Home Office Science – Style Guide

Report writing – key points

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Do** | **Don’t** |
| Be clear and direct.  Ensure the report is clearly structured and signposted – not all readers will read the entire report.  Make sure there is a full but succinct account of the methods employed.  Keep sentences short.  Keep the text flowing between paragraphs.  Keep the tense consistent throughout the report.  Where there is a clear choice, use the active voice rather than the passive.  Use the simpler word – ‘begin’ rather than ‘commence’, ‘main’ rather than ‘principal’, ‘because’ rather than ‘by virtue of the fact that’. See the Plain English Campaign’s [A–Z of alternative words](http://www.plainenglish.co.uk/files/alternative.pdf).  Refer to tables and figures by number, for example Table 2, not as ‘above’, ‘below’ or ‘overleaf’ as formatting may change the pagination.  Try to keep acronyms and abbreviations to a minimum but use if the term or organisation is referred to more than once in quick succession or more than, say, three times in the report. Avoid using the same word or phrase more than once in the same sentence.  Keep tables within text margins. | Assume that all readers will be familiar with the subject of your report.  Assume that all readers will be based in the UK or are native English-speakers.  Use jargon. Where this is unavoidable, explain the term the first time you use it.  Use complex cross-referencing.  Change style – this can be a problem where there is more than one author.  Use same font or line/paragraph spacing in tables as in the text when another format gives a better layout.  Use unnecessary capitals – see later in this guide. |

Guide to house style

A or an?

Before abbreviations and acronyms the use of ‘a’ or ‘an’ depends on pronunciation, not spelling – for example, ‘an MP’ but ‘a UN adviser’.

Abbreviations and acronyms

Write out abbreviations and acronyms in full the first time they occur in the text, followed by the abbreviation in brackets – Basic Command Unit (BCU). You can then use the abbreviation throughout the text, including in headings. In a long report with long chapters spell out the abbreviation the first time it is used in each chapter.

There is generally no need to write out common abbreviations, such as BBC and DNA, unless you are writing for readers not based in the UK who might not be familiar with particular terms.

Omit full stops in abbreviations with more than one capital letter – BCU *not* B.C.U.

Omit full stops after contractions such as Dr. and Mr.

Avoid the use of an apostrophe in the plural: OGDs not OGD’s (unless used as a possessive – see “Apostrophes”).

Accessibility

*Links*

The wording of a link needs to make sense when displayed out of context so that it is meaningful to people using screen-readers.

Never use ‘click here’ as it means nothing when read out of context.

Do not use an author’s name as the wording for a link to the references or bibliography. Again this means nothing to people using screen-readers. The title of the reference should form the link.

Ages

Use hyphens for age groups (for example 18-year-olds or 16- to 24-year-olds).

Don't use hyphens when referring to ages (for example, 18 years old or 16 to 24 years old).

Write 40s not forties (remember there is no apostrophe before the 's').

Ampersand (&)

Do not use an ampersand in place of ‘and’. The only exceptions are:

* when there is not enough room in a table or figure to write ‘and’ (but be consistent within the table and between comparable tables);
* when an ampersand is part of a company’s name;
* in abbreviations in which it is common to do so (e.g. R&D, H&S); and
* in reference lists and in journal titles.

Americanisms

Don’t use Americanisms. You ‘fill in’ a form, not ‘fill out’ a form.

Exceptions include where it’s part of a specific name, e.g. ‘4th Mechanized Brigade’.

HOS style is to use an ‘s’ not a ‘z’, in words such as organise.

Annex or Appendix

An annex and an appendix are both forms of additions to a main document.

The aim of an appendix is to add greater details, data, graphics and examples to help the reader better understand the main document. It is generally written by the same author.

An annex is a standalone document which can be considered without the main document. It can be written by a different author.

Apostrophes

Use apostrophes to show that:

* something belongs to someone or something else – for example, the practitioner’s views. The apostrophe follows the s in plurals: the practitioners’ views (where there is more than one practitioner); two weeks’ work; but the apostrophe should come before the ‘s’ with plural nouns that don’t end in ‘s’ – for example, the people's voice or children’s needs;
* one or more letters have been omitted from a word – it’s (for ‘it is’ or ‘it has’), what’s, don’t, he’d. (Note: this use is generally not recommended in official reports; it is better to spell the words out in full.)

