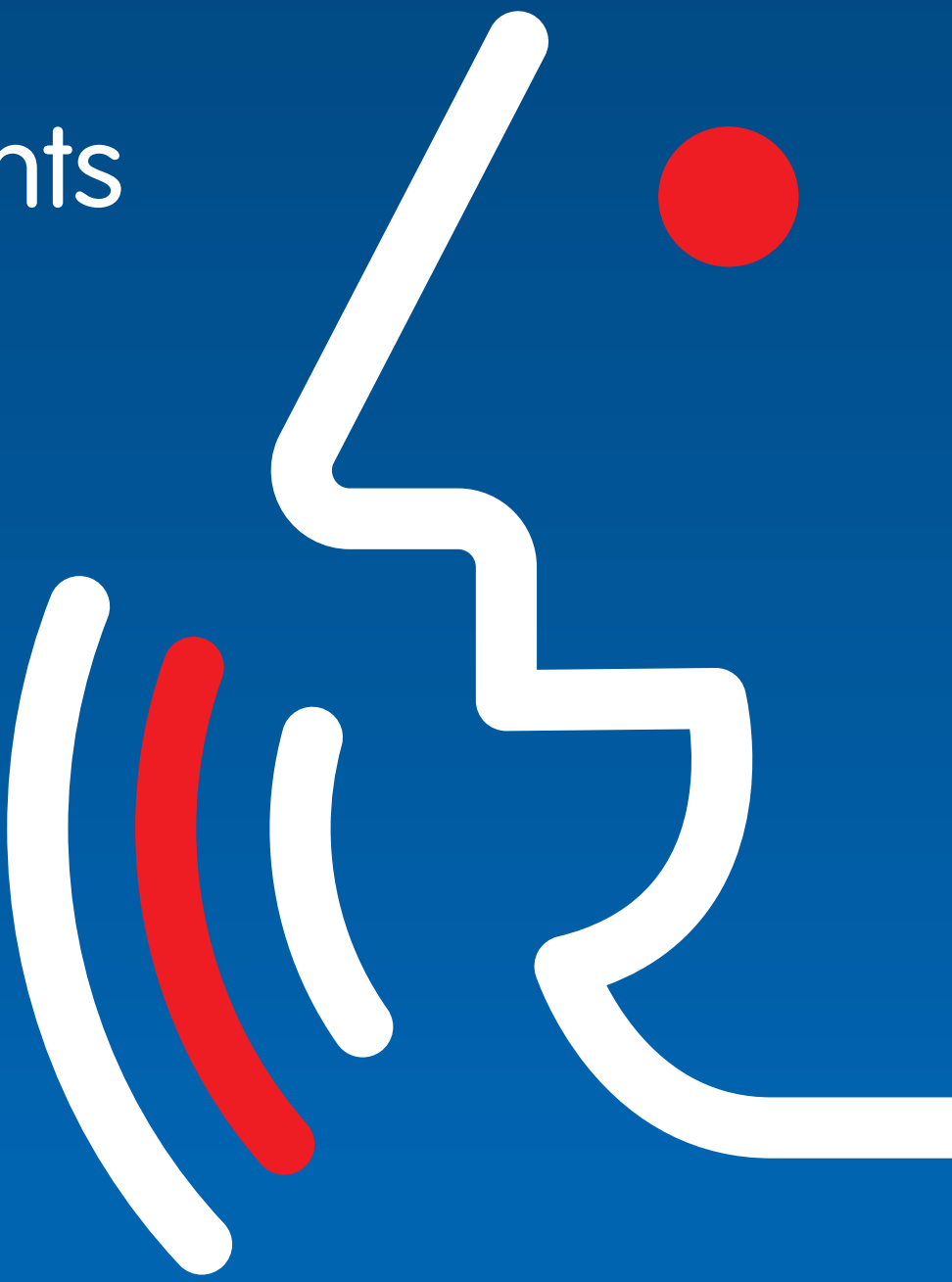
English
Style Guide for Legal Documents



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Translation & Software Localization

2018 STYLE GUIDE FOR

LEGAL DOCUMENTS

1. CITATIONS

1.1 Books

Volume number (if it is a multi-volume work), author's surname and initial(s) or first name followed by a comma, title (italicized or underlined), with all words other than prepositions and conjunctions begun with a capital letter, cited portion(s) of the book indicated by section, paragraph, or page number, a parenthesis containing the edition number (if there have been multiple editions) and year of publication, relevant page(s).

