



I 互联网英语

INTERNET

ENGLISH

陈明瑶 刘法公 徐燕 张霞霖 编著



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互联网英语

Internet English

陈明瑶 刘法公 徐燕 张霞霖 编著

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·北京·

内 容 简 介

本书共分 15 个单元,每单元集中讨论一个专题,除文章外,还有互联网英语语言特点分析,从现代英语研究的角度分析互联网英语的词汇、句法和特殊表达法的特征与规律,以提高学习者对专门用途英语的应用能力,并提供练习供阅读者学习。

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前言

网络是让人着迷的。它是一道门,一道通向全世界所有角落的门,鼠标就是阿里巴巴的咒语;它是一根线,一根山水隔不断、风雨吹不走的线,一头是你,一头是爱人、亲人、朋友,在这根线上,有一种天涯叫咫尺;它是一本书,一本包罗万象的百科全书,就在键盘轻扣间,满足你所有的求知欲和好奇心;它是一座桥,一座超越了国家、种族、年龄、性别、社会地位等一切附加因素的桥。在互联网上,每个人都归零成为平等的人,吸引、排斥、喜爱、厌恶都因心而发,随心而动;它是一场戏,一场每个人自编、自导、自演的戏,平时木讷寡言的可以妙语连珠,谨小慎微的可以飞扬跋扈,台上演的是自己抑或另一个自己?

计算机与网络是继造纸术和印刷术发明以来,人类又一个信息存储与传播的伟大创造,称为第五次信息革命。通常,网络与网络之间所串联成的庞大网络,即互联网,是指在 ARPA 网基础上发展出的世界上最大的全球性互联网络。互联网在现实生活中应用很广泛。在互联网上可以查阅资料、互动交流、玩游戏等。互联网不仅对工作和学习有促进作用,也给我们的现实生活带来很大的方便。本书不仅方便所有网络冲浪者参与国际交流,更应该作为一门专门用途英语课程的教材,为高校各专业的学生提供学术指导,为培养国际化人才开创时尚便捷之门。

专门用途英语(English for Special Purposes)是指与某种特定职业、学科或社会活动相关的英语。它有两个明显的特点:一是学习者有明确的学习目的,即由于特定行业的需要,学习者需要达到在某些学科内使用英语的能力。二是有特殊的内容,即专门化的内容。根据职业或学科的不同,专门用途英语可以包括许多英语分支,如金融英语、商务英语、法律英语、互联网英语等。从语言学的角度看,专门用途英语是在不同学科范围内所使用的英语变体,因其有独特的词汇、句法和结构模式,普通英语学习者必须通过专门的教材及专门的教学手段的培训,才能有效学得,恰当运用,实现交际目的。

因此,“互联网英语”课程不同于用英语讲授的网络通信专业课程。专业课讲授的是该专业的严密、完整、系统的理论知识,以传播专业知识为目的,英语只是一种教学语言而已。而“互联网英语”的课程重点在于学习专门用途英语,掌握互联网交际英语的特点、句法规律和术语表达法,掌握互联网冲浪的实际操作步骤,实现国际化互动。作为语言课,它以传授与互联网有关的英语语言知识和操作技能为目的,并不过深、过细地探究系统的通信专业知识。因此,本书的编写相应地重视特殊语体的学习和实践。

本书把互联网主要涉及的内容进行分类,编成 15 个单元,侧重实用。本书的每单元集中讨论一个专题,除课文外,还有互联网英语语言特点分析,从现代英语研究的角度分析互联网英语

的词汇、句法和特殊表达法的特征与规律,以提高学习者对专门用途英语的应用能力,并提供各种形式的书面语言练习题和供师生课堂口语交流的问答题,使专业知识和英语语言技能训练相结合,论述与描写均体现该专题的英语语言风格和词语表达特色。此外,每个单元的最后还附有2篇~3篇追加阅读材料,为学习者提供一些有关的背景知识,学习者或课程教师可以选择性地阅读。

