

高等院校英语专业现代应用型教材

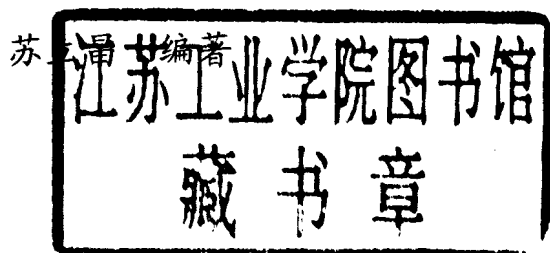
GUIDE TO ENGLISH LINGUISTICS

英语语言学 导读

苏立昌 / 编著

南开大学出版社

英语语言学导读



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总 序

改革开放的深入，改变了人们对英语和英语教学的认识。在中国逐步向世界全面开放的过程中，英语作为一种通用语，在人们眼里已不再神秘，它只是中国与世界交流必不可少的语言工具。英语的教学目标也不再像几十年前那样，旨在培养少数英语精英，而是要培养各行各业急需的、能直接进行跨文化交际和双向语言沟通的千千万万普通劳动者。在这种新认识的驱动下，从 20 世纪后期起，各大学在继续传统英语专业教学的同时，都积极探索着新的英语教学模式，以培养中国社会飞速发展所需要的大量复合型应用英语人才——既能用英语同世界直接交流又懂一些专门知识与实务操作技能的现代化社会劳动者。

近 10 年来中国涌现出来的 300 多所民办独立学院，即源于上述这种认识。独立的英语专业学院，也明确提出了培养复合型应用英语人才的目标，所采用的教学模式是“英语+专业”，抑或“专业+英语”，即新型英语专业。

新型英语专业的培养目标符合当今中国社会发展的需要。因为与传统英语专业学生相比，新型英语专业的学生拥有前者所欠缺的专门化学科知识；而与其他学科的学生相比，他们又拥有后者所不具备的英语接收与表达能力。这些懂专业、会英语、能直接与世界交流与沟通的毕业生，是有着极大提高潜力和完善空间的复合型应用英语人才，为国家和社会所需要，因此就业面广，很受社会欢迎。

新型英语专业采用“英语+专业”的教学模式值得肯定，但要成功培养出符合社会需求的高质量复合型应用英语人才，则必须在课程设置、教材编写和教学模式等方面充分考虑到一个关键点，即英语教学本身在培养目标上与其他学科的区别，将英语语言教学与有关专业学科教学适度、得当地结合起来。因为基础阶段的英语教学，主要是语言技能的训练，而非语言知识的传授，它不仅要求学生懂得词法、句法、语义及修辞、搭配等习惯用法，还要求学生用大量的时间进行应用练习，通过语言实践来掌握交流的基本功。只有当学生能熟练掌握并灵活运用他们所学的语言基础知识，即能用英语自主表达个人意图并通过听、说、读、写、译等方式与他人自由交流时，学生才算学会了英语。而普通高校其他专业的本科教学则主要是知识的传授，只要学生学会并记住书上的知识就可以了，至于运用，那是学生毕业以后走上社会工作时所要做的。因此，在新型英语专业的教学里，一定要围绕本科基础阶段英语教学的特点，选好相关的专业学科课程（如与外语应用结合密切的贸易、金融、管理、法律、旅游等）和**适宜的教学方式**（如增加老师或专家引导、学生自主创意的体验式教学：场景模拟、辩论、演讲等），使学生在4年时间里，既能学好英语，又能学到相对适用的学科专业知识。如此才能尽早实现复合型应用英语人才的培养目的。

南开大学滨海学院即是一家颇具上述教学特色的独立学院，它诞生于沿海开放的领先地位——天津滨海新区，成长于北方环渤海经济圈提速发展的大环境，天时、地利都促成了该校“立足社会需求、打造应用型人才”的教学探索。滨海学院外经贸英语翻译专业所进行的课程与教材改革收效显著，极具借鉴意义和推广价值。该专业自2004