Do not use apostrophes in the following cases.

* With possessive pronouns – its, yours, ours, theirs, hers. A common punctuation error is to use it’s for the possessive its.
* To indicate plurals – the Joneses *not* the Jones’, 1960s *not* 1960’s, CDs *not* CD’s.

Archaic language

Where there are two equivalent words, use the simpler one, e.g. among *not* amongst, while *not* whilst.

Unless required by the context, use people *not* persons.

Use per year *not* per annum unless the latter would be expected by readers because of the subject or professional context.

Brackets

Use round brackets (parentheses) to add supplementary information to the text – for example: ‘most respondents had attained the highest level educational qualifications (diploma, first degree and higher degree qualifications) or expected to do so within a year’.

If the whole statement is within the brackets, the final full stop should also be inside the closing bracket. However, avoid this whenever you can.

Give references to sources in round brackets – (Donaldson, 2012).

Square brackets are used chiefly to enclose an explanation by someone other than the author, for example to add information to a quotation to make it comprehensible.

Bullet points

Punctuate bullet-point lists as if they were part of an ordinary paragraph. Where the leading phrase is a complete sentence, each bullet point should be a complete sentence.

 Begin each point with a capital letter.

 Do not use semicolons between points.

 Close each point with a full stop.

Where the text runs on after the lead phrase:

 use a colon to break the lead sentence;

 begin each bullet point with a lower-case letter;

* use semicolons to separate points;
* do not capitalise the first letter of each item;
* do not use a full stop in the middle of an item. That would be wrong;

 use a full stop at the close of the final point.

Use a ‘’ rather than other symbols such as ‘’.

For lists within a bullet point, start each item with a dash (en rule) and make each main point a complete sentence. For lists consisting of short items of only one or two words omit the punctuation altogether.

Capital (upper-case) letters

Avoid the use of too many capital letters. These should be used to punctuate sentences and to distinguish proper nouns. The following should be capitalised:

 names of people and places;

 days, months, festivals and holidays, but *not* the seasons;

 trade names (but, where possible, use generic names instead);

 names of institutions and organisations, including government departments: the House of Commons, Oxford University, the Home Office;

 the Government when referring to the Cabinet and specific Ministers (but ministers or government when referring to a general concept);

 titles and ranks when they accompany a personal name – ‘Chief Inspector Smith’, but not when they are used in place of a personal name – ‘the chief inspector’;

 ethnic groups, including Black, White, Asian and African-Caribbean;

 points of the compass if they are part of the title of an area or a political division – South West Africa, Western Australia, the West, but *not* if they are descriptions in general terms – southern Scotland, the south of Scotland.

Except for acronyms, abbreviations or organisation names that are traditionally written in capitals, no word should be all in CAPITALS. Only the first word of the title of a report, headings and sub-headings should be capitalised unless other words within the title or heading are covered by any of the above.

Use lower case:

 for generic terms – so use trade unions not Trade Unions;

 for the worldwide web, website, email, e-commerce, e-business, online, etc. unless at the start of a sentence.

Captions

All photographs and illustrations should have a caption. These should be placed below the photograph or illustration.

Headings for tables, boxes and figures should be above.

Number tables and figures sequentially throughout the document.

Collective nouns

Collective nouns may be singular or plural. Decide which so you can choose the correct verb.

For example:

If the emphasis is on the group treat it as a singular noun as in ‘the committee is meeting on Wednesday’.

If the emphasis is on the individuals in a group treat it as a plural noun. For example ‘The French are proud of their language’.

Take care with the word ‘number’. ‘The number of’ is singular but ‘a number of’ is plural. So write ‘the number of accidents has risen’ but ‘a number of accidents were investigated’.

See also ‘Data’.

