

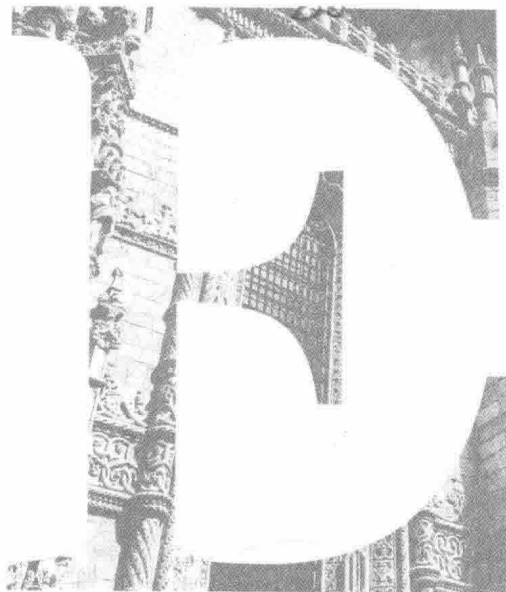
高等师范类院校英语专业系列教材

总主编 孔令翠

A Guide
for English Teachers
in Basic Education

基础教育
英语教师教学指南

主 编 陈文存 严 萍



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总 序

我国高等教育改革和英语专业自身发展需要英语专业主动适应社会经济发展需求,走以质量引领的内涵式发展道路。师范类院校中英语专业毕业生的质量直接影响到我国大、中、小学英语学科教师的素质与英语教学的水平,因此根据各师范类院校独特的课程体系和培养方案,构建合理完善的教材体系非常重要。

为此,重庆大学出版社组织成立了《高等师范类院校英语专业系列教材》编写组,特邀了长江学者文旭教授和原一川教授担任编写顾问,孔令翠教授担任总主编,整合各师范类院校外国语学院学科教学最强师资力量,邀请学术造诣精湛、实践经验丰富的专家学者和有丰富教学经验的一线教师,共同编写打造一套高水平的、适合师范类院校英语专业学生使用的系列教材。

本系列教材是在中国基础外语教育进入新时代的背景下编写的,具备较强的针对性和实用性,力求实现大学教育与基础教育的深度融合,培养符合国家教育事业发展需要的卓越中小学英语教师。本系列教材突出“四新”:

1. 突出新时代。编写指导思想与时俱进。本系列教材的编写是在习近平新时代中国特色社会主义思想指导下进行的,坚持“以人为本”“立德树人”,努力培养面向21世纪的新时代大国良师。

2. 贯彻新理念。本系列教材认真贯彻落实全国教育大会、“卓越教师2.0”计划、教师教育振兴行动计划的精神,更加注重培养英语学科核心素养,更加注重国际交流与合作。

3. 实践新文科。本系列教材努力克服狭隘的英语学科局限,进一步拓宽学科视野,打通文史哲界限,融通文科与理科,将先进的信息技术教学手段运用于英语教师培养,掀起课堂教学革命的新高潮。

4. 培养新教师。开发本系列教材的主要目的是培养新英语教师,既注重教师的职前培养,又兼顾教师的职后培训。

为此,本系列教材的编写具有如下特点:

1. 立足于师范类院校的教情、学情。编者在学习和借鉴国内外外语教师和教育发展的理论与实践成果的基础上,坚持问题导向原则,对师范类院校的教情和学情进行了广泛的调查研究,根据中小学英语教师培养、培训工作中真实存在的突出问题而编写了本系列教材,旨在提高师范类英语专业学生的教学、教研能力,推动中小学英语课堂教学的改革和发展。

2. 促进师范英语专业认证。教育部组织的新一轮师范英语专业认证已经在部属师范大学开展,下一步将全面铺开,这对各师范大学(学院)的师范英语专业是极其严峻的考验。师范英语专业认证以“学生中心、产出导向、持续改进”为认证依据,如果在英语教师教育理论研究、英语教师培养水平与学生教学实践能力提升上缺乏建树,那么师范英语专业认证将会遇到极大困难。本系列教材的建设无疑有利于持续改进师范英语专业人才培养过程,推进中小学英语教师的人才培养。