年建立以来,一直尝试“英语+专业”这种新型英语专业的教学模式。他们在新生入学头两年狠抓学生的英语语言基础,从第三年起,用自编英语教材给学生开设国际贸易、对外经济、进出口实务、公司理财、工商管理、市场营销、国际商法、经贸文选、外贸书信函电等专业课程。已毕业的两届学生就业情况证明,他们的教学取得了不错的成果:作为一个培养应用型人才的英语专业,他们的学生求职应聘适应面宽、选择面广,就业范围涵盖了金融机构、进出口公司、外资生产企业、投资或销售代理机构等;从事的工作含翻译、企业管理、市场营销、贸易实务等;由于目标明确,兴趣得到释放,部分愿意提高水平的学生也能自觉学习,最终拿到国外大学的奖学金出国深造,还有的考取了全国著名重点大学的研究生。他们在全国英语专业四级考试中,一次通过率达到 **72.6%**,英语专业八级通过率达到 **47%**,考上研究生的学生也占到 **13%** (今后比例还会有提高)。细究其原因,是他们较好地做到了将英语与其他学科有机结合,能够学有所为、学以致用。

“滨海模式”的具体方法虽然需要“因地制宜”,但其指导思想顺应了时代的发展,符合国际化、现代化的要求,尤其是毕业生的受欢迎度更加证明,英语专业不同层次的教学目标应当多元化,教学模式及教材编写亦应随之改革,培养出更多真正能解决实际工作需要的人才。鉴于此,南开大学出版社组织了来自南开大学滨海学院、南开大学、天津外国语大学、天津师范大学、天津财经大学、天津工业大学、天津科技大学、天津城建学院、北京航空航天大学等高校的资深骨干教师,结合近几年的课堂经验与用人单位的信息反馈,着手编写这套“高等院校英语专业现代应用型教材”。这套教材的选题基本上围绕新型英语专业所选定的有关学科的专业课程设计,经过滨海学院两届毕

业生的就业实践证明, 这些课程适时适度地为学生储备了一定的专业或行业知识, 得到用人单位的特别肯定和好评。参编人员均具有一线教学经验、精通所选专业并直接承担过新型教学任务, 他们在教材的编写中注意保留专业课程的精髓要点, 语言深入浅出, 适合独立院校和新型英语专业学生的英语水平, 并努力将语言学习与专业学习融会贯通; 同时适当安排文学文化类课程, 使学生了解语言文化背景、提升相关文化素质; 在编写加强学生英语基本技能的教材中, 重点培养学生对语言的观察分析能力, 并通过口笔译训练, 使他们开动脑筋, 悟懂道理, 想出方法, 解决问题, 以提高双语交流的语言组织与表达能力, 达到培养应用型英语人才的目的。

“滨海模式”与这套“高等院校英语专业现代应用型教材”是探索性的, 但也是有启示性、前瞻性和创新性的。它为新型英语专业的教学和教材的发展拓展了新的视野, 为培养我国急需的复合型应用英语人才的教材编写开辟了新的思路。我们希望, 这套教材的出版能够为独立院校乃至普通高校的英语教学提供有益的参考; 我们也相信, 会有越来越多的师生受益于不断完善的课程探索, 为新型人才插上腾飞的翅膀!

编 者

2009 年 8 月于南开大学

前 言

应广大本、专科学生的需求,我们编写了这部《英语语言学导读》教程。教材的编写原则是,既要考虑到知识系统的连贯性,同时也要兼顾到内容简练、易懂。为此,我们作出了努力。首先,较之于以往同类教材,本教材在编写体例上做了一些改变。如,每一章节的开始,增加了热身的练习,以使学生对章节重点内容有一个总体的了解,便于接下来的深入阅读和理解。此外,在每一章节的最后,给出了章节需要掌握的重点,便于学生把握每一章节应掌握的知识点和重点内容。

本教材在内容的选择上,尽量把握好知识的涵盖面与内容简洁两者的关系。教材中所设定的章节皆为语言学专业所必修的知识内容,如语音、形态、句法和语义等基础理论,以及语用学、社会语言学、语言与文化等语言学相关研究领域。此外,我们还在传统的内容基础上,增加了“概念隐喻”认知语言学的研究介绍,使学生能够了解到当前语言学领域的最新研究热点。

为增加语言学知识的连贯性,我们在语言学传统基础理论知识介绍的章节之前,特别增加了“英语史”和“人类语言和动物交流的区别”两个章节,增加了教材的连贯性和可读性。

为便于学生理解教材中的专业词汇,我们在书后附有部分专业词汇的英汉语解释,以便于学生自学时查询。同时,我们还在书后附有语言学家和语言学流派的介绍,供学生参考。

由于时间、精力有限,教材中一定存在许多不足之处,恳请专家和读者不吝指正。

编者

2009年3月

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Unit 1 History of English

Warming-up Exercises:

Can you answer the following questions?