Colon

The colon shows that what follows expands or elaborates on what precedes it. It generally marks a step forward – from introduction to main theme, from cause to effect, premise to conclusion.

Never follow a colon with a hyphen or a dash (:-).

Never precede a colon with a blank space.

A colon is nearly always preceded by a complete sentence. What follows may or may not be a complete sentence; it may be a list or a single word.

Commas

Generally, commas should be inserted between adjectives preceding and qualifying a substantive, for example: ‘a drunk, abusive youth’ or ‘a cold, damp, dark room’.

But where the last adjective is in closer relation to the substantive than the preceding ones, omit the comma, for example: ‘a distinguished foreign author’ or ‘he was sorry for the little old lady’.

Where *and* joins two single words or phrases, the comma is usually omitted, as in

‘the honourable and learned member’.

But where more than two words or phrases or groupings occur together in a sequence, a comma should precede the *and* to avoid ambiguity:

‘New shops were opened by French and Collett, Booth and Tucker, and Jones’.

Such words as moreover, however, etc., are usually followed by a comma when used as the first word of a sentence, and preceded and followed by a comma when used later in a sentence. For example, ‘in every case, however, the prisoner failed to comply’.

When it means ‘to whatever extent’, however needs no following comma, e.g. ‘you cannot eat yet, however hungry you are’.

Commas are often used instead of brackets, where the qualifying phrase is not too complex, e.g. ‘these findings, according to the author, have wide implications’.

Do not use commas in dates, addresses or in ‘not only but also’.

Copyright

Copyright is a form of protection provided to the author or creator of an original work. This can be, for example, literary, dramatic, musical, or artistic. It also covers the reproduction, distribution and storage of material downloaded from the internet. Infringing the rights of copyright holders is taken very seriously and could lead to prosecution.

You should read the comprehensive [information on copyright](http://horizon.gws.gsi.gov.uk/portal/site/horizon-intranet/menuitem.349ae778b6ea90b8e32bd510d31b8a0c/?vgnextoid=cae9ff4c88506410VgnVCM1000002bb1a8c0RCRD) on Horizon under Work tools and guides: Manage information: Library services: Finding and using published information: Copyright.

You can also find [further copyright information](https://insidegovuk.blog.gov.uk/gov-uk-standards-and-guidelines/image-copyright-standards-for-gov.uk) on GOV.UK.

Corporate guidelines

*Logo*

Do not attempt to recreate the Home Office logo or change its proportions. For detailed information about using the Home Office logo, see the branding guidelines on Horizon under Work tools and guides: Communications: Branding guidelines and templates: Home Office branding and templates.

*Colours*

The primary Home Office colours are black and purple (Pantone 2592; CMYK 60/90/0/0; RGB 143/35/179). If printing in-house in one colour use black as the purple is hard to reproduce on in-house printers. For more information, see the Home Office branding guidelines on Horizon under Work tools and guides: Communications: Branding guidelines and templates: Home Office branding and templates.

*Fonts*

The Home Office corporate typeface is Helvetica Neue.

It is acceptable to use Arial or Arial Bold as a substitute typeface when Helvetica Neue is not available. Arial should be used when producing communications internally on PC applications, e.g. Microsoft Word, PowerPoint etc.12 point is the minimum size that should be used for body text to ensure that minimum accessibility standards are met.

Cross references

Use lower case with initial capital for Table and Figure, followed by the number.

Dashes, en rules, em rules

An *en rule*, which is longer than a hyphen and half the length of an *em rule*, is available in the ‘Insert Symbol’ special character set in Word. Alternatively, hold down the Ctrl key and press the minus key on the number pad.

An *en rule* can be used instead of parentheses to indicate an interruption from the rest of the sentence. In this case, there should be one space before and one space after the en rule. For example:

‘the young man kept driving – despite the police road-block – towards the border’.

Avoid using an en rule in place of ‘to’ in times and dates: 2010 to 2014 is clearer than 2010–2014.

The longer *em rule* is available in the ‘Insert Symbol’ special character set in Word. It is used with spaces to indicate the omission of a word. It is used without spaces to indicate the omission of part of a word. For example, ‘the police were about to arrest — but Inspector S— intervened’.

