VIRTUAL GLOBAL VILLAGE

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WRITER'S MANUAL

This is a reference for the use of all authors of publications. It contains three main parts:

Part 1 is a short "quick reference" section covering the most frequently needed rules of writing and rules of style. It is short enough to be quickly consulted and largely memorized.

Part 2 covers more challenging aspects of the kinds of writing that make publications distinctive. It includes some examples of editing solutions to typical writing problems.

Part 3 is a word list. This indicates the approved spellings (and, in some cases, usage or other information) for words or terms that are important in writing but for which adequate or definitive information may not yet have been established by the major dictionaries, or which are simply often misused or misspelled.

Part 4, "The Moving Finger," is a short grab-bag of recent evolutionary changes in the English language that reduce its clarity and/or expressive possibilities and ought to be avoided in favor of more traditional constructions.

Credit: Chicago Manual of Style.

PART 1. QUICK REFERENCE

TWENTY-TWO BASIC RULES OF WRITING FOR PUBLICATIONS

1. Have a thesis or an argument to make, not just a topic to explore. A good piece provides a fresh, interdisciplinary perspective on the research that's been done on the topic— a kind of perspective not normally attempted by the primary researchers whose work you may cite. The job of your piece is to make a point, not just be an organized accumulation of information like an article in an encyclopedia.
2. Think about the effect you want this piece to have. A good piece makes ripples— and sometimes waves—in the worlds of policymaking or community action. There are millions of journal articles and papers that, having been published, disappear from sight. A piece not only stays in view but causes important people to change their view. Before you write, think about how your thesis or argument will make that happen.
3. Think about who will be reading your piece. When you're writing a personal letter, the recipient is very much present in your consciousness, and that presence helps you to write in a way that lets you really connect. Similarly, in writing a good article or chapter, being able to envision your reader and imagine how he or she responds to your ideas provides a kind of self-induced feedback that saves the writing from becoming abstract and disconnected.
4. Be conscious not only of who's going to be reading the piece, but of his or her immediate situation. Most readers are not a captive audience—they don't have the same sense of obligation to read our material that they might have if we were publishing specialized journals. They are likely to be very busy people, and very selective about what they read. Your writing has to attract the reader's attention and hold it.
5. Write an outline, or a prose sketch if that works better for you, and get it reviewed. Use sentences in the outline, rather than topic headings in the form of nouns. Sentences show the flow of the argument or discussion and the logical relationships between sections, providing both you and the reviewer with a quick test of whether there are likely to be conceptual or structural problems.
6. In the first few paragraphs, provide some indication of where you will be going with this piece, so the reader has some sense of anticipation. The trick is to offer enough of an indication to arouse curiosity, but not enough to satiate it. Some standard techniques for establishing expectations include asking a provocative question (the reader will anticipate an answer), describing an emerging conflict (the reader will want to know how to resolve it), or introducing a hypothesis (the reader will want to see it tested).
7. As you proceed through the piece, give the reader a sense of movement. This is an extension of the rule about not writing encyclopedia entries (#1 above). You can provide movement by a variety of means: developing a logical argument, exploding a myth, building a body of evidence, narrating a chronology, etc.
8. Get the reader to do the thinking. The art of writing persuasively involves presenting information in a way that induces the reader to draw his or her own conclusions. That way, the reader is more likely to "own" the conclusions and, ultimately, to take action on them. There are several corollaries to this:

   a. Instead of relying just on generalizations about what others have concluded, use concrete examples that let readers "see" for themselves.
   b. Instead of making unsupported assertions, present or review evidence.
   c. Instead of using judgmental language, describe dispassionately and let readers judge for themselves.
9. Don't always state your full conclusions up front. Occasionally it is effective to lead with your "bottom-line" finding if it's likely to provoke curiosity about how you arrived at it. But trying to summarize the full explanation up front would normally be a mistake, for two reasons: it might satisfy curiosity before the reader has really grasped the full complexity of your analysis, and it might undermine the strategy of getting the reader to come to your conclusions on his own. As noted in rule #8, when the reader does the active thinking, the ultimate purpose of your article (to move the reader to action) is more likely to be achieved.
10. As you draft each sentence and paragraph, read it from the standpoint of a literal-minded stranger to determine whether there is any ambiguity or vagueness that may cause the material to be misunderstood. (See Cases 3 through 7 in Part 2 of this manual for examples.)
11. Use "road signs" to help the reader follow your analysis. Though it's not good to give away your conclusions prematurely, it's also not good to leave the reader in the dark. So, after giving some sense of where you are headed (rule 6), it also helps to give occasional indicators of the progress you are making. (If you see a sign that says "Scenic route next four miles," the sign doesn't diminish the actual experience of seeing the scenery, but heightens anticipation of it.) Subheads often serve as formal road signs, but good writing can also rely on various informal signs—sentences or phrases that imply or suggest that you are headed toward certain disclosures.
12. Avoid jargon whenever possible—whether technical, scientific, bureaucratic, academic, or "politically correct." Such language makes the writing difficult to understand for anyone outside your field. (See Case 16.) If you cannot convey key points without jargon, be sure to explain it briefly in the text. If there are, unavoidably, several terms, consider writing a brief glossary and setting it off as a sidebar. Remember, you are not showing off how much you know about a particular subject; you are informing the uninformed general public. What you might not consider jargon might in fact be jargon. If you have to ask the question, "Is this jargon?", the answer is probably "Yes."
13. Substantiate. To do this convincingly without bogging down the text requires a variety of elements: statistics from standard sources, references to studies, quotes, anecdotes, etc.
14. Qualify everything that warrants qualification, but don't overqualified. Because careful qualification is a mark of careful research, some writers use qualification at every turn. But overqualification then becomes a form of compensating for under substantiation. The writing comes across as too wordy (boring and redundant) and too tentative (lacking in authority).
15. Pare excess verbiage. Even the most accomplished writers produce verbose early drafts. (Thoreau is famous for, among many things, his aphorism "Simplify, simplify." Should it have been just "Simplify"?) Once you're confident that the structure and content are solid, go back and make the writing lean. Note that this isn't always a simple matter of cutting completely superfluous wording. More typically, it involves a calculated tradeoff—cutting a small amount of information in order to gain a substantially sharper focus. > He was unaware of the fact becomes > He was unaware that
16. Use active verbs rather than forms of "to be" in most cases where you have a choice. Similarly, use active rather than passive voice. There are several reasons for this rule. Active formulations

produce more vivid mental pictures, while often using fewer words. But they also, in many cases, produce greater accuracy. In fact, authors or speakers who are uncertain of what they're saying sometimes use passive wording to cover up their inability (or unwillingness) to be specific: A grave mistake was made here... is vague about who made the mistake. In writing, a passive voice may brush over a lack of information, and may suggest to the reader that you haven't been thorough in your research.

17. Put statements in positive form. > The fact that the protocol was not succeeding becomes > The protocol's failure
18. Write with cinematic awareness. Most good writers try to evoke the sensory and temporal qualities of real, physical experience to intensify the reader's response, rather than rely strictly on intellectual abstractions or manipulations of symbols. In other words, a well-written analysis has some qualities in common with a well-made movie: it has vivid imagery that is sometimes seen as close-up and sometimes as a broad vista; it has pacing that varies from quick reviews of long-term trends to slow "real-time" narratives of key incidents. And, like movies or television, good writing often involves manipulating time sequences. It may sometimes be effective, for example, to lead with an incident, then go back—in subsequent paragraphs—to discussing the events that preceded it. While readers today are probably more comfortable with cinematic manipulations of time and space than ever before, it would be incorrect to assume such manipulation only came of age with the advent of the silver screen or DVD! The human imagination has employed these techniques—in dreams, oral storytelling, and writing—since prehistoric times. When considering imagery, remember that there are more senses than sight alone—smells, tastes, and textures are very powerful. Like any powerful spice, however, too much can ruin a dish, so exercise moderation.
19. Use specific concrete language where possible, and only use abstractions where necessary to provide the proper level of generalization. For example, instead of repeating the abstraction "climate change," you may be able to sharpen the focus to "increasing frequency of hurricanes, floods, and droughts."
20. Read the quick reference Rules of Style in this manual, and familiarize yourself with the rules we have adopted for punctuation, spelling, consistent treatment of names and numbers, etc.
21. Improve writing by reading. What you read has more influence than any other factor on the quality of your writing. If what you read is mainly dull, abstract policy analysis, your writing will tend to be dull and abstract. If you read a lot of jargon, you'll find yourself using jargon without thinking. Most good writers explore a wide range of literature—history, biography, essays, investigative journalism—and they read for pleasure as well as for edification. For writers, who are expected to develop broad interdisciplinary perspectives as well as strong writing skills, this kind of variety can be greatly enriching. Some examples of particularly good writing that may be of interest to authors:
    a. Wendell Berry, The Unsettling of America (1977)
    b. Rachel Carson, Silent Spring (1962)
    c. Catherine Caufield, "The Ancient Forest," The New Yorker (May 14, 1990)
    d. Robert Kaplan, "The Coming Anarchy," The Atlantic (February 1994)
    e. Aldo Leopold, A Sand County Almanac (1949)
    f. Bill McKibben, The End of Nature (1989)
    g. John McPhee, Encounters with the Archdruid (1971)
    h. David Orr, "The Greening of Education," Resurgence (May/June 1995)

i. Henry David Thoreau, Walden (1854)
j. E.O. Wilson, The Diversity of Life (1995)

22. Publications offering consistently high standards of writing—and representing a stimulating range of styles—include Harper's, Mother Jones, The Atlantic, The New Yorker, The New York Review of Books, Scientific American, and Smithsonian. If your work-related reading is heavily weighted toward specialized scientific, academic, or policy journals, try to broaden your exposure by regularly delving into a few of these.