- What is the earliest form of English in Great Britain?
- What influence does the Roman and Germanic Saxons' occupation bring to the English language?
- What influence do the Scandinavians bring to the English language?
- How does the Norman French invasion affect the English language?
- To what extent can we say English is a blend or mixture of several languages?
- Historically, English has been influenced by a number of languages. Can you draw a little map showing the various kinds of influence of foreign invasions on the English language?

“The history of English language can be traced back to the period before Roman invasion. Prior to the Roman invasion in 55 B.C., the language of Britain was Celtic, an Indo-European language. The Romans left shortly after they arrived, leaving little influence on the Celtic language. About a century later, in A.D. 44, Roman legions returned to begin an occupation lasting almost four hundred years. The second Roman invasion left a rich archaeological heritage but, again, little permanent linguistic influence. Nevertheless, Latin was learned by Celts, primarily in the towns, and some words derived from or influenced by Latin are still found in Irish and Welsh today.” (L. Ben Crane, 1980)

After Roman troops withdrew from England in A.D. 410, the German Saxons settled down in England at the invitation of the British Celts, protecting them from “the fierce Picts and Scots, who frequently raided from the northern borders. The coming of the Germanic Saxons over the next century and successive waves of Germanic invasions established three major groups in England: Saxons, Jutes, and Angles. All three groups spoke Germanic dialects, and the dialects were similar enough for the term Anglo-Saxon to describe their language.” (ibid)

“This Anglo-Saxon language was influenced by several other languages, including Celtic. The Celts’ influence is evident today in certain English place names, such as Duncombe, Holcombe, and Wincombe—names rooted in the Celtic word *cumb* (‘valley’).” (ibid)

“The influence of Latin came through several paths. First, the language of the Celts had been influenced by Latin during the Roman occupation. The word *castra* (‘camp’) in the place names of Britain, such as Lancaster, Winchester, and Worcester, illustrates the Latin influence. The Old English word *coper* (‘copper’) was derived from the Latin *cuprim* or *cuprum* as a result of commercial or military contact. Other words similarly acquired at this time are *disc* (‘dish’), *camp* (‘battle’), *segn* (‘banner’), *weall* (‘wall’), *stræt* (‘street’), and *mil* (‘mile’). A few of the commercial words derived from Latin are *ceap* (‘sale’), *pund* (‘pound’), *win* (‘wine’), and *mynetian* (‘to mint a coin’).

A more important Latin influence on Anglo-Saxon took place after the Christianization of Britain in A.D. 597. By the end of the seventh century, Christianity was flourishing as the religion of England. With the success of the Christian mission came influence on the Anglo-Saxon language. Because Latin was the language of the Church, great numbers of Latin words were incorporated into the changing Anglo-Saxon language. Many of these words are still used to refer to the church and its activities, including *altar*, *anthem*, *candle*, *deacon*, *hymn*, *martyr*, *mass*, *Pope*, *priest*,

psalm, and temple." (ibid)

"The next four centuries, from 600 to 1000, saw yet another important influence on the English language: Scandinavian settlement and absorption into the Anglo-Saxon peoples. The two cultures were akin, and the Scandinavian dialects were similar to Anglo-Saxon. But the Scandinavian influx was accompanied by battles and bloodshed, and even a brief time of total Scandinavian dominion over England. The conflict had lessened by 1042, when the Anglo-Saxon Edward the Confessor became king.

Because of the similarity of Scandinavian to Anglo-Saxon, determining the extent of Scandinavian influence on English is not simple. One contribution easy to identify is in modern English words with *sk-* (*sky, skin, skill*). The Anglo-Saxon equivalent of this sound was spelled *sc*, but today is spelled *sh* as in *shall, fish, shoe*. Modern English preserves some pairs of words that originally had the same meaning in Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian: *ship* and *skiff*, and *shirt* and *skirt*. Not all *sk-* words are of Scandinavian origin, however; for example, the origin of *skipper* is Dutch and *skirmish* is from Old French.

