

Check the Draft (and avoid the chill)

Advice to new authors

by

D E Goddard
Editor, Radiophysics Laboratory,
CSIRO



Thank you to Helen Sim, Christine van der Leeuw, Geoffrey James and Donald McLean for reading the text and suggesting amendments, and to Lucia M Bromley-Gambaro for producing this booklet; she used *PageMaker* to do the layout. DG, January 1997.

"Why is a raven like a writing-desk?" [asked the Mad Hatter].

"I believe I can guess that" [Alice replied] ...

"Do you mean that you think you can find out the answer to it?" said the March Hare.

"Exactly so," said Alice.

"Then you should say what you mean," the March Hare went on.

"I do," Alice hastily replied; "at least— at least I mean what I say — that's the same thing, you know."

"Not the same thing a bit!" said the Hatter. "Why, you might just as well say that 'I see what I eat' is the same thing as 'I eat what I see'!"

"You might as well say," added the March Hare, "that 'I like what I get' is the same thing as 'I get what I like'!"

Lewis Carroll, *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*

Contents

Introduction	7
AUTHORSHIP	9
SOLE AUTHORS	9
<i>Passive Voice (see also STYLE)</i>	9
MULTIPLE AUTHORS	9
<i>-ise or -ize?</i>	10
GRAMMAR	11
EQUATIONS AND 'DOT' POINTS	11
<i>Equations</i>	11
<i>Dot Points</i>	11
THE SUBJUNCTIVE & THE GERUND	11
<i>The Subjunctive</i>	11
<i>The Gerund</i>	12
PRONOUNS	13
<i>Possessive</i>	13
<i>Its</i>	13
<i>Reflexive</i>	13
<i>Subject & Object</i>	13
PARALLEL CONSTRUCTIONS	13
KEEPING RELATED WORDS TOGETHER	14
<i>The Misplaced Modifier</i>	14
<i>The Dangling Participle</i>	14
PLEONASMS AND TAUTOLOGY	15
<i>Pleonasms</i>	15
<i>Tautologies</i>	15
SOME COMMON ERRORS	15
<i>Misusing 'However'</i>	15
<i>Using Nouns Adopted from Greek or Latin</i>	16
<i>Putting 'Only' in the Wrong Place</i>	16
PUNCTUATION	17
THE HYPHEN	17
THE COMMA	17

THE COLON	18
THE SEMI-COLON	18
 STYLE	 19
PASSIVE V. ACTIVE VOICE	19
SMOTHERED VERBS	19
OPENING AND CLOSING A SENTENCE	20
SPLIT INFINITIVES	20
WORDS	21
<i>'Posh' Words and Meaningless Phrases</i>	21
<i>Overused Trendy (or 'Buzz') Words</i>	21
<i>'Like' Words</i>	21
 REFERENCES	 23
THE VANCOUVER (OR NUMBERING) SYSTEM	23
<i>In the Text</i>	23
<i>In the Reference List</i>	23
THE HARVARD (OR AUTHOR-DATE) SYSTEM	23
<i>In the Text</i>	23
<i>In the Reference List</i>	23
ABBREVIATIONS	24
<i>Journal Abbreviations</i>	24
 A MISCELLANY	 25
ABSTRACT	25
FIGURES & TABLES	25
SI UNITS	26
CAPITALS	26
 CHECKLIST	 27
WHAT TO LOOK OUT FOR	27
SUBMITTING YOUR PAPER	27
 <i>Bibliography</i>	 29
 <i>Index</i>	 32

Introduction

This is meant to help authors who are submitting a paper for publication for the first time¹. It may also help authors who have had papers rejected for reasons other than scientific or technical content. No matter how good the content of your paper, if you have disregarded *Instructions to Authors* from a journal or conference, been careless with things like spelling, grammar, or references, or used too much jargon, referees or journal editors may reject your paper out of hand.

It is not meant to be comprehensive in the sense that I have not tried to explain many fine points of grammar, such as the subjunctive or the gerund. What I have done in those latter cases is give some of the more common examples met in scientific and technical papers.

I have also included: some of the traps associated with co- or multiple authorship such as inconsistencies, especially in references and spelling; some elements of style, grammar, and punctuation etc.; how to cite references and order your reference list; a 'hard-to-categorise' chapter dealing with the abstract, figures, tables, SI units and the use of capitals; and a checklist of items to look out for in your final draft.

Remember, scientific and technical writing in general is no different from any other kind of writing. There is only good writing and bad.

... It is a cardinal error to think that scientific writing is in any way different from the writing of English in any other field — except that it will contain technical terms.

N. W. Goodman, Editor of the *British Journal of Anaesthesia*, 1986

¹ Information on how to go about getting research material for your paper and how to present it can be found in the excellent booklet by Moses (1985), produced especially for supervisors to help higher degree students.

AUTHORSHIP

Contents

- Sole authors and their reluctance to use I
- Passive v. active voice
- Multiple authors and consistency
- Spelling: -ise or -ize endings.

SOLE AUTHORS

Sole authors tend to use 'we' when they mean 'I'; this is probably because they have been taught that it is not 'done' to use 'I' in scientific prose (somehow this is seen as immodest). I suggest that this is false modesty; use 'I'.

Passive Voice (see also STYLE, p. 19)

For example

- a) Measurements of the diameter of the disk were performed by Smith & Jones (1992) using the large antenna.

The sentence above is in the passive voice. However, if you know who did what and have no reasons for not stating it, write the sentence in the active:

- b) Smith & Jones (1992) used the large antenna to measure the diameter of the disk.

and again

- a) A solution is presented for the problem of cross-coupling between a pair of open-ended coaxial cables.

Why not write

- b) I present a solution to the problem of ... ?

If you did the work you are reporting, it is perfectly legitimate to use 'I' (first-person pronoun) regardless of so-called tradition in writing technical papers. In fact, using the active voice is becoming more and more acceptable and has had the authority of the Council of Biology Editors behind it for some time now:

The Council ... has come out in favor of more direct, active reporting of observations, and this should help to counter the ingrained habit of using the passive — as if it were a stylistic necessity for professional scientists.

(Quoted by Peters 1995).

However, overusing the active can be as relentlessly boring as overusing the passive. Therefore, use the passive voice to vary your writing, but with caution (see next column).