Examples:

2 Calvin W. Corman, *Limitation of Actions* § 12.3 (1991).

Henry J. Abraham, *Justices and Presidents* 351-56 (3d ed. 1992).

Wayne R. LaFave & Austin W. Scott, *Criminal Law* § 5.4 (2d ed. 1986), pp. 20-21

Roger A. Cunningham et al., *The Law of Property* § 2.3, n. 2 (1984).

1.2 Part of a Work (contribution or article) or an Unpublished Paper or Mimeograph

Author's surname and initial(s) or first name followed by a comma, title of the contribution, article, unpublished paper or mimeograph, within quotation marks, title of the work in italic, where appropriate the number of the edition, publisher; place of publication, year of publication, relevant page(s).

Example:

Hamm, E., 'Return of the English breakfast', *International Cuisine*, Vol. X, No 1, Unwin, London, 1980, pp. 31-34

1.3 Periodical or One of a Series

If known, title of the article (within quotation marks), title of the periodical or the series (in italic), number, date or frequency, publisher, place of publication, year of publication.

Example:

'Economic transformation in Hungary and Poland', *European Economy* No 43, March 1990, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1990, pp. 151-167

1.4 Cases

Parties' names (often referred to as the "case name" or less frequently the "style" or "caption" of the case), at least one ID or address for the case (often itself referred to as the "cite or "citation"), date, court.

Examples:

Kootenai Envtl. Alliance, Inc. v. Panhandle Yacht Club, Inc., 671 P.2d 1085 (Idaho 1983).

Czapinski v. St. Francis Hosp., Inc., 2000 WI 80, 236 Wis. 2d 316, 613 N.W.2d 120.

1.5 Constitutions

Name of the constitution (it consists of the abbreviation of the jurisdiction – *e.g.*, U.S. for United States, N.Y. for New York – and "Const."), the cited part (it often includes articles (abbreviated "art."), amendments (abbreviated "amend.") and clauses (abbreviated "cl."), in addition to sections (§)).

Examples:

U.S. Const. art. III, § 2, cl. 2

U.S. Const. amend. XIII, § 2

N.Y. Const. art. I, § 9, cl. 2

1.6 Statutes

Title number followed by a space and "U.S.C." (for "United States Code"), section number preceded by the section symbol and space, indication of the currency of the compilation relied upon, in parentheses.

Example:

42 U.S.C. § 405(a) (2000).

Iowa Code § 259A.5 (2001).

1.7 Arbitrations

Citations to arbitration decisions or awards take the same form as court cases if the adversarial parties are named.

Example:

United States - Tax Treatment for "Foreign Sales Corporations," World Trade Organization No. 108 (Aug. 30, 2002) (Falconer, Chambovey & Seung Wha Chang, Arbs.).

1.8 Court Rules

Rules of evidence or procedure are cited by name of the set of rules (beginning with the jurisdiction) and the rule number. The name is abbreviated.

Example:

Fed. R. Civ. P. 12(b)(6).

Fed. R. Crim. P. 7(b).

Haw. Fam. Ct. R. 106

N.J. Ct. R. 3:8-3

1.9 Law Journals

Full name of the contributing author followed by a comma, article title in full (italicized or underlined) followed by a comma, with all words other than prepositions and conjunctions begun with a capital letter, volume number, journal name (abbreviated), page number(s) year of publication in parentheses (unless it is contained in the volume number).

Examples:

James Wilson Harshaw III, *Not Enough Time?: The Constitutionality of Short Statutes of Limitations for Civil Child Sexual Abuse Litigation*, 50 Ohio St. L.J. 753 (1989).

Naomi R. Cahn, *Civil Images of Battered Women: The Impact of Domestic Violence on Child Custody Decisions*, 44 Vand. L. Rev. 1041 (1991).

