

School of Journalism
and Communication

Style Book

2005



THE UNIVERSITY OF QUEENSLAND
AUSTRALIA

Introduction

The purpose of a style book is uniformity. “Style” comes from the Latin for “pen” and the sense has extended to “the way in which something is written or done”. Among the mass media, newspapers especially rely on a uniform style, a single set of rules of usage. Examples of newspaper style are whether “-our” or “-or” endings should be used, whether capitals are used for nouns that are not clearly proper nouns, or even the standard abbreviations for stockmarket companies. Broadcast media rely less on such rules, since theirs is the less formal spoken language, although style is important to the Australian Broadcasting Corporation.

This style book is a guide for the School of Journalism and Communication at the University of Queensland and for its newspaper, The Queensland Independent. Students can expect to be penalised for failure to follow style in all work submitted for publication or assessment in this school. Students should be aware that the style followed in this school might not be the style of other publications or of other university departments or schools. There are significant differences between the school’s print and broadcast styles. Students should be prepared to adapt to other styles as required.

Why seek uniformity? Why try to “pin down” as elusive a commodity as language? Style is a broad attempt to impose order, to standardise meaning, just as the rules of spelling and grammar seek to do on a more detailed level. Effective communication requires efficient comprehension and comprehension is maximised if everyone knows the rules. The “style” of driving in Australia is the left-hand side and in Europe on the right. This is useful knowledge for drivers.

The specific order sought by style should not be thought of as permanent. Just as language steadily and inevitably evolves, so should style if it is to

perform its principal function of aiding communication. This does not mean that style ought to reflect transient, exotic or “feral” spoken usage, nor the jargon of special interest. Style is conservative, as is a good dictionary: it is a temporary consensus. Style may change for other reasons. One Sydney newspaper’s style of using cyclones’ “given” names was reversed literally overnight when the latest cyclone had the same name as the proprietor’s wife.

In the strict sense, style ought not be concerned with grammar, spelling and correct usage — these are separate provinces that are assumed to be autonomous. However, the great and growing exposure of readers and writers to conflicting modes (American English, standard English, advertising, popular music) may obscure clear definition of much usage and style. That and the inadequate understanding of language structure among many students make some broadening of scope in this style book necessary. This guide concentrates on the areas in which students usually show weakness and gives some explanation and examples to help memory. The style guide should not be considered a substitute for a grammar reference or dictionary. However, when grammar references or dictionaries disagree with the school’s style, the style will prevail.

*Steve
McIlwaine,
Journalism
Lecturer*

Introduction to 2005 edition

Although it is almost 15 years since the first edition of this style book was written, it is testimony both to Steve McIlwaine's thoughts and the utility of the project that year-on-year relatively little of the content has had to be changed. Good writing – and good expression – are a matter of politics (as George Orwell [1946] pointed out) rather than fashion. Changes in newsroom practices have, if anything, diffused responsibility for accuracy, clarity and consistency. It is now more imperative that everyone involved in all forms of communication takes the baton and does not pass it on to someone else. As a last resort, reporters used to “leave it to the subs” to fix. In 2005 there are fewer, if any, subs (and fewer tape editors) to do the fixing. In any event, reporters and writers soon learn that if they wish to project a distinctive “voice”, even within the confines of a strict house style, they need to be in command of their language.

A style book is merely one resource among many, of course. The others include

- ❑ Examples of journalism, writing and reporting in the media and elsewhere
- ❑ A good dictionary
- ❑ A thesaurus
- ❑ The spell check and thesaurus embedded in word processing software (but be careful)
- ❑ Instructive and amusing books on language, such as
Don Watson (2003), *Death Sentence: The Decay of Public Language*, Australia: Knopf/Random House, and
Lynne Truss (2003) *Eats, Shoots and Leaves: The Zero Tolerance Approach to Punctuation*, London: Profile Books.

The style guide of *The Times* (London) famously consisted until relatively recently of a few brief notes and the instruction that “on all other matters consult *The Oxford Dictionary of English Usage*”.

Style is not just about words, it also involves looks and sound, as well as ethos. Broadcasters strive to sound “natural”; newspapers and magazines are concerned with design. As a result, broadcasters may use contractions where others would not; and newspapers and magazines under-punctuate because a page littered with commas and semi-colons looks messy. Some news organisations publish their style guides on the basis that they are setting the ground rules for all forms of contemporary communication (MacDowell, 1992; News Limited, 2003; Waterhouse, 2003). Every company and organisation communicating either internally or externally has a house style, whether it is made explicit or not. However, journalism, PR, business communications, etc. are essentially different both from each other and from academic writing. Although a journalistic approach can enliven an essay, academic writing is not to be reduced to short, single sentence paragraphs of declamatory statements, or report-like numbered paragraphs and bullet-points. On the other hand, a PowerPoint presentation to a class will not be crammed with text in a 12pt serif typeface. As a communicator, you will need to recognise and develop the facility to express yourself in a number of modes, and to use the School style appropriately.

While these issues have largely remained constant over the years, some of the processes are no longer the same. To cite a simple example, word processing which allows wysiwyg formatting (as a technical term – look it up – should this be in italics or quote marks?) has made some activities redundant. The current edition of the style book reflects these. Otherwise, the changes made for this edition are minimal. After all, in every mode of communication the objective is to be clear, accurate, concise and consistent. In the School of Journalism and Communication you are expected to adhere to the house style and in many cases this may be an assessment criterion. This is not done to stifle creativity and self-expression, but to facilitate both within the specific context of professional communication. Where the guide does not work as it should, let us know and we will make the necessary changes. The style book is a dynamic resource which belongs to us all.

Michael Bromley

A

abbreviations

Abbreviations and acronyms are constructions formed from the initial letters of groups of words. Familiar abbreviations are RAAF, ACTU, MIM, BHP, CJC. Some acronyms have become words. These include Anzac, Qantas, laser, radar, scuba, flak, gestapo, Nazi. Many others are not written as words, although often pronounced as words. These include WRAN, ASIO, NATO, CSIRO, NASA, TAFE, EARC (Williams, 1975: 141).

Most should be written in full at first reference, followed by the acronym in brackets. Note that no full stops are included. Avoid adopting (or inventing) obscure acronyms. Use the full title at first reference, then generic terms such as “the association”, “the group” or “the committee” in later references.

Aboriginal, Aborigine

Use “Aboriginal” as the adjective, “Aborigine(s)” as the noun (note the capital A). The names “Koori” and “Murri” may be used where geographically appropriate and are often preferred by Aborigines. The term “Black” should be avoided: it is not a meaningful description and may be considered offensive by many Aborigines.

Do not confuse Torres Strait Islanders with Aborigines. Although the two peoples often work together for political purposes, they do not have the same heritages and cultures. “Indigenous peoples” (with a lower case “i”) is a term that covers both peoples.

accents (See also foreign words)

Many words in common use originally had accented letters which are no longer used – cafe, cliché, façade, rôle. Where not using the accent could cause confusion, it should be retained – the noun *résumé* (NOT *résumé*) as distinguished from the verb *resume*. Some words and phrases have not been so Anglicised and retain their accents (*vis-à-vis*). Names with

accents should normally retain them – John le Carré.

according to

Contains a hint of suspicion. Prefer “said”. The alternative “according to” may be useful in introductions, in which case the paragraph should be in present tense. (See **indirect speech**.)

active voice

This is the form used wherever possible in news writing. Use the active form:

The hammer hit the nail.

rather than the passive form:

The nail was hit by the hammer.

The word “by” is often an indication that passive voice has been used.

affect/effect

“Affect” is always a verb and can mean “have an effect on”, “pretend”, or “pose as”. It should not be confused with “effect”.

Alcohol affects people’s ability to drive.

He affects ignorance.

“Effect” can be a noun or verb. As a noun, it means “result produced” or “consequence”:

The effects of alcohol on driving ability can be measured.

Bright colours give the effect of spaciousness.

As a verb, “effect” means “bring about” or “accomplish”:

The rubber dinghy was used to effect a rescue.

age

See **numbers**.

aggravate

This word means “make worse”. It should not be given the meaning of “irritate”.

‘alot’

This monstrosity is supposed to mean “a lot” or “a large amount”. There may be some confusion with the related verb “allot”, which means “assign” or “distribute by lot”.

‘alright’

One of the great non-words, whose ubiquity may suggest legitimacy. This is a confusion with such forms as “already” (compare with “all ready”), “although” and “always”. The only correct form is still “all right”.