本书不仅适用于高等院校各专业作为选修课的教材,还适合于一般的网络工作人员和普通读者阅读使用。通过阅读与实践,读者将了解和掌握互联网专业知识及其特殊的英语句法、词法和语体。

本书是浙江工商大学外国语学院省级重点建设专业(英语)建设经费资助成果之一,是学院专门用途英语(ESP)系列教程之一。由于编者水平所限,疏漏之处实属难免,恳请学界同仁及读者不吝指正。

编者

2011年11月

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Unit One

Cyberspace & Websites 网络空间与网站

Pre-reading Activities

1. Answer the following questions:

- (1) What is cyber space?
- (2) What is your favourite website?
- (3) From what sources do you learn about the world news? Do you often read website news?

2. Surfing the Internet:

Visit websites. Find out the basic elements of a website and report to the class.

3. You will read texts in English. After each text, you will be asked to do the exercises that follow. Watch for answers to these important questions while you are reading:

- (1) What can people usually do on the Internet?
- (2) What is the origin of the word “cyberspace”?
- (3) What is the metaphorical meaning of “cyberspace”?

Text 1

Cyberspace^[1] is the electronic medium of computer networks, in which online communication takes place.

The term “cyberspace” was first used by the cyberpunk^[2] science fiction author William Gibson. Widely used since, it has been criticized by its inventor, as Gibson himself would later describe it as an “evocative and essentially meaningless” buzzword that could serve as a cipher for all of his “cybernetic musings”. The first component of the term comes from “cybernetics”^[3], which is derived from the Greek κυβερνήτης (kybernētēs, steersman, governor, pilot, or rudder), a word introduced by Norbert Wiener’s for his pioneering work in electronic communication and control science.

Now ubiquitous, in current usage the term “cyberspace” stands for the global network of interdependent information technology infrastructures, telecommunications networks and computer processing systems. As a social experience, individuals can interact, exchange ideas, share information, provide social support, conduct business, direct actions, create artistic media, play games, engage in political discussion, and so on, using this global network. The term has become a conventional means to describe anything associated with the Internet and the diverse Internet culture. The United States government recognizes the interconnected information technology and the interdependent network of information technology infrastructures operating across this medium as part of the US National Critical Infrastructure.

According to Chip Morningstar and F. Randall Farmer, cyberspace is defined more by the social interactions involved rather than its technical implementation. In their view, the computational medium in cyberspace is an augmentation of the communication channel between real people; the core characteristic of cyberspace is that it offers an environment that consists of many participants with the ability to affect and influence each other. They derive this concept from the observation that people seek richness, complexity, and depth within a virtual world.

Origins of the term

The word “cyberspace” (from cybernetics and space) was coined by science fiction novelist and seminal cyberpunk author William Gibson in his 1982 story “Burning Chrome” and popularized by his 1984 novel *Neuromancer*. The portion of *Neuromancer* cited in this respect is usually the following:

Cyberspace. A consensual hallucination experienced daily by billions of legitimate operators, in every nation, by children being taught mathematical concepts. . . A graphic representation of data abstracted from the banks of every computer in the human system. Unthinkable complexity. Lines of light ranged in the nonspace of the mind, clusters and constellations of data. Like city lights, receding.

Despite its originally negative overtone, the term no longer implies a negative connotation.

Gibson later commented on the origin of the term in the 2000 documentary *No Maps for These Territories* :

All I knew about the word “cyberspace” when I coined it, was that it seemed like an effective buzzword. It seemed evocative and essentially meaningless. It was suggestive of something, but had no real semantic meaning, even for me, as I saw it emerge on the page.

Metaphorical

The metaphor used to describe the “sense of a social setting that exists purely within a

space of representation and communication... it exists entirely within a computer space, distributed across increasingly complex and fluid networks.” (Slater 2002, 355) The term “Cyberspace” started to become a de facto synonym for the internet, and later the World Wide Web^[4], during the 1990s, especially in academic circles and activist communities. Author Bruce Sterling, who popularized this meaning, credits John Perry Barlow as the first to use it to refer to “the present-day nexus of computer and telecommunications networks.” Barlow describes it thus in his essay to announce the formation of the Electronic Frontier Foundation (note the spatial metaphor) in June, 1990:

In this silent world, all conversation is typed. To enter it, one forsakes both body and place and becomes a thing of words alone. You can see what your neighbors are saying (or recently said), but not what either they or their physical surroundings look like. Town meetings are continuous and discussions rage on everything from sexual kinks to depreciation schedules.