Steven G. Calabresi & Kevin H. Rhodes, *The Structural Constitution: Unitary Executive, Plural Judiciary*, 105 Harv. L. Rev. 1155, 1158 (1992).

Frank H. Easterbrook, *Substance and Due Process*, 1982 Sup. Ct. Rev. 85, 114

1.10 Special Cases

Works by Institutional Authors

Works by institutional authors are cited like books by individuals with the name of the institution substituting for the name of an individual author. If an individual author is credited for the work along with the institution, both are listed with the individual author coming first. Where multiple units or division of the institution are listed on the work, the citation includes the smallest unit first and then skips to the largest, omitting all in between. In cases where an individual author is cited, the name of that author substitutes for the smallest unit.

Examples:

Enron Corp., *2000 Annual Report* 30 (2001).

Nolan J. Malone, U. S. Bureau of the Census, *Evaluating Components of International Migration: Consistency of 2000 Nativity Data* (2001).

Research and Public Policy Department, National Urban League, *The Impact of Social Security on Child Poverty* 5 (2000).

Services

Compilations organized around specialized fields include a wide variety of material, ranging from statutes to brief commentary. They are a frequent source of otherwise unpublished cases.

Citations to material in such a service include the name or title of the cited document in accordance with the rules applicable to its type (cases, administrative material, etc.). The portion of the citation identifying the document's address in the service includes: volume, abbreviated title (not italicized), publisher in parentheses, subdivision. The date accompanying the citation (in most cases, at the end, in parenthesis) is the full date of the cited document.

Examples:

Vill. of Grand View v. Skinner, 22 Envtl. L. Rep. (Envtl. L. Inst.) 20120 (2d Cir. Oct. 24, 1991).

Norling v. Valley Contracting, [2 Wages-Hours] Lab. L. Rep. (CCH) ¶ 35,543 (D.N.D. June 11, 1991).

Flamme v. Wolf Ins. Agency, [Insurance] Auto. L. Rep. (CCH) ¶ 18,307 (Neb. Nov. 8, 1991).

Restatements

Restatements are not attributed to an author; they are cited simply by name, subdivision, and year.

Examples:

Restatement (Second) of Contracts § 30 (1981).

Restatement (Second) of Judgments § 57 cmt. b, illus. 3 (1982).

Annotations

Annotations in the *American Law Reports* (A.L.R.) are treated as articles in a collection or journal.

Examples:

Francis M. Dougherty, Annotation, *Insurer's Tort Liability for Wrongful or Negligent Issuance of Life Policy*, 37 A.L.R.4th 972, 974 (1985).

2. DIVISION OF WORDS AT THE END OF A LINE

Use a hyphen to divide words at the end of a line if necessary, and make the break only between syllables.

Examples:

pref-er-ence

sell-ing

in-di-vid-u-al-ist

For line breaks, divide already hyphenated words only at the hyphen.

Examples:

mass-produced

self-conscious

For line breaks in words ending in -ing, if a single final consonant in the root word is doubled before the suffix, hyphenate between the consonants; otherwise, hyphenate at the suffix itself.

Examples:

plan-ning

run-ning

driv-ing

call-ing

Never put the first or last letter of a word at the end or beginning of a line, and don't put two-letter suffixes at the beginning of a new line.

Examples:

lovely (Do not separate to leave ly beginning a new line).

eval-u-ate (Separate only on either side of the u; do not leave the initial e- at the end of a line).

3. LEXICON

3.1 Common errors in legal documents

- **advice** or **advise**

Advice is a noun. Advise is a verb.

I asked my lawyer for her **advice**.

She **advised** me to tell the truth.

- **agenda** or **diary**

Agenda is a list of topics for discussion at a meeting. Diary is a book in which a person writes appointments or things to be remembered.

- **cheque** or **check**

In American English check means (i) a form instructing a bank to pay money to someone (BrE cheque), and (ii) a list of things bought and their price (BrE bill).

- **evidence**

Evidence is an uncountable noun. Note also: a piece/pieces of evidence.

- **licence** or **license**

In American English license is the most usual form for both noun and verb. However, licence may also be used for both. In British English licence is the noun and license is the verb.

- **manifestation** or **demonstration**

Manifestation is a display, sign, or act of showing: The flowers he sent were a clear manifestation of his feelings for her. Demonstration is a public expression of opinion, usually by a large group of people who feel that something is wrong or unjust: a demonstration against nuclear war.

- **officer** or **official**

Officer is a person having a position of rank or authority: a government officer. Official is means done by or related to a person or group in authority; formal: an official letter, an official inquiry, official approval.

- **overdue** or **expire**

Be/become overdue is used of a bill, payment, library book, etc. Expire is used of a licence, contract, library ticket, etc.

- **policy** or **politics**

Policy is a plan or course of action (taken by a government, political party, business, etc.). Politics is (i) the art and science of governing a country: He has chosen a career in politics; (ii) political affairs: I am not interested in politics; and (iii) political opinions: Nobody knows much about his politics.

- **prove** or **test**

Prove is to provide proof or be proof of (something): Can you prove to the court that you are telling the truth? Test is to try or do experiments on (something) in order to discover how good or bad it is: This new engine has not been properly tested.

- **tax** or **fine**

Tax is a sum of money paid to the government according to the amount a person earns and the things a person buys: The tax on wine has been increased. Fine is a sum of money paid as a penalty by a person who breaks the law: a parking fine.

- **testament** or **will**

Testament (formal) is (i) proof: The new school buildings, which were financed by Sir Harold, are a testament to his generosity, and (ii) will (This usage occurs only in the phrase "last will and testament").

3.2 Expressions with some prepositions

- **above-mentioned**

It always comes before the noun it modifies: **above-mentioned** person, **above-mentioned** company.

- **absent**

Not present at something that you are supposed to attend: **absent from** the meeting.

- **accord**

Of your own accord: he resigned **of his own accord**.

- **according to**

According to cannot be followed by me or us: **In my opinion**, we should spend more money on education.

- **accuse**

Accuse someone of something: Some unemployed men **accuse** women **of** taking their jobs.

- **agree**

Agree + to-v: Unfortunately not many people **agreed to** help us.

Agree with someone or something (have the same opinion as): I do not **agree with** the people who say women should stay at home.

- **consist**

Consist of is not used in progressive tenses and is used only in the active: The house **consisted**

of three bedrooms, a kitchen, and a bathroom.

- **disagree**

Disagree with (not have the same opinion): She **disagreed with** him about how much they should spend. Disagree with someone or something: She **disagreed** totally **with** what I said.

- **discuss**

Discuss is a transitive verb: We are pleased that you have agreed to **discuss** the matter with us. Discuss something but (have) **a discussion about** something: We spent almost two hours **discussing** the course.

- **favorable**

Favorable means (i) approving, encouraging, or saying what someone wants to hear: a favorable report; and (ii) (of conditions) advantageous: a **favorable** wind. Be in favor of (approve of): Our government is **in favor of** nuclear missiles.

- **opinion**

According to is not used with opinion: **According to** Henry, less money should be spent on weapons. **In Henry's opinion**, less money should be spent on weapons.

- **provide**

Provide someone with (a chance or opportunity to do something): My job **provides** me **with** the opportunity to meet new people every day.

3.3 Some doublets in legal English

able and willing	cancelled and set aside
act and deed	cease and come to an end
agree and covenant	cease and determine
agreed and declared	chargeable and accountable

aid and abet

aid and comfort

all and sundry

all and singular

amount or quantum

annoy or molest

annulled and set aside

answerable and accountable

any and all

attached and annexed

authorize and direct

bills and notes

bind and obligate

by and under

by and with

covenant and agree

custom and usage

deed and assurance

deem and consider

deposes and says

desire and require

do and perform

dominion and authority

due and owing

each and all

each and every

escape and every

escape and evade

exact and specific

execute and perform

3.4 Triplets frequently appearing in legal writing

cancel, annul, and set aside

form, manner, and method

general, vague, and indefinite

give, devise, and bequeath

hold, possess, and enjoy

lands, tenements, and hereditaments

ordered, adjudged, and decreed

pay, satisfy, and discharge

possession, custody, and control

ready, willing, and able

remise, release, and forever quitclaim

repair, uphold, and maintain

rest, residue, and remainder

right, title, and interest

vague, nonspecific, and indefinite

way, shape, or form

4. TEXT MARKERS

Connectors are words like and, so, but, because, which are used to join, or connect different pieces of language together. They show the relation between what the speaker or writer said before and what they will say next.