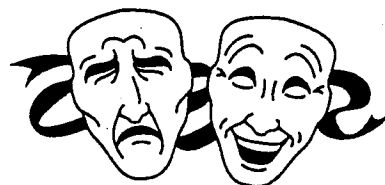
MULTIPLE AUTHORS

By all means, vary your writing by mixing passive with active sentences. However, this is where multiple authorship can be a problem, because you can end up having one paragraph or section solely in the passive voice and the next solely in the active. The result is patchy-sounding prose.

Papers written by more than one person are often inconsistent in other respects. To achieve consistency, appoint one person to be responsible for the finished paper; in most cases, this is the first author. It is then that person's responsibility to make sure that the style of writing is uniform — or as uniform as possible.

At some point, the authors may decide to chop out a paragraph of text. If this piece of text contains citations, it is the responsibility of the first author to make sure that those citations are deleted from the reference list. Conversely, if the authors agree to expand the text and add more citations, the new reference list **MUST** contain those citations (for more on references, see p. 23). Also, be careful with Figures and Tables which are numbered sequentially. If the authors decide to chop out Table I, then Table II must be changed to Table I and so on.

Spelling can also be a problem. Spelling conventions vary but whichever one you use, Australian, British or American, stick to it throughout. Usually, Australian and British spelling is the same except for words ending in *-ise* or *-ize*. The Macquarie dictionary, and therefore most Australian publications, prefers *-ise*. But when writing for American, British or European journals the *-ise* ending is not always appropriate. If you are confused, you may find the list on page 10 useful. The Au, Am, & B in parentheses stand for Australian, American, & British, respectively (European journals tend to follow the British standard as far as I can see).



-ISE or -IZE?

advertise	(Au, Am, B)
advise	(Au, Am, B)
analyse	(Au, B) analyze (Am)
apologize	(Am, B) apologise (Au)
apprise	(Au, B) apprize (Am)
cauterize	(Am, B) cauterise (Au)
chastise	(Au, Am, B)
circumcise	(Au, Am, B)
comprise	(Au, Am, B)
compromise	(Au, Am, B)
demise	(Au, Am, B)
despise	(Au, Am, B)
devise	(Au, Am, B)
emphasize	(Am, B) emphasise (Au)
enterprise	(Au, Am, B)
excise	(Au, Am, B)
exercise	(Au, Am, B)
immunize	(Am, B) immunise (Au)
improvise	(Au, Am, B)
incise	(Au, Am, B)
localize	(Am, B) localise (Au)
magnetize	(Am, B) magnetise (Au)
maximize	(Am, B) maximise (Au)
minimize	(Am, B) minimise (Au)
organize	(Am, B) organise (Au)
ostracize	(Am, B) ostracise (Au)
penalize	(Am, B) penalise (Au)
polarize	(Am, B) polarise (Au)
premise	(Au, Am, B)
rationalize	(Am, B) rationalise (Au)
revise	(Au, Am, B)
summarize	(Am, B) summarise (Au)
supervise	(Au, Am, B)
surprise	(Au, Am, B)
tantalize	(Am, B) tantalise (Au)
televis	(Au, Am, B)

As you can see, the accepted Australian ending is *-ise*. And, apart from *analyze* and *apprize*, British and American spellings for words ending in *-ise* or *-ize* are the same.

GRAMMAR

Contents

- Equations and 'dot' points
- The subjunctive and the gerund
- Pronouns
 - I or me?*
 - Its or it's?*
 - Myself or me? Myself or I?*
- Parallel constructions
- Keeping related words together
- Pleonasms & tautologies
- Some common errors
 - misusing *however*
 - misusing nouns adopted from Greek or Latin
 - putting *only* in the wrong place

EQUATIONS AND 'DOT' POINTS

Equations and 'dot points' are a grammatical part of a sentence or paragraph.

Equations

Here is an elegant example of how an equation should fit into a sentence:

Taking into account that

$$\sum \exp(2ik\pi(m-m')/M) = \delta_{mm'}, \quad (1)$$

because we choose $M > (m-m')$ to avoid an exact division of $(m-m')$ by M , the expression (3.3) reduces to

$$Ax = b. \quad (2)$$

But the product ... and so it goes on in its elegant way.

Note that the above example is punctuated as if the equations were words.

Remember to number equations. Someone, sometime, may want to cite your paper and refer to one of your equations.

Dot Points

The following is an example of a 'dot-pointed' list that does not fit grammatically with its lead-in sentence:

Our aim is threefold; it is:

- ♦ To increase staff numbers,
- ♦ To get economically viable,
- ♦ We hope to function as a successful organisation.

The above list is wrong on two counts. First, each point

begins with a capital letter which, after a colon (or a semicolon), is wrong. Second, the last point does not follow logically from the lead-in sentence. So, since such sentences need not be set out as dot points, test it by writing it this way:

Our aim is threefold: To increase staff numbers, To get economically viable, We hope etc. etc.

You can see at a glance that this is incorrect. The following is a list that fits grammatically:

Our aim is threefold; it is:

- ♦ to increase staff numbers,
- ♦ to get economically viable,
- ♦ to function as a successful organisation.

Dot-point lists can begin with capitals, though it is not common. You could write something like —

Our aim is threefold.

- ♦ We need to increase staff numbers.
- ♦ We need to get economically viable.
- ♦ We wish to function as a successful organisation.

Note that each point is a sentence (i.e. it has a verb 'need' or 'wish'), and therefore each begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE & THE GERUND

The Subjunctive

Just a brief explanation of the subjunctive mood of a verb is given here, and a few common examples.

The word mood comes from Latin *modus*, meaning 'way' or 'manner'. So in its original meaning it was said to indicate the verb's 'attitude' or manner of speaking (Jarvie 1993).

There are three types of mood in the English language; the first two need little explanation:

- i) the indicative (making a direct statement as in *Helen is in trouble. She speaks several languages*);
- ii) the imperative (giving an order as in *Keep off the grass. Have a drink etc.*);
- iii) the subjunctive (expressing a wish or supposition etc. as in *I wish I were going*).

In modern English we use the subjunctive for certain hypothetical statements such as:

if I were you ...
I wish I were with you;

or for fixed forms such as:

so be it!
be that as it may
would that I could;

or in *that* clauses after words expressing command, hope, intention, wish etc. as in:

I ask that Helen see me as soon as possible.
I insist that my wishes be carried out.

The Gerund

I'm not even going to try to explain the gerund. You can read all about it in Fowler (1974), or in Strunk & White (1979). Briefly, Fowler says: 'it is variously describable as an *-ing* noun, or a verbal noun, or a verb equipped for noun-work, or the name of an action.' The two most common occurrences are gerund and participle and gerund and possessive.