Whether by one telephonic tendril or millions, they are all connected to one another. Collectively, they form what their inhabitants call the Net. It extends across that immense region of electron states, microwaves, magnetic fields, light pulses and thought which sci-fi writer William Gibson named Cyberspace.

—John Perry Barlow, “Crime and Puzzlement,” 1990-06-08

As Barlow, and the EFF, continued public education efforts to promote the idea of “digital rights”, the term was increasingly used during the internet boom of the late 1990s.

Virtual environments

Although the present-day, loose use of the term “cyberspace” no longer implies or suggests immersion in a virtual reality, current technology allows the integration of a number of capabilities (sensors, signals, connections, transmissions, processors, and controllers) sufficient to generate a virtual interactive experience that is accessible regardless of a geographic location.

In 1989, Autodesk, an American multinational corporation that focuses on 2D and 3D design software, developed a virtual design system called Cyberspace.

Cyberspace as an internet metaphor

While cyberspace should not be confused with the internet, the term is often used to refer to objects and identities that exist largely within the communication network itself, so that a website, for example, might be metaphorically said to “exist in cyberspace.” According to this interpretation, events taking place on the internet are not happening in the locations where participants or servers are physically located, but “in cyberspace”.

Firstly, cyberspace describes the flow of digital data through the network of interconnected computers; it is at once not “real”, since one could not spatially locate it as a tangible

object, and clearly “real” in its effects. Secondly, cyberspace is the site of computer-mediated communication (CMC), in which online relationships and alternative forms of online identity were enacted, raising important questions about the social psychology of internet use, the relationship between “online” and “offline” forms of life and interaction, and the relationship between the “real” and the virtual. Cyberspace draws attention to remediation of culture through new media technologies: it is not just a communication tool but a social destination, and is culturally significant in its own right. Finally, cyberspace can be seen as providing new opportunities to reshape society and culture through “hidden” identities, or it can be seen as borderless communication and culture.

Cyberspace is the “place” where a telephone conversation appears to occur. Not inside your actual phone, the plastic device on your desk. Not inside the other person’s phone, in some other city. The place between the phones. . . . in the past twenty years, this electrical “space,” which was once thin and dark and one-dimensional—little more than a narrow speaking-tube, stretching from phone to phone—has flung itself open like a gigantic jack-in-the-box. Light has flooded upon it, the eerie light of the glowing computer screen. This dark electric netherworld has become a vast flowering electronic landscape. Since the 1960s, the world of the telephone has cross-bred itself with computers and television, and though there is still no substance to cyberspace, nothing you can handle, it has a strange kind of physicality now. It makes good sense today to talk of cyberspace as a place all its own.

—Bruce Sterling, Introduction to *The Hacker Crackdown*

The “space” in cyberspace has more in common with the abstract, mathematical meanings of the term (see space) than physical space. It does not have the duality of positive and negative volume (while in physical space for example a room has the negative volume of usable space delineated by positive volume of walls, internet users cannot enter the screen and explore the unknown part of the internet as an extension of the space they are in), but spatial meaning can be attributed to the relationship between different pages (of books as well as webserver^[5]), considering the unturned pages to be somewhere “out there.” The concept of cyberspace therefore refers not to the content being presented to the surfer, but rather to the possibility of surfing among different sites, with feedback loops between the user and the rest of the system creating the potential to always encounter something unknown or unexpected.

Videogames differ from text-based communication in that on-screen images are meant to be figures that actually occupy a space and the animation shows the movement of those figures. Images are supposed to form the positive volume that delineates the empty space. A game adopts the cyberspace metaphor by engaging more players in the game, and then figu-

ratively representing them on the screen as avatars. Games do not have to stop at the avatar-player level, but current implementations aiming for more immersive playing space (i. e. Laser tag) take the form of augmented reality rather than cyberspace, fully immersive virtual realities remaining impractical.

