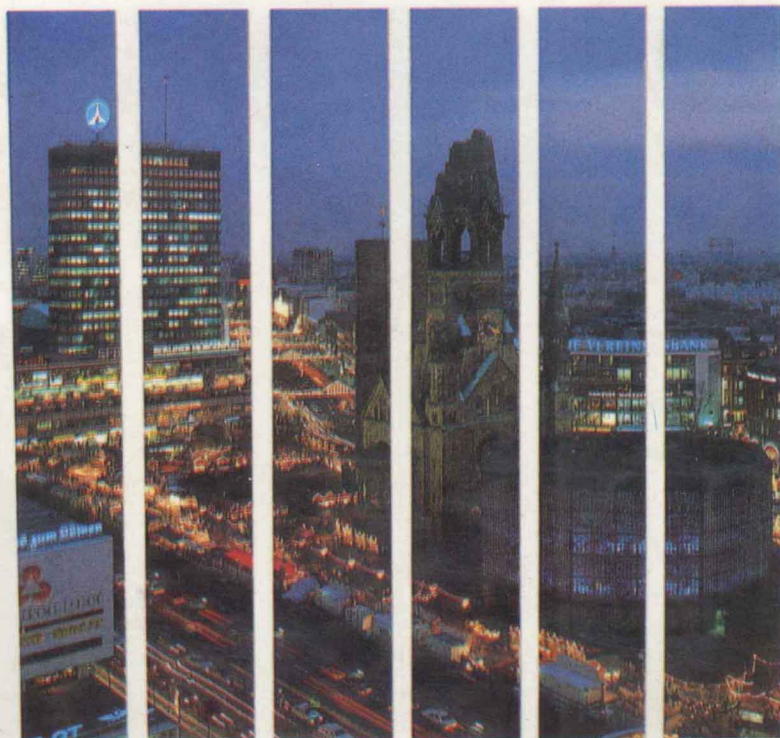


# 英汉 汉英 口译教程

## Textbook

高亮(Leong Ko)〔澳大利亚〕、林郁如〔中国〕

主编



福建人民出版社

# 英汉汉英口译教程

阅读分册

English↔Chinese Interpreting  
Textbook

主 编

高 亮 (Leong Ko) [澳大利亚迪金大学]  
林郁如 [中国厦门大学]

编 者 (按音序)

陈 菁 高 亮 (Leong Ko) 纪玉华  
雷天放 林郁如 张幼屏 庄鸿山

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YINGHAN HANYING KOUYI JIAOCHENG

(阅读分册)

高亮 (Leong Ko)、林郁如 主编

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# 前 言

随着改革开放的不断深入和发展,以及对外社会、经济、文化和科技等方面的交流活动日益增多,我国迫切需要大量合格的口译人才。然而我国目前的口译人员无论在数量上还是质量上都远远不能满足社会发展的需求。

尽管越来越多的人认识到在高校英语专业开设口译课的必要性和紧迫性,可是,口译课在现行高校英语专业教学大纲(1990年版)中只被定为选修课,也没有明确的教学要求。目前,我国开设口译课的高校不多,大多数英语专业学生在毕业前未经过系统的口译训练,这与学生步入社会后的实际需要相距甚远。

厦门大学外文系80年代中期开始在英语专业三、四年级试开口译课。90年代初开始与澳大利亚迪金大学(Deakin University)口笔译研究和教学中心合作办学,在口译课的教学内容、训练方法、测试手段和课程安排等方面进行了合作研究。1994年开始,作为国家教委和英国文化委员会的合作项目,我们又与英国的University of Westminster的语言学系合办口笔译试点班,英方委派专家来我系讲学并安排我方教师赴英培训。十多年来我们在口译课课堂教学、训练方法、社会实践和教材编写方面做了艰难而有益的探索。在此基础上我们与澳大利亚迪金大学口笔译研究和教学中心的专家Leong Ko先生合作编写出这套《英汉汉英口译教程》,既吸收了国外口译课教学理论和训练方法的优点,又结合了我国学生的实际需要,它有以下几个鲜明的特点:

## 1. 突出口译理论和技巧的介绍及训练

教程在阅读分册系统地总结、介绍了口译的形式、标准、特点,口译员应掌握的基本功和职业道德规范,以及各种场合的口译技巧。这些内容大多是口译员实践经验的总结和归纳,对口译学习具有很强的实际指导意义。在练习分册每课都结合专题,进行各种口译技巧的训练,让学生在训练中进一步领会运用教材所介绍的口译理论和技巧。

## 2. 内容新颖丰富,紧扣口译实际选材,有较强的针对性

本教程选择与口译工作紧密相关的社会题材,分成八个专题:社会、国家和地区、国际关系、经济建设、外贸、科技、文化旅游和财政金融。每个专题分为3~6课,按专题内容选取中、英文材料。阅读分册的选材重点提供背景知识,让学生了解相关的方针政策、历史过程、发展现状及方向等;练习分册的选材侧重结合理论与技巧,训练相关题材的英汉、汉英互译。

## 3. 突出口译实际能力的培养

口译实践性强,没有大量的口译训练,口译水平则难以提高。为此,本教程设计了形式多样、内容丰富的练习。如:记忆练习、数字互译练习、口译笔记练习和口头复述练习等等。除单向交替传译外,每课还设计了对话翻译作模拟情景口译练习。这些练习较全面地体现了口译课的教学特点和口译工作的实际要求。

本教程适合高校英语专业高年级、研究生低年级以及各种口译培训班使用。教程设计为

四个学期使用。练习分册的材料按每周四个课时设计，若每周只有两课时，教师可对教材进行适当取舍。口译能力是每个外语专业学生都应掌握的基本技能。我们认为有条件的学校都应开设口译课，最好从三年级开始与笔译课同时开设。学生经过两年的训练，基本上能掌握口译（交替传译）的技能。

本教程采用集体讨论，分工执笔的编写方式，大致分工如下：

主编：

林郁如：负责教程的体例设计、统稿和审校；执笔 Module 1、4、6（大部分）、5（全部）和 7（部分）的阅读和练习材料，以及交替传译“理论与技巧”的部分内容。

Leong Ko：负责教程的体例设计，初稿的审阅，执笔交替传译“理论与技巧”的部分内容和练习册中大部分的“对话翻译练习”和“视译练习”。

其他编写人员：（以姓氏笔划为序）

庄鸿山：执笔 Module 1、4、6、7 的部分阅读和练习材料及教程的电脑处理工作。

纪玉华：执笔 Module 7 的大部分阅读和练习材料以及“理论与技巧”的部分内容。

陈 菁：执笔 Module 2 和 3 的全部阅读和练习材料以及 Module 8 的部分阅读和练习材料。

张幼屏：执笔同声传译的全部内容、交替传译“理论与技巧”的部分内容以及全书的“词汇与短语”。

雷天放：执笔 Module 8 的大部分阅读和练习材料。

特别值得一提的是 Leong Ko 先生对编写本套教程所做的贡献。他在设计本教程的框架体例时，借鉴了国外先进的口译教学方法和口译教材编写经验；在他所撰写的部分，整理总结了其口译教学和实践的经验；在初审全稿时，无保留地提出了不少宝贵的意见。

本教程在编写过程中得到厦门大学外文系口笔译方向研究生以及办公室、资料室、电脑室、电教室的大力协助。厦门大学外文系高亮奖教奖学金保证了教材编写过程中所需的费用，谨此向有关各方的支持表示深切的谢意。

口译课在我国还是一门新课，我们希望这本教程能起到抛砖引玉的作用。由于时间、能力所限，书中不尽人意之处在所难免，盼使用本教程的师生不吝赐教。

林郁如

1996 年 5 月

# 使用说明

本教程包括阅读分册 (Textbook) 和练习分册 (Workbook), 两册配套使用。使用方法说明如下:

## 阅读分册 (Textbook)

### 一、交替传译部分

交替传译部分有八个专题, 每个专题分 3~6 课, 共 37 课。每课包括背景知识阅读材料, 理论与技巧, 词汇和短语三个部分。

#### 1. 背景知识阅读材料

这一部分的内容要求学生课前预习, 查找有关生词和解决阅读难点。学生可以就中英文资料提供的信息查阅相关的资料, 加深对具体专题的了解。上课时, 教师采用提问或口头复述的形式检查学生是否掌握了有关内容。课堂内不讲解阅读材料的内容和语言要点。由于国内外形势发展迅速, 情况不断发生变化, 上课时师生可根据需要搜集新资料, 对某些内容进行补充或更换。另外需要说明的是, 有的背景知识是以外国人的视角看有关问题, 阅读时应注意鉴别。

#### 2. 理论和技巧

理论和技巧是本教程的重要组成部分, 也是本教程有别于其他口译教程的重要方面。这一部分有两个特点: 一是配合具体专题介绍相关的口译技巧。如: 在国际关系专题介绍涉外礼仪常识, 在外贸专题介绍商务口译, 在科技专题介绍科技口译等。二是循序渐进地介绍口译理论和技巧, 如口译记忆, 数字互译, 口译笔记, 交替传译和视译的使用与技巧等等。理论和技巧部分需要教师结合实际口译工作经验, 在课堂讲解要点, 并在做配套训练时指导学生用心领会, 灵活运用所学的理论与技巧。

#### 3. 词汇和短语

学生必须在课前熟记每课收录的词汇和短语, 为上练习课做准备。在口译前做好词汇的准备, 是口译实践中很重要的一个方面。对于阅读和练习材料中与专题内容关系不大的生词, 一般不收入“词汇和短语”部分, 学生可以自己查阅词典。教师应鼓励学生结合专题内容查找相关词汇, 学会使用与口译有关的工具书, 培养收集新词和新表达法的习惯, 不断扩大词汇量, 提高自身的语言能力。

### 二、同声传译部分

同声传译部分共有 3 课, 简单介绍影响同声传译质量的重要因素以及英汉、汉英的同声传译技巧, 旨在让学生对同声传译有个初步的了解。教师可结合实际工作经验, 具体讲解。

但由于同声传译需要译员具备很强的语言能力和快速反应能力, 译员通常需要经过翻译学校专门训练才能胜任。所以本教程的同传部分可用作选修材料。

## 练习分册 (Workbook)

本教程的练习分册根据阅读分册的专题分类选取材料，并针对口译的“理论与技巧”的内容设计了多种形式新颖、内容丰富的配套练习，包括记忆练习，口头复述练习，数字互译练习，口译笔记练习，对话翻译练习，交替传译练习，视译练习和少量的同声传译练习。对话翻译、交替传译和视译的练习材料比较多，可以在课堂上做一部分，另一部分留给学生课外做。下面介绍几种主要的练习形式：

### 1. 记忆练习

本练习旨在帮助学生提高短期记忆能力。做练习时，要强调学生抓住要点，尽量用耳听，用脑记，而不做笔记。听完一段话后，用同一种语言复述短文要点。当然，有些练习篇幅较长，学生会不自觉地做少量笔记辅助记忆，这也是允许的。事实上这也能帮助学生自发地意识到笔记的作用，为口译笔记练习做铺垫。此外，中国学生对英文的记忆能力往往比中文差，所以应多做英文记忆练习。

### 2. 数字翻译练习

中、英文数字表达有较大的差异，中国学生往往感到中英文数字互译很困难。本教程的数字互译练习是一种强化训练。中英数字互译要做到快捷，绝非易事，所以在练习分册里配有大量数字练习，以帮助学生通过反复的训练逐步掌握数字口译技巧。

### 3. 口译笔记练习

口译笔记是交替传译工作中很有用的一项技巧，它起着辅助记忆的作用。口译笔记不同于听写和速记。在练习中要求学生用大脑记说话人的讲话大意，在必要的地方用最简单的字母、符号记录下来。帮助学生自己逐步建立起一套方便、实用的笔记符号。但口译主要依靠大脑记忆，应尽量少用笔记。