Data

If used in a scientific context ‘data’ should be used in the plural. In modern non-scientific use, however, it is generally not treated as a plural. Instead, it is treated as a mass noun, similar to a word like **information**, which takes a singular verb.

Dates

Dates should be in the order: day month year – for example, 1 May, 1 May 2003, May 2003.

Decades should be expressed as 1960s (not 1960’s or 60s).

Century numbers are usually spelt out: the twenty-first century (adjective twenty-first-century).

When referring to a year, such as a financial year, which falls across two calendar years, the oblique stroke should not be used for accessibility reasons. Instead, write ‘the year ending March 2014’, for example.

When describing a stretch of time between two years, write ‘from 2004 to 2008’, *not* ‘from (or between) 2004–8’.

Avoid references that could become misleading unless the reader is aware of the date of writing: ‘in the last ten years’, ‘recently’, and so on should be changed to ‘in the 2000s’, ‘since 2013’ or whatever is appropriate.

Decimals and equations

Use a zero before decimals with no whole number e.g. 0.5 not .5 and set decimal points on the line.

Use normal (i.e. not super/subscript) text for complex fractions or equations so that they can be printed on one line, e.g. . Remember to italicise the letters in a formula or equation. Or use the ‘Insert equation’ command in Word.

If a formula appears on its own line you can also express it as:

See also ‘Fractions’.

*Et al.,* e.g., etc., i.e.

See ‘Latin abbreviations’.

Exclamation mark

The exclamation mark is used at the end of a sentence or short phrase to express strong feelings, such as surprise, emphatic statements and commands. Do not use an exclamation mark unless it is really necessary and never use more than one per sentence.

Fewer or less than?

Use ‘fewer’ with numbers of individual items or people.

Use ‘less than’ with:

 continuously measured quantities – less than one-quarter, less than 200 km, less than three years;

 things that cannot be counted or do not have a plural – for example, less time.

Figures

Number figures sequentially throughout the report.

Include a key, where appropriate.

Label axes fully, with units of measurement if appropriate.

Footnotes

Footnote references should appear after the full stop when the reference refers to the whole sentence.

Four projects were funded under the crime intiative.1

1All four projects received equal funding.

This does not apply when the footnote reference refers only to the adjacent word or phrase.

Four projects were funded under the crime intiative1.

1The initiative did not examine the needs of male victims.

(See ‘Tables’ for guidance on notes in tables.)

Fractions

Fractions should be written out in the text and hyphenated – for example, one-third, three-quarters. However, mixed numbers are not written out (for example 2½ or 2.5) unless they begin a sentence. If using fractions with a whole number use superscript and subscript for the fraction e.g. 22/3. In Word this is under Format/Font.

In tables and figures fractions should be in numerical form but decimals are usually more appropriate.

Full stop

The full stop is used to mark the end of a sentence expressing a statement. A common error is to link two separate statements with a comma when a full stop or semicolon should be used.

Leave one space after a full stop.

Do not use full stops:

 in titles – Mr, Dr;

 in acronyms and abbreviations in upper case letters (e.g. BBC);

 in abbreviated phrases in lower case, e.g. mph; other than those derived from Latin such as i.e.

 after headings and subheadings.

Gender neutral language

Use gender neutral language and avoid bias, but without appearing stilted or contrived.

‘Man’ and its compounds can usually be replaced without resorting to ‘person’. The exact choice of word will depend on the context, but here are some examples:

 man, mankind, womankind *could become* people, we, human beings;

 to man (verb) *could become* to staff;

 manpower *could become* staff, workforce, human resources.

To avoid misleading uses of ‘he’, ‘she’, ‘his’, ‘hers’ etc., it might be possible to rewrite the sentence in the plural using ‘they’, their’ or ‘them’, or repeat the noun.

Headings and subheadings

Headings provide structure to a report. Do not use more than four levels of heading as this can confuse the organisation of the report.

The hierarchy of headings is as follows.

Chapter headings (level one)

Section headings (level two)

Subsection headings (level three)

Sub-subsection headings (level four)

However

See ‘Commas’.

Hyphens

Hyphens link words and parts of words together to clarify meaning. You should use a hyphen (-):

 in compound modifiers (strings of words that act as compound adjectives) preceding a noun: short-term funding but in the short term; up-to-date information but the information was up to date; the 12-year-old boy but the boy was 12 years old;

 in words with two adjoining identical vowels that are pronounced separately: re-enter, co-ordinate, co-operate (but reapply, reiterate);

 to avoid ambiguity; for example in words with the prefix re: re-cover meaning to cover again, recover to get better; re-treat to treat again, retreat to move back or withdraw;

 in nouns that express the action of a verb, but do not hyphenate the verb – use a write-off but to write off;

* in spelt-out numbers and in fractions – one-third of respondents, twenty-one;

 for e-commerce, e-business, e-economy but use website and email without a hyphen as they are now common words.

Do not hyphenate compound adjectives beginning with adverbs ending in –ly, for example, a newly discovered crime.

I or me

Use ‘I’ when you are talking about someone who has done something (the subject), and use ‘me’ when you are talking about someone who has had something done to them (the object). For example:

Jim and I went to the meeting.

Jane met Jim and me.

If you are unsure which to use try the sentence with only the pronoun to see if it sounds right. ‘Me went to the meeting’ is obviously wrong and therefore so is ‘Jim and me went to the meeting’. Similarly ‘Jane met I’ is wrong and therefore so is ‘Jane met Jim and I’.

Italics

Italic is used for:

 titles of published books and periodicals (but not titles of chapters, articles and unpublished theses);

 mathematical variables (including geometrical ‘points’ and generalised constants such as constants of integration);

 names of parties in legal cases (but not the ‘v.’ between them);

 foreign words, except for those already incorporated in English, such as café.

Italic should not be used for the names of Acts of Parliament.

Jargon

Avoid using jargon, ‘government speak’ and other invented words that cannot be found in a standard dictionary.

Latin abbreviations

Include full stops in the abbreviations e.g., etc. and i.e. There should not be a second full stop (etc.) if one of these falls at the end of a sentence. Do not use both e.g. and etc. in the same sentence – for example ‘e.g. India, Pakistan etc.’ since one or the other is redundant.

It is better to use ‘for example’, ‘for instance’ or ‘such as’ rather than e.g., and ‘that is’ or ‘specifically’ for i.e. unless there is repeated use in a section of text.

*Et al.* has one full stop after ‘*al*.’ and is written in italics. Use when citing more than two authors within the main text (Jones *et al*., 2014).

Libel

A useful rule is do not write anything about another person or organisation that you would not like to see in print or on the web about yourself (but remember that other people may have different sensitivities). Also do not write anything about another person or organisation that is incorrect, ambiguous or misleading.

Lists

See ‘Bullet points’. Bullet points are preferred for lists but where a list describes the steps in a process or a natural sequence, number each step using Arabic numerals.

Marks of omission

To mark omitted words, for example in the middle of a quotation, insert an ellipsis … (under ‘Insert/Symbol’ in Word).

Measurements

Within one publication use the same units of measure, preferably SI (International System of Units).

Use the following abbreviations for singular and plural amounts. Note the use of capital letters too.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Celsius | °C | Fahrenheit | °F |
| Kelvin | K | Giga | G |
| gram | g | kilo | k |
| litre | l | metre | m |
| micro | µ | milli | m |
| millisecond | ms | mole | mol |
| second | s | nano | n |
| pico | p | pound | lb |

There is a space between a number and a unit of measurement e.g. 20 mg – except for temperatures e.g. 20°C and percentages e.g. 20%.

When giving a range do not repeat the unit, e.g. 5 to 8 mg and not 5 mg to 8 mg. Use the word ‘to’ in text, not a dash.

There should be no full stop after ‘abbreviated units of measurement such as mm or lb. Note that the plural of abbreviated units is the same as the singular: 65 mm, *not* 65 mms.