Although the more radical consequences of the global communication network predicted by some cyberspace proponents (i. e. the diminishing of state influence envisioned by John Perry Barlow) failed to materialize and the word lost some of its novelty appeal, it remains current as of 2006.

Some virtual communities explicitly refer to the concept of cyberspace, for example Linden Lab calling their customers “Residents” of Second Life, while all such communities can be positioned “in cyberspace” for explanatory and comparative purposes (as did Sterling in *The Hacker Crackdown*, followed by many journalists), integrating the metaphor into a wider cyber-culture.

The metaphor has been useful in helping a new generation of thought leaders to reason through new military strategies around the world, led largely by the US Department of Defense (DoD). The use of cyberspace as a metaphor has had its limits, however, especially in areas where the metaphor becomes confused with physical infrastructure.

Notes

[1] cyberspace 网络空间的四个必备要素:通信线路和通信设备;有独立功能的计算机;网络软件支持;实现数据通信与资源共享。

[2] cyberpunk ①科幻小说的一种,以完全依赖计算机的未来世界为题材,情节发展快速。②网际庞克,指执迷于计算机及计算机网络的年轻族群,其恣意作为已然超乎计算机专业人士所认可的伦理范畴,以及法律制定者所能忍受的限度。

[3] cybernetics 控制论。自从1948年诺伯特·维纳发表了著名的《控制论——关于在动物和机器中控制和通信的科学》一书以来,控制论的思想和方法已经渗透到了几乎所有的自然科学和社会科学领域。维纳把控制论看作是一门研究机器、生命社会中控制和通信的一般规律的科学,是研究动态系统在变化的环境条件下如何保持平衡状态或稳定状态的科学。他特意创造 Cybernetics 这个英语新词来命名这门科学。“控制论”一词最初来源希腊文 mberuhhtz,原意为“操舵术”,就是掌舵的方法和技术的思想。在柏拉图(古希腊哲学家)的著作中,经常用它来表示管理人的艺术。在控制论中,“控制”的定义是:为了“改善”某个或某些受控对象的功能或发展,需要获得并使用信息,以这种信息为基础而选出的、于该对象上的作用,叫作控制。由此可见,控制的基础是信息,一切信息传递都是为了控制,进而任何控制又都有赖于信息反馈来实现。信息反馈是控制论的一个极其重要的概念。通俗地说,信息反馈就是指由控制系统把信息输送出去,又把其作用结果返送回来,并对信息的再输出发生影响,起到制约的作用,以达

到预定的目的。

[4] World Wide Web 万维网(亦作“网络”、“WWW”、“3W”,英文“Web”),是一个资料空间。在这个空间中,有用的事物,称为“资源”;并且由一个全域“统一资源标识符”(URL)标识。这些资源通过超文本传输协议(Hypertext Transfer Protocol)传送给使用者,而后者通过点击链接来获得资源。从另一个观点来看,万维网是一个透过网络存取的互连的超文件(inter-linked hypertext document)系统。万维网联盟(World Wide Web Consortium,简称 W3C),又称 W3C 理事会。

[5] webserver 网络服务器,作为硬件,通常是指那些具有较高计算能力,能够提供给多个用户使用的计算机。服务器与 PC 的不同点太多了,如 PC 在一个时刻通常只为一个用户服务。服务器与主机不同,主机是通过终端给用户使用的,服务器是通过网络给客户端用户使用的。网络服务器介于网络接收器与触摸屏之间,是触摸屏控制会议室各设备的桥梁。

Exercises

1. Discuss the following topics:

- (1) Compare and contrast: the Internet, cyberspace, and the World Wide Web.
- (2) Compare and contrast: avatar, surfer, hacker, and cyberholic.