RULES OF STYLE

WHAT IS STYLE?

Style includes rules of punctuation, spelling, typography, formatting, treatment of names, treatment of numbers in text, etc. Unlike grammar (sentence structure) or semantics (meanings of words), which are fairly consistent among all users of English, style is often a matter of custom or convention. What is the correct style for one group of users may be incorrect for another.

For purposes of consistency and clarity of communication, people within a particular category of users (journalists, scientists, lawyers) tend to adopt their own sets of conventions. Where a journalist uses "three," for example, a mathematician uses "3."

In addition, individual publishers or publications often adopt their own "house" styles—sets of rules compiled in a "style sheet." Where the Washington Post would use "3,417 documented extinctions," for example, the New Yorker would use "three thousand, four hundred and seventeen documented extinctions."

House style sheets are adopted for at least three good reasons:

1. When style is a matter of convention, there may be several "correct" ways of doing something, and if a publication is not consistent it can look careless. For example, the words "leveled" and "levelled" are both correct. But if we spell it one way on the first page of a paper and the other way on another page, it looks like a mistake. Having a guide assures consistency (we have chosen the single-consonant usage for words like "leveled") and reinforces the reader's impression that the publication is reliable.

2. For publishers and publications that have achieved (or hope to achieve) distinction in their fields, style can help to create a distinctive identity or "signature." Because 's success depends not only on the value of its work but on the readers' sense of familiarity and reliability (which in turn encourages repeat sales), consistent style is important in the same way that a consistent logo or format is for the website.

3. Rules of style provide orderly progress in the chaos of a continually changing English language. For users on the cutting edge of that change, style not only helps to sharpen meaning as new words or constructions appear, but also provides a public service by providing precedents for other users. Dictionary updating is based on observations of how new words have actually been used by groups at the cutting edge. World Watch, for example, coined the term "bioinvasions" as an interdisciplinary word covering exotic species and infectious diseases, and others quickly picked it up. We could undermine our authority if we use "bio- invasions" in one place and "bioinvasions" in another.

PUNCTUATION

The purpose of punctuation is to keep your meaning clear. Many decisions about punctuation are judgment calls. For example, whether to use a comma to separate two independent clauses of a compound sentence depends on the length of the sentence. If the sentence is short it may not need a comma, but deciding what is “short” is subjective. In marginal cases, the modern convention is to use punctuation only when really necessary to prevent misreading. But while many uses of punctuation are matters of judgment, there are some uses (or non-uses) that we regard as generally obligatory.

COMMA

- nonrestrictive clause or phrase (one that adds information but would not substantially alter the meaning of the main clause if removed) is set off by commas:

The World Bank assessment, which had been issued the previous fall, caused a number of the backers to withdraw their support.

(N.B.: Don’t forget the second comma! There is a modern tendency to omit it, which can be very confusing for readers looking for the signaled end of the clause.)

- In contrast, a restrictive clause or phrase (one that can’t be omitted without altering the meaning of the main clause) is not set off by commas:

Most men who spend long periods in prison end up as hardened criminals.
Note that “which” is used with a nonrestrictive clause or phrase, while “that” is used with restrictive phrases.

- In a series of three or more elements, when a conjunction joins the last two elements, use a comma before the conjunction:

Those five years witnessed the three largest peacekeeping operations ever undertaken, in Cambodia, Yugoslavia, and Somalia.

- Parenthetical elements that retain a close logical relation to the rest of the sentence should be set off by commas; those whose relation is more detached from the rest of the sentence should be set off by parentheses (or, in some cases, em dashes;; see “Dashes” section below):

The Bank, which is vocally supportive of such projects, has allocated very little funding for them.
The Bank (it is actually three banks serving complementary but separate functions) has allocated very little funding for such projects.

- When the context calls for a comma at the end of material enclosed in quotation marks, parentheses, or brackets, the commas go inside the quotation marks but outside the parentheses or brackets:

See the section on “Making comparisons more clearly,” which appears in the second part of this manual. Although he rejected the first proposal (he could not have done otherwise without compromising his basic position), he was careful to make it clear that he was open to further negotiations.

SEMICOLON

- A semicolon separates the independent clauses of a compound sentence when no conjunction is used; if a conjunction is used, it is preceded by a comma.

Two independent clauses can be separated by a semicolon, or they can be separated by a comma plus a conjunction.

- The following words are considered adverbs rather than conjunctions and should therefore be preceded by a semicolon when used transitionally between the clauses of a compound sentence: then, however, thus, hence, indeed, accordingly, besides, therefore.

The Ethiopians have long hoped to revitalize their coffee production; however, much of the once-productive land has been degraded.

- Items listed in a series are normally separated by commas. However, if there are commas within one or more of the items, semicolons may be used to separate the items for clarity:

In Gabon, for example, the share of wood going to timber is 32 percent; in Congo, it is 36 percent; and in Malaysia, it is a devastating 82 percent.

COLON

- A colon marks a break equivalent to that of a semicolon, but it emphasizes the relation between the separated elements. It is often used to separate one clause from a second clause that contains an illustration or amplification of the first:

The frontier was gone, the virgin forests depleted: they had provided roughly a trillion and a half board feet of the finest softwood timber ever felled, but only scattered remnants still stood.

- If the material introduced by a colon consists of more than one sentence, or if it is a formal statement, a quotation, or a speech in dialogue, it begins with a capital letter. Otherwise it begins with a lowercase letter:

If hunger doesn’t kill them, the water might: waterborne diseases account for 50 percent of illnesses in the Third World, according to the World Health Organization.

There is an old American Indian proverb that summarizes this philosophy: The frog does not drink up the pond in which he lives.

HYPHEN

The hyphen (-) is used to signify a word break at the end of a line, as linking punctuation when using certain compound words (e.g., mass-produced) or when necessary in an adjectival compound (unit modifier) to avoid ambiguity (cross-dressing assistant), in telephone and social security numbers, and in written-out fractions (two-thirds).

DASHES

There are two types of dashes (as opposed to the hyphen) in common use: the en dash (–) and the em dash (—), each so called because of its length.

- The en dash is used mostly to separate numbers that define a range:

The IPCC Third Assessment Report projected a rise in average sea level of 110–770 millimeters by 2100. Take care not to combine an en dash with a preposition, as in “The reception will be held from 7–9 p.m.” On PCs, the en dash can be created by holding down the Alt key while keying in the number 0510. MS Word also allows you to program a custom shortcut; go to Insert, Symbol, and Special Characters. On Macs, you can create an en dash by holding down the Option key and pressing the minus sign key.

- The em dash (on PCs, Alt + 0151) is used mostly to add emphasis or explanation by expanding a phrase occurring in the main clause. It can be used to set off the additional material in the middle of a sentence or at its end. As one of the most visually dramatic elements of punctuation, the em dash should generally be reserved for particularly striking or important information; lesser phrases can simply be set off with commas or parentheses:

Despite the fact that scenario A omitted the largest climate forcing, Michaels chose to compare scenario A—and only scenario A—with the real world.

They had provided roughly a trillion and a half board feed of the finest softwood timber ever felled, but (outside of Alaska and British Columbia) only scattered remnants still stood.

SPACE

A few rules concerning the use of the bar space ( ):

- Insert only one space after a period before beginning the next sentence.

- When rendering a name that uses initials (E.O. Wilson, P.G. Wodehouse), do not insert spaces in between the initials, but do insert one before the last name.

- Insert only one space after a colon when it's followed by additional text in the same sentence. Don't insert a space after an ellipsis (...). If the ellipsis is followed by a period, there should be a space after the period only, and the ellipsis and period should appear as four equally spaced dots.

ITALICS AND QUOTATION MARKS

- When referencing the title of a book, use italics. When referencing the title of a film, song, or article, use quotation marks:

Rachel Carson's Silent Spring was one of the first books to awaken the American public to the environmental crisis.

The documentary film by former vice president Al Gore, "An Inconvenient Truth," was a box- office hit.

- When using foreign words, italicize only the first reference to the word. Leave any subsequent references in regular font:

According to the Brazilian government, 30 percent of the cerrado has been cleared for agriculture.

