

國 立 清 華 大 學 命 題 紙

九十二學年度 外國語文學 系(所) 乙 組碩士班研究生招生考試

科目 英文閱讀與寫作 科號 4903 共 6 頁第 1 頁 *請在試卷【答案卷】內作答

Part 1

Read the following passage and then summarize it in approximately 150 words. (25 points)

Students often approach university writing assignments with the idea that academic prose is dry and impersonal. They have been taught that this kind of writing involves an objective exploration of ideas that transcends the individual. They must 'leave their personalities at the door', and subordinate their views, actions, and personality to its rigid conventions of anonymity. This advice is easily found in numerous textbooks and style guides for both L1 and L2 writers:

The total paper is considered to be the work of the writer. You don't have to say 'I think' or 'My opinion is' in the paper. (...) Traditional formal writing does not use I or we in the body of the paper. (Spencer and Arbon 1996: 26)

To the scientist it is unimportant who observed the chemical reaction: only the observation itself is vital. Thus the active voice sentence is inappropriate. In this situation, passive voice and the omission of the agent of action are justified. (Gong and Dragga 1995)

In general, academic writing aims at being 'objective' in its expression of ideas, and thus tries to avoid specific reference to personal opinions. Your academic writing should imitate this style by eliminating first person pronouns ... as far as possible. (Arnaudet and Barrett 1984 73)

Write your paper with a third person voice that avoids 'I believe' or 'It is my opinion'. (Lester 1993: 144)

This view, however, oversimplifies a more complex picture. Recent research has emphasized that disciplines have different views of knowledge, different research practices, and different ways of seeing the world, and that these differences are reflected in diverse forms of argument and expression (Hyland 2000; Johns 1997). Essentially, academic writing is not a single undifferentiated mass, but a variety of subject-specific literacies. Through these literacies members of disciplines communicate with their peers, and students with their professors. The words they choose must present their ideas in ways that make most sense to their readers, and part of this involves adopting an appropriate identity. It is true that almost everything we write says something about us and the sort of relationship that we want to set up with our readers. Most obviously, however, a writer's identity is created by, and revealed through, the use or absence of the *I* pronoun.

國 立 清 華 大 學 命 題 紙

九十二學年度 外國語文學 系(所) 乙 組碩士班研究生招生考試

科目 英文閱讀與寫作 科號 4903 共 6 頁第 2 頁 *請在試卷【答案卷】內作答

The process of learning to write at university often involves the process of creating a new identity (Fan Shen 1988) which fits the expectations of the subject teachers who represent a student's new discipline. The author's explicit appearance in a text, or its absence, works to create a plausible academic identity, and a voice with which to present an argument. Creating such an identity, however, is generally very difficult for secondlanguage students. This is partly because these identities can differ considerably from those they are familiar with from their everyday lives, or previous learning experiences (Cadman 1997), but also because students are rarely taught that disciplinary conventions differ (Lea and Street 1999). In short, if we simply assume that academic writing is universally impersonal, we disguise variability, and this may have the effect of preventing our students from coming to terms with the specific demands of their disciplines. Instead of equipping learners with the linguistic means to achieve their rhetorical invisibility, then, we need to guide them towards an awareness of the options that academic writing offers. (Taken from *ELT Journal*, Vol. 56, No.4, 2002)

Part 2

Read the following passage and then summarize it in approximately 150 words. (25 points)

Over the past two decades, the need to construct models for international teaching assistant (ITA) training programs has prompted considerable efforts to determine the features that typify teaching discourse at the university level. This body of work has established that teaching discourse in North American classrooms is subject to linguistic and behavioral norms. Effective teaching subsumes not only the ability to communicate a well-structured transactional message but also the ability to create a positive affect (Bailey, 1984) in the classroom. This requires a sophisticated communicative competence on the part of ITAs (Hoekje & Williams, 1992), necessitating some knowledge of discipline-specific language (Byrd & Constantinides, 1992; Jacobson, 1986; Shaw, 1994), different teaching contexts (Axelson & Madden, 1994; McChesney, 1994), interactional strategies (Douglas & Myers, 1989), and teacher immediacy behaviors such as vocal expressiveness or the use of inclusive pronouns (Christophel, 1990; Rounds, 1987).

A less well studied area of classroom language that has particular importance for L2 speakers is the use of intonation in teaching discourse. Intonation, narrowly defined here as variation in pitch movement (Brazil, 1997; Cruttenden, 1997; for a broader definition see Hirst & Di Cristo, 1998), bears a high communicative load in terms of information structuring and rapport building between discourse participants (Gumperz, 1982). It acts as a grammar of cohesion (Wennerstrom, 1998) in spoken texts, elucidating topic structure and signaling relationships between propositions and items in the discourse

九十二學年度 外國語文學 系(所) 乙 組碩士班研究生招生考試

科目 英文閱讀與寫作 科號 4903 共 6 頁第 3 頁 *請在試卷【答案卷】內作答

(Brazil, 1997; Chun, 1988; Clennell, 1997; Pierrehumbert & Hirschberg, 1990; Tench, 1996; Thompson, 1994). Intonational features also have a pragmatic function, communicating sociolinguistic information such as perceptions of status differences, and solidarity or distance, which are essential to establishing successful interspeaker cooperation (Brazil, 1997; Clennell, 1997). Gumperz (1982) shows that miscommunication in cross-cultural encounters related to L2 patterns of intonation and stress can be pervasive and frequently lead to negative stereotyping. The role of intonation in these misunderstandings is particularly poignant as it is easily overlooked by participants and analysts yet may powerfully affect the most inconsequential daily interactions. (Taken from *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 35, No.2, 2001)

Part 3

Read the following passage and then write a detailed and persuasive response to it. You could, for example, challenge the general idea or some particular aspect of it, or apply the ideas to a particular teaching context. Be original; you should not simply restate the author's points. (25 points)

The Use of Visual Aids (By Pit Corder)

The term 'visual aids' suggests in the first instance things brought into the classroom, like wall charts, slides; and films -- something extra, possibly non-essential, which *helps* the teacher to do his job better. This may be a reasonable point of view when thinking about the geography lesson, but in the language classroom it is far too narrow. The language teacher cannot do his job *at all* without visual help or without resorting to translation.

Let me re-define visual aids in the language-teaching situation. *Anything which can be seen while the language is being spoken may be a visual aid.* The wrinkles which are formed when the teacher frowns are visual aids; they give meaning to his 'I'm not satisfied with your behavior, Johnny'. The conductor's badge Johnny pins to his lapel is a visual aid and gives meaning to his 'Move along the car, please'. And the yawn Mary gives is a visual aid and lends meaning to her, 'Oh I'm so sleepy'.

Everything belonging to or brought into the classroom, animate or inanimate, is a potential visual aid -- teacher, boys, girls, pets, plants, clothes, furniture, materials, objects; everything that anyone is seen to do, any movement he makes, any action he performs -- laughing, crying, smiling, working, acting, misbehaving, attending or not attending -- all are potential visual aids; the moment any member of the class or the teacher begins to speak in English, the whole classroom and its contents are instantaneously converted into potential visual aids.

國 立 清 華 大 學 命 題 紙

九十二學年度 外國語文學 系(所) 乙 組碩士班研究生招生考試

科目 英文閱讀與寫作 科號 4903 共 6 頁第 4 頁 *請在試卷【答案卷】內作答

This is why the present limited meaning of the term 'visual aids' is perhaps unfortunate -- it implies something *extra*, something *imported* as a frill, as a motivator but not as something central to and integral with the learning process. This does not mean that we should not talk about the part visible things can play in language learning, nor does it mean that we should reject the help that the new techniques of mass communication -- film and television -- can give us. On the contrary, But their proper use must grow from an understanding of the relationship between the seen and the spoken.

When various traditional 'visual Aids' are discussed, they tend to be divided into such groups as wall charts, book illustration, 'realia' models, puppets, maps, film strip, moving film, television. These classifications are natural and often helpful, but they relate to the different *media of visual aids*, not to the significant difference of *function in the teaching process*. There is another way of classifying visual aids, which may help us to understand their function better, and hence help us to use them better and more imaginatively in the classroom.

The division I suggest is between visual material (this comprehends everything I have been talking about, including the conventional visual aids) for talking *about* and visual material for talking *with*. There is, of course, no hard and fast line between these two types. The division is made principally in order to draw attention to the relation between 'things' and 'language' in the world outside the classroom, which it is meant to reflect.

To take an example: a pair of scissors can be used for talking *about* and for talking *with*. The teacher may bring them into the classroom; he may talk about them, their shape, their material, their use. He can ask the pupils about them and get them to describe them. These are well-tried and familiar techniques and correspond to the use generally made of conventional visual aids. But such language behavior is normal *only in the classroom*. Nobody, except perhaps cutlers, describes and talks *about* scissors, in the world outside. In fact, although describing and talking about physical objects and pictures is a perfectly proper use of language, it is *not* very common in everyday social intercourse; it occurs more often in specialized academic, technical, artistic situations, and in what we might call 'demonstration situations'. This is what I call talking *about* things or using visual material for talking *about*.

Plenty of examples of 'things' come to mind, which can be used both for talking *about* and talking *with*: tools, instruments, money, clothes, toys, and, of course, the familiar model shop. And why, if the teaching is in a secondary school, not actually 'invade' the other teacher's territory? Go into the physics, chemistry or biology laboratories, or the gymnasium, or into the garden to help the gardener, if there is one. What you can't bring into the classroom, you may be able to take the class to see. Better the real thing to talk *with* than a picture of it to talk *about*. (Taken from *English Language Teaching*, Vol. XVII, No. 2)

九十二學年度 外國語文學 系(所) 乙 組碩士班研究生招生考試

科目 英文閱讀與寫作 科號 4903 共 6 頁第 5 頁 *請在試卷【答案卷】內作答

Part 4

Read the following passage and then write a detailed and persuasive response to it. You could, for example, challenge the general idea or some particular aspect of it, or apply the ideas to a particular teaching context. Be original; you should not simply restate the author's points. (25 points)

Linguistic Insights and Language Teaching Principles (By Henry Widdowson)

Linguistics is the systematic study of language through the observation of the characteristics of particular languages. It would seem to be self-evident that such a study would have an immediate bearing on the tasks of the language teacher, that it would provide a definition of the content of his subject. We might expect that the teacher would be able to draw what he has to teach from the findings of linguistic descriptions and so make his own procedures more systematic. But the relationship between theoretical linguistics and practical language teaching is not as simple and direct as it might appear to be. We need a mediating area of inquiry which will interpret the results of theoretical and descriptive studies in such a way as to reveal their relevance to the language teacher. This mediating inquiry is generally known as applied linguistics. The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate a number of ways in which this mediation can take place and by so doing to define the scope of applied linguistics in so far as it relates to the problems of language teaching.

Two assumptions have been made in this opening paragraph which are immediately open to objection and so they need to be examined in some detail. The first is that linguistics stands in need of interpretation. This assumption seems to run directly counter to one of the basic principles of contemporary linguistics that its statements should be absolutely explicit and exact. It is generally allowed that the rules of a linguistic description have their origin in the intuitive introspection of individual linguists, but once the rules have been formulated they are not open to the variable interpretation of intuitive judgments. How then can one speak of interpreting the findings of linguistics when these findings by definition leave no room for interpretation? Part of the answer to this puzzle is that where linguistic description is explicit it is so only at the expense of a severe restriction on its scope of inquiry, and where its scope of inquiry is extended it ceases to be explicit. In the standard version of the generative model of linguistic description, for example, language is reduced to a well-defined axiomatic system and there is no account taken of language variation or change, of the way in which language is put to communicative use. The rules are explicit but interpretation is required to relate them to the actual facts of language behavior. In recent developments in generative linguistics, on the other hand, the scope is much wider: there are attempts to incorporate aspects of use into grammatical statements. But the statements have little of the explicitness and exactitude of the rules of the standard version of the theory. We have an abundance of insights into the nature of language but interpretation is required to organize them into some semblance of order. Linguistics has moved from the early period of classical precision to a current

國 立 清 華 大 學 命 題 紙

九十二學年度 外國語文學 系(所) 乙 組碩士班研究生招生考試

科目 英文閱讀與寫作 科號 4903 共 6 頁第 6 頁 *請在試卷【答案卷】內作答

resurgence of romanticism. We need some detachment from these shifts of fashion in order to judge how far they provide a satisfactory account of those aspects of language as a whole with which we as language teachers are particularly concerned. We touch here on another reason why interpretation is necessary.

All systematic inquiry is based on an idealization of data, and all idealization is relative to the principal interest of the inquirer. As de Saussure pointed out, the whole phenomenon of language presents a picture of bewildering heterogeneity that must be reduced to order in some way if it is to be studied at all. His solution was to assume a static and well-defined system at the core of all the outward confusion. This solution, adopted also in its essentials by Chomsky and his associates, provides for a stable platform upon which linguistic models can be built. But it is a draconian one all the same. Its efficacy as a means of defining a discipline of linguistics rests on the fact that it excludes from consideration a wide range of phenomena which other people interested in language might well regard as absolutely central to its study. The point is that all systematic study is based on an idealization which adjusts 'reality' to make it conform to how the inquirer is inclined to conceive it. The methodological principles of linguistics which were first made explicit by de Saussure have yielded impressive results and enormously extended our knowledge of the nature of language in certain directions. But not in others. Different sets of methodological principles deriving from a different approach to idealization have to be set up to inquire into those aspects of language which linguistics, in the narrow sense we have been considering, cannot by definition account for. Thus, for example, the manner in which language is manifested in actual delivery, characterized by hesitation, self-editing and repetition, is disregarded by the linguist as grammarian but is clearly of immediate concern to the psychologist, who will frame his principles of inquiry in such a way as to bring these features into the focus of his attention. Again, the manner in which language is realized as actual communicative activity determined not only by knowledge of linguistic structure but also by a knowledge of what constitutes appropriate social behavior in different settings is excluded by the linguist in his formulation of grammatical rules. But those who are interested in the study of language in its social context will obviously wish to frame their principles in such a way as to capture these aspects of language. And the language teacher too has his own principles of approach, a way of representing language which conforms to his own particular concerns; and the way language is dealt with in the theoretical and descriptive domains that have been mentioned has to be adjusted in the light of these principles. The findings of linguistics, psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistics have, in other words, to be interpreted so as to incorporate them into a language teaching pedagogy. (Taken from *Explorations in Applied Linguistics*)