2. Give the English terms to the following Chinese:

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| (1) 互联网 _____ | (6) 超文本传输协议 _____ |
| (2) 万维网 _____ | (7) 超文本 _____ |
| (3) 电子邮件 _____ | (8) 超链接 _____ |
| (4) 公告牌,电子公告牌 _____ | (9) 网络浏览器 _____ |
| (5) 远程登录 _____ | (10) 网络服务器 _____ |

3. Translate the following sentences into Chinese:

- (1) Cyberspace is the electronic medium of computer networks, in which online communication takes place.
- _____

- (2) According to Chip Morningstar and F. Randall Farmer, cyberspace is defined more by the social interactions involved rather than its technical implementation. In their view, the computational medium in cyberspace is an augmentation of the communication channel between real people.
- _____

- (3) The core characteristic of cyberspace is that it offers an environment that consists of many participants with the ability to affect and influence each other.
- _____

- (4) The metaphor used to describe the “sense of a social setting that exists purely within a space of repre-

sensation and communication. . . it exists entirely within a computer space, distributed across increasingly complex and fluid networks.”

(5) Cyberspace describes the flow of digital data through the network of interconnected computers; it is at once not “real”, since one could not spatially locate it as a tangible object, and clearly “real” in its effects.

(6) The concept of cyberspace therefore refers not to the content being presented to the surfer, but rather to the possibility of surfing among different sites, with feedback loops between the user and the rest of the system creating the potential to always encounter something unknown or unexpected.

4. Choose the correct form of the words to fill the respective gaps.

origin style commentators argues previously internet related publishers

The form “website” has become the standard spelling, but (1) “Web site” (capitalised) and “web site” were also widely used. Some academia, some large book (2), and some dictionaries still use “web-site”, reflecting the (3) of the term in the proper name World Wide Web. There has also been similar debate regarding (4) terms such as web page, webmaster, and webcam.

Among leading (5) guides, the Reuters style guide, The Chicago Manual of Style, and the AP Style-book (since April 2010) all recommend “website.”

Among leading dictionaries and encyclopedias, the *Canadian Oxford Dictionary* prefers “website”, and the *Oxford English Dictionary* changed to “website” in 2004. Wikipedia also uses “website”, but Encyclop dia Britannica (including its Merriam-Webster subsidiary) uses “web site.”

Among leading language-usage (6), Garner’s *Modern American Usage* acknowledges that “website” is the standard form, but Bill Walsh, of the *Washington Post*, (7) for using “website” in his books and on his website (however, the *Washington Post* itself uses “website”).

Among major (8) technology companies, Microsoft uses “website” and occasionally “website”, Apple uses “website”, and Google uses “website”.

5. Reading comprehension:

Wild Bill Donovan would have loved the Internet. The American spymaster who built the Office of Strategic Services in the World War II and later laid the roots for the CIA was fascinated with information. Donovan believed in using whatever tools came to hand in the “great game” of espionage—spying as a “profession”. These days the Net, which has already re-made such everyday pastimes as buying books and sending mail, is reshaping Donovan’s vocation as well.

The latest revolution isn’t simply a matter of gentlemen reading other gentlemen’s e-mail. That kind of electronic spying has been going on for decades. In the past three or four years, the World Wide Web has given birth to a whole industry of point-and-click spying. The spooks call it “open-source intelligence”, and as the Net grows, it is becoming increasingly influential. In 1995 the CIA held a contest to see who could compile

the most data about Burundi. The winner, by a large margin, was a tiny Virginia company called Open Source Solutions, whose clear advantage was its mastery of the electronic world.

Among the firms making the biggest splash in this new world is Straitford, Inc., a private intelligence-analysis firm based in Austin, Texas. Straitford makes money by selling the results of spying (covering nations from Chile to Russia) to corporations like energy-services firm McDermott International. Many of its predictions are available online at www.straitford.com.

Straitford president George Friedman says he sees the online world as a kind of mutually reinforcing tool for both information collection and distribution, a spymaster's dream. Last week his firm was busy vacuuming up data bits from the far corners of the world and predicting a crisis in Ukraine. "As soon as that report runs, we'll suddenly get 500 new Internet sign-ups from Ukraine," says Friedman, a former political science professor. "And we'll hear back from some of them." Open-source spying does have its risks, of course, since it can be difficult to tell good information from bad. That's where Straitford earns its keep.

