expand an Old Idea (130)

3. Paragraphs That Function as a Transition (130)

4. Paragraphs That Conclude an Idea (132)

II. Paragraphs Between Themselves	(133)
1. Transitional Words and Phrases	(133)
2. Repetition	(139)
3. Transitional Questions	(141)
4. Bridging Sentences	(142)
5. A Combination of Varied Paragraph Transition	(145)
III. Paragraphs Within Themselves	(146)
1. The Topic Sentence	(146)
2. The Supporting Sentences	(150)
3. The Concluding Sentence	(155)
IV. Characteristics of Effective Paragraphs	(156)
1. Unified	(157)
2. Coherent	(158)
3. Well-organized	(159)
4. Complete	(159)

Part Six How We Polish Our Writing: Choice of Sentences and Words

.....	(163)
I. Choice of Sentences	(163)
1. Complete Sentences	(163)
2. Types of Sentences	(165)
3. Effective Sentences	(170)
II. Choice of Words	(181)
1. Classification of Words	(181)
2. The Word Meaning	(184)
3. Idioms	(188)
4. Figures of Speech	(189)

Part Seven	How We Revise Our Writing	(198)
I.	Self-Check	(198)
1.	Content	(199)
2.	Organization	(199)
3.	Sentences	(200)
4.	Diction	(200)
5.	Mistakes in Mechanics	(201)
II.	Peer Review	(201)
后记		(205)

Part One Manuscript Form

Manuscript form is the first thing we need to learn from the very beginning of our learning to write, not only because we need to have a clear idea of the basic writing rules for us to set off, both in type and handwriting, also because we don't have to spend time correcting any non-standard behavior if we learn about the standards of doing something from the first day. Manuscript form involves writing the title, leaving margins, indenting, capitalizing, punctuating and dividing words. We should make sure we don't make mistakes in such basic mechanics as manuscript form, for, whether we write fluently or not, the right manuscript form shows our serious attitude towards the writing task. Tidy and standard handwriting and manuscript not only offers our readers pleasant experience, also shows our appreciation towards our writing teachers, who are usually our readers and who have to read and correct so many of our writing products. Our little efforts on manuscript form will make their correcting task a little bit easier and more enjoyable.

I. Arrangement

First of all, we need to make sure that our handwriting is easy to read and provides enough room for corrections, whether we write on exercise books or type on computers.

We write the title in the middle of the first line, capitalizing the first letters of its first and last words and all the other words (except articles, coordinating conjunctions, prepositions, and the *to* in infinitives). The first letters of the words following hyphens in compound words also need capitalizing. And if the prepositions have five or more letters, we need to capitalize their first letters. And if the prepositions belong to phrasal verbs, we also need to capitalize their first letters. We don't capitalize such coordinating conjunctions as *and*, *but*, *or*, *for*, *nor*, and so on, but we need to capitalize subordinating conjunctions like *as*, *because*, and *that*.

We don't end our title or heading with a period even if it is a sentence. But we need a question mark or an exclamatory point if our title or the heading is a direct question or an exclamatory statement. And if our title or heading includes quotes or titles of articles, we need to use quotation marks. If it has names of books, we need to underline it (or italicize it if we type on a computer).

For example:

Top Ten Things to Do in Your First Visit to China

First-Rate China Cities

How to Back Up a Computer

Rules to Abide By

Similarities Between Christmas and Chinese Spring Festival

To Lie or Not to Lie: Doctors' Dilemma

Do As You Like

Fallacy in "Do As You Like"

The Feminist in *Gone with the Wind*

The Feminist in *Gone with the Wind*

These are only the generally accepted capitalizing rules for titles. There are actually different capitalizing rules for various styles (such as *MLA* style in the liberal arts or humanities, *APA* style in journalism). The safest way is to capitalize as our teachers require, and stick to it unless other teachers, courses or subjects/fields have their own specific requirements.