In the formal language typical of the law (particularly in written texts) you will find many connectors that are not common in everyday language.

- **Consequence**

therefore, consequently, for that reason, so, in this way, accordingly, thus

- **Reason**

because, due to, since, for, as, thanks to, by reason of, whereas, considering that

- **Contrast**

by contrast, on the other hand, nevertheless, however, above all

- **Addition**

more, in addition, also, furthermore, likewise, and , as well as, as well

- **Emphasis**

indeed, in fact, in other words, that is, that is to say, i.e.

- **Clarification**

for example, e.g., such as, to wit, ss, in the event of

- **End / Summing up**

in conclusion, in summary, to sum up, in brief, briefly, in a few words, wholly, jointly, finally

- **Relation**

in connection with, with regards to, regarding, as regards, concerning, relative to, in accordance with, according to, as per, as, in conformity with, in respect of, with respect to

- **Order**

first, firstly, in first place, initially, finally, then, next, later

- **Distinction**

on one hand, on the other hand, on one part, on the other part, party of the first part, party of the second part, instead, in turn, in lieu of

- **Purpose**

for the purpose of, in order to, conducive to

5. CAPITALIZATION

Capitalization, like spelling, is a set of conventions intended to clarify written communication. The following guidelines for capitalization are generally accepted.

Sentences should begin with a capital letter:

A boy brought home a penguin.

Proper names and adjectives derived from proper names:

The penguin's name was Opus.

He came from Antarctica.

He hitch-hiked across the Arctic Ocean.

Names of places:

Australia

Hyde Park

the Middle East

Note: do not capitalize directions that are not part of a regions name: northern California. All other important words in the name must also start with a capital letter. Words that do not need to be written with a capital letter unless they are the first word of the name are *a, an, and, the, of, to, by,* etc. (Following each proper name are one or more common names of the same type of person or thing which do not need a capital letter).

Henry David Thoreau (a man, a writer)

Empire State Building (a building, a monument)

Grand Canyon (a canyon, a geographical wonder)

Atlantic Ocean (an ocean, a body of water)

Metropolitan Museum of Art (a museum, an institute)

Planets and stars can be considered as places:

Jupiter

Pluto

Alpha Centauri

Titles:

Mr Finnegan

Mrs Edgeware

Ms Johnson

Dr Jacobs

Major Fingleton

the Director General

Days, months and public holidays:

Monday

July

Christmas

Yom Kippur

Nationalities and regions, languages, religions and ethnic groups:

a German car

the Scandinavian countries

She speaks Russian and Chinese

a Muslim cleric

the Aboriginal people

Capitalize the first word of a direct quotation:

The instructor said, "You shall not have fun in Physics".

The main words and the first word of the titles of articles, books, poems, plays, songs, etc.:

English Structure and Style

The Brothers Karamazov

Stairway to Heaven

Official names or names of groups or organizations:

Department of Redundancy Department

House of Commons

House of Senate

Republicans

Black Americans

Lutherans

Personifications:

Because I could not stop for Death

Notice that articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc. are not usually capitalized.

6. ORDINAL NUMBERS

First, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth (one to nine inclusive written in full).

but

10th, 11th, ... 21st, 22nd, 23rd, 24th, etc.

7. PUNCTUATION

7.1 Comma

The comma is a valuable, useful punctuation device because it separates the structural elements of sentences into manageable segments.

Use commas to separate independent clauses when they are joined by any of these seven coordinating conjunctions: and, but, for, or, nor, so, yet.

- The game was over, but the crowd refused to leave.
- The student explained her question, yet the instructor still didn't seem to understand.
- Yesterday was her brother's birthday, so she took him out to dinner.

Use commas after introductory a) clauses, b) phrases, or c) words that come before the main clause.

a) Common starter words for introductory clauses that should be followed by a comma include *after, although, as, because, if, since, when, while*.