Friedman relies on a lean staff of 20 in Austin. Several of his staff members have military-intelligence backgrounds. He sees the firm's outsider status as the key to its success. Straitford's briefs don't sound like the usual Washington back-and-forthing, whereby agencies avoid dramatic declarations on the chance they might be wrong. Straitford, says Friedman, takes pride in its independent voice.

- (1) The emergence of the Net has _____.
[A] received support from fans like Donovan [B] remolded the intelligence services
[C] restored many common pastimes [D] revived spying as a profession
- (2) Donovan's story is mentioned in the text to _____.
[A] introduce the topic of online spying [B] show how he fought for the US
[C] give an episode of the information war [D] honor his unique services to the CIA
- (3) The phrase "making the biggest splash" (line 1, paragraph 3) most probably means _____.
[A] causing the biggest trouble [B] exerting the greatest effort
[C] achieving the greatest success [D] enjoying the widest popularity
- (4) It can be learned from paragraph 4 that _____.
[A] Straitford's prediction about Ukraine has proved true
[B] Straitford guarantees the truthfulness of its information
[C] Straitford's business is characterized by unpredictability
[D] Straitford is able to provide fairly reliable information
- (5) Straitford is most proud of its _____.
[A] official status [B] nonconformist image
[C] efficient staff [D] military background

Internet English Features

互联网英语语言特点

网络聊天语和电子邮件用语的词法特点

网络聊天语和电子邮件用语的最大特点是大量使用超常规缩略语。而这些超越普通缩略

语构成常规的网络缩略语,因其创新性、简约性、易读性、便传输等特点而备受网民的青睐,广泛流传于手机短信、电子邮件、网上聊天、BBS 发文等,已成为网络英语中极富表现力的一种语言形式。

1) 按照读音特点产生的缩略语

虽然网络聊天语和电子邮件用语是用书面形式进行的,但口语语体的特点还是十分突出的。为了尽量缩短交流双方的等待时间,发话人常常按口语的读音特点键入词汇,能缩写时尽量缩写。如 B'4→before, CU→See you, 4u→for you, cu2morrow→see you tomorrow, IC→I see, F2F→face to face 等。

2) 首字母缩略语

为了提高交际速度、及时交换信息,网民还常常使用英语首字母缩略语。如 IMNSHO→In my not so humble opinion (依本人之高见), FYI→For your information (仅供参考), DIHK→Damned if I know (要是我知道就好了), PEM→Privacy enhanced mail (保密邮件)等。

3) 符号语

由于纯文字不能把人们日常交往中所使用的表情、肢体、动作等语言辅助形式表达出来,传达给对方,为了弥补这种缺陷,网民们便只好充分利用键盘上的符号、数字和图形,通过不同的组合,来传达喜、笑、怒、愁等情感,从而创造了一套独特的网络符号语。如,{ }或[]→Hug (表示拥抱);3→Kiss (表示接吻);:—<→Angry (表示生气);):—)→Smile/laugh (表示笑);:'—(→Crying (表示哭);{{{ 3 3 3 }}}→Hugs and kisses (表示拥抱和亲吻)。符号语表意形象、生动,弥补了网上感情交流的不足。但是,这些符号语属于专业性很强的幽默体语言,主要由“电脑族”和思维活跃的年轻人使用,在正式信件中一般不使用。

4) 复合词

经过十几年的飞速发展,互联网已成为世界上规模最大、覆盖面最广、信息资源最丰富、信息种类最齐全、信息传播速度最快捷的计算机信息网络。当今互联网上 82.3 % 的信息是用英语编写和传播的。网上新词层出不穷,而这些新词的特点之一就是复合词占互联网语言的 90%。其构成形式多种多样,一些词语开始为两个词,而后用连字符连接,现在成为一个词。这些词已成为网络使用者表达思想时不可或缺的词语。例如:firewall (防火墙), freeware (免费软件), hyperlink (超链接), netizen (网民), cyberbrain (电脑族), netsurfing (网上冲浪)等。

Text 2

A website (also written Web site or simply site) is a collection of related web pages containing images, videos or other digital assets. A website is hosted on at least one web server, accessible via a network such as the Internet or a private local area network through an Internet address also called URL.