All the influences discussed—Celtic, Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Scandinavian—were felt gradually over five to six hundred years. No language is static, and in this era English underwent diverse changes. The language growing and forming during these years is called Anglo-Saxon or Old English." (ibid)

Old English

Old English refers to the form of English spoken by people in the period before 1100, the form that bears its Germanic heritage. As one can easily see, "Old English was inflected much more than modern English. All nouns, for example, were inflected to show gender, number, and case. The five Old English cases were nominative, accusative (objective), dative, genitive (possessive), and instrumental. The instrumental case was rarely

used in old English; it expressed the agent or means by which something was done. Because Old English word endings indicated the exact function of each word in a sentence, word order was less fixed than in modern English.

Superficially, Old English seems more complex than modern English. The only modern part of speech to retain a high degree of inflection is the pronoun, specifically the personal pronoun. It has twenty-three forms if the pronominal adjectives such as *mine*, *hers*, and *ours* are included. Old English also featured many more strong verbs than modern English. A strong verb is one that changes its form in the principal parts (present, past, and past participle), usually by changing a main vowel: *sing*, *sang*, *sung*. Weak verbs follow a more regular pattern, taking an *-ed* ending in the past tense and past participle: *look*, *looked*, *looked*.

Reading and listening to Old English reveals that all the vowels were pronounced; there was no such thing as a 'silent e.' Vowels bore a greater similarity to the Germanic languages and to the Romance languages derived from Latin than they do today. Stress normally occurred on the root syllable of each word. Today, stress on syllables varies with the word, although native English words still keep their stress on the root syllable." (ibid)

Middle English

The period when the Norman French were being assimilated into English culture and society is called the Middle English period (circa 1100-1500).

"In 1066 an event occurred that was of immense significance to the English language. William the Conqueror, duke of Normandy, led a Norman French invasion of England. He defeated King Harold of Britain at the Battle of Hastings. After the successful invasion, the Norman French permanently displaced the English rulers and became the ruling aristocracy. The class distinction between the Normans and the English

was maintained, at least in part, by a linguistic distinction: the Anglo-Norman ruling class spoke French, and all the others spoke English.

The need for communication between the Anglo-Normans and the English over the next 350 years led to a vastly enriched English. The most noticeable effect of French was on the English vocabulary. A very large portion of the modern English vocabulary consists of French words, many of them borrowed during this period. Many of the words taken from the Norman aristocracy were words associated with the political and social spheres, which they dominated—words of governance, law, war, religion, leisure, and fashion. In some cases, these words were introduced because they named concepts or distinctions rarely used by the native English. In many cases, however, an Anglo-Saxon word already existed and remained in use along with the new French word. As a result, many pairs of words with approximately the same meaning exist in English today, one from French and one from Old English.

In at least one instance, the class distinction between the Anglo-Normans and the English peasantry led to an interesting set of word doublets in modern English, in which the name of the animal is Anglo-Saxon in origin, but the name of the meat is Norman French. *Cow*, *calf*, *sheep*, and *pig* are all Anglo-Saxon words; *beef*, *veal*, *mutton*, and *pork* come from French. The English-speaking peasants looked after the animals. As far as they were concerned, they raised ‘cows’ and, if they were lucky, on occasion they ate ‘cow’. They could not help but notice that their Norman overlords always ate ‘beef.’ Eventually, the peasants took to eating ‘beef’ themselves, but continued to raise ‘cows’ as they always had.

The Anglo-Norman nobility continued to use French well into the thirteenth century; more over, the aristocracy maintained their French estates and relationships. Ultimately, after lengthy disputes, the French

court forced the Anglo-Normans to divest themselves of French possessions. The nobility became more English as its sense of French identity waned. The use of English as the primary language became common among the upper class, and French was not much used in England by the end of the fourteenth century. For example, in 1362 English was ruled to be the language of legal proceedings.