When we write on lined English exercise books, we can write on every line since there is more space between lines than the ordinary note books or exercise books (when we write on these two types of exercise books, we can consider writing every other line). If we type on computers, we can adjust the line spacing according to the specific requirements if there are any. If we don't have any specific requirements about the line spacing, it will be advisable to adopt the 1.5 line spacing, which will leave enough room for the possible corrections, or what is generally accepted, or what the specific readers prefer.

We need to leave a margin on each side of the paper either by writing within the lines of the lined exercise books or notebooks or by typing on the pages with the generally accepted page layout. When writing on exercise books or notebooks, we are expected not to write to the right edge of the paper, keeping an eye on the left space to make enough room for the possible last word or move to the next line if there is not enough space left for the possible last word. In other words, there must be some blank space on the right side of the paper, and some on the left side, too.

Besides, we should indent the first line of every paragraph, leaving a space of about four or five letters. Or, we may choose not to indent the first word of each paragraph, but to write from the edge of the line. If we do so, we need to remember to leave a space of a line between paragraphs to mark the paragraph.

We can page our writing if there is more than one page. We usually use Arabic numerals without parentheses or periods in the upper right-hand corner, or in the lower right-hand corner, or in the middle of the bottom line. We don't have to mark the first page.

We can't begin a line with a comma, a period, a semicolon, a colon, a question mark or an exclamation mark. We can't begin a line with a one-letter or two-letter syllable, either. Similarly, we can't end a line with the first half of a pair of brackets, parentheses, or quotation marks. We can put the hyphen and the dash at the end, not at the beginning of a line.

II. Capitalization

Capitalization is the writing of a word with its first letter in uppercase and the remaining letters in lower case. Capitals are used mainly at three places: the first words of sentences, key words in titles, and proper names. The followings are the general capitalization rules:

We need to capitalize the first word of a sentence or a sentence fragment functioning as a sentence and the first letter of the first word after a period.

We need to capitalize proper nouns and adjectives derived from proper nouns as well as common nouns that are parts of proper names.

For example:

the Great Wall
 the Bridge Street
 Taylor Swift
 a Chinese song
 a Shakespearean play
 a Freudian slip

We need to capitalize the first word of quoted speech (words put between quotation marks).

For example:

Our teacher told us, "However you plan to spend your four-year college life, try your best to learn everything you can, anytime you can, from anyone you can; there will always come a time when you will be grateful you did."

My friend told me, "You can tell the size of a man by the size of the things which make him mad."

If a quoted speech is broken into two parts 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.

For example:

"It is not as dear," said the old man, "as the glove-cleaner, or life-cleaner, as I sometimes call it. No. That is five thousand dollars, never a penny less. One has to be older than you are, to indulge in that sort of thing. One has to save up for it."

III. Word Division

When we write or type, near the edge of the paper, we sometimes may find no enough space left for the word we are going to write. Then we have to decide whether to divide the word or to write / type it on the next line. Anyway, we are not expected to squeeze a word into the margin.

When typing, we usually don't have to worry about this problem since the word processing will take care of it automatically as is set. When we write, we need to remember the general principle: to divide a word according to its syllables and never put the hyphen at the beginning of a line.

Besides, we need to pay attention to the following things:

We are not expected to divide one-syllable words, like *face*, *rain*, *mark*, and *brushed*.

We are not expected to 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-wake*, *e-steem*, *sneak-y*, and *spaggett-i*.

We are not expected to put a two-letter syllable at the beginning of a line, like *make-up*, *shock-ed* and *cab-in*, for the two letters may sometimes be mistaken for a word.

We are not expected to divide proper names of people or places.

We divide hyphenated words only at the hyphen, like *sister-in-law*, *kind-hearted*, and *well-meaning*.

We need avoid dividing words in a way that may mislead the reader. We can't divide the word *really* into *re-ally*, *football* into *foot-ball*, for they may be regarded as two individual words.