- While I was eating, the cat scratched at the door.
- Because her alarm clock was broken, she was late for class.
- If you are ill, you ought to see a doctor.
- When the snow stops falling, we'll shovel the driveway.

However, don't put a comma after the main clause when a dependent (subordinate) clause follows it (except for cases of extreme contrast).

- She was late for class, because her alarm clock was broken. (incorrect)
- The cat scratched at the door, while I was eating. (incorrect)
- She was still quite upset, although she had won the Oscar. (correct: extreme contrast)

b) Common introductory phrases that should be followed by a comma include participial and infinitive phrases, absolute phrases, nonessential appositive phrases, and long prepositional phrases (over four words).

- Having finished the test, he left the room.
- To get a seat, you'd better come early.
- After the test but before lunch, I went jogging.
- The sun radiating intense heat, we sought shelter in the cafe.

c) Common introductory words that should be followed by a comma include *yes, however, well*.

- Well, perhaps he meant no harm.
- Yes, the package should arrive tomorrow morning.
- However, you may not be satisfied with the results.

Use a pair of commas in the middle of a sentence to set off clauses, phrases, and words that are not essential to the meaning of the sentence. Use one comma before to indicate the beginning of the pause and one at the end to indicate the end of the pause.

Do not use commas to set off essential elements of the sentence, such as clauses beginning with that (relative clauses).

- The book that I borrowed from you is excellent.
- She believes that she will be able to earn an A.
- They wished that warm weather would finally arrive.

Use commas to separate three or more words, phrases, or clauses written in a series.

- The Constitution establishes the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government.

- The candidate promised to lower taxes, protect the environment, reduce crime, and end unemployment.

- The prosecutor argued that the defendant, who was at the scene of the crime, who had a strong revenge motive, and who had access to the murder weapon, was guilty of homicide.

Use commas to separate two or more coordinate adjectives that describe the same noun. Be sure never to add an extra comma between the final adjective and the noun itself or to use commas with non-coordinate adjectives.

- He was a difficult, stubborn child. (coordinate)

- Your cousin has an easy, happy smile. (coordinate)

Use a comma near the end of a sentence to separate contrasted coordinate elements or to indicate a distinct pause or shift.

- He was merely ignorant, not stupid.

- The chimpanzee seemed reflective, almost human.

- You're one of the senator's close friends, aren't you?

Use commas to set off phrases at the end of the sentence that refer back to the beginning or middle of the sentence.

- Nancy waved enthusiastically at the docking ship**,** laughing joyously.

- Laughing joyously**,** Lisa waved at Nancy.

- Lisa waved at Nancy**,** who was laughing joyously.

Use commas to set off all geographical names, items in dates (except the month and day), addresses (except the street number and name), and titles in names.

- Birmingham, Alabama, gets its name from Birmingham, England.

- July 22, 1959, was a momentous day in his life.

- Who lives at 1600 Pennsylvania Avenue, Washington, DC?
- Rachel B. Lake, MD, will be the principal speaker.

When you use just the month and the year, no comma is necessary after the year:

- The average temperatures for July 1998 are the highest on record for that month.

Use a comma to shift between the main discourse and a quotation.

- John said without emotion, "I'll see you tomorrow".
- "I was able," she answered, "to complete the assignment".
- In 1848, Marx wrote, "Workers of the world, unite!"

Use commas wherever necessary to prevent possible confusion or misreading.

- To George, Harrison had been a sort of idol.

7.2 Semi-colon

The semi-colon is rapidly disappearing from English. Once it was commonly used to link clauses that were somewhat related; now we prefer shorter sentences, so we tend to separate those clauses by a period.

Use a semi-colon in lists that would not be clear if only commas were used:

- The members of the committee are: John Adams, School of Music, chair**;** Ernest Hemingway, Department of English**;** and Marie Antoinette, Department of History.

Use a semi-colon in a list-like sentence in which phrases or clauses are dependent on an initial statement:

- Mahlers symphonies have many strengths: they tie together disparate styles of material**;** they have a wide range of emotional expression**;** and they include some of the longest successful sonata-form movements ever written.