### 4. 对话翻译练习

对话翻译练习是训练双向口译的情景练习，即口译员既做英译中又做中译英的口译。对话翻译形式是常见的口译形式，本书在设计对话翻译练习时大部分只提供对话的背景材料，而不是现成的对话。我们认为这样有利于调动学生的主观能动性，他们除了有口译的机会外还可以有表达自己的机会，学生可根据实际情况现场发挥，综合运用自己所学的知识来灵活处理各种可能出现的情况。

做对话翻译练习时可把学生分成3人一组，一个学生当口译员，另外两个学生扮演主客双方，分别讲中文和英文。做完一个题目后便改换角色。每个练习的长度约15~30分钟。也可以把学生分成4人一组，请两个人扮演译员，各为其中一方做口译。教师可轮流到不同组扮演中方或外方，亦可在旁边观看。如果有条件可将同学的练习拍摄下来，然后让学生观看、评议，则效果更佳。书中提供的背景材料可在练习开始时发给学生（扮演口译员的学生除外），让其准备5~10分钟。为保证讲话人的发言质量，也可提前几天把材料发给扮演讲话人的学生，给他们充分的时间做准备。做练习时讲话人不可照本宣读材料，而应根据教程提供的材料并结合自己的知识，准备好讲话内容。讲话人还应根据口译员现场翻译的内容作出相应的反应，不宜拘泥于原材料。

在做对话翻译练习时，有一点必须反复强调，这就是每次练习都应看成是“实战”演习，不可马虎。练习中碰到困难，如听不懂对方的话，个别意思没有弄懂，数字没记下来等等，应像专业口译员那样想办法解决这些问题，切不可大家停下来讨论或互相提示。

## 5. 交替传译练习

所有交替传译练习设计都是以段落为基础，而不是以句子为基础的。口译强调忠实地用目的语转达原语信息。在实际工作中，发言人不可能讲完一句话就停下来等译员译，而一般是要讲完一段话（长度在1至3分钟之间），才会停下来让译员译。

本教程根据循序渐进的原则确定练习的长度和难度。练习中双斜线（//）符号表示停顿，所设定的长度开始约每50个词停顿一次，逐步过渡到100词，最终达到300个词。教师在使用练习分册提供的材料时，亦可根据实际教学需要进行调整、增减。

做完一次传译后，可组织学生讨论，尽量让学生提出各自的译法，教师对学生的译法给予肯定或纠正，但不必逐字逐句重译一遍，切忌把口译当成笔译来教。

## 6. 视译练习

由于在实际工作中需要做视译的材料都是书面的，所以在练习中对教程提供的练习材料可不必分段或修改。但可根据学生在不同阶段的视译能力，对每篇的长度作适当的调整。关于视译练习的具体做法可参考视译技巧部分。

教师应向学生讲解和示范视译的各种技巧，如断句、连接、重复、说明和综合概括等。做视译练习时，可把学生的练习录下来，做完一篇后让学生听一下自己的翻译，或把某个学生的练习在全班播放，然后进行讲评。视译的材料自然是书面的，但视译的要求是用口头表达的方式来转达书面材料的内容，它有别于笔译，其准确度的要求也低于笔译。

## 7. 同声传译练习

同声传译练习每课包括三个部分：Shadowing Exercise（影子/跟读练习），On-Sight Interpretation（视译），Simultaneous Interpretation（同声传译）。

影子练习就是要求学生跟着一段英文或中文广播（长度为5分钟左右），重复播音员讲的内容。学生一般稍微落后于播音员。该练习旨在训练学生一心多用，边听、边记、边说的能力。影子练习和视译练习是同声传译的准备。同声传译练习则要求学生边听发言，边同步做口译。同声传译部分的练习材料都是国际会议现场发言稿。当然培养同声传译需要高强度的专业训练，本教程提供的同声传译练习只是为了让学生获得一些感性认识。