3. 满足国家英语教师资格考试要求。目前,市面上关于国家英语教师资格考试方面的教材不多,结合了面试与试讲指导方面的高质量教材更是奇缺,从而导致英语学科教师资格

考试的通过率不高。本系列教材中面向小学、初级中学和高级中学英语学科教师资格考试的教材——《学科知识与教学能力》完全能够满足广大考生的迫切需求,帮助他们实现教师梦。此外,本系列教材涉及中小学英语学科知识和教学实践的方方面面,也有助于提高广大在职教师的教學能力。

4. 提高在职教师教学研究与使用信息化教学手段的能力。与职前教育相比,职后教育的教师同样需要甚至更需要不断更新知识,提高教研能力,增强运用现代教育技术的意识和本领。因此,本系列教材充分考虑到了在职英语教师不断提高专业素养的愿望和需要,从而建构起了从职前到职后的完整的“一条龙”教材体系。

5. 打造立体化的教材模式。本系列教材力图落实“三位一体”原则和传统与现代结合原则,突出师范教育的职业性、学术性和人文性,并将理论学习、实践技能提高与教师资格认证结合在一起,积极开发传统纸质教材与信息化在线课程,让使用者既能根据自身需要各取所需,最大限度满足个性化要求,同时又能够通过系统学习全面提高能力。

6. 推动信息时代的课堂教学与学习革命。本系列教材在教材内容、问题设计与模态呈现等方面体现了新时代课堂教学与学习革命特点,有利于探索合作式、启发式、探究式、参与式及讨论式教学,努力实现新文科、信息技术和教育教学的深度融合,重塑教育教学新形态,为大力推动英语教师教育“金课”建设创造条件与提供保证。

在编写过程中,本系列教材得到了国内外学科教学领域专家、中小学教研员和广大英语教师的大力支持,广大在校学生和参加在职教师培训学员也给予了很多宝贵意见和建议,在此一并表示最衷心的感谢。

本系列教材编写者为师范院校英语学科教学的知名专家和中小学高水平英语教师,但由于多种原因,编者虽然尽了最大努力但不足和疏漏必定存在。恳请教材使用者和同行专家不吝赐教,使本系列教材在再版时得以完善。

《高等师范类院校英语专业系列教材》编委会
2019年8月

前 言

目前,我国的外语教育,特别是基础外语教育进入一个重大的转型期,几件大事将对基础外语教学产生重大影响。新一轮的高校招生制度改革全面启动,外语学科开始逐步实施一年两考;普通高等学校师范类专业认证实施办法出台,教育部等五部门印发了《教师教育振兴行动计划(2018—2022年)》;2017年颁布的英语课程标准强调立德树人,培养学生的学科核心素养应成为英语学科教学的主要任务;《中国英语能力等级量表》也已经正式颁布。随着信息时代技术和设备的不断推陈出新,学习的方式方法、教育的内涵外延都发生了很大变化;外语教育研究进一步深入,外语教育的理念、方法、途径都有新的发展。这些都对英语专业师范生(含本科生和研究生)以及在职英语教师的职业素养提出了新要求。本书就是在这种新形势下编写的,对从事基础教育的英语教师所需要具备的基本素养和一些基本的外语教育理念、方法、技能作了介绍,旨在为英语专业的师范生及在职英语教师提供一些基本的学习内容。本书用英语编写,引用和吸收了大量国内外外语(二语)教学研究的新成果,希望能够帮助读者跟上时代的需求,适应外语教学的新发展。

外语教学是一个复杂的过程,教学效果受到多种因素的影响。本书第一章就讨论这个问题。我们把影响因素分为三个范畴:教学对象——语言、教学主体——学习者和教学环境——学校、教师、教材、教学方法等。每个范畴都包含多个方面的因素,而且各种因素对外语教学的影响是动态的,发展的,在不同情况下的影响是不同的。要特别强调的是,在各种因素中,最关键的还是学习主体,即学习者。外语教学的基本概念与原则为第二章内容,具体包括外语教学相关的基本理论简介、教与学的关系、外语学习的特点、七对外语教学的重要术语、外语教学的基本原则以及语言知识、技能和能力的关系。本章特别强调了教师要了解和尊重外语学习规律,突出以学习者为中心,语言不是教会的而是学会的,语言能力为重等理念。第三章基于新的义务教育阶段和普通高中教育阶段的课程标准中的学习活动观,对教学的核心——学习活动进行了介绍,包括活动理论、活动类型和活动原则,对与高考制度改革所要求的选课走班的基础——分层教学活动也作了重点介绍。第四章介绍了新课程标准提出的英语学科核心素养,从英语学科核心素养的组成部分、内涵、培养方法等方面进行了介绍,并给出了一些范例和建议。第五章介绍了语言知识教学,按照课程标准从语音、词汇、语法、语篇、语用五个方面进行了分析,介绍了这几个方面的教学手段和方法。第六章则介绍了语言技能(听、说、读、写)教学的方法。新课程标准提出了听、说、读、写、看五种技能。“看”是针对多模态语篇中的图形、表格、动画、符号及视频等非语言信息的理解,与思维品质和文化意识关系密切,实际上是高于传统的听、说、读、写四项技能的一种综合能力,在教学中如何培养这种能力还没有成熟的方案可以借鉴。因此,本书没有作深入的介绍。第七章响应了新课程标准提出的“重视现代信息技术应用”这一要求,就现代信息技术在语言教学中的应用作了介绍。介绍范围从早期的“电化教学”起,到计算机辅助外语学习