We are not expected to divide the last word on a page. Instead, we had better write the whole word on the next page.

We divide derivatives between the prefix or suffix and the root of the word, such as *over-statement*, *super-man*, and *believ-able*.

We divide two-syllable words with double consonants between the two consonants, like *lit-tle*, *shuf-fle*, and *shat-ter*.

It's not always easy to divide words. When not sure, we may consult a dictionary or give up dividing by writing the whole word on the next line.

IV. Punctuation

Punctuation is of great importance. First of all, punctuation is vital for us to convey our intended meaning in writing. For example, we may punctuate "Woman without her man is nothing" in different ways, and have contrasting indication: (1) Woman! Without her, man is nothing. (2) Woman, without her man, is nothing. The first punctuation emphasizes the importance of women, while the second one stresses the significance of men. We can try punctuating "The man eats shoots and leaves" to see how punctuation influences the meaning. Then, punctuation is helpful for us to read, both silently and aloud, and understand the written text. We know where to pause for breath and fluency at the same time. The proper pause helps with the interpretation of both our listeners and ourselves.

Thus, punctuation is essential when we are writing. By using proper punctuation marks, we show our readers where we start and finish, and convey exactly what we intend to, and

make our writing easy to read and understand.

In this part, we talk about how to use commas, periods, semicolons, and colons. The other types of punctuation marks are not unimportant, but quite easy to understand and not so easy to make mistakes.

1. The Comma

The comma is usually used within a sentence to indicate a pause for breath and for the clarification of delicately different meanings, as is shown in the use of commas in "Woman without her man is nothing" and "The man eats shoots and leaves". For example, we may punctuate the sentence "The man eats shoots and leaves" with only one period, no commas at all, meaning the subject "the man" has "shoots and leaves" for food, and we may offer it two commas within it and one period at its end: "The man eats, shoots, and leaves.", to describe a series of his action. First the man eats something, then he fires a bullet from a weapon, and finally he leaves the scene, or one comma and one periods: "The man eats shoots, and leaves." So, this use of commas is determined by our writing purpose, without specific rules to guide. The more frequent use of commas has much to do with the structure of sentences, even where no pause is necessary.

For example, a comma can be used:

- In a compound sentence before the conjunction or connective, like:

I'm not a smart man, but I know what love is.

Take it easy, or you may end up too anxious to do it right.

She couldn't stop herself thinking about what she wanted, nor could she encourage herself to ask for it right away.

- After an adverbial clause or phrase before the subject of the sentence or in the middle of the sentence, like:

When you feel like talking about it, come to me and I'll always be there.

To help her out, he had to sell his favourite guitar.

In China, parents are willing to give up a lot, including their right to seek for happiness, to support their children.

- To separate a series of words or phrases having the same function in the sentence, like:

The mother bought apples, bananas, candies, and many snacks for the weekend.

The teacher likes praising students, playing games, and chatting online with them.

- To separate the nonrestrictive clauses and phrases from what they modify, like:

He chose to leave the city, where he had lived ever since he was born, to venture in a new city.

Elizabeth, who is entitled "Queen" of the college, will come to my birthday party.

- To separate the parenthetical elements from the other part of the sentence, like:

Your work, I'm sorry to say so, is not acceptable.

The boy, in fact, has tried everything to please her mother.

To tell the truth, the film is not as interesting as advertised.

- To indicate the omission of a word or a group of words, like:
One cat and one dog in the picture: the cat is white; the dog, black.
- To indicate a direct speech or a quotation to be followed, like:
The boy shouted, "Can I go now?"
- To separate each group of three digits from the right side to the left of large numbers, like:
Last year our profit was \$ 48,392,578. Let's have it even better this year.
- To separate the day from the year if the order is month-day-year, and many other structures, like:
She came to the school on June 19, 2017.

