

全国普通高等学校优秀教材一等奖 第一版

普通高等教育“十五”国家级规划教材

A Basic Course
in

Writing

英语写作基础教程

主 编 丁往道 吴 冰
编 著 郭棣庆 赵 冬 钟美荪 吴 青

(第二版)



高等教育出版社
HIGHER EDUCATION PRESS

全国普通高等学校优秀教材一等奖 **第一版**

普通高等教育“十五”国家级规划教材

A Basic Course
in *Writing*

英语写作基础教程

主 编 丁往道 吴 冰
编 著 郭棲庆 赵 冬 钟美荪 吴 青

(第二版)



高等教育出版社
HIGHER EDUCATION PRESS

内容提要

《英语写作基础教程》(第二版)(*A Basic Course in Writing*)主要是为高等学校英语专业一二年级的学生编写的,同时适合师专、广播电视大学、成人高等学校的英语专业使用,也可供英语水平相近的自学者参考。

本书是作者在总结自己几十年丰富的英语写作教学经验、研究近年国内外英语写作教学方法的基础上推出的。全书用清晰、浅易的英语介绍了英语写作的基本方法和特点,讲解时提供了较多的例句、例段和范文,其中既有英、美作家的作品,又有中国学生的习作,内容有趣,贴近生活,易于模仿。全书共8章,包括文稿格式和标点符号的用法、选词、造句、段落、摘要、作文、应用文及学术论文的写作方法。每章都附有练习题和参考答案,引导学习者循序渐进地提高英语写作水平。

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

英语写作基础教程/丁往道,吴冰主编;郭棲庆等编
著. —2版. —北京:高等教育出版社,2005.7
ISBN 7-04-017462-6

I. 英... II. ①丁...②吴...③郭... III. 英语—
写作—教材 IV. H315

中国版本图书馆CIP数据核字(2005)第077378号

总策划	刘援	策划编辑	贾巍	项目编辑	贾巍	张歆秋
责任编辑	艾斌	封面设计	张楠	版式设计	张彤	李芹
责任校对	艾斌	责任印制	宋克学			

出版发行 高等教育出版社
社址 北京市西城区德外大街4号
邮政编码 100011
总机 010-58581000

经销 北京蓝色畅想图书发行有限公司
印刷 北京中科印刷有限公司

开本 850×1168 1/16
印张 19
字数 480 000

购书热线 010-58581118
免费咨询 800-810-0598
网址 <http://www.hep.edu.cn>
<http://www.hep.com.cn>
网上订购 <http://www.landrace.com>
<http://www.landrace.com.cn>

版次 1998年7月第1版
2005年7月第2版
印次 2005年7月第1次印刷
定价 27.00元

本书如有缺页、倒页、脱页等质量问题,请到所购图书销售部门联系调换。

版权所有 侵权必究

物料号 17462-00

第一版前言

这本《英语写作基础教程》是为高等学校英语专业的学生编写的，同时适合师专、广播电视大学、成人高校的英语专业使用，也可供英语水平相近的自学者参考。

在编写过程中，我们力求做到以下几点：

一、实用。本书各章的内容对学习者的都会有实际帮助。从选词造句，到展开段落和组织一篇文章，都提供了一些基本方法。在“应用文”一章中，谈到函件、通知、便条和个人简历等的一般写法，需要时查阅，便可一目了然。书中还涉及文稿格式、题目写法和标点符号用法，这些似乎是小问题，但和文章质量密切相关，书中也有专章讨论。

二、多举范例。学写作，对基本方法有所了解后，主要靠实践和模仿。本书提供较多的例句、例段和范文，不仅帮助读者理解写作方法，又可供读者模仿。例段和范文中，约有一半选自英、美著作，以便读者领略英、美本国人怎样使用英语；另一半则是中国学生的习作。后者内容有趣，贴近生活，语言浅易而通顺，具有启发性和可模仿性。此外，每章后面都附有一定量的练习，其中也有一些例句和例段。