Americanisms

Parts of American English are common in Australia because of the amount of American literature Australia imports and the influence of American-based publishers and entertainment. In itself, this is not a bad thing — many American words have been incorporated usefully into Australian English (eg, teenager, babysitter, commuter). But it does not follow that Australians should exchange perfectly good words, expressions and spellings that may have cultural and historical relevance for those that have little or none. Americanisms to be avoided include:

airplane, aluminum, baby carriage, broil, cookie, diaper, dike, elevator, eyeglasses, faucet, fender, fire department, fit (for fitted), flashlight, French fries, gasoline, gotten, gray, ground beef, intermission, jewelry, math, mom, mortician, mustache, necktie, oarlock, railroad, restroom, rowboat, sailboat, salesclerk, sidewalk, slingshot, spit (for spat), sulfur, windowshade, windshield.

Avoid such constructions as “2am Friday” (on Friday). Note also that spelling rules differ. See **-our/or endings**.

among/between

Logic dictates that “between” must refer to two objects only: “Between you and me”. The preposition “among” refers to three or more objects: “It was divided among the 200 survivors”. It is sometimes awkward, however, to apply this rule. Fowler (1965: 57) cites the cases of “the space among three points” and “a treaty among three powers”, in which among is inappropriate and “between” should be used. Take care not to use prepositions loosely: “centre around”, for instance, is clearly an

impossibility; “at about” is a contradiction.

amongst, amidst, whilst

Avoid the decorative, old-fashioned “whilst”, “amongst”, “amidst”, “unbeknownst”, “albeit” etc. Use the simpler “while”, “among”, “amid” . . .

anticipate

Does not mean only “expect”, but to do something in expectation. In any case it is longer than “expect”.

‘anytime’, ‘anymore’, ‘anyday’

These should be two separate words.

apostrophe

The apostrophe is probably the most commonly abused punctuation mark. The apostrophe has the function of indicating **ownership** or **abbreviation**. In itself, it has **nothing to do with plurals**.

We are all, unfortunately, familiar with “fish and chip’s”, “Winfield 25’s”, the “1960’s” and many other examples of the signwriter’s or advertising artist’s lack of grammar. Note that attempts to signify plurals with apostrophes are common in much popular literature. However, it is pointless and illogical to include apostrophes in such examples as “BMW’s”, “MP’s”, “VIP’s”, “the Roaring 20’s” and so on.

Use of the apostrophe to indicate **ownership** is simple: in singular nouns an apostrophe is followed by “s”. In plural nouns that have the plural “s” ending, the apostrophe follows the “s”. For example “a hen’s teeth”, “five hens’ teeth”. Note that plural nouns, such as people, children, men, women, cattle, sheep, take the apostrophe, followed by the “s” — “people’s, children’s, men’s”.

Time also can “own”, eg. “today’s paper”, “yesterday’s heroes”, “last year’s crop” . . .

Peculiar “rules” have been invented in the distant past to deal with the apparent problem of singular nouns that end in “ss” and names that end in “s”. This is a result of confusion with the rules for plurals and the outcome includes such oddities as “ass’ milk”, “the actress’ role”, “Goss’ government” or “Jones’ batting”. Even in 1973 Partridge (1973: 129) finds this usage quaint. There is no logical reason and, therefore, no

grammatical reason not to apply the same rules to almost all singular nouns. The logical and accepted forms are “ass’s milk”, “the actress’s role”, “Goss’s government”, “Jones’s batting”, just as in spoken English (Fowler, 1965: 511).

Plurals of names ending in “s” behave in the same way as other plurals: “the Joneses’ house”, “the Albert-Rosses’ gluttony”. Simply construct the plural (see **plurals**) and add the apostrophe.

The apostrophe is often omitted from the names of organisations: Australian Journalists Association, Queensland Teachers Credit Union. It may also be omitted in the names of some institutions (Brisbane Girls Grammar School) but not others (Brisbane Boys’ Grammar). These should always be checked.

Place names in Australia no longer carry apostrophes. Do not use an apostrophe in such place names as Slacks Creek, Browns Plains, Dohles Rocks, Flinders View, Moores Pocket, Queens Beach.

Contractions of verbs are signified by an apostrophe: I’ll (I will), won’t (will not), they’re (they are), didn’t (did not), can’t (cannot), let’s (let us), it’s (it is) and so on. It is not normally print style to use such contractions unless in direct speech. Contractions of nouns usually no longer carry the apostrophe: phone, flu, plane, bus, burger.

Contractions must not be confused with possessive pronouns that are already possessive and require no apostrophe. The possessive pronouns include his, hers, their, theirs, our, ours, your, yours and its. Do not confuse the possessive pronoun “**its**” with the contraction “**it’s**”. An easy way to remember is to note that the apostrophe stands for the missing “i”.

around/round

Use “around” as the preposition: “around the corner”, “around here”. Use “round” as the adjective, verb or noun: “a round dozen”, “to round the Horn”, “a round of meetings”.

attribution

Statements and comments must be attributed to the person who made them. Facts must be attributed to their source, unless they are absolutely a matter of common knowledge, for example, that the earth revolves around the sun.

See also **comma, direct speech, indirect speech.**

B

BAC Blood alcohol (See per cent)

back yard, backyard

A “backyard” is as awkward as a “backverandah” or a “frontyard”. “Back yard” is the adjective-noun form and “backyard” is the adjective. A backyard mechanic works in the back yard. Many other combinations of “back” can be happily fused, eg, backlog, backside, backslide, background.

believe

No journalist knows what is going on inside another person’s mind. So it is impossible to report: “Mr Smith believes the course of action was correct.” The report should read: “Mr Smith said he believed the course of action was correct.” That is, journalists report what people say, not what they believe people are thinking.

bigger/biggest

The “-er” ending in comparative adjectives is used when comparing two things or qualities only. The “-est” ending refers to three or more: “elder brother”/“eldest brother”, “deeper blue”/“deepest blue”.

Bjelke-Petersen

Note the final “-en”, not “-on”.

both (See only)

The positioning of “both” should be precise:

It is incorrect to write, “She was eating both from a plate and a bowl”. It is either,

“She was eating both from a plate and from a bowl”, **OR** (better)
“She was eating from both a plate and a bowl”.

Think about what “both” applies to. This is even more the case with

only.

brand names

Many former (and existing) brand names, such as thermos, perspex, nylon, crimplene, pyrex, tarmac, corn flakes, bowser and cellophane, have been absorbed into the language and no longer carry the capital. But many others must be recognised as registered brand names and the capital retained. Indeed, newspapers will receive threats of legal action from owners of registered trade names if their trade name is used as a common noun. Such trade names include the familiar Coke, Breathalyser, Biro, Polaroid, Laundromat, Stubbies (shorts), Masonite, Land-Rover, Jeep, LandCruiser, Vegemite, Weet-Bix, Hoover, Xerox, Mixmaster, Levi's. If in doubt, use the generic name — four-wheel-drive vehicle for Land-Rover, for instance, or ball-point pen for Biro.

C

capitals

Use of capital initial letters is declining as written language moves away from “officialesse”. Overuse of capitals makes reading difficult and is poor design. However, where a capital forms part of the official name or title, it should be retained –

The University of Queensland; *The Australian*; *The Age*;

However,

the University of Western Sydney; the *Herald Sun*.

No complete rule can be established on capitalisation but some observations are:

i) Organisations’ names used in full should be capitalised but not capitalised when shortened:

The University of Queensland/the university, the Immigration Department/the department, the Liberal Party/the party, the Queensland Teachers’ Union/the union, Brisbane City Council/the council, CJC/the commission.

ii) Government terms should not be capitalised unless the word has another meaning and is capitalised to show that it is being used in its governmental sense. Thus “federal government/parliament” and “state government/parliament” are not capitalised, but “federal Opposition”, “the Coalition”, “state Cabinet”, “government Minister”, Act, Bill, and Speaker are.

iii) Convention holds that titles of high public, regal or vice-regal office are capitalised, so: “the Queen” (not “Queen Elizabeth”), “the Prime Minister”, “the Treasurer”, “the Attorney-General”, “the Governor-General”, “the Governor”, “the US President”. Note, however, that “the princess” or “the duke” are lower case, as is the non-specific “the queen”.

iv) Job titles are generally not capitalised to distinguish them from names

and organisations in what would otherwise be a long string of capitals. For example: “Foxtel chief executive officer John Bloggs”. Likewise, “state director”, “president”, “general manager” and other positions should not be capitalised even though it is bureaucratic practice to do so.

v) Capitals should be used sparingly with animal names. Use common names “sulphur-crested cockatoo”, “blue-tongue lizard”, “black bream”, “cocker spaniel”, “fox terrier”, “green tree frog”, “blue whale”, etc, as well as breed names “brahman”, “droughtmaster”, “mallard”, “brangus”, “braford” etc.

Some common names, such as “Siberian tiger”, “Welsh corgi”, “Old-English sheep dog”, “French poodle”, “Irish wolfhound” and “Queensland blue”, that is, names that retain an existing, well-known locality name, often retain their capitals, while most place-name breed names have lost theirs. These include “afghan”, “arab”, “chihuahua”, “clydesdale”, “orpington”, “tamworth”, “berkshire”, “merino”, “jersey”, “friesian”, “hereford”, “siamese”, “pekinese”, “alsation”, “rottweiler” and “weimeraner”. The differentiation is not clear, but favour the lower-case initial — “german shepherd” is now accepted.

vi) Genus and species names are written in italics. The first or generic name is capitalised and the second, the species name, is not. Examples: *Homo sapiens*, *Aquila audax*, *Mus musculus*, *Lutjanus argentimaculatus*. If italics are not or cannot be used, words to be italicised should be underlined by hand to bring them to the attention of the subs.

vii) People’s nationalities and languages must carry a capital initial. Even though “arab” and “afghan” correctly identify the animals, the people so described are Arabs and Afghans. The French speak French, Australians speak English, Jews may speak Hebrew or Yiddish, we say Chinese speak Mandarin or Cantonese, Aztecs spoke Nahuatl.

viii) The names of games are in lower case where logical. So, “rugby league”, “rugby union”, “badminton”, “indian wrestling”, “stableford event”, but “Australian rules”, “American football”. Note, however, the names of governing bodies in sport, such as the Australian Rugby Union, the New South Wales Rugby League, are capitalised.

cappuccino

Not “capuchino” or “cuppa chino”, or any of the other marvellous

misspellings seen frequently on restaurant menus.

century

Use “21st century”, “9th century”.

chairman

Use “chair”, not “chairman” or “chairperson”.

See **sexism/gender**.

cliche (See also **foreign words**)

If an originally clever expression has been used to death, it should be left dead. Stereotyped expressions expose tired, unimaginative thinking. Avoid “like the plague” the hundreds of expressions such as:

- to heave a sigh of relief
- conspicuous by his absence
- the heartbreaking task of cleaning up
- looking tanned and fit
- tired but happy
- to bite the bullet
- to nip in the bud
- few and far between
- to wend one’s way
- to pull no punches
- from time immemorial
- blessing in disguise
- sadder but wiser
- cool, calm and collected
- to lift the lid on
- storm of protest
- political wilderness
- political dynamite
- legal minefield

rain failed to dampen spirits

and so on . . .

Ugly stepsisters of the cliché are:

- i) the faded simile — “works like a dog”, “cool as a cucumber”, “fit as a fiddle”, “bright as a button”;
- ii) the inevitable adjective — “burning question”, “blissful ignorance”, “gaping hole”, “raging floodwater”, “shark-infested seas”, “brutal murder”, “horrific accident”;
- iii) the extinct nickname — “the Emerald Isle”, “the Lucky Country”, “Mother Nature”, “Jack Frost”, “Old Sol”;
- iv) the needless foreign or Latin phrase — “sine qua non”, “persona non grata”, “de rigueur”, “en passant”, “Schadenfreude”, “Weltanschauung”.

collide

Means the clash of two moving objects. It is not possible, for instance, for a moving vehicle to “collide” with a tree.

colon

See **dash**.

The colon has the special function of preparing the reader for what is to come, to indicate that what follows the colon buttresses what has gone before it. It can be summed up as a momentary pause for assessment.

Murray-Smith (1990: 85) gives these examples:

And most marvellous of all: the astonishing silhouettes of animals from the ends of the earth, falcons from the Nile, greyhounds, green parrots, magnificent horses, camels from the far south.

On numerous occasions Mr Cupitt repeats the same basic idea: “there is no longer any privileged point from which the

earth can be seen objectively and as it really is.”

Murray-Smith describes the colon as providing a pause more telling than a semi-colon, but less final than a full point.

We had only one thing to fear: fear.

Note that the colon need not be followed by an initial capital. The colon is also used in question–answer series that occur often in courts or local government reporting. Note also the absence of quotation marks in this usage:

Smith: You were there.

Jones: I was not.

Smith: I suggest that you were.

See also **direct speech**.

comma

A prime purpose of the comma is to separate clauses. Partridge (1973: 253) gives this example:

And once I had discovered that there was no longer any doubt as to whether a spark of life still lingered in him.

The adverbial clause “once I had discovered that” must be separated from the rest of the sentence if meaning is to be clear instantly.

And once I had discovered that, there was no longer any doubt as to whether a spark of life still lingered in him.

An example of the need for careful comma use is in these two sentences:

The Prime Minister said the Governor-General was a drunk.

The Prime Minister, said the Governor-General, was a drunk.

Use the comma to separate words repeated or of a similar species – nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions. For

example:

The dark, silent depths of the sea are very, very difficult for me, you or anyone else to explore.

Dogs, cats, mice and rats ran, climbed, jumped on, over, around the crazily arranged collection.

But do not use commas before the conjunctions “but” and “and” unless not to use a comma could be at least temporarily confusing. For example:

His hat was black, and silver dollars formed its band.

Use of the comma in parentheses is often misunderstood. Commas are used in this way only if what they separate from the rest of the sentence may be removed without making the sentence unviable.

These are correct:

The managing director, John Bull, said profits would fall.

A managing director, John Bull, said profits would fall.

Smith Ltd’s managing director, John Bull, said profits would fall.

John Bull, managing director of Smith Ltd, said profits would fall.

These are correct without commas:

Managing director John Bull said profits would fall.

Smith Ltd managing director John Bull said profits would fall.

These are incorrect:

Managing director, John Bull, said profits would fall.

Smith Ltd managing director, John Bull, said profits would fall.

comment

It is not the news reporter’s function to describe a situation or person as “controversial”, “well-known” or “notorious”, for instance, unless the reporter is recording the view of some attributed source. In any case, if something is indeed controversial, well-known or notorious, public awareness usually makes labouring the point unnecessary.

common sense, common-sense

Fusion has not occurred as in “commonplace” and “commonwealth”. “Common sense” is the noun. “Common-sense” is the adjectival construction: “a common-sense decision”.

community

Avoid “the Aboriginal community”, “Jewish community”, “gay community” when what is meant is simply “Aborigines”, “Jews”, “gays”. Use “community” when that is what is intended (see **euphemism**).

complement/compliment

Complement: that which makes perfect or whole, one of two things that go together, as in “He said heritage listing would complement existing protections”. Compliment: an expression of praise.

contractions

Contractions (“can’t”, “won’t”, “haven’t”, etc) should NOT be used outside quotes in print news writing. However, when a person quoted uses a contraction, as most people do in speech, then write the contraction. And contractions are more acceptable in broadcast reporting.

councillor/counsellor

Note that councillors serve on councils and counsellors counsel people about their problems.

crisis

A point at which a decisive change for better or worse is imminent; a turning point. The word should not be used loosely for any awkward, dangerous or serious situation.

D

dangling modifiers

Almost ubiquitous in broadcast media, dangling (or unattached) modifiers are a pernicious blight on writing.

Fighting for her life, the horrifying attack left X in a critical condition in hospital.

Depressed and unhappy, his work began to suffer.

Still standing after 100 years, he plans to restore the building to its former glory.

These are examples of writers' common failure critically to examine their writing to ensure that it makes sense. In these examples, the modifier, the phrase that seeks to describe a person or thing, appears to be modifying something else in the sentence. Always take care to see that modifiers and what they are modifying are clearly associated.

dash

Do not use a hyphen as a dash. Use an en-dash (–), which is longer than a hyphen and shorter than an em-dash. You can find the en-dash in MSWord in <Insert>, <Symbols>. The en-dash takes a space both before and after.

TIP: YOU CAN SET UP MSWORD TO REPLACE THE KEYBOARD HYPHEN AUTOMATICALLY WITH AN EN-DASH BY USING <TOOLS>, <AUTOCORRECT OPTIONS> AND <AUTOFORMAT>. CHECK THE BOX. THIS ALSO APPLIES TO ELLIPSIS AND QUOTATION MARKS.

date (See **time**.)

decorations

Civilian and military decorations are used in identifying a person only if the decoration has some special relevance to the news report or feature.

direct speech

Quotes must not be altered from what the person actually said. It is important that direct speech be correctly punctuated so that there is no doubt as to who said what. Quote marks go outside punctuation unless the quote is a partial quote beginning in mid-sentence. Note:

“This is the way the world ends,” he said.

He said: “This is the way the world ends.” (But avoid this form of attribution)

He said this was “the way the world ends”.

Note that in a running quote, where a number of paragraphs in quotation marks are written in succession, the quotation marks are not closed until the final paragraph. Note also that the quote is attributed at the end of the first sentence.

“I found evidence of large numbers of trivial crimes in urban areas that were largely unreported,” Ms Tucker said.

“More sinister was the serious violent crime in the villages, which were regularly cited as the idealisation of the traditional way of life.

“Fiji was being sold to tourists as ‘the way the world should be’. “I found a horrendous amount of crime in the villages.”

Running quotes must record what was actually said in the order in which it was said; they must not be a collection of quotes from throughout an interview taken out of context and thrown together. Do not start a quote without having introduced the speaker, ideally in an indirect paragraph immediately before the quote. An example of too frequent thoughtless quoting:

The Australian Rugby Union expressed concern about safety after plastic bottles were thrown at the Australian sevens side in Wellington last week. “To suggest that a country who hosts more rugby games in a year than any other in the world cannot run safely World Cup events is just childish and nonsense really,” NZ Rugby Union general manager Steve Tew said.

The reader of such a quote has no idea that the speaker quoted is not an ARU spokesperson until the quote is complete. The reader has understood the quote to be from someone else as it is being read and has a right to be intensely irritated to find the context assumed is wrong.

See also **attribution, comma, ellipsis**.

disc/disk

Use “disk” to refer to a computer disk, but “disc” to refer to other flat, round objects.

disinterested

Means not involved, having no part of, so unbiased; it does not mean uninterested.

E

earlier, later

It is an unprofessional tautology to use “earlier” or “later” when each is patently obvious. So an expression such as “The ship arrived earlier today” clearly contains an unnecessary word if the writer means merely that the action occurred before the report. Similarly, the expression “A verdict will be announced later this week” is equally fatuous unless the writer is comparing in time two or more incidents.

ellipsis

Ellipses are the devices used to signify omission of words in a quoted passage. The device requires a space before and after use: “The committee oversees health policy . . . and regulates workplace safety.” See also **dash** to set up MSWord to automatically set an ellipsis.

embarrass, harass

Note that the longer of the two words is the one with two “r”s.

enquiry (See inquiry.)

euphemism

The process of finding a “nicer” or apparently more palatable alternative word is constant in English and may be sometimes difficult to detect. Conservative style should treat new, “nicer” words with suspicion and favour the existing usage: the US State Department, deciding it would no longer use “killing” in reports on human rights, said it would use “unlawful or arbitrary deprivation of life” (Mencher, 1987: 152). (Help! Help! I’m being unlawfully or arbitrarily deprived of life!) Similarly, military jargon/euphemism used “collateral damage” as the preferred military way to describe killing in the Persian Gulf war. Prefer the euphemism “undertaker” to the very euphemistic “bereavement counsellor”. If a parrot or person is dead, use “dead”, not one of the many euphemisms, such as “passed away”.

every day, everyday

This is an example of two clear meanings. “Every day” means “each day”, while “everyday” means “ordinary”. Supermarket chains advertising “everyday savings” are admitting the savings are pretty poor.

exhaustive

Comprehensive, thorough, using everything up; not exhausting.

exotic

Means foreign and, from elsewhere.

eyewitness

A witness can be assumed to have seen an event, but even if the event has only been heard, use “witness”, not “earwitness”.

F

fewer/less

Use “fewer” when referring to numbers and “less” when referring to quantity: “Australia has fewer people than Indonesia and produces less oil.” Use “more than” when referring to number and quantity, rather than “over” or “in excess of”.

flaunt

To wave proudly or to show off. It has a totally different meaning from that of “flout”.

flout

To express contempt for something. It comes from the German word for “whistle” (cf “flute”), a way of expressing derision.

foreign words (and phrases) (See also, **accents, cliché** and **Italic**)

Many words and phrases of foreign origin have been absorbed into English and Anglicised (ambience, café, delicatessen, per diem). These are treated as English words. Other words and phrases are not considered Anglicised, or are used directly from their original language. In such cases, these words and phrases should be italicized; for example, the *intifada*.

full stop, full point

The simplest of punctuation marks, the full point is usually relegated to sentence ending in most newspapers and this is the style in the School of Journalism and Communication. Its other main use is to separate the initials of people’s names, as in R.F.X. Connor (note, no space after each).

Full points are not used after contractions or abbreviations (Dr, Prof, Ms, St, Ave, Co, Ltd, km, g, etc, the Rev) or between the initials of organisations, states or countries (RAAF, CSIRO, CIB, NSW, PNG, the UK, the US), ships (HMAS Sydney, MV Gascoyne) or chemicals (DDT,

2,4,5-T, PVC, TNT).

G

gender

The word “gender” refers strictly to the grammatical form of nouns and pronouns (his, her, its, she, he, it): it does not refer to the sex of nouns and pronouns and is not interchangeable with “sex”. No male or female “gender” exists. “Female” and “male” are sexes, not genders.

grievous

Not “grievious”.

H

headlines

Headlines in newspapers have a style imposed by the limits of space. The words used in headlines often only approximate or suggest a definite meaning. This style should not be imported into general writing. Do not use the short words of headlines, such as “bid”, “slam”, “split”, “shock”, “hit”, “duck”, “loom”, “crisis”, “war”, “slay”, “hike”, “cut”, “leap”, “raid”, “rap”, “axe” unless precisely these meanings are intended. “Slam”, for instance, should be confined usually to writing about doors. This does not contradict the “short v long” rule: it reinforces the rules of precision and clarity.

healthy

Writers often refer to “healthy” foods, failing to acknowledge the fact that most food is far from healthy -- it’s dead. Logic insists that the correct alternatives are “health-giving” or “health-promoting”.

here, our

Do not assume that these words mean the same to the reader as to the writer. Publications are meant to be broadcast, so “here” in, say, Brisbane does not mean “here” in Toowoomba.

Writers make the mistake of generalising a heterogeneous readership, insisting they have the same proprietary attitude. Do NOT use “our Gulf ships” or “our state-of-origin team” when what is meant is “Australia’s Gulf ships” and “Queensland’s team”. Again, be specific.

honour, hospital, hotel

Use of “an” as the indefinite article before “hotel” and “hospital” is no longer current, although it is used before “honour”, “heir” and “hour” and the adjectives “honest” and “honourable”.

hyphen

Be aware of hyphens in proper nouns — *Courier-Mail*, General Motors-

Holden's, Rolls-Royce, Mercedes-Benz, Harley-Davidson, Bjelke-Petersen, Toulouse-Lautrec — but note their absence in such others as Kingsford Smith, Alfa Romeo, Castlemaine Perkins, Evans Deakin, Coles Fosseys. Check if in doubt. See **names**.

Use hyphens in compound adjectives — “the red-haired woman”, “a single-issue campaign”, “limited-over cricket”, “an oil-fired furnace”, “a hot-water system”. The hyphen eliminates the ambiguity latent in multi-adjective constructions. In the last example, the hyphen makes it clear that the water, not the system, is hot.

Some commonly used expressions require more than one hyphen — “a multi-Style Book million-dollar project”, “the Gayndah-to-Moscow railway”, “a cat-and-mouse game”, “a black-and-white cow” — or more. Although such constructions are usually best avoided, hyphens are essential in those such as “the old hair-of-the-dog-that-bit-you remedy”.

Note that “adverbial” compounds ending in “-ly” are not hyphenated: they do not have the potential ambiguity of compound adjectives. Do not hyphenate such constructions as “wholly owned subsidiary”, “fully booked concert”, “fairly big business”, “cleverly judged run”. Remember that some purely adjectival forms also end in “-ly”, so be careful with such constructions as “silly-looking arrangement”, “rally-car driver”.

Other adverbial compounds (those not ending in “-ly”) take a hyphen when part of the subject and no hyphen when part of the predicate as in “a well-known reason” but “the reason is well known”.

Compare “When she was a six-year-old” (“person” or “girl” implied noun) with “When she was six years old” (no noun implied). Hyphens are not used in the second example because the compound adjective is not potentially ambiguous.