- When quoting a passage from a text, edit the capitalization of the first word in the quote to match the flow of the sentence. Always put the period or punctuation inside the end quotation mark. A superscript number must be inserted immediately after the final quotation mark. Direct quotes should be introduced with enough information to let your reader know who is being quoted and why. The first time you mention an author, use the full name; thereafter, only the last name. As Carson writes, "In nature, nothing exists alone."

SPELLING

(Also see sections on Numbers, Geographical Terms, Hyphens, etc.)

- British vs. American: Where spellings differ, uses the British spelling:

colour, not color

organisation, not organization

Exceptions are made for proper names, in which we keep the spelling commonly used:

Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development

- Plural numbers and letters: To form the plural of a "coined" noun, acronym, or a number used as a noun, add an "s." Do not use an apostrophe:

NGOs the 1990s GHGs

- Compound words: In most cases, compounds that have been accepted as permanent additions to English are spelled as a single word rather than a hyphenated one (see Word List for specifics):

Policymaker rainforest

- Compounds with the suffix “fold”: closed unless they are formed with numerals:

Threefold 70-fold

It’s probably best to avoid the use of “twofold,” as in “The work yielded a twofold result,” or “Our purpose was twofold.” “Two results” or “two purposes” is less pretentious.

- Adverb ending in “ly” plus a participle or adjective: no hyphens:

highly developed

overbearingly arrogant

- Chemical terms used as adjectival compounds: no hyphens:

carbon dioxide emissions

- Abbreviations and acronyms: Geopolitical entities use periods in their abbreviations wherever they appear, including endnotes, while organizations do not:

United States (U.S.) District of Columbia (D.C.)

United Nations (UN) Sports Car Club of America (SCCA)

At some point, European Union (EU) may become E.U., but not yet.

Some organizations, such as WWF, use the acronymic form almost exclusively, in preference to the spelled-out name it once signified (World Wildlife Fund, Worldwide Fund [for Nature]). In these cases it is permissible to use the acronym without following it upon first mention with the full name.

When referring to the United States, the United Nations, or the European Union, always use the full name for its first mention (United States, United Nations), then abbreviate from there on (U.S., U.N., EU).

When referring to a U.S. or U.N. organization, always write the full name first (i.e. U.S. Department of Agriculture, or U.N. Food and Agriculture Organization), then use the acronym from then on (USDA or FAO). Never write the United States in full before an organization name.

GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS

- Capitalize geographical terms commonly accepted as proper names:

Antarctica
Central America (but central Florida)
Southeast Asia (but southeastern United States)
East Africa (but eastern Africa)
Sahara Desert (but sub-Saharan countries)

- Spell out “United States” when used as a noun. Abbreviate it when used as an adjective:

The United States dragged its heels in negotiations a year earlier.
The U.S. Geological Survey studied the lake in 1993.

MONEY

- For most references to money, use U.S. dollars even if the situation being discussed is in another country or currency. Because there are about two dozen national currencies that use the dollar, it’s useful to use the construction “US$XX,” without periods:

By investing US$10 million in efficiency measures, the Brazilian Energy Office was able to avert expenditures of US$5 billion on new currency.

In some cases, you may find it preferable to refer to another currency. In that case, spell out the name of the currency in a first mention and use the abbreviation in subsequent mentions. If helpful, add the U.S. equivalent in parentheses, at least with the first mention.

NUMBERS

- Percent: Usually no hyphen:

10 percent increase

- Adjectival compound consisting of a number and a unit of measure: hyphenated before the noun:

three-mile limit

- Spelled-out fractions used as adjectives: hyphenated:

two-thirds majority

- Whole numbers: Compound nouns spelling out numbers from twenty-one through ninety-nine: hyphenated.

- Numbers zero through nine: spell out, except in reference to percent, temperatures, millions, or billions, etc. For 10 and up, use numerals. Numbers applicable to the same category, however, should be treated alike (do not use numerals for some while spelling out others):

In the course of her lifetime, she saw tobacco kill three of her children.

In the course of a year, tobacco kills about 3 million people.

The informal economy accounts for 3 of every 10 jobs in South America, and 6 of every 10 in Africa.

- Use metric units of measurement, unless common usage dictates otherwise (as in water volume measured in acre-feet). At the author's discretion, add English equivalents in parentheses—but sparingly, if that threatens to clutter the discussion.

- When using large numbers, try to provide comparisons or equivalencies that people can relate to ("an area larger than Mexico," "enough energy to power 20,000 average U.S. homes"). Try to make the comparisons meaningful to an international audience.

DATES

- Year alone is expressed in numerals, except at the beginning of a sentence:

The first Earth Day was observed in 1970.

If it looks awkward to start a sentence with a year spelled out, it is better to restructure the sentence than to break the rule.

Don't use the abbreviated year form ('97) in writing.

- Range of years: The Chicago Manual of Style allows either a pair of prepositions or an en dash without the preposition. We prefer the prepositions, for ease of reading:

From 1946 to 1996

But:

The period 1946–96 saw a rapid rise in the divorce rate.

- Month, day, year: Use in this sequence, with a comma after the date:

December 7, 1941

- Month and year: When the day of month is not included, don't use a comma:

December 1941

- Centuries: For brevity and ease of comprehension, use the numerical form:

The end of the 20th century

The "th" should appear in regular, not superscript, font.

- Decades: Chicago allows decades to be either spelled out or indicated by numerals. Our preference is to use numerals:

From the 1980s to the 1990s

However, the first decade of the 21st century should be spelled out:

From the 1990s to the first decade of the twenty-first century

GENERAL STYLE GUIDELINES

● Do not use pronouns.
● You may start sentences with "But" or "And", but not "So".
● In general, if you have questions, refer to the Chicago Manual of Style, as mentioned above.

NOTES FORMAT

Most authors view annotation as a kind of intellectual root canal. It's not so much a dread of the notes themselves, but the prospect of the note crunch. You may already have experienced this as you near the end of a project: you're tired and you find yourself struggling to finish up your text amidst a cloud of ill-formed references as thick as black flies in a swamp.

But notes are not inherently dreadful. Note crunches are the unhappy issue of two factors: lack of time and lack of form. The latter problem is addressed in the templates below, which cover the standard sources that are used. If you plan to cite something that isn't covered here, consult The Chicago Manual of Style from which these forms are adapted, or your editor. The examples are laid out for quick reference, but reviewing the entire set can also be useful.

A Key to the Notes Guide:

Which statements require a note?

- A book consisting of a single text (rather than a set of papers)
- A contribution to a book

- A journal, newsletter, or magazine article
- A newspaper article
- A document published by a government, NGO, or international agency
- A press release, one-pager, flyer, or other very short document
- “Gray literature”—various kinds of unpublished documents
- A speech
- A letter or e-mail addressed to you or information you received during a conversation or
- Interview
- An item downloaded from an online source
- Formal online “publications” such as press services, periodicals, and reports
- Websites and other potentially transient online sources
- A database (online or on CD-ROM)
- Online versions of material available elsewhere
- A radio or television broadcast
- First references: complications
- An anonymous text
- A text in which the place or date of publication is not given
- A draft of a text yet to be published
- Subsequent references and references that repeat elements already cited
- A simple subsequent reference
- A first reference to a text in a collection that has already been cited
- A subsequent reference to a text originally cited in a note that includes other texts by the same author
- A subsequent reference to a text originally cited in the same note
- A subsequent reference to an anonymous text
- Two consecutive references to the same work
- Two consecutive references to the same author, but to different works

1. Which statements require a note?

Deciding what to annotate is always a matter of judgment, and no two researchers would be likely to make exactly the same decisions over a text of any length. But if you find yourself in doubt about whether a certain statement or line of argument needs to be bolstered by a note, consider the following questions:
Does my text quote or paraphrase a statement (either written or oral) made by someone else?

If so, you must present the statement in a way that indicates that it is not of your own invention, and you must write a note that attributes the statement to its original source. Failure to do this is plagiarism.

Does my text cite a research result, a discovery, or an original idea developed by someone else?

Here, too, you must write a note, unless the idea is already well embedded in the general fund of knowledge on a topic. For instance, you would probably not need to annotate the sentence: “Huge quantities of carbon dioxide, a heat-trapping greenhouse gas, continue to be released into the atmosphere through fossil fuel combustion.” But if the sentence were to specify that “fossil fuel combustion is probably releasing about five gigatons of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere every year,

while another gigaton is released through the combustion of wood and other biomass," then a note would be required because the quantities mentioned are not general knowledge.

Does my text include an assertion or an assumption that is controversial, or that I am making on the basis of someone else's expertise, rather than my own?