Minus sign

The mathematical minus sign is a separate symbol. In Word go to Insert Symbol: Mathematical Operators with the font set to normal text (the default). It looks similar to a dash but is aligned to the + sign.

Examples: *x* = *a* + *b* - *c* (wrong); this is a hyphen and is too short.

*x* = *a* + *b* – *c* (wrong); this is a dash. It doesn't quite line up with the horizontal part of '+'.

*x* = *a* + *b* − *c* (right); this is a true minus sign.

Money

Whole pounds (or other currency) and fractional amounts should be treated in a similar way – for example, ‘£6.00, £5.25 and £0.25’, not ‘£6, £5.25 and 25p’. This is not necessary when all values are in whole numbers or all less than £1, e.g. £10, £20 or £25 / 3p, 25p and 50p. Spell out ‘one penny’.

Where sums of money are tabulated, put the units in the column heading rather than beside each item.

Months

The names of months should be written out in full in the text but can be abbreviated in tables using the first three letters – Jan, Feb etc.

Numbers

In text, write out numbers from zero to ten; for numbers 11 and over, use numerals.

Where numbers in the same sentence fall below and above ten, use numerals for both: “between the ages of 10 and 15”, not “ten and 15”.

Avoid starting sentences with a numeral. If this cannot be avoided, the number should be written in full – for example, “Fifty-two people took part in the survey”.

Spelt-out numbers such as twenty-one are hyphenated.

Figures must be used before abbreviations of units: 5 kg, 6 mm etc., when referring to specific pages and in tables – for example ‘see Table 1’ but ‘there are two tables in the report’.

Include a comma in numbers with four or more digits.

Do not write long strings of numbers – 34.6 million not 34,600,000.

Spell out ordinal numbers first to ninth. After that use 10th, 11th etc.

Page references

In references to indicate specific pages use the abbreviation ‘p’ for a single page and ‘pp’ for a range of pages, without full stops and with a space between p and the number. For example: p 12 and pp 23–26.

Avoid references to page numbers in the main text as these are likely to change with formatting: refer to sections by name.

Percentages

In text and tables use the % sign. In tables, write ‘%’ in the column or row heading where it is reasonable to do so – not after each individual value.

Make sure that percentages are distinguished from actual numbers in tables.

Do not worry if percentages do not add up to exactly 100; the individual percentages are usually rounded up or down, and the total should fall between 99 and 101, though given as 100.

Personalising

Adopt an impersonal tone when writing reports and normally avoid the first person: ‘we’ or ‘I’.

Proofreading marks

Proofreading marks are used to highlight problems in the text and how to overcome them. For details of proofreading marks, please refer to the Oxford Guide to Style or contact SIPT if you have a query.

Quotation marks

Use double marks for a first quotation; then single marks for a quotation within a quotation: The note read, “He said ‘Gone fishing’ and then left”.

Open quotation marks at the beginning of each new paragraph but close quotes only at the end of the final paragraph.

Use single marks to highlight a particular word or term but double marks if it is a direct quotation.

Use single marks in headings.

References

When referring to a publication, the main text should cite the author’s surname and the date of the publication.

Examples: Taylor (2010) concluded that …

… a direct cause of crime (Smith, 2008)

Use the abbreviation ‘*ibid.*’ when citing the same reference in uninterrupted succession. For example:

‘Metal theft refers to thefts of items for the value of their constituent metals, often copper, lead and aluminium (Ministry of Justice, 2012).Common targets for metal theft include copper wire and cable from transport and utility networks. Other targets include lead from churches and other historic buildings, catalytic converters and street furniture (*ibid*.).’

If a publication has more than three authors, cite the first name followed by ‘*et al’*. (See also *et al*. in Latin abbreviations.)

All references should be given in full at the end of the publication. These should be set out as follows. [Punctuation is given in square brackets.]

Author’s surname[comma]initial(s)[each one followed by a full stop and then a comma if more than two authors] (Date) *Title of publication* [full stop] Place of publication [colon] Publisher [full stop]

Example:

Modood, T., Berthoud, R. S., Lakey, J., Nazroo, J., Smith, P. D., Virdee, S. and Beishon, S. (1997) *Ethnic Minorities in Britain: Diversity and Disadvantage. The Fourth National Survey of Ethnic Minorities*. London: Policy Studies Institute.