另外，如何将学生的口译练习结果以分数的形式反映出来，不是一件容易的事。我们在多年的教学实践中，认为采用以下一个打分模式，能较正确地记录学生的当场表现。详见下页，仅供教师参考。

口译最基本任务就是帮助人们相互沟通，译员必须完全理解原语信息并准确地用目的语将其转达给听众。因此在这个模式中，Message Transference 和 Accuracy 是口译的关键，评分时各占30%。Language Expression, Fluency, Clarity 和 Resourcefulness 各占10%。这四方面既反映译员的语言表达能力，又体现译员的职业风范，如能否用清晰、流畅的语言把发言人的意思说清楚，遇到意外的情况，包括语言方面（如讲话人转换话题、讲笑话、引经据典等）和非语言方面（如场内出现干扰）的问题如何灵活处理。

另外，由于口译工作强调的是忠实地译出原语信息，译员可以灵活地进行语言表达，所以我们没有在书中提供统一的参考答案。学生的练习可由教师讲评或学生相互讨论，最后得出一种或几种较好的表达方法。



INTERPRETING EVALUATION FORM  
(口译评分表)

Name \_\_\_\_\_  
(姓名)

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1. Message Transference/Completeness: (信息转换/完整性)	3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
2. Accuracy: (准确程度)	3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
3. Language Expression: (语言表达)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. Fluency/Speed: (流利程度/速度)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5. Clarity: (清晰程度)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6. Resourcefulness: (应变能力)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

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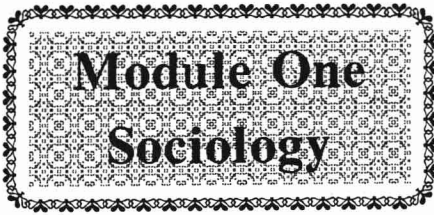
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Examiner \_\_\_\_\_  
评卷人

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# Lesson 1 Population

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## I . Background Reading Materials

- 1. China's Population Issues
- 2. Population in Britain
- 3. 人口转换和人口控制

## II . Theory and Technique

什么是口译

## III . Words and Expressions

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## I . Background Reading Materials

### 1. China's Population Issues

The population of China's mainland has reached 1.14 billion and is the largest of all nations in the world. How China solves the issues raised by this huge population is important not only to the country's economic and social development but to the world as a whole. No one understands the challenge better than the 61-year-old minister in charge of the State Family Planning Commission, Peng Peiyun, who talks about the issues in this interview.

Q: Why should China have a family-planning policy?

1. 2x2x11  
A: China has 22 percent of the world's population but occupies only 7 percent of the world's arable land. Its average annual per capita gross national product is around USD 400, which ranks it among the low-income countries in the world. There are 180 million illiterate or semi-illiterate people in China, about a quarter of the world's total. As a result of such a big population, its scanty arable land, and relatively inadequate resources, China's economy is backward.

Population has always been an important issue in China's social and economic develop-

ment. Before the 1970s we made some mistakes in our population policy and therefore failed to control the rapid increase of population.

China's family-planning policy, which was implemented in the 1970s to control rapid population growth and improve living standards, coordinates the population increase with economic and social development, environmental protection, ecological balance, and a rational utilization of natural resources.

Q: How would you describe the current family-planning policy?

A: Now it advocates late marriage and one child for each couple. This is a requirement for all public servants and urban residents. Certain rural residents who have particular difficulties may have a second child. Except in special circumstances, no couple is allowed a third child. The policy extends to areas where minorities live, but the specific requirements and measures are left to the provinces and autonomous regions to decide, in accordance with local conditions.

Q: What can you say about your success in implementing the family-planning policy?

A: We have had remarkable success. The rapid population growth is now basically under control. China's fourth census, conducted on July 1, 1990, showed the birth rate had dropped by 12.53 per thousand from 1970. The natural growth rate was down by 11.56 per thousand. The gross fertility rate of women—that is, the number of times a woman gives birth in her life—had decreased by 60 percent. These indices are below the average of other developing countries. China is regarded as one of the countries that have successfully controlled natural population increase. It is worth mentioning that the Chinese people's quality of life has improved. The average life span rose from 35 in 1949 to 69.05 in 1987. The infant mortality rate dropped from 20 percent in 1949 to 4 percent in the 1980s.

Q: What is the current situation with respect to China's population?

A: If we had maintained the fertility level of 1970 throughout the 1970s and 1980s, the population of China's mainland today would be 1.3 billion, not 1.14 billion. In an interview in April with Xinhua News Agency, Nafis Sadik, executive director of the United Nations Population Fund, talked about China's family-planning policy. He said, "China should feel proud and happy about its remarkable achievements over the past ten years in family planning and population control." In 1989 the number of women of child-bearing age between 15 and 49 was 24.4 percent higher than in 1981. The number of women between the ages of 20 and 29—prime child-bearing years—was up by 30 percent, but the number of children born between July 1, 1989 and June 30, 1990 was only 13.8 percent greater than in 1981. This indicates that the female fertility level has been lowered though the absolute number of births is still high. The 1990 census also showed that births will peak over the next five years because the number of women between the ages of 20 and 29 will increase by 16.2 percent to 121 million. Therefore, our population problem is still very serious.

Also our family-planning policy has not been carried out very smoothly. Only five of China's 30 provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities<sup>直辖市</sup> have been able to keep their natural growth rate this year under 10 per 1,000, and seven are above 17 per 1,000. As you can see, our family-planning work in the 1990s faces many challenges.

*Q: How does the government plan to deal with such a severe population situation?*

A: The blueprint<sup>蓝图</sup> for our plan is based on scientific analysis. We have invited organizations concerned to make suggestions and have asked family-planning commissions at various levels to make proposals based on their own experience. After a careful review of these suggestions and proposals we will put forward a 10-year plan that aims to keep the annual natural growth rate at 12.5 per 1,000 and to bring about a drop in the gross fertility rate of women from 2.3 in 1990 to 2.1 in 1995, and below the rate for developed countries, 2.0 at present, by the end of this century.

If we can realize these goals and maintain the family-planning policy, China's population will reach 1.6 billion by the middle of the next century and the increase after that will be zero. The key is making sure our current population-control measures are effective. Without effective family planning, China's population would reach 2 billion in 2025 and the consequences of that would be serious indeed.

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*Q: So far as we know, the difficulties in implementing the birth-control policies lie in the countryside. What measures are being taken to get farmers to accept the policies?*

A: You are right. It is indeed difficult to implement the policies in rural areas. Yet it is crucial to take effective measures to reduce the birth rate in these areas, if we are to control the population growth. In the past a person was said to be "unfilial" if he did not have offspring.<sup>后代</sup> People considered it necessary to "carry on the family line". These feudal and decadent notions are still deeply rooted in the minds of many Chinese farmers. Foreigners may find this difficult to understand. Some people still think they do not have any offspring unless they have sons. This is one of the main reasons why families who only have daughters try for more children. It is necessary to ask these families to stick to the birth-control policy and prevent them from having more children. At the same time, we recognize it is a thorny problem.

In the past two years many localities have made great strides in solving the problem. For example, Gansu and Jiangxi provinces have both adopted preferential measures to help families without sons solve practical working and living problems. These measures include an insurance scheme for the elderly and the formation of labor tools to help such families during harvests. These families also get priority in allocation of the means of production and enjoy many kinds of welfare benefits. All these measures, especially the insurance scheme, have fundamentally solved the problem of supporting the elderly. These measures have been well received by the farmers. Practice has shown that the family-planning policy accords with the basic interests of the Chinese people. The policy is beneficial not only to the prosperity of the

nation, but also to that of families. It has won more understanding and support from the people. For instance, in Shandong Province, which has a population of 84.4 million, the average number of births per family is 2.11, which is below the national average of 2.31.

(Based on *China Today*, Aug. 1991)

## 2. Population in Britain

According to preliminary results of the April 1991 census, Britain's population is 55.5 million. It ranks seventeenth in the world in terms of population. Population figures are derived from the census of population (taken every ten years), with allowance for subsequent births and deaths (obtained from compulsory registration) and migration. The latest census included for the first time a question on ethnic grouping. The results are being published in stages from mid-1991.

The British population is expected, on mid-1989 based projections, to be 59.2 million in 2000 and 60 million in 2011.

### 1) Birth Rates

In 1991 there were 789,600 live births, 21,300 more than in 1989. Births outnumbered deaths (641,800) by 156,800, the total period fertility rate, an indication of the average family size, remains below 2.1, the level leading to the long-term replacement of the population, although it is projected to increase from 1.8 in 1989 to 2 for women born in or after 1980.

Contributory factors to the relatively low birth rate in recent years (13.9 live births per 1,000 population in 1990) include:

a) the trends towards later marriage and towards postponing births, which have led to an increase in the average age of women having children—provisionally 27.5 years in 1990 compared with 26.7 in 1980;

b) the current preference for smaller families than in the past, which has led to a significant decline in the proportion of families with four or more children. In 1990, 21 per cent of households in Great Britain consisted of a married couple with one or two children only, compared with 4 per cent of households consisting of a married couple with three or more children; and

c) more widespread and effective contraception, making it easier to plan families. Voluntary sterilization of men and women has also become more common. Of all pregnancies in England and Wales in 1989, 42.3 per cent were conceived outside marriage and of these 36.4 per cent were terminated by legal abortion.

### 2) Mortality

At birth the expectation of life for a man is about 72 years and for a woman 78 years. Compared with 49 years for men and 52 years for women in 1901. There has only been a small increase in life expectancy in the older age groups.

The general death rate has remained roughly the same for the past 40 years, at about 12 per 1,000 population, although in 1990 it fell to 11.2.

However, there has been a decline in mortality at most ages, particularly among children. The infant mortality rate (deaths of infants under one year old per 1,000 live births) was 7.9 in 1990; neonatal mortality (deaths of infants under four weeks old per 1,000 live births) was 4.5 in 1990; and maternal mortality is about 0.07 per 1,000 total births. The decline in mortality reflects better nutrition, rising standards of living, the advance of medical science, the growth of medical facilities, improved health measures, better working conditions, education in personal hygiene and the smaller size of families. Deaths resulting from infectious diseases (notably tuberculosis) have virtually disappeared.

Deaths caused by circulatory diseases (including heart attacks and strokes) now account for nearly half of all deaths, and mortality from heart disease in Britain remains high compared with that of other developed countries. The next largest cause of death is cancer, which is responsible for nearly one-quarter of deaths.

Cigarette smoking is the greatest preventable cause of illness and death in Britain. However, there has been a significant decline in the incidence of smoking, with 33 per cent of adult males and 30 per cent of adult females smoking cigarettes in 1988, and against 52 and 41 per cent respectively in 1972.

The government is pursuing a comprehensive strategy against drug misuse in Britain. Initiatives are aimed at reducing both the supply of, and demand for drugs. A number of government priorities, to support the overall aims of improving the country's health and providing high-quality care for those who need it, have been listed.

### **3) Marriage and Divorce**

In 1989 there were 392,042 marriages in Britain, of which 36 per cent were remarriages of one or both parties. Some 34 per cent of all marriages in 1989 were remarriages where one or both parties had been divorced. Of the population aged 16 or over in England and Wales in 1989, 59 per cent were married, 26 per cent single, 9 per cent widowed and 6 per cent divorced. The average age for first marriages in England and Wales is now 26.3 for men and 24.2 for women.

In 1989 about 12.7 decrease of divorce were made absolute for every 1,000 married couples in England and Wales. The rates are lower in Scotland and Northern Ireland. In 1989, 150,872 divorces were granted in England and Wales; the proportion granted to wives was 71.6 per cent. The average age of people at the time of divorce in England and Wales is now about 38.3 for men and 35.7 for women.