Very late in the Middle English period, the pronunciation of most vowels began to change in what is now called the Great Vowel Shift. For example, Old English *ded* (pronounced to rhyme with modern *maid*) became modern English *deed*; Old English *nama* (which rhymes with *llama*) became today's *name*; *hus* (rhymes with *moose*) became *house*; *riden* (rhymes with *bleedin'*) became *ride*. This change was probably completed sometime early in the seventeenth century, during the Early Modern English period.

Another very important change in Middle English occurred with the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and *e* in unstressed syllables. As unstressed vowels, the vowels lost their individual pronunciations; all came to be pronounced as a quick 'uh.' Eventually, these sounds were lost at the end of most words in modern English. For example, Old English *nama* became Middle English *name* (with the *e* pronounced 'uh') and finally our modern equivalent *name*.

Changes in grammar occurred as well. Many noun endings indicating grammatical function were shortened or lost. For example, the ending *-n* was dropped from the possessive pronoun *myn*, producing *my*, and from the indefinite article before a consonant, so that *an* became *a*. Grammatical gender of nouns was also lost, and changes in word order took place.

Throughout the Middle English period, English was not a unified language. Dialects continued to diverge, as they had from the beginning, with wide diversity in pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling, and even word endings. For example, the third person plural ending of verbs varied from

no ending or *-s* in the Northern dialect to *-en* in the Midlands and *-eth* in the Southern dialect.

By the close of the Middle English period, it was apparent that English had triumphed in England. It had displaced both French and Latin as the written language of the people. Town records, parliamentary records, and local ordinances were written in English. Meanwhile, French was taught as a foreign language in order that the English could communicate with their French neighbors. A national literature, written in English, was emerging. The most memorable writing in the ‘new language’ was that of Geoffrey Chaucer, whose *Canterbury Tales* is often studied today in its original, Middle English form. William Langland, author of *Piers Ploughman*, and John Wycliffe, translator of the Bible, made further contributions to the developing language.” (ibid)

Early Modern English

“Whereas Middle English was characterized by diversity, Early Modern English (circa 1500-1700) was noted for its greater uniformity. All the written dialects began to merge as a result of three major factors: the printing press, increase communication, and growing literacy.

In 1476 William Caxton introduced the printing press to England. Previously, all manuscripts had been hand-copied and were limited in number. For the first time, books and other printed materials became widely available. Because London was the chief commercial center, the center of government, and near the great universities, most books were printed in the London area and written in the London dialect. Thus, the London dialect was disseminated throughout England. It was not superior to the others in any sense; it just happened to be the one being printed and disseminated.

Government policy also helped to spread the London dialect. In 1516 Henry VIII established the first English postal system. The increased communication that resulted reduced the isolation of the outlying districts,

bringing them increased contact with London. For a long time London had been the political, social, and economic center of the country; its new accessibility allowed the city to gain even greater importance throughout England.

During this same period, dramatic changes took place in education, partly because of the availability of printed materials. Prior to the fifteenth century, only the clergy and the nobility were literate; but during the fifteenth century, many middle-class people learned to read and write. Increasing literacy, the spread of London's dialect, and the growing importance of London as the cultural center for the entire country helped to establish the London dialect as the literary standard for the country.

With the spread of the London dialect, uniformity followed in spelling, pronunciation, and grammar. The changes in verb endings are a good example of what was taking place. The third person singular endings *-(e)s* of the Northern dialect triumphed over the *-(e)th* ending of the Midlands during the fifteenth century, although both were still common in writing at the end of the sixteenth century. Shakespeare, who wrote during this period, used both endings, as in Portia's line: 'It blesseth him that gives, and him that takes' (*Merchant of Venice*, act IV, scene 1). Of the two endings, the *-(e)s* proved dominant, and it progressively displaced *-(e)th* in common use. As a second example, the Middle English endings for the third person plural—Northern *-(e)s* or no ending, Midlands *-(e)n*, and Southern *-(e)th*—dropped out of use.

Many other changes occurred in English grammar during this period. One example is the regular use of the contracted negative forms, such as *won't*, which did not begin to appear in written texts until the Early Modern English period. Another is the regular use of the expanded verb forms containing 'to be,' particularly the expanded passive as in *He is being chosen*.

Unlike Middle English or Old English, Early Modern English looks