2. The Period

The period, or full stop, is used to mark a complete sentence. This complete sentence can be a declarative sentence (Those which intend to be a question are not included), a mildly imperative sentence, and an indirect question (not a direct question). For example:

- The mother felt anxious when her daughter stayed at home, doing nothing but lying on the sofa.
- The girl didn't want to confront her learning problem.
- Try your best to learn something about everything, and everything about something.
- The consultant asked whether they wanted to change for better.

The period can be used to mark abbreviations, for example, *Mr.*, *U.S.A.*, *a.m.*, and so on. Nowadays, abbreviations, especially those for names of organization, news agencies and broadcasting corporations, have the trend of dropping the period, for instance, *UN*, *UNESCO*, *CCTV*, and *WTO*.

Three spaced periods make the ellipsis mark in English, which is used to indicate the omission of words or a pause in conversations or faltering speeches. For example:

- When you grow up, you may be a teacher, a writer, a singer, a doctor ... Whatever you may be, one thing is certain: you will contribute your part to the society development.
- What do you mean by saying so?
- I mean ... well, I mean you don't have to do so.

When an ellipsis happens to be at the end of a sentence (like the first example here), a period is used after it. If so, there are four periods used together.

For us Chinese learners, it's so easy to use commas at the end of a sentence where a full stop is actually needed. This is the result of negative transfer of Chinese punctuation rules. The key to avoid such mistakes is to remember that an English complete sentence needs a full stop unless it is a part of a compound sentence or a complex one.

Read the following pairs of sentences, paying attention to their difference in punctuation.

- Yesterday, she went to Chongqing. There she was born and lived for 30 years.
- Yesterday, she went to Chongqing, where she was born and lived for 30 years.
- No one is born with knowledge. Knowledge must be taught and learnt.
- No one is born with knowledge, for knowledge must be taught and learnt.

No one is born with knowledge; knowledge must be taught and learnt.

If she married that man, her parents would be unhappy, but if she didn't marry that man, she would be unhappy.

If she married that man, her parents would be unhappy; if she didn't marry that man, she herself would be unhappy.

3. The Semicolon

A semicolon is used, as is shown in the above examples, when two coordinate clauses are not connected by a conjunction. The main function of the semicolon is to mark the close connection of two or more related sentences.

As is shown, the closely related sentences can stand as independent sentences and convey the intended meaning. Two different punctuation marks do indicate a delicate difference in the closeness of their relationship. So, it is determined by our writing purpose whether to punctuate two coordinate clauses with a comma and a conjunction, a semicolon, or a full stop and a capitalized initial letter of the first word of another complete sentence. If we want to emphasize the close relationship, we may choose to punctuate it with a comma and a conjunction, or simply a semicolon; otherwise, we may write it as two separate complete sentences.

And in literary works, the comma can be used as the semicolon, indicating the close relationship between two or more sentences. So, the semicolon can be used to take the responsibility of the comma:

- With conjunctions when the clauses have internal punctuations (usually the comma), like:

To our surprise, he came to the scene; and he took with him many helpful hands.

Before he fell ill, his parents had expected him to be an excellent student; but when he was found terminally ill, they simply wanted him to get healthy, nothing else.

- To separate a series of parallel items which contain internal commas, like:

Many professors came to her farewell party, for example, Professor Cao, the one who warned her not to be absent from his lectures; Professor Hu, the one who encouraged her to pursue her dream; Professor Gan, the one who was driven crazy by her ridiculous ideas; and Professor Wang, the one who seemed to always find fault with her writing.

Twelve students from our school won prizes in Global Natural History Day 2017; ten from Yucai School; seven from Bashu School; two from Bachuan School.

- To indicate the omission of some words appearing in the previous part, like:

Both their two children graduate from the first-class universities; the son from Yale University; the daughter from Cambridge University.

4. The Colon

The English colon is not like the Chinese colon which is often used before a direct speech. In English, the colon is not used before a direct speech, but the comma is. The English colon, however, may precede a quotation or a statement. For example: