

INTERUNIVERSITY STYLE GUIDE

FOR WRITING INSTITUTIONAL
TEXTS IN ENGLISH

MANUAL D'ESTIL INTERUNIVERSITARI

PER A LA REDACCIÓ DE TEXTOS
INSTITUCIONALS EN ANGLÈS

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PREFACI

El *Manual d'estil interuniversitari per a la redacció de textos institucionals en anglès* s'emmarca en el Pla de política lingüística 2012–2014 de la Xarxa Vives d'Universitats. Ve a tomb aquí remarcar dos aspectes fonamentals: d'una banda, que cada universitat de la Xarxa ha de ser una comunitat universitària multilingüe amb individus plurilingües i, d'una altra, que la Xarxa té un compromís amb la projecció exterior del català i de les relacions institucionals i internacionals.

El foment del multilingüisme, un dels eixos fonamentals de les universitats de la regió Vives, es concreta en diferents objectius específics, entre els quals en destaquem dos: la millora de les competències lingüístiques de l'alumnat, del PAS i del PDI en terceres llengües i l'elaboració de criteris lingüístics en anglès. El manual que presentem és fruit d'aquest plantejament: ha de facilitar sens dubte la comunicació interuniversitària institucional i augmentarà la qualitat lingüística de la informació elaborada amb finalitats de projecció internacional; de retruc, farà que el personal universitari millori els seus coneixements de llengua anglesa i per tant sigui més competent lingüísticament, una altra de les necessitats manifestes i recollida arreu.

Hem de valorar especialment que vint-i-una universitats treballin efectivament en xarxa i es dotin d'uns criteris lingüístics en anglès únics, comuns i homogenis. I aquest treball ha estat possible, en primer lloc, gràcies a l'activitat conjunta dels serveis lingüístics universitaris, que n'han estat els elaboradors; els tècnics lingüístics, amb una llarga trajectòria en les institucions d'educació superior, tenen la màxima competència per seleccionar i elaborar els criteris per produir textos adequats a les finalitats de comunicació i intercanvi internacionals; coneixen a bastament la terminologia universitària i han tingut especialment en compte les necessitats específiques dels catalanoparlants com a productors d'informació. En segon lloc, també agraim la participació de diverses unitats i serveis universitaris, que han pilotat aquesta primera versió per tal de garantir-ne l'adequació a les situacions comunicatives específiques de l'àmbit universitari.

Esperem que l'obra ajudi a perfeccionar les tècniques de comunicació i a produir textos en llengua anglesa. Tanmateix les llengües i les relacions són vives i, per això mateix, és evident que tant la versió en paper com la digital d'aquest manual han de ser actualitzades permanentment. En aquest sentit, agraiem tots els comentaris i suggeriments que la comunitat universitària ens faci arribar.

PREFACE

The *Interuniversity Style Guide for Writing Institutional Texts in English* is a product of the Vives Network of Universities Language Policy Plan 2012–2014 and its publication is an opportunity to remember two of our organisation's guiding principles: first, that our universities should be multilingual communities whose members can demonstrate linguistic competence in a variety of languages; and second, that the Network itself is committed to making the Catalan language and our institutional and international relations more widely visible abroad.

The promotion of multilingualism is the general objective of one of the four axes in the Vives Network's Plan and is further detailed in three specific objectives, two of which are important here: the improvement of the third-language communication skills of students, administrative and service staff and teaching and research staff; and the creation of English-language resources and guidelines for English language use. Amongst other initiatives, the Guide is the result of our universities' efforts to address these specific objectives. We believe that it will play an essential role in facilitating inter-university communication and improving the quality of the institutional English-language documents we produce for international readers. We also propose that it will help our community bolster its knowledge of the English language and acquire the linguistic competence in English that is widely considered to be necessary.

If there is value in the fact that twenty-one different universities can work together and eventually share a single set of homogenous, English-language guidelines, then we have two groups of people to thank for that. First, there are the university language services who coordinated their efforts to write the Guide. Building on extensive professional experience in higher education and a familiarity with our community's terminology and with Catalan speakers' specific needs as producers of information, the language specialists in those services have proved their ability to select and write guidelines to ensure that our English-language texts suit the purposes of international communication and exchange. And second, we should also thank the various university units which piloted the draft document to help tailor its content to our specific communicative needs.

We hope this guide helps users perfect their communication techniques and write better English-language texts. Finally, because both languages and institutions are living entities subject to change, we are also aware that the paper and digital editions of the Guide will need to be reviewed on a regular basis and so we look forward to all those observations and suggestions that the university community sees fit to share with us.

INTRODUCCIÓ

La internacionalització creixent dels estudis universitaris requereix que les universitats de parla catalana adoptin polítiques i pràctiques noves que puguin donar resposta al context acadèmic canviant sense perdre posicions en termes de qualitat acadèmica, adequació internacional i capacitat econòmica. Per arribar a mercats nous i assegurar que els estudiants se sentin atrets pel nostre sistema educatiu, és necessari produir en anglès, la *lingua franca* internacional actual, documents de tot tipus: convenis, plans d'estudis, tríptics o pàgines web, entre d'altres.

Aquesta situació representa un desafiament constant per a les persones que han d'escriure, traduir o publicar el deversall de documentació que genera la universitat. Com podem assegurar que la gran varietat de documents ofereix una imatge unificada i coherent de les universitats implicades que, a més, evidencia la qualitat dels serveis que ofereixen?

El *Manual d'estil interuniversitari per a la redacció de textos institucionals en anglès* intenta donar resposta a la pregunta anterior. Està pensada per als docents, els investigadors, el personal d'administració i els professionals de la llengua, que han de redactar documentació institucional en anglès. Tot i que una de les seccions recull criteris generals de redacció, la paraula *estil* del títol fa referència a les convencions lingüístiques relatives a l'ortografia, la puntuació, la tipografia i altres aspectes editorials: tots són essencials per garantir textos coherents, clars i precisos en termes lingüístics i formals. La coherència en aquests aspectes dóna claredat i cohesió als textos, cosa que, al seu torn, en facilita i simplifica la comprensió. Com a transmissores de coneixement, és essencial que les universitats siguin rigoroses en l'ús de la llengua per aconseguir l'objectiu científic de descriure la realitat i la seva complexitat de manera clara i assequible.

Aquesta guia, que ha pres com a referència altres guies d'estil (*English Style Guide*, de la Direcció General de Traducció de la Comissió Europea,

The Chicago Manual of Style, The Oxford Manual of Style, etc.), està organitzada en diferents seccions: ortografia, puntuació, majúscules i minúscules, abreviacions, xifres, gènere i nombre, traducció de noms propis, redacció i producció digital de textos. Conté dos apèndixs, un amb informació addicional, com ara exemples complementaris o equivalents recomanats, i un altre amb una llista de recursos pràctics. Al llarg del text s'usen dues convencions simples per presentar els exemples incorrectes: les frases agramaticals s'indiquen amb un asterisc i les paraules o els segments incorrectes estan ratllats.

*The Arabic discussion group will meet from 3.00–6.30 p.m. on Thursdays.

the 1990's

D'altra banda, les frases inadequades estilísticament estan precedides de l'expressió *Therefore, not* i, al darrere, hi apareix la paraula *but* seguida d'una frase més adequada.

Do not use a colon to substitute a comma. Therefore, not

To complete your admission application: send the required documents by the end of the month.

but

To complete your admission application, send the required documents by the end of the month.

Estem segurs, doncs, que aquesta guia i les recomanacions que conté serviran d'ajuda a qui hagi de treballar textos en anglès, i desitgem que es converteixi en un instrument imprescindible que faciliti la tasca diària de moltes persones.

INTRODUCTION

The growing internationalisation of higher education requires universities from Catalan-speaking territories to adopt new policies and practices if they are to respond to the changing global academic environment and not fall behind in terms of improved academic quality, international understanding and commercial advantage. In order to reach out to new markets and to ensure that students are attracted to our educational system, documents of many kinds – including contracts, syllabuses, advertising material and websites – now need to be produced in English, the current international *lingua franca*. This situation places considerable demands on those responsible for writing, translating and publishing university documents. How can we ensure that the wide variety of documents produced give a uniform corporate image of the universities in accord with the quality of the services provided?

The *Interuniversity Style Guide for Writing Institutional Texts in English* intends to respond to this demand for quality. It is designed for use by the administrative, teaching and research staff and language professionals who are responsible for writing institutional texts in English. Although one section focuses on how to write clearly, the word *style* in the title refers not to literary style but to those linguistic conventions concerning spelling, punctuation, typographical display and other editorial issues that are essential for consistent, clear and precise language and layout. Consistency in these areas leads to clarity and cohesion which, in turn, makes documents more straightforward for readers. As transmitters of knowledge, universities have to be rigorous in their use of language so that they can fulfil the scientific purpose of describing reality and making the complexity of this reality more readily understandable.

Loosely modelled on existing style manuals (the *English Style Guide* of the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation, *The Chicago Manual of Style*, *The Oxford Manual of Style*, etc.), this

guide is organised into sections dealing with spelling, punctuation, capitalisation, abbreviations and symbols, numbers, gender, singular and plural, translation, writing in English and digital text production. It also contains two appendices: one with lists of additional information and the other with a list of further resources. Throughout the text we use two simple conventions to indicate examples of incorrect language: incorrect sentences are accompanied by an asterisk while incorrect short phrases are crossed out.

*The Arabic discussion group will meet from 3.00–6.30 p.m. on Thursdays.

~~the 1990's~~

Stylistically inappropriate sentences, on the other hand, are introduced by the words *Therefore*, *not* and followed by the word *but* and a new, more elegant sentence.

Do not use a colon to substitute a comma. Therefore, not

To complete your admission application: send the required documents by the end of the month.

but

To complete your admission application, send the required documents by the end of the month.

We trust that the guidance and recommendations provided within these pages will be of help to anyone who has the task of preparing English-language texts and that this guide will become part of daily working life for many.

1. SPELLING

Many questions related to spelling can be resolved simply by referring to a dictionary, since these questions tend to concern the specific way in which a word is correctly written, and by activating a good spell-check function in your word processor. But there are also issues that require more careful consideration and that cannot be resolved automatically. This section of the Guide provides recommendations on such issues, including the general conventions applicable to spelling, such as use of British and American variants, and the consequences of these conventions, for example digraphs and consonant doubling. It also refers to other considerations that are not strictly in the province of spelling but that nevertheless pertain to the orthography of the language; issues here include the use or non-use of diacritics, italicisation and hyphenation.

1.1 Conventions

As a reflection of our broader geographical situation, we recommend the use of British English in most contexts, particularly for institutional documents. However, many university texts may be addressed specifically to North American readers or may be for or from an academic ambit in which American English is more usual. In such cases, use common sense and discretion in deciding which variant is most suitable for your objectives.

We strongly recommend, however, that only one variant of English be used within a single text or related series of texts, for obvious reasons of coherence.

1.1.1 Differences in spelling between British and American English

For most general purposes, there is little significant difference between British and American English in written texts. In practically all circumstances, any text written in standard British English will be comprehensible to an American reader, and vice versa.

British usage historically accepts both the *-ise* and *-ize* spellings, but the former is now more frequently used in a broad range of publications. Therefore, we recommend that the *-ise/-yse/-isation* forms be used, except where the context specifically requires American spelling.

The following summary lists the well-known and now commonly accepted distinctions in British/American spelling.

British English

-ce (defence)

-isation (nationalisation)

-ise (realise)

-our (colour)

-re (centre)

-yse (analyse)

American English

-se (defense)

-ization (nationalization)

-ize (realize)

-or (color)

-er (center)

-yze (analyze)

However, note that *size* and *capsize* are never written with *-ise* in British English.

Also, note that British usage has the form *programme* (as opposed to the American *program*) except when referring to computer code, in which case *program* is preferred.

1.1.2 Digraphs

Although the *æ/œ* spelling (known as a digraph, the combined letters representing a single sound) for forms such as *œstrogen* or *cæsium* is still in use in British English, this is now not universally the case for most other words that were traditionally written with a digraph; these words now have a single vowel that substitutes the older *æ* form (*medieval* and *encyclopedia* being well-known examples). Opt for the simplified spelling for all such words.

1.1.3 Double consonants before suffixes

Where consonants are doubled for monosyllabic words (basically, after a short vowel and immediately before a suffix beginning with a vowel such as *-ing*, *-er*, *-est* or *-ed*), British and American English spelling is the same.

flat	flattest
stop	stoppable
shop	shopping

For words of more than one syllable, however, differences between British and American usage can be complicated; our guidelines on this are therefore an attempt to simplify the question by limiting comments to the doubling of the letter *l* and the doubling of other consonants.

i) Doubling of the letter *l*

As an indication for when to double this final consonant in British English, we replicate the explanation given in Section 1.5 of the *English Style Guide* of the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation (see Appendix II: Resources and further reading): "In British usage, a final *-l* is doubled after a short vowel on adding *-ing* or *-ed* to verbs (sole exception: *parallel*, *paralleled*) and adding *-er* to make nouns from verbs".

Examples would include the following.

Alumni membership growth will probably level off by the end of the year.
The new rector has indicated as a priority the levelling-off of expenditure.

All those wishing to travel on the new grant should contact the International Office.
This regulation applies to administrative staff who travelled during the first semester.

Model your task on one of the following diagrams.
Project modellers will need a minimum of five years' experience.

In American English, except for multi-syllabic words ending *-al* (*final/finally; minimal/minimally*), *l* is usually not doubled before a suffix, though a high-frequency exception to this is the American English *enrollment* (in British English, *enrolment*).

ii) Doubling of other consonants

Usage may vary considerably between British and American English in the doubling of word-final consonants other than *l*, and a reliable English dictionary should always be consulted if in doubt. However, the following observations generally hold for both variants. Consonants such as *t* or *r* double before *-ed* and *-ing* if the last syllable of the root word is stressed.

The Department will admit students who meet the following requirements.
The Dean admitted that faculty disruptions were inevitable.

Students must submit their assignments in the agreed format.
Applicants who are submitting their papers in June should fill in the following form.

The Rector will confer an honorary doctorate on two renowned sociologists.
The University has rarely conferred such degrees in this academic field.

The faculty will refer all complaints to the Dean.
Reliable international research should be referred to for clarification.

In contrast to this, for two-syllable words whose first syllable is stressed, the word-final consonant is not doubled.

b <u>e</u> n <u>e</u> fit	benefiting	benefited
c <u>o</u> mbat	combating	combated
f <u>o</u> cus	focusing	focused
t <u>a</u> rget	targeting	targeted

In British English the exception to this are two-syllable words ending in *-p*,

which double that final consonant even though the principal stress is on the first syllable.

This groundbreaking project studies forms of primitive worship that are still prevalent.

The study shows how animate and inanimate objects were worshipped indistinctly.

1.2 Diacritics

Diacritics are orthographical marks added above or below a letter (or sometimes within or between letters). In the Latin alphabet, they are basically used to indicate a modification in the pronunciation of the letter in question.

Although languages make use of a large number of such marks, in our context the most common diacritics are the so-called grave (`) or acute (´) accents, the cedilla (¸), the umlaut/dierisis (¨), the tilde (~) and the circumflex (^).

Unlike other European languages, modern English does not have diacritics. Some borrowed words may be written in English with their original non-English diacritic, but this rarely affects pronunciation (for exceptional cases, see Section 1.2.1 Diacritics and their effect on pronunciation).

However, even with words borrowed fairly recently from languages that do make use of such orthographic marks, there is actually no obligation in English to use the original diacritic. An example of this is *façade*, borrowed from French, which can also be correctly written as *facade* (the pronunciation is identical for both forms: /fə'sa:d/), though some users feel uncomfortable if the cedilla is omitted. For such cases, consult a reliable English dictionary.

1.2.1 Diacritics and their effect on pronunciation

Use diacritics when their absence could result in incorrect pronunciation.

Barça (/ˈba:sə/)

The form *Barca* (referring to the football team) might lead readers to pronounce the word /ˈba:kə/, which would be incorrect, and so in this case the cedilla assists in pointing readers to the accepted pronunciation.

1.2.2 Diacritics in foreign proper nouns

Use diacritics in all proper nouns (i.e., names) in foreign languages, for reasons of textual tradition.

Please contact Dr González Martí, Assistant Rector for Communication, for further information.

The plenary talk was given by Professor Johan Lübeck, a specialist in medieval German manuscripts.

1.2.3 Diacritics in foreign words that are not proper nouns

When an English text uses foreign words or phrases that are not proper nouns but that have a diacritic in the original language, you should either keep all such marks or else use none at all. Be consistent. If you decide to use them, remember that they should also be used on capital letters and in headings.

The Concept of *Égalité* in the Recognition of Non-EU Degrees in France: A Critical Analysis

1.3 Italics

Italics are used for drawing attention to words or phrases, for instance in order to provide an example.

Only use *etc.* at the end of a series of examples and never at the end of a series introduced by the words *like* or *such as*.

However, we generally recommend avoiding their use for emphasis: clear, emphatic writing ought not to require this device as an additional support. Other than illustrating examples, we suggest limiting their use to the following cases.

1.3.1 Italics in titles of books, journals and other publications

Unless following specific editorial guides, write the titles of books, journals and other published materials in italics, to distinguish the titles from the rest of the sentence.

Recent research into the applications of microbial cyanobacteria on oil pollution has been published in the latest edition of the prestigious journal *Science Today*.

Be aware, however, that conventions for indicating the title of a book, journal or article may vary depending on factors such as publication requirements or even academic ambit. You will therefore have to bear these factors in mind, depending on the purpose of your text and where it will be published. For additional comment, see Appendix II: Resources and further reading.

1.3.2 Italics in foreign words and expressions

Italicise foreign words or expressions that are not common in English (that is, words not included in a reliable English dictionary) and that may therefore not be readily understood.

The ceiling of the Faculty's *Aula Magna* offers visitors a beautiful example of Catalan *Modernisme*.

This includes the Latin terms for academic distinction, *cum laude*, *magna cum laude* and *summa cum laude* (meaning "with honour", "with great honour" and "with highest honour", respectively), which should always be italicised.

But note that foreign words that have now become part of normal English usage do not require italics.

addendum	ad hoc	attaché	avant-garde
communiqué	status quo	vice versa	zeitgeist

Note also that, in the event of using a non-English form for the official name of an organisation (universities, companies, governmental bodies, etc.) these names are not written in italics.

The University is currently involved in discussions with the Red Española de Supercomputación (Spanish Supercomputing Network).

1.4 Hyphens

The use or non-use of hyphens is a complex issue that affects a range of questions. To avoid unnecessary difficulties, we will give only certain basic guidelines.

1.4.1 Hyphens in fractions

Unless they belong to a figure ($1\frac{1}{2}$), always write fractions in full form and with a hyphen.

The report shows that one-third of all undergraduates use campus parking facilities.

1.4.2 Hyphens with prefixes

Many words beginning with a prefix are written with a hyphen (*co-payment*); many are not (*overproduction*). Confusingly, there are also cases where both forms are considered acceptable (British: *pre-school*

/ American: *preschool*). As can be seen from this last example, the tendency in American English is to hyphenate less than in British English. In all events, if in doubt about whether a prefix should be followed by a hyphen, consult a reliable dictionary. However, the following observations generally hold.

Words beginning with a common prefix (such as *un-*, *dis-* or *re-*) are often written without a hyphen.

Current numbers of absences from class in many subjects are unacceptably high.
Student representatives have disregarded criticism from the Rector, calling it uninformed and unfair.
This initiative reaffirms the strong ties between the two universities.

In contrast, a hyphen is generally used with prefixes such as *neo-* and *ex-*.

The Arts Faculty building is an outstanding example of neo-classical architecture.
Dr Rovira is the ex-director of the Cancer Research Institute.

Hyphenate all words formed by a prefix + word beginning with a capital letter.

This movement is a pan-European response to failures in education.
The research confirms a growing anti-British sentiment in commercial relations.

But note that *transatlantic* is normally written as a single word.

1.4.3 Hyphens in compound adjectives

Hyphenate qualifiers formed with two or more adjectives, with an adverb and an adjective or with an adjective and noun/gerund.

a little-discussed problem
a low-prevalence phenomenon
a well-meaning intervention

However, do not hyphenate compound adjectival forms in which the first element is an adverb ending in either *-ly* or in *-y*.

a compellingly argued paper
a highly detailed research proposal
a very engaging argument

Additionally, do not hyphenate compound adjectival forms in which the first element is a comparative or superlative.

the most cited research paper
a less complicated suggestion

1.4.4 Hyphens and phrasal verbs

i) Nouns formed from phrasal verbs

Nouns formed from phrasal verbs are often written as a single word and may or may not be hyphenated. If in doubt, consult a dictionary.

The dropout rate for this course is unusually high.
Funding problems have meant that these projects have been put on standby.

A major follow-up to this study has already been planned.
Last year's buy-in allowed the faculty to open three new laboratories.

ii) The adjectival present participle of phrasal verbs

When the present participle of a phrasal verb is used adjectivally, hyphenate.

Students participating in this initiative were given additional information during the signing-on phase.

1.4.5 Hyphens and double consonants or vowels

Hyphenation should generally be used in order to avoid double consonants or vowels.

Part-time teaching staff plays an increasingly important role in the MA programme. Students who do not comply with the regulations may lose the right to re-examination.

But note that certain high-frequency terms are no longer hyphenated (unless they are part of an established name).

Cooperation among participating universities is gradually increasing. Macroeconomic factors have led to considerable modifications in research funding.

1.4.6 Hyphens and multiple compounds

When a noun is qualified by more than one hyphenated compound, write these as follows.

In a pioneering study, the Department of Psychology is currently researching the pre- and post-natal effects of carbon monoxide.

2. PUNCTUATION

Punctuation is an important aspect of any written text. Good punctuation organises or divides the text to make meaning clearer; poor punctuation will make it difficult to understand.

2.1 General guidelines

Use common sense. Punctuation should help make written language clear to readers. If it does not, it should not be there.

2.1.1 Precedence

With the exception of quotation marks, brackets and ellipsis points, never use two or more punctuation marks together. Always use the stronger or more necessary one. For example, question and exclamation marks are stronger than commas and full stops. In the first of the two examples the question mark fills the role of the comma; and in the second, a full stop is not used after the exclamation mark.

“Have all the results been reported?” asked the researcher.

The topic of the presentation is “More funding for research and development!”

2.1.2 Punctuation and spacing

Punctuation marks in English – apart from dashes, ellipsis points and slashes – are always closed up to the preceding word.

Slashes are closed up to the preceding word and to the next word when they separate two single words.

and/or male/female

When a slash separates two groups of words or a group of words from a single word, insert a space before and after the slash.

This proposal has been approved / requires further consideration.

Such documents shall be signed by the rector / rector's delegate, as applicable.

Full stops, question marks, exclamation marks, commas, colons and semicolons are always followed by a single (not a double) space.

2.2 Full stops

Full stops or points present few problems. Use them for three main purposes: ending sentences that are not questions or exclamations, punctuating the numbers or letters used to list the elements of a summary, and separating the letters in some, but not all, abbreviations.

2.2.1 Indirect questions

Use a full stop, not a question mark, after an indirect question.

He asked what the requirements were.

2.2.2 Elements in lists

Use full stops after the numbers or letters used to list the elements of a summary.

1. Prepare the report.
 2. Send copies to all members.
-
- A. Punctuate properly.
 - B. Write simply.

The individual items in vertical lists should only be followed by full stops when they form complete sentences (as above), not when they are simply nouns or noun phrases (as below).

Bachelor's degrees:

1. Law
2. Chemistry
3. History

Punctuate information contained in a list written in sentence form with a comma after each item in the list and a full stop after the last one.

To qualify for the master's programme

1. your undergraduate degree must be officially recognised,
2. you must submit official transcripts of your undergraduate studies.

If the list includes sentences or phrases punctuated with a full stop, the clause introducing the list must end in a colon (as in the example) or a full stop.

Requirements for admission to the master's programme:

1. Your undergraduate degree must be officially recognised.
2. You must submit official transcripts of your undergraduate studies.

2.2.3 Headings

Do not use full stops in most headings.

Doctoral degree requirements

Doctoral students are required to submit at least three progress reports during the first two months of the research period. The templates for these reports can be accessed at the following link. Further requirements...

However, use full stops (not colons) in run-in heads, which should be italicised or written in boldface to make them stand out.

Doctoral degree requirements. Doctoral students are required to submit at least three progress reports during the first two months of the research period. The templates for these reports can be accessed at the following link. Further requirements...

2.2.4 Sentences ending in abbreviations that take a final point

In declarative sentences, if an abbreviation that takes a final point ends the sentence, finish the sentence with just one final point / full stop.

The new faculty service provides updates on roundtables, forums, seminars, courses, etc.

This research is the initiative of a number of companies, including Apple Inc.

The tour of the Aula Magna will end at 2.30 p.m.

In the case of questions and exclamations, however, finish the sentence with the final point of the abbreviation followed by a question mark or exclamation mark.

Can this department really base its future decisions on the findings of Brown et al.?

This was hardly the position adopted by Washington D.C.!

2.2.5 Footnotes and endnotes

Whether or not they form complete sentences, end all footnotes and endnotes with a full stop.

2.3 Colons

Use colons mainly to introduce quoted passages of text, explanations, examples or summations and long or complex lists. A colon is nearly always preceded by a complete sentence; what follows it may or may not be a complete sentence, and may be a list or even a single word.

University orientation provides a range of activities for new students: tours, workshops and social events.

Research centres are facing a troubling situation: budgets are shrinking.

They proposed the creation of a new post: unit coordinator.

2.3.1 Common mistakes with colons

Colons are frequently misused in the following situations.

i) Comma substitution

Do not use a colon to substitute a comma. Therefore, not

To complete your admission application: send the required documents by the end of the month.

but

To complete your admission application, send the required documents by the end of the month.

ii) With *for example* or *such as*

Do not use colons with *for example* or *such as*, which serve the same purpose as a colon. Therefore, not

You must provide an outline of your research proposal, for example: objectives, methods, related research and expected outcomes.

but

You must provide an outline of your research proposal, for example objectives, methods, related research and expected outcomes.

iii) After a preposition

Do not use colons between a preposition and its complement. Therefore, not

The Council announced cutbacks in: research funding, international cooperation and staff development.

but

The Council announced cutbacks in research funding, international cooperation and staff development.

iv) Two or more colons in a sentence

Never use more than one colon in a sentence.

*The Council's priorities are controversial: they have been praised and criticised by all groups: PDI, PAS and students.

Note, however, that you can use a semi-colon and a colon together in the same sentence.

The Government cutbacks have been devastating; protests are planned by many people working in the most affected areas: education, healthcare and social services.

2.3.2 Other uses of colons

i) Separating a title from a subtitle

When citing the name of a book which has both a title and a subtitle, separate the two with a colon. Do this even though no colon may appear on the cover or the title page of the book itself.

Human Towers: A Catalan Tradition

ii) Writing ratios

Use colons to write ratios.

Among students in the programme, women outnumbered men by more than 2:1.

However, in more formal contexts write out ratios in words.

Among students in the programme, women outnumbered men by more than two to one.

2.4 Semicolons

2.4.1 Main functions of semicolons

The semicolon is mainly used to join two complete sentences in a single sentence when (a) the two sentences are thought to be too closely related to be separated by a full stop and (b) there is no connecting word which would require a comma, such as *and* or *but*.

The Governing Council adopted the measure; the Student Council rejected it.

2.4.2 Alternatives to the semicolon

i) Full stop

A semicolon can generally be replaced by a full stop.

The Governing Council agreed to the deficit plan. The Student Council rejected it.

However, the semicolon suggests that the two smaller sentences are more closely related than the average two consecutive sentences.

ii) A connecting word

A semicolon can also be replaced by a suitable connecting word (*and, or, but, while, yet*) with a joining comma.

The Governing Council agreed to the deficit plan, yet the Student Council rejected it.

However, certain connecting words must be preceded by a semicolon or full stop. The most common among these are *consequently, hence, however, meanwhile, nevertheless, therefore* and *thus*.

The two sides have refused to negotiate; consequently, the deficit plan has been suspended.

2.4.3 Using semicolons

A semicolon must be preceded by a complete sentence and followed by a complete sentence, unless it is used as in one of the two exceptional cases explained in Section 2.4.4 Using semicolons in exceptional cases.

*The Student Council was not in favour; not at all.

The Student Council was not in favour – not at all.

*Many deficit plans have been rejected; nine since 1995.

Many deficit plans have been rejected. There have been nine since 1995.

2.4.4 Using semicolons in exceptional circumstances

Semicolons may be used to separate sequences of a sentence in two special circumstances.

i) Long sentences with many commas

If a sentence is so long and so full of commas that it cannot be easily

understood, use a semicolon to mark the most important break in the sentence.

At the university, where budget cuts have threatened programmes, students, despite warnings about disrupting classes, are occupying buildings; and the teaching and non-teaching staff, whether or not they support the student demands, are unable to enter the faculties where they work.

However, it is often better to split a very long sentence into two separate sentences.

ii) Long or grammatically complex lists

Use semicolons to separate long or grammatically complex items in a list, or to make them more conspicuous than they are with commas. For example, use commas with a list of persons, places or dates, but use semicolons when the items are reasons, examples or findings.

The main arguments for passing the university statutes are: their reflection of changes in higher education; the flexibility of the language used in them; and the absence of sound reasons for rejecting them.

When items in a series involve internal punctuation, separate them by semicolons for the sake of clarity.

The membership of the committee was as follows: PDI, 4; PAS, 5; students, 3.

2.5 Commas

As a general rule, commas can be used to list items in a series, to join sentences and to set off parenthetical or introductory phrases (for commas in lists in sentence form, see Section 2.2.2 Elements in lists).

2.5.1 Listing items in a series

In a list containing a series of items, separate the items with serial commas. However, a serial comma should not precede the conjunction before the final item (in other words, write *a, b and c* and not *a, b, and c*). But if a comma would make the meaning clearer, use it – especially where one of the items in the list is already joined by *and*.

Specialist subjects include teaching, research and development, and business applications.

2.5.2 Joining sentences

When you join two complete sentences into a single sentence, you can use commas but follow them with a suitable connecting word: *and*, *or*, *but*, *while* or *yet*.

The group members had to hand in their reports last week, but some were only submitted this week.

The comma is not required if the subject of the second part of the sentence is omitted or if the conjunction used is *and* or *or*.

The student had to hand in the work by Friday but didn't make the deadline.

The student had to hand in the work by Friday or the work would receive a failing mark.

2.5.3 Setting off phrases

If a phrase is meant to complement or introduce the main information in a sentence, it can be set off by a comma or pair of commas.

Knowing that some students put things off, the lecturer decided assignments should be submitted a week before the exam.

The students in the third group, despite their best efforts, did not submit the assignment on time.

i) Defining relative clauses

In relative clauses do not use commas if the clause defines the antecedent and if omitting it would radically change the meaning of the sentence.

Students who study here are very intelligent.

Students who use the library are likely to be better prepared.

The above clauses define the type of students referred to.

In defining clauses that do not refer to people use either *which* or *that*.

The research was conducted with materials which were easily obtained.

The research was conducted with materials that were easily obtained.

The above clauses define the type of materials referred to.

ii) Non-defining relative clauses

Sentences with non-defining relative clauses need commas because the clause adds information to an otherwise complete sentence.

Students at that university, who were all admitted with academic scholarships, have to work very hard.

In non-defining clauses, only use *which* or *who*.

The research, which was done over a period of three years, was conducted with easily obtained materials.

In the following two sentences, which are both correct, the comma makes a difference. In the first, Dr Smith researches only those additives that pose a risk; in the second, the implication is that all food additives pose a risk.

Dr Smith researches food additives which pose a risk to human health.

Dr Smith researches food additives, which pose a risk to human health.

2.5.4 Other uses of commas

Separate a city from a state, province, region or country with a comma.

Chicago, Illinois Lisbon, Portugal

Do not use a comma between the month and the year.

~~October, 2001~~ October 2001

In most numbers of one thousand or more, use commas between groups of three digits, counting from the right.

62,242 1,723 1,000,000

Exceptions are degree temperatures, year numbers of four digits, addresses, page numbers and other uses of numbers for a non-quantifying purpose (see Section 5.2.2 Numbers and commas).

2.6 Dashes

A dash is similar in appearance to a hyphen, but is longer and used differently. The most common version of the dash is the en dash. Use it with spaces to make a parenthetical reference.

This morning's lecture – rescheduled from last week – was given by Professor Mulligan.

Use it without spaces to express a connection or to indicate a date, time or number range.

Girona–Barcelona bus staff–student relationship
2007–2010 3.00–7.30 p.m. 40–50 students

Remember that ranges can be expressed by an en dash or by the words *from* and *to* (or *between* and *and*), but never by a combination of *from* (or *between*) and an en dash.

*The Arabic discussion group will meet from 3.00–6.30 p.m. on Thursdays.

2.7 Brackets

2.7.1 Round brackets

Round brackets are primarily used in four situations.

i) Secondary or marginal information

Use round brackets to indicate information that is secondary or marginal to the main idea of the sentence.

The documentary was produced by Spotlight Films (a production company connected to the University's film school).

ii) Explanations or abbreviations of preceding information

Use round brackets to expand on or explain preceding information.

EU-OSH (the European workplace safety and health agency) works to ensure that these regulations are respected.

The project was funded by the World Health Organization (WHO).

When a passage within round brackets is at the end of a sentence, of which it is only a part, place the full stop after the closing bracket. However, when the bracketed passage is a complete sentence, place the full stop

before the opening bracket and then add a second full stop before the closing bracket.

The number of students entering arts degrees is declining (according to recent reports).
The number of students entering arts degrees is declining. (According to recent reports, it has dropped by over 25% in the last nine years.)

iii) Options

Use round brackets to represent options.

Please write your surname(s) in block capitals.
The opinions of the author(s) are not shared by the publisher(s).

iv) Enumerations in a body of text

Use round brackets to enclose numerals or letters in an enumeration in the body of a text. Use roman type rather than italics for the numerals and letters.

A project proposal should include (1) a description of the project, (2) an identification of the target audience, (3) an explanation of why the project deserves funding and (4) a comparison with similar projects implemented in recent years.

The preview of your class paper should include (a) an abstract, (b) a sample of each chapter, (c) a selected bibliography and (d) details on funding.

2.7.2 Square brackets

Square brackets are less common than round brackets. They are primarily used in three situations.

i) Clarifications within quoted text

Use square brackets to set off a clarification within quoted text.

The rector said of the coming budget debate: "Never in all my years as rector have I had to make such a difficult decision about such a useful programme [grants for young researchers] affecting so many".

ii) Optional or tentative passages

Use square brackets to indicate optional passages or those still open to discussion in administrative texts.

The implementation of the project will be the [joint] responsibility of the School of Education [and the Office of External Relations].

iii) Brackets within brackets

Use square brackets to indicate parenthetical elements that are already in round brackets.

A large multilateral organisation (e.g., the World Bank [WB]) has the following characteristics...

2.8 Question marks

2.8.1 Direct questions

Place a question mark at the end of any sentence that is a direct question.

Who wrote that report?

If the question is a direct quotation, repeating the speaker's exact words, a question mark is still used.

"Who wrote that report?" she asked.

2.8.2 Other types of questions

i) Indirect questions

Do not use a question mark in an indirect question, in which the speaker's exact words are not repeated. Use only a full stop, since the whole sentence is now a statement.

She asked who had written that report.

ii) Courtesy questions

If a request or instruction is put as a question for reasons of courtesy, do not use a question mark.

Would you please fill in and sign the attached application and submit it before the end of the month.

2.9 Quotation marks

Use quotation marks, also called inverted commas, to indicate direct quotations and definitions.

Before bestowing the award the Rector said, "Dr Robinson's efforts to oppose discrimination place him among the few who actually deserve such an honour."

According to this dictionary, a methodology is "a body of methods, rules and postulates employed by a discipline".

Always use double marks for a quotation and single marks for a quotation within a quotation.

“His office door is very unusual; it has ‘Welcome’ written all over it in over thirty different languages.”

Punctuation should be placed according to the meaning: if it belongs to the quotation, it is quoted; otherwise, it is not.

According to the Dean, “The need for structural change is paramount.”
The Dean declared that the need for structural change was “paramount”.

Quotations of over four lines in length should be set off from the text as a block quotation, not enclosed in quotation marks, and single-spaced. Quoted matter within the block quotation is set off with double quotation marks; quotations within these quotations, with single quotation marks, and so on.

Single quotation marks can also help show the reader that a word or term is used in an unusual, colloquial or ironic way.

Nature somehow ‘knows’ the best environmental course to take.
The students felt ‘ripped off’ by the lecturer’s decision to hold the exam a week earlier than scheduled.
That lecturer is famous for sharing her ‘wisdom’ with her students.

However, if you overuse quotation marks in these ways, they lose their effect.

2.10 Exclamation marks

An exclamation mark is used at the end of a short phrase or a sentence that expresses very strong feeling. It is one way of adding emphasis and

in our institutional context it may be used in public announcements of certain kinds, university relations and advertising.

Sign up now! More funding for research and development!

However, exclamation marks are very rare in formal English, so use them sparingly. Finally, never use two or three exclamations marks in a row.

*Join us at the presentation!!!

2.11 Apostrophes

In general, we use apostrophes to indicate possession or contracted forms.

2.11.1 Apostrophes for possessive forms of nouns

The possessive form of a singular noun is marked by an apostrophe followed by *s*.

the manager's report the lecturer's hypothesis

This rule applies in most cases even with a name ending in *-s*.

the PAS's response Erasmus's success

If a plural noun already ends in *-s*, the apostrophe is used alone.

the students' work (several students) the teachers' room (all the teachers)

Note that the apostrophe is also used in expressions of time periods.

eight weeks' time two weeks' leave

Degree titles should be written with an apostrophe followed by s.

bachelor's degree master's degree

But note the exception: *doctoral degree*, not *doctor's degree*.

Do not use apostrophes to indicate a decade, a plural acronym or the plurals of figures.

the 1990's	the 1990s
URL's	URLs
747's	747s

2.11.2 Apostrophes for contractions

Use apostrophes for contractions (*you're* for *you are*, *don't* for *do not*, *it's* for *it is* or *it has*) but note that contractions are far less common in formal texts than they are in informal writing.

2.12 Ellipsis points

Ellipsis points with a space on either side are used to denote missing words from the middle of a direct quotation. Used at the end of a sentence without a space, they indicate that the sentence has been left unfinished.

"This morning's lecture ... was very interesting."

The lecturer warned her students: "The reports are due next Friday. If I don't get them..."

Do not use ellipsis points to indicate an incomplete list.

*This unit deals with promotion, advertising, outreach...

This unit deals with promotion, advertising, outreach, etc.

3. CAPITALISATION

Capital letters essentially have three functions: to mark the beginning of a sentence, to indicate titles and to distinguish proper nouns from other words. It is impossible to establish absolute rules for all aspects of capitalisation because it often depends on the role of a word in a sentence, the writer's personal taste or the house style being followed. It is largely the second and third functions mentioned above – titles, and the distinction between proper nouns and other words – that lead to discrepancies in practice: authors can apply traditional or more modern approaches to title capitalisation (that is to say, maximal and minimal capitalisation, respectively), and sometimes there are differences of opinion over exactly what constitutes a proper noun and how words derived from proper nouns should be dealt with. Whatever decisions are taken, however, writers should strive to maintain consistency.

3.1 Sentence capitals

3.1.1 Beginning of a sentence

The first letter of a word that begins a sentence, or a set of words that function as a sentence, should be capitalised.

On behalf of the URV I would like to welcome you. All of you. Each and every one of you.

Also capitalise the first letter of a syntactically complete quoted sentence.

According to university regulations, "All thefts of library books must be reported to the general manager."

3.1.2 After a colon

After a colon it is standard practice not to capitalise the first letter of the following text.

The academic year is divided into two quite distinct periods: the first and the second semesters.

If the statement introducing a vertical list is a complete sentence, close it with a colon. Then capitalise the first letter of each item of the list and close each item with a full stop, whether or not it is a complete sentence.

Students can pass the course only in the following circumstances:

- a) They attend 80% of all the classes.
- b) They hand in all the course work on time.
- c) They get at least 50% in the final exam in June.

Students must present the following documents:

- a) The official application form.
- b) A motivation letter.
- c) A photocopy of their passport.

However, if the statement introducing a vertical list is a sentence fragment, not a complete sentence, do not close it with a colon and lowercase the first letter of each item. Finish each item with a comma, except the last one, which should finish with a full stop.

Students will have more chance of successfully completing the course if

- a) they are given clear instructions,
- b) they are regularly reminded of their obligations,
- c) they are closely supervised.

Likewise, a capital letter is often used after a colon placed immediately after formulaic expressions in some administrative documents.

I, Mr Jack Hawkins, coordinator of the Language Service, CERTIFY:

That Ms Neus Puig Peralta attended the workshop held at this university on Saturday 14 April.

3.2 Titles

Traditionally, the titles of works published in English are given maximal capitalisation. That is to say, capitalise the first word and all nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Do not capitalise articles, conjunctions or prepositions.

The Strategic Plan for Teaching and Learning

However, the first word of a subtitle after a colon is generally capitalised, whatever part of speech it may be (see also Section 2.3.2 Other uses of colons).

Strategic Planning: An Approach to the Future

Remember, too, that when writing individual titles you can often exercise a certain amount of personal judgement. A short title, for example, may look better if words that are often lowercased are capitalised.

All About Erasmus

In the headings of document sections, however, use sentence-style capitalisation (first word and proper nouns) instead of title-style capitalisation (first word and all nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs), although the exact style will also depend on the number of levels of hierarchy. Capitalise the first letter of the first word, but lowercase the rest, including the first word after a colon (except for those words that would normally be capitalised in running text).

Teaching vision

Strategic goals: a necessary evil

Core teaching values and the Dublin Declaration

The first element of a compound word is always capitalised in a title; the second element is also capitalised unless it is an article, a preposition or a coordinating conjunction.

The Role of Computer-Assisted Translation in the Internationalisation of European Universities
Greater European Integration Gets the Thumbs-up from Catalan-Speaking University Students

Second elements that are hyphenated to prefixes are capitalised only if they are proper nouns or nouns used as adjectives.

Competencies: A Comparison between Pre- and Post-Erasmus Students
Post-examination Opening Times for University Libraries

3.3 Proper nouns

3.3.1 Titles and ranks

Words for the titles and ranks of people are lowercased when they are used in a general sense or refer to the position held rather than the person. They are capitalised when they are used directly before a name, as a form of address or as a substitute for the name of the holder of the title. When titles are used in apposition to a name, they do not form part of the name and are, therefore, lowercased. Likewise, titles used to refer to a position, not a particular person, are also lowercased. The general guideline is that if the title or rank is a reference to a specific person and the person's name could be used instead without affecting factual or grammatical accuracy, then a capital letter should be used.

In 2011, Rector Ferré was re-elected for a second four-year term of office.

Only last week, Rector, you stated that there would be no further cuts in the departmental budget.

Last week the Rector gave a speech to the Barcelona Chamber of Commerce.

The principal academic and administrative officer of a university in this country is the rector.

Dr Ferré was elected rector for the first time in the year 2007 and re-elected four years later.

Dr Ferré, rector of the University, was first elected in 2007.

In titles that are hyphenated compounds it used to be standard practice to capitalise only the first part of the compound. Nowadays, however, the

tendency is to capitalise both parts.

The Vice-Rector for Academic Policy described the new reforms to the Governing Council.
The vice-rector for academic policy is responsible for making large-scale changes to degree programmes.

The title is lowercased in the second example above because it is a reference to the position of vice-rector, not to a particular person.

3.3.2 Geographical locations

Capitalise the names of all countries, towns and other geographical terms commonly accepted to be proper names.

Catalonia Barcelona the Iberian Peninsula

The names of geographical features are also capitalised. The generic term (*lake, sea, river, channel, etc.*) is also capitalised when it is used as part of the name.

the Mediterranean Sea the River Francolí Lake Banyoles

Otherwise, no capital letter is used (see Section 3.3.3 Reference).

the Mediterranean and the Baltic seas

Capitalise the initial article in a town's name, even though it is lowercased in Catalan.

El Morell La Floresta L'Hospitalet de l'Infant

When you are referring to parts of cities, capitalise terms such as *avinguda, carrer, carretera, passeig* and *plaça*, even though these are lowercased in Catalan (see also Section 8.1.4 Place names).

All Erasmus Week participants should be at the underground station in Plaça de Catalunya at 9.00 a.m.

Compass directions should only be capitalised when they are part of the name of a recognised geographical or political region.

The URV has established an agreement with Queen's University, the leading university in Northern Ireland.

The URV is the university of southern Catalonia.

3.3.3 Reference

When a reference is made to a previous mention of a capitalised proper name, the usual practice is to revert to lower case.

The Erasmus students were taken to Lake Banyoles. When they arrived, the lake was calm and serene.

The Spanish Civil War was fought between 17 July 1936 and 1 April 1939. The war began after a group of right-wing generals rose up against the Government of the Second Spanish Republic.

However, when the reference is simply a short form of the specific person, organisation, institution or event previously mentioned, capitals are used.

The Universitat Rovira i Virgili is placing great emphasis on internationalisation. The University is fully aware of the importance of this policy.

The Spanish Civil War was fought between 17 July 1936 and 1 April 1939... The Civil War became notable for the passion and political division it inspired.

Plural forms that apply one generic term to multiple names should be lowercased because the generic term is merely a descriptor and not part of the proper name.

Girona and Lleida universities

3.3.4 Dates, periods and events

Capitalise all days, months, festivals, holidays, historical periods and historical events (*Wednesday, August, Easter, Saint John's Eve, the Middle Ages, the Tragic Week*), but lowercase the seasons (*the autumn semester, spring enrolment, winter, summer*).

3.3.5 Languages and nationalities

The names of languages and nationalities are always written with a capital letter.

The working languages of the research group are Catalan, Spanish and English.

The Basque universities have signed numerous agreements with their Catalan counterparts.

3.3.6 Official documents

The titles of laws and official documents should be capitalised.

the Single European Act

the Statute of Autonomy of Catalonia

Royal Decree 1359/2003, of 21 October, on the Governance of TATT Activities

Framework Agreement of Cooperation between the University of Lleida and Queen's University

Descriptive titles and titles used in the plural should be lowercased.

The regulation governing the administration of examinations was debated by the Senate yesterday.

The statutes of the autonomous communities were first established in the early 1980s.

3.3.7 Education

i) Subjects, courses, degrees and disciplines

The official names of all subjects, courses and degrees are capitalised. The generic terms are lowercased.

the degree in Biochemistry
the subject Communication and Culture
a master's degree in Social Anthropology
a master of science
a bachelor's degree

The generic term should be capitalised if it is part of the name of the course.

The Master's Degree in Business Management offered by the Department of Economics provides students with all the skills and abilities they need to create and sustain a successful business.

The names of disciplines should be lower-cased.

Although anthropology is easy to define, it is difficult to describe.
The course provides students with initial training in research into oenology and biotechnology.

ii) Chairs and knowledge areas

The official names of all chairs and knowledge areas are capitalised. The generic term is only capitalised when it is part of the official name.

The UOC's UNESCO Chair in E-Learning is pleased to announce that its 10th International Seminar will be held next November.
The knowledge area of Scope Management ensures that the projects include only the work required to complete them successfully.

iii) Grades

Grades are capitalised.

Fail	Pass	Excellent
Distinction	A	B

iv) Academic periods

Academic periods are lowercased.

the academic year	compulsory secondary education (ESO)
the first semester	the second term

3.3.8 Public institutions and organisations

All the words, including the generic terms, that are part of the official name of public institutions, organisations, societies, associations and movements should be capitalised.

the Faculty of Chemistry
 the Department of Business Management
 the Language Service
 the Board of Trustees
 the General Directorate of Universities

When the names of organisations are in the plural or have a more general meaning, the generic terms should be lowercased.

The departments of History and Psychology are piloting a new teaching methodology.
 One of the aims of a university language service is to prepare students to compete in a globalised society.

When the full name of the organisation is abbreviated by deleting a word or words, the capitals should be maintained (see Section 3.3.3 Reference).

The Department [of History] is piloting a new teaching methodology.
 The University [of Barcelona] is engaged in a far-reaching process of internationalisation.

4. ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

Abbreviations and symbols help make the reader's job easier by providing a short reference for a longer word or a series of words that the reader would otherwise have to read again several times in a single text. In general terms, abbreviations fall into two groups: those which are frequently used to refer to specific words or terms (*Thurs.*, *e.g.*, *Dr*) and those which accompany their longer form at least once to show us there is a shorter alternative (*EHEA* for *European Higher Education Area*, or *LERU* for *League of European Research Universities*). In this second group there are short forms for proper nouns, like *EHEA* or *LERU* above, but there are also abbreviations for common nouns (such as *CPD* for *continuing professional development* or *IT* for *information technology*), which we use when we want those common nouns to describe a generalised group, practice or field. Abbreviations are particularly important in our university context, where a large number of texts record the names of institutions and systems of different kinds; and the correct use of certain symbols in institutional texts such as informative web pages and annual reports makes those texts easier to read.

4.1 Forming abbreviations

4.1.1 Forming acronyms and initialisms

Most acronyms are formed from the first or first few letters of a series of words. They are written in capital letters and do not take points.

ECTS ESOL TEFL

If an acronym contains six or more letters, capitalise the initial letter and lowercase the others.

Erasmus Europol Unctad

On the other hand, initialisms are usually formed from just the first letters of a series of words. Generally speaking, write them following the upper or lower case pattern of the full term. When the full term is in lower case, they are usually separated by points.

ECTS (European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System)

e.g. (*exempli gratia*) i.e. (*id est*)

Note, however, that the abbreviation *p/lc* (public limited company) is always written in lower case but without points.

In higher education, some initialisms representing degree studies combine upper and lower case and do not take points.

BSc (Bachelor of Science) PhD (*philosophiae doctor*)

Note, too, that an initialism may take capital letters even when the full term does not.

NGO (non-governmental organisation) PC (personal computer)

4.1.2 Forming contractions and truncations

Contractions are formed by omitting the middle of a word. In line with British English, this guide recommends not putting a point after the last letter of the contraction.

Attn (Attention) Dr (Doctor) Mr (Mister)

Truncations are formed by omitting the end of a word and sometimes other letters as well. They are always followed by a point.

Feb. (February) Tues. (Tuesday) col. (column)

4.2 Using abbreviations

4.2.1 Using acronyms and initialisms

If a term occurs frequently in a text, accompany the term by its abbreviation the first time the term occurs and just use the abbreviation in all further references.

Our faculty's internal quality assurance system (IQAS) is modelled on the document 'European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area' (ESGs) and each academic year all IQAS results are subject to an external review which considers those ESGs on an individual basis.

On the other hand, if the term only occurs once in the text, there is usually no need to give the abbreviation at all.

*Our faculty's internal quality assurance system is modelled on the document 'European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area' (ESGs). This year we have also added six new courses. The first of these...

Note, too, that terms in the title of a text should not be accompanied by their abbreviation. However, there are texts in which you should add an abbreviation after a term even though the term only occurs once. One case is legal texts, where for the sake of precision and clarity the abbreviation is as important to include as the full term.

I hereby award this diploma to the student Joan Puig Peralta for having successfully completed the examinations organised by the University School of Nursing (EUI-UB) for the programme in Palliative Care.

The University of Barcelona Virtual Museum (MVUB) declines any liability resulting from the incorrect use of this website.

Another case is a text in which the full term is not as useful to the reader as the abbreviation. In some institutions, for example, writers often translate the full names of organisations to help non-native readers but those translations

are not used by other institutions. In such cases, the original-language abbreviation becomes particularly important for the reader as an identifier, as in the example of the *Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya (CRAM)* below.

The Centre for Mountain Research (CRAM) is a leading institute that promotes practical and theoretical research into the natural environment of the Pyrenees in aquatic systems and in records of environmental fluctuation and biodiversity.

A further case is a text in which the full term is not as reliable as the abbreviation. On the web, for example, a research organisation called the *Centre de Recursos de Biodiversitat Animal* is variously rendered as the *Animal Biodiversity Resource Centre*, the *Resource Centre for Animal Biodiversity* and the *Centre for Resources in Animal Biodiversity*. In such cases, add the full term's official abbreviation (in this case, *CRBA*) even after an isolated reference.

Finally, however, do not use abbreviations simply because they make a text look more official and without considering whether the reader really has anything to gain by them.

*I would like to express my gratitude to you and your colleagues for having invited our institution to the Third International Exhibition and Conference on Higher Education (IECHE 2012).

4.2.2 Using contractions and truncations

Contractions and truncations are generally used in headers, footnotes, endnotes, tables and text boxes. For a list of the contractions, truncations and initialisms that are most commonly used in formal language, see Appendix I: Lists of additional information.

If you are unsure of whether you need to use points, remember the following cases.

i) Truncated forms as codes or symbols

Truncated forms used as codes or symbols do not take points.

EN (English) kg (kilogram)

ii) Full words or contractions in Latin

Certain Latin forms do not take a point because they are full words. Likewise, full words within Latin phrases do not require a point.

sic
et al.

The Latin form *numero* is abbreviated to *no.* to avoid confusion.

iii) Abbreviating people's names

Abbreviate people's first names with a single letter only, followed by a point and a space.

Philippe Junot P. Junot
Theodore Roosevelt T. Roosevelt

Write multiple initials with points and spaces.

Elwyn Brooks White E. B. White

Represent compound first names by both initials.

Joan Manuel Serrat J. M. Serrat
Jean-Paul Sartre J.-P. Sartre

iv) Lower-case truncations

Note that some common truncations are never written in upper case, even at the beginning of a footnote.

c. (circa) e.g. ('for example') i.e. ('that is')
l., ll. (line, lines) p., pp. (page, pages)

v) Use of *Article*

Note that the word *Article* may be abbreviated to *Art.* in footnotes or tables, but should not be abbreviated in running text.

vi) Use of *etc.*

Only use *etc.* at the end of a series of examples and never at the end of a series introduced by the words *like*, *for example* or *such as*.

4.3 Abbreviations and grammar

4.3.1 Abbreviations and articles

Acronyms that abbreviate the names (proper nouns) of organisations and systems do not take the definite article *the* even if their full forms do.

OPEC (the Organisation of the Petroleum Exporting Countries)
UNTERM (the United Nations Multilingual Terminology Database)

But when they abbreviate common nouns, they take *the* or *a(n)* as necessary.

the MD (managing director)
a CMS (content management system)

Initialisms generally take the definite article if the full form does.

the ERA (the European Research Area)

the OECD (the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development)

This rule can be applied to the abbreviations of the names of Catalan-speaking universities because the full forms always begin with the definite article *la* (*la Universitat Jaume I, la Universitat Rovira i Virgili, la Universitat de València*).

the UJI

the URV

the UV

Universities may establish other norms, however. For example, the *University of Vic* is known as *UVic* (without *the*) in its English abbreviated form. In English, many universities prefer this usage.

USC is the University of Southern California.

Finally, remember that the article is not necessary when the full term is hardly ever used (*HIV*, for *human immunodeficiency virus*), when it describes a general notion (*VET*, for *vocational education and training*) or when we consider the abbreviation to be a name in its own right (*IBM*, for *International Business Machines Corporation*).

To choose between *a* or *an*, apply the rule ‘*a* before a consonant sound, *an* before a vowel sound’ (as if the abbreviation following the article were being spoken).

a LERU decision

a PAS representative

a UJI student

an Erasmus grant

an EHEA guideline

an NBA player

4.3.2 Abbreviations and plurals

Plurals of abbreviations are formed in the same way as the regular plurals of common nouns: simply by adding the letter *s*. Note that there is no apostrophe before *s*, which is written in lower case.

FAQs (frequently asked questions)
SMEs (small and medium-sized enterprises)
VLEs (virtual learning environments)

When the singular form of the abbreviation ends in *-s*, that form can also be used to refer to a plural group. This avoids the uncomfortable effect of seeing an *s* repeated.

DoS (director of studies)
DoS (directors of studies)

4.3.3 Abbreviations as adjectives

As indicated in the examples in Section 4.3.1 Abbreviations and articles, abbreviations can also be used as adjectives, in either a simple or compound form.

PDI salaries
R&D contracts
UAB-specific degree courses
EHEA-recognised qualifications

4.4 Abbreviations in a multilingual context

Criteria for translating into English is the subject of Section 8 Translation but there are two important points to be made about using abbreviations in our multilingual institutional context.

First, if you need to provide English versions of the full names of university offices or government institutions, do not translate their abbreviations. For example, the English name of a university office called the *Oficina de Programes Internacionals (OPI)* would be the *Office for International Programmes (OPI)*. And the English names of the *Diari Oficial de la Generalitat de Catalunya*, the *Diari Oficial de la Comunitat Valenciana* the *Boletín Oficial*

del Estado would be the *Official Gazette of the Government of Catalonia (DOGC)*, the *Official Gazette of the Government of Valencia (DOCV)* and the *Official Gazette of the Government of Spain (BOE)*, respectively.

Second, a number of very frequent abbreviations in Catalan-speaking universities come from common noun phrases that have no official English equivalent (*PAS* from *personal d'administració i serveis*, *PDI* from *personal docent i investigador*, *SED* from *secretaria d'estudiants i docència* and *PAT* from *pla d'acció tutorial*). This guide recommends explaining or paraphrasing the full term the first time it occurs in a text and then using only the Catalan abbreviation for the rest of the text. This way, English-language readers can be more effectively helped to understand their non-English institutional environment.

Last year, our university's administrative and service staff (*personal d'administració i serveis*, or *PAS*) took advantage of the Erasmus programme to travel to over 20 different European destinations. A number of *PAS* members also completed courses in the US and in Canada.

4.5 Symbols

As with truncations and contractions, with symbols it is important to be consistent when alternative forms are available. This section provides guidelines for the symbols most commonly used in institutional writing. For details on symbols expressing sequences, ranges and yearly periods, see Section 5 Numbers.

4.5.1 Ampersands

In our institutional context, the ampersand is mainly found in the formal names of firms or businesses, where it should not be replaced with the word *and*. The ampersand, and not the plus sign, should be used to abbreviate the phrase *research and development*.

Is today's R&D model failing to meet the needs of developing countries?

This guide recommends not using the ampersand as a substitute for the word *and*, as this use is generally a feature of informal writing.

4.5.2 Capitalisation and lowercasing

Use capital letters for the first letter of symbols that come from people's names.

Bq (becquerel) Hz (hertz) K (kelvin) N (newton)

Symbols that come from common nouns are generally written in lower case and are the same for singular and plural.

cd (candela) g (gram) kb (kilobit)
kg (kilogram) lm (lumen) lx (lux)

However, remember *kilobyte* (*kB*) (one kilobyte is equal to eight kilobits) and *litre* (*L*).

4.5.3 Multiplication signs

The multiplication sign (\times) is similar to the lower case *x* but should not be confused with it.

4.5.4 Percentages

Use *per cent* where the number is also spelt out in words; with figures, use the per cent sign without a space between the figure and the symbol.

Forty-nine per cent
65%

Note that the per cent sign should follow each of the figures in any given phrase. Therefore, not

Library survey users rose last semester from 5 to 7% of the total 1,500 members.

but

Library survey users rose last semester from 5% to 7% of the total 1,500 members.

Finally, note the difference between *per cent* and *percentage point*: an increase from 5% to 7% would be an increase of two percentage points (or an increase of 40%), not an increase of 2%.

4.6 Abbreviating units of measurement

Units of measurement are often abbreviated. The abridged forms are normally written without points and do not have plurals.

4 ha (hectares) 9 m (metres) 60 km (kilometres)
200 g (grams) 5 kg (kilograms)

Note that proper nouns that form part of units of measurement retain their initial capital.

10 degrees Celsius

5. NUMBERS

This section covers numbers, particularly the question of when they should be written out and what to do should they appear in combination with units of measurement, other numbers and punctuation marks. Although approaches to these issues differ depending on the type of document, these guidelines are intended for institutional rather than technical texts. They also give precedence to British usage, although explanations on American usage are given when necessary.

5.1 Writing out numbers

5.1.1 Cardinal numbers

Spell out cardinal numbers from zero to nine and use numerals from 10 upwards, but maintain consistency in the immediate context.

Every three sessions, the students will be organised in new groups of five.

The Board will be reviewing a total of 10 new master's degrees and 12 new doctoral degrees.

The presentations should last between five and ten minutes.

5.1.2 Ordinal numbers

Spell out ordinal numbers from zero to nine and use numerals from 10 upwards, but maintain consistency in the immediate context. Avoid superscript type.

The Second International Conference on Fluid Dynamics was held in Vic.

The oldest European university was founded in the 12th century.

In this year's ranking table, the research groups Pattern Analysis and Sonar Imaging occupied third and eleventh position, respectively.

5.1.3 Roman numerals

Use Roman numerals for course names.

Mathematics II

5.1.4 Fractions

Spell out simple fractions and hyphenate them.

Two-thirds of the students were in agreement.
The lecturer has covered three-quarters of the course so far.

5.1.5 Numbers at the beginning of a sentence

Spell out numbers (including years) at the beginning of a sentence, although it is better to rewrite the sentence so that it does not start with a numeral.

Nineteen forty-five was the year the UN was founded.
The UN was founded in 1945.

5.1.6 Plural numbers

Add an *s* to form the plural of a numeral. Do not add an apostrophe.

Among the scores were four 94s and two 99s.

5.2 Numbers and punctuation

5.2.1 Numbers and decimal points

Use a point, not a comma, before a decimal.

0.25 5.5

5.2.2 Numbers and commas

In numbers of one thousand or more, use commas between groups of three digits, counting from the right.

2,436 32,548 83,200,000

Do not use commas in serial numbers such as page numbers, street numbers and years.

All further enquiries should be made at our office at 1558 Brunswick Avenue, New York City.

5.2.3 Numbers and hyphens

Hyphenate numbers from *twenty-one* to *ninety-nine*.

Three hundred and forty-six students are enrolled in the School of Fine Art.

Spell out numbers that are joined to a word by a hyphen, except in the case of set phrases such as *24-hour clock*.

A five-year period

A one-week holiday

When two numbers appear side by side, spell one of them out. If one of

them occurs alongside a unit of measurement, make that one a numeral.

four 6-week periods
thirty-six 20-cent coins

5.3 Numbers and units of measurement

Spell out the number if the unit of measurement is written out and use a numeral when the unit of measurement is abbreviated.

The surface area of the School's premises is five hundred square metres.
The conference hall is 2 km from here.

Do not use points or plurals with abbreviated units of measurement. Insert a non-breaking space between the numeral and the unit.

2 m 6 km 10 min

5.4 Numbers and ranges

5.4.1 En dashes in ranges

Use a closed-up en dash to indicate a range.

groups of 5–10 students

5.4.2 Symbols in ranges

Repeat symbols and units, except for those that you separate from the numeral with a non-breaking space.

100°C–150°C between 100°C and 150°C
20–30 cm from 20 to 30 cm

5.5 Time of day

Use the 12-hour clock rather than the 24-hour clock. Write *a.m.* and *p.m.* with points and insert a non-breaking space between the time and the abbreviation. Use a point to separate hours from minutes.

The lecture starts at 9.30 a.m.
The library closes at 7.30 p.m.

Spell out the number with the term *o'clock*, which is used to designate exact hours only.

The rector's speech will begin at four o'clock.

Use the terms *noon* (or *12 noon*) and *midnight*, rather than *12 p.m.* and *12 a.m.*

The tutorial, which was due to begin at noon, began at 1.15 p.m.
The campus copy shop closes at 12 noon.
The faculty bar will serve coffee until midnight.

5.6 Dates

Do not use the endings *-st*, *-nd*, *-rd* or *-th* with a figure in a date. Note that, in British English, dates are written in the order day–month–year, without internal punctuation.

16 July 2010

In British English, the numeric form of the date above is, therefore:

16/07/10

Note that, in American English, dates are written in the order month–day–year, with a comma between the day and the year.

July 16, 2010

In American English, the numeric form of the date above is, therefore:

07/16/10

5.6.1 Days of the week

Do not use a comma after the day of the week when it precedes a date.

Tuesday 6 July 2010

5.6.2 Years

In running text, use all four digits when referring to a year (*1971*, not *'71*). Academic years should be hyphenated thus:

the 2011-2012 academic year

5.6.3 Decades

Use numbers to refer to decades rather than writing them out. Do not add an apostrophe before the plural *-s*.

We were all born in the mid-1920s.

In the case of the period 2000 to 2020, use a circumlocution such as *the first decade of the twenty-first century* or *the second decade of the twenty-first century*.

5.7 Currencies

5.7.1 Symbols for currencies

Place the symbol for a currency before the amount, without a space.

€3,600 £571

5.7.2 Abbreviating currencies

Place the abbreviation for a currency before the amount and insert a non-breaking space.

EUR 3,600 GBP 571

5.8 Billions

Use *one billion* in English to refer to the Catalan *mil millions*.

Billions are used for quantities of *1,000,000,000* or 10^9 in most, if not all, English-speaking contexts, although writers should remain aware of historical and geographic distinctions.

5.9 Telephone numbers

Telephone numbers are typically composed of an international call prefix, a country calling code and the local telephone number. To aid legibility,

they are split into groups, using spaces and not dashes or points. In the Catalan-speaking territories, the numbers after the country calling code are grouped in threes.

00 34 934 016 186

Note that the international call prefix (00) used to dial out of a country is generally replaced with a plus sign. This is joined to the country calling code, which is used to dial into a country.

+34 934 016 186

Telephone extensions are written at the end of the number, after a space, in brackets.

+34 934 016 186 (182)

6. GENDER

Languages often use two kinds of gender: natural gender, referring to living things of different sexes; and grammatical gender, relating to inanimate objects and concepts which are categorised as feminine, masculine or even neuter. English only uses natural gender, and often makes no distinction between male and female where other languages would (for example, in most professional categories). Nonetheless, avoiding gender can be a complex issue that requires care, particularly in the use of *they* or *he* or *she*, professional categories which do distinguish gender, married women's names, titles and problematic words. Note that various European, Spanish and regional guidelines, directives and acts require public authorities and their employees to support gender equality and use non-sexist language. For details of these regulations, see Guidelines and directives on the use of non-sexist language in Appendix I: Lists of additional information.

6.1 Third-person pronouns

6.1.1 Personal pronouns

English pronouns are not gender-specific, with the exception of *he* and *she* (subjects), *him* and *her* (objects) and *his* and *hers* (possessive). When you are describing groups of people of differing sex or individuals whose gender is unknown, avoid expressions like *he/she*, *him/her*, *his/hers* and *himself/herself*. Where possible, use a plural pronoun (*they*, *their*, etc.).

When students have no certificate, the University will ask them to take an exam.
Researchers have to be completely objective in their findings.

6.1.2 Use of *he* or *she*

You can occasionally use *he* or *she*, *him* or *her* and *his* or *her* as an alternative to pluralising the subject and verb, but overuse can seem pedantic. Therefore, not

The average student is worried about his or her marks.
The applicant must demonstrate his or her ability to work independently.

but

Students are worried about their marks.
Applicants must demonstrate their ability to work independently.

In some instances, the pronoun adds nothing. Simply remove it or use an article.

The average student is worried about marks.
The applicant must demonstrate an ability to work independently.

6.1.3 Indefinite pronouns

When you use *all ~s*, *each ~*, *every ~*, *everyone/body*, *anyone/body*, *someone/body*, *whoever* or a relative clause like *those who*, you must pair these with *they*, *them* and *their*. All take a singular verb, except *all ~s* and *those who*.

All candidates are requested to include a cover letter and their CV in their applications.
Every candidate has to include references for work experience they have had over the past two years.

6.1.4 Use of *you*

In some texts, especially less formal documents such as manuals, guides or instructions, the second person (*you*) or the imperative (no pronoun) is often more appropriate than the third person. This is especially convenient, as *you*, *your*, *yourself* and *yourselves* are not gender-specific. Therefore, not

The students should first turn on their computers.

but

You should first turn on your computer.

First, turn on your computer.

6.2 Gender-neutral titles

6.2.1 Gender-neutral forms for referring to men and women

English is largely gender-neutral, so most professional categories do not distinguish between men and women. Furthermore, when you are referring to just one person, there is no need to avoid gender-marked language.

Chairwoman Vázquez apologised for her absence.

However, in situations where no sex should predominate – for example, when referring to the position rather than the person occupying it – always use the neutral version(s).

A new chairperson must be elected before the Senate's inaugural session.

A new chair must be elected before the Senate's inaugural session.

Many professions which previously had only gender-specific names now have a neutral form. For example, *ombudsman* and *ombudswoman* should become *ombuds officer* where possible.

Take care when using both gender-neutral titles and *they*, *their*, *themselves*. In the example below, *their absence* could refer to either the chairperson or other committee members.

The chairperson apologised for their absence.

Best practice is to avoid this construction, as below.

The chairperson apologised for not being able to attend.

Avoid the few gender-marked words in English (for example, *fireman*, *air hostess*) by using the many neutral synonyms available (*fire fighter*, *flight attendant*).

6.2.2 Re-gendering

Re-gendering means adding gender markers to words which are neutral and could describe persons of differing sex. This guide recommends that you avoid re-gendering neutral words (especially those which are more vulnerable to re-gendering because they are perceived, for one reason or another, as feminine). Therefore, not

Male nurses constitute 35% of this year's nursing graduates.

but

Men constitute 35% of this year's nursing graduates.

Where it is necessary to show that a group includes both men and women, use distributive expressions.

The survey obtained similar results among both male and female students.

Never use the suffix *-ess*, the prefix *she-*, or the formula *lady* + job title. Therefore *manager* and not **manageress*, **she-mayor* or **lady-mayor*.

6.2.3 Plural nouns

In English, plural nouns behave just like singular ones: only those which are gender-specific in the singular are likewise marked in the plural.

Graduates should arrive at least 30 minutes prior to the ceremony.
Chairwomen Vázquez and Puig will offer a short press conference.

You can apply the same neutral forms in the plural where required.

The meeting was moderated by two chairpersons, Mr Alemany and Ms Vázquez.

6.2.4 Collective nouns

In Section 6.1.1 Personal pronouns, we advise pluralising most references to people. Where there are many of these, alternate plural nouns with collective nouns such as *staff* (↔ *employees*), *team* (↔ *researchers*), *faculty* (↔ *teachers*), *board* (↔ *governors, directors*), *class* or *group* (↔ *students*). Note that, although singular, these nouns take a plural verb.

Research staff play a vital role in the laboratory.
The class are requested to hand in their work by 1 May.

6.2.5 Impersonal expressions

It is especially important to use gender-neutral expressions (for example, *person* or *party*) in templates for very common official documents where the text is aimed at a single person but will be reused for individuals of differing sex. These should be followed by *they*, not *he* or *she*.

For whatever purposes it may serve and at the request of the person concerned, I issue this certificate.
Each party must ratify the pact before it can take effect. They will then publish the text in their region's official gazette in the space of six months.

6.3 Use of *Mr*, *Mrs* and *Ms*

6.3.1 Use of *Ms* and *Mrs*

Because *Mrs* implies a woman is married, using it in formal contexts seems presumptuous. Use *Ms* (but see Section 6.3.2 *Mr*, *Mrs* or *Ms* versus other titles).

6.3.2 *Mr*, *Mrs* or *Ms* versus other titles

Do not combine titles and ranks such as *professor*, *doctor*, etc. with *Mr* or *Ms*. If the title is somehow separated from the name, use *Mr* or *Ms* + surname or the full name.

Chairwoman Isabel Sales asked the rector, Mr Torrelló, to speak.

Use *lady* only for the ceremonial title used in the United Kingdom and Commonwealth countries, and as part of the expression *ladies and gentlemen*.

6.3.3 Salutations

A problem occurs in the opening salutation of letters written to unnamed individuals. Avoid translating *senyor*, *senyora*, *Sr./Sra.* or *En/Na* as *Mr* or *Ms*, and instead write *Dear student*, *Dear faculty member* or *Dear colleague*. If the recipients have no relationship with the university, use *Dear Sir* or *Madam*.

6.4 Gender and problematic words

6.4.1 Words containing *man* but including reference to women

A few words that include reference to both men and women are intrinsically masculine, and can be easily substituted with gender-neutral terms. These

include *mankind* (*humanity*), *manpower* (*staff*), *prehistoric man* and *caveman* (*prehistoric humans, early societies*), *Englishmen*, etc. (*the English*) and *Englishman*, etc. (*an English person*). Although adjectives and verbs are not considered gender-specific, these two are best avoided: *manmade* and *to man*.

mankind	humanity
manpower	staff

6.4.2 Use of *bachelor*, *master*, *alumni* and *fellow*

Although generally considered gender-neutral, *bachelor*, *master*, *alumni* and *fellow* have, or have had, gender-specific meanings. The word *bachelor* may also refer to a single man, and *master* can refer to a young man or a male teacher (feminine *mistress*). The Latin *alumnus* is properly masculine-only (fem. singular, *alumna*; masc. plural, *alumni*; fem. plural, *alumnae*). Meanwhile, *fellow* is sometimes considered to refer primarily to men. In present-day use, none of these words retain any real masculine connotations, and *bachelor of science*, *master of arts*, *alumni* and *fellow* are all perfectly applicable to both men and women. Nonetheless, you can often use more common terms: *alumni* can be replaced by *graduates* or *former students*; and *fellow* is often better expressed as *colleague*, *peer* or *member of faculty*.

7. SINGULAR AND PLURAL

Because English is a language with very heterogeneous origins, many English words derived from French, Greek or Latin have irregular plurals or even two different plurals, depending on usage. Some words which may appear plural are in fact singular, as in the various names of areas of knowledge. Furthermore, the use of collective nouns and partitive expressions often affects whether the related verb is singular or plural. Finally, despite some notable exceptions, nouns used as adjectives normally revert to their singular form.

7.1 Words with unusual plural forms

Some frequent examples in our institutional context are *campus*, *curriculum*, *practicum* and *thesis*, which take the plural forms *campuses*, *curricula*, *practicums* and *theses*, respectively. Because the standard English plural -s is becoming increasingly widespread, in those cases where you can choose between two alternative plural forms this guide recommends the -s form (for example, prefer *syllabuses* to *syllabi*). For a longer list of unusual plural forms, see Unusual plural forms in Appendix I: Lists of additional information.

7.2 Common problems with singular and plural

7.2.1 The word *data*

The word *data* can be singular or plural. However, in common usage we recommend using the singular; in research, convention favours the plural.

Much of this data is useless because the file has been corrupted.

The data show a 15% increase in bronchial diseases in four of the five cohorts examined.

7.2.2 Areas of knowledge

Many names of academic and scientific disciplines appear to be plural. These include *economics*, *electronics*, *physics*, *statistics* and *telecommunications*, which are usually singular in Catalan (*economia*, *electrònica*, *física*, *estadística* and *telecomunicació*, respectively). However, when treated as the name of a field of knowledge or as a subject of study, they are considered collective nouns and take a singular verb.

Economics is commonly regarded as a soft science.

A common but informal version of the term *mathematics* is *maths* (British English) or *math* (American English). In most documents, only the full version of the word is appropriate.

Finally, a few terms which when used in a generic sense are plural in Catalan (*consells*, *finances*, *negocis*, *notícies*) take the singular form of the verb in English (*advice*, *finance*, *business*, *news*).

7.3 Collective nouns and the number of the verb

7.3.1 Words denoting groups

In collective nouns applying to groups of people, you can use either singular or plural verbs. If you wish to imply unanimity or unity, use a singular verb; if you want to talk about varied opinions or only one part of the group, use the plural.

The University's Governing Council is considering the matter.

The Committee were divided over tuition fees.

7.3.2 Geographical areas and organisations

Countries, regions and organisations take a singular verb even when they

have a plural name, unless there is some reason to stress the individual parts.

The Balearic Islands is a self-governing region of Spain.

The United Nations is charged with the maintenance of international peace.

The Canary Islands are made up of thirteen islands, all of which are volcanic in origin.

7.4 Partitive expressions

The expressions *half of* and *none (of)* may take either a singular or a plural verb when the noun they modify is countable. Otherwise, the verb must be singular.

None of our graduates has had / have had problems gaining a grant for further studies.

The expression *the majority (of)* takes a plural verb if the following noun is a collection of individuals.

The majority of our graduates have had no problem gaining a grant for further studies.

When a *number (of)* means several, it takes a plural verb.

A number of applications are still to come.

Meanwhile, *the number (of)* takes a singular verb.

The number of applications is small.

7.5 Nouns used as adjectives

7.5.1 Normal use

Nouns used as adjectives are rarely used in their plural form.

Mr Martorell presented the guidelines for mobility programmes.

Mr Martorell presented the mobility programme guidelines.

However, where a singular would be confusing, the plural is used. Note these examples: *admissions office, materials science, genomics data*.

When nouns whose meaning is different in singular and plural are used as adjectives (*clothes, sports, customs, accounts, arms, etc.*), they should be used appropriately.

This report has also been sent to the accounts department.

7.5.2 Areas of knowledge as adjectives

When the plural names of disciplines are used as adjectives, they maintain their plural form. Therefore, *economic* and *economics* used as an adjective have two different meanings.

The Department is beginning a series of CPD courses for its economics lecturers.
Attaining sufficient economic support is a vital aspect of university governance.

8. TRANSLATION

On many occasions translators face difficult decisions as to what requires translation or further explanation. Many cultural aspects are specific to a given setting and the guidelines below aim to provide support with the issues this can lead to. The intention is not to lay down the law, but to provide a point of reference to help you make decisions when you are faced with these complex questions.

8.1 Names

8.1.1 People's names

Maintain the accents in people's names (for example, *Sílvia*). Write out the abbreviations *M.* and *M.^a* in full as *Maria*. Respect the way people write their surnames: if they use an *i* to connect their first and second surnames, do not translate it, remove it or replace it with a hyphen. Likewise, if they do not use a connecting *i*, do not add one.

8.1.2 Public figures

Generally speaking, do not translate the names of public figures. For example, royalty should be referred to in the original language.

King John Charles King Juan Carlos

However, there are some exceptions. Popes should be referred to by the English equivalent of their papal names. Likewise, transliteration of names in non-Latin scripts can cause problems (a notable example being *Gadhafi*). For additional details, see Appendix II: Resources and further reading.

Well-known Catalan figures are often referred to in foreign media by the Spanish version of their first name. Use the Catalan version, unless there is a clear and well-founded tradition otherwise. Thus, *Pau Casals*, but *José Carreras*.

8.1.3 Historical figures

Only translate the names of famous figures from history when they have a well-established English translation.

Alexander the Great Catherine of Aragon Wilfred the Hairy

8.1.4 Place names

i) Towns and cities

Refer to towns and cities within Catalonia by their Catalan names.

Gerona	Girona
Lérida	Lleida

Avoid the use of demonyms (words used to describe inhabitants) for towns and cities. Use *the inhabitants of Barcelona* or *the people of Barcelona*, rather than *Barcelonans*.

Do not translate addresses, but if they can be made more understandable or easier to read for an English-speaking audience, then this is advisable.

Transcribe the first letter of lower-case Catalan terms such as *avinguda*, *carrer*, *carretera*, *passeig* and *plaça* in upper case for English-speaking audiences even though these are lowercased in Catalan (so *Carrer Sant Pau*, *Avinguda Diagonal*, etc.).

Write out the full address rather than using abbreviations (so for *pl. de Catalunya*, write *Plaça de Catalunya*).

Floor and door numbers should be expressed in cardinal rather than ordinal numbers (i.e., *1, 2* rather than *1st, 2nd*).

ii) Geographical areas

Only translate the names of geographical areas if there is a well-established English translation.

the Balearic Islands the Basque Country Catalonia

When there is no well-established translation, consider the context. For example, the term *autonomous community* should be avoided, but may be required on occasions when it is vital to express the particular nature of the political divisions in Spain.

The demonym for Catalonia is *Catalan* (not *Catalonian*).

iii) Rivers and lakes

Do not translate the names of rivers and lakes (*River Sec*) unless there is a well-established English version (*River Danube*).

iv) Seas

Translate the names of seas. A notable example is the *Bay of Biscay* (rather than the *Cantabrian Sea*).

v) Islands

Translate the names of islands.

Corsica Sardinia Sicily

vi) Mountain ranges

Translate the names of mountain ranges when there is a well-established English translation.

the Alps the Pyrenees

Do not translate them when there is not.

the Picos de Europa the Serra de Tramuntana

vii) Landmarks and buildings

Generally speaking, do not translate the names of landmarks and buildings. However, there are some exceptions such as *the Catalan Parliament building* or *the Great Wall of China*. Likewise, descriptive translations may be used to make references clearer: for example, *the Les Àligues building* at the University of Girona or *the Camp Nou stadium*.

8.1.5 Public institutions

Generally speaking, translate the names of public institutions. If the original is required, use it on first mention with a descriptive translation in brackets. Use the translation on subsequent mention. Examples include *Generalitat Valenciana (the Valencian government)* and *Mossos d'Esquadra (Catalan police force)*. Organisations with abbreviations should be translated but the abbreviation should be maintained and used on subsequent mention: *Spanish Royal Academy (RAE)* or *European Organization for Nuclear Research (CERN)*. As can be seen above, use lower case for descriptive translations into English, but maintain capitals when you are translating proper names word for word or using established English versions.

8.1.6 Universities

Translate the names of universities, unless otherwise stipulated by the university in question itself. Below is a list of the names of Vives Network universities to be used when writing in English.

Universitat Abat Oliba CEU: Abat Oliba CEU University
Universitat d'Alacant: University of Alacant
Universitat d'Andorra: Universitat d'Andorra
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona: Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona
Universitat de Barcelona: University of Barcelona
Universitat de Girona: University of Girona
Universitat de les Illes Balears: University of the Balearic Islands
Universitat de Perpinyà Via Domitia: University of Perpignan Via Domitia
Universitat de Sàsser: University of Sassari
Universitat Internacional de Catalunya: Universitat Internacional de Catalunya
Universitat Jaume I: Universitat Jaume I
Universitat de Lleida: University of Lleida
Universitat Miguel Hernández d'Elx: Miguel Hernández University of Elche
Universitat Oberta de Catalunya: Universitat Oberta de Catalunya (Open University of Catalonia, UOC), and just UOC on subsequent mention.
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya: Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya
Universitat Politècnica de València: Universitat Politècnica de València
Universitat Pompeu Fabra: Pompeu Fabra University
Universitat Ramon Llull: Ramon Llull University
Universitat Rovira i Virgili: Universitat Rovira i Virgili
Universitat de València: University of Valencia
Universitat de Vic: University of Vic

University names that incorporate a proper noun, such as *the Miguel Hernández University of Elche*, should include the definite article in running text.

The Miguel Hernández University of Elche is a public university.

8.1.7 Courses

Translate the names of courses.

English I
Roman Law II

8.1.8 Public lectures

Do not translate the titles of public lectures. However, they may be accompanied by a descriptive translation in brackets where deemed appropriate.

Educació, aprenentatge i tecnologia a la societat del coneixement (Education, learning and technology in the knowledge society)

8.1.9 Books, music and art

Do not translate the names of books. If there is an English translation of the book, give this in brackets. Nonetheless, avoid any possible confusion about which version of the work is being referred to. Do not translate the names of musical and art works unless there is a well-established English translation.

Cervantes's *Don Quijote* (*Don Quixote*)
Verdaguer's *A Barcelona* (*To Barcelona*)
Mallo's *Muller con cabra*
Miró's *Pla de l'Os*
Casals's *Song of the Birds*

8.1.10 Awards

Translate the names of awards. Examples include the Catalan government's *Saint George's Cross* or the *Max Theatre Awards*.

8.1.11 Museums

Translate the names of museums, but refer to them on subsequent mention by their abbreviation if they have one: for example, the *Catalan National Museum of Art (MNAC)*.

8.1.12 Political parties and unions

Translate the names of political parties and unions in brackets on first mention. Use the original abbreviation, where applicable, on subsequent mention.

the *Partido Popular* (People's Party, PP)

the *Partit dels Socialistes de Catalunya* (Socialist Party of Catalonia, PSC)

the *Unión General de Trabajadores* (General Workers' Union, UGT)

8.1.13 Official gazettes

Translate the names of the governmental gazettes, accompanied by their original abbreviation.

Official Gazette of the Government of Catalonia (DOGC)

Official Gazette of the Government of Spain (BOE)

Official Gazette of the Government of Valencia (DOCV)

8.1.14 Companies

Do not translate company names, although a descriptive translation in brackets may be deemed useful on occasions.

Som Energia (a renewable energies cooperative)

Construcciones y Auxiliar de Ferrocarriles (a railway vehicle manufacturing company)

8.1.15 Trade fairs and conferences

Translate the names of trade fairs and conferences. That said, if the trade fair or conference is referred to by its original abbreviation, this should be maintained in the translation. For example, *CONSTRUMAT (International Construction Exhibition)* and simply *CONSTRUMAT* on subsequent mention.

8.2 Forms of address

Translate common forms of address such as *senyor* or *doctora*. Omit any forms of address used with high-ranking officials such as politicians or the heads of universities. Thus, do not include or translate *la Magnífica* in *la Magnífica Rectora* unless specifically requested to do so.

8.3 Currencies and measures

Do not translate figures in euros into sterling or US dollars. Likewise, do not translate measures given in metric units into imperial units.

8.4 The word *web* versus the word *internet*

It is important to note that the words *web* and *internet* are not synonymous. The internet is the infrastructure of connections, whereas the web is the information stored on and transmitted over this network. The web cannot exist without the internet. With this in mind, we recommend translating *xarxa* as *web*, unless you are sure that it refers to the internet infrastructure.

8.5 Latin

Avoid the use of Latin terms in running text where there is a perfectly acceptable English equivalent. Examples include *a posteriori* (acceptable

equivalents would be *subsequently* or *in hindsight*), *a priori* (*beforehand* or *in theory*), *in situ* (*in the original place, on site*) and *viva voce* (*oral examination*). For a more complete list, see Appendix I: Lists of additional information.

8.6 Varieties of English

We recommend using standard British English (e.g., *centre, colour, defence*, etc.); nevertheless, the most important factor should always be consistency. On occasions, texts written in British English will include references to programmes, organisations or other concepts that use a different system of spelling (American, OED, etc.). We recommend not standardising these different spellings. Thus, the words *program* in *White House Internship Program* and *organization* in *International Maritime Organization* should not be changed to *programme* and *organisation*, respectively.

8.7 Terms that have no established translation

Terms that have no established translation, such as *vegueria* (a proposed territorial division for Catalonia), should be left in the original Catalan with a descriptive translation in brackets on first mention. Other examples include *caixa d'estalvis* (savings bank), *diputació* (provincial government) or *normalització lingüística* (linguistic normalisation).

9. WRITING IN ENGLISH

Writing well in English – or any other language for that matter – involves somewhat more than avoiding errors in grammar, punctuation and spelling. Good writing is not just correct; it responds to the interests or needs of the intended readers. It must be planned, structured and designed with a particular audience and a particular purpose in mind. For maximum effectiveness writers need to take decisions at a variety of levels, ranging from the overall structure of the document, through the organisation of sentences within paragraphs to the placing of certain words at certain points in sentences. They should be aware that the writing process is full of challenges. Unlike speech, writing cannot rely on intonation or gesture, or exploit immediate feedback to put communication back on track. Likewise, unlike speakers, writers have to make certain assumptions about their intended – and often anonymous – audience, and they have to understand that communication is primarily their responsibility: they know full well what they want to say, but their audience may not and it is up to them to bridge the gap.

This section aims to make you aware of the issues to be considered if you are to rise to these challenges, convey your message efficiently and produce readily understandable texts.

9.1 Structure

The main point of writing institutional texts is to convey information to readers. If texts are not well structured, readers will struggle to follow what you are trying to say. The first step towards an effective, coherent document, then, is proper structuring. Ensure that your texts have clearly defined sections preceded by short headings that typographically stand out from the surrounding text. Use a numbering system to highlight the hierarchy of sections (1) and subsections (1.1). Organise your texts in paragraphs that are not too long (readers welcome white space).

9.2 Sentences

There are three main types of sentence in English: simple, compound and complex.

Simple

Registration begins on 14 September.

Compound

Registration begins on 14 September but courses do not start until 1 October.

Complex

Although registration starts on 14 September, courses do not start until 1 October.

Well-written texts will contain sentences not only of all these three types but also of different lengths. Although short sentences are more understandable than long ones, avoid a telegraphic style by writing short, medium and (sometimes) long sentences. Aim for an average sentence length of between 15 and 20 words and beware of excessively long sentences with too many subordinations and parenthetical elements.

9.3 Subjects and characters

At its most basic level, a sentence is about people or things (characters) that do certain actions or have certain actions done to them. As such, the subject of a sentence should refer clearly to the character and the verb of the sentence should describe the important action. If possible, characters should be short and concrete. Often, however, you are obliged to use abstractions (unemployment, legislation, etc.) as characters of

your texts. This is not a problem as long as your readers are familiar with the abstractions that are central to your text. Readers have difficulty in following a text when its subjects are unfamiliar abstractions that are not characters. For example, in a text entitled 'First-year students and the registration process', the following sentence uses an abstraction in subject position that is not a character.

Complaints by first-year students about the clarity of information on the website were frequent.

In this sentence, the subject is long (13 words), abstract and not a main character (the focus of the text is not the word *complaints*). The following sentence is an improvement.

First-year students frequently complained about the clarity of information on the website.

To sum up, then, readers will find your texts easier to follow if the subjects of your verbs are short and concrete (or familiar abstractions), and refer to the main characters.

9.4 Verbs and actions

After the subject, readers seek a verb that expresses the action. The sooner they find a strong verb (not a weak one like *is* or *has*), the more easily they will understand the sentence. Compare the verbs in bold in the two sentences below.

Full payment of all outstanding fees must be **carried out** before issuance of degree certificates to students.

All outstanding fees must be **paid** before degree certificates can be **issued**.

The only verb in the first sentence (*carried out*) is empty. It expresses no real action. On the other hand, the verbs in the second sentence (*paid* and *issued*) directly express the actions that are done. In the first sentence, the

actions of *paying* and *issuing* are expressed in the form of the abstract nouns *payment* and *issuance*. The technical term for expressing actions in the form of nouns and not as verbs is *nominalisation*. When you nominalise your texts, they will often sound abstract and dense because you use weak verbs instead of strong ones, you place abstractions in subject position and you need more articles and prepositions.

Sometimes nominalisations are little more than minor inconveniences.

The Governing Council took the decision to reduce funding.

The Governing Council decided to reduce funding.

However, they can also lead to unwieldy and cumbersome text, and make understanding more difficult.

Despite her knowledge of the department's need for more money, her veto of the decision to request a bigger budget aimed at giving encouragement to the department for an improvement in efficiency.

Although she knew that the department needed more money, she decided not to request a bigger budget to encourage the department to be more efficient.

We recommend that you use verbs that express actions. Do not conceal them in nominalisations.

9.5 Verbs

In general terms, English traditionally prefers placing the verb towards the beginning of the sentence. The sentence below uses an excessively long introductory phrase, includes unnecessary information, has a long subject and places information between the subject and the verb.

According to recent research carried out by members of the Communication and News research group from Oxford University, led by the well-known expert in the subject, Dr James White, many administrative workers from all sorts of public and

private institutions, because they have never studied communication in any of its forms, have great difficulty in writing clear texts.

The sentence below shortens the introductory phrase and the subject, removes unnecessary information and keeps the subject and the verb together.

According to recent research from Oxford University, many administrative workers have great difficulty in writing clear texts because they have never studied communication in any of its forms.

9.6 Cohesion

Readers should be able to perceive that paragraphs are not just sets of individual sentences, but units in which ideas progress logically and flow from sentence to sentence. Writing that does this, that guides and assists readers in their interpretation, is said to be cohesive.

One way in which you can make your texts cohesive is to begin your sentences with information that is known – either because it is straightforward and familiar, or because it has just been mentioned – and end them with information that is new or surprising. Beginning sentences with familiar information provides a context that allows readers to focus on the important information at the end, which has not been mentioned previously in the text and which requires the readers' attention (this is known as *end-focus*). In the example below, note that the new information presented at the end of the first sentence is immediately taken up and used as the contextual information at the beginning of the second.

Dr James Watson will give a seminar on the Human Genome Project. The project began in 1990 and is considered to be of such importance that funding has just been approved for the next 15 years.

Another way to make your paragraphs cohesive is to give them a clear focus by structuring them around a consistent topic string. That is to say, several of the sentences in the paragraph can have the same subject. Do

not be afraid of repetition. It helps to reinforce the focus on particular ideas and concepts, and gives a passage greater unity.

The module of the Jean Monnet programme on European integration will be taught in February. Registration is now open to university members and professionals working in the field. The module will be taught in seminar room 3 and is organised by lecturers from the Department of Public Law. It analyses recent legislation and the transformation of European law over the last 15 years.

In the example above, three of the four sentences have the same subject, although in the first sentence the subject is used in its full form (*the module of the Jean Monnet programme on European integration*), in the second it is used in a reduced form (*the module*) and in the third it is used in its pronominal form (*it*).

One final way to make your writing cohesive is transitional metadiscourse, which guides readers through a passage and clarifies the relationships between ideas. Examples are *moreover*, *on the other hand*, *however*, *first*, *second*, *finally* and *therefore*.

9.7 Parallelism

Parallelism refers to giving each element in a list the same grammatical category (noun phrases, verb clauses, infinitives, etc.). The similarity of the grammatical form makes it easier for readers to perceive a similarity in content and function. The sentence below is not parallel.

The students' objections were the injustice of the measures and that they were unconstitutional.

The first element of the list (*the injustice of the measures*) is a noun phrase while the second (*they were unconstitutional*) is a verb clause. The sentence would be more logical and readily understandable if it were rewritten. The sentence below contains a verb instead of the nominalisation *objections* and then has a verb clause that contains a list of two elements, both of which are adjectives.

The students objected that the measures were unjust and unconstitutional.

In any series of items, then, make sure that each element of the series is in exactly the same form as all of the others. In the example below, the list has three elements: the first two are noun phrases while the last one is a verb clause. Therefore, not

The master's students will acquire the personality, the contacts and have the knowledge to succeed in almost any business venture.

but

The master's students will acquire the personality, the contacts and the knowledge to succeed in almost any business venture.

This general guideline can affect even the smallest, and seemingly trivial, of words. Therefore, not

The Erasmus students will talk of their experiences in Paris, in Athens and Moscow.

but

The Erasmus students will talk of their experiences in Paris, Athens and Moscow.

The principle of parallelism should also be respected in vertical lists. Therefore, not

Students must
a) present the official application form,
b) their personal academic certificate,
c) and proof of payment.

but

Students must present
a) the official application form,

- b) their personal academic certificate,
- c) proof of payment.

Take particular care when you use such structures as *not only ... but also*. Therefore, not

Master's degrees not only prepare professionals but also researcher.s

but

Master's degrees prepare not only professionals but also researchers.

9.8 The unofficial style

In his book *Revising Prose* (Longman, 2006), Richard Lanham coined the term *the official style* to refer to the obscure, dense prose so characteristic of many textbooks, business reports, academic papers and institutional documents. According to Lanham, this style is characterised by noun-centred sentences cluttered up by long strings of prepositional phrases and typically linked by some form of the verb *be*, such as in the sentence below.

In the light of the constant lack of places on the courses provided by the Language Service, employing another teacher would be a big advantage for the students and lecturers of the university community.

This sentence could be more economically and clearly expressed in the following way:

The understaffed Language Service needs to employ another teacher.

The official style is often unclear because it consists of too many elements of the same grammatical type. Consider the following sentence.

The aim of the project is to encourage relations between different universities in Europe in an attempt to foster new approaches to administrative procedures to

improve efficiency and cut the costs of the production of academic courses by the organisation of inter-university programmes to be taught at several institutions at any one time.

The sentence is long and complex. It has 53 words but only one weak verb (*is*). It is full of prepositional phrases (11) and infinitive clauses (4). Prepositional phrases are important because they provide necessary detail about time, manner and place but, in excess, they obstruct the reader's progress by providing too much information. After the word *procedures* the sentence provides many diverse details. Likewise, the use of several infinitives of purpose clouds the issue. What is the real purpose of the project? The text could be improved by a shorter introductory sentence focusing on the purpose of the project (see below) and then clarification of how this purpose is to be achieved in subsequent sentences.

This European project aims to improve the efficiency of administrative procedures and cut the costs of academic courses. It plans to do this by organising inter-university courses that can be taught simultaneously at various universities.

So, if you want your texts to be clear and readily understandable, avoid the official style. Do not write long sentences full of nouns and strings of prepositional phrases linked only by the verb *be*. Be unofficial: write shorter, more dynamic, verb-centred sentences and do not use long strings of similar grammatical elements.

9.9 Concision

Texts are said to be concise if they communicate a message clearly using few words. Concise texts are generally effective because they make information easier to understand but they are by no means easy to write. In fact, they often take considerably longer to write because they require lots of revision. It is impossible to identify all the ways in which authors inflate their texts but below you will find some

strategies for reducing the length of your texts without removing necessary information.

9.9.1 Reduce clauses

Reduce clauses to simpler, shorter constructions. Therefore, not

The URV, which was founded in 1994, is the university of southern Catalonia.

but

Founded in 1994, the URV is the university of southern Catalonia.

9.9.2 Delete superfluous words and phrases

Delete all phrases and words that add nothing to the meaning or provide excessive detail. Therefore, not

The effect of the application of the new economic measures can be seen in last month's figures, and it goes without saying that the University is aware of the new policy on tax deduction and that it has every intention of complying with the regulations.

but

The effect of the new economic measures can be seen in last month's figures, and the University intends to comply with the new regulations on tax deduction.

9.9.3 Avoid nominalisations

Use verbs to express actions, not clumsy nominalisations. Therefore, not

This report is dedicated to the discussion of the new economic measures.

but

This report discusses the new economic measures.

9.9.4 Avoid overuse of expletives

Expletives are expressions that combine *it* or *there* with the verb *be*. They can be effectively used for emphasis at times but overuse can create unnecessarily lengthy prose. Use them sparingly. Therefore, not

It is the rector who will have the last word on this issue.

but

The rector will have the last word on this issue.

9.9.5 Do not make vague attributions

Authors often try to justify their statements by suggesting they have acquired the information from an authoritative source. If you wish to refer to a source, however, do not do so vaguely as in the following example. A straightforward statement is preferable to a vague attribution. Therefore, not

Student registrations have been observed to be increasing in some subjects that were previously determined to be unfashionable.

It has been shown that visiting lecturers have been using this new resource.

but

Student registrations have been increasing in some previously unfashionable subjects. Visiting lecturers have been using this new resource.

9.9.6 Make direct statements

Do not feel obliged to provide a brief introduction to every statement you make. Often, no introduction is necessary. Therefore, not

With regard to good students, their most important characteristic is the ability to work hard.

but

The most important characteristic of good students is the ability to work hard.

9.9.7 Do not hedge excessively

When you write, you are often not certain of the facts and are obliged to hedge (that is to say, introduce elements of doubt and uncertainty into your texts). If you need to hedge, though, do so just once. Therefore, not

It could be possible that economic factors and the decline in immigration may be affecting student numbers.

but

Economic factors and the decline in immigration may be affecting student numbers.

9.10 Summary

One of the main problems of writing clearly and effectively is that there will always be a gap between what you want to say and what your readers may understand. The principles outlined above will help you overcome this. Remember that they are only guidelines, not inflexible

rules, but they will give you a general idea about how most university texts should be written. In a nutshell, the principles of clear writing are the following:

- a) Give your documents a clearly defined structure. The sections and subsections and their corresponding headings should guide readers towards meaning.
- b) Write sentences of different types and lengths. This will give your texts variety. But beware of excessively long sentences!
- c) Make the important characters of your text the subjects of your sentences.
- d) Express actions not as abstract nouns (nominalisations) but as verbs.
- e) Make sure that the main verb is towards the beginning of the sentence by avoiding long introductory phrases, keeping your subjects short and not putting any other information immediately after the subject.
- f) Begin sentences with information that you believe is familiar to readers and end sentences with what you believe is new or unfamiliar. Make sure that your most important characters occupy the subject position as often as possible.
- g) Ensure that all the elements of a list are expressed in the same grammatical form.
- h) Avoid long strings of prepositional phrases and sentences that only have weak verbs.
- i) Once you have completed your text, revise it for concision.

10. TOOLS FOR TEXT PRODUCTION

In today's world, most administrative texts are produced on a word processor. Within this context, those who work with text need to be able to exploit the full potential of digital text processing, a field that goes far beyond the textual and linguistic issues that are dealt with in other sections of this guide. Much of what could be said is applicable to all languages but in this section, as far as possible, we will restrict the discussion to aspects that affect texts in English.

Popular word processors, such as the broadly equivalent Microsoft Word (commercial software that is a registered trademark of Microsoft), and LibreOffice (open-source software), are sophisticated configurable programs with many tools to improve productivity, that is, to work faster and achieve higher quality. These programs are installed with a series of default settings and while some affect the creation of texts in all languages, certain settings can specifically affect English. An example is the language setting for the text, which establishes the spell-checker dictionary to be used, among other things. If you are typing in English but the spell checker is checking for words in Catalan, productivity goes down rather than up. Default settings for new documents can be established by creating a template document and saving your preferred settings into it. Precisely how to do that will depend on the program you are using and its version.

There are various kinds of language tools. Not all of these are installed with the word processor itself but usually the relevant files for English will be. In general, different variants of English are available, so you need to check that the variant chosen is the one you want to use.

Language tools not distributed with the version of Microsoft Word you have installed can be acquired subsequently or set up from the original installation CD. Extra language tool files for LibreOffice can be downloaded from the Web.

10.1 Spell checkers

Spell checkers are perhaps the most useful of the language tools on offer. Impossible spellings are automatically detected. You can set up the checker so that it detects spelling mistakes as you type or you can turn it off and activate it manually later.

It is easy enough to use the wrong word, however, typing for example *sight* instead of *site*. In such cases your spell checker will not detect any error, so you still need to check your work carefully after typing it.

Another potential problem is that you may disagree with the established criteria of the spell checker. For example, which do you prefer, *cooperate* or *co-operate*? This is largely a matter of taste. In such cases you can add what you consider to be exceptions to a local dictionary so these spellings will be accepted in the future, but only for documents edited on the same computer.

10.2 Grammar checkers, thesauruses and translation dictionaries

Word processors offer users grammar checkers and thesauruses but non-native users should bear in mind that these are not always as useful as other similar tools available online. For example, while grammar checkers can detect a lack of verb concord or suggest the punctuation of long sentences to improve readability, they can also mark a sentence as unacceptable when there is really nothing wrong with it. And while thesauruses can suggest synonyms of selected words, they are not always very complete and do not include guidance on differences between matched words. For this reason, if you are writing in English but it is not your first language, you will need to find other tools and resources to support your word processor's grammar checker and thesaurus.

Microsoft Word also includes a tool for translating selected words or text, but its usefulness in text creation is limited. It might help you understand an unknown word but it certainly would not help you write correct English. Since the appearance of Microsoft Word 2007, this tool uses

online translation (through the *Translate* button on the *Review* ribbon), so it will only work if you have an internet connection. Like all generic automatic translation, it is rather unreliable.

While most authors have no need for this kind of tool, in our context the administrative texts that need to be created in English are often based on already existing texts in Catalan, if not on close translations of these. In such cases an automatic translation into English may be a viable first draft for rephrasing. This process for text production in English is discussed in Section 10.9 Online word processors and other online tools.

10.3 Automatic correction tools

Both Microsoft Word and LibreOffice include the automatic correction tool *Autocorrect*, which automatically replaces certain typed sequences of characters with other characters. *Autocorrect* is language specific so, if you use it, make sure it is correctly configured. Otherwise, you may find yourself unable to enter a correct sequence at all, because the program will unhelpfully change what you type.

Automatic substitution of characters may be a useful option, if set up in accordance with the way you want to work. It can include

- correction of common typing errors (such as *teh* to *the* or *abotu* to *about*),
- automatic suggested completion of long words,
- expansion of abbreviated forms,
- substitution of character sequences to access special characters, such as a double hyphen replaced by an em dash or *1/4* replaced by $\frac{1}{4}$,
- replacement of unlikely sequences, such as double capital letters at the beginning of a sentence replaced by a single capital letter,
- automatic formatting of lists.

10.4 Configuring language tools in your word processor

Configuring language tools is important because, if you are using a local version of Microsoft Word, the default settings for your document may not be for English, even though your document is in that language. In this section we outline how to configure the tools in your word processor and establish suitable default settings for an administrative document in British English. The following guidelines focus on the use of the Catalan version of Microsoft Word 2010.

To create a template with suitable default settings, create a new Microsoft Word document and then follow the steps below.

- Maximise the *Estils* panel on the *Inici* ribbon to visualise it. Position the pointer over the *Normal* style and an arrow for a drop-down menu will appear. Right-click on the style or left-click on the arrow to open this menu. Choose *Modifica* and the *Modificació de l'estil* dialogue box will open.
- Click on the *Format* button and then on the first item, *Tipus de lletra*, in the drop-down menu. Here you can choose the default font, its size and colour, among other things. Confirm any changes you make with the *Acceptar* button.
- Select *Paràgraf* from the same drop-down menu. Click the first tab to establish the line spacing, the paragraph spacing, the indentation, the justification and the tabulation positions. Click on the second tab to avoid single final lines at the top or bottom of a page, and to insert a page break before each paragraph with this style. Confirm all the changes.
- Select *Llengua*, choose *anglès (Regne Unit)* from the list and check the box *No revisis l'ortografia ni la gramàtica*. Confirm those changes. (The spell checker will only work if it has been installed. If in doubt about this, you will need to contact the

computer service responsible for your hardware and software maintenance.)

- Click on the *Anomena i desa* icon (a diskette with a pencil). Near the bottom of the *Desament* dialogue box you can give your document a name, such as *admin-en-template1*. Then open the drop-down menu for *Tipus de fitxer* and choose *Plantilla de Word (*.dotx)*.

Your document format preferences are now saved in your template. To create a new empty document based on these settings, you can double-click on the template file in a Windows Explorer window, or create a new document based on your template through the *Nou document* dialogue. (Templates for many kinds of documents are also available on the internet. Such templates tend to focus on complicated formats, such as tri-fold brochures. For simpler documents with a single flow of text, it is preferable to create your own template, as we describe here.)

To check the spell-checker and grammar-checker settings, click on the blue *Fitxer* button and choose *Opcions* to open the *Opcions del Word* dialogue box. Then choose *Correcció* from the menu on the left-hand side.

On the right-hand side of the box you can establish settings for document proofing. To turn off as-you-write spell checking, uncheck *Revisa l'ortografia a mesura que escric*. To turn off grammar checking, uncheck *Marca els errors gramaticals a mesura que escric*.

To choose what kinds of error the activated grammar checker will identify in your text, open the *Estil d'escriptura* dialogue box by clicking on the *Configuració* button. Uncheck boxes for items that you do not want the program to automatically correct. Do not forget the *Format automàtic a mesura que escric* tab, which is where you can set up the automatic treatment of quotation marks, among other things. When you finish, save your changes and exit the dialogue box. These *Autocorrect* settings are not saved into your template but rather associated with your profile as a user on that specific computer.

You can establish various other general settings through the *Visualització* and *Avançades* dialogue boxes in the *Opcions del Word* window.

10.5 Special characters

Some characters are particularly problematic when preparing texts for electronic media.

For example, the older type-setting tradition of curly apostrophes (’) and curly quotation marks (“ ”) corresponds to print media. They are not available on mechanical typewriters at all and are not immediately available on computer keyboards either. (They need to be looked up in character tables.) Like straight apostrophes (‘) and straight quotation marks (“ ”) they are available on word processors, but curly quotation marks are not generally interpreted correctly by internet web servers and may not be correctly displayed on web pages.

Problems tend to arise when authors use Microsoft Windows programs, including Microsoft Word, to edit texts for the web (in HTML code), because Windows uses non-standard codes for these special curly characters and they may end up as meaningless symbols on web pages.

In our case, editing texts in English in a Catalan context, these are not the only characters that Microsoft Windows codes idiosyncratically, leading to potential problems:

- Curly apostrophes.
- Curly quotation marks.
- Double dashes re-interpreted as an em dash.
- Ellipsis points.
- The geminate / in Catalan (/·/).

To sum up, if you know that you are editing for Windows programs or print media, then you can use these special characters without risk of them being corrupted and appearing incorrectly in the final document. On the other hand, if you are editing for HTML documents or for a variety of output media, turn off all these special characters and the Autocorrect options that introduce them automatically into documents.

The raised dot or interpunct of the geminate *l* is generally too large if obsolete Windows character tables are used, leading to *l•l* instead of *ll*. Using Unicode (UTF-8) character encoding, available in all current software, should solve this problem (see 10.8 Team projects and revision of texts).

10.6 Word wrap and word division

The difference mentioned in the previous section between print and web text editing traditions is not merely confined to character selection. Text justification may also be an issue.

Texts for print media such as letters, books, magazines and newspapers are usually fully justified (left and right). Web media, in contrast, tend to be left-justified because they are viewed at different page widths on different screens, and large horizontal gaps may appear between words if full justification is used and the text is viewed in a narrow window. This problem can be solved in word processing documents if the right dictionaries are installed (if not, words may be divided in the wrong place) and automatic word division is activated. The program will then split long words at the end of lines to reduce the appearance of long spaces between words when total justification is used.

Word wrap is the feature that automatically carries down any word that does not fit at the end of a line. Although it is a fundamental feature of word processors, it can lead to problems when items that should be on the same line are split over two lines. To avoid this, use non-breaking spaces, for instance between an honorific and the following name, and non-breaking hyphens, for instance as a separator between numbers.

Mr Charles Smith
2013-3476-24-4700000418 (a bank account number)

In Microsoft Word the following key combinations may be used to insert these characters: *Control+Shift+Space* for a non-breaking space; *Control+Shift+Hyphen* for a non-breaking hyphen.

10.7 Character sets and encoding

Generally speaking, when texts are saved in word processors, the fonts used are not saved as part of the file. If an unusual font has been used and is not available on other computers where the document is viewed, it will be substituted, with rather unpredictable results.

Most modern word processors use Unicode (UTF-8) encoding by default. This is a great improvement on previous systems because with Unicode many alphabets are available with the same encoding system. Now, with UTF-8, gone are the days when Cyrillic characters would not show up correctly in a document that for the most part used the Roman alphabet, to take just one example.

Some programs still use old encoding systems by default. If you are importing text from one of these programs, you will typically be shown a file conversion dialogue box. Always convert to UTF-8 if given the opportunity.

10.8 Team projects and revision of texts

Generally speaking, texts for publication pass through various hands during stages for creation, editing, proofreading, etc. This chain is fragile when using desktop software such as locally installed word processors because the most recent version of the project file is held by only one person at a time (and stored in only one place). Users need to take turns working on the document and send the project file on to the next member of the team when they finish.

This can slow work down and lead to problems of traceability, meaning that it is difficult (or impossible) to know what versions a document has gone through and who has introduced which changes.

This issue is addressed by the *Track changes* tool in word processors, but as with all digital tools, it is vital to make best use of the instrument provided. (Hidden revisions can be inadvertently distributed in a final version, to the potential embarrassment of all concerned.)

The following guidelines focus on the use of *Control de canvis* in the Catalan version of Microsoft Word 2010.

To turn *Track changes* on and off, go to *Revisió > Seguiment > Control de canvis* or use the key combination *Control+Shift+E* to toggle *Control de canvis* on and off.

You can see if you are currently tracking changes by looking for *Control de canvis* on the status bar (the bottom border of the Microsoft Word window). If this control is not visible, activate it by right clicking on the status bar itself and selecting the corresponding option on the menu that appears.

To control whether tracked changes are displayed in your document, use the drop-down menu controls in the *Revisió > Seguiment* group. You can modify how changes appear by clicking on the bottom half of the large *Control de canvis* button and selecting *Canvia les opcions de seguiment* from the drop-down menu. Experiment with the various options here until you visualise things as you prefer.

Accepting or rejecting changes is different and more permanent than just showing or hiding them. To accept or reject them, use the *Revisió > Canvis* controls.

If a document has passed through various reviewers with *Control de canvis* turned on, the proposed modifications will be marked with an identifier for each person. If you click on *Revisió > Seguiment > Subfinestra de revisió*, you will see this identifier beside each change. When you hold the pointer over a change in the document window, a pop-up text also shows this information.

Each author's suggestions can be colour-coded in the *Carvia les opcions de seguiment* dialogue and changes proposed by just one reviewer, for example, can be shown using the *Mostra l'etiquetatge > Revisors* dialogue.

Control de canvis can be used in combination with the insertion of comments (on the same *Revisió* ribbon) to create an effective process for proofreading by teams of reviewers, but circulating a document leads to problems of downtime, where team members are held up by sluggish work from their colleagues.

If you are the manager of a group of document reviewers, there are a number of issues to bear in mind, most of which concern actions to be avoided. The most important of these are outlined below.

- Base your document on a template that includes all the paragraph and heading styles you will need. Do not introduce any manual paragraph formatting into the document. Use your template styles instead.
- Never use the *Enter* key to create extra vertical spacing. If necessary, adjust your template paragraph styles.
- Never use the font and font-size controls to change the appearance of text manually. Incorporate font features into your style definitions instead.
- Never apply italic and bold styling to a whole paragraph to make it look like a heading. Use a real heading style instead.
- Never use the space bar repeatedly to create horizontal space or to centre your text. Make sure your tabulation positions are defined in your template styles and use the tab key to position text. If text needs to be centred, this should be part of the paragraph style definition.
- Never type a manual number to create the effect of a numbered list or heading. Incorporate automatic numbering into the paragraph style instead.

- Never create a page number, a table of contents, an index, a cross-reference, and other calculable items by hand. These items should be automatic fields so that they can be updated automatically when the document is modified.
- Use inline images (instead of floating images) to prevent unpredictable movement of text content.

Some of these problems, and many others, may be detected and corrected by skilful use of the *Cerca i substitució* command. For instance, many touch typists leave double spaces between words unintentionally every time they are momentarily distracted. Such extra spaces may be eliminated by searching for double spaces and replacing them with single spaces throughout the whole document. The same trick may be used to eliminate extra empty paragraphs in a text.

The items listed above are guidelines to avoid frequent text-formatting errors. Once you start to use the built-in features of the word processor to create the desired effects in a reproducible and configurable way, you will find it much more effective than manual formatting.

Current versions of Microsoft Word offer another method of working with a document that has been circulated among various editors: *Compara*, which is available on the *Revisió* ribbon. This function allows you to see all the differences between versions of a document and who has proposed each change.

Nonetheless, circulating a document to different members of a team is a cumbersome process. This problem may be addressed by resort to online tools, which is the subject of Section 10.9 Online word processors and other online tools.

10.9 Online word processors and other online tools

Desktop word processors are powerful and highly optimisable programs but they have their limitations, particularly when document editors are working as a team.

Many of the tools available in desktop word processors are now available online and in some cases these tools are more powerful. This is the case for online dictionaries such as Word Reference [www.wordreference.com], and also for automatic translation, such as Google Translate [translate.google.com] and Microsoft Translator [www.bing.com/translator].

Teamwork can be enhanced by synchronising desktop files to a shared online copy, as with the service offered by DropBox [www.dropbox.com].

The most radical option is to do away with the desktop word processing environment altogether, at least in the initial stages of text creation. Basic online word processors are now a viable alternative to desktop software. Popular options are GoogleDocs (recently rebranded as Google Drive) [drive.google.com], Zoho [www.zoho.com] and Microsoft Office 365 [www.microsoft.com/office365].

The word processing environment in these online editors is more rudimentary but they also offer advantages over desktop word processors:

- File storage is more secure online than on a local hard disk.
- Versioning is complete, with all previous versions stored and the editing of each version traced.
- Since all editors work on the same version, there is never any conflict between versions from different sources.
- There is enhanced integration with other online resources, such as automatic translation and dictionary look-up.

Online systems also facilitate the use of shared translation memories and terminology databases. Together with the use of specialised automatic translation systems, these hold much promise for the future as a viable method of fast, cheap, approximate translation and for the preparation of

first drafts of foreign language texts, which need limited post-editing to be converted into quality publications.

Authors can experiment with this kind of system for free with Google Translator Toolkit [translate.google.com/toolkit?hl=en] or Wordfast Anywhere [www.freetm.com]. The use of online word processing and translation tools, 'in the cloud' as it is termed, is bound to increase in the future.

Finally, however, be aware that your own organisation may well have created university-specific tools for online collaboration. In some cases, there may be institutional preferences or requirements for the exclusive use of such dedicated tools over other openly available alternatives, and you should make yourself acquainted both with the tools that your organisation may provide and with whatever guidance or instructions are provided on their use.

10.10 Conclusions

All too often, users are asked to create and edit texts without any thought to the issues raised in this section, as if the effective use of these programs were common knowledge or intuitive.

To some extent, word processing programs themselves encourage this perception by making it so easy to edit and print your first texts and also by allowing users to manually format texts without regard to best practice.

Given the variety and power of the tools available, it is vital that users exploit the full potential of word processors, configuring the tools appropriately and fully exploiting their potential. In this section we hope to have indicated some of the resources and pitfalls, particularly with a view to the edition of texts in English in a Catalan-speaking context.

APPENDIX I: LISTS OF ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Common contractions, truncations and initialisms

Abbreviated form

Full form

Apr.	April
Aug.	August
ca.	<i>circa</i> (around)
cf.	<i>confer</i> (compare)
Dec.	December
e-mail	electronic mail
et al.	<i>et alii</i> (and others)
e.g.	<i>exempli gratia</i> (for example)
etc.	<i>et cetera</i> (and so forth)
Feb.	February
Fri.	Friday
govt.	government
ibid.	<i>ibidem</i> (in the same place)
i.e.	<i>id est</i> (that is)
Jan.	January

Mar.	March
Mon.	Monday
natl.	national
Nov.	November
Oct.	October
Sat.	Saturday
Sep.	September
<i>sic</i>	<i>sic erat scriptum</i> (thus was it written)
sig.	signature
soc.	society
Sun.	Sunday
Thurs.	Thursday
trans.	translator, translation, translated by
Tues.	Tuesday
univ.	university
v	<i>versus</i> (against)
Wed.	Wednesday
Wi-Fi	wireless local area network

Guidelines and directives on the use of non-sexist language

Article

The Spanish Constitution (1978) in Article 9.2 obliges public bodies to promote equality.

Source text

9.2 *Correspon als poders públics de promoure ... que ... la igualtat ... [sigui real i efectiva]...*
<http://www.parlament.cat/activitat/constitucio.pdf>

Article

Spanish Organic Law 3/2007 (22 March), governing Effective Equality of Women and Men, establishes in articles 14.1 and 14.11 that public authorities should strive to accomplish the goal of equal treatment and obliges them to use non-sexist language.

Source text

14.1 *El compromís amb l'efectivitat de... la igualtat entre dones i homes.*
 14.11 *La implantació d'un llenguatge no sexista en l'àmbit administratiu i el seu foment...*
http://www20.gencat.cat/docs/Justicia/Documents/ARXIUS/lle_i_igualtat_homes_dones_75.pdf

Article

Catalan Statute of Autonomy (2006) articles 4.3 and 44.1 oblige the public authorities and the education sector in particular to promote equality as a social value.

Source text

4.3 *Els poders públics de Catalunya han de promoure els valors de ... la igualtat [i] l'equitat de gènere.*
 44.1 *Els poders públics han de garantir la qualitat del sistema d'ensenyament i han d'impulsar una formació humana, científica i tècnica ... basada en els valors socials d'igualtat...*
<http://www.gencat.cat/generalitat/cat/estatut/>

Article

Article 14 of the Valencian Statute of Autonomy (2006) obliges the government to safeguard gender equality while the fourth additional disposition specifically prohibits any public body from using sexist language in public expressions.

Source text

14 *La Generalitat ... vetllarà ... perquè les dones ... puguem participar plenament ... sense discriminacions de cap tipus...*

Disp. add. 4 *Les institucions i administracions ... evitaran ... llenguatge que supose menyscabament ... per raó de ... sexe...*

<http://www.idpbarcelona.net/docs/normativa/ccaa/normativa/lleis/cvalenciana/estatut.pdf>

Article

Article 17.2 of the Balearic Statute of Autonomy (2007) obliges the public administration to safeguard gender equality.

Source text

17.2 *Les administracions ... vetllaran ... perquè les dones ... puguin participar plenament ... sense discriminacions...*

<http://web.parlamentib.es/RecursosWeb/DOCS/EstatutAutonomialB.pdf>

Article

Article 41.1 of the modified Organic Law 4/2007 (12 April) governing Universities introduces equality as a value that all Spanish universities must uphold and promote.

Source text

44.1 *La universidad ... [garantizará] el fomento y la consecución de la igualdad.*

http://www.upv.es/entidades/OSG/info/Llei_Organica_Universitats.pdf

Article

The statutes of the Vives Network universities all uphold the principle of gender equality. Although relating primarily to Catalan, the *Agreement on the Non-Sexist Use of Language* (University of Barcelona, 2010) makes clear that “Texts produced by public administrations must be free of ... sexist and androcentric language” (see Note 1) and similar official guidelines include the *Manual for a Non-Sexist Use of Language* (see Note 2) and the *Guide to Non-Sexist Language in Administrative Texts* (see Note 3).

Source text

Note1: Els textos de les administracions públiques han d'estar lliures d'usos ... sexistes i androcèntrics de la llengua.

http://www.ub.edu/criteris-cub/ARXIUS/acord_us_no_sexista.pdf

Note 2: <http://www10.gencat.cat/gencat/AppJava/cat/actualitat/50608manualperaunlenguatgegenosexista.jsp>

Note 3: <http://www20.gencat.cat/docs/Llengcat/Documents/Publicacions/Altres/Arxius/Guiausosnosexistes.pdf>

Unusual plural forms

Singular

addendum

agenda

alumnus, alumna

appendix

basis

bureau

campus

consortium

corps

criterion

formula

index

maximum

medium

memorandum

millennium

phenomenon

Plural

addenda

agendas

alumni

appendices

bases

bureaus

campuses

consortia

corps

criteria

formulas

indexes (books), indices (science, economics)

maximums

mediums (life sciences, art), media (press, IT)

memoranda

millennia

phenomena

plus	pluses
practicum	practicums
premium	premiums
quantum	quanta
referendum	referendums
stimulus	stimuli
thesis	theses

Latin terms with English equivalents

Latin term	English equivalent
a posteriori	subsequently, with hindsight
a priori	beforehand, in theory
bona fide	in good faith
et alii	and others
idem	the same
in absentia	not present
in camera	in secret
infra	below
in memoriam	in memory

in situ	in the original place
inter alia	among other things
intra muros	internal
nota bene, or NB	note
per annum	per year
per diem	per day
sine qua non	essential
sui generis	unique
supra	above
terra firma	dry land
viva voce	oral examination

APPENDIX II: RESOURCES AND FURTHER READING

Resources

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Further reading

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Xarxa Vives d'universitats



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Universitat d'Alacant
Universitat d'Andorra
Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona
Universitat de Barcelona
Universitat de Girona
Universitat de les Illes Balears
Universitat Internacional de Catalunya
Universitat Jaume I
Universitat de Lleida
Universitat Miguel Hernández d'Elx
Universitat Oberta de Catalunya
Universitat de Perpinyà Via Domitia
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya
Universitat Politècnica de València
Universitat Pompeu Fabra
Universitat Ramon Llull
Universitat Rovira i Virgili
Universitat de Sàsser
Universitat de València
Universitat de Vic