(CALL),到现在的混合教学(Blended Teaching)。特别对计算机辅助外语学习的新发展——慕课(MOOCs)、翻转课堂及微课在基础外语教学中的应用进行了分析。随着互联网技术的发展,语料库在外语学习中的应用越来越多,本章也对此作了一些介绍。第八章的内容为教师的专业发展。终身学习是信息社会的需求,时代对教师的专业发展要求也越来越高。师范生应该明白专业发展的基本要求及发展的途径方法,在职教师更需要这方面的指导。本章就外语教师专业发展的相关理论、行动研究、集体备课、课堂观察与评价、专家型教师的特征等方面作了介绍。

教学指南书籍中通常都包括学科教学评价与测试相关的内容,但因为本书的姐妹篇《基础教育英语学科评价与测试教程》对此有比较全面深入的介绍,本书就不再浪费篇幅介绍相关内容了。

本书由陈文存、严萍共同编著,陈文存负责全书的设计、审读,并编写第一、二、三、七章及第八章少数内容;严萍编写第四、五、六、八章。全书英文由加拿大 Todd E. Hanson 博士进行审读和校订。余美根副教授对第三章部分内容提出了建议,陈正伦副教授对第七章部分内容提出了建议。西华师范大学外国语学院部分研究生做了一些校对工作。在此一并感谢。此外,感谢重庆大学出版社对本书出版的支持,特别感谢出版社张春花女士的大力协助。

由于时间仓促,作者水平有限,书中一定存在许多不足,恳请读者和同行专家批评指正。

西华师范大学基础外语教育研究中心

陈文存 严萍

二〇一九年七月于四川南充

The Authors' Pursuit and Hope of the Book

- **Objective:** reflecting objective laws in language teaching and learning
- **Open:** no prescriptions, capable of further extension and refinement
- **Optional:** not irrevocably and exclusively attached to any linguistic or educational theories or practices, providing options for users
- **Flexible:** adaptable for use in different circumstances for different teachers
- **Dynamic:** not fixed, in continuous evolution in response to changing factors

In all, we hope that the book can be helpful to readers in understanding the laws in language learning and teaching, so that their teaching can follow the laws and thus effective.

CONTENTS

Chapter 1	The Main Framework of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning	1
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	The Learning Object — Language	2
1.3	The Learning Subject — Learners	7
1.4	The Learning Context (Environmental Factors)	13
1.5	Conclusion	20
Chapter 2	Fundamental Theories and Principles of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning	22
2.1	Introduction	22
2.2	Closely Related Theories	25
2.3	Foreign Language Teaching and Learning	27
2.4	Some Key Terms in Language Teaching	29
2.5	The Relationship Among Language Knowledge, Skills and Abilities	40
2.6	Conclusion	40
Chapter 3	English Teaching and Learning Activities in and out of Class	42
3.1	Introduction	42
3.2	The Activity Theory	43
3.3	Views on Activities	44
3.4	Classifications of Activities	45
3.5	Principles for Foreign Language Learning and Teaching Activities	46
3.6	Two Typical Forms of Classroom Activities	49
3.7	Differentiated English Teaching Activities	53
3.8	Out-of-Class Activities	55
3.9	Conclusion	56
Chapter 4	Cultivating Key Competence in the English Course	61
4.1	Introduction	61
4.2	The Definition	62
4.3	Main Components of Key Competence in the English Course	62
4.4	Cultivating Key Competence in the English Course	65
4.5	Samples of Cultivating Students' Key Competence	70
4.6	Some Suggestions for Cultivating Key Competence	73
4.7	Conclusion	76