三、难度适中。本书的讲解使用简明平易的英语，所选原著的段落和文章也比较浅易。至于用作例子的学生的习作，其难度自然更适合本书读者的英语水平。

四、符合有关大纲的要求。从实际教学经验来看，本书可以满足写作课的教学要求，关于论文写作的一章便是专供高年级学生写毕业论文时参考的。本书内容也涵盖了广播电视大学和师范高等专科学校英语专业两个教学大纲所规定的项目。

下面就如何使用本书提几点看法。

本书各章是按照从小到大，即从词、句到段、文的次序来排列的。但这并不表示必须按照这个次序来学习写作。在实际教学中，可以从学写段落开始，穿插或逐步过渡到写文章摘要和整篇作文。在需要时，学写应用文。至于讨论选词和造句的那两章，可随时并反复地翻阅研究。写任何类型的文章，都离不开选词造句，因而这两种能力是极为重要的。但因为选词造句灵活性大，涉及的问题多，只能逐步体会和钻研。关于文稿格式和标点符号一章，可先通读一遍，以取得初步的印象，以后在遇到问题时再仔细查阅。

文章写得好或不好，并不只是语言掌握的问题。思想、观点、观察和分析能力、知识和生活体验等等所起的作用也许更大。所以有志提高写作能力的青年朋友，除学习语言外，还应在各方面下功夫。这就意味着学写作是个很长的过程，不是轻而易举的事。但只要认真努力，坚持不懈，总会不断提高，取得进步。

编者

1998年4月

第二版前言

《英语写作基础教程》是为高等学校英语专业的学生编写的，同时适合师专、广播电视大学、成人高校的英语专业使用，也可供英语水平相近的自学者参考。

《英语写作基础教程》1998年出版后，因读者需要，每年都重印，至2005年4月，已经达到18印次，并于2001年、2002年分别获北京市高等教育教学成果一等奖、国家级教学成果二等奖、全国普通高等学校优秀教材一等奖。2003年我们又推出了此书的网络版，教学内容分基础写作、实用写作和论文写作3部分（包括原书的第二、三、六、七章）。为了更好地帮助学生掌握英语写作的基础知识和基本技巧，切实提高英语写作水平和英语整体水平，网络版除了增加了不少范例外，还补充了许多练习，同时考虑网上学习的特点，我们为部分练习提供了参考答案。

这次修订，我们多方听取了使用者的意见，一方面保持了原书实用、多举范例、难度适中、符合有关大纲要求的四大特点，吸收网络版的长处；一方面改进不足、全面提高。

一、我们将原书的第八章“文稿格式和标点符号”提前到第一章，以便学习者一开始就了解英语写作规范，帮助他们养成正确的写作习惯，为今后的学习打下良好的基础。

二、对原书内容全面更新，如词典部分尽可能提供最新版本的信息，论文部分采用国外英语论文通用的格式。

三、本次修订最主要的工作之一就是新增了大量的练习和部分参考答案。练习分Task和Assignment两种，前者供课堂上使用，后者为课后作业。写作课是实践课，要想写得好，只有多练。为了便于自学，我们提供了部分答案。需要特别指出的是答案仅供“参考”，因为还有其他可能。因此答案和书上不同，往往并非有错。我们希望学习者细心体会的是，在句式和选词上不同，表达的意思也会有些差别。比较好的学习方法或许是和老师、同学相互切磋，共同提高。

编者

2005年5月

CONTENTS

Chapter 1

Manuscript Form and Punctuation

1

1 Manuscript Form 1

1. Arrangement 1
2. Word Division 2
3. Capitalization 3
4. Handwriting 4

2 Punctuation 4

1. The Comma (,) 4
2. The Period (.) 6
3. The Semicolon (;) 7
4. The Colon (:) 8
5. The Question Mark (?) 9
6. The Exclamation Mark (!) 10
7. Quotation Marks ("...") 10
8. Parentheses / Brackets ((...)) 12
9. Square Brackets ([...]) 12
10. The Dash (—) 12
11. The Slash (/) 14
12. Underlining and Italics 14