In such cases, backing the text up with a note can serve two purposes. It can help readers understand what points have not been definitively settled, and it can serve as a form of insurance against attacks from your critics. (Anticipating such attacks—especially those from major authorities in a field—is what causes journalists to insert phrases like "he said," "critics say," or "according to" in virtually every other sentence they write.) On the other hand, the possibility of criticism shouldn't prevent you from stating your own conclusions clearly—and without annotation—when the argument demands it. If you're laboring at a chapter, paper, or book, you've earned the right to an informed opinion on the matters at issue, and any reader making his way through your work has earned the right to know what those opinions are.

Is the reader likely to need a way into the technical literature on some issue?

Occasionally, you may find yourself wondering whether your audience will understand the research context from which you have drawn some assertion. In such cases, even if you are confident that the assertion could stand on its own (like that first sentence under question 2, above), you may want to include a reference as a "pointer" to the background literature. Suppose, for example, that you are analyzing the prospects for environmental progress under international trade agreements, and you argue that the most likely breakthrough scenarios involve the cooperation of industries that are currently major environmental offenders. To support your assertion, you describe briefly the success of the Montreal

Protocol on ozone-depleting substances. But will an audience of economists and trade analysts know where to go if they want to get the whole story on the Protocol?

You decide that they may not, so you cite Hilary French's chapter in State of the World 1997. It is important, however, not to overdo this approach. Notes should not be bibliographies, and if you pile on unnecessary references, the clutter and ambiguity will actually make your notes less useful.

2. First references

Use the following forms the first time you cite a source. If your source doesn't quite fit one of these patterns, check under section 3, which lists some adjustments for special cases. See section 4 for subsequent citations of a source.

A book consisting of a single text (rather than a set of papers)

William H. MacLeish, The Day before America: Changing the Nature of a Continent (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1994), pp. 83–85.

Quentin C.B. Cronk and Janice L. Fuller, Plant Invaders: The Threat to Natural Ecosystems, vol. 2 of the "People and Plants" Conservation Manuals produced by WWF International, UNESCO, and the Royal Botanic Gardens at Kew (London: Chapman and Hall, 1995), pp. 35– 49.

Lester R. Brown, Christopher Flavin, and Sandra Postel, Saving the Planet: How to Shape an Environmentally Sustainable Global Economy, Worldwatch Environmental Alert Series (New York: W.W. Norton and Company, 1991), pp. 104, 105.

Douglas F. Stotz et al., Neotropical Birds: Ecology and Conservation (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1996), p. 60.

Give authors' names as they appear on the title page. Note that when you are citing a work with three authors (note 3), the "and" is still preceded by a comma. When a work has more than three authors, use the "et al." form presented in note 4. (Note that "et al." is not preceded by a comma.)

In titles, do not capitalize prepositions (note 1).

If the book is part of a series, you may cite the series name after the title (notes 2 and 3). But here the form allows for some nuance. You may decide to omit the series name, when it is not essential for defining the character of the work; conversely, you may decide that readers need to know that the work is part of a larger effort—or part of an effort by a particular group. Note 2 would probably have a stronger claim to its series name than note 3. In the series phrase of note 2, there are some abbreviations of names not given in full elsewhere; do this only when you are certain that readers will understand the abbreviations.

In the publishing information, which should usually be taken from the title page, cite only the first city given as the publisher's location. If the city is not well known, or could be confused with another city of the same name, include a reference to a state or country. If the reference is to a U.S. state, use the two-letter postal abbreviation:

(Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1995) (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1990)
See note 6, below, for a method for citing reprints.

After the publishing information, indicate the pages that are relevant to your argument. If you do not include page numbers, you imply that the entire book is relevant to the assertion you have annotated. There are occasional exceptions to this rule. If you are presenting a sequence of data from a series of independently published volumes—yearbooks, for instance—specify which volumes you have used, but do not cite page numbers. Readers will probably find the volumes themselves easier to follow than a note sprinkled with dozens of page numbers. (If, however, you are presenting data from a single volume and you find it too cumbersome to cite each relevant page specifically, then cite the page numbers of the relevant section.) Use the abbreviations "p." and "pp." and an en dash between page numbers.

A contribution to a book

To cite a chapter in a book that has already been cited for one of its other chapters, see section 4.2.

Warren Herb Wagner, Jr., “Problems with Biotic Invasives: A Biologist’s Viewpoint,” in Bill N. McKnight, ed., Biological Pollution: The Control and Impact of Invasive Exotic Species (Indianapolis: Indiana Academy of Science, 1993), pp. 4, 5, 8.

Ian A.W. Macdonald, “Global Change and Alien Invasions: Implications for Biodiversity and Protected Area Management,” in O.T. Sotbrig, H.M. van Emden, and P.G.W.J. van Oordt, eds., Biodiversity and Global Change (Paris: International Union of Biological Sciences, 1992; reprint, Wallingford, U.K.: CAB International, 1994), pp. 199–209.

Fred J. Kruger et al., “The Characteristics of Invaded Mediterranean-Climate Regions,” in J.A.

Drake et al., eds., Biological Invasions: A Global Perspective, Scientific Committee on Problems of the Environment (SCOPE), vol. 37 (Chichester, U.K.: John Wiley and Sons, 1989), pp. 186–87.

See section 2.1 for general comments on form. Note that editors are cited just as authors are, except for the insertion of “ed.,” or “eds.,” before the title.

When using abbreviations in a name, omit spaces after the periods (e.g., P.G.W.J. van Oordt.) Note 6 shows how to include reprint information—a useful addition if the title has been transferred to another publisher. But even in cases where reprint information is specified, you should still include information on the original publication.

In the series reference in note 7, there is an unusual instance of abbreviation; the abbreviation has been inserted parenthetically, not because it is used subsequently, but because it is better known than the full name.

Cite only the pages relevant to the assertion you are annotating.

A journal, newsletter, or magazine article

Gordon H. Orians, “Thought for the Morrow: Cumulative Threats to the Environment,” Environment, September 1995, pp. 7–8.

John Gribbin, “Smokestacks Cool Northern Oceans,” New Scientist, 14 October 1995, p. 18.

Graeme O’Neill, “Getting the Jump on Pests,” Ecos, winter 1995, pp. 25–26.

Our form is the one normally used for citing general-interest periodicals. Many publishers use a slightly different form for citing scholarly or specialized journals, but since our research draws from both categories, this distinction would add an unnecessary layer of complexity to our notes.

Cite the title of an article as it appears on the first page of text (the cover or table of contents page may use a different title). Do not abbreviate the titles of journals; even if an abbreviation is obvious to you, it

may not be to the general reader. But if the title itself contains an abbreviation, you should retain the abbreviation in your reference (e.g., EPRI Journal).

Note that for weekly periodicals, the day of the month is given before the name of the month; this eliminates an awkward comma (compare note 9 to: October 14, 1995, p. 18). When citing a quarterly, do not capitalize the season of publication (note 10).

If you cannot ascertain the full date of a journal, cite the volume number and the issue number if there is one. Bear in mind, however, that the full date can usually be inferred from these numbers. (Issue numbers run from 1 to 6 in a bimonthly and from 1 to 12 in a monthly; the year itself can be established from other volumes whose years you do know.) But with out-of-print journals, this chain of inference has sometimes rusted through. And some modern publications dispense with both months and issue numbers, and rely simply on continuous pagination throughout the entire annual volume. In such cases, use the format below:

Environment, vol. 37 (1995), pp. 7–8.

Or, if there is an issue number:

Environment, vol. 37, no. 7 (1995), pp. 7–8.

Cite only the pages relevant to the assertion you are annotating, unless the citation refers to the entire article (as in a “Further Readings” section); in that case, cite the page range for the entire article or chapter.

A newspaper article

Jessica Mathews, “In Denial about Global Warming,” Washington Post, 29 January 1996.

Robert Matas, “Controversy Casts Shadow over Global-Warming Talks,” Globe and Mail (Toronto),

10 October 1995.

The form here follows that for other periodicals (section 2.3), except for three details. First, an initial “The” is dropped from the title of English-language newspapers (note 11). (But papers in other

languages retain the definite article: Le Monde, Die Zeit.) Second, the city of publication may be specified after the title if the title itself does not name it (note 12) and the writer (or editor) feels readers are unlikely to know it. If the city is named in the title, but its location is not obvious, that information is inserted parenthetically in the title: Wilberton (Ohio) Journal. The third difference from a journal reference is that page numbers are not specified. Most publishers would not allow this exception, but our clipping procedures and online postings of articles make it impractical to retain these numbers.

If the page number(s) of the article are available, include them in the citation.

Deborah Zaberenko, “US Northeast Could Warm Drastically by 2100—Study,” Reuters, 5 October 2006.

Treat news services (Reuters, Associated Press, Knight-Ridder, etc.) as you would a newspaper or magazine and put the news service name in italics.

A document published by a government, NGO, or international agency

Jane Rissler and Margaret Mellon, Perils amidst the Promise: Ecological Risks of Transgenic Crops in a Global Market (Cambridge, MA: Union of Concerned Scientists, December 1993), p. 55.

Peter F. Guerrero et al., International Environment: International Agreements Are Not Well Monitored (Washington, D.C.: U.S. General Accounting Office, January 1992), p. 29.

M.G. Oquist et al., “Non-Tidal Wetlands,” in Robert T. Watson et al., eds., Climate Change 1995 Impacts Adaptations and Mitigation of Climate Change Scientific-Technical Analyses, Contribution of Working Group II to the Second Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press for the IPCC, 1996), pp. 231–33.

Rural Advancement Foundation International (RAFI), Conserving Indigenous Knowledge Integrating Two Systems of Innovation, a study commissioned by the UNDP (New York: UNDP, September 1994), p. 11.

International Center for Living Aquatic Resources Management (ICLARM), ICLARM Report 1994 (Manila: 1994), p. 14.

Treat these documents as much as possible like books. Name the authors or editors just as you would for a book citation, if their names are given. When the actual author is not named, cite the organization itself as the “author” (notes 17 and 18). In such cases, include an abbreviation if the work is to be cited in subsequent notes.

Note, once again, that prepositions are not capitalized in titles (compare notes 1 and 12).

As with an ordinary book (section 2.1), a reference to a series can be given immediately after the title. But especially with documents like these, the series phrase—or the slot into which it fits— can be an important opportunity for explaining to readers exactly what kind of text you’re citing. To do that, you may sometimes need to cite something other than a series, as in notes 15 and 16. In those cases, the

phrase probably tells readers more about the documents in question than the parenthetical publishing information that follows. There is an unexpanded abbreviation in the series phrase of note 16; this reference is written in a way that assumes readers will already know what “UNDP” stands for.

If the name of the organization that published the document has been cited as the document’s author, it is not necessary to cite the name again in the publishing information (note 17).

Cite only the pages relevant to the assertion you are annotating.

A press release, one-pager, flyer, or other very short document

Thomas H. Fritts, “The Brown Tree Snake: A Harmful Pest Species,” flyer (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, Fish and Wildlife Service, 1988).

Competitive Enterprise Institute, “Risks to Endocrine Systems Overstated,” press release (Washington, D.C.: 13 March 1996).

Ozone Action, “Hydrocarbons: An Alternative to Ozone Depleting Chemicals in Refrigerators,” information sheet (Washington, D.C.: November 1995).

Cite the author when the author’s name is given. (Do not cite the contact person as the author of a press release.) When the author’s name is not given, cite the organization as author (see section 2.5).

Place the titles of short documents in quotation marks. If the document has no obvious title, use a short descriptive phrase instead: “Flyer on zebra mussels in the Great Lakes.” After the title, include a phrase that describes the document (unless you’ve used such a phrase in lieu of a title).

Note that in the publishing information, only the location and date are given when the organization has been cited as author (compare notes 20 and 21 with note 18, above). Specify the date as accurately as possible; see section 3.2 if the document is undated.

If the document cited is paginated, cite the page numbers regardless of its length.

“Gray literature”—various kinds of unpublished documents

For drafts of texts intended for publication

Randall Spalding-Fecher, “Joint Implementation and Energy Efficiency,” course paper (Medford, MA: Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy, Tufts University, 6 May 1996), p. 12.

George F. Meskimen, “A Silvical Study of the Melaleuca Tree in South Florida,” Ph.D. dissertation (Gainesville, FL: University of Florida, 1962), pp. 75–82.

David Pimentel, “Pest Management, Food Security, and the Environment,” research paper (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, 27 March 1995), p. 5.

Edward L. Mills et al., “Exotic Species in the Great Lakes: A History of Biotic Crises and

Anthropogenic Introductions,” Great Lakes Fisheries Commission (GLFC) Research Completion Report (Ann Arbor, MI: GLFC, 9 August 1991), pp. 36–37.

The title of an unpublished document should be cited in quotation marks. Following the title, include a phrase defining the document. In addition to the phrases appearing in these notes, common defining terms include: Master's thesis, background paper, and internal report. Be as specific as possible about the date. (See section 3.2 if the document is undated.) Cite only the page numbers relevant to your assertion.

A Speech

Michael Grubb, "Technologies, Energy Systems, and the Timing of CO_2 Emissions Abatement: An Overview of Economic Issues," presentation at a workshop at the Center for Global Change, University of Maryland, College Park, 10 February 1996.

Anne Platt, press briefing on environmental disruptions and infectious disease, , Washington, D.C., 18 April 1996.
Cite the title of the speech if it had one; otherwise, use a descriptive phrase. Then indicate the occasion for the speech, if that is not apparent from the title, and close with the location and date.

A letter or e-mail addressed to you or information you received during a conversation or interview

Norman Myers, letter to author, 12 June 1996.
Norman Myers, Ph.D., consulting ecologist, email to author, 12 June 1996.
Janet N. Abramovitz, senior researcher, Worldwatch, discussion with author, 12 June 1996.

If the credentials of the person concerned are not apparent in the text, you may decide to supply them in the reference.

It can be important to distinguish between a written and an oral statement. A direct quote, for instance, will invite different expectations about accuracy—and about the accountability of the person quoted—depending on whether it is taken from a written or an oral source. For this reason, avoid the blanket term "personal communication." On the other hand, there is no need to distinguish between a telephone call and a face-to-face discussion; in both cases, use the form given in note 30.

An item downloaded from an online source

Cyberspace contains a rich store of research material, much of it unavailable in the conventional media. But it also contains a rich store of junk, and even valuable online material can be difficult to authenticate or susceptible to alteration. To avoid citing inaccurate information, try to find the most legitimate and original website possible for the material; for instance, if you are citing a New York Times article, locate the original article on the NYT website and try to avoid citing a secondary site on which the information may be posted.

For any material you obtain from the Internet, provide the web address (URL) so readers can quickly locate the information. (This includes reports, papers, press releases, PDFs, and any other material

downloaded from the Internet.) If there is any likelihood that the web page or online source will be removed or altered, print it out for your records.

The basic components of a reference to an online source do not differ greatly from those in other kinds of references. In the abstract, they are: author, title, name of online medium, online location (URL), geographical location, date.

A few things to remember:

- **Web address/URL:** In general, it is important to define the web address in a way that will be comprehensible and accessible to readers with little online experience. Try to include the entire URL; in cases where the web address is long and cumbersome, you may need to shorten it to the root directory (as long as this still links to a page that gets you to the document) or to the site's home page. When citing a URL, it is not necessary to include the prefix http://.
- **Date:** Be especially careful with dates, since an electronic source may have several. For example, some documents originally released in printed form may have a conventional publication date as well as an electronic posting date (note 40). You should cite both. Also, because a website may be taken offline or the information on a specific web page may change, it is important to provide the date on which you viewed the information you are citing (note 33). However, if the web page itself specifies the date on which the information was posted or last updated, you should use this date instead (note 36).
- **Location:** Since websites may come and go at a much greater rate than, say, formal online "publications," it may be necessary to give your citation more durability by tying the source you are citing to a physical place (e.g., the city in which the organization or site is based) (notes 37 and 39).

Not all components are necessary for every type of online medium, however. See below for examples.

Formal online "publications" such as press services, periodicals, and reports

William Saletan, "The Horse Race," *Slate,* www.slate.com, 3 September 1996.
Wilfred Martins, "Nigeria-Politics: Military Reshuffle As Abacha Hangs On," InterPress Service, 19 April 1996.
Tyson Foods, Inc., *2004 Annual Report*, available at media.corporate-ir.net/media–files/irol/65/65476/reports/ar04.pdf.
To cite a report that is available online only (e.g., in PDF format), provide the full URL of the document.

Websites and other potentially transient online sources

Rainforest Action Network (RAN), "The Global Finance Campaign," at www.ran.org/what_we_do/global_finance, viewed 26 September 2006.

Security APL, results from query made to stock quote server, qs.secapLcom/cgi-bin/qs, Chicago, 3 September 1996.

Oceana Website, at www.oceana.org, viewed 26 September 2006.

World Health Organization, “Avian Influenza: Fact Sheet,” at www.who.int/csr/don/2004_01_15/en, updated 14 January 2004. If you are citing a web page for a specific piece of information, such as a statistic or a quote, provide the URL for that particular page (note 34). However, if you are citing a website for general information about the organization, you only need to provide the website name and the URL of the home page (note 36).

A database (online or on CD-ROM)

United States Department of Agriculture, Production Supply and Distribution, electronic database, Washington, D.C., updated February 1996.

United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, FAOSTAT, at faostat.fao.org, updated 20 December 2004.

The first example does not specify a web address because the source is an electronic database that was consulted on CD-ROM.

Online versions of material available elsewhere

Abby Yadi, “World Bank Axes Loan,” Independent (Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea), 2 August 1996, retrieved from APC computer conference, rainfor.general, posted 12 August 1996.
There may be times when, despite your best efforts, you are unable to locate the print version of a text or a more original online source for the information you are citing (e.g., the original Independent article, as posted on the news organization’s website). In these cases, the note should give as complete an account of the original as possible, and then describe the online source through which you actually obtained it. That reference is an important safeguard, in case the online text has been altered in some way that isn’t apparent to you, and the change proves to be material to your argument. Note again the distinction here between the date on which the print version appeared and the date on which the electronic version was posted or viewed.

A radio or television broadcast

Hillary Clinton, interviewed by Jim Lehrer, *The NewsHour with Jim Lehrer*, Public Broadcasting System, 6 June 1996.

Matt Binder, segment on electric cars, *Living on Earth*, National Public Radio, 7 April 1995.

3. First references: complications

An anonymous text

“British Scientists Report Ice Shelves Breaking Off as Result of Global Warming,” International Environment Reporter, 7 February 1996, p. 90. If the author’s name does not appear on a document, and it doesn’t seem reasonable to cite an organization as author (see notes 18, 19, 21, and 22), simply give the citation without an author element.

A text in which the place or date of publication is not given

M. Richard De Voe, ed., Introductions and Transfers of Marine Species Achieving a Balance between Economic Development and Resource Protection (South Carolina Sea Grant Consortium: 1992), p. 13.

“Boaters—Slow the Spread of Zebra Mussels, and Protect Your Boat Too,” flyer (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Sea Grant College Program, undated).
If no place of publication is specified, give only the publisher and date, as in note 44. If no date is given, use the form in note 46.

A draft of a text yet to be published

Andy Dobson, “The Ecology and Epidemiology of Rinderpest Virus in Serengeti and Ngorongoro Conservation Area,” in A.R.E. Sinclair and P. Arcese, eds., Serengeti II Research Management and Conservation of an Ecosystem (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, in press), pp. 488–89.
Andy Dobson, “The Ecology and Epidemiology of Rinderpest Virus in Serengeti and Ngorongoro Conservation Area,” in A.R.E. Sinclair and P. Arcese, eds., Serengeti II Research Management and Conservation of an Ecosystem (draft).

If you are citing a text that is already in publisher’s proof, your note should be identical to that for a published source, except for the use of the term “in press” in place of the date (note 47). If the text is in rougher form, you may not be able to cite publication information or page numbers (note 48). If the text has been submitted for publication but its prospects in that regard are uncertain, cite it as “gray literature” (section 2.7).

Subsequent references and references that repeat elements already cited

A simple subsequent reference

Stotz et al., op. cit. note 4, p. 65.
ICLARM, op. cit. note 17, pp. 2–9.
Gribbin, op. cit. note 9.
Macdonald, op. cit. note 6, p. 200. 52. Brown, Flavin, and Postel, op. cit. note 3, p. 107.

This format is used for all of the sources discussed in section 2—entire books, contributions to books, journal articles, radio programs, and everything else. There are a few variations, which are described in the sections below.

The term “et al.” is used here exactly as in a first reference (compare notes 4 and 50).

In note 50, no page number is specified because the article is only a page long—the relevant page is therefore cited in the first reference. If you don’t cite a page number in a subsequent reference to a written source that is more than one page long, you imply that the entire text is relevant to your assertion.

A first reference to a text in a collection that has already been cited

James D. Bland and Stanley A. Temple, “The Himalayan Snowcock: North America’s Newest Exotic Bird,” in McKnight, op. cit. note 5, pp. 149–53.

David L. Hawksworth, “Biodiversity in Microorganisms and Its Role in Ecosystem Function,” in Solbrig, van Emden, and van Oordt, op. cit. note 6, p. 87.

James H. Brown, “Patterns, Modes and Extents of Invasions by Vertebrates,” in J.A. Drake et al., op. cit. note 7, p. 87.

Note that the “ed.” and “eds.” abbreviations are dropped in references to a collection already cited. Of course, a subsequent reference to one of these texts would not directly cite the collection again—it would have the form of an ordinary subsequent reference, as in note 53.

A subsequent reference to a text originally cited in a note that includes other texts by the same author

Take this note as the first reference:

56. On Germany’s energy taxes, see David Malin Roodman, “Public Money and Human Purpose: The Future of Taxes,” World Watch, September/October 1995, p. 1719, and Christopher Flavin and Odil Tunali, New Strategies for Stabilizing the World’s Atmosphere, Worldwatch Paper 130 (Washington, D.C.: Worldwatch , June 1996), pp. 36–38. A global overview of environmental taxes is available in David Malin Roodman, “Environmental Taxes Spread,” in Lester R. Brown, Christopher Flavin, and Hal Kane, Vital Signs 1996 (New York: W.W. Norton and Company, 1996), pp. 114–15.
Subsequent references to the two texts by David Roodman should have the form:
57. Roodman, “Public Money,” op. cit. note 56, p. 11. 58. Roodman, “Environmental Taxes,” op. cit. note 56, p. 114.

The subsequent references employ the “op. cit.” form given in section 4.1, but add a short title, derived in some obvious way from the text’s full title.

If Roodman’s texts had been cited one immediately after the other in note 56, or if notes 57 and 58 had been combined, then “idem” would have been used instead of the second instance of his name (see section 4.7).

A subsequent reference to a text originally cited in the same note

See Christopher Flavin and Odil Tunali, New Strategies for Stabilizing the World's Atmosphere, Worldwatch Paper 130 (Washington, D.C.: Worldwatch , June 1996), p. 40, and Odil Tunali, "Carbon Emissions Hit All-Time High," in Lester R. Brown, Christopher Flavin, and Hal Kane, Vital Signs 1996 (New York: W.W. Norton and Company, 1996), pp. 64–65. For weather related disasters, see Greenpeace International, The Climate Time Bomb (Amsterdam: 1994), and Flavin and Tunali, op. cit. this note, p. 27. An overview of temperature trends is available in Odil Tunali, "Global Temperature Sets New Record," in Brown, Flavin, and Kane, op. cit. this note, pp. 66–67.

Here, in boldface, are two subsequent references, one to the same text, another to a different text in a collection already cited (see section 4.2). Both references have their antecedent in this note.

A subsequent reference to an anonymous text

"British Scientists Report," op. cit. note 43.
If the title in the original publication is long, derive a short title from it.

Two consecutive references to the same work

In the sequence:
Hawksworth, op. cit. note 54, pp. 89–90.
Ibid., p. 88.

Two consecutive references to the same author, but to different works

Mathews, op. cit. note 11, and idem, "Global Warming: No Longer in Doubt," Washington Post, 12 December 1995.

Note that idem is not an abbreviation (it has no period); use it only to refer to a single author or to an organization cited as author. Do not use it to refer to teams of authors.

PART 2. WRITING AND EDITING: SOME COMMON PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS

FLOW OF DISCUSSION

Every sentence creates some kind of expectation for the sentence that follows. If the expectation isn't met, the flow of discussion may be broken.

Using the sun to heat water is already a cost-effective way to save electricity. Total capital costs for electric water heating are on average nearly one-third higher than those for solar hot water, according to data collected by the Office of Technology Assessment.

In this passage, the first sentence leads the reader to expect something about solar heating, but the second sentence starts off on something else, causing a momentary break in understanding until the thing anticipated shows up at the end of the sentence.

A solution:

A smoother argument can be made by switching the order in which the two technologies are mentioned:
Using the sun to heat water is already a cost-effective way to save electricity. Total capital costs for solar hot water are on average nearly 25 percent lower than those for electric hot water, according to data collected by the Office of Technology Assessment.

The one family that did not pose outside its home produced one of the book's most striking images—a Mongolian ger, or tent house, with the roof simply peeled back to reveal the contents: the Regzen family, two beds, a dresser, china cabinets, a dinner table, a washbasin, a television (the father's most valued possession), a carved wooden Buddha (the mother's dearest item), and more. Among thousands of other migrants to the outskirts of the Mongolian capital, Ulaanbaatar, they live in a ger, much like nomadic herdspeople still do in the countryside, but commute to jobs in the city.

In this passage, the editor found two problems:

(1) The second sentence says that the family lives in a ger, then explains what a ger is by referring to nomadic herdsmen. This sentence is therefore constructed as if it were a first mention of the family's residence in a ger, instead of building on the elaborate first mention in the previous sentence. Instead of developing an idea, the two sentences offer separate "takes" on the idea.

(2) The second sentence appears to be making two interesting but different points:

—Like other migrants, the Regzens live in a ger; —Although they live in a ger, they commute to the city.
While it is grammatically possible to put both points in one sentence (as the author does), it is hard to do so without creating uncertainty about where the author is taking you.

A solution:

Move the point about migrants living in gers into the first sentence, so that both of the points explaining what a ger is are together. Then, because the first sentence is so long, break it into two:

The one family that did not pose outside its home produced one of the book's most striking images—a Mongolian ger, or tent house, much like those that are still used by nomadic herdsmen in the countryside, but that are now also providing shelter to thousands of recent migrants to the outskirts of the Mongolian capital, Ulaanbaatar. For the photo, the roof was simply folded back to reveal the contents: the Regzen family, two beds, a dresser, china cabinets, a dinner table, a washbasin, a television (the father's most valuable possession), a carved wooden Buddha (the mother's dearest item), and more. From their ger, the Regzens commute to jobs in the city.