Use a semi-colon to precede *for example, namely,* etc. when they precede a principal statement:

- Mahlers symphonies have many strengths**;** for example, they include some of the longest successful sonata-form movements ever written.

Use a semi-colon to separate independent clauses joined by such words as *however* and *therefore*:

- The New York Philharmonic made Maazel an offer that was hard to refuse**;** therefore, he accepted it.

- Debussy never thought of himself as a concert pianist**;** however, in his own music his playing was incomparable.

Place the semi-colon outside quotation marks:

- He told us that he would never return to conducting**;** yet, three weeks later, he was seen on the beach, waving his baton as enthusiastically as ever for the summer band concert.

7.3 Dash

Use a dash to emphasize a point or to set off an explanatory comment; but don't overuse dashes, or they will lose their impact.

- To some of you, my proposals may seem radical--even revolutionary.

In terms of public legitimation--that is, in terms of garnering support from state legislators, parents, donors, and university administrators--English departments are primarily places where advanced literacy is taught.

Use a dash for an appositive phrase that already includes commas.

- The boys--Jim, John, and Jeff--left the party early.

As you can see, dashes function in some ways like parentheses (used in pairs to set off a comment within a larger sentence) and in some ways like colons (used to introduce material illustrating or emphasizing the immediately preceding statement). But comments set off with a

pair of dashes appear less subordinate to the main sentence than do comments in parentheses. And material introduced after a single dash may be more emphatic and may serve a greater variety of rhetorical purposes than material introduced with a colon.

7.4 Apostrophe

- **Forming possessives of nouns**

To see if you need to make a possessive, turn the phrase around and make it an "of the..." phrase. For example:

- the boy's hat = the hat of the boy
- three days' journey = journey of three days

If the noun after "of" is a building, an object, or a piece of furniture, then no apostrophe is needed.

- room of the hotel = hotel room
- door of the car = car door
- leg of the table = table leg

Once you've determined whether you need to make a possessive, follow these rules to create one.

- add 's to the singular form of the word (even if it ends in -s):

the owner's car

James's hat

- add 's to the plural forms that do not end in -s:

the children's game

the geese's honking

- add ' to the end of plural nouns that end in -s:

houses' roofs

three friends' letters

- add 's to the end of compound words:

my brother-in-law's money

- add 's to the last noun to show joint possession of an object:

Todd and Anne's apartment

Showing omission of letters

Apostrophes are used in contractions. To use an apostrophe to create a contraction, place an apostrophe where the omitted letter(s) would go. Here are some examples:

- don't = do not
- I'm = I am
- he'll = he will
- who's = who is
- shouldn't = should not
- '60 = 1960

Forming plurals of letters, numbers, and symbols

Apostrophes are used to form plurals of letters, numbers, and symbols. To form the plural of a letter, number, or symbol, place 's after the letter, number or symbol.

two A's = two letters that happen to both be A

- Nita got two A's on her biology quizzes.

six 5's = six numbers that are each 5

- There are six 5's on my license plate.

many &'s = many symbols that look like &

- That printed page has too many &'s on it.

Don't use apostrophes for possessive pronouns or for noun plurals.

Apostrophes should not be used with possessive pronouns because possessive pronouns already show possession -- they don't need an apostrophe. *His, her, its, my, yours, ours* are all possessive pronouns.

8. TEXT EFFECTS

8.1 Bold-Face Type

Bold-face type is often used in headings and titles for emphasis. It can also be used in running text to show changes of subject or to highlight keywords in the same way that some other languages use italic. It should be used sparingly, however.

With the ever-increasing use of word processors, bold is favored for any of the above purposes, bearing in mind the restrictions on the use of italic as stated below.

In a manuscript which has been typed on a word processor the sections to be put into italic must be underlined once (unless the machine has a code for italic), and those to be printed in bold should be double underlined (unless the machine has a code for bold type).

If the text is already in italic, words to be emphasized must be printed in roman characters.

8.2 Underlining and Italics

Underlining and italics are not really punctuation, but they are significant textual effects used conventionally in a variety of situations. Whichever you choose, italics or underlining should be used:

To indicate titles of complete or major works such as magazines, books, newspapers, academic journals, films, television programs, long poems, plays of three or more acts.