Keys for Reference 15

Chapter 2

Using Proper Words

17

1 Types of Words 17

2 Choice of Words 19

3 Synonyms 20

4 Some Good Dictionaries 21

Keys for Reference 34

Chapter 3

Making Correct and Effective Sentences

43

1 Correct Sentences 43

1. Completeness in Structure 43
2. The Right Subject 45
3. Agreement Between the Subject and the Predicate Verb 46

4. Agreement Between Pronoun and Antecedent	49
5. Clear Pronoun Reference	50
6. Ending Sentences with Full Stops	52
7. Joining Clauses with Conjunctions	52
8. A Main Clause in a Complex Sentence	53
9. Proper Use of Comparisons	54
10. Correct Use of the Tenses	55
2 Coordination and Subordination	57
3 Effective Sentences	60
1. Unity	61
2. Coherence	62
3. Conciseness	65
4. Emphasis	67
5. Variety	73
Keys for Reference	77

Chapter 4

Developing Paragraphs

89

1 Features of a Paragraph	89
2 Ways of Developing a Paragraph	91
1. Development by Time	92
2. Development by Process	94
3. Development by Space	97
4. Development by Example	99
5. Development by Comparison and Contrast	102
6. Development by Cause and Effect	105
7. Development by Classification	107
Keys for Reference	111

Chapter 5

Summarizing

116

1 Uses of Summary-Writing	116
2 Procedure	117
1. Reading	117
2. Writing	117
3. Revision	118
Keys for Reference	121

Chapter 6

Composing Essays

123

1 Criteria of a Good Composition	123
---	------------

2	Steps in Writing a Composition	124
	1. Planning a Composition	124
	2. Writing the First Draft	131
	3. Revising the First Draft	131
	4. Making the Final Copy	132
3	Three Main Parts of a Composition	133
	1. The Beginning	133
	2. The Middle	134
	3. The End	134
4	Types of Writing	134
	1. Narration	134
	2. Exposition	142
	Keys for Reference	182

Chapter 7

Writing for Practical Purposes **190**

1	Notices	190
2	Greetings, Good Wishes, and Formal Invitations	195
	1. Greetings	195
	2. Good Wishes	198
	3. Formal Invitations	199
3	Notes	201
	1. Appointments	203
	2. Apologies	204
	3. Informal Invitations	205
	4. Requests	205
	5. Thanks	206
	6. Messages	207
4	Letters	208
	1. Personal Letters	208
	2. Business Letters	215
	3. Envelopes	224
5	Résumés	229
	Keys for Reference	234

Chapter 8

Preparing Research Papers **247**

1	Definition and Purpose	247
2	Steps	247
	1. Choosing a Topic	247
	2. Collecting Information	250

iv CONTENTS

- 3. Analyzing the Information, Organizing Ideas
and Working Out an Outline 256
- 4. Writing the First Draft 259
- 5. Revising the Draft and Finalizing the Paper 262
- 3 Format 263**
 - 1. Components of a Paper 263
 - 2. Use of Quotations 264
 - 3. Use of Notes 267
 - 4. Works Cited 269
- 4 A Sample Research Paper 275**
- Keys for Reference 282**

批改/校对符号 287

写作错误统计表 288

387

388

389

390

391

392

Chapter 1

Manuscript Form and Punctuation

1 Manuscript Form

1. Arrangement

Writing in correct manuscript form is very important, because it makes it easy to read what is written and prevents misunderstanding. We should follow the general practices in writing the title, leaving the margins, paragraphing, capitalizing, and dividing words.

When we write an essay to be read by the teacher, we should write on every other line so that there will be room for corrections. It is necessary to leave a margin of about two centimeters at the top and the bottom of the page, and one of a centimeter and a half on the right and left side. In an exercise book the top and bottom margins are marked; we need only to draw a vertical line to mark the left margin.

We cannot make the right margin straight or neat, unless we are using a computer, but we should never write to the very edge of the page. When the space left near the end of a line is not or barely enough for the word we are going to write, we should write the word on the next line, or divide the word if it is a long one. There must be a blank space on the right side of the page.