A web page is a document, typically written in plain text interspersed with formatting

instructions of Hypertext Markup Language (HTML, XHTML). A web page may incorporate elements from other websites with suitable markup anchors.

Web pages are accessed and transported with the Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP), which may optionally employ encryption (HTTP Secure, HTTPS) to provide security and privacy for the user of the web page content. The user's application, often a web browser, renders the page content according to its HTML markup instructions onto a display terminal.

All publicly accessible websites collectively constitute the World Wide Web.

The pages of a website can usually be accessed from a simple Uniform Resource Locator (URL) called the homepage. The URLs of the pages organize them into a hierarchy, although hyperlinking between them conveys the reader's perceived site structure and guides the reader's navigation of the site.

Some websites require a subscription to access some or all of their content. Examples of subscription websites include many business sites, parts of news websites, academic journal websites, gaming websites, message boards, web-based e-mail, social networking websites, websites providing real-time stock market data, and websites providing various other services (e.g. websites offering storing and/or sharing of images, files and so forth).

History

The World Wide Web (WWW) was created in 1989 by CERN physicist Tim Berners-Lee. On 30 April 1993, CERN announced that the World Wide Web would be free to use for anyone. Before the introduction of HTML and HTTP, other protocols such as file transfer protocol and the gopher protocol were used to retrieve individual files from a server. These protocols offer a simple directory structure which the user navigates and chooses files to download. Documents were most often presented as plain text files without formatting, or were encoded in word processor formats.

Overview

Organized by function, a website may be

- a personal website
- a commercial website
- a government website
- a non-profit organization website

It could be the work of an individual, a business or other organization, and is typically dedicated to some particular topic or purpose. Any website can contain a hyperlink to any other website, so the distinction between individual sites, as perceived by the user, may sometimes be blurred.

Websites are written in, or dynamically converted to, HTML (Hyper Text Markup

Language) and are accessed using a software interface classified as a user agent. Web pages can be viewed or otherwise accessed from a range of computer-based and Internet-enabled devices of various sizes, including desktop computers, laptops, PDAs and cell phones.

A website is hosted on a computer system known as a web server, also called an HTTP server, and these terms can also refer to the software that runs on these systems and that retrieves and delivers the web pages in response to requests from the website users. Apache is the most commonly used web server software (according to Netcraft statistics) and Microsoft's Internet Information Server (IIS) is also commonly used.

Static website

Main article: static web page

A static website is one that has web pages stored on the server in the format that is sent to a client web browser. It is primarily coded in Hypertext Markup Language , HTML.

Simple forms or marketing examples of websites, such as classic website, a five-page website or a brochure website are often static websites, because they present pre-defined, static information to the user. This may include information about a company and its products and services via text, photos, animations, audio/video and interactive menus and navigation.

This type of website usually displays the same information to all visitors. Similar to handing out a printed brochure to customers or clients, a static website will generally provide consistent, standard information for an extended period of time. Although the website owner may make updates periodically, it is a manual process to edit the text, photos and other content and may require basic website design skills and software.

In summary, visitors are not able to control what information they receive via a static website, and must instead settle for whatever content the website owner has decided to offer at that time.

They are edited using four broad categories of software;

Text editors, such as Notepad or TextEdit, where content and HTML markup are manipulated directly within the editor program.

WYSIWYG offline editors, such as Microsoft FrontPage and Adobe Dreamweaver (previously Macromedia Dreamweaver), with which the site is edited using a GUI interface and the final HTML markup is generated automatically by the editor software.

WYSIWYG online editors which create media rich online presentation like web pages, widgets, intro, blogs, and other documents.

Template-based editors, such as Rapidweaver and iWeb, which allow users to quickly create and upload web pages to a web server without detailed HTML knowledge, as they pick a suitable template from a palette and add pictures and text to it in a desktop publishing