Compare “three-headed monster”, “R-rated movie”, “fixed-wing aircraft” with “single-engine aircraft”, “12-bar blues”, “two-room house”, “nine-hole course”. If the “-ed” ending can be removed to leave a meaningful adjective, then remove it.

Where no hyphen is required refer to a dictionary to determine whether there should be one word or two, as in: landowner, babysitter, taxpayer, but child care.

The hyphen is not required between most prefixes and the word stem, even if the same letter adjoins. So no hyphen is used in such words as antihistamine, predispose, reignite, postgraduate, reenter, coordinate. An exception is “re-sign”, which has a different meaning from “resign”, and “multi”, which often fits awkwardly with stem words.

DO NOT USE A HYPHEN FOR A DASH.

I

imply (See **infer**)

To mean or to insinuate, to suggest the truth of something. This implies that “imply” does not mean “infer”.

indirect speech

Ensure that you are consistent in the tense you use. “Said” is the past tense of the verb “to say”, as your interview occurred sometime in the past. When your source talks about something that is happening at the time of the interview, use the past tense:

Cr Soorley *said* the new water meters *were* not available.

When your source talks about something that happened before your interview, use the past perfect tense:

Cr Soorley *said* the new water meters *had not been* available last year.

When your source talks about happening in the future, use the conditional:

Cr Soorley *said* the new water meters *would* not be installed until next year.

But “according to” sentences are in the same tense as that chosen by the speaker.

The new water meters will not be installed this year, according to Cr Soorley.

Freckles are caused by eating carrots, according to scientific studies.

Do not use “that” when attributing indirect speech unless the sentence

will be ambiguous without it. Thus “She said she was ill” not “She said *that* she was ill”.

But the “that” is necessary in “She said yesterday that she was ill” to distinguish

it from “She said that yesterday she was ill”.

See **attribution, said**.

infamous

Means vile or shameful, not notorious, although something infamous may also be notorious.

infer (See **imply**)

Means to deduce or conclude from. Students may infer from this definition that “infer” does not mean “imply”.

inquiry

Use this spelling, not “enquiry”.

into, in to See **onto, on to**.

intransitive verbs

Such verbs as “protest”, “go”, “laugh”, “vanish”, “appear”, “appeal” and “die” are intransitive verbs because they cannot have a direct object. It is no more possible to “protest something” or “appeal something” than to “laugh something”. These verbs need a preposition or infinitive. An exception is “protest innocence”, which is a separate and unique usage. In the cases of “protest” and “appeal”, the preposition is often “against”. The verbs “prevent” and “stop” similarly require a preposition — “from” — when combined with an active object. It is incorrect to write “That will prevent him coming here”. The correct alternatives are “That will prevent him from coming here” or the gerundive form, “That will prevent his coming here”.

“Irish”

Those participial continuous forms of verbs that have a Gaelic ring (“will be holding”, “will be having”) should be avoided in favour of the more direct future tense (“will hold”, “will have”).

-ise/-ize endings

Although dictionaries have tended to favour “-ize” endings to verbs, with

“-ise” as an alternative, news style is to favour “-ise” endings. Kahn (1985: 306) points out that very few verbs take *only* “-ize” endings. They include “capsize”, “prize”, “seize” and “size”. Many hundreds more verbs take *only* the “-ise” ending — “advertise”, “advise”, “apprise”, “comprise”, “devise”, “disguise”, “exercise”, “improvise”, “promise”, “poise”, “raise”, “revise”, “supervise”, “surprise”, “televise”. Using the “-ise” ending is much less likely to be incorrect. This usage extends to noun construction with “-ation”, adjectives, and so on: “civilisation”, “recognisable”.

To avoid the unacceptable use of –ize endings, you can set MSWord to “Australian English” through <Tools>, <Spelling and Grammar> and <Dictionary language>. The alternative is to manually amend –ize endings to –ise.

it

Use this pronoun with care to avoid confusion of meaning. Consider: “He shot at the rat with his revolver and it exploded.” Another dangerous use of “it” is to use it or another pronoun earlier in the sentence than the noun to which it refers: “Its style book is likely to dominate the discussion at the next meeting of the Journalism Students’ Association of the University of Queensland’s School of Journalism and Communication.”

italics (See also **accents**, **cliche** and **foreign words**)

Titles of newspapers, magazines, films, radio and television programs, books, etc. are written in italics (*The Australian*, *60 Minutes*, *The Media Report*, *All the President’s Men*). But NOT the names of businesses, organisations, or sports clubs (Channel 7, Friends of the ABC, Brisbane Lions). This applies to businesses, organisations and clubs with non-English names (Agence France Presse, Al-Jazeera, Ajax).

Words and phrases used directly from a language other than English are also italicized.

See **References** for a more detailed guide on the use of italics.

J

jargon

Jargon develops rapidly in specialised groups, probably because it improves communication within the group. This does not mean anyone outside the group will understand the jargon. Avoid what is obviously jargon, including the jargon of journalism — although “journos” may refer to “pars”, a “story”, a “byline”, the “leader”, the “intro” and so on, these terms may not be clearly understood by readers. Unless writing for a specific audience, avoid pop argot, electronic/military “buzz” words (jargon), political/economic cant, “arty-crafty” obscurity and the gobbledegook (more jargon) of much sociological writing.

judgment

Only one “e”.

L

lady

Even if the wife of a knight or peer, a woman is a woman. “Lady” is used only as an imperial title or part of a proper name (eg, Lady Fairfax, Methodist Ladies’ College). This applies equally to sports reporting: the “ladies’ tee” is the “women’s tee”; the “ladies’ hack event” is the “women’s . . .”

lead/led

“Lead” is the present tense of the verb “to lead”, pronounced “leed”. It is also a heavy metal, pronounced “led”. The past tense of “to lead” is “led”, also pronounced “led”.

lengthy

Use “long”.

less than See **fewer/less**.

liaise

Note the extra “i”. See also “Ukrainian”.

licence/license (See **practice/practise**.)

like

“He treats that student like a baby” is correct — “like” is used as a preposition. “He treats that student like a mother treats a baby” is incorrect — “like” is used as a conjunction. Use of “like” is also incorrect in “He went on talking like nothing had happened”; “It looked like he would never stop”; “Like the professor said . . .” Kahn (1985: 330) points out that, as a rule of thumb, if “like” can be replaced with “as” (“in the way that”/“in the same way”), “as if” or “as though”, then “like” is incorrect. Use of “like” is correct only when such replacement

is impossible.

loan/lend

“Loan” is the noun, “lend” is the verb. The past tense of the verb is “lent”. So a loan is what is lent, not “loaned”. See **verbalised nouns**.

M

measures

Scales of measurement are not part of what they measure. So temperatures cannot be hot or cold, only high or low. Similarly, height cannot be tall or short, or prices expensive or cheap. What is **measured** may be tall or short, expensive or cheap.

media (See **plurals**.)

Media is a plural noun (the singular is medium). Although it is now common to treat media as a singular noun, do NOT do so. The media ARE ...

meter, metres

A meter is a device for measuring; a metre is a finite length.

meticulous

Should not be confused with “scrupulous” or simply “careful”. It has the useful meaning of “too careful”, “slavishly precise”.

minuscule

A spelling to watch.

money See **numbers**.

more than See **fewer/less**.

N

names

Names of people, places and things are of fundamental importance to news writing. The correct names and the correct spelling of names must always be checked and rechecked. Even the most common-sounding name must not be assumed to be spelt the usual way: consider Smith, Smyth and Smythe; Main St, Maine St and Mayne St; Fraser and Frazer; Ffrench and French; Thompson, Thomson, Thomsen, Thompsen and Tomson; Johnson, Jonsson, Jonsen, Johnston and Johnstone.

Some cultures use names differently from the normal European way. Some Asian names, for instance, Chou En-lai, Muslim names, for instance, Saddam Hussein, and Polynesian or Hungarian names may have the family name first. If honorifics are appropriate, Chou En-lai should properly be referred to as Mr Chou and Saddam Hussein as President Saddam. Many cultures do not share the European practice of a married woman taking her husband's family name; the wife retains her family name. In some languages, such as Russian, a diminutive name may be used instead of the formal name. Always check carefully the correct use of names.

non-sexist language

Avoid using gender-exclusive terms such as “fireman” (use “firefighter”) and “man-made” (“artificial”, “manufactured”).

nor

Use only after “neither”.

numbers, figures

Numbers from nought up to and including nine are usually spelt out. Numbers including and above 10 are written in figures. The exceptions are in such constructions as “9am”, “January 2”, “2c”, “\$3”, “5 per cent”, “Erik Bloodaxe, 6, of St Lucia, . . .” (but “six-year-old Erik

Bloodaxe”). Numbers that contain four numerals do not have a comma, those with five numerals or more do. So “1993” but “19,993”. Millions are written in figures and words: 2 million.

Do not start a sentence with figures: if the number must occur at the start of the sentence, spell it out.

Decimals require careful attention. Such expressions as .5 are meaningless and may be misleading if the decimal point is not clearly printed – the correct form is 0.5. The zero is important in writing decimal currency figures — \$1.05, \$210.08, but \$5, not \$5.00 – and time – 2.09pm, but 2pm, not 2.00pm.

O

officialese

Reporters of government, especially local government, and the law must avoid the bureaucratic language to which these organisations or their servants cling. “Re your Correspondence of the fifth Ultimo” or the like from someone’s “most Humble and Obedient Servant” still may be found in bureaucratic writing, and everyone is familiar with impenetrable legal documents. Reduce the language to simple English and eliminate the pomposities. Local government bodies that like to refer to themselves grandly as “Council” should be reported as “the council”.

only, nearly, almost

It is important to recognise that such a qualifying word as “only”, as well as similar qualifiers “nearly” and “almost” need to be associated clearly with the words they are to qualify.

“He only grows apples and pears” is understood in speech, since stress can be placed on words to affect their content. In writing, though, it is not clear whether the grower grows only apples and pears or if he only grows them; that is, he does not sell them, eat them or do anything but grow them. In its present place, “only” appears to qualify “grows”, rather than “apples and pears”. The best way to ensure that “only” is correctly placed is to insert it as close as possible to the word it is to qualify.

onto, on to

Note the difference between “We walked on to the next bridge” and “We walked onto the next bridge”. The Oxford English Dictionary gives “on to” as the only correct form, but school style is to use both terms, as in the examples.

over (See **fewer/less**.)

P

Paralympics

Not Para-Olympics. Participants include those who are paraplegic and quadriplegic (note the “i”).

part, portion

Do not use “portion” for “part”. A “portion” is an allotted share.

participles

Look carefully at how participles relate to nouns. Misplaced participles usually require complete rewriting of a sentence. Note the difficulties with the following: “Standing 12 metres high, the wind blows through the tower’s chimes”, “Being stolen, the police returned the money”, “Walking to church, a dog bit Billy”.

per

This Latin preposition should be used very sparingly. Replace “per annum” with “a year”, “per person” with “a person” or “each”, “per hour” with “an hour”, etc.

per capita

Do not use this Latin phrase for “each”, “a head” or “a person”: it means none of these (Fowler, 1965: 428) and is an unnecessary elaboration.

per cent

The style is to use “per cent”, not “percent” or “%”. “Percentage” is one word. Unless at the start of a sentence, percentage is always written as a figure: 2 per cent, 34 per cent.

Do not use “per cent” in police reports of blood alcohol breath tests: the readings are in mg of alcohol/100ml of blood. Milligrams of alcohol cannot be a percentage of millilitres of blood any more than kilograms of apples can be a percentage of litres of water. Charges have been dismissed in which the police certificate tendered in court included “per cent”. If a reading is given as 0.08, then leave it as that.

person

“Person” is usually the singular, “people” the plural: not “persons” as in American usage.

personnel

Note the double “n”, as in personnel officer.

plurals

Plurals are generally formed by adding an “s” or “es” to the singular noun (donkeys, asses). But English has many other plural forms.

Many words that end in “y” change to “ies” in the plural (“babies”, “gypsies”), except when they are proper nouns (“the two Germanys”, “both Aunt Sallys”).

Many words ending in “f” or “fe” take “ves” in the plural (“self”/“selves”, “life”/“lives”). Others simply take an “s” (“belief”/“beliefs”, “roof”/“roofs”, “carafe”/“carafes”). Some have optional “ves” or “s” plurals; in this case use the dictionary’s first option.

The “o” ending can vary randomly (“potatoes”, “tomatoes”, “broncos”, “albinos”). Words that end in “i” can be trusted always to take only “s” in the plural (“taxis”, “corgis”, “bikinis”).

The plurals of Greek-derived words that end in “on” may be formed with “a” (“phenomenon”/“phenomena”, “criterion”/“criteria”) or simply with an “s” (“protons”, “neutrons”, “skeletons”).

Remember that “the media are”, “the data are” and “the strata are”; “the phenomenon is” and “the criterion is”.

Plurals of Latin words ending in “us”, such as “cactus” and “ignoramus”, are usually formed with the addition of “es”, not “i”: “cactuses”. Others, such as “genus” and “opus” require the “era” ending: “genera”, “opera”. Greek words ending in “pus” (for “foot”), such as “platypus” and “octopus”, no longer have the plural “podes” ending and never had the “i” ending. Plurals are formed with “es”.

The plural “-s” does not apply to metric contractions. Write 20km (not kms), 25km/h, 45g (not gms), 2.3kg, 25t, 30c, 250kW, etc.

Although grammar texts may offer some rough rules of thumb for the

many forms of plurals in English, students should learn the plurals of commonly used words and check with a dictionary when in doubt.

practice/practise

“Practice” is the noun and “practise” the verb. Similarly, “licence” is the noun, “license” the verb; as is the case with “advice” and “advise”. Practices may be practised; licensees are licensed and hold licences. American usage differs and is not consistent.

program

Use this spelling, rather than “programme”. Fowler (1965: 463) points out that “program” was the regular spelling until the 19th century and that for consistency the spelling ought to conform with other words derived from the Greek “gramma”, such as “telegram”, “anagram”, “cryptogram”, “diagram”.

proved

This is the past tense of “prove”. The word “proven” is an obscure Scottish legal term

Q

Queensland

Some common placenames present frequent difficulties. Note: South-East Queensland, Mt Coot-tha, Story Bridge, Indooroopilly and Woolloongabba (but Wollongong in NSW). Type “Queensland”, not “Qld”, not “QLD”.

quite/rather

Unless used ironically (in quotes) the apparent qualifiers are a waste of space.

quotation marks

Quotation marks have a number of functions. They are used to:

- i) define what exactly has been said or written by a source (see **direct speech**);
- ii) define words used in a special way or to emphasise the unusual sense given to a word;
- iii) define some titles;
- iv) define familiar names.

Examples of (ii) are:

Bathers were warned to watch for “Noah’s arks”.

We ate some of the “stew” from the bucket.

In the first example, a special kind of language, rhyming slang, is used.

In the second, the writer is suggesting ironically that what was eaten could hardly be described as stew.

An example of (iii) is in identifying titles within titles:

Eckersley, R. (1986), “Science becomes news”, *Australian Journalism Review*, 8 (1 and 2).

Names of books, magazines, journals, films, radio and television programs/series and plays should be italicised. Poems, songs, short stories, episodes and individual segments within radio and TV programs, and articles should be put within quotation marks. For example, “A dangerous business” broadcast in *Four Corners* in July 2004.

Use of (iv) is in such examples as Noel “Crusher” Cleal, Allan “Captain Grumpy” Border, Arthur “Legs” Diamond, Ian “Molly” Meldrum.

Double quotation marks are used in all cases, except inside double quotes, where single quotes are used:

“Bathers were warned to watch for `Noah’s arks’,” she said.

TIP: YOU CAN SET UP MSWORD TO PRODUCE “SMART QUOTES” RATHER THAN 'STRAIGHT QUOTES' BY FOLLOWING THE <AUTOFORMAT> INSTRUCTIONS: SEE **DASH**.

quotes (See **attribution, direct speech, indirect speech.**)

R

refute

Means to disprove, not to dispute or disagree.

restive

Has a meaning close to “restless”, almost the opposite of “restful”.

restaurateur

Not “restauranteur”. The word comes from the same French construction as “amateur”.

S

said

In news reporting, the simple, unequivocal “said” is always preferred in attribution. Such words as “admitted”, “agreed”, “concluded”, “continued” and “commented” all have shades of meaning that interfere with objectivity in reporting. Use words other than “said” only in exceptional circumstances.

Use the form: “The country was going to the dogs, the colonel said.” Do NOT use the nursery-rhyme form “. . . said the colonel.”

See **direct speech, indirect speech, tenses.**

semi-colon

The semi-colon is used for clarity in a series. It separates a series of equal elements when the individual segments contain material set off by commas.

We decided to spend our money for fishing gear on a top-of-the-range, two-speed, roller-bearing reel; 30kg nylon, monofilament line, probably about 1000m; hooks, sinkers, rings and split shot; and a selection of jigs, plugs, wobblers and spoons.

A semi-colon must be used when joining two independent clauses without using “and” “or” or “but”.

Smith opened the window; her accomplice opened the door.

A semi-colon must be used when a conjunctive adverb, commonly “however”, joins two independent clauses.

The board meets tomorrow; however, nothing will be decided.
They were ordered to return; nevertheless, they chose to stay

Note that a comma must follow the conjunctive adverb.

sexism/gender

University of Queensland policy is to avoid sexism in language. Such words as “spokesman” should be replaced by “spokesperson”. Use “chair”, not “chairman” or “chairperson”.

Do not use the archaic forms “she” and “her” when referring to boats, ships or aircraft. Nations are also sexless, and the pronoun is “it”. Similarly, though cyclones may have male or female names, their pronoun is “it”.

English has no singular pronoun that includes both genders. Although the generic form “their” is becoming accepted, avoid the form:

“Each student must be aware of their responsibilities.”

A better alternative is:

“Students must be aware of their responsibilities.”

However, when the common sex of a group of people is clearly understood, the correct pronoun gender should be used.

Each student of this exclusive girls’ school must be aware of her responsibilities.

See *Valuing Diversity: A Guide to Using Culturally-Inclusive Language* (University of Queensland, 2001).

short v long

Use a short, simple word rather than a longer word. Although longer words have their place, avoid the temptation to seek “tone” by using the sonorous rather than the direct. A useful guide is to prefer Anglo-Saxon to Latinate words (Williams, 1975: 150).

Some examples:

Long	Short
accordingly.....	so
adjacent to.....	next to
ameliorate.....	improve

approximately.....about
 ascertain.....learn
 assist(ance).....help
 attempt.....try
 commence.....begin, start
 consequently.....so
 construct.....build
 consume.....drink, eat
 converse.....talk
 deceased, expired.....dead
 discontinue.....stop
 donate, contribute.....give
 endeavour.....try
 evince.....show
 exceedingly.....very
 expedite.....speed
 extinguish.....put out
 facilitate.....help
 heretofore.....before/until
 now
 incarcerate.....jail
 inebriated.....drunk
 inform.....tell
 inquire.....ask
 lacerations, contusions.....cuts, bruises
 luncheon.....lunch
 manufacture.....make
 merchandise.....goods
 necessitate.....force
 orientate.....orient
 possessed.....had/owned

proceed.....	go
purchase.....	buy
remunerate.....	pay
reside.....	live
residence.....	house
resuscitate.....	revive
shortly	soon
situated.....	(usually omit)
state.....	say
subsequently.....	later, then
sufficient.....	enough
terminate.....	end
therefore.....	so
utilise.....	use
whole of	all

singular

All organisations are single entities and should be treated as singular. So, “The government is . . .”, “the group is”, “BHP has . . .”, “Castlemaine Perkins Ltd brews . . .”, “White and Associates designs . . .”, “Brisbane City Council has decided . . .”

The singular number is extended to such constructions as:

The architect, Smith, Jones and Brown Partners, . . .

Bridge and Culvert Constructions, engineer for the project, . . .

Arnott’s, maker of biscuits, has decided . . .

sometimes, some time, some times, sometime

These all have separate, distinct meanings and are not interchangeable:

“I go fishing sometimes.”

“I’ll go fishing at some time.”

“Some times are better for fishing than others.”

“I’m a sometime (former) fisherman.”

spelling

Use an English (not American) dictionary whenever unsure of spelling. Where it gives you a choice of spellings, use the first option, unless this style guide says otherwise. Note that spellcheckers in computer software are often based on American dictionaries, are unable to detect errant homonyms (eg, there, they're, their) and are of limited usefulness.

Avoid the temptation to guess spelling: guessing inevitably makes a writer look stupid. Always check. Intuitive spelling ability can be developed only by reading, referring and remembering, although some rules are helpful.

Some words that cause frequent difficulties are:.

abattoir	accommodate
adviser	aficionado
Antarctic	(A)arctic
asphalt	athlete
barbecue	berserk
bureaucratic	burglar
calendar	callus/callous
Caribbean	cemetery
combated	commitment
connoisseur	consensus
dependent/dependant	descendant
develop	diphtheria
ecstasy	eighth
eisteddfod	environment
exaggerate	exhilarate
exhort	exorbitant
February	gauge
haemorrhage	hierarchy
immediately	indispensable
jewellery	loathe/loathe
mackerel	manoeuvre

mathematics
nickel
parallel(ed)
phosphorus
prejudice
propeller
reservoir
riesling
targeted
tragedy
undoubtedly
vegetable
weird

necessary
nuclear
papaw
possess
privilege
quite/quiet
restaurant
separate
tetanus
truly
vacuum
villain

suicide

This noun should not be used as a verb. Use “commit suicide”. A person cannot “suicide” any more than a person can “homicide” another.

T

tautology

Do not say the same thing twice in different words, a wasteful habit well developed by some sports commentators. Some common examples are “repeat again”, “total stranger”, “new innovation”, “different alternative”, “general consensus”, “close proximity”, “future prospects”, “full potential”, “past history”, “essential prerequisite”, “a new record”, “8.30pm at night”, “2am in the morning”, “actual facts”, “the reason why”, “the reason . . . is because . . .”

technical terms

Technical terms should be used without quotation marks or italics –

“Elevons are moveable control surfaces located on the trailing edge of an aircraft’s wings. An elevon serves the same function as an elevator and an aileron.”

This is not the case when the technical word or term is directly taken from another language, and has not been Anglicised (in which case, it is italicized – *Gemeinschaft*, a sociological term), or it is so unfamiliar that it is being cited (it is then put in quotation marks – “creative commons”).

tenses (see also **indirect speech**)

Print journalism normally uses the past tense, as reports follow the events, etc. described:

“The greatest cricket show on earth yesterday warmed the hearts . . .” (*Courier-Mail*).

This is not necessarily the case in broadcast journalism, where the reporting may coincide with the events. In this case, use the present tense:

“Crowds are gathering here for the greatest cricket show on earth . . .”

However, the use of tenses should be accurate and both the present and future tense should be used where appropriate, irrespective of medium:

“Rupert Murdoch’s News Corporation is eyeing a \$US7 billion buy-out ...” (*Financial Review*).

“Australian troops in Aceh will remain unarmed ...” (*Sydney Morning Herald*).

Pay particular attention not to mix tenses, particularly in indirect speech. See **attribution that, which**

These relative pronouns are not interchangeable and writers should not imagine that “which” is the literary form of “that”. Use “that” in so-called restricted clauses.

The house that Jack built is still standing.

Use “which” (and commas) for unrestricted clauses.

The house, which Jack built, is still standing.

The first usage here is restricted to one particular house; the second is not restricted. In the second example, the clause between the commas simply adds extra information that is not essential to the sentence.

For further explanation, see <http://ccc.comnet.edu/grammar/notorious/that.htm>.

the

In journalism the definite article is often omitted (“Prime Minister John Howard”). This is a debatable practice as prime minister is not a title but a role. However, there are two instances where it is unacceptable to omit “the” –

where “the” forms part of the title or name (*The Australian*, The University of Queensland), in which case it takes a capital letter; where “the” confers uniqueness (the Queen [if you so desire], the Mufti of Jerusalem), in which case it does not take a capital “t”.

time

Stories should be written with publication dates in mind. If an event occurs on June 22 and the next edition of the paper is June 21 then write “. . . will be held tomorrow (June 21).” Similarly “next week”, “last

month” or “on Tuesday” should be used and the actual date included in brackets as confirmation. News style for time is concise: “11am on November 2, 1911” is an example.

See also **numbers**.

tiresome

Means “tedious” or “boring”, not “tiring”.

titles, ranks

School style is to use Mr and Ms (not Mrs), as well as Professor, Associate Professor, Dr, Sir, Lady, Princess, Constable, Captain, Colonel, etc. At second and subsequent references Professor and Associate Professor are both written as “Professor” (then “Prof” in subsequent uses).

Give the person’s full name at first mention, and thereafter their title and surname: “Fred Smith . . . Mr Smith”. Similarly, “Professor Fred Smith . . . Professor Smith”, and “Dr Fred Smith . . . Dr Smith”

Note that in the case of knights, the first name and not the surname is used: “Sir Fred Smith . . . Sir Fred”.