Chapter 5	Teaching and Learning Language Knowledge	78
5.1	Introduction	78
5.2	Teaching Pronunciation	79
5.3	Teaching Vocabulary	84
5.4	Teaching Grammar	90
5.5	Teaching Discourse	97
5.6	Teaching Pragmatic Knowledge	107
5.7	Conclusion	112
Chapter 6	Teaching and Learning Language Skills	113
6.1	Introduction	113
6.2	Teaching Listening	114
6.3	Teaching Speaking	118
6.4	Teaching Reading	127
6.5	Teaching Writing	137
6.6	Conclusion	146
Chapter 7	The Application of Modern Information Technologies in Language Teaching	148
7.1	Introduction	148
7.2	The Major Benefits Brought by Modern Information Technologies	150
7.3	Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL)	152
7.4	Recent Development of CALL	155
7.5	Blended Learning	164
7.6	The Corpus and Language Teaching	165
7.7	Conclusion	170
Chapter 8	Teachers' Professional Development	172
8.1	Introduction	172
8.2	Theoretical Discussion of Teachers' Professional Development	173
8.3	Action Research	176
8.4	Collective Lesson Preparation	179
8.5	Class Observation and Evaluation	182
8.6	Some Other Teaching and Research Activities	189
8.7	Novice and Expert Teachers	192
8.8	Conclusion	194
References	196

The Main Framework of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

—Factors Affecting Foreign Language Learning

Goals of the Chapter

At the end of this chapter, you should be able to outline the main framework of English language learning and teaching, i. e. have a general understanding of the main factors affecting English language learning. More specifically, you should be able to understand:

- (1) both language teaching and learning are complex processes and are affected by many factors, and there does not exist a “best teaching method for all”;
- (2) the learning objects: English language, its key features, main components and typical differences between English and Chinese;
- (3) the learner factors in English learning;
- (4) the environmental factors in English learning;
- (5) the connotations, features and functions of the factors.

1.1 Introduction

To teach effectively is what teachers seek, but how to reach the goal is not a simple question. The first step to know language teaching is to know the process of language learning. It is known that language learning is an immensely complex phenomenon. “I cannot imagine how any teacher could operate without taking into [the ELT classroom] a set of understandings and beliefs not only about how languages can be and are learnt, but also about how and what teaching is all about” (Harmer, 2003: 288). To have a better understanding of it, we strive to provide a conceptual framework devised for identifying the main factors relevant to the learning and teaching of languages and the relationships between them and for giving effective direction to the practice of language teaching.

However, how to turn the hope, to teach effectively and help students learn more efficiently, into reality? In the past, people laid their hope on finding the best teaching method. This has been popular even in the whole educational field in our country. The traditional course referring to teaching in normal schools is called “teaching materials and methods” (教材教法), restraining the contents into the methods to teach the teaching material.

In the language teaching field, for over a century, “language educators sought to solve the problems of language teaching by focusing attention almost exclusively on *Method*”, questioning “which method or approach was the most effective for language teaching” (Stern, 1983: 452). A century later, most people are no longer asking this question. It has been understood that methods, traditionally seen as a theoretically consistent set of teaching principles that would lead to the most effective learning outcomes if followed correctly, are not, and cannot provide, the key to more effective foreign language teaching and learning.

“Methods can be studied not as prescriptions for how to teach but as a source of well-used practices, which teachers can adapt or implement based on their own needs” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 16).

With the developments in theoretical and practical research, people have come to understand that there does not exist a “best method” in language teaching and learning. They agree that language learning, as well as language teaching, is a complex process that is affected by a great variety of factors. Many variables are involved in the learning process and at every point of each class, a teacher has a number of options available. To become a better teacher, it is important to be aware of as many options as possible. The factors and variables can be generally classified into three dimensions: the learning object (the language), the learning subjects (the learners), and the learning context (environmental factors). We can also observe language teaching and learning from those three perspectives. In the following section, we will analyze the factors from those three dimensions.

1.2 The Learning Object—Language

1.2.1 What is language?

The teacher’s understanding of language is critical for his/her language teaching, because what is learned in the language classroom and what students can learn, result from the teacher’s understanding of language (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009:15). Language is the object of language teaching and learning, and teachers need to constantly reflect on what language is.

