

A Resource Booklet for TAs

School of Humanities and Social Science

THE HONG KONG UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY



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Leading small class discussion¹

Significances of small class discussion

- Facilitate students to gain better understanding of certain topics
- provide opportunities for students to take an active part in learning instead of being passive recipients of information
- encourage students to be collaborative in team project
- Learn from perspectives different from my own

Language used in conducting a tutorial

- consistent with the lecture language

Tips

I. About Questions

- Generated either by Professor or TA
- Ask open-ended questions, avoid the yes-no, true-false questions
- 2-4 questions for each tutorial session
- based on readings or/and lecture contents

II. What to do in tutorial

Plan A) Divide the class into small groups

- Each group 4-6 students
- 3- 4 groups
- Within group Discussion: 20 minutes
- Presentation by the representative of each group: 3-4 minutes
- Whole class discussion: 10 minutes
- Summary by TA: 5 - 10 minutes

Plan B) Alternative process

- Presentation by a group
- subject: assigned readings or other team project
- Presentation for 15-20 minutes
- Q & A session: 20 – 25 minutes
- Summary by TA: 5- 10 minutes
- ask the presenting group to send you the ppt slides, outline and discussion questions to you 24 hours before the tutorial, so that you can keep a record, also you can print out the abstract for the class

¹ Acknowledgement: QIN Bairong

III. Encourage student participation

- Tell them that their participation in discussion will earn points and you will note each time he or she speaks on the first day of tutorial (evaluate the frequency and quality of their contributions)
- Write students' contributions on the board
- comment positively about a student's contribution and reinforce good points after a student speaks up
- Memorize and use students' names, encourage peer students learn one another's names

IV. Facilitation

- Ask students to make name cards
- Make a mark on your form when the student participates in discussion
- Prepare a form before a tutorial: student name, date of tutorial, notes (evaluation of student's presentation and participation)
- Set the rules and grading policy in the first tutorial, inform students of the specific criteria that you will use to grade their performance in discussion

V. Fair grading

- Attendance record
- Your notes on presentation, discussion
- Inform students of your grade assignment criteria via email or other written forms (see the annex "rubrics for critical thinking")

Sample(HUMAXXXX)

- **Tutorial Grading Policy:**
- Tutorial is worth 200 points out of the total 2,000 points:
- (1) Presentation of the assigned paper: 80 points;
- (2) Attendance and Discussion in each of the other 7 tutorials: 20 points.

Presentation		80		200
Attendance	8	20	20*6= 140	
Discussion	12			

VI. Discussion questions

What will you do if you encounter the following problems ?

- Silent students
- One or two students dominating the discussion

Annex: Rubric for Critical Thinking

	Exemplary Level = 4	Competent Level = 3 Level = 2		Benchmark Level = 1
Explanation of issues	Issue/problem to be considered critically is stated clearly and described comprehensively, delivering all relevant information necessary for full understanding.	Issue/problem to be considered critically is stated, described, and clarified so that understanding is not seriously impeded by omissions.	Issue/problem to be considered critically is stated but description leaves some terms undefined, ambiguities unexplored, boundaries undetermined, and/or backgrounds unknown.	Issue/problem to be considered critically is stated without clarification or description.
Evidence <i>Selecting and using information to investigate a point of view or conclusion</i>	Information is taken from source(s) with enough interpretation/evaluation to develop a comprehensive analysis or synthesis. Viewpoints of experts are questioned thoroughly.	Information is taken from source(s) with enough interpretation/evaluation to develop a coherent analysis or synthesis. Viewpoints of experts are subject to questioning.	Information is taken from source(s) with some interpretation/evaluation, but not enough to develop a coherent analysis or synthesis. Viewpoints of experts are taken as mostly fact, with little questioning.	Information is taken from source(s) without any interpretation/evaluation. Viewpoints of experts are taken as fact, without question.
Influence of context and assumptions	Thoroughly (systematically and methodically) analyzes own and others' assumptions and carefully evaluates the relevance of contexts when presenting a position.	Identifies own and others' assumptions and several relevant contexts when presenting a position.	Questions some assumptions. Identifies several relevant contexts when presenting a position. May be more aware of others' assumptions than one's own (or vice versa).	Shows an emerging awareness of present assumptions (sometimes labels assertions as assumptions). Begins to identify some contexts when presenting a position.
Conclusions and related outcomes (implications and consequences)	Conclusions and related outcomes (consequences and implications) are logical and reflect student's informed evaluation and ability to place evidence and perspectives discussed in priority order.	Conclusion is logically tied to a range of information, including opposing viewpoints; related outcomes (consequences and implications) are identified clearly.	Conclusion is logically tied to information (because information is chosen to fit the desired conclusion); some related outcomes (consequences and implications) are identified clearly.	Conclusion is inconsistently tied to some of the information discussed; related outcomes (consequences and implications) are oversimplified.

“Do’s” and “Don’ts” when preparing questions for Reviewing Purposes

Do’s

- Be creative in thinking of ways to prepare questions
- Ask questions that test the understanding and application of course material
- Use various ways of asking questions and posing answers
 - TRUE/FALSE
 - Fill in the blank
 - Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs)
 - Case studies
 - Short essay questions
- Use a wide selection of material as the source and relate them to the course
 - current affairs
 - current news
 - ‘hot topics’ in society—issues that students can relate to
- Correct grammar and English of the questions
 - Chinese translation for difficult words
- ‘Pilot test’ the questions with peers, and improve the questions through updating the material, improving the grammar, and eliminating ambiguities

Don'ts

- Make sure there is NO ambiguity in the questions
- Don’t use double negatives
- Don’t hesitate to ask simple TRUE/FALSE questions

Guidelines for Helping UG Students Write Essays²

1. Types of Writing Work in Undergraduate Courses

- **Short Essays**
 - Equal to one assignment or quiz;
 - Two pages;
 - Topics usually are given; a commentary on a specific topic
- **Term papers**
 - Equal to mid or final exam;
 - Eight to ten pages;
 - Topics usually are given, with more freedom; analysis required
- **Group projects**
 - Usually equal to mid or final exam
 - Sometimes presentation only
 - Sometimes needs project report
- **Others**
 - Book review
 - Discussion
 - Response
 - Debate

2. Research Paper vs. Essay

	Research Paper	Essay
Introduction	YES	YES, short
Research question	YES	Depends
Literature review	YES	Depends
Method and data collection	YES, important	Depends
Results and interpretation	YES, important	YES
Conclusion	YES	YES
Reference	YES	YES

3. Basic Rules in Writing Work

² Acknowledgements: The guidelines are drawn from the previous Writing Workshops facilitated by JIANG Qin and LI Hak Yin.

- Golden rules:
 - Following Instructor's requirements stated in syllabus or announcements first!
 - Format; deadline, etc.,
 - What's the real requirements? Theory, data, etc.,
 - Law of parsimony
 - The simplest explanation is most likely to be the correct one
 - Focus on your main argument and stick to it; avoid saying many things in one essay
 - Dialectics (辩证法) can be only applied in very limited situations and clear causal arguments are preferred

4. Prepare to Write a Term Paper

1. First of all, discuss with the instructor about the choice of topic if possible
2. Focus on one specific issue, and had a research question and form some arguments
3. Doing some preliminary literature review (news + journal articles + books) and talk *about the research gap*
4. Using logical reasoning or empirical evidence to elaborate your main argument and show how you could fill in the research gap
5. Refine your research question and hypothesis
6. Conceptualize some key terms and concepts
7. Select methodology, theory and sources
8. Organize your viewpoints , arguments and empirical evidences
9. Come up with a finding in order to answer the research question

5. Doing Analytical Works in Social Science

- Understand the requirements first
- *Following the reasoning of theories discussed in class*
- Finding relevant evidence or designing thought experiments
- Thinking about alternative explanations

6. Useful Writing Skills

- Structure
 - Introduction (research question and hypothesis)
 - Main body (viewpoints + arguments + empirical evidences)
 - Conclusion (finding)
 - Footnotes or bibliography
- Format
 - Spacing
 - Citations
- Style
 - Topic sentences are needed when you start a new point. So do the conjunctions.

- Writing in a clear way by using numbering (but no more than three layers)
- Improving your writing: powerful tools like “my words”, especially words neighbor
<http://mws.ust.hk/> ; <http://wordneighbors.ust.hk/>

7. Final Tip: Write for the General Audience !

- Avoiding using jargons
- Please use general concepts to analyze different contexts, not doing the opposite in doing class discussion, presentation and also writing.
- Discuss with your classmates who are not familiar with the topic or ask someone to read your paper.

Annexes:

1. Essay Grading Rubric
2. Grade Conversion Chart
3. Bilingual Writing Guides
4. Examples of Marked Essays

Annex 1: Essay Grading Rubric

CATEGORY	4	3	2	1
Sources	All sources (information and graphics) are accurately documented in the desired format.	All sources (information and graphics) are accurately documented, but a few are not in the desired format.	All sources (information and graphics) are accurately documented, but many are not in the desired format.	Some sources are not accurately documented.
Paragraph Construction	All paragraphs include introductory sentence, explanations or details, and concluding sentence.	Most paragraphs include introductory sentence, explanations or details, and concluding sentence.	Paragraphs included related information but were typically not constructed well.	Paragraphing structure was not clear and sentences were not typically related within the paragraphs.
Organization	Information is very organized with well-constructed paragraphs and subheadings.	Information is organized with well-constructed paragraphs.	Information is organized, but paragraphs are not well-constructed .	The information appears to be disorganized. 8)
Amount of Information	All topics are addressed and all questions answered with at least 2 sentences about each.	All topics are addressed and most questions answered with at least 2 sentences about each.	All topics are addressed, and most questions answered with 1 sentence about each.	One or more topics were not addressed.
Quality of Information	Information clearly relates to the main topic. It includes several supporting details and/or examples.	Information clearly relates to the main topic. It provides 1-2 supporting details and/or examples.	Information clearly relates to the main topic. No details and/or examples are given.	Information has little or nothing to do with the main topic.

Diagrams & Illustrations	Diagrams and illustrations are neat, accurate and add to the reader's understanding of the topic.	Diagrams and illustrations are accurate and add to the reader's understanding of the topic.	Diagrams and illustrations are neat and accurate and sometimes add to the reader's understanding of the topic.	Diagrams and illustrations are not accurate OR do not add to the reader's understanding of the topic.
Mechanics	No grammatical, spelling or punctuation errors.	Almost no grammatical, spelling or punctuation errors	A few grammatical spelling, or punctuation errors.	Many grammatical, spelling, or punctuation errors.

Annex 2: Grade conversion chart

Letter grade	100 pt scale	25 pt scale	20 pt scale	15 pt scale	10 pt scale
A	90- 100	24-25	19.2-20	14.4-15	9.6-10
A-		22.5-23.75	18-19	13.5-14.25	9-9.5
B+	86-89	21.5-22.25	17.2-17.8	12.9-13.35	8.6-8.9
B	80-85	20.75-21.25	16.6-17	12.45-12.75	8.3-8.5
B-		20-20.5	16-16.4	12-12.3	8-8.2
C+	76-79	19-19.75	15.2-15.8	11.4-11.85	7.6-7.9
C	70-75	18.25-18.75	14.6-15	10.95-11.25	7.3-7.5
C-		17.5-18	14-14.4	10.5-10.8	7-7.2
D	60-69	15-17.25	12-13.8	9-10.35	6-6.9
E (failing)	59 or below	14.75 & below	10.8	8.89 & below	5.9 & below

Annex 3a: Essay Writing Basic Guidelines

Why write essays?

Understanding the value of essay writing will help you to be more confident and positive about tackling it. What reasons are there for writing essays?

- consolidates your understanding of the topic
- encourages you to think and read widely and deeply
- allows you to develop and organize your own ideas through writing
- illustrates that you are able to express your thoughts clearly and logically
- provides an opportunity for you to get feedback from a tutor

These are some general guidelines for reference, intended to help you develop and fine-tune your essay-writing skills. These are by no means the last word on the topic, however; further reading can be found in specialized books on writing academic essays as well as in the online references listed at the end of this guide.

Before you begin writing: the key ingredients of a good essay

- An academic essay must present the reader with an idea based on evidence.
- It must ask a specific research question. Here is an example.

Let's say in a topic on the challenge of North Korea, students may narrow the topic by raising a question like: Why is North Korea a threat to regional stability in recent years?

- It must offer a clear argument/thesis statement.

Different IPE (International Political Economy) theories will provide distinctive answers to the question raised above. You may pick one IPE theory and make your own argument.

For example, if you consider mercantilism in answering the question, you can argue that an inherently mercantilist worldview drives North Korea's domestic and foreign policy. On the one hand, these policies have caused widespread poverty, hunger, and other political challenges for domestic stability. On the other hand, North Korea's reportedly aggressive nuclear programmes can potentially put itself on the brink of a military clash with other countries in the same region.

Summarize your argument in one or two sentences and put them upfront in the first page, because this is the key message you want your readers to get at the very beginning.

- It must discuss and further develop your thesis, or closely related points, through reasoning and evidence.

*The paper must explain why and how North Korea has been able to threaten the region. How do the idea of *juche* and the military dogma of North Korea sit with mercantilist theory? The main idea of the *juche* doctrine is self-reliance. But how does that work? Is it truly practical in North Korea's case? Give*

evidence.

- It must provide relevant examples, supporting details and information, with sources clearly cited.

In the case of North Korea and regional stability, you may provide an outline of North Korea's relations with key states, especially with South Korea and how it could influence North Korea's actions. You should also tell how North Korea has been a mercantilist state in bilateral relations and further analyze why the international context strengthened North Korea's mercantilist beliefs. The paper can also look at how unresolved succession and competition for political power within the Korean Worker's Party, the government and military has threatened domestic stability and, as a result international stability as well.

Essay Plans

An essay plan can help you work out how you will answer a question and which information you will use. Essay plans also help with structuring an essay. After you have done some reading, draw up an initial essay plan:

- Decide on a possible answer to the question (in terms of the research you have done)
- Decide on the information you will use to answer the question
- Look through your notes and choose examples to provide evidence to support your answer
- Decide which points you will discuss, and in which order (first, second, etc.)
- Write all this down in point form and this will be your essay plan

Your essay will probably change as you draft and edit. Write a second essay plan after you write a draft.

(source: <http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/pdf/essay.pdf>)

Seven stages in writing an academic essay

Tips for Effective Writing

Start writing early - the earlier the better

Starting cuts down on anxiety, beats procrastination, and gives you time to develop your ideas.

Don't try to write an essay from start to finish

Begin with what you are ready to write – a plan, a sentence. Start with the body and work paragraph by paragraph.

Write the introduction and conclusion after the body

Once you know what your essay is about, then write the introduction and conclusion.

Keep the essay's overall purpose in mind

Don't lose track of the question or task. Keep it in mind as you draft and edit and work out your argument.

Revise your first draft extensively

Look at the whole essay, make sure it flows and that the paragraphs are in a logical order.

Put the essay aside for a few days

This allows you to consider your essay with a fresh eye.

Proof-read your final draft carefully

Check spelling and punctuation.

(source: <http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/pdf/essay.pdf>)

good essay. Often, the process is not linear: you may tackle certain stages a number of times before you finish an essay. You might return to reading when you find another useful text, for example, or need to look for more evidence to support your points.

Start early

To write a good essay you must give yourself enough time to read, research, plan and write. Never leave your essay-writing to the last minute.

Work up your topic carefully

When asked to define their own topics for essays or projects, the classic mistakes students make are picking too large a topic and not clearly defining the topic. If you are given a choice, you should pick a topic or question you find interesting and challenging: you will find it easier and more enjoyable to develop and defend a strong argument when a topic interests you. Bear in mind that the writing process for an essay *is an integral part of learning*. The following may help you begin to refine your ideas:

- Identify the **topic** you intend to address.
- Write down some descriptors, or **key words**, relevant to that topic. You will have to check these key words against the course catalogue in the library to see which of them appear there. This will make you aware of other possible key words as well as help you to focus your attention on a manageable portion of the field. You should now be ready to think about a title.
- What terms in your title, or related to your topic, need to be **defined**? Remember that dictionaries are not specialist texts and therefore are often not the best places to go for definitions in this context. A definition might be a discussion of the possible approaches to a topic rather than a formula.
- What **line of thought** does your title suggest? Make sure that your title does not include references to an area you do not want to deal with or, alternatively, omits a major aspect of your assignment.
- Can you discuss arguments both **for and against** the main thesis of the topic?

As you write, you can put your interpretations into order, try new ideas and uncover new ways of thinking.

Whether you can pick your topic or not, take time to think about a question or subject carefully.

Here's an example.

What problem is implied?

- *In an essay studying US adoption of Chinese babies, the given focus could be, "Does adoption affect China and US relations? If so, how?"*

What approach, point of view or issue can make it interesting?

- *Political, social, economical and cultural approaches can be considered. Try to interview adopting parents to see the issue from their point of view.*

What do I know about the question or topic? What is my immediate reaction to the question?

- *Many American couples are interested in adopting Chinese babies. Why? Because of sympathy for*

these babies, or social concern in a global sense?

Do I agree with the contention or interpretation suggested in the topic?

- *The China-US relations should be closer because of the adoption policy. But there are probably other reasons and influences that need further and deeper study and analysis.*

What ideas and issues can I cover in answering this question?

- *What are the reasons for both sides (US and China) to allow adoption? What considerations do they have? What requirements are needed for the adoptive parents? Why have the restrictions changed recently? What could be the positive and negative effects to both countries?*

Is there a simple answer or is it more complex once you look deeper?

- *In the short term, a simple answer may be seen; in the long term, when these Chinese children grow up, for example, a more complex answer may be implied.*

What types of information must I use to answer the question?

- *Check the data on the number of adopted Chinese babies and adoptive families from the US Census Bureau and the China Census Bureau. See news reports in the two places covering Chinese baby adoption from China to the US.*

What themes can I explore?

- *How and to what extent does adoption change China-US relations? What positive and negative effects in terms of bilateral relations can be implied in both the short and long term.*

Define the question and analyze the task

Writing everything you know about a topic is not enough in forming a good academic essay. Analyzing, then answering the question or task is important. Make sure you understand exactly what the question requires you to do, and identify the key words (like *discuss* or *analyze*) to clarify the approach needed. Here is a list of the common terms and what they mean:

Account for: Give reasons why.

Analyze: Break the topic matter down into its component parts and examine each part in detail to get to the essence of the subject.

Argue: Systematically accept or reject a position by presenting reasons and evidence for acceptance or rejection. Always indicate your awareness of opposing viewpoints.

Assess: Determine the value or significance.

Comment: Make critical observations about the topic matter, avoiding overgeneralization and mere description.

Compare: Look for similarities and differences between ideas, events, interpretations, propositions and so on.

Consider: Judge and come to an opinion.

Contrast: Place the ideas, events, interpretations, propositions in opposition in order to show the

differences between them.

Criticize: Give your viewpoint or judgment about the worth of theories or opinions about the truth of facts, and back your opinion with a discussion of evidence.

Define: Set down clear, concise and authoritative meanings about the nature of the topic matter. Show that the distinctions implied in the definition are necessary.

Describe: Give a detailed or graphic description of the characteristics of the topic, emphasizing the most important points.

Differentiate: Show the difference between two or more things by determining their distinctions.

Discuss: Investigate or examine by argument, presenting a point of view (whether yours or others). May entail description and interpretation, and your opinion should be supported by arguments and evidence both for and against.

Enumerate: List or specify and describe one by one the points required.

Evaluate: Make an appraisal of the worth of something, in the light of its apparent truth or utility. Include your personal opinion, supported by evidence, and consider both strengths and weaknesses.

Explain: Make clear, interpret, and account for in detail (interpret meanings clearly). Avoid mere description or summarizing and focus on the 'why' and 'how' aspects of an issue.

Explore: Thoroughly examine a topic by investigating and analyzing every aspect of it.

Illustrate: Explain and make clear by the use of concrete examples or by the use of figures, pictures, diagrams or concrete examples.

Interpret: Bring out the meaning of, and make clear and explicit; usually also giving your own judgment (with adequate backing).

Investigate: Search, study and carefully survey all areas of the topic.

Justify: Defend or show adequate grounds for decisions or conclusions, take opposing viewpoints into consideration.

Outline: Supply the main points or general principles of a topic, leaving out less significant details. Emphasis should be on the structure and relationship of information.

Prove: Confirm or verify, or demonstrate truth or falsity by presenting evidence and arguing logically.

Relate: Reveal or show how things are connected to each other, emphasizing relevance and associations in a descriptive fashion.

Review: Critically examine, analyze and discuss the major points of a topic, in an organized and orderly manner.

State: Formally set forth or definitely declare a position, specifying details fully and clearly while omitting unnecessary details.

Summarize: Provide a concise account or statement of the main points or substance of a matter, omitting details and examples.

To what extent: Quantify the importance (i.e., to a large extent, a small extent)

Trace: Identify and describe the development, process or history of a topic from some point or origin (usually the latest to the earliest evidence or development).

(Source: "A Student Guide to Preparing and Presenting Anthropology, Archaeology, Criminology and Sociology Assignments and Theses," School of Social Science, University of Queensland, www.socialscience.uq.edu.au/docs/ansoc-awg-whole.pdf.)

2. Researching your topic

Researching is one of the first steps in essay writing. You will need to read and find relevant information: reading up on a topic helps you develop a thesis and answer the question.

Where to start?

You should start with your initial response to the essay topic or question. This is based on what you already know about the subject. Yet this is only a starting point; you then need to research, question your response and find evidence to help form your answers.

Reading for your essay

Begin your reading for the essay as early as possible, allowing plenty of time to become familiar with the topic and develop your ideas. As you begin to look at your readings closely, with a purpose. Ask yourself the following:

- What do I already know about this topic? Start with what you know. If a topic is unfamiliar, introductory reading is essential. Look at your lecture notes and course readings for help.
- What do I need to read to answer the essay question?
- Is the material useful to my topic and argument, and can it support my answer?

Taking notes from your readings

Whenever you do in-depth reading and find relevant information for your essay, write it down. Your notes will become the basis of your essay. If time allows, don't take notes during a first reading. If you are using photocopies, underline or highlight the relevant information. You can always return to it when you reread and take notes then.

Always take notes while bearing the question clearly in mind. You must support your argument with evidence, so look carefully for relevant information. This can be in summaries or direct quotes from texts, topical examples, case studies or statistics. Note down any sources of information, and copy down all the bibliographic details of what you read. Include the author's name, date, title, publisher and place of publication in your notes, and issue and volume numbers for journal articles, to help with referencing.

3. Organizing your ideas

Organize your thoughts into an answer. Your notes should help you to do this.

Thinking it through

Essay writing requires both creative and critical thinking.

- Creative thinking encourages you to broaden your ideas. Try techniques like brainstorming or mindmapping.
- Critical thinking encourages you to narrow the focus or scope of your ideas (for example, asking why an example is important to your argument).

Your essay should include both the pros and cons points of your argument. You need to evaluate these points - that is, explain why one argument is more important than the other.

4. Writing the essay

Drafting

Writing a draft essay will help you work out:

- what you need to say
 - *For example, in an essay about US-China conflicts over religious freedom, you may need to say what is religious freedom according to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, as well as the interpretations from China and the US, if there are any differences. What conflicts regarding religious freedom involved China and the US in history? What changes can be seen in both sides? What impacts were caused?*
- how you will answer the question
 - *So, based on the differences in religious, cultural, social, historical and political backgrounds, explain the conflict over religious freedom. What reasons did each party use to defend their own religious policy? Are they reasonable? Further analyze if religious freedom is a cause of conflict between the two countries.*
- which evidence and examples you will use
 - *Use recent issues or events, such as the case of the Falun Gong, Tibetan Buddhism, the Beijing Olympics and the situation in Xinjiang province, as examples to support what you find.*
- whether you have enough information

Write a first draft to try out the structure and framework of your essay. Once you have a draft, you can work on writing well.

Structure

Structure your essay in the most effective way to present your ideas and answer the question. All essays should include the following structure:

1. Introduction

Answer the question and provide a summary to map out of your essay. Tell the reader what you are going to talk about and what you believe the answer to be. Keep it brief, but mention all your main ideas.

2. Body

The body of your essay is where you answer the question by developing a discussion. Here, you show your knowledge and grasp of material you have read. Offer exposition and evidence. Use relevant examples and authoritative quotes to support your argument. If your question has more than one part, structure the body into sections that deal with each part of the question.

3. Conclusion

The conclusion rounds off the essay. Go back to your main ideas or points and reiterate your answer to the question. Don't introduce new information in your conclusion.

Essay paragraphs

Each paragraph in the body of the essay should contain:

1. a topic sentence (or main idea sentence) that states your point;
2. an explanation of the point you're making;
3. evidence. Most of the time, your point should be supported by some form of evidence from your reading, or by an example drawn from the subject area. Don't leave the evidence hanging -- analyze it. Comment on the implication, significance or impact and finish the paragraph with the critical conclusion you have taken from the evidence.

5. Editing your essay

Most essays can be largely improved by careful editing. Good essays are the product of writing and rewriting. If you have time, put your essay aside for a few days before you begin to edit. This gives you time to gain a perspective on what you have written and to think further about your answer and arguments. If you find that you need more information, or your argument is not complete, relax and concentrate on fixing any problems.

Once you have a well-organized and fairly complete draft:

- Revise sentences. Make sure the words you use mean what you think they mean. A good dictionary is a must.
- Check transitions. Be sure that the reader can follow a sequence of ideas from sentence to sentence, and from paragraph to paragraph.
- Check punctuation and spelling.

6. Referencing your essay

All academic essays must contain references. Referencing guards against plagiarism, a serious academic offence.

Plagiarism is copying someone else's words or ideas and presenting them as your own. Make sure you are

familiar with the referencing style your faculty or school requires. Often schools or faculties don't mind which system you use, so long as it is consistent. If this is the case, use the system you are most comfortable with.

When to cite sources

Decisions about when to cite sources can be difficult. Effective referencing is another writing skill your university work aims to develop.

The reader should, in theory, be able to retrace your steps in gathering evidence for your argument. In other words, you provide citations as a road map that shows readers how you came to conclusions, shows readers where you derived your information and, if relevant, shows readers where you developed the ideas or interpretations that you are explaining, adopting or challenging. Therefore, you need to provide citations in the following instances:

- where you directly quote someone else's words;
- where you are directly summarizing someone else's argument and ideas;
- where you are summarizing arguments and ideas derived from a number of sources;
- to point your readers to the source of information;
- to translate words or phrase in a foreign language that a reader cannot reasonably be presumed to understand.

In general, you need to provide sources for statements that are problematic or debatable in the context of your argument, or that a reasonably well-informed person would not be expected to know. Again, the ability to successfully make these judgments is a skill you will develop with practice and experience.

The use of citations to refer readers to the work of other writers is occasionally useful, but for the most part, your citations refer only to books, articles and other material you have used directly. Only cite information that you have actually looked at yourself. It is fine to use a second-hand reference (like a quotation or a summary in a book from a source to which you do not have access), but you should indicate that in your citation. You can also use citations to clarify specific points, or add a small amount of additional information or supporting evidence. You should not use footnotes or endnotes as a second argument, nor to provide paragraph after paragraph of new information. If something is not important enough to put into the body of the essay, leave it out.

Citing different kinds of sources

Often you are allowed to choose your own reference system as long as it's clear and consistent. The APA style reference, for example, is a common one.

7. Handing your essay in

Read the assignment guidelines in your course outlines and find out how your lecturer or tutor would like assignments presented. Make sure you have complied with the requirements and that you know when and where your essay should be handed in.

References links

Columbia University

<http://www.columbia.edu/cu/tat/pdfs/The%20Write%20Stuff.pdf>

Deakin University

<http://www.deakin.edu.au/current-students/study-support/study-skills/handouts/faq/writing-style.php#vocabulary>

Empire State College, State University of New York

http://www.esc.edu/ESOnline/Across_ESC/WritersComplex.nsf/wholeshortlinks2/Essay+Writing+Menu

Harvard University

<http://isites.harvard.edu/icb/icb.do?keyword=k33202&tabgroupid=icb.tabgroup54084>

Loughborough University

<http://www.lboro.ac.uk/library/skills/Advice/EssayWriting.pdf>

Monash University

<http://arts.monash.edu.au/sociology/ugrad/essayguide.pdf>

<http://arts.monash.edu.au/historical-studies/ugrad/essay-writing/index.php#8c>

University of New South Wales

<http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au/onlib/pdf/essay.pdf>

University of Queensland

<http://www.socialscience.uq.edu.au/docs/ansoc-awg-whole.pdf>

<http://www.uq.edu.au/hprc/index.html?page=21502#criteria>

The University of Leeds

<http://www.theory.org.uk/david/essaywriting.pdf>

Annex 3b: 論文的寫作方法

一. 導言

論文的定義

論文泛指一切對於某一特殊問題或題材，經過客觀理智的探討和詳盡深入研究之後，把心得以審慎的格式和嚴肅的態度所發表出來的文字。

論文是一個總稱，包括一切學術性的論著，例如畢業學位論文（學士、碩士或博士論文 **thesis or dissertation**）、學期論文（**term paper**）、研究報告（**research report**）、專題報告（**technical report**）、專論（**monograph**），及筆記（**notes**）等各種方式。

由於研究的範圍有別，論文的寫作方法亦有所不同。自然科學的研究強調觀察和實驗，論文往往只把實驗的經過加以記錄整理，將其結果公佈於世而已，因此較為簡明；社會科學則著重統計及實地調查，以及表格的設計編製等；至於人文科學，則偏重文獻的研究和圖書館內蒐集資料的工作。但不論撰寫那一範圍的論文，文獻研究均為不可忽略的共有基礎。以下涉及論文的撰作程序各節，均側重此點討論。

論文的性質

一篇好的論文，是文質並茂，體系完備的。內容方面，必須有創見，不落舊套；文采方面，必須流暢精簡，不寫廢話。學術論文是科學的作品，應具備下列特點：

1. 準確—搜集材料、統計、報告等必須正確無誤。
2. 客觀—必須徵引事實或物證，以支持論點。
3. 公平—不應滲入個人成見，不能先入為主，感情用事；必須以發現及報道真理為目的。
4. 解釋—提出資料來源研究方法，以示立論有據，並要避免抄襲之嫌。

學術論文雖為科學作品，但絕非枯燥無味，一成不變。學術論文亦是藝術作品：生動，而不呆板；有氣魄，而非拘泥不化；有創作性，而非墨守成規。換言之，學術論文的格式雖要嚴謹，寫作的方法雖要科學化，研究的態度雖要理智，但在研究的過程中，材料的剪裁及處理方面，却在在必須巧思與睿智，正如雕塑家之於雕塑品，能去蕪存青、鑿玉成器，把隱藏在原料中的主題彰顯出來，才真是一種高超的藝術。這必須要在經驗中摸索、領悟、體會。

論文與研究

研究(research)一辭，在法文 **rechercher** 原義中，是對一事情，一個問題的尋求、再尋求的意思。換言之，研究即是一種不斷尋找的過程；不論其動機是出於好奇心、求知慾，或是為了求取實際的利益，其最終目標，仍是通過由無知到有知、從懷疑到確定的過程中，獲致滿足。大學教育之所以與中學不同，在於大學著重學生主動地尋求知識，發掘知識，進而開拓知識；因此，大學生必須從事研究工作。

撰寫論文或研究報告，與研究工作不可分割。撰寫論文必須有原則、有技巧、有內容；研究工作必須有方針、有程序、有目標。撰寫論文從找尋題目、提出假設起，到搜集事實，或證明現有理論，或提出嶄新見解，或建立重要體系等，是把研究成果記錄下來的

最佳方式。

由於研究的程序有別，處理的題材不同，各類研究報告或學術論文的程度，自然大有差異。例如學期論文或學生最初用為習作的練習論文等。很少涉及實驗室及實地調查的工作。因此內容組織較為簡化。學生的學期論或練習論文，在研究範圍上言，通常較畢業論文狹窄。畢業論文或研究論文，旨在拓廣知識領域，學期論文或練習論文很難達到這種高遠的目標了；它主要只是一種教學上的工具，學生通過這種訓練，即可學習研究的正確途徑。

二. 論文的撰作程序

論文的撰作，約可分為下列十項主要階段：

1. 選擇題目
2. 蒐集資料
3. 編製工作書目
4. 整理筆記
5. 編寫大綱
6. 分析與處理資料
7. 計劃及撰寫初稿
8. 附加註釋及書目
9. 修飾與整理
10. 定稿

以上步驟，事實上是不能硬性劃分的。例如開始寫作後，發覺某一節資料不足時，便需要重新搜集資料以作補充。因此每一階段的工作，往往需要交互進行。作者撰寫論文時，必須根據題材的性質與客觀的條件，而將各部工作，酌情調整。

1. 選擇題目

擇題原則

題目(topic)的選擇，對於一篇論文的成敗，能起關鍵的作用，因此選擇時必須審慎從事。通常有三項考慮的原則：

- (1) 個人的興趣與能力
- (2) 客觀的研究條件與環境
- (3) 研究的性質、範圍與目標

論文是研究心得的報告。由決定題材到撰寫完成的過程，往往是漫長而艱辛的；因此，除非題目已定，作者應以符合自己的興趣，作為擇題的首要條件。否則寫作時往往事倍功半，味同嚼蠟，寫成的作品更枯澀無聊，不堪卒讀。如此誤己累人，完全失去寓研究於論文的意義。

什麼才是符合興趣的題目？學生往往以尚未培養特殊的興趣而深感困擾。事實上在學習過程中，每個人總有時會面臨問題，或發生疑難而欲尋求答案，或滿懷好奇而欲追究真相，或有心得而欲更求發展的。這些都可開拓成為論文的題材。即使題目範圍已定，亦可

限制或發展題旨，以適應個人的興趣。此外，擇題時亦須兼及個人的能力，以制訂正確、徹底而切實的研究計劃，以免作好高騖遠，妄作虛浮不實的表面功夫。

除了個人的興趣與能力之外，選擇題目時必須兼顧客觀環境所能供應的研究條件。一般學生常因所選的題材過份偏僻，所需資料不易獲得；或因題目太熱門，圖書館中所有的參考資料冊數有限，往往被人捷足先登，搶借一空。因此學生在未定題之前，應先可能研究的題材列出，然後從互聯網搜尋並到學校圖書館或其他圖書館檢視，查詢有關參考書籍、期刊、報章等資料。這一初步的調查工作，需時雖多，却可避免日後許多不必要的麻煩，並可幫助確定研究的方向，避免廢時失事的題材。又假如學生的論文研究涉及實驗或實地調查工作，則必須首先考慮客觀的實驗設備及實地的工作環境有否進行研究的可能，若設備過簡陋或環境複雜，不能配合研究工作所需，則寧可更易題，以免力不從心。

最後討論研究的性質、範圍、目標與題目的關係。選擇題目首應明白撰寫論文的目的所在。例如目的是學位論文，或是某一科的學期習作，或是對某一問題的專題報告，雖然撰寫的原則不變，研究的性質却隨之而異。通常寫學位論文所擇的題目以較具創見，方便作較為深入的研究為貴，能見人之所未見，發人之所未發，對學術多提供創獲性的貢獻。至於對某一問題的專題報告，題材經已指定，題旨則貴在能推陳出新。某一科的學期報告，則往往需要選擇與該科有關的題目，讓學生藉論文撰作，獲得處理材料和組織內容的訓練，從而熟諳有關的基本知識。故題目的範圍應不偏不廣。太廣則流於空泛，無從下筆；太偏則拘泥不化，無所裨益。

擇題範圍

根據上述原則，學生撰作練習論文時，可在下述範圍中，選擇適當的題目。

1. 有關目前修習科目或主修課程的題材。例如主修工商管理系而選修投資學的同學，可以香港股市近況為題材。
2. 有關個人閱讀的偏好或活動興趣的題目。例如有關偵探小說、科學小說、音樂、運動等題材。
3. 有關論證而仍缺乏事實根據的題目。例如死刑應否廢止、賭博應否合法化等問題。
4. 常人甚感興趣而又無暇深入研究的問題。例如在今日教育中，電腦的作用究竟何在，互聯網普及後是否影響書籍銷路等問題。

學生撰寫論文時，能夠確定研究的方向，寫作有目標，有對象，就不會引以為苦了。

確定題目

初學者(如大一學生)的論文習作，當然難求對某一問題作權威性的論斷；但亦不能將各項未經整理的資料，胡亂湊拼而成。因此，在題目範圍選定之後，尚需作一番調整的工作，以便把題目確定下來，適應論文預定的篇幅與研究的主題。

學生常喜選擇氣勢龐大、冠冕堂皇的題目，由於範圍太廣，又鑑於個人精力、時間、學識有限，並不適宜作為論文題目；即使學生勉力以赴，亦不免有以偏概全之弊。因此擇題之後，必須把題目領域縮小，規範至某一程度，以適應作者的能力。這種確定題目的方法，並不等於把題目內容，作片面的判斷或研究，而是把注意力集中在問題的某一或某幾個觀點上，以便作深入的全面探討。確定題目時，可選擇某一特殊的時空事件人物，再從某一特殊角度，特殊觀點來探索處理。這樣，論文不僅確定題目，更建立題旨；不僅把舊有的或普通的資料彙集重寫，更對現有的文獻資料，經過整理和分析與組織，提出嶄新的見解，透顯出不同的精神面貌來。

題目一經確定，即應加以精警扼要的定義，以便搜集資料時，有所依循。題目不宜隨意更換，但可酌情修改，以令題旨更加明確。

2. 蒐集資料

蒐集途徑

蒐集論文資料時，因各類題目性質不同，因此並沒有一成不變的法則可循。通常先從適當的參考書籍入手，例如一般性或專科性的百科全書、基本文獻指導書、書目、索引等。百科全書往往在每一特殊問題討論之後，列出有關的重要書目，供學者參考。學生可依此為根據，再搜尋學校或當地圖書館的目錄，借出館中已有的書籍；就書中目錄與索引部份，查看有用的資料，以便蒐集。此外，學生可採取同樣步驟，查閱期刊或報章論文索引，尋找有用的期刊及報章資料。

資料類別

一般資料大致可分為基本資料與二手資料兩種。

(一) 基本資料 (primary sources)

基本資料是有關某一事件或人物的原始文獻或紀錄，因此是直接而又貼近研究對象的。例如研究紅樓夢，閱讀曹雪芹紅樓夢原著；研究柏拉圖思想，閱讀柏氏著作，包括各種對話集等。此等資料，雖然有時較難處理，卻是研究時不可或缺的依據。撰寫論文而不用基本資料，即如隔霧看花，主題不易掌握，概念有失明朗。基本資料包括手稿(信札、日記、遊記、自傳)、實地訪問記錄、新聞報道、統計資料、實驗報告，上課筆記等等未經他人編纂或解析的資料，因此使用時必須額外審慎，以判斷真偽，確定來源是否可信。

(二) 二手資料 (secondary sources)

二手資料是有關基本資料的評論、詮釋及研究性的文字，例如各家對紅樓夢的評論，或各家對柏拉圖著作的研究。這種資料介乎讀者與基本資料之間，並包括一切工具書在內；一方面解釋原著、批評原著；另一方面，則幫助讀者對原著了解與欣賞。不過運用二手資料時，必須具有高度的選擇與鑑別能力才行。

基本資料與二手資並無硬性分別。同樣的資料，在某一項研究中居基本地位，在另一項研究中，可能只居次要地位。地位的遷移，完全視題目的主要內容而定。根據基本資料寫作的論文較接近純正的研究。學生撰寫練習論文時，因時間能力所限，往往只能用到二手資料，但應盡量嘗試採用原始資料，以探究事實真相。

試探閱讀

撰寫論文時，除了廣集有關各類文獻之外，並須涉獵與題目相連的學術背景的研究資料。例如研究紅樓夢時閱讀中國文學史，小說發展史；探討柏拉圖思想淵源時兼及蘇格拉底及其以前思想發展等，以便對研究的題材，有一全面的概念與基本的認識。

在搜集資料的同時，並可發現許多附屬問題。例如所選題目，以前是否有人做過？若有，數量有多少？前人對此問題的研究方法如何？資料來源如何？前人採取的立場是否正確？前人已解決的問題是什麼？未解決的疑難是什麼？若屬爭論性的問題，則爭論的焦點何在？當然，要發現這些問題，僅僅翻閱參考資料的書名或篇名是不夠的。因此，在初步研究階段，必須把所獲資料作試探性的閱讀；即以最經濟的時間、最快捷的速度，翻閱資料、獲得概念，以決定資料的取捨。有價值的資料，則列入工作書目備用；無價值的資料，則可廢棄。

3. 整理筆記

筆記種類

蒐集有關資料後，經試探性閱讀，發現確有價值的話，即須記錄下來，以備應用。

做筆記時，必須先考慮此項資料的可能用途，依其性質的不同而寫成不同種類的筆記如下：

(一) 大綱式 (outline notes)

把資料全部或部份要點，以大綱方式摘錄下來。但切忌為遷就格式而歪曲內容。

(二) 撮述式或演述式 (summary or paraphrase notes)

撮述是把一段資料的內容，掌握其中心思想，用較少的文字重新寫出；必須簡單扼要，忠於原文。演述是把原文以不同的文句、相當的字數，重新寫出；但亦需維繫原文的精神面貌。撮述與演述之不同，在於前者可把原文中不重要不相干的部份略去不提，縮短篇幅；後者則把原文全部重寫，而不縮短篇幅。由於兩者均經作者重寫，因此可運用某些縮寫或符號以表示內容。但這些縮寫必須有一定法則，前後一貫，方能避免混淆。此外作撮述或演述式筆記必須有原文在手。把資料歸還後，但憑追憶是不可靠的，而且易犯錯誤；至於先把資料記錄，再作撮述或演述，則荒廢時間，多此一舉。

(三) 評論式 (commentary notes)

評論文筆記乃論文作者本人或他人對資料的評價，以簡單的一段、一句或一字評語，表達出對所選資料或所作筆記資料的權衡。評論式筆記的內容，可包括對某書的摘要或書評，或研究者本人對某項資料的觀點、批評等。這一類筆記十分重要：能把零散的資料貫穿起來，有助於對論文重要論點的組織與整理。

(四) 引述式 (quotation notes)

引述式是把原文一字不易照章直錄，常為一般人所樂用；但用之不當，亦促成不用心思，只做機械式抄錄的怠惰習慣，倍添撰寫的困難，且易令論文成為零散冗贅的資料堆積及毫無趣味的剪貼工作。因此作引述式筆記必須注意是否適合下列準則，否則可用其他方式取代：

1. 極為重要的論點
2. 值得辯駁爭論的題材
3. 模稜兩可的記載
4. 易引起諮詢的資料
5. 良好而具風格，可令論文生色的文字
6. 其他語句不能取代的資料
7. 必須用原文方能精確解析，避免誤解的複雜題材
8. 併引雙方不同意見的記載
9. 經典格言與權威性的著作
10. 文學名著，如李白詩、後主詞、莎翁戲劇等

作筆記時，由於尚未能確定資料是否實用，很自然會記下較實際用途更多的引文，以供日後酌量採用。在論文中直接引錄

他人文字所佔的比例，大致上是十分之一，但常因性質不同而異，不能一概而論。

引述規格

學術論文中引述語(direct quotations)的運用，必須依照一定的格式，在此順便說明：

- (一) 引述語首尾必須加上引號—中文為「XXXXXX」(直寫)或“XXXXXX”(橫寫)；外文則為“XXXXXX”或《XXXXXX》。若所引原文之內本有引述資料，則用雙引號(『XXXXXX』)或單引號(‘XXXXXX’)表示，以資區別。
- (二) 引述原文時，應完全照錄，標點符號也不例外，務求正確無誤，因此更不得擅自更改原文有誤，並當照錄，但可在錯處之後附注“按原文如此，照錄”(英文用 sic 字表示)。
- (三) 如有刪節引述文字，應以適當省略號表示：中文用“……”六點，英文用“…”三點。所刪略的資料若屬全段，則可用一行的點點表示，否則應注明“上略”、“下略”、“此處省略 … 行(段)”等字樣。
- (四) 引述時，如需修正或補充引述資料，必須附注聲明。譬如為了要強調原文某些詞句，可加上“著重號”—中文在字行左邊(直排)或下面(橫排)加圈點或用黑體字排列；英文則在字行下面加線或用斜體字(italics)排列。但也要附注聲明：“著重號乃筆者所加，原文並無”，以免誤導讀者。
- (五) 所有一切在引述文字之內增添原文所無的資料，均應用方括號(〔XXXXXX〕)表明，以示與原文有別。
- (六) 引述文字倘屬零散辭句，可直接置於行文中，以引號說明(如上述)。若長達三數行以上，則宜專設段落，把引述文句從正文分開，成為附屬的單元。至於格式方面，這些另成段落的引述語句常把行首縮進(indented)一兩格，或以不同(較小或較密排)的字體表明，以資鑑別。引述的段落既如此顯明，則本來首尾應加的引號自然可以省卻。

引述原文除了必須合乎以上的規格之外，還應在原則上對文作者負責任。因此，必須清楚表明原文的意義，切忌斷章取義，以辭害意。所以(一)在引述前後，應有適當的敘述、闡釋或評論；並且(二)必須注明原文出處，以助讀者查究原文，必要時可兩相參證。前者關乎其他三種筆記方式，上已論及；後者則涉及書目注釋，及引證體系。

筆記程序

為求論文工作順利起見，記錄重要資料是不可忽略的程序。學者取捨資料，必須牢記資料與論文之間的特殊關係。若筆記能詳細無誤地列出資料來源，並小心正確地以符號把自己的意思與筆記內容劃分，則撰作論文時當可避免抄襲他人文章內容見解而未加承認的剽竊之罪。

至於何時應記筆記，何時不必，何者有用，何者無用，全憑經驗，並無法則可循。然初學者寧可多記，以免失重點為要。

筆記的程序因人而異。有人喜歡每當閱讀有用資料時立刻記錄下來；有人則喜歡先作掠讀，在有用資料處作一記號，其後一併再作筆記。兩種程序，何種為佳，則見仁見智；但閱讀資料必須緊記此時並非僅僅為閱讀而閱讀，乃為筆記而閱讀。不斷的閱讀與筆記，資料累積加增，對於問題的了解、分析與闡釋，自然也就有所依據。

4. 編寫大綱

大綱功能

大綱(outline)是論文目次張本與撰作的藍圖。在撰寫初稿以前，必須首先擬定周詳完備的大綱，論文始能綱目分明、有條不紊。大綱的擬定，與書目一般，可分初步(或稱工作大綱)、最後大綱兩個層次。初步大綱即在題目選定之後，概念尚未十分明確之前，把思

想中與題旨有關的綱目，粗略記載下來而成，然後在閱讀與筆記的過程中，由逐漸獲得的知識與事實使觀念漸趨明確、組織漸呈清晰。此時可把初步大綱隨時增益修訂，或取消舊標題，或加添新項目，直至閱讀與筆記完成之後，再經編纂，大綱方能成形。

初步大綱能固定浮游的觀念，是資料蒐集的指南。當大綱經逐步修訂，論點愈形精確時，資料的分類、組織、安排與處理亦隨之愈形慎密而合乎邏輯。至最後大綱擬就、資料搜集完備時，論文撰寫的工作，即可順利地開始進行了。僅憑個人思想擬製的大綱，多數殘缺遺漏，不夠完備；沒有大綱為據的資料搜集，則多數茫無頭緒、雜亂無章；縱然搜得大批資料，亦不知從何整理。

編寫次序

編寫大綱必須層次分明、體系完備。編寫次序通常先把個人思想所及與題目的有關的論點全部記錄下來。此時不必理會次序先後，總之想到就寫，然後再依項目的大小、性質的不同、時間的先後，或地域的差異等因素，把全部論點，重新編排，以定出完備的體系。

一般編寫大綱，均以標題形式，列出綱目；每一綱目之前，並以數字符號，列明其層次與值的不同。例如：

大綱種類

大綱通常可分為下列三種：

- 一. 標題式 (topical) — 用詞句述出所有項目的內容。
- 二. 句子式 (sentence) — 用句子述出項目內容或主題；或用名詞寫述項目，用句子述出副項。
- 三. 段落式 (paragraph) — 除主要項目可用詞句述出外，一切其他項目均用段落述出。

編寫大綱可採用任何一種方式，通常以句子式或段落式大綱較易表現主題內容，對撰作最有幫助。大綱的作用在於輔助論文的撰寫，是無規限性的；因此當擬訂一大綱時，除主要項目確定之外，其他項目必須留有權變斟酌的餘地。

5. 分析與處理資料

批判原則

當書目、筆記、工作大綱準備就緒之後，就應著手分析及處理所得的資料，以便撰寫論文時，有所依據。由於撰寫論文，是一種思想的訓練，因此學生對所搜集的資料，不能貿貿然採用，還需經過批判與估價的工夫。

學生在筆錄資料時，已經過一層批判階段，決定何者有用、何者無用；但第二層的批判，卻以資料的內在價值為標準。換言之，某一項資料雖與論文有關，但這項資料的論據是否正確，來源是否可靠，卻仍然有待評估。初學者可根據以下各項原則，批判及評估已有的資料。

一. 出版日期

若論文題材為有關最近發展的事物，則所選資料亦有時間性的限制。最新出版的書籍資料，自然最有價值，最有幫助但許多有關人文科目的題材，並不受時間限制；出版年代久遠的書籍，仍然被視為權威性的經典之作，則又當別論。

二. 資料完整性

資料應以齊全完備為佳，因此儘可能要閱讀原文，應避免採用該文的摘要，以免斷章取義、偏而不全。例如所蒐集的資料應是期刊論文，而非期刊論文摘要。

三. 事實與評析

閱讀一項資料，應分清作者所引述的事實與作者的見解之不同；若引述某一文件，不能以該文作者個人見解為事實，以免混淆不清，真相難明。

四. 資料客觀性

所採用資料，不論是書籍或期刊論文，必須客觀中肯，不能有所偏倚。特別是對有關爭論性題材，更應兼取兩方論據，以免失諸公允。

當然，一項資料的價值究竟如何，應隨其性質而定，不能一概而論。學生分析資料時，既要批評其內涵的價值，又要考慮其與論文的關係；必須兩者均合乎原則，方能稱為真正有用的資料。

資料處理

處理資料的方式與技巧，對論文的成敗，能起決定性的作用。下列三種類型的論文，即因資料處理的不同而形成。

一. 螞蟻式

這一類論文，作者只知把資料東抄西襲，湊拼成篇，完全不顧資料內容的編排與分析，完全沒有個人的見解與主張；即如螞蟻搜集食物，搬運集中的方式。這是一種“學而不思”的態度，有失撰作論文的目的。

二. 蜘蛛式

這一類論文，作者效法蜘蛛自腹中吐絲結網，全憑一己的主張，自說自話，漠視事實資料；表面上雖可自成體系，却往往與實際脫節。這種態度可稱為“思而不學”的態度，有違撰作論文的原則。

三. 蜜蜂式

這一類論文，作法如蜜蜂採花釀蜜：先廣納眾意，再把資料詳加解析，溶於一爐，經融會貫通之後，製造出嶄新的產物。這是學思並用的態度，是撰作論文最理想的方式。

以上三種類型，顯示出論文與資料之間的關係。一篇好的論文，不應只援引資料、敘述資料，更應分析及綜合資料、闡發並解釋事實，以求貫穿資料與研究主題，獲得主要的結論。

6. 計劃及撰寫初稿

論文立場

經過慎重周詳的準備階段之後，就要開始實際的撰寫工作了。動筆之前，作者首先應確定本身的立場與態度，及如何通過論文的媒介，把研究的心得，呈獻給讀者。作者對論文的態度與處理方式往往因不同種類的讀者而異，例如讀者是導師、同學、專家或對論文題材有一般興趣者，內容有關歷史文獻、自然或社會科學的，則作者的態度自然有所不同：或循規蹈矩，或不拘禮節，或嚴肅，或幽默，或同情或批判等等。至於處理的方式亦有考據的、調查的、實驗的或解析的種種分別。作者採取的態度與立場，決定論文的筆調與組織。最成功的論文，即是能把作者先有的概念與命題，經研究證驗之後，以最有效、最信服的方式傳達給讀者的文章。這是論文的功能，也是作者撰述的目的。

論文組織

論文的組織，應以大綱標題為準則，逐項發展，並加強結構的統一性、內容的聯貫性，與重點的均衡性。現以論文每一段落為單位，逐點討論。

一. 統一性

為求段落的統一，首先必須掌握每一段落中主要思想的線索。初學者可把中心思想放在段落的最後一句，即所謂題目句(topic sentence)，亦可把標題句放在段落的最後一句，或插入段落之中。除標題句之外，段落中每一主要句子，及次要句子，都必須以中心思想一線貫穿，以求全段的完整與一致。

二. 聯貫性

為求段落的聯貫性，內容必須井然有序。作者可依循時間性、地域性，或邏輯次序安排資料。必要時，可重覆闡述中心思想的主要字眼，以加強句與句間的聯系；並可以對比法表達價值相當的觀念等，來達成段落的聯貫性。

三. 均衡性

為求內容節奏分明，必須加強某些論點；或可選用特殊句法，或以具體的字眼取代抽象的辭語；或可重述主要字句等，以強調語氣。但必須以全段文字的暢順、內容的銜接為主，以免顧此失彼，有失均衡。

論文的每一段落若均能掌握上述要點，推而廣之，則全篇當可前後呼應，一氣呵成；取材立論亦可彼此關連，渾成一體。但學術論文除組織慎密之外，尚需兼及嚴謹的格式。這是論文特色，與其他文體最不相同之處。(詳見下面“註釋與書目”一節。)

論文結構

一篇良好的論文，結構必須嚴謹，通常應包括下列各部份。

一. 前部 (preliminaries)

甲. 書面、題面或篇名頁 (Title page)

書面或題面頁通常列明書名或篇名(論文題目)、作者或編者姓名，以及其他有關事項。書面頁格式並無劃一的準則，通常以整齊簡潔為主。

例一

香港科技大學 HUMA213 女性文學學期論文 (題目) 導師 學生姓名 學生編號 日期
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(Title) By (Author) Instructor Course Date Hong Kong University of Science

乙. 序言 (preface)

序言可有可無，通常分作者自序及他人代序兩種。序言中多表明論文撰作的原因、宗旨及有的重要事項。序言務求簡明，不可長篇大論，拖泥帶水。除序這之外，並可包括謝詞、獻詞等，皆可視情況需要增減。

丙. 目次 (contents)

目次可繁可簡，通常列出全文章節及其頁數。若文中包括圖表，則應按其先後次序，排列為圖次或表次，並寫出頁數，以便查閱。若屬短篇論文，亦可以大綱取代目次，也可省去。

丁. 摘要 (abstract)

摘要撮取論文的精義，近年來在論文或學術期刊中的地位，日趨重要，時而取大綱而代之。

二. 本文 (the text)

甲. 導論 (Introduction)

又稱前言、引言、引論或緒論，是全篇的開端；目的在提綱挈領，點出題旨，因此地位十分重要。措詞必須簡明精練，直截了當。導論中多簡述下列各要點：

- (1) 敘述問題及其癥結所在，列明論文題旨性質及範圍。
- (2) 檢討前人成就，鋪陳本文特點。

(3) 提出本文研究方法與原則，並涉及所採取的立場與觀點，以及引證體例等。

乙. 正文 (main body)

又稱本論，討論全篇的重點；務必慎密周詳，層次分明。正文的展開，應以擬定的最後大綱為根據，不能因一時興之所至，隨意發揮。

丙. 結論 (conclusion)

結論總結全文，務必簡單扼要，信而有徵。結論不單可解答問題，並可提出相關問題，作進一步研究之用。

三. 參考部 (reference matter)

甲. 註釋(notes)

又稱附註、註腳，指出資料來源，是學術論文大公性、客觀性的表徵，是極為要的一部份。下面特另闢專節詳論，此處從略。

乙. 參考書目 (bibliography)

此乃文中所用資料，包括書、報、期刊文章、未出版資料、政府公報、小冊子等的編目。其重要[生及格式於下節另述。

丙. 附錄 (appendix) (非必要)

此乃與論文無直接關係而有參考價值的資料，例如各類圖表統計、人名附表、年代附表、手抄本附表等，可單獨抽出，附於論文之後，以供讀者查用。其性質與解釋註釋相當，但較註釋更具獨立性。

丁. 字彙 (glossary) (非必要)

論文中專有或特殊名詞的清單，常列明各字各詞的意義與用法，以供讀者參考，並促進對論文的了解。

戊. 索引 (index) (非必要)

每附於長篇論文後，將論文細目逐項編列，並指出頁數，以便讀者查閱論文內容，以補充目次的不足。

7. 附加註釋及書目

註譯

一. 功用

註釋是學術論文的特色之一，與書目同為論文中用以弔證文獻的必要方式。由於學術論文是研究的報告，讀者在閱讀之餘，可以查究資料來源，因此註釋的功用極大，茲略述如下：

- 甲. 註釋提供論文中引述資料的正確來源，以便讀者參閱並兩相參證查考，或依此根據，進行獨立研究，以收事半功倍之效。
- 乙. 積極方面，註釋列明資料出處，表示學者治學研究的嚴謹態度：“君子不奪人之美”，他人研究成果，不據為己有；至於原文謬誤，亦不必承擔，然而引述的責任，當然不能避免。

丙. 消極方面，為維護學術尊嚴起見，凡引述他人語句意見，而不加註明，便犯剽竊之罪(plagiarism) – 註釋使借用他人語句或意見得以合法!

以上所述為一般引證式註釋的功用。其他尚有解釋式或參閱式註釋，分述於後。

二. 種類

甲. 引證式 (citation notes) –

引證式註釋用以註明資料的出處，通常在下列情形中運用：

- (1) 最新的或鮮為人知的事實。例如最近人口統計的數字，並非人人耳熟能詳，因此必須註明出處(如官方發表的結果)，以示信而有徵。但若一連串事都同出一源時，則可用一個註釋加以概括。例如所有統計數字皆由當地年鑑得來時，即不需在每一數字後逐項加以註釋。至於逢人皆知的事實與常不需在每一數字後逐項加以註釋。至於逢人皆知的事實與常識，亦不必加註。不過所謂常識，便不能算是“逢人皆知”的事實了。
- (2) 直接引語。任何直接引述的語句，都須註明出處，除非引述成語或諺語，則又當別論。例如“己所不欲，勿施於人”，“人之初，性本善”等，是需窮究其源的。
- (3) 任何處理或組織資料的方式，例如統計圖表的繪製等，如非自創，則必須註明出處。
- (4) 他人的理論與意見，作者表達或陳述他人的理論與意見時，即使十分贊賞，或心有同感亦不能就此將意見據為己有，必須指出資料來源。以免混淆不清，引起誤解。

乙. 解釋式 (explanatory notes) –

解釋式註釋是陳述與正文內容有關的資料，因為避免打斷文氣，故多不在正文中是出，通常在下列情形中運用：

- (1) 釋義 – 例如在討論土地改革的文章中，提及“井田制度”，為幫助讀者對此一制度的認識，在註釋中詳加解釋。
- (2) 補充資料 – 與正文有關但並非舉足輕重的資料。例如討論白話文運動，提出標點符號的重要，在註釋中可列出新標點符號一覽表，以供讀者參閱。
- (3) 比較與討論 – 論及某一題材時，並列其他有關資料，以便參照。例如論及中國初級教育時，在註釋中則可濺及其他各國教育制度，以為參考。
- (4) 原文 – 撰作論文時，常用及翻譯資料。例如歐美漢學家，研究四書時，常用譯文；作者為審慎起見，常在註釋中列出中文原文及其漢語拼音，以供讀者參照校閱。
- (5) 批評 – 在純客觀性的論文中，作者可在註釋加上本人對資料的見解。例如“我相信左傳是晚周人做的歷史，但不相信是劉歆所改編的”。
- (6) 推薦 – 作者可在註釋中提供有關閱讀資料，以供讀者進一步研究之用。
- (7) 銘謝 – 作者不但指出資料來源，並誌謝意。例如“本段的主要論點，均由某君啟發，引證的材料也多為其所搜集，謹表謝忱”等。

丙. 參閱式 (cross reference notes) –

為簡潔起見，論文中常用註釋，以指出與前後文相關的論點，而不再覆述。即為參閱式註釋，例如：

中文

見前文頁九。

英文

See above, p. 9.

見下文頁十。	See below, p. 10.
見第一章頁五至六。	See Chapter I, pp. 5-6.

以上三類註釋，可視實際情況的需要而合併使用。引證式註釋則在任何情形下均不可省略；解釋式應靈活應用，除非必要，以簡短為原則；參閱式則便於使用，可節省筆墨。

三. 位置

註釋可列在每頁下(或左)端；亦可在全文之末，另闢註釋頁，將全部註釋，依次列出。若屬長篇論文，需分章撰寫時，則可在每章後面，將該章註釋列出。

四. 符號與數目

每一註釋必須用符號註明，中文加註時，用“(註一)”、“(註二)”樣式，或“1”、“2”。英文則在加註處右上方以阿拉伯數字表示，例如 naturalism²。至於不同性質的註釋，列如統計圖表等，則常以星標(*asterisk) 及短劍符(†dagger)等表示，以免混淆。有時作者以數字表示引證式註釋，以星標等表示解釋式註釋；前者列在正文之後，後者則列在同頁下端，以便讀者立刻參閱。

書目

一. 性質與功用

書目是論文參考資料的清單，通常附在論文之後。書目必須包括所有註釋中曾經徵引的一切資料文獻，但只經涉獵而與題材無關的資料則不必列出。

書目根據其性質約可分為三種“推薦書目”(suggested readings)，指導讀者進一步研究；“特選書目”(selected bibliography)，指出精要的資料來源；“評註書目”(annotated or critical bibliography)，列在每一項徵引資料之後，批判及評估其內容價值等。

書目的目的在於使有意探討論文題材的讀者，在閱讀之餘，得以隨時查閱有關的參考資料。讀者若對論文資料來源，發生懷疑，亦可從而檢視其真實[生。由書目可以看出資料是否深入齊備，從而確定論文的基礎是否鞏固完善。

二. 編排法

- 甲. 根據作者姓氏字典次序編排(英文 alphabetical order) -- 這是最普及通用的書目編排法。在排列次序中，若某一項資料的作者不明時，可以書名或篇名首字母 (a, an, the 等冠詞除外)取化，順序排列。
- 乙. 根據出版年份編排 (chronological order) - 有關歷史題材的資料，可依出版年份的先後排列。例如明代書籍在先，清代文獻在後，依次排列。
- 丙. 根據資料內容編排(division by subject) - 若資料內容屬不同範圍或不同題材時，可依內容分類排列。例如有關教育論文書目，可將初級、中級及高級教育資料，分類編排。
- 丁. 根據資料種類編排 (division by kind of material) - 根據資料的不同種類編排。例如根據書籍、期刊文獻、小冊子、未出版資料等分類安排，或根據一手或二手資料編排等。

以上乙、丙、丁三類書目編排法，均應採用甲類為基本，以免在書目太長時，引起混淆，加添讀者的不便。

三. 結論

由於學術論文是陳理述義的，是客觀的、就事論事的，而非娛樂性的、主觀的、幻想的、憑空捏造的。學生因缺乏訓練，常會茫無頭緒。事實上，各種論文類型雖有不同，其基本的意義、寫作的原則，與研究的特定關係，以及引證的格式是大同小異的。

附論：書目與註釋規格

一. 基本項目

書目與註釋既以提供引證資料的出處為首要目的，所以理應包括下列有關的幾項基本書目資料(bibliographical data):

書籍	文集文章	期刊文章	網絡資訊
(1) 作者	(1) 作者	(1) 作者	(1) 作者
	(2) 篇名	(2) 篇名	(2) 篇名
	(3) (文集) 編者		
(2) 書名	(4) 文集(書) 名	(3) 期刊名	
(3) 出版地點	(5) 出版地點		
			(3) 網址
(4) 出版者	(6) 出版者		
(5) 出版年份	(7) 出版年份	(5) 出版年月份	
			(4) 瀏覽日期和時間
		(4) 卷(期)次	
(6) 出版年份	(8) 頁數/頁次	(6) 頁數/頁次	

現舉例說明如下：

例 1 中文書籍

(1) 梁啟超 (2) 《中國歷史研究法》(3) 上海 (4) 商務印書館 (5) 民國廿二年 (6) 共 192 頁/第 18 頁

例 2 英文書籍

(1) Alfred North Whitehead (2) *The Aims of Education and Other Essays* (3) New York (4) The New American Library (5) 1949 (6) 166pp. / p.104

例 3 中文期刊文章

(1) 唐君毅 (2) “說學術研究之歷程與其成果” (3) 《中國學人》 (4) 第一期 (5) 1970 年 3 月 (6) 第 1 至 27/頁 11

例 4 英文期刊文章

(1) Douglas A. Roberts (2) “Science as an Explanatory Mode” (3) *Main Currents in Modern Thought* (4) Vol. 26 (5) May-June 1970 (6) pp. 131-139 / p.137

例 5 中文文集文章

(1) 謝文孫 (2) “漫談‘知識之士’” (3) 〈大學叢書編委會〉(4) 《這一代中國知識份子的見解》(5) 台北 (6) 環宇出版社 (7) 民國 59 年 (8) 頁 25 至 66/頁 35

例 6 英文文集文章

(1) Paul Weiss (2) “Science in the University” (3) Robert S. Morison (4) *The Contemporary University: U.S.A.* (5) Boston (6) Beacon Press (7) 1966 (8) pp.152-185/p. 163

以下說明各項內容與較為重要的記錄慣例 (以書目格式為主)。

甲. 作者項

1. “作者” (author) 指該書(篇)內容的負責人。有時還要加上(某某人)著、編(ed.)、選(comp.)、譯(tr.)等字樣，以資辨別。
2. 如該書兼有著者與編者或譯者，則二者姓名均須列出，通常以著者姓名領先(或並附原文)，如下：

例 7 柏拉圖著，吳獻書譯：《理想國》

例 8 Fung Yu-lan (馮友蘭), *A History of Chinese Philosophy* (《中國哲學史》), tr. Derk Bodde

不過若以編者或譯者為主，亦可以其姓名領先(或並附原文)，如下：

例 9 Alexander Pope, ed., *The Works of Shakespear*

例 10 潘光旦譯，靄理士原著：《性心理學》 (Henry Havelock Ellis, *The Psychology of Sex*)

例 8 和 10 的括號資料若不方便可以省略。

3. 如該書有作者多人，則應一同列出(中文姓名後加“合著”、“合編”、“合譯”等字樣)。假若超過三人，則只記第一人或主要負責者(如主編)便行；但在其姓名之後中文應加“等”，英文加 et al 或 and others。
4. 如該書內容負責者是屬社團、機構等，亦一樣當作者之名一般記錄其名稱。
5. 如該書作者不詳，則可用“無名氏” (anonymous)代，或竟略去作者一項。如已佑作者屬誰，可補加真姓名，放在方括號之內，表示為原本無者。如作者用筆名(pseudonym)，亦可用同樣方式，將姓名補加在筆名之後。
6. 中文書有時在作者前面用括號注明國籍、朝代等，亦有幫助。至於冠以籍貫如“新會梁啟超”之類的字樣，現已不通行。

乙. 書名項

1. “書名” (title) 廣義上包括一切書籍、期刊、叢書、文集、小冊子、文件等文獻名稱，也指期刊、文集裡面的專題文章。如屬期刊或文集文章，則應兼列篇名及期刊或文集名稱(見例 3 至 6)；如該書是叢書(series)的一部分，也須列出叢書名稱。倘若有主編者，亦應列出。如：

例 11 國聯教育考察團著，國立編譯館譯：中國教育之改進。(吳相湘主編：“中國現代史料叢書”第五輯“中國教育”。)

例 12 John K. Fairbank, ed., *Chinese Thought and Institutions*. (“Comparative Studies of Cultures and Civilizations”, ed. Robert Redfield and Milton Singer)

注意英文慣例主編者隨叢書名後。叢書名可以用括號，以助分辨。

2. 如一書有分卷，而各卷又有專題，則須二者兼錄，如下：

例 13 顧樹森編著：《中國古代教育家語錄類編上冊：先秦諸子部分》

例 14 Will Durant, *The Story of Civilization*, Vol. I: *Our Oriental Heritage*

若每分卷皆具獨立性，能自成一書，則可當作叢書的一部著錄，如下(參見列例 11、12)：

例 15 丁望主編：《北京市文化大革命運動，中共文化大革命資料彙編》(第五卷)

例 16 Donald F. Lach, *China in the Eyes of Europe: the Sixteenth Century*, Pt. 3, Chap. 9, Vol. 1 of *Asia in the Making of Europe*, ed. Donald F. Lach and Carol Flaumenhaft

3. 一本書裡面的某章節、序、附錄等，若有充份理由(下詳)，亦可在書名之前(或後)列出，當文集文章一樣處理。若該部分是另一人所寫，自然更須說明。

例 17 無名氏著：《野獸、野獸、野獸》，“重版贅言”，黃芩著

例 18 羅素著，盧倉譯：“我早年的愛情生活”，載弗洛姆著，大學雜誌編輯委員會譯：《愛》，附錄二

例 19 Felix Markham, *Oxford*, “Introduction” by C. M. Bowra

例 20 Nigel Calder, *Technopolis*, Table V: “Half-a-Dozen Athanatical Riddles”

學生在此尤應注意，寫論文時所參考的書刊，總不會每本全部看過；因此，最好在書目中交待清楚曾經確實涉獵過那書的那部分(如某章節等)，以免失實。

4. 百科全書或其他參考書裡面的專題文章(articles)，可一律當文集文章處理，即只錄其作者、題目(篇名)，與書名。並且全書的編者及出版者、出版地點可省略，像期刊一般(見下“出版項”5)。出版年份及版次則仍須著錄(見下例 39、40)。

5. 期刊裡面的書評文章，倘若本有題目，則照錄，這與其他期刊文章無異；但若只以該書名為題，則須加“評”、“評介”之類字樣，如下：

例 21 趙潛：評呂實強之《中國官紳反教原因》。

例 22 Shu-hsien Liu, Review of *Within the Four Seas* by Joseph Needham.

6. 書名原則上應該齊全無闕，並且包括副題，如：

例 23 《新嘉坡之路—李光耀政論集》

例 24 *Models of Man: Explorations in the Western Educational Tradition*

注意主題與副題之間應加適當的標點符號。如果書名過於冗長，可以稍為刪節，但不可以改頭換面。如有一個以人的名稱，則以封面或書名頁上的為準。

7. 有些出版物(如小冊子、補篇、副篇、各種記錄、報告等)題目含糊不清或不甚完整，則必須補充類似副題的適當詞語。至於未經出版的資料(如演講、討論記錄)或文件(如日記、書信、學位論文等)，更須補注題目或附加說明，以資識別。

丙. 出版項

1. 出版項目(facts of publication, imprint)包括出版地點、出版者、與出版年份；如該書有分卷和版次亦當列明。如只屬初版或無分卷次，當然毋需多贅。

例 25 柳詒徵編著：《中國文化史》，三卷，台北正中書局民國 54 年台四版(民國 37 年初版)。

例 26 Mary Huse Eastman, *Index to Fairy Tales, Myths and Legends*, 2nd ed. rev. and enl. Boston: Faxon, 1926. Supplements 1 and 2, 1937, 1952. 3 vols.

注意中文與英文的卷數和版次位置剛相反。括號中的初版說明若必要，可以省去。

2. 出版地點、出版者，或出版年份在書中如無提及，則須注明“不詳”或“缺”等字樣(英文 n.p., n. pub., 或 n.d.)。同屬一書或一本書內各卷若各有不同的出版地點、年份，或出版者，亦須一一注明。

3. 出版地點 (place of publication)指出版者所在，多只錄都市(如上海、紐約、倫敦等)便行。除非該地太偏僻，否則國名省名皆可免錄；出版者地址亦以過於煩瑣不錄。

4. 出版者 (publisher) 指負責“製造”、刊行該書的人或機構，亦可以發行者(distributor)視之，但卻不同於印刷者(printer)和經銷者(bookseller)。有時候學術團體的專書，亦有授權給某出版者刊行的特殊情形，這亦當加以適當的說明(英文用 published by someone [出版者]for someone[學術團體]的詞語)。有些書由著者本人出版，則誌“著者自刊”或“某氏自刊”(英文 privately printed)等詞語。

5. 有些引證體系共記錄出版地點與出版年份，卻不包括出版者。但是因為出版者的責任實在下於作者，並且記錄出版者對尋找查究書籍亦有決定性的作用，所以不能無故省略。目前的書目家及各界的學術論文都有重視記錄出版者的趨向。

6. 依英文書目慣例，期刊的編者、出版者及出版地點均一律省略；但出版年月(甚至日)及卷次(甚至期次)則必定明列(見下)。這是期刊與書籍的引證格式最顯著的分別。不過如果所引證的期刊並非讀者所熟悉，或者有其他性質相似或名稱相近的刊物混淆的可能，則應該詳細註明出版地點，甚至出版者(用括號放在期刊名稱後面)，以便讀者辨別和查究。

7. 書籍的出版日期(date of publication)多在書名頁或版權頁上登載，通常與出版者、版次等資料並列。在書目與註釋裡則只記出版年份，月份可免錄。該書如是分卷、分期(年)出版，則更須說明，如“某年至某年”。中文古書，多註明朝代、帝王年號，用括號附注公曆(不用甲子)，並加出版者及版本種類(如抄本、刻本、石印本)等資料，如：“清光緒三年(1877)上海同文書局石印本”。現今書籍雖多屬鉛

字排印，但亦有影印、翻版等類的，都必須適當地說明。近年來的中文書刊，多以公曆註明出版年份。

8. 版次(edition)與印刷次(printing)意思不同，不知者常易混淆。第一次出版稱“初版”，經過修改、增訂之後就有不同的版次，即二、三、四版等，有時還加註“修訂版”(revised ed.)、“增補版”(enlarged ed.)等說明。同一版重印或複印多次的印刷次數，稱作印刷次，因為內容並沒有改變，所以照例不列。須記錄的是該書最近的版次，而非印刷次。外文書目有時用小號字體放在年份右上角，說明版次，如 1970³，意思是 1970 年第三版。

9. 期刊的出版年月日與卷期次多登在封面或目錄頁上。在書目與註釋裡通常只列卷期次，以括號附年月份(除非必要，日子不錄)，隨之以頁數或頁次便可(見例 3、4)。如果該期刊頁次由每卷開始算起，期次及月份亦可省略不列。

丁. 頁項

1. 大部份書目缺此項，但若所列資料是文集文章(包括百科全書類的專題文章)或期刊文章，則必須說明該文章全篇在書內或期刊中所佔的頁數(即由某頁至某頁)。倘屬期刊，還須列明卷期次和出版年月份(如上述)。

2. 有些書目甚至說明所參考各書的總頁數(number of pages)，以示數量大概，方便讀者參考。以上(“書名項”)說過，如果事實上只涉及該書的一部份而非全部，最好加以說明，指出該部份(章、節)在書中所佔頁數(即由某頁至某頁)；期刊或文集文章亦然(如上述)。

3. 註釋與書目不同，必須明列所徵引各項資料的確實出處。這通常指頁次(page number)，即某頁，或某頁至某頁。如該書有分卷，自然要附加卷次。期刊則附註卷期次和出版年月份。

4. 資料出處的說明，原則上要簡明確實。但有時候所涉及的資料可能不只在某某頁中可見，而是散見各處，不便一一指出，文則用 pp. xx, *passim* 或 *passim*, chap. x 等字樣)。

5. 出處註釋大部份以頁次為主，但是有時為了更加詳細，以助查考起見，可以把每頁次為主，但是有時為了更加詳細，以助查考起見，可以把每頁再細分若干部份，以適當符號依次指明各部如左上、左下、右上、右下等。外文的百科全書類的資就常用這個方法說明。當然，倘屬必須而又不大繁瑣的話，還可以說明某頁第幾行或第幾段。

6. 經典性文獻，如歷來都有一定的分篇、分章、分節的話，譬如《四書》、《聖經》等，則多以篇次、章次、節次代替頁次。並且，這一類的文獻，因為歷來的出版者以及版本實在太多，所以在註釋裡面常常省略出版項；不過，為了幫助讀者找書，在書目中也可以說明出版各項。與經典文獻有等同價值的文學名著如詩詞(分節、段等)、劇本(分幕、景等)、或學術名著(分篇、章、節等)之類文獻的徵引，亦可同樣處理；因為有了版本甚或譯本的不同，以頁數註釋反而不便。

二. 書目格式

甲. 項目的次序與標點

1. 書目條款 (bibliographic entry)裡的四個基本項目的排列次序如下：

作者：書名。出版項。頁數。

項與項間以句號分隔；中文有時只中空一格，作者與書(篇)名之間則常加冒號。頁數一項有時可省略(如上所述)。有關本節所述書目格式各方面的實例下面例 29-40。

2. 期刊及文集文章的作(編)者，書畫篇)名等項可作以下的排列：

作者：篇名。編者。期刊/文集名。

期刊的編者常省不列。英文的文集名則多排在篇名與編者之間。各項之間一律以句號分隔。

3. 期刊名之後的項目排列與標點如下：

卷次(出版年月份)，頁次。

有時月份可省略。如該期刊以期次為主，或者頁次由每期算起，則用以下格式：

期次，出版年月份，頁次。

有時期次亦可省略。

注意期刊與書籍在書目格式上有以下三點的差異：(1)卷次和期次之後共用逗號，不用句號。(2)卷期次排在出版年月份前面。(3)出版年月份常以括號附註。又注意中文年份在月份之前，英文則相反。

4. 書籍(包括文集)的出版項目排列如下：

出版地點 出版者 出版年份。

中文在此三項間不必用標點或空格分隔；如有版次可照加在後，如下：

例 25 香港基督教文藝出版社 1971 年第三版。

有時出版時期與其他兩項分開；有時則先列出版者。

英文於出版地點之後常加冒號，出版者之後則加逗號，與中文格式稍異，如下：

例 28 Hong Kong Union Press, 1971.

以下的格式也常用：

出版者，出版地點，出版年份。

5. 英文書目各條款常依作者姓氏之首字母次序排列，故須先姓後名；註釋則不必如此，依常例先名後姓。

乙. 標點符號的使用

中英文的書目標點大致相同；除上面所述各點外，現行使用慣例中有幾點較為重要；初學者尤應注意(其他方面則可參考普通文章標點規則)：

1. 中文方面

現時中文橫排書籍文章裡面，專名號與書名號等已漸少用，書名與篇名則漸多用一《書名》。

2. 英文方面

凡屬已出版成冊的書籍和期刊，一律把其名用斜體字排。一切專名的首字母都用大寫表明。書名篇名裡的首個字和冠詞、介詞、連接詞等虛詞以外各字的首字母都慣用大寫。

丙. 書目的簡寫

書目以明確為要，故各項資料如作者姓名、書篇名、出版項目，及頁次或頁數等都須清楚記錄，不得隨便省略或簡寫。不過如果合乎慣例，並且不會引致誤解，則可順情理省略或簡寫一些項目詞語。

1. 譬如在中文方面，“某某著”可縮寫為“某某：”，“商務印書館”可簡稱“商務”(其他著名的出版者一樣)、“民國”簡稱“民”、“1970 年”改“1970”、“第三版”改“三版”(如屬初版則可不錄)、“第 18 至第 34 頁”可改為“頁 18 至 34”、甚或(如橫排)“頁 18-34”等等。

2. 英文書目及註釋常用詞語的略字很多，參見本章後面附錄。其中不少原是拉丁文，所以應該以斜體字排印，表明是外來詞。

3. 通常在記錄期刊的卷次(volume)及頁次(pages)時，“卷”與“頁”二字可以一齊省略：即以第一個數字表示卷次，第二個數字表示頁次，二者之間用冒號分開。但有時為了避免混淆(譬如“章”，“節”)最好仍然保留“卷”，“頁”二字。至於數字項目，則應全部記錄，譬如“1970”(如單獨用)不要改作“70”，“pp. 240 - 243”不可改作“pp. 240-43”或“pp. 240-3”等。

三. 註釋格式

甲. 註釋與書目的分別

註釋的格式基本上與書目格式相符，二者之間主要的差異，在此先以實例表明，隨後綜述。

例 29 中文書籍書目條款一

梅棹忠夫著，余阿勳、劉焜輝合譯：《知識誕生的奧秘》。“向日葵新刊 I”。台北晨鐘出版社民國 59 年。共 147 頁。

例 30 引證同書的註釋條款一

(1)梅棹忠夫著，余阿勳、劉焜輝合譯：《知識誕生的奧秘》(台北晨鐘 民 59)，頁 67-68。

例 31 英文書籍書目條款一

Chow Tse-tsung, *The May-Fourth Movement*. Harvard East Asian Studies 6. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960. xv+486 pp.

例 32 引證同書的註釋條款一

² T. T. Chow, *The May-Fourth Movement* (Cambridge: Harvard U. P., 1960), p. 320.

例 33 中文期刊文章書目條款一

劉創楚：“從政治經濟社會現實探討香港的前途”。《社會觀察》(香港中文大學崇基學院社會學及社會工作學系會出版)，第五期(1970-71)，第 8 至 16 頁。

例 34 引證同文的註釋條款一

[3]〔3〕劉創楚：“從政治經濟社會現實探討香港的前途”。《社會觀察》(香港)，第五期 (1970-71)，第 13-14。

例 35 英文期刊文章書目條款一

Carter, Luther J. “Environmental Hazards of Development”. *Dialogue* (Washington: U. S. Information Agency), Vol. 3(1970), No. 3, pp. 46-51.

例 36 引證同文的註釋條款一

4) Luther J. Carter, “Environmental Hazards of Development”, *Dialogue*, Vol. 3 (1970), No. 3, p. 49.

例 37 中文文集文章書目條款一

梅光迪：“評今人提倡學術之方法”。張若英編：《新文學運動史資料》。上海光明書局民國廿五年再版。第 145 至 153 頁。

例 38 引證同文的註釋條款一

(註五)梅光迪：“評今人提倡學術之方法”，張若英編：《新文學運動史資料》(上海光明民 245)，頁 151-152。

例 39 英文文集文章書目條款一

Gordon, James P. “Laser”. *The World Book Encyclopedia*. 1971. Vol. XII, pp. 80a-81.

例 40 引證同文的註釋條款一

*James P. Gordon, “Laser”, *The World Book Encyclopedia* (1971), XII: 80d.

1. 註釋條款前面必定標明與正文徵引資料配合的“註一”、“註二”等字樣，書目條款則否。注意以上註釋諸例前面用不同種類的數字、符號，有意藉此表明常見不同的樣式，以助讀者識別。但若在同一論文中，則其樣式必須前後一致。
2. 如前所述，在英文書目裡面，作者姓先名後，二者之間加逗號，不過在註釋裡面則依日常習慣名先姓後。
3. 標點方面的差異要特別留意。各基本項目在書目中是用句號分開的，但在註釋裡則以逗號連結成句。
4. 註釋裏的出版項，用括號分開，表示它的附屬性，往後倘再引證同書，則皆省略不錄(見下)。
5. 書目裡各項資料比較詳盡，包括叢書名稱、期刊出版地點等。但在註釋裡面一切不必要的資料都可刪節；可以依慣例簡寫的，則盡量簡寫。有些註釋甚至省略出版者。
6. 書目最後一項說明引證書籍、文章的總頁數，註釋則說明引證各項資料的出處頁數(如前述)。

乙. 再次引證的格式

以上所述註釋格式共適合第一次徵引一書籍或文章時用；再次徵引同書或同文章的資料時，則應運用更為簡略的格式。在這方面有兩種不同的情形，要分別處理。

1. 如果再次引證的註釋是緊隨第一次引證的註釋的話，則可用“同上(前)書”(英文仍 *ibid*)一詞取代作者及書名二項。若頁次不同，則附加有關準確頁次；若頁次相同，則寫“同上(註)”(英文 *ibid*)便夠了。倘屬同一期刊或文集的文章，亦可用“同上期刊”或“同上書”(英文仍是 *ibid*)取代期刊或文集名。如屬同一作者的著作，則可用“同作者”一詞(英文 *idem*)取代作者名。近來有些英文註釋體系並不用 *ibid*和 *idem* 二字，而只著錄作者姓氏及頁次(見下)。

2. 如果再次引證同書(文)時是與上次相隔若干註釋的話，則不得用“同上”之類的詞語了。常見可用的方法有四種：

(甲)先寫作者姓氏(省略名字)；其次以“前述書(文)”(英文 *op. cit.*)一詞取代書(篇)名；最後註明頁次。

(乙)只寫出作者姓氏及頁次。若全篇論文引證同作者書(文)，超過一本(篇)以上，則不得用此法。

(丙)有些中文註釋用“同(以上)某註”或“同某註書(文)某頁”之類的字樣。

(丁)比較以三種更為簡便而準確的方法則是著錄(1)作者姓氏，(2)書(篇)名，及(3)頁次(本章的註釋即採用此法，讀者可參考)。書(篇)名可酌情簡化；如屬期刊和文集則可連期刊的文集名也省略不錄。譬如上面例 34 及 36 的再次徵引註釋可各簡化為：

例 41 劉：“香港前途”，頁 10。

例 42 Carter, “Hazards”, p.50.

丙. 註釋的簡化

原則上第一次所引證的文獻書目資料都應該在註釋上交代清楚，如上面例 29 至 40 所示。在沒有兼附書目的論文中，首次引證的註釋尤須如此。但是如果書目的資料相當齊全，則註釋裡的書目資料可以酌情簡化，總之以能達到書目及註釋原有的功用便行。以下提出幾種常見的方法，以供參考。

1. 譬如有些論文，以研究人物的事蹟、著作、思想等為主，與之有關的若干基本文獻自然便會在論文中經常徵引，因此便需要較為系統化的簡化註釋格式。常用的處理方法有下列兩種：

(甲)在第一次介紹(徵引)該基本文獻的註釋裡面，說明在下文該文獻的簡稱；以後再次徵引時就用其簡稱。例如研究歐陽修的論文，下列的基本文獻名稱都可簡化：

例 43 (宋) 胡柯：胡柯：《廬陵歐陽文忠公年譜》，以下簡稱胡，《歐陽年譜》。

(清) 楊希閔：《歐陽文忠公年譜》，以下簡稱楊，《歐陽年譜》。

(宋) 歐陽修：《歐陽永叔集》，以下簡稱《歐陽集》。

注意在書目和首次徵引註釋中，有關各書的出版項、頁項等基本資料還是要一樣齊備。

(乙) 在論文前面特開列一“基本文獻略稱表”(list of abbreviations of works cited)在論文中可照用不誤。西文文獻可用首字母代書名，再依字母次序排列。例如研究哲人懷德海的論文可開列下列基本文獻(懷氏著作一部份)，及其略稱如下：

例 44 AE *The Aims of Education and Other Essays* (1929)

AI *Adventure of Ideas* (1933)

CN *The Concept of Nature* (1920)

FR *The Function of Reason* (1929)

MT *Modes of Thought* (1938)

OT *The Organization of Thought* (1917)

PR *Process and Reality* (1929)

RM *Religion in the Making* (1926)

SME *Symbolism, Its Meaning and Effect* (1927)

SMW *Science and the Modern World* (1925)

注意此表目的純在說明所徵引各書的簡稱，除了出版年代之外，並不紀錄其他的書目資料，所以在論文後面一樣須開列資料完備的書目。

2. 如論文屬某專科範圍，在在該範圍中比較知名的基本文獻及期刊也可依慣例簡化，如文獻通考略稱通考，*Oxford English Dictionary* 略稱為 OED。假使有太多略稱，則在論文正文的前面亦須開列一略稱表說明(如上乙法)，否則應該在第一次徵引註釋中說明(“以下簡稱……”，如上甲法)。

3. 很多自然科學和社會科學的論文用以下極端簡化的註釋格式：

作者姓氏，文獻年份：頁次。

這樣，索性把註釋緊隨作者姓氏之後置于正文內，以括號註明文獻年份及頁次就夠了。

文獻不論書籍或文章，一律不列書名、篇名，只記其出版年份便行；如該作者在同一年內有多篇文章或多部書籍出版，則按(月份或字母)次序在年份之後加 a、b、c 等字母，以資分別。如上例 44 中所提懷德海著作的引證註釋可寫為：

- 例 45 1 Whitehead, 1929a: 53
 2 Whitehead, 1929b: 24-26
 3 Whitehead, 1929c: 267-268

詳盡的書目資料則必須在論文後附的書目中俱備。每條款皆先列作者姓名，次列年份(與註釋前部相符)，隨後再列書(篇)名、出版項目等，如下：

例 46 Whitehead, A.N. 1929 a. *The Aims of Education and Other Essays*. New York: Macmillan.

Whitehead, A.N. 1929 b. *The Function of Reason*. Princeton: U.P.

Whitehead, A. N. 1929c. *Process and Reality*. New York: Macmillan.

如屬期刊文章，除出版年份排前這點外，格式與普通的都大致相同。但不同的學術期刊有不同的標點符號規例，在此未能一一說明，讀者仍可以本節在上面所說明的為準。本章後附註釋，可作註釋格式的範例；其他學術期刊文章和書籍亦可參考。

四. 其他問題

甲. 間接引證

寫作論文時，常常不免徵引他人所徵引的資料，而未及查考該資料的原出處。這種情形稱為“間接引證”(indirect citation)。遇此，必須清楚交待，表示本人所徵引此項資料是經第三者而得，否則就是掠人之美，不是知識上的忠實(intellectual honesty)了。

間接引證的資料，在註釋裡面要說明原出處及間接徵引處。因為原出處不屬直接參考文獻範圍，在書目中是不列的；但間接徵引處則須列明，與其他參考文獻一樣。以下兩例先列徵引資料，後列應有的註釋格式；前一例以間接徵引者為，後一例則以被徵引者(原出處)為主。

例 47 “良好的生活是為愛所激發並為知識所指導的生活”(註)。

(註)殷海光：《中國文化的展望》(台北 文星 民 55)，頁 629，引羅素語，原出“*What I Believe*”(1925)，載 *The Basic Writings of Bertrand Russell*, ed. Robert E. Egner and Lester E. Denonn (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1961), p. 372.

例 48 “Religion will not regain its old power until it can face change in the same spirit as Science. Its principles may be eternal, but the expression of those principles requires continual development.” *

* A. N. Whitehead, *Science and the Modern World* (Cambridge: the University Press, 1927), p. 234, cited by W.C. Dampier, *A History of Science and its Relation to Philosophy and Religion* (Cambridge: the University Press, 1966), p. 496.

乙. 中外文混用

因為學術研究可能完全避免運用及引證外文資料，於是在引證體系中應如何處理外文的書目資料便頗成問題。目前流行的方法大概有以下四種。

1. 用本國語音譯出原文的作者、書篇名、出版者、出版地點等。在書目註釋裡亦應像在正文中，盡可能避免外文，但可以在文後附外文專名、書(篇)名字彙，以備讀者查考。
2. 仍以譯音為主，但在詞語(如作者、書篇名)後以括號附註原文(見例 10)。出版地點通常有本國譯名(如紐約、Shanghai 等)，而出版者可能有慣用譯名(名英國的企鵝、中國的 Commercial Press 等)，所以不必附註原文。
3. 仍用本國拼音或譯音，但把可以意譯的書名、篇名部份翻譯出來，以括號附註於拼音或譯音名之後，或以之全然取代拼音或譯音。

For internal use only

如必須，也可以原文附註在音譯和意譯之間。現舉例如下：

例 49 中文引證外文書，中譯外名，以外文原名註—理雅各譯：《中國經典》(*The Chinese Classics*, tr. James Legge)

例 50 西文引證中文書，英譯中名，以中文及意譯註—Sun Yat-sen 孫逸仙(Sun Wen 孫文, Sun Chung-shan 孫中山)，“Chiu-kuo chih chi-wu 救國之急務”(The urgent task of saving the nation), in *Tsung-li Ch'uan-chi* 總理全集 (Complete works of the director-general [of the Kuomintang], ed. Hu Han-min胡漢民)

4. 外文的書目和註釋項全用原文，不用譯音，也不意譯。這方法假定讀者都懂得外文。現今西方各國論文引證其他西方語文文獻時通用此法；有時甚至還把中文本有的“參見”“同上”、“某某頁”等詞語也英化 cf., *ibid.*, pp. 等。到底有無此必要，則是很值得商榷的。

附錄：英文論文、書目註釋常用略字表

A.D. (anno Domini)	in the year of our Lord	主後，公元
anon.	before	無名氏，作者不詳
ante	before	前
art(s).	article(s)	條款，論文，期刊文章，(百科全書之類的)專題文章
aug.	augmented, enlarged	增補，增訂
b.	born	生
B.C.	Before Christ	主前，公元前
bibl.	bibliography	書目
bks	books	冊(篇、卷)，冊(篇、卷)次
bull.	bulletin	公報
ca. or c. (<i>circa</i>)	about	大約 (某年代)
c., ©	copyright	版權
cap(s).	capital letter(s)	大寫字母
cf. (<i>confer</i>)	compare	參閱並比較
ch(s)., chap(s).	chapter(s)	章
col(s).	column(s)	縱行，欄
comp.	compiler, compiled by	編纂者，選輯
cp.	compare	參閱並比較
d.	died	卒
diss.	dissertation	(學位)論文
ed.	editor, edition, edited by	編者，版本，編輯
ed. cit.	edition cited	前述版本
e.g. (<i>exempli gratia</i>)	for example	例如
enl.	enlarged	增訂
esp.	especially	尤其是，尤指
<i>et al. (et alii)</i>	and other authors	及他作者
<i>et seq. (et sequential)</i>	and other authors	及後述