If you are citing two different works written by the same author in the same year, distinguish these with a lower case letter after the date.

Example:

Jones (2004a, 2004b)

Articles

The title of an article should be given in roman type within single quotation marks, followed by the name of the journal in which it is published in italics.

Example:

Blud, J., Travers, R., Nugent, F. and Thornton, D. (2003) ‘Accreditation of behaviour programmes in HM Prison Service’, *Legal and Criminal Psychology*, vol. 8 (1), pp 69–81.

Centre for Applied Science and Technology (CAST) publications

If referring to another part of the publication within the text put the reference in brackets after the text with single quote marks around the reference. For example, (see section 1.2 ‘Using material’).

Put references to CAST publications in the format: reference number/last two digits of year i.e. CAST report 04/11 or Publication 14/04.

Chapters

A chapter title should be contained in single quotation marks followed by a full stop, the word ‘In’ and then the title of the book in italics.

Circulars

Home Office Circulars (and others) should be referred to in the text as:

‘Home Office Circular number/year’, with the full title given in the References.

Command Papers

In printing references to Command Papers (papers presented to Parliament), the author’s use of C., Cd., Cmd., and Cmnd. must be followed. These distinctions are significant in that they each represent a different series.

Contribution in edited book

A contribution in an edited book should be cited as follows:

Example:

Modood, T., Berthoud, R., Lakey, J., Nazroo, J. P. and Smith, P. (1997) ‘Ethnic Minorities in Britain: Diversity and Disadvantage’. In *The Fourth National Survey of Ethnic Minorities*, Virdee, S. and Beishon, S. (eds), pp 45–51. London: Policy Studies Institute.

Conference papers

Published conference papers should be cited as follows:

Example:

Modood, T. (1996) ‘Ethnic Minorities in Britain: Diversity and Disadvantage’. *Proceedings of the Fourth National Conference on Ethnic Minorities*, vol. 1, pp 25-31, London, April 1996. London: Policy Studies Institute.

Volume and page numbers

If specific volumes or pages have been used, these should be cited in the references.

When referencing one volume of a multi-volume work, cite the title of the complete work followed by the relevant volume number written as vol. 1 and the volume title if this is different. Part numbers should be cited in brackets.

Example: vol. 22 (1) would mean volume 22 part 1.

To indicate specific pages use the abbreviation p for a single page and pp for a range of pages – p 6, pp 20–25.

Websites

Online sources should be presented in references in the same way as printed sources but giving a date when the web page was created or posted up on site (if known). Follow this with the words ‘Available from:’, the address of the URL and the date accessed in square brackets. This is to give the reader an idea how old the information may be.

The reference should read:

Author name (if known), Title of article, section or page, Title of complete work in italics, (date created, published, posted). Available from: URL address of electronic source, including http:// [date accessed].

Semicolon

Use the semicolon:

 to separate two or more clauses which are of more or less equal importance and could also be joined by a conjunction, such as ‘and’ or ‘but’, or be written as two separate sentences;

 to join clauses that complement or are parallel to each other;

 in sentences already subdivided by commas, to indicate a stronger division;

 in lists, especially where the elements themselves contain commas (see ‘Bullet points’).

Significant

As this word has a particular statistical meaning, avoid using it in any other way in reports. If it cannot be avoided, ensure that the meaning is specified.