An understanding of language as “open, dynamic, energetic, constantly evolving and personal” encompasses the rich complexities of communication. This expanded view of language also makes the educational experience more engaging for students. Language is not a thing to be studied, but a way of seeing, understanding and communicating about the world and each language user uses his or her language(s) differently to do this. People use language for purposeful communication and learning a

new language involves learning how to use words, rules and knowledge about language and its use in order to communicate with speakers of the language (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009: 16).

As language is an immensely complex phenomenon, it is difficult to give it an exact definition. “A definition is a statement that captures the key features of a concept. Those features may vary, depending on your own (or the lexicographer’s) understanding of the construct” (Brown, 2007: 16). If we consult references, we can find various definitions. Here are two from dictionaries:

a. The use by human beings of voice sounds, and often written symbols representing these sounds, in organized combinations and patterns in order to express and communicate thoughts and feelings.

b. A system of words formed from such combinations and patterns, used by the people of a particular country or by a group of people with a shared history or set of traditions. (William Morris, 4076)

The system of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds (or their written representations) into larger units, e. g. morphemes, words, sentences, utterances (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 311).

The shared key features are: the system of human communication, the structured arrangement, and sounds.

1.2.2 Key features of language

Dunlap & Weisman (2007: 10) identify the key features of language as follows:

Language:

- develops naturally;
- develops in stages;
- has structure;
- is intertwined with culture;
- is linked to cognition;
- has varieties;
- is learned in social contexts;
- is influenced by purpose and context.

A central characteristic of language is that we have to account for the infinite number of sentences that any one of us can produce in the languages we know, but at the same time, this infinite capacity is based on finite components and a finite set of rules for what constitutes an acceptable sentence in that language.

1.2.3 Main components of language

It is commonly agreed that the main components of a language are: speech sounds in phonology; words in morphology; sentences in syntax; and discourse in use (pragmatics).

In order to have a more comprehensive discussion, the former three are introduced in the perspective of the branch of learning: phonology, morphology and syntax.

A. Phonology (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 435)

Phonology is the establishment and description of the distinctive sound units of a language (phonemes) by means of distinctive features.

Phonology is also concerned with:

a. the study of word-to-word relations in sentences; that is, how sound patterns are affected by the combination of words. For example, /giv/ *give* and /him/ *him* may combine to /givim/ *give him*.

b. the investigation of intonation patterns.

B. Morphology (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 376)

Morphology is the study of morphemes and their different forms (allomorphs), and the way they combine in word formation. For example, the English word *unfriendly* is formed from *friend*, the adjective-forming suffix *-ly* and the negative prefix *un-*.

A morphemic system: in this sense, one can speak of “comparing the morphology of English with the morphology of German”.

C. Syntax (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 579)

As a major component of the grammar of a language (together with the lexicon, phonology, and semantics), syntax concerns the ways in which words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences, making some sentences possible and others not possible within a particular language.

D. Discourse and text

Discourse refers to units of language that go beyond the sentence. Thus, a discourse can be a short interaction, an entire conversation, a written paragraph, a speech, and so on. The idea behind discourse is coherence; that is, within a discourse, multiple sentences or propositions logically follow each other. (VanPatten & Williams, 2015: 81)

Discourse refers to language as use, and to the purposes and functions linguistic forms serve in texts. Here the linguistic patterns of finished texts point to contexts beyond the page, implying a range of social constraints and choices which operate on writers in any context. (Hyland, 2002: 11)

A text can be any meaning-producing event, a book, a film, an advertisement, a phone conversation and so on. A text can be seen from two key perspectives: as a thing in itself that can be recorded, analyzed and discussed; and also a process that is the outcome of a socially produced occasion. (Knapp & Watkins, 2005: 14)

What are the differences between discourse and text? Scholars have different ideas. Widdowson (2007: 6-7) gives the following explanation:

People produce texts to get a message across, to express ideas and beliefs, to explain something, to get other people to do certain things or to think in a certain way, and so on. We can refer to this complex of communicative purposes as the discourse that underlies the text and

motivates its production in the first place. But at the receiving end readers or listeners then have to make meaning out of the text to make it a communicative reality. So the term discourse is taken here to refer both to what a text producer means by a text and what a text means to the receiver.

More scholars (Harris, 1952; Stubbs, 1983) use discourse and text exchangeably. The connotation of the two terms in this book is a combination based upon Knapp and Watkins', and Celce-Murcia and Olshtain's definitions and Widdowson's explanation, and the two terms will be used interchangeably.

1.2.4 Typical differences between English and Chinese

These differences are necessary for an English teacher to learn and master. Studies show that negative transfer from the learner's first language can interfere with learning another, though the extent of error resulting from the interference is various. While Dulay and Burt (1973—cited in Ellis, 1997: 302) reported that negative transfer accounted for only 3 percent of the errors in their corpus of Spanish-speaking learners' English, Tran-Chi-Chau (1975) found it accounted for 51 percent of errors in adult, Chinese-speaking learners' English. We can find a high percentage of errors results from first language interference if we analyze students' speeches and writing. As for Chinese learners, Chinese is the native language and is firmly rooted in learners' minds. English learning cannot occur without referring to Chinese. Chinese can facilitate, as well as inhibit, English learning. All languages share some language cores, which can help and facilitate learners to learn English effectively. But the differences can inhibit and interfere with learning to a great extent. Let us give some examples in four dimensions.

A. Speech sounds

What are the typical differences which interfere with learners' English learning in phonetics?

Intonation language vs. tone language

Why is there a strong Chinese accent when many Chinese learners speak English? One important factor is that English is an intonation language while Chinese is a tone language.

Chinese is a typical tone language. There are two distinctive features in such language: one is that each word is pronounced with clear articulation and full tone as all words end with a vowel sound; the other is that words of different meanings consist of identical sequences of consonants and vowels and are distinguished merely by contrasts in pitch. However, English is an intonation language. In such languages, all prosodic characteristics of a linguistic utterance are not tied to a single sound and intonational features are an overlay on segmentable individual sounds. Suprasegmental features, such as pitch, pausing, loudness, reduction, liaison, etc., are involved in speaking. If a speaker ignores the features and speaks English in the manner of a tone language, "Chinglish" appears.

B. Lexicon

Inflecting vs. isolating language

Inflecting language is "a language in which the form of a word changes to show a change in

meaning or grammatical function. Often there is no clear distinction between the basic part of the word and the part which shows a grammatical function such as number or tense.” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 281)

Isolating language is “a language in which word forms do not change, and in which grammatical functions are shown by word order and the use of function words.” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 302)

English is an inflecting language, and Chinese is an isolating one. It is easy for teachers to find that students forget to change word forms in English, which shows they do not have this kind of awareness, still treating English as Chinese.

For example, the form of the Chinese word “走”(v.) doesn't change when used in different contexts; but the English form of “go” can change responding to contexts: “goes”, “went”, “have/has gone”, “had gone”, “be going”, etc. Chinese learners may often forget to change the word form in use.

The wrong word form is a typical example of negative transfer from the first language for Chinese learners.

C. Sentences

Compact vs. diffusive

English sentences follow syntactic rules strictly, with the subject-verb structure as the sentence kernel. And all sentences should be full sentences. Word forms are also restrained by syntactic rules and must strictly change in accordance with the context.

Chinese sentences do not always have a subject-verb structure, and minor sentences exist. Thus syntactic structure is flexible, and is not restrained by structures and word forms.

Therefore, English is compact while Chinese is diffusive in syntax.

For example:

河面大小船只泊定后,莫不点了小小的油灯,拉了篷。各个船上皆在后舱烧了火,用铁鼎罐煮饭,饭闷熟后,又换罐子熬油,哗的把蔬菜倒进热锅里去,一切齐全了,各人蹲在舱板上三碗五碗把腹中填满后,天已夜了。(沈从文,《鸭巢围的夜》)

After the boats large and small had moored, all lit tiny oil lamps and fixed up mat canopies. Rice was boiled in iron cauldrons over fires in the stern, and once this was cooked the vegetables were fried in another pan of sizzling oil. When the meal was ready, everyone aboard could wolf down three or five bowls. By then it was dark. (Translated by Gladys Yang)

D. Discourse

Hypotaxis vs. parataxis

How are the sentences in a text connected? In English, they are usually connected by explicit connectives, such as grammatical devices, lexical devices or logical devices, which is hypotaxis. While in Chinese, this cohesion is often realized by meanings, which can be called parataxis. If one writes English in the Chinese way, the text is full of loose sentences, which is a fallacy of some learners' English writing.