CLARITY OF MEANING

Watch out for ambiguities that could be misinterpreted:

In Kenya and Tanzania, for example, women between the ages of 16 and 49 are too ill to work for twice as many days as men.

This sentence could be interpreted as stating that women are expected to work for twice as long as men, but are too sick to do so. The problem is that the prepositional phrase "for twice as many days as men" can be read as an adverb modifying the verb "work."

A solution:

Change the grammar so that the predicate is "lose" instead of "work," and the "twice as many" is now an unambiguous direct object of that predicate:

In Kenya and Tanzania, for example, women between the ages of 16 and 49 lose twice as many work days as men do because of illness.

Like motherhood and apple pie, it is hard to be against either free trade or environmental protection.
In the opening prepositional phrase, the reader can figure out what the referents are, but it's like piecing together a scrambled puzzle. Reading a grammatically intact sentence is like looking at an assembled puzzle; it's much easier to see the picture.

A solution:

Free trade and environmental protection are like motherhood and apple pie: it is hard to be against either of them.

If the sentence involves a past trend (or baseline) and a future projection, it's easier to understand the significance of the projection if the past (or baseline) is mentioned first. In the following example, where

the projection is mentioned first, the reader has to make a mental jump from future to past and then back again, to get the whole picture:

Indonesia could become a net oil importer as early as 1997; 44 percent of the oil it pumps from the ground is now consumed internally, up from 26 percent in 1981.

A solution:

Indonesia has increased its consumption of the oil it produces from 26 percent in 1981 to 44 percent today, and it could become a net oil importer by 1997.

COMPARISONS, CONTRASTS, AND DISTINCTIONS

Switching the format of comparison in mid-passage makes the meaning harder to grasp. For example, when comparing different situations in which a form of depletion has occurred, mentioning percent lost for one situation and percent remaining in another requires the reader to do mental gymnastics to get a straight comparison.

In the main rivers and seas of the southern republics of the former Soviet Union, more than 90 percent of major commercial fish species have been killed off. A recent four-year inventory in peninsular Malaysia found fewer than half of the 266 fish species known to have inhabited the region's rivers before the advent of large-scale logging.

A solution:

In the main rivers and seas of the southern republics of the former Soviet Union, more than 90 percent of major commercial fish species have been killed off. Similarly, in peninsular Malaysia, a four-year inventory recently found that more than 50 percent of the 266 fish species known to have inhabited the rivers before the advent of large-scale logging have disappeared.

And by no means are all local people, indigenous or otherwise, interested in conservation of natural areas. The Gwich'in people of Alaska and the Yukon, for example, firmly oppose oil drilling in Alaska's Arctic National Wildlife Refuge because of the risk it poses to their caribou-based economy, but the neighboring Inupiat Eskimos are among the most vocal supporters of opening the refuge to oil exploration.

Here, since the first sentence mentions people who are not pro-conservation, and the second sentence starts off citing the Gwich'in with the phrase "for example," it appears for a moment that the Gwich'in are about to be cited as a case in point. Yet, it turns out that they are pro-conservation, and the real example of what the first sentence refers to is that of the Inupiat, who aren't mentioned until it's too late to avert confusion.

A solution:

Use a qualifying conjunction, “whereas,” to signal at the outset of the second sentence that the Gwich’in are not the anticipated example, but a contrasting case:

And by no means are all local people, indigenous or otherwise, interested in conservation of natural areas. For example, whereas the Gwich’in people of Alaska and the Yukon firmly oppose oil drilling in Alaska’s Arctic National Wildlife Refuge because of the risk it poses to their caribou- based economy, the neighboring Inupiat Eskimos are among the most vocal supporters of opening the refuge to oil exploration.

A well-structured statement of comparison or contrast serves the same purpose in writing that a well-designed experiment does in science. By treating two situations in precisely parallel fashion except for the factor being examined, the statement draws attention to that factor—to the only thing that’s different in the two situations. If you use two different structures to present the two situations being compared, the structural differences become a distraction from the factor you’re trying to highlight. Non-parallel structure may also produce unintended differences in the key factor itself, thereby further muddling the comparison in the same way that imperfect experimental controls may muddle the experiment’s results.

In the following paragraph, the topic sentence presents a theme and the second and third sentences present examples. But the two examples don’t have parallel structure. Moreover, in the third sentence, the difficulty of non-parallel structure is compounded by wording that requires the reader to put the time sequence in order (as in Case 5), while simultaneously figuring out the 1972 cost by subtracting 50 million from 280 million:

Compounding the apparent intractability of the disposal problem is the rising costs of dismantling old plants—costs that sometimes exceed those of building plants in the first place. For instance, the Yankee Rowe reactor in western Massachusetts, which cost US$195 million (in 1995 dollars) to build in 1960, will have cost an estimated $306 million to dismantle in 1995. Germany has had a similar experience with the 100 megawatt Niederaichbach plant in Bavaria, which cost DM 280 million (US$195 million), to dismantle—some DM 50 million ($35 million) more in real terms than it cost to build in 1972.

A solution:

Rewrite the third sentence, putting the German example in the same temporal order as the Yankee one, and to do the arithmetic for the reader:

...Germany has had a similar experience with the 100 megawatt Niederaichbach plant in Bavaria, which cost about 230 million deutsche marks (DM) (US$160 million) to build in 1972, but DM 280 million (US$195 million) to dismantle.

QUANTIFICATION AND ACCURACY

Be careful in applying terms like five times, fivefold, and 500 percent. They can be tricky:

The Ministry projects that by 2010 the world price for wheat will be 2.12 times that of the base year of 1992, while the price for rice will increase 2.05 times.

The Ministry's actual projection was that each price would roughly double. The author states this correctly for wheat. For rice, however, he inadvertently suggests that the price is projected to more than triple. How so? If you increase something 1 time, it is 2 times the base; if you increase it 2 times, it is then 3 times the base, or tripled. But if you increase it to 2 times, it is just 2 times the base, or doubled:

Base price = $X per bushel 2 times $X = $2X Increasing $X one time (increasing it by $X) = $2X Increasing $X two times (by $2X) = $3X

Thus,

2 times X = 2X

but,

increasing X 2 times = 3X

A solution:

The last clause should therefore read:

...while the price for rice will increase to 2.05 times.

or

...while the price for rice will be 2.05 times the base.

Check all numbers not only with original sources or re-computations, but also with common sense.
Example:

Some years ago, an author wanted to convert projected global warming from Celsius to Fahrenheit. The projected increase in Celsius, over a specified period, was 2 degrees. The researcher checked the conversion formula, which is: F = (C X 1.8) plus 32

Plugging in the 2 degrees C yielded:

F = (2 X 1.8) plus 32 F = 35.6

The first draft duly stated that over the next two decades global temperature was projected to increase by 35.6 degrees F.

A solution:

With everything you write, imagine how an outsider (an educated person who isn't highly knowledgeable about the topic) would likely react. If there's anything that would cause a generalist to react with extreme

skepticism or alarm, take another took. [In this example, the mistake lay in confusing the amount of change in temperature with the average base temperature.]

Editing the form in which quantitative information is presented can inadvertently make it incorrect. For example, suppose you decide to change “X is higher than V” to “Y is lower than X.” (Case 1 gives an example of why you might want to do this.)

Suppose the original reads:

X is one-third higher than V.

So you change it to:

V is one-third lower than X.

That change introduces an error. For example, if X is $1.00 and Y is $.75, then one-third of V is $.25, and X is indeed one-third higher as stated.

A solution:

Since $.25 is only one-fourth of $1.00, the revised sentence should read:

V is one-fourth lower than X.

Editing for accuracy is not just a matter of making sure numbers and facts are correct, but also of being alert to the more subtle ways in which precision can be compromised:

In South Korea, too, public opposition to nuclear power is starting to have an impact. The country’s first nuclear protest occurred in December 1988 when residents near the Kori facility marched against illegally buried radioactive wastes outside the plant’s fence.

Did the residents really march against buried wastes? Loosely speaking, perhaps so. But it’s an awkward image, because the purpose of a march is to impress people, not buried substances. The accuracy of the sentence can therefore be improved by making the actions of people, rather than the waste itself, the target of the protest.

A solution:

...The country’s first nuclear demonstration occurred in December 1988, when residents near the Kori facility marched to protest the illegal burial of radioactive wastes outside the plant’s fence.

Sometimes, especially in the proofreading stage, it’s hard to see a mistake because you know what you meant to write, and if a word looks or sounds like the correct one, you may be predisposed to see it as correct.

This happens frequently with spelling, as in the following sentence, which contains a hard-to-see mistake:

Does the number of decimal places to which pi can be calculated approach infinity, or is it infinity?