The title or topic of the essay should be placed in the middle of the first line. Every word of the title (including words following hyphens in compound words) should be capitalized, except articles, prepositions, coordinating conjunctions (*and, or, but, nor, and for*) and *to* in infinitives. But if one of these words is the first or last word of the title, it should be capitalized. Topics are generally noun phrases (nouns with their modifiers), though other forms are possible. No full stop should be used at the end of a title. A question mark is needed if the topic is a direct question (but an indirect question is not followed by a question mark). The title of a book within the topic should be underlined (italicized in printing), and the title of an article put between quotation marks.

Below are some examples:

My Impressions of Beijing
The Wall Between
Where Do All the New Words Come From?
What Traditions Mean to the Chinese
A Clean, Well-Lighted Place
Different Views on *Jane Eyre*
Interpretations of Robert Frost's "Fire and Ice"

Task 1 Capitalize the following titles.

1. where i lived, and what i lived for
2. are transgenic crops safe?
3. well-known dramatists of the ming dynasty
4. a day to remember
5. approaches to teaching english as a foreign language
6. criticisms on the ending of mark twain's *adventures of huckleberry finn*

The first line of every paragraph should be indented (started after a space of four or five letters).

Arabic numerals are generally used for paging. They can be put either in the upper right-hand corner or in the middle below the last line of every page.

A line is never begun with a comma, a period, a semicolon, a colon, a question mark or an exclamation mark; a line never ends with the first half of a pair of brackets, quotation marks, or parentheses. The hyphen that shows a word is divided is put at the end, not at the beginning, of a line.

2. Word Division

The following hints may be helpful to us in the division of words:

One-syllable words such as *count*, *health* and *thought* cannot be divided. Words with two or more syllables can be divided according to the formation of syllables: *re·peat·ed*, *in·sist*, *punc·tu·al*, *san·dal*, *de·cline*, *trans·la·tion*.

A stressed close syllable usually takes a consonant with it: *ded·i·cate*, *grat·i·fy*, *la·bor·a·to·ry*, *fin·ish*.

A consonant plus *-le* is treated as a syllable: *min·gle*, *peo·ple*, *no·ble*, *gig·gle*.

A single letter cannot be put at the end or at the beginning of a line: *e·voke*, *heart·y*.

A two-letter ending should not be put at the beginning of a line: *hand·ed*, *hard·en*.

Divisions that may mislead the reader should be avoided: *re·ally*, *lay·man*.

Words with hyphens should be divided only at the hyphen: *broad·minded*, *broken·hearted*.

Two-syllable words with double consonants in the middle are as a rule divided between the two consonants: *strug·gle, lat·ter*.

Division of proper names should be avoided: *Dickens, Paris*.

The last word of a page should not be divided. It should be written on the next page.

Division of words at the ends of several consecutive lines should be avoided.

Division of words is not always easy. When we are not sure, we should consult a dictionary. In some dictionaries syllabication is indicated by a dot; as in the examples given above, in others by a space: *to geth er, sum mer*.

3. Capitalization

Capitalized words are used mainly in three places: proper names, key words in titles, and the first words of sentences.

Common words used as parts of proper names are capitalized:

The Summer Palace	Northwestern University
the National Library of China	the Middle Ages
Women's Day	the Yellow River

Words derived from proper names are usually capitalized:

Marxist	Darwinism	Freudian
Dickensian	Taoist	Latinize

Some proper names or their derivatives have become common words:

mackintosh (a raincoat; after Charles Macintosh who invented it)
lynch (to murder by hanging; after William Lynch who started it)
quixotic (like Don Quixote, hero of the novel of the same name)

All sentences, including sentence fragments treated as sentences, should begin with capital letters. In this regard, we should pay special attention to the use of capital letters and punctuation in quoted words and sentences.

Miss Johnson said, "When you write an essay, you should pay attention to both content and language."

"When you write an essay," she said, "you should pay attention to both content and language."

"When you write an essay, you should pay attention to both content and language," the teacher said.

Miss Johnson advised us to "pay attention to both content and language" when we wrote an essay.