Spelling

The spelling of any book and article titles cited should not be made consistent with the rest of the report and the spelling of quoted material is usually left unchanged. Watch out for words with similar spellings but different meanings and alternative spellings but the same meaning: the fact that both spellings are in common use makes it easy to miss inconsistencies. The following are examples.

acknowledgement acknowledgment

ageing aging

appendixes appendices

biased biassed

by-law bye-law

centring centering

disk (computers) disc (recordings)

dispatch despatch

encyclopedia encyclopaedia

focused focussed

gipsy gypsy

gram gramme

guerrilla guerilla

inflection inflexion (use in maths)

inquiry enquiry

judgement judgment (use in legal works)

medieval mediaeval

movable moveable (use in legal works)

premiss premise

programme computer program (but ‘programmer’ in both cases)

reflection reflexion

Even if the author is using the –ize spelling, the following words must be spelt –ise.

advertise

advise

affranchise

apprise (inform)

arise

circumcise

comprise

compromise

demise

despise

devise

disfranchise

emprise

enfranchise

enterprise

excise

franchise

improvise

incise

merchandise

misadvise

misprise

mortise

prise (open)

revise

seise (legal term)

supervise

surmise

surprise

televise

The following should be spelt – yse, not –yze (except in American spelling).

analyse dialyse hydrolyse

catalyse electrolyse paralyse

Watch out, too, for the inclusion of accents on such words as ‘elite’, ‘regime’, ‘role’ which are completely anglicised and written without accents, and for the spelling of proper names; and also, of course, for hyphens.

Distinguish between the following pairs of words:

dependant (noun) *and* dependent (adj.)

forbear (abstain) forebear (ancestor)

forgo (do without) forego (precede)

practice (the noun) practise (the verb)

principal (chief) principle (rule)

prophecy (noun) prophesy (verb)

Watch out for the following words, which are often misspelt.

accommodate millennium

analogous minuscule

battalion pavilion

desiccation sacrilegious

embarrass stratagem

feasibility superseded

gauge trade union (*but* Trades Union Congress)

harass vermilion

idiosyncrasies weird

Split infinitives

A split infinitive is where a word is put between ‘to’ and the main verb as in ‘to boldly go’. It is often better not to split infinitives but don’t be afraid to do so if it makes your meaning clearer and helps a sentence flow.

Tables

Number tables sequentially throughout the report.

The first word in headings of columns and rows should begin with a capital letter.

Notes to tables should be consistent and numbered sequentially with lower case letters or numbers. Do *not* use other symbols such as \* or a mixture of symbols and numbers.

The space between data displayed in columns should be tabbed not space barred, using appropriate tabs (range right, decimal, etc.).

Make sure the number of characters following a decimal point is consistent for example, 6.2, 7.8 and 5.0 *not* 5 or 5.00. The exception would be if the range of values in a column is so wide that the zeros become distracting; in such cases, decimal tabs should be used. See Table 1 for examples of the two approaches.

**Table 1:** Heading with half blank line above and below, columns minimum width

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Similar range | Dissimilar rangea |
| 2.01 | 1,000 |
| 3.10 | 0.0002 |
| 10.35 | 1.23 |
| 5.00 | 231,359 |
| 11.20 | 0.1 |
| 7.18 | 6.5512 |

aShould not happen very often.

That and which

Which qualifies, that defines. Hence, “this is the house that Jack built” defines the house to which we are referring whereas “the house, which Jack built” presumes we already know which house we are talking about and makes a qualifying statement about the house. This can be important. For example, “pubs that break the rules should be closed down” says that we should close any pub that breaks the rules. “Pubs, which break the rules, should be closed down” says that all pubs break the rules and should be closed.

Underlining

Avoid underlining. It can easily be confused with a hyperlink.

Version control and document naming

Version control helps you to manage multiple versions of the same document and avoids confusion as to which version is which. Please follow the Home Office’s Corporate File Plan guidance and number each version sequentially e.g v.1, v.2, v.3 etc..

For example:

HOSstyleguide\_19Apr2014

If more than one version of a document is produced on the same day, label the second v.2, the third v.3 etc.

For example:

HOSstyleguide\_19Apr2014\_v2

Please do not name documents with words such as ‘Latest’ and ‘Final’. This can be confusing if the ‘Final version’ is subsequently amended.

Which and that

See ‘That and which’.

Will and would

We use ‘will’ to talk about the future, to talk about what people are willing to do, and to make promises and offers. We use ‘would’ to talk about the past, to talk about hypotheses, to make polite requests and in conditionals with words like ‘if’ and ‘what if’.