It also happens—even more insidiously—with malapropisms:

This is especially true for individuals or corporations who carry out actions that place others in the threat of eminent death or serious injury.

A solution:
Always use spell-check (which would catch the misspelled “infinity,” for example). But never rely on it to catch all misspellings (because it cannot catch such mistakes as the use of “eminent” instead of “imminent” or “principal” instead of “principle”).

READER PSYCHOLOGY

One small linking word makes a big difference:

The US$60 billion project would tame 11 wild rivers, altering an area the size of France to generate 27,000 megawatts of exportable power. As Matthew Coon-come, Grand Chief of the Cree, says, “The only people who have the right to build dams on our territory are the beavers.”

The first word of the second sentence implies that the author considers the quoted statement (about who has the right to build a dam) to be true—a fact. That makes the passage as a whole seem a bit subjective.

A solution:

One way to make the passage come across as more objective, and therefore more credible, is to change the “As” to “Yet”:

The US$60 billion project would tame 11 wild rivers, altering an area the size of France to generate 27,000 megawatts of exportable power. Yet Matthew Coon-Come, Grand Chief of the Cree, says, “The only people who have the right to build dams on our territory are the beavers.”

Now the opinion is the chief’s, not the author’s. That raises the credibility level of the passage as a whole. (The reader may question whether the Chief’s assertion is correct, but not whether the Chief said what he said.) Moreover, by treating both sentences as observations, the author then allows the reader to draw his own conclusions (rule 8). That is, the reader is more likely to be convinced if he makes up his own mind about the truth of the quote, rather than being told it’s true.

Be conscious of idiomatic expressions that use inappropriate images. They may be inappropriate because they are obsolete, environmentally or socially offensive, or both.

The English language contains lots of once-colorful expressions that are now “dead metaphors.” They’re dead because they no longer evoke images in the reader’s mind—they have become abstractions. Many we use regularly, unconsciously overlooking their inappropriate connotations. Yet those connotations may still hold some residual resonance:

Paving the way for developing-country participation in international environmental governance will require deeper economic reforms.

A solution:

You may attempt to replace the dead metaphor with a more appropriate one:
Creating more fertile grounds for developing-country participation in international governance will require deeper economic reforms.

But such replacements often sound forced (one of the seductions of dead metaphors is that they are so familiar), so an alternative solution is to replace the metaphor with an abstraction:
Only with deeper economic reforms will it be possible for developing countries to participate in international governance.

But keep in mind that this kind of solution should be used sparingly (see rule 18), since using too many abstractions can drain your message of both vitality and usefulness.

CREATIVITY AND INDIVIDUALITY

Jargon is to writing as algae is to a lake: too much of it can choke off vital processes. To a discerning reader, it is a sign that the writer isn't thinking for himself. In extreme cases we all (well, most of us) recognize jargon's mind-numbing character. But in less extreme cases, we all let it creep into our writing subconsciously.

A solution:

The best defense is to examine every word or phrase of your draft, and ask yourself whether the meaning of that word or phrase will be clear to an educated non-specialist.

English is the most versatile of the major languages. It has the largest vocabulary (by far); it is multicultural; it is the leading language of global communications, science, technology, business, and diplomacy; and it changes rapidly to accommodate new needs. As a result, English is also maddeningly inconsistent; its rules don't always serve well.

Example:

The rule about using active rather than passive voice is sometimes better broken. In some cases, the choice is obvious:

The Rhine was flooded 19 times in the past decade.

That's a reasonable formulation because the question of who or what did the flooding may not be a question the author wishes to raise at this point.

But there are less obvious cases in which a perfectly acceptable sentence can be made stronger by changing it from active to passive:

Gore says that a near-fatal accident several years ago, in which a car struck his six-year-old son, Albert, catalyzed his desire to write the book.

There's nothing technically wrong with this sentence, and modifying it is a matter of editorial judgment. The sentence mentions two main actions—the accident and the catalyzing. With both expressed by active verbs, the syntax puts the climactic emphasis on the action mentioned last— the catalyzing. The editor felt that by thus mentioning the accident in passing, this structure may treat the trauma too casually; it may suggest to the reader that the reviewer is only interested in what happened to Gore's son because of how that affected Gore's environmental interests.

A solution:

Even though the point of the sentence is catalyzing, the reviewer will get more empathy from the reader by showing a little more empathy of his own. By rearranging the sentence, the author can shift emphasis enough to let the emotional power of the moment prevail. This entails puffing the catalyzing in passive voice as a kind of deference (Gore's son was more important to him at that moment than his yet-to-be-written book was). What this does for the author's credibility should more than compensate for the broken rules of syntax and style.

Gore says that his desire to write the book was catalyzed by a near-fatal accident several years ago, when a car struck his six-year-old son Albert.

PART 3. WORD LIST

*** coined word introduced by
** coined word not necessarily in dictionary but accepted for use in this form by
* open or hyphenated in dictionary (or in earlier style sheets), but now considered important enough by to be closed (accepted as a single, permanent word)

- affect (as verb, to change or influence; as noun, one's emotional or mood expression. See "effect.")
- back yard (as noun; "backyard" if used as adjective)
- biodiesel
- biodiversity**
- biofuel
- biogas
- bioinvasions***
- biomass
- birth control
- birth rate
- byproduct
- canceled
- carbon emissions
- carmaker (better to use automaker)
- carryover stocks
- Celsius
- centigrade
- cleanup (noun and adj.) clean up (verb)
- clearcut*
- cornland**
- credit-worthy
- decisionmakers, decision making*
- Earth (name of planet) earth (ground or soil)
- ecosystem effect (as verb, to bring about; as noun, a consequence. See "affect.")
- equaled
- Fahrenheit
- farm worker
- far-reaching -fold (as a suffix, is one word: twofold, ninefold; with numerals, hyphenate: 20-fold, 100-fold)
- forestland
- freshwater*
- grassroots
- groundwater
- guerrilla
- half-life
- hydroelectric

- judgment
- kilowatt hour
- labor force
- landfill
- landowner
- leveling
- traveling, etc.
- lifecycle* lifestyle
- longterm (adjective) long term (noun)
- media (plural of medium; TV is one medium, radio another. Together they are “media” and require the plural form of any verb: “The media are all too susceptible to herd-think.”)
- microorganism
- multifamily
- multimillion
- nation-state
- Native American nonprofit (not “non-profit” or “non profit”)
- online*
- phaseout (noun) phase out (verb)
- policymaker, policymaking
- rainforest*
- runoff (noun) run off (verb)
- short-term (adjective) short term (noun)
- solar power (noun)
- soy (not soya)
- Third World (caution; term may be obsolescent, and “developing world” may be preferable)
- ton (preferred over “tonne.”
- World Watch defaults to metric, but be as specific as clarity requires.)
- tradeoff*
- under way (not “underway”)
- waste product
- wastewater
- wellbeing
- West (region of the world including North America and Europe) west (direction)
- wheatland**
- wind farm
- workforce* workplace
- worldwide

PART 4. THE MOVING FINGER

Languages perpetually evolve to reflect changes in the cultures that use them, and attempting to stop this general evolution is both unnecessary and futile. But not all changes are for the better, or even harmless; in fact, many have the effect of reducing flexibility of expression or introducing sources of confusion. Below is a short (but likely to grow) list of recent changes that we ought to be on guard against. Some are also noted in appropriate earlier sections of this manual.

Past perfect imperfections

Ever since the popular movie “Honey, I Shrunk the Kids!” (1989), it seems, there’s been an accelerating tendency to use the past perfect form of verbs like shrink, sink, and stink to designate past action—as in the title of the film, which technically should have been “Honey, I Shrank the Kids.” Avoid constructions such as “It stunk”—they stink now, they stank in the past, and they have always stunk.

On prepositions

English has many useful prepositions, only one of which is on: in, out, from, to, at, through, by, with, without, over, under, against, for. Yet one seems to be taking over, even when there are perfectly sound American idioms using the others: “Call him on 391553-9084” (instead of at), or “The EU imposed sanctions on the rogue regime” (instead of against), etc. Beware of monoprepositionism.

Subordinate clauses

A subordinate (or dependent) clause begins with a subordinate conjunction (because, since, while, etc.) or a relative pronoun (which, who, that, etc.). It cannot stand alone as a sentence and is set off from the rest of the sentence in which it appears by one or two commas. If it appears in the middle of a sentence (“Bill’s sister-in-law, who was known to hate his guts, was never seen again.”), there must be a comma before and one after. These days the second comma is often omitted, but it’s a valuable signal that the interrupted sentence has resumed.

The “Its Rule”: It’s hard

“Its” is the possessive form of “it”:
The cat couldn’t shred the drapes anymore because its claws had been removed.
“It’s” is a contraction of “it is,” just as “don’t” is a contraction of “do not.” Don’t use the second in place of the first.