Gerund and Participle

To quote from Fowler yet again: loving is a gerund in 'cannot help loving him.' It is a participle in 'a loving husband.' He cites the sentence below as containing a true participle:

Women having the vote share political power with men.

That is, only those women who have the vote ...
However, in the sentence

Women's having the vote reduces men's political power.

the subject is the verbal noun having the vote; i.e. *because* women have the vote, it reduces ... ; and women's is in the

possessive case. Which leads us to —
Gerund and Possessive

'The name of an action' is probably the easiest way to define this construction. The example above is a good one. The Oxford English Dictionary gives the following example:

His doing this is doubtful.

The action is contained in his doing. The his must be included for the sentence to make sense. You can't say: 'He doing this' or 'Him doing this'; neither is an English construction. The only way to avoid using the gerund here would be to re-write the sentence: 'It is doubtful if he did this' or 'We doubt that he did this'.

He did is equipped for noun-work by changing it to his doing.

Fowler then gives a delightful example of what can happen if you omit the possessive pronoun with a gerund construction. He explains that, apparently, it was a note written by a vicar to thank some members of his parish:

Grateful thanks to the three Musketeers who carried Mrs Pride home after breaking her leg on Wednesday (from a 'personal column', quoted by Punch, whose comment is 'Least they could do').

You would have to write 'after her breaking her leg', or 'after she broke her leg' (simple past tense).

Strunk & White explain the use of gerund and possessive very convincingly in the following.

- i) There was little prospect of the Senate accepting ... this compromise.
- ii) There was little prospect of the Senate's accepting... this compromise.

The first sentence they say 'is occasionally found, and has its defenders' but if you read the sentence with the emphasis on 'senate' as in

There was little prospect of the Senate [though perhaps not the House] accepting ... this compromise,
—

then it is misleading.

The second sentence on the other hand 'has to do not with the prospect of the Senate but with the prospect of accepting.' (Strunk & White).

PRONOUNS

Possessive

Its

Its is a possessive pronoun like *my* or *his* or *your*, as in *my pen, your paper* etc.; do not confuse it with *it's* which is a contracted form of *it is*.

Right

Its final resting place

It's blue (it is blue)

Wrong

It's final resting place
(It is final resting place?)

Its blue (Its blue what?)

Reflexive

These are pronouns ending in *-self* or *-selves*: *myself, yourself, herself* and so on, and many people use them when they want to avoid deciding between *I* or *me*, *she* or *her* etc. Reflexive pronouns identify object with subject.

Right:

He is above himself [I'm being polite here].

He should be ashamed of himself.

I must see for myself.

They came by themselves.

The following are examples of the wrong use of the reflexive pronoun.

Come to lunch with Helen and myself.

Helen and myself are off to lunch.

In the first example you would never say 'Come to lunch with myself' would you? So, in this kind of sentence test it by leaving out phrases like 'with Helen'. To test the second example, put it in the singular, as in 'I am off to lunch'. Again, you would never say 'Myself is off to lunch'.

So, write the sentences correctly.

Come to lunch with Helen and me.

Helen and I are off to lunch.

Subject & Object

These are *I, you, they, he* etc (subject); *me, them, her* etc. (object).

Right

Between you and me
Helen and I would like to go

Come with Helen and me

It was I who called
(strictly correct but see below)

Wrong

Between you and I
Helen and me would like to go

Come with Helen and I

It was me who called

The verb *to be*, i.e. *am, are, is, was* etc. when followed by a pronoun, is always followed by a subject pronoun; i.e. *I, she, they* etc., at least in print. To quote Fowler (1974) on this point:

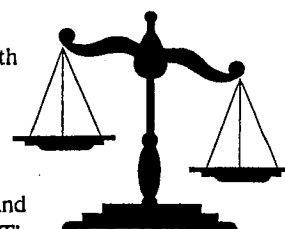
The rule ... is often disregarded in talk (It wasn't me), but should be observed in print, except where it would be unnatural in dialogue.

In other words, *it was me* is acceptable in spoken English.

Prepositions (*among, by, for, from, to, with* etc.), when followed by a pronoun, are always followed by an object pronoun; i.e. *me, her, him, them* etc.

PARALLEL CONSTRUCTIONS

When you use one sentence to express 'like' ideas, balance both ideas by using the same grammatical construction. To quote Strunk & White: 'This principle ... requires that expressions similar in content and function be outwardly similar. The likeness of form enables the reader to recognize more readily the likeness of content and function.' Strunk & White also stress that unskillful writers violate this principle for the sake of variation.



The following examples are from Windschuttle & Windschuttle (1988):

not parallel

Management is concerned about the high cost of labour, and also worrying is the level of absenteeism.

parallel

Management is concerned about the high cost of labour, and worried about the level of absenteeism.

not parallel

Please employ someone who can supervise the tradespeople and to keep the books.

parallel

Please employ someone to supervise the tradespeople and [to] keep the books

or

Please employ someone who can supervise the tradespeople and [who can] keep the books.

Strunk & White give further examples of applying the principle of parallel construction: '...an article or a preposition applying to all members of a series must either be used only before the first term or else repeated before each term.' The following illustrates what is meant:

not parallel

The French, the Italians, Spanish and Portuguese ...

parallel

The French, the Italians, the Spanish, and the Portuguese ...

not parallel

in spring, summer, or in winter

parallel

in spring, summer, or winter or: in spring, in summer, or in winter.

Also, some words are associated with a particular preposition in certain idiomatic uses — such as 'disagree with', 'laugh at', 'together with' etc. Strunk & White give the following example:

not parallel

His speech was marked by disagreement and scorn for his opponent's position.

'Disagreement' and 'scorn' both relate to 'his opponent's position'. But if you omit 'and scorn' the sentence would read 'His speech ... disagreement for ...' which is not used in English; i.e. it is not an English idiom.

parallel

His speech was marked by disagreement with and scorn for his opponent's position.

If I were writing the above sentence I'd put a comma after 'with' and one after 'for' (see PUNCTUATION, p. 17).

KEEPING RELATED WORDS TOGETHER

The Misplaced Modifier

Most of us recognise a misplaced modifier when we see one. Below are a few favourites.

Seconds for sale: pyjamas for men with tiny flaws.
I enjoy your magazine almost as much as my husband.
Shoes are required to eat in the restaurant (even though they're not hungry?)
Dogs must be carried on the escalator (what if you haven't got a dog?)
If swallowed, seek medical advice (too late).

and one from Strunk & White:

New York's first commercial human-sperm bank opened Friday with semen samples from 18 men frozen in a stainless steel tank.

'The reader's heart goes out to those eighteen poor fellows frozen in a steel tank.' (Strunk & White).

The Dangling Participle

This is not so easy to recognise. Below are a few examples.

Having switched off the power, the bulb can be safely replaced.

(It isn't the bulb which switched off the power.)

Instead, write:

Having switched off the power, you can now safely replace the bulb.

or

Once the power is switched off, the bulb can be safely replaced.

(This is an example of the passive voice being put to good use.)

Here are a few more. Try fixing them.

Wondering what to do, the clock struck twelve.

Lacking a jack, the flat tyre could not be replaced.

Withstanding hard knocks, I can strongly recommend this plastic.

Looking through a powerful telescope, Halley's Comet came into view.

To check whether you have a dangling participle, move the opening phrase to the middle of the sentence as in: 'The bulb, having switched off the power, can be safely replaced', or 'The clock, wondering what to do, struck twelve.' It's obviously wrong.

Solutions

While I was wondering what to do, the clock struck twelve. We could not replace the flat tyre because we didn't have a jack.

I can strongly recommend this plastic to withstand hard knocks.

Halley's Comet came into view while I was looking through a powerful telescope.

PLEONASMS AND TAUTOLOGY

Pleonasms

A pleonasm is when you use more words than you need to give the sense intended — you don't need to carry surplus baggage.



Pleonasms

if and when
unless and until
in any shape or form
more preferable.

A pleonasm is easy to spot. In the following sentences you can omit either *unless* or *until*, *deserve* or *and should get* without diminishing the meaning:

Unless and until I get a pay rise, I'm not going to co-operate.

Children deserve and should get quality education.

A writer who uses pleonasms is open to suspicion. Does he or she like wordiness for its own sake? Or, as Fowler (1974) puts it: '...[is the writer] a timid swordsman who thinks he will be safer with a second sword in his left hand'?

Fowler makes some kind of case for the occasional legitimacy of *if and when* but I can't, except by separating them within a sentence. He goes on to say that such phrases 'are often resorted to deliberately for rhetorical effect ...'. Certainly, as a colleague (Dr Geoffrey James) pointed out, Jim Hacker (*Yes, Minister*) uses the pleonasm to give Sir Humphrey cause for worry. Not only does he prevaricate with 'If, and when, ...' but he inserts verbal commas for extra emphasis. On the other hand, *when or if* has some claim to legitimacy. The 'or if' indicates that the writer, though expecting one result, is still in doubt.

Tautologies

A tautology is saying the same thing twice using different words (more baggage again) as in the box below.

Tautologies

continuing maintenance
classroom situation
weather conditions
new innovations
paid professionals.

Tautology is just as easy to spot as pleonasm. Whereas you *can* delete either of the words in a pleonasm and keep the sentence valid, you can't in tautology:

She had problems in the classroom situation.

You can delete *situation*, but you can't delete *classroom* and keep the sense of the sentence.

SOME COMMON ERRORS

Misusing 'However'

The word '*however*' is not a conjunction. In other words it should not be used to join two clauses: nor should '*instead*', '*alternatively*', '*similarly*', or '*rather*'. Words such as '*however*' can be used after semi-colons, colons and full stops — and as a qualifier as in: *I, however, am not so sure.*

Wrong:

I wanted to go, however I was too busy.

Right:

I wanted to go but I was too busy.

I wanted to go because I was bored.

I wanted to go. However, I was too busy.

'But' and 'because' ARE conjunctions.

Using Nouns Adopted from Greek or Latin

The most common mistake here is using the plural form of such nouns when you should use the singular. For example:

Singular	Plural
criterion	criteria
datum	data
medium	media
phenomenon	phenomena
radius	radii

A single criterion (NOT criterium!), many criteria. The print medium / the TV and radio media. Many data / a single datum. And remember, when you use *data*, follow with a plural verb, as in the data *are*, NOT the data *is* (although I believe an exception is made in the world of computing).

Putting 'Only' in the Wrong Place

Be careful where you put the word 'only'. It can alter the meaning of your sentence, as shown in the following:

Only Tom got the letter (i.e. nobody else did).
Tom only got the letter (i.e. he didn't answer it).
Tom got only the letter (i.e. he got nothing else but the letter).
I read the other day of a man who *only* died a week ago. (What more did he have to do? Fowler, 1974.)
He wants to only play football this winter (i.e. not to watch it).

Fowler emphasises that the rules are not strict but warns against splitting an infinitive with *only*. (For an explanation of the split infinitive, see STYLE, p. 19.)

PUNCTUATION

Contents

The hyphen
The comma
The colon
The semi-colon

THE HYPHEN

'... the hyphen is not an ornament but an aid to being understood.' (Fowler, 1974).

My favourite example of when a hyphen should have been used is the booklet: *The One Minute Manager*, by Drs Blanchard and Johnson. The contents dictate that the authors indeed mean the 'one-minute manager' — (note the hyphen between 'one' and 'minute') although the cover has *The One Minute Manager*, without the hyphen.

In other words, without the hyphen, the booklet could be about *The One Minute* (pronounced 'mynute') *Manager*.

Fowler gives some other good examples.

Leave the hyphen out of the phrase 'a little-used car' and you get 'a little used car'.
'The tailor-made clothes' becomes 'the tailor made clothes' (which is what tailors do).

Strunk & White (1979) describe what happened after the merger of two newspapers in Chattanooga: the *News* and the *Free Press*. Someone inserted a hyphen instead of a long dash and the result was *The Chattanooga News-Free Press* — not exactly the kind of image a newspaper would want to project.

Hyphens should also be used to change the meaning of a word as in the following.

He will recount the story later.
She will re-count the votes later.

But there are few fixed conventions regarding hyphens. Authorities such as the Australian Government's *Style Manual* (1994)¹ agree more or less on a few underlying principles:

- restrict the use of hyphens as far as possible;
- the better established the formation, the less need there is for a hyphen to link its components.

But please note: when writing papers for different journals, check to see what convention the editors use. e.g. *Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Journal* and *Nature* use as follows:

a white-dwarf star (i.e. white-dwarf is used to describe the star; i.e. it acts as an adjective);

the 64-m Parkes telescope ('64-m' is the adjective or adjectival phrase);

but

the star is a white dwarf.
the Parkes telescope is 64 m in diameter.