- Faulkner's last novel was *The Reivers.*

- The Simpsons offers hilarious parodies of American culture and family life.

Foreign words that are not commonly used in English.

- Wearing blue jeans is *de rigueur* for most college students.

Words used as words themselves.

- The English word nuance comes from a Middle French word meaning "shades of color".

Words or phrases that you wish to emphasize

- The very *founding principles* of our nation are at stake!

The use of italics is restricted to:

- book, film or play titles.
- names of periodicals ('the' in connection with the title should be lower case roman (normal type) unless it is known that the article belongs to the title as in *The Times*).
- words and short phrases from foreign languages: *Länder*, *carte blanche*; except for proper names, names of persons, institutions, places, etc. and not usually for foreign quotations.
- Not all foreign words are italicized, however; a number have been assimilated into current English and are set in roman: café, alias, detour, etc.
- names of ships.
- formulae in mathematical works.
- scientific (Latin) names of flora and fauna.
- the foreword, epilogue, publisher's note and, in general, any section of a work which was not written by the author.
- Use quotation marks to cite quotations from books and periodicals rather than italic. The simultaneous use of italic and quotation marks, however, must be avoided.

- Write all Latin abbreviations in roman (i.e.; e.g.; op. cit.; NB; ibid.; et al.; et seq.).

- Latin words should usually be printed in italic, but certain common Latin phrases take roman (inter alia, ad hoc, ad infinitum, ex officio, per capita, per cent, pro forma, status quo).

9. ABBREVIATIONS, CONTRACTIONS, SYMBOLS, AND ACRONYMS

Abbreviations should be avoided if the sense is not clear. The device for clarifying them is to spell out the abbreviation at the first mention, add the abbreviation in parentheses and use the abbreviation thereafter.

Note the difference between a true abbreviation, in which the end of the word is lopped off (vol., co., inc.) and a contraction or suspension, in which the interior of the word is removed (Mr, Dr, contd, Ltd). The contraction is always printed without the final full point, whereas the abbreviation retains it.

Units of measurement and scientific symbols such as ‘ha’, ‘km’, ‘mg’, etc. do not need a final full point. They are not closed up to figures and do not have plurals: 4 ha, 9 m, 20 psi, 55 dB(A), 2 000 kc/s.

‘No’ is a symbol and does not take a final full point, but does take a plural ‘s’.

An acronym is defined as ‘a word formed from the initial letters of other words’ (e.g. NATO, Unesco). Some of these are formed from French titles (e.g. Cedefop).

Acronyms of names that are usually used in the plural should be written as they are spoken (e.g. OCTs, SMEs, not OCT, SME, etc. unless used as an adjective).

9.1 Civil titles

Mr	Messrs
Mrs	—
Miss	—

Ms	—
Dr	Drs
Prof.	Profs
HRH	—
St	—
HE	(His or Her Excellency)

9.2 Units of measurement (written without points, they are not closed up to figures and take no plural)

mm	millimeter
Cm	centimeter
Cc	cubic centimeter (engines, etc., but use cm^3 in scientific and technical work)
M	meter (use m^2 not sq. m)
Km	kilometer (use km^2 not sq. km)
Mg	Milligram
G	Gram

Kg	Kilogram
T	ton
Ml	milliliter
L	liter
Hl	hectoliter
Ha	hectare
S	second
Min	minute
h or hr	hour
A	ampere
Hz	hertz
V	volt
W	watt
kW	kilowatt
MW	megawatt = 10^3 kW
kWh	kilowatt-hour

GWh	gigawatt-hour = 10^6 kWh
°C	degree Celsius

9.3 Other abbreviations

fob	free on board
cif	cost, insurance and freight
psr	produced in specific regions (quality wines)
plc	public limited company

The following abbreviations are used mainly in footnotes and bibliographies; in running text the complete form is preferable:

Art. (Arts)	Article(s)
Chap.	Chapter
Vol.	Volume
p.	page
pp.	pages

Tab.	Table
Gr.	Graph
Pl.	Plate
Ill.	Illustration
Fig.	Figure
cont.	continued

10. BIBLIOGRAPHY

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