Another feature, common to many other Western European countries, has been an increase in cohabitation. Over one-quarter of women in Great Britain marrying during the period 1980 to 1984, whereas the marriage was the first for both parties, had lived with their husbands before marriage (compared with 7 per cent for those married in the early 1970s). About 21 per cent of non-married women aged 18 to 49 were cohabiting during 1988. Cohabitation occurs more frequently for separated or divorced women than for single women.

There is some evidence of a growing number of stable non-married relationships. Half of all births outside marriage (which now account for 28 per cent of live births in Britain) are



registered by both parents giving a single address as their place of residence.

(Based on *Britain 1992*)

### 3. 人口转换和人口控制

根据联合国人口活动基金会的预测,1999年全世界人口将达60亿,2010年为70亿,2022年为80亿。这些数据表明,人口增长速度越来越快,人口数量急剧上升。如果这样长期发展下去的话,不仅社会系统内部问题越积越多,而且自然界也很难承受如此庞大人口数量的巨大压力。人口的过快增长,是造成人与自然矛盾加剧,生态平衡难以维持的主要原因之一,它已引起世界各国科学界和政治家们的忧虑。面对这个严重问题,我们如何对付这种挑战,出路究竟在哪里?

世界人口的发展,基本上经历了三个阶段:1. 高出生、高死亡阶段。在人类发展的初期,由于没有科学技术,人类对自然灾害和疾病的抵抗能力很低,因而死亡率很高。这个阶段人口数量虽略有增长,但很缓慢。2. 高出生、低死亡阶段。由于科学技术的进步,生产力的发展,特别是医疗卫生技术的进步,大大提高了人们战胜灾害和疾病的能力,使死亡率大大降低,这一阶段人口数量增长很快。3. 低出生、低死亡阶段。科学技术进一步发展,经济更加发达,人民生活水平大大提高,生活方式也发生了变化,人们生育意愿也随之改变,妇女宁愿少生甚至不愿生孩子,结果导致生育率显著下降。这个阶段的人口发展接近零增长(有的甚至负增长),出生人口和死亡人口大致相抵,人口发展趋于稳定。目前发达国家的人口基本上处于这个阶段。

以上三个阶段反映了人口转换的基本规律:人口零增长的根本原因是经济发展。

然而,发达国家的人口只占世界人口的1/4,其余3/4人口在发展中国家和不发达国家。这些国家人口出生率是发达国家的3倍多,基本上处在高出生、低死亡阶段。人口基数大、年龄构成轻、生育潜力强是这些国家人口的基本特点,也是世界人口增长过快的主要根源。这些国家经济又普遍不发达,人民生活水平低,经济增长速度低于人口增长速度。如果期望这些国家也像发达国家那样,主要依靠经济发展促使人口自然转换到低出生、低死亡阶段,那是很难实现的;即使实现也要花费相当长的时间,付出相当高的代价。很可能的后果是,经济还没发展上去,人口却膨胀起来,造成社会经济恶性循环,人们常用“越生越穷,越穷越生”这句话来形容这个过程。因此,走发达国家实现人口零增长的道路,对于发展中国家来说并不适合。

对于发展中国家和不发达国家来说,实现人口零增长的真正有效途径是及早实行计划生育,控制人口增长。这是通过人们自觉的行为有目的地降低生育率,实现人口由高出生、低死亡向低出生、低死亡阶段转换。显然,这种转换不是单纯依靠经济发展的自然转换,而是依靠经济的、科学技术的、法律的、行政的和思想教育等多种方式和多种手段的自觉转换。这样的转换正是人类自己控制自己的表现,也是实现人类与自然协调发展的出路,是人类走向文明的标志。如果真正实现了计划生育,那就走出了一条不同于发达国家实现人口转换的新道路,这在人类发展史上具有开创意义。

中国是世界上最早实行计划生育控制人口增长的国家,并已取得了举世瞩目的显著成就。中国计划生育成功的事实,证明了“自觉转换”这条道路是可以和能够实现的,是完全行得通的,这不仅是对中国的贡献,也是对整个人类的贡献。西方国家有些人总把中国计划生育