On the other hand, *The Astrophysical Journal* does *not* use a hyphen in a phrase such as 'the 64 m Parkes telescope', but *does* use it as in 'a white-dwarf star'. You can't win 'em all but, strictly speaking, the first two journals are correct.

THE COMMA

Commas play a vital role. In long sentences, they separate information into readable units. In the following examples, the comma is either missing or in the wrong place, or used when it shouldn't be.

- a) Before the last Ice Age ended ten thousand years ago
Tasmania was joined to the mainland.

This is a longish sentence and you find yourself having to read it twice to get the sense. If you put a comma after 'ago', the sentence is then neatly divided into two readable parts:

- b) Before the last Ice Age ended ten thousand years ago,
Tasmania was joined to the mainland.
- a) It is impossible and indeed, unwise, to lay down
hard-and-fast rules on the subject of commas.

Here the pairs of commas that insert the parenthetical 'unwise' are in the wrong place. To test this, look to see if the sentence on either side of the commas makes sense: It is impossible and indeed to lay down ... rules is nonsense. The commas should be after impossible and after unwise.

The test: It is impossible to lay down hard-and-fast rules ... (makes perfect sense).

- a) Please write down your name, address, age, sex and housing needs.

This sentence shows what can happen by leaving out the comma in a series. I don't think the writer really wanted to know the person's sex needs. So, use the comma after the last noun in a series if there is any chance of ambiguity.

- b) Please write down your name, address, age, sex, and housing needs.

If the series has no ambiguity however, the tendency today is to leave it out, as in: red, white and blue.

- a) She waited a moment, and then spoke quietly.

This is an example of inserting an unnecessary comma. It breaks the flow of the sentence.

- b) She waited a moment and then spoke quietly.

- a) I lent him a pen last week, he gave it back today.

This is an example of using a comma to join two sentences. Don't; use a semi-colon (see below under SEMI-COLON).

THE COLON

The Australian Government Publishing Service's *Style Manual* describes the colon as a device which introduces a word or phrase etc. that explains, enlarges, or summarizes (AGPS 1994) as in the examples below.

There was only one thing to do: leave.
We were stunned: no-one had come to meet us.

It is also used before making a list, as in the following (see also *dot points*, p. 11).

You will need to take the following items:

- a change of clothes,
- enough food for two days,
- a warm sleeping bag,
- a good tent.

Note that each item on the list, because it is part of the lead-in sentence, begins with a lower case letter and, because each item is a simple phrase, it ends with a comma except for the last which ends the sentence with a full stop (see also *dot points* p. 11).

The colon is also used to introduce a quotation or reported speech. For example:

We were disturbed at Helen's reply: 'There must be a better way of doing this.'

But if the introduction is less formal:

Helen said, 'There must be a better way of doing this.'

then a simple comma will do.

THE SEMI-COLON

"The semicolon separates parts of a sentence that require a stronger break than that marked by a comma but are too closely related to be broken into separate sentences." (AGPS 1994) — as in the following.

You are right; we shall never agree.

They are also used to separate clauses or phrases already containing commas — as in the following example taken from AGPS (1994).

The practice of medicine is an art, not a trade; a calling, not a business ...

Use semicolons when you have a run-on list consisting of sentences rather than phrases (see also *dot points*, p. 11).

You will need to take the following:

- a change of clothes, because you are likely to get wet;
- enough food for two days in case we are marooned somewhere;
- a warm sleeping bag because it gets very cold at night;
- a good tent.

You may remember that in the section on Grammar, I mentioned that 'however' was not a conjunction. Semi-colons (unless a full stop is called for) should be used to precede clauses introduced by such words. As well as 'however', these words include 'accordingly', 'namely', 'nevertheless', 'therefore', 'that is', and 'thus'.

We wanted to go; however, he wanted to stay.
He was very rich; nevertheless he refused to pay.

If you are in any doubt about punctuation, consult the AGPS Style Manual.

¹ The AGPS Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers (1994) goes into great detail when explaining punctuation. Consult it if you want to know more than is given here.

STYLE

Contents

Passive v. active voice (see also AUTHORSHIP p. 9)
Smothered verbs
Opening and closing a sentence
Split infinitives
Words: trendy words; 'posh' words & meaningless phrases; 'like' words

PASSIVE V. ACTIVE VOICE

This is unquestionably a matter of style. The passive voice is not wrong; the active voice is preferable except in very few circumstances, such as those described on p. 9, and when we do not know, or do not want to say, who did what. For this reason I will repeat the sentence given on p. 9 because it is generally unacceptable.

Measurements of the diameter of the disk were performed by Smith & Jones (1992) using the large antenna.

You know who did what and have no reasons for not stating it, so write the sentence in the active.

Smith & Jones (1992) used the large antenna to measure the diameter of the disk.

On the other hand, you would not write:

Shakespeare published his sonnets in book form in 1609.

because Shakespeare did not publish his sonnets. They were meant for private circulation only, among friends. So, you would be forced in this case to use the passive.

Shakespeare's sonnets were published in book form in 1609.

You would also use the passive voice if you want to focus attention on the object rather than on the subject of a sentence.

Harry was given a tricycle for Xmas (i.e. not a bicycle as he had wished for).

The man was struck on the head.

But remember, using the passive voice too much leads to more mistakes in grammar, turgid prose, and misunderstanding. See also SMOTHERED VERBS below.

Beware of Microsoft Word's Grammar Check; it throws up every use of the passive as dubious!

SMOTHERED VERBS

These are closely linked to the passive voice and are very common in technical writing. A smothered verb is an abstract noun used instead of a verb; the abstract nouns usually end in *-ance*, *-ence*, *-ion*, *-ment*.

The following are examples of sentences first with the verb smothered and then unsmothered:

Smothered

Measurements of the diameter of the disk were performed by Smith & Jones (1992) using the large antenna.

Unsmothered

Smith & Jones (1992) used the large antenna to measure the diameter of the disk.

Smothered

Jim performed the inspection of the antenna yesterday, but no flaws were detectable.

Unsmothered

Jim inspected the antenna yesterday but detected no flaws.

In other words, by unsmothering your verbs, you have done two things: transformed abstract nouns '*measurements*', '*inspection*', '*detectable*' into active verbs '*to measure*', '*inspected*', '*detected*' and passive into active sentences.

If you want to avoid too much 'smothering' count the number of times you have used 'of' in your paper then see how many you can get rid of.