<i>etc. (et cetera)</i>	and so forth, and others	及其他，等等
f., ff.	and the following page(s)	及後頁
fac.	facsimile	複製
fig(s).	figure(s)	數字，插圖
fl. (<i>floruit</i>)	flourished	成名於(某年代)
front.	frontispiece	卷首插圖
<i>ibid.</i> , <i>ib.</i> (<i>ibidem</i>)	in the same book or chapter	同上，同書或同章
<i>idem</i> , <i>id</i>	in the same author	同作者，同上
<i>i.e.</i> (<i>id est</i>)	that is	就是，即
ill., illus., illust(s).	illustrated, illustration(s)	插圖，見圖
<i>infra</i>	below	在下，在後
intro.	introduction	導言，緒論
ital.	italic letters, italicized	斜體字
l., ll.	line(s)	行
l.c.	lower-case or small letters	小寫字母
<i>loc. cit</i> (<i>loco citato</i>)	in the passage already cited	前述同處
MS., MSS.	manuscript(s)	原稿，手稿
n., nn.	note(s), footnote(s)	註釋，(頁底之)註腳
N.B. (<i>nota bene</i>)	mark well, take notice	注意
n.d.	no date of publication	出版期缺，日期不詳
n.p.	no place of publication	出版地缺，地點不詳
no pub.	no publisher	出版者缺，出版者不詳
no(s).	number(s)	期，期次
N.S.	New Series	新刊，復刊(卷、期次)
o.p.	out of print	絕版
<i>op. cit.</i> (<i>opera citato</i>)	in the work cited	前述著作
O.S.	Old Series	舊刊 (卷、期次)
p., pp.	page(s)	頁次，頁數
par(s).	paragraph(s)	段
<i>passim</i>	here and there, scattered throughout	散見 (本書、章、節) 各處
pl(s).	plate(s)	圖
<i>post</i>	after	後
pref.	preface	序言，序文
pseud.	pseudonym	假名，筆名
pt(s).	part(s)	部份
pub.	publisher, published, publication	出版者，出版，出版物
<i>q.v.</i> (<i>quod vide</i>)	which see	參看，見該項

r. (<i>recto</i>)	right	正面頁，右頁(英文)，奇數頁
rev.	revised	修訂
rom.	roman letter	羅馬字
rpt.	reprinted	重印，再版
sc. (<i>scilicet</i>)	namely, that is to say	就是，即
sec(s).	section(s)	節
ser.	series	輯，叢書
sic	as given in the original text, quoted correctly	原文如此，照錄
sig.	signature	簽署
st.	stanza	(詩)節
St.	Saint	聖
<i>supra</i>	above	在上，在前
sup(s).	supplement(s)	增補，補篇，附錄
s.v. (<i>sub voce</i>)	under the word or heading	在該字或標題下
tr., trans.	translation, translator, translated by	譯文，譯者 翻譯
U.P.	University Press	(某) 大學出版社
v. or <i>vide</i>	see, refer to	參閱
v. or vol(s).	volume(s)	卷，卷次
viz. (<i>videlicet</i>)	namely	就是，即是說
vs(s).	verse(s)	(詩)句，節

撮錄自《讀與寫》中的第四章〈論文〉和〈附論〉。

沈宣仁著：《讀與寫》。香港中文大學崇基學院出版，1988 四版。共 149 頁。

Annex 4a: Examples of marked essays

Introduction

For a long time China's involvement in Sudan has been attracting western discourses, especially in those countries also having interest concerns in Africa, such as the US. While China is playing an increasingly consequential role in Sudan, building up more stable connection with the government and having an increasing share of interests in Sudanese business, the western society is dominated by the general perception of China as a rival in aspects of not only economic development but in the ideology of democracy and therefore political progress. The US-led western view is constantly criticizing China as backing internationally-wrongful acts in Sudan. However, to make a justified comment on this issue, it has to be pointed out that the intention of every state setting out to deal with every international affair is to maximize the national interest, so is China and the US in the Sudan affair. Therefore it is crucial to analyze where the interests for these two countries lie in Sudan. It has been a stereotype that economic interests, most importantly oil industry, are China's the priority in its Sudan diplomacy, and also the major concern of America. However in this article we will try to argue that the leverage of politics is equally, if not more, central in the game between China and America, the most important two bilateral external actors in Africa. We are going to discuss the policy changes of China in the Darfur conflict and during the secession of Southern Sudan, through the analyses of which we can see where the major concern of China and US is.

Comment [x1]: Any reference for supporting your claim that the US targets criticism against China over Sudan diplomacy? Otherwise it is stereotype.

Economic Interests

Everything we see has a reason behind it. To fully understand the stances of China and the US in Sudan, we need to know where their interests are. In this part we will try to see where the economic interests are and how they are achieved. We will see that China does have a major share in the Sudanese business, but is not, as many western discourses put it, in a colonializing position. The US-led western society exaggerates the Chinese exploitation in Sudan actually also for its own interests.

Comment [x2]: Any examples on how Western discourses talk about the Chinese involvement in Sudan as a kind of (neo-)colonization?

Comment [x3]: What is exaggerated?

The most prominent argument about China-in-Sudan policy is that oil has been and will be the center of Sino-Sudan relation, which seem to be strongly supported by some statistics. Sudan, as

China's sixth largest oil supplier (in 2007), sends 40% of its total oil output to China.¹ China National Petroleum Corporation (CNPC) in Sudan operates the largest stakes in the country's two most important oil consortiums, the Greater Nile Petroleum Operating Company (GNPOC) and Petrodar.² The other participants engaging in the Sudanese oil business play less significant roles compared with China. For instance, the CNPC is in charge of 40% of stake of the GNPOC, exceeding Malaysian (30%) and Indian (25%) state companies.

The economic relations are, however, asymmetrical. In narrow economic terms, China's significance to Sudan far exceeds Sudan's importance to China.² Interestingly, ever since 2004, Sudan has been keeping a slight trade surplus over China in the bilateral trade, which implies China's trade to Sudan does not make a large portion of China's production. Sudanese trade, in contrast, almost entirely relies on China, due to the fact that its total trade is relatively small.

Comment [LHY4]: Source? From Daniel Large's paper?

As a result of such imbalance, it remains a question whether Sudan is of great commercial importance, even in respect of oil. Sudan's oil makes up 6% of China's total oil (2007), which is not a small number. However, most of the Sudanese oil China exploit is sold directly in the international market rather than being used in China. In that sense, the oil from Sudan is not different from the oil from anywhere else. As long as the country has capital, it can always make ends meet in its oil affairs regardless of the existence of Sudan. Besides China is not in a position of monopolization, with other significant investments like India and Malaysia competing. Of course the cooperation with Sudan provides a reliable source of oil for China, which it can count for long term development. But oil trade should not be praised to the height of the center of Sino-Sudan relation.

Comment [x5]: How would you judge whether or not Western discourses are exaggerating about the exploitation?

Comment [x6]: Elaborate the difference between the scenarios of Sudanese oil used in China and sold by China.

Comment [x7]: How do you define monopoly? What about Oligopoly? Are China, Malaysia and India in Oligopoly? What is the extent of Chinese companies' control of Sudanese oil business?

Comment [x8]: Why?

The American oil companies, on the other hand, quit the business in Sudan, not primarily to denounce the governmental problems and human right abuses in Sudan, but simply because the dangerous working condition and the deteriorating relation between the two governments. America

¹ Zhu Zhiqun, China's New Diplomacy: Rationale, Strategies and Significance, Ashgate Press, ISBN: 9781409401674

² Large, D. (2009). China's Sudan engagement: Changing northern and southern political trajectories in peace and war. *The China Quarterly*, 199, 610-626. doi:10.1017/S0305741009990129

has large share of business in most African countries, regardless of their bad records of corruption or human right abuses. Sudan, however, takes a non-cooperation policy towards America in many issues such as anti-terrorism and curbing the Islamic fundamentalism inside the country. America therefore divested most of its capital out of Sudan. Such action was a successful political maneuver, creating a lot more space for accusing China's investment in Sudan and therefore more or less restraining China's flourish in the region.

Comment [x9]: Reference?

Introduction

The research interest of our group lies in how migration and ethnicity influence women's lives and shape their identities. We conducted our research based on the life experience of an ethnic minority woman, who has migrated from a rural town to a modern city. By collecting her oral history, we try to explore the multi-layered reality faced by an ethnic minority woman in the urban context. In particular for our interviewee, the process of identity reconfiguration represents the negotiation between the past and the present, the hometown and the city, the everyday experience and the state discourse.

Comment [s1]: A clear introduction included the target of the research, logic of the research method and justifications.

In this report, we will first identify and elaborate on the focus of our project, followed by an introduction of the interviewee and the interview methods. We will then present our findings and analysis of the interview from three perspectives. The interview transcripts in both Chinese and English are provided as Appendix A and B of this report.

Comment [s2]: It is nice to briefly outline the structure of the whole report towards the end of the introduction.

Research Focus

We focus on the life experience of an ethnic minority migrant woman in an urban context. Such life story is inspiring as it touches the interface of three important issues: gender, migration and ethnicity.

The migration of young people from China's rural villages to cities and industrially developed regions began in the mid-1980s. Among the 90 million migrants indicated by the consensus in 2000, approximately one third are women. Around two thirds of them are unmarried. When women left their home provinces, their destinations are more likely to be places with high concentrations of other migrants, for example, the city of Shenzhen, while men tend to spread out over some wider areas. (Shen, 2004) Migration exemplifies a significant area to inquire about the contemporary China. Migrant women are especially important as the embodiment of two major social divisions in China, rural-urban disparity and gender inequality. (JungYul, 2003) Our attention is attracted to them, as they embody multiple tensions relating to gender, class, urban and rural, development and underdevelopment, modernization and backwardness.

Comment [s3]: Before reporting your findings, you should provide some basic information or historical background about your study. This can be done through literature reviews.

Apart from migration, in China's transition from planed economy to market economy, there are the changing dynamics of interaction between ethnic minorities and the majority Han. China is known as a multiethnic country with 55 ethnic minority groups plus the majority Han. As of 2005, the combined population of officially recognized minority groups numbered at 123.33 million, comprising 9.44% of mainland China and Taiwan's total population. (Information Office of the State Council of the People's Republic of China, 2005) However,

the ethnic minorities in China are quite different from those in immigration countries like the United States. Living on the same land for several thousand years, they have a long history of mixing socially with each other. Some argue that by its nature, the definition of ethnic minority of is rather a measure of cultural distance of different groups. (Wei, 2006) Some may as well say that the minority are not born but made, as a result of the minority policies adopted by the state. In the early 1950s, over 400 groups claimed to be unique ethnic group. After twenty years' of work of "national ethnicity identification project", fifty-five ethnic minority groups were officially recognized. The criteria used were generally derived from Stalin's definition of nationality - history, language, territory, economic life and culture. When we are told we are in a united multi-ethnic country, we doubt whether the social structural forces which sanctioned exclusion will disappear. Are the ethnic boundaries are strengthened or weakened in the urban setting? When it comes for the ethnic minority women, we are a bit confused by their images created. As Evans wrote, "Ethnic women emerge as the exotic embodiment of a range of imaginaries, fantasies, and sublimations that the dominant discourse denied in the representing of Han (Chinese) women." (Evans, 1999) We cannot help but wonder: Is there anything more than the one-dimensional entertaining merry-makers whom the state is so eager to present to the world?

Comment [s4]: In addition, literature reviews also helps you understand how other scholars had addressed the phenomena you want to study. Most importantly, it is crucial for you to define the key concepts and terms in your study via going through the literatures.

Comment [s5]: You may discuss the definitions provided by different scholars a little bit and then give reasons why you finally pick out one of them but not the others ("sometimes, you may generate your own definition through modifying the available definitions if you do have a strong ground to do so.")

Comment [s6]: Finally, based on the understanding you get from the literatures, point out your puzzles about the phenomenon and these will become your research questions that guides you along your study. In other words, these are questions you would like to answer in the following parts of the report.

When gender identity competes with migration and ethnicity, we see a changing degree of importance of different factors, which exemplifies the flexibility in people. Finally our attention is drawn to two specific life events: work and marriage. These two events are closely connected to a woman's life and psychological conditions. From how a woman handles work and marriage, we will better understand the tensions created by the multiple identities.

The Interviewee

Our interviewee, who prefers to be called as Ying, is an 18-year-old girl of Hani ethnicity. She was born in the Yuanyang County (元阳县) of Yunnan Province. Yuanyang County is part of the Honghe Hani and Yi Autonomous Prefecture (红河哈尼族彝族自治州). In 2006, she left her home to work in Shenzhen in Guangdong Province.

She works as an actress in the China Folk Culture Village (中华民俗文化村). The China Folk Culture Village (hereafter referred to as the Village) is a famous theme park which exhibits the culture of diverse minority groups in China. The employees, who are dressed in ethnic costumes, guide the tourist to their local style dwelling houses. They take photos with the tourist upon request and also perform in the singing and dancing shows in the evening. Ying, of course, takes the role of a Hani ethnicity in the house featuring the Hani style. Ying now lives with a roommate in the dormitory provided by the Village. Six days a week, she works

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