These examples show: (1) the subject and verb of saying before the quotation are followed by a comma; (2) a complete sentence within quotation marks after the verb of saying begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop; (3) if the quoted sentence is broken into two parts and put between two pairs of quotation marks, with the subject and verb of saying placed between them, the first part ends with a comma, the second part does not begin with a capital letter (unless the first word is a proper name), and the whole sentence ends with a full stop; (4) if the quoted sentence is put before the subject and verb of saying, it ends with a comma, and the verb of saying is followed by a full stop; (5) if the quoted words are a phrase instead of a complete sentence, the phrase is treated as part of the whole sentence.

4. Handwriting

There are two common ways of writing the letters: to form loops and to print (to write without joining the letters in imitation of printed words). Both are good, but we had better stick to one of the two styles.

We should always try to write neatly so that our handwriting can be read easily. We should make capital letters bigger and higher than small letters, *a*'s different from *o*'s, *n*'s different from *u*'s, and we should not forget to dot *i*'s and *j*'s, or cross *t*'s. A little space (about that of one letter) should be left after a comma, and a slightly bigger space (about that of two letters) after a full stop.

When we want to cross out a word, we should draw a thick line through it. It is misleading to put it between brackets, because that means the word is an explanatory remark. When we want to add a word, we should write it above, not below, the line of words we have written with a clear sign showing where it is to be inserted.

2 Punctuation

1. The Comma (,)

- (1) A comma is used to join coordinate clauses. It is put before the conjunction (*and*, *but*, *or*, *for*, *so*, *nor*, or *yet*):

We started early in the morning, **and** before dark we reached the village.

He wanted to go on, **but** other people disagreed.

Hurry up, **or** we'll miss the train.

He couldn't do it himself, **nor** could he find anyone to do it for him.

Nobody was listening, **for** everybody was shouting to be heard.

He tried hard, **yet** he failed to convince her.

We should remember that coordinate clauses have to be joined with a comma and a conjunction. One comma alone cannot do the job though it is possible in Chinese. Using a comma to link two clauses is a common mistake which has a name: **the comma fault** or **the comma splice**. But we can use a semicolon, a dash, or a colon between two coordinate clauses (see explanations of these marks).

- (2) A comma is used after an adverbial clause or phrase, including a prepositional and a participial phrase placed before the subject, or inserted in the middle of the sentence:

When the rain stopped, we continued to work in the fields.

On hearing about the accident, he went to the site at once.

Some listeners, bored by the lengthy talk, closed their eyes and dozed off.

If the adverbial element follows the main clause, no comma is required:

The students were busy working in the reading-room when the lights went off.

- (3) Commas are used to separate a series of words or phrases with the same function in the sentence:

Present at the meeting were Dean Lee, Professor Brown, Associate Professor Major, Miss Lindon, and a few other members of the faculty.

Every weekend she goes to the nearest supermarket to buy pork, chicken, fish, vegetables, bread and other foods for the next week.

The children sang, danced, jumped, and chased each other.

The comma before the conjunction and the last item is optional. It can be omitted if there is no danger of misreading.

- (4) Nonrestrictive clauses and phrases are set off by commas:

At 22 she left the college, where she had spent four fruitful and memorable years. Miss Wang, who has returned from America with a doctor's degree, is going to offer a course in American history.

Mr. Huang, the new director of the company, will soon announce his plans for reforms.

The speaker, after glancing at his notes, began to talk about the next point.

Restrictive clauses and phrases are not set off by commas:

The economist who developed this new theory of investment has been awarded a Nobel Prize.

This is the lab where students listen to tapes and see films.

- (5) Commas set off parenthetical elements:

The machines you have supplied us, I'm glad to tell you, work very well.

Many interesting places in Beijing, such as the Summer Palace and the Temple of Heaven, attract thousands of visitors daily.

The world's three great religions, Buddhism, Christianity, and Islam, all have believers in China.

- (6) In dates, a comma is used to separate the day and the year if the order is month — day — year; no comma need be used if the order is day — month — year:

Hong Kong was restored to China on July 1, 1997.

She was born on 15 September 1980.

- (7) With numbers of 1,000 or over, commas or little blank spaces may be used to separate digits by thousands. From right to left, a comma is placed after every three numerals:

1,253,900 53,807,214 690 843 201 279

Commas in numbers help with the reading: the figure before the last comma is in thousands, and the one before the second comma from the right is in millions.

2. The Period (.)

- (1) The period (full stop) is used at the end of a declarative sentence, a mildly imperative sentence, and an indirect question:

Punctuation marks are important in writing.

Don't overuse punctuation marks.

She asked the teacher how parentheses are different from brackets.

The period marks the end of a sentence. The word after it begins a new sentence and has to be capitalized.

- (2) The period is used with most abbreviations:

Mr. Mrs. Ms. Dr. U.S.A. U.K. a.m. p.m.

But some people prefer not to use the period with abbreviations. They just write Mr, Ms, etc. Names of well-known organizations, news agencies and broadcasting corporations are often written without periods, like UN, UNESCO, NATO, VOA, BBC.

- (3) Three spaced periods make the ellipsis mark, which indicates the omission of one or more words within a quoted passage:

The original passage:

No two libraries are exactly alike in their holdings, in their physical layout, or in their regulations and procedures. Consequently, people are often frightened by the thought of using a library. When they finally do venture inside, they sometimes waste their time wandering aimlessly around because they do not know how to get the information they want. This fear of the library is not unreasonable — after all, libraries are intimidating places. But they are not as confusing as they seem at first glance. There are standardized procedures for storing and retrieving information that are common to almost all libraries, and once you have learned how to use one library, you will know how to use other libraries as well.

The passage quoted with ellipsis:

No two libraries are exactly alike in their holdings, in their physical layout, or in their regulations and procedures. Consequently, people are often frightened by the thought of using a library. ... But they are not as confusing as they seem at first glance. There are standardized procedures for storing and retrieving information that are common to almost all libraries, and once you have learned how to use one library, you will know how to use other libraries as well.

The use of ellipsis should not change the meaning of the original passage, and what is omitted should not be anything important.

Three spaced periods are sometimes used to show a pause in conversation or faltering speech:

“What did he say?”

“He said many things, such as ... such as ... oh, yes, he said that he would resign from the committee.”

If a sentence ends with an ellipsis, a period should be used after it. The result is that four periods are used together.

3. The Semicolon (;)

- (1) The semicolon is used between two coordinate clauses which are not linked by a conjunction.

She doesn't like this film; she is disgusted with it.

She was interested in history a few years ago; today her main interest is in anthropology.

Each of the above two sentences can be turned into two separate sentences without any change in meaning. But there is this difference: the two parts in one sentence

seem more closely connected than they are as two sentences. On the other hand, the two parts get greater emphasis as two sentences.

- (2) Conjunctive adverbs like *therefore*, *however*, *nonetheless*, *hence*, *otherwise*, *besides*, *moreover*, etc., should not be used as conjunctions to link two coordinate clauses. Before them there should be a semicolon, not a comma.

He promised to come to the meeting; however, he didn't appear.

She didn't go with them to climb the mountain; otherwise, she would have been caught in the storm.

The students gained valuable knowledge from their professors; moreover, they learned how to do research work from them.

He didn't go to the meeting; therefore, he doesn't know what new decisions were made.

Some writers use semicolons with *as* and *yet*, for they consider these two words adverbs.

- (3) The semicolon is used with conjunctions when the clauses contain internal punctuation.

He wrote a few good books when he was young and poor; but after he became famous and rich, he wrote nothing worth reading.

As he promised, he donated a large sum of money; and this money helped with the completion of the project.

- (4) The semicolon is used to separate a series of items with internal commas.

Among those who joined the discussion were Miss Wu, a well-known writer; Mr. Li, editor of the literary supplement of the local newspaper; Dr. Qian, a professor of literary criticism; and Ms. Sun, a famous historian.

- (5) A semicolon may be used to join clauses with words omitted, and the omission is sometimes indicated by a comma.

In this prestigious university there are many famous professors; in that smaller university, a few; in our college, none.

4. The Colon (:)

- (1) The colon is used to introduce a quotation or a statement.

It will do everyone good to remember this old saying: "One will know that he does not know enough after he begins to learn."