.....
"The question is," said Alice, "whether you can make words mean so many different things."

"The question is," said Humpty Dumpty, "which is to be master — that's all."

Alice was too much puzzled to say anything; so after a minute Humpty Dumpty began again. "They have a temper, some of them — particularly verbs: they're the proudest — adjectives you can do anything with, but not verbs ..."

Lewis Carroll, *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*

OPENING AND CLOSING A SENTENCE

You were probably taught not to start a sentence with '*but*' or '*yet*' or '*and*' etc. But, doing so is not 'wrong' and can often be very effective.

Using '*but*' or '*yet*' to start a sentence is especially useful when giving talks. They are called 'discourse markers', and imply "Now for something completely different!" For example:

Nothing had been tampered with. But, the window was wide open and ...

The '*but*' followed by a comma alerts the listener/reader to the narrator's suspicions that all is not as it should be.

You were probably also taught not to end a sentence with a preposition: '*with*', '*from*', '*for*' etc.

This is also not 'wrong'. It is often much clearer and less clumsy to say, for example, people we do business with rather than people with whom we do business — and sounds less pompous. Winston Churchill, angered at having one of his speeches altered to conform to this so-called 'rule', made the following retort:

This is an impertinence up with which I will not put.

thus successfully illustrating the absurdity of the 'rule'.

SPLIT INFINITIVES

The infinitive bears no inflection for tense, person, number or anything else, as in

eat, sleep, act, swim (e.g. eats is inflected; i.e. the s denotes singular number).

You have to eat — 'eat' is unmarked by person, number etc. I eat — 'eat' is marked for present tense, first-person, singular number.

For this reason, according to Bernard (1975):

... a custom has grown up of saying that the infinitive has 'to' in it; that the infinitive is 'to swim' ... This is an attempt to create a difference which *can be easily seen and grasped*.

The split infinitive therefore is where a word comes between to and the true infinitive.

Don't split an infinitive if the result is an inelegant sentence, as in:

I wanted to above all be near her.

This sounds clumsy. Write instead:

I wanted above all to be near her,
or
Above all, I wanted to be near her.

But by all means split one if it's not clumsy, as in:

to gladly die
to proudly stand.

Speech is littered with split infinitives and mostly they sound just fine.

WORDS

Winston Churchill once wrote: "Short words are best; and old words, when short, are best of all."

'Posh' Words and Meaningless Phrases

Try to avoid these. Look at the box below. Are you guilty?

Do you use	instead of?
acquaint	tell
attempt	try
by using, by the use of	with
commence	begin or start
conceptualise	imagine, understand
demonstrates	shows
employ	use (you employ people only)
endeavour	try
eventuate	happen
implement	do
in the event that	if
is indicative of	shows
make use of	use
momentarily	soon
partially	partly
passed away	died
performed	did, made
possess	have
presently	soon or now
prior to	before
provided that	if
purchase	buy
request	ask
require	need
scenario*	scene, model, theory, concept
sufficient	enough
terminate	end
until such time as	until
utilisation (noun)	use
utilise (verb)	use

*Please, NEVER use *worst-case scenario*. The *worst case* will do nicely, or *at worst* depending on the sentence. *Scenario* does not mean *scene*. People who use *scenario* generally mean 'situation', 'theory' or 'model' (see p. 22). Also, do NOT use empty qualifiers such as *quite*, *rather*, *somewhat* with words like *unique*, *superb*, *perfect*; something is either unique or it isn't, *perfect* or *imperfect* etc.

Overused Trendy (or 'Buzz') Words

instead of	use
downsize	reduce
impact *	effect
impact on	affect
mission	aim
ongoing	continuing/going on
outreach (verb)	reach out
trial (verb)	test
target (verb)	aim

* **impact** is fine when you really mean it — as in a collision for example. But, **impact** is not a verb. It can't do anything to anyone and so **impact on** should be avoided. Also, **ongoing**, which seems to have caught on everywhere, may be shorter than **continuing** but, since the verb **to ongo** does not exist, I can see little reason for adopting it.

'Like' Words

Beware of words that look or sound similar. The following are some of the most common.

alternately v. alternatively

(alternately means *by turns*; alternatively means *a possibility of one out of two or more things*).

disinterested v. uninterested

(disinterested means *free from personal bias*; uninterested means simply *NOT interested*).

diffuse v. defuse

(diffuse as an adjective means *spread out* or *not concentrated*. As a verb it means *to send forth*, as in gases; defuse means literally *to remove the fuse*, from a bomb e.g., or socially, *to calm a potentially touchy situation*).

phased v. fazed

(phased has several meanings. It is a *stage of change* or *development*. The term *in phase*, in telecommunications e.g., corresponds to *phase angles between two signals of 0°* (or 360°); fazed is a colloquial term and is used to mean *disturbed* or *worried* or *discomfited*).

bemused v. amused

bemused does NOT mean mildly amused

(bemused means *confused*, *stupefied*; it can also mean *preoccupied*; amused needs no explanation).

dissemble v. disassemble

(dissemble means to *disguise, conceal* the real nature of something as, e.g., in pretending; disassemble is used in the sense of taking apart a machine).

fortunate v. fortuitous

(fortunate means *lucky*; fortuitous means *by chance* or *accidental*).

born v. borne

(born means being *brought forth by birth*; borne is the past participle of the verb *to bear* and is used e.g. in the sense of putting up with something, as in *suffering*, or in the sense of *bearing* gifts, weights etc., or in being *airborne*).

scenario v. scene

(scenario means an *outline of a plot of a work of drama ... or of a manuscript* etc.; scene means the *place where any action occurs, or a situation*).

And finally, for all aspiring authors, especially of scientific or technical papers, beware of:

infer v. imply

(infer means *deduce* or *conclude*; imply means *hint, suggest, signify*).

Use a dictionary instead of repeating someone else's mistake.

.....●.....

REFERENCES

Contents

The Vancouver method
 in the text
 in the reference list
The Harvard method
 in the text
 in the reference list
Journal abbreviations.

The two most common methods of citing references in scientific or technical papers are the Vancouver and the Harvard. The Vancouver system is straightforward and needs little explanation. The Harvard can be tricky, though it is more widely used.

THE VANCOUVER (OR NUMBERING) SYSTEM

This system is used by many medical and engineering journals and by the journal *Nature*.

In the Text

Citations are numbered sequentially (usually in superscript, but sometimes in square brackets) as in:

It has been shown in [1] ... or Smith² has shown ...

In the Reference List

Citations are listed numerically in the order of your citations in the text, as follows:

1. Jones, A. B. et al. Title of the article, Journal, Vol., pp., year.
2. Smith, C. D. etc.

THE HARVARD (OR AUTHOR-DATE) SYSTEM

In astronomy journals, this is the most commonly used system of citing references. It makes cross-checking more accurate and because they are listed alphabetically in the reference list, it makes finding a reference to a particular author much easier. However, ordering such references can be a bit tricky. They are cited as follows:

In the Text

References cited in the text are an integral part of the sentence, as in the following examples:

Allen & Jones (1981) used this method ...
Smith (1996) used this method ...
The problems were solved in 1978 (Allen & Simpson 1979; Allen, Jones & Simpson 1979). So ...

Do not write something like (*Price et al. 1992*) show that ...; In this case only '1992' should be in brackets.

Note: for many journals three authors are named when cited for the first time; thereafter *et al.* is used.

In the Reference List

References are listed alphabetically by author. Papers by the same author are listed as follows:

- i) single author (ordered by date of publication);
- ii) author plus one co-author, ordered alphabetically then by date of publication,
- iii) author plus two or more co-authors, ordered alphabetically by first author then by date of publication.

Sample Reference List (Harvard system)

Allen A.B. (1982). *ApJ*, 252, 64
Allen A.B. (1984) ...
Allen A.B., Jones B.C. (1981) ...
Allen A.B., Simpson X.Y. (1979) ...
Allen A.B., Jones B.C., Simpson X.Y. (1979) ...
Allen A.B., Fraser O.J., Jones B.C., Simpson X.Y.
 (1980) ...
Bennett X.X., Hogg T. (1960) ...
Bennett X.X., Fraser O.J., Simpson X.Y. (1959) ...
de Vaucouleurs J. (1976) ...

and so on.

If there are more than 8 authors, name the first author followed by *et al.* (for most journals).

Note: If an author publishes two or more papers in the same year, the year of publication is followed by *a, b* etc. This is also true for two or more authors when the first author is the same, as in Smith & Jones (1995*a*; 1995*b*) or (1995*a, b*).

Read your paper carefully, checking citations in the text against those in your reference list.

When compiling a reference list it is important that it be accurate. The safest way is to compile your references from photocopies of the first page of the actual paper.

ABBREVIATIONS

In a reference list, the titles of journals are usually abbreviated. I am most familiar with astronomy journals which, after many years, now use the same abbreviations. These have been ratified by the International Astronomical Union (IAU) and can be obtained from the IAU or found in specific issues of each astronomical journal. Like *Instructions to Authors*, this is usually in the first issue of a new volume, or the last issue of the year. The shaded box gives abbreviations for some astronomical journals.

Journal Abbreviations

ARA&A	Annual Review of Astronomy & Astrophysics
AJ	Astronomical Journal
A&A	Astronomy & Astrophysics
A&AS	Astronomy & Astrophysics Suppl. Ser.
ApJ	Astrophysical Journal
ApJS	Astrophysical Journal Suppl. Ser.
BAAS	Bulletin of the American Astronomical Society
PASA	Publications of the Astronomical Society of Australia
PASJ	Publications of the Astronomical Society of Japan
MNRAS	Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society

Most medical and related journals stipulate that abbreviations should conform to the *Index Medicus* which should be available in most medical libraries. Other journals usually set out their preferred abbreviations in their *Instructions to Authors* (see p. 27). Please adhere to these faithfully — not only by using the correct abbreviations but also the journal's preferred style of citing references (see also CAPITALS p. 26).

If you can't find *Instructions to Authors*, remember that you can always consult a recent issue of any journal and see how it cites its references.

A MISCELLANY

Contents

Abstract
Figures & Tables
SI units
Capitals.

ABSTRACT

The abstract is one of the most important parts of a paper. If you can't get people to read your abstract, they won't read your paper. Young (1989) points out that too many abstracts are merely descriptive, with phrases such as is described, is discussed added to each entry. 'They tease rather than inform', he says. The abstract should be a short summary of your paper; in other words it should be able to stand alone. Avoid, if you can, terms that are too technical, abbreviations (unless they are very well known) and references. Some journals will accept references in the abstract but not dates.

A good information abstract may state the ... procedure you have carried out, your purpose in doing it, your results, and your conclusions or recommendations. Most abstracts are limited to one paragraph and must therefore be constructed with care.
(Young 1989)

I will include Young's examples first of a descriptive, then of an informative, abstract:

- i) Saturable dyes for laser Q switches are found to degrade with time. The cause of this degradation is discussed and a possible solution is proposed.
- ii) Saturable dyes for laser Q switches degrade with time. The blue light from the flashlamp causes the degradation of the dye, and the dye's life may be extended by replacing the cell's windows with red filters.

Not only is the second the better abstract, but it is also written in simple, active, sentences.

FIGURES & TABLES

Figures and Tables should be submitted in camera-ready form (or on diskette).

Figures

Figures should also be submitted on separate pages, preceded by a page or pages containing the captions.

Photocopies of line drawings are usually good enough to be reproduced in the journal, but original colour or grey-scale images should be provided when required. Colour photographs are expensive to reproduce and so journals will charge accordingly. So, bear in mind who is paying the page charges (if any).

When referring to figures in the text, they can usually be abbreviated to 'Fig. 1' or 'Figs 2 and 3', except at the beginning of a sentence (unless a journal's *Instructions to Authors* decree otherwise). Note the capital 'F'; this use of capitals applies also when referring to Sections of your paper. If you are referring to another paper however, use lower case 'f' for figure and lower case 's' for section, as in: 'This can be seen clearly in Smith & Jones (1992, fig. 2)' (see also CAPITALS in this Section).

Tables

Check the style of the journal to which you are submitting your paper and tailor your Tables accordingly. Tables should always be numbered, each set out on a separate page or pages and accompanied (usually at the top) by a caption. Notes to Tables should be set out immediately underneath the Table using (a), (b), (c) etc.

SI UNITS¹

SI stands for le Système International d'Unités (The International System of Units), and is now mandatory for almost all scientific and technical journals. The following are fairly common:

Right	Wrong
km s ⁻¹	km/s
mJy beam ⁻¹	mJy/beam
3 s	3 sec or seconds
5 min	5 mins or minutes
6 yr	6 yrs or years
GHz	Ghz
kHz	KHz and so on.

If you want to write *years*, for example, write *six years*, not *6 years*.

Note that, whereas most astronomy journals accept Ångström (Å), the tendency now is to use the correct SI unit: nm (nanometre).

CAPITALS

Often, people tend to use capitals where they are not appropriate. The following are the cases where words should start with a capital; in all other cases lower case is appropriate:

- the first word of a new sentence (except if the previous sentence was terminated by ';' or ':');
- the personal pronoun, 'I';
- proper nouns, and adjectives derived from proper nouns (e.g. 'the fast Fourier transform', 'a Gaussian distribution', 'Hanning smoothed');
- acronyms (e.g. FFT, even though in full it is written 'fast Fourier transform' NOT 'Fast Fourier Transform');
- internal cross references (e.g. 'c.f. Fig. 3'; 'as described in Section 2'; 'the data in Table 1 show ...'; 'from Equation 1, we can deduce ...'). Note, however, that this does not apply to external cross references (e.g. 'In figure 5 of Smith & Jones (1984) ...');
- headings, where the nouns and verbs may be capitalised. But, when writing the title of an article in a reference list, the capitalisation should be conventional.

There are special rules for legal documents which need not concern us here.

¹ Lists of SI units can be found in good scientific and technical dictionaries (see Bibliography), and in the booklet *SI The International System of Units* (see Bibliography).



CHECKLIST

Contents

What to look out for
Submitting your paper

WHAT TO LOOK OUT FOR

- ☑ If you are submitting your paper to a refereed journal, have you read the *Instructions to Authors* carefully? (See note below.)
- ☑ Is the style of writing consistent throughout?
- ☑ Is the spelling convention consistent throughout?
- ☑ Is the spelling itself consistent?
- ☑ Is the punctuation consistent? For instance, if you use a hyphen for, say, multi-beam, have you used it throughout?
- ☑ Have you read your paper closely for unintended meanings or ambiguities?
- ☑ Have you used SI units throughout?
- ☑ Are all references that are cited in the text, listed in the Reference List?
- ☑ Conversely, are all references that are listed in the Reference List, cited in the text?
- ☑ Are your references correctly cited in the text and in the Reference list?
- ☑ Are your references correctly ordered in the Reference List?
- ☑ Does your style of citing and listing references conform to the style of the journal you are writing for?
- ☑ Have you numbered your equations?
- ☑ Have you given your Tables numbers and captions?
- ☑ Does your style of producing Tables conform to that of the journal you are writing for?
- ☑ Are your Figures accurately labelled to match your Figure captions?
- ☑ HAVE YOU WRITTEN AN ABSTRACT?

SUBMITTING YOUR PAPER

All refereed journals issue *Instructions to Authors*. It is the authors' responsibility to follow them; it is also courteous to do so. If you have difficulty locating them (they are often printed in the first issue of a year (or Volume) — or the last — but sometimes not) send a facsimile, or an electronic mail message, to the journal and ask where to find their *Instructions*. The IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, USA) issues a general set of instructions which is available on request. Also, many journals have style files so that you can format your paper in the style of the journal. These journals also encourage you to submit your paper on diskette, but usually only after the paper has been reviewed and accepted for publication.

Remember what I said before: if all else fails, look at a recent issue of the journal and see (at least) how it cites its references and produces its Tables.

If you are submitting hard copy most journals prefer more than one copy. Please make sure that at least one copy (loosely termed the 'original') is double-spaced on one side of the paper only. Begin your reference list on a new page, have one Table to a page, and one Figure to a page; Figure captions should be on a separate page and numbered.

Bibliography

Bernard, J. R. L.-B. *A Short guide to Traditional Grammar*. Sydney University Press, 1975.

Fowler, H. W. *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, 2nd ed., rev., Oxford University Press, 1974.

Jarvie, Gordon. *Bloomsbury Grammar Guide*, Bloomsbury, 1993.

Moses, Ingrid. *Supervising Postgraduates*, (Green Guides no. 3), HERDSA, 1985.

Peters, Pam. *The Cambridge Australian English Style Guide*, Cambridge University Press, 1995.

Scientific Style and Format: the CBE Manual for Authors, Editors, and Publishers. 6th ed., Style Manual Committee, Council of Biology Editors, Cambridge University Press, 1994.

SI: the International System of Units, eds Chester H. Page & Paul Vigoureux, 3rd ed., London, National Physical Laboratory, 1977.

Strunk, William & White, E.B. *The Elements of Style*, 3rd ed., New York, Macmillan, 1979.

Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers, 5th ed., Australian Government Publishing Service, 1994.

Windschuttle, K. & Windschuttle, E. *Writing, Researching, Communicating: Communication Skills for the Information Age*. Sydney, McGraw-Hill, 1988.

Young, Matt. *The Technical Writer's Handbook*, Mill Valley, California, University Science Books, 1989.

Check the draft

Index

ABSTRACT	25
AUTHORSHIP	9
Multiple authors	9
Sole authors	9
BIBLIOGRAPHY	29
CAPITALS	26
CHECKLIST	27
FIGURES	25
GRAMMAR	11
Equations and 'dot' points	11
Gerund	12
<i>However</i> , how and how not to use (includes e.g. <i>alternatively, rather, thus, therefore</i> etc.)	15
<i>I</i> or <i>me</i> ? see Pronouns	
<i>Its</i> or <i>it's</i> ? see Pronouns	
Misplaced modifiers & dangling participles	14
<i>Myself</i> or <i>me</i> ? <i>Myself</i> or <i>I</i> ? see Pronouns	
<i>Only</i> : where to put it?	16
Parallel constructions	13
Pleonasms & tautologies	15
Pronouns	13
Singular & plurals (Latin/Greek origin)	16
Subjunctive	11
Tautology, see Pleonasms	
INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS	7, 25, 27
PUNCTUATION	17
Colon	18
Comma	17
Hyphen	17
Semi-colon	18
REFERENCES	23
Author-date system (Harvard)	23
Journal abbreviations	24
Numbering system (Vancouver)	23
Reference list, compiling	23

SI UNITS	26
SPELLING	10
Words ending in <i>-ise</i> and <i>ize</i> , which ending to use?	10
STYLE	19
<i>And & but</i> to start a sentence	20
<i>For & with</i> to end a sentence	20
Passive v. active voice	9, 19
Verbs, smothered	19
Words	21
trendy	21
meaningless phrases	21
‘like’	21
SUBMITTING YOUR PAPER	27
TABLES	25

Notes