Only Mr, Ms, Dr, Br, Sr and the Rev should be used as contractions.

Note that “the Rev” requires a given name as in, for instance, “the Rev Fred Smith”. Thereafter, the reference is “Mr Smith”, not “Rev Smith”.

Roman Catholic priests are normally referred to as Fr, although some have the title Monsignor. Some Anglican priests prefer to be referred to as Fr and Anglican priests should be consulted about this, as should female priests about their preferred title. Bishops should be referred to formally at first reference and thereafter as “Bishop . . .”: “The Bishop of Boolaroola, the Rt Rev Fred Smith” or “the Most Rev Fred Smith” at first mention, then “Bishop Smith”.

Titles in sport often look strange: “Mr Langer”, “Mr Mundine”, “Mr Rafter”. To avoid this awkwardness, avoid honorifics for all names involved in sport, whether they are the names of sports competitors or officials. Imperial titles and police or military ranks may occasionally intrude on sports pages and are the exceptions to this rule.

Court reporting presents a dilemma that must be resolved fairly.

Although it may appear odd that a criminal should be referred to as “Mr”

or “Ms”, many people who face charges in court are not criminals, even if found guilty. It is appropriate, then, to refer to all people involved in court proceedings in the normal way.

Police should be given their full title at first reference, and thereafter an abbreviated title: “Senior Constable Brown . . . Sen Const Brown”, “Sergeant Hobbs . . . Sgt Hobbs”. Note that police ranks refer to rank, not division of activity. So Detective Sergeant Mary O’Leary is “Sgt O’Leary” at second mention, not “Det O’Leary”. Similarly, Detective Inspector Jones becomes Insp Jones.

Titles should normally be as brief as possible. Such honorifics as “the Hon”, “the Right Hon”, “His Highness”, “His Excellency”, “the Worshipful”, “His Grace” are not used.

See **decorations**.

try to

Not “try and”.

U

under water, underwater

“Underwater” is the adjective. An underwater film is made under water.

‘underway’

This should be two words.

unique

Has an absolute meaning and has no degrees. A thing cannot be “rather unique”, “very unique” or “quite unique”, although it can be “almost unique” or “nearly unique”. Other absolute adjectives include “absolute”, “complete”, “contemporary”, “entire”, “essential”, “extreme”, “supreme”, “total”.

University of Queensland

Do not refer to The University of Queensland as Queensland University as this could lead to confusion with Queensland University of Technology. The “The” before the University of Queensland is capitalized because this is the university’s proper name. When referring to it as “the university”, do not capitalise “university”. See **capitals**.

V

versus

This Latin preposition is used often in sports copy. It must be used only as a preposition, never as a verb. Do not write “South Sydney will versus Balmain”.

verbal nouns

Although many nouns have usefully become verbs (“shop” – “to shop”, “ship” – “to ship”) and others are sidling in to the written language (“to lunch”, “to video”), writers should not assume the process is universal and automatic. It is not yet possible in Australia to get away with “to impact”, “to audience” or “to road”.

W

wasteful words

An important part of clear writing, especially news writing, is economy of words. Writers should rigorously check for flabby expressions and usually prefer the concise forms. (See also **short v long**.)

Some commonly used wasteful expressions and their preferred forms are:

a large proportion ofmany, most
as a resultbecause
at aboutat OR about (not both)
at the present time.....now
at this point in time now
black ban.....ban
carry out.....do
call a halt.....stop
constructed ofmade of
consult withconsult
continue to remain.....stay
exceeding speed limit.....speeding
filled to capacity full
gain entrance to.....enter
gale-force windgale
in advance of..... before
in attendance at..... at
inclement weather conditionsbad weather
in conjunction with.....and/or

in consequence ofbecause
 in order to.....to
 in the course ofin/during/while
 in the early hours of Tuesday morning ...early on Tuesday
 in the majority of instances.....mostly
 in the vicinity of.....near
 in view of the fact that.....since
 is of the opinionbelieves
 made an approach to.....approached
 made good their escape escaped
 meet with..... meet
 on account of the fact thatbecause
 on the increase.....increasing
 place under arrest.....arrest
 preparatory to.....before
 prior to.....before
 render assistance help
 sit down.....sit
 situated at.....at
 speed up/stand up/wake upspeed/stand/wake
 succeeded in defeating.....defeated, beat
 sustained injurieswas hurt
 12 noon/12 midnight.....noon/midnight
 take strike action.....strike
 visit withvisit
 was a witness tosaw
 was suffering from.....had
 wearing apparelclothes
 with the exception ofexcept

Western Australia

Not “West Australia”. “Western Australian”, not “West Australian”.

where

Avoid misuse of the word “where” when “at which”, “in which”, “during which” or “with which” is intended, as in: “The meeting where it was discussed”.

Information for students submitting copy to *The Independent Monthly*

In broad terms conventional news stories will be considered for publication on the following criteria: (a) traditional news values and (b) adherence to the demands of news and house style including: accuracy; inverted pyramid structure; most appropriate lead; correct form of attribution; correct tense, voice, punctuation, spelling and grammar; logical development; adherence to style requirements established for this journalism program; and adherence to the demands of the law and professional ethical behaviour (See the School's Handbook).

The preceding requirements are NOT listed in any order of importance. All are important and failure to meet any one of the above could see your story spiked. Students sometimes have a view that to misplace a letter in someone's name is not a serious transgression. Such a view is wrong. A mistake of exactly that kind cost a local newspaper a great deal of money in a recent defamation action. An otherwise perfectly written story in which a person's name is incorrectly spelled is a dangerous thing.

Material written outside the demands of conventional news style (the inverted pyramid) will also be considered. But the demands of accuracy and attention to detail apply. One wrong word, which could be fixed in a trice, could render a story mortally wounded.

Stories must be genuine. Fake or manufactured stories or quotes will be treated as cheating and dealt with accordingly. Students must adhere to the professional and ethical demands spelled out in the School handbook and style guide.

Reporting on the activities of family members and close associates is not acceptable. Apart from anything else, they present a clear conflict of

interest. Journalism should not only be done, it should be seen to be done. There is always the possibility transgressions could end up on “Media Watch”.

Students should be aware that all stories published in the School’s newspaper carry bylines (your name). A story invented just to meet a deadline could appear in the paper with the author’s name on it. That could have serious personal ramifications.

Details of sources used, including contact details, are to be provided at the head of each story and must be completed in full. Anything that the editor should know about the story or the sources used must be set out at the head of the story

Students should experience what it is like to report on matters beyond the familiar and outside the limits of one’s normal comfort zone. The faint-hearted and those terrified of telephones, or what may be encountered at the other end of them, or of people in general, have to overcome their shyness. In general the message is, those taking part should get out and about as much as possible.

Rewritten press release stories are not acceptable. Press releases are to be regarded as signposts only. Any such source material should be indicated as a source at the head of any story submitted.

Stories submitted must comply with layout requirements established for the paper. We have hundreds of stories to copy and paste and if you do not take the trouble to get these details right, your story may be passed over.

Stories should be submitted as attachments to independent@uq.edu.au . The subject line of the message should be the name (or slug) you have given your story in no more than four words, and your message should read: Story (followed by the slug) attached. Your first name followed by your second name (as shown on the mySI-net database). Do not forget to attach the story. It happens.

The story attached should be set out as a Word document as follows:

A4 page/s headed with the following:

Slug (story name);
Version; (the first, or second, or third, etc., you have submitted. We need to know the latest);
Student's name;
Current phone numbers (that will reach you); and email address (that will reach you);
Date story written (in other words, when it was current);
Word count (go to Tools, select Word Count);
Double spaced;
Single sentence pars;
A sans serif font (i.e. Century Gothic; Arial etc.)
11 point.

At the head of each story students should provide details of the sources used and where they can be contacted.

Students must also provide a declaration at the end of each story: This story is my own work and complies with the demands set out in the student handbook. Your name.

Please note the following.

Attribution: Organisation, position, name: as in *Toowong Commercial Bank chief executive Clarice Spong* (no commas) except where the combination is too long or confusing as in: *The Pacific regional manager of Oceania Fast Food and Slow Service Inc, Clarice Spong*, (with commas).

Next usage, Ms Spong (drop the first name)

Honorifics do not carry a full stop (ie Mr Ms Dr)

Professors are always Professor (not Mr or Ms or Dr) for the first usage. Thereafter Prof

Quotes: "Now is the time for all good men and women to come to the aid of the party," Ms Spong said.

Punctuation inside quotes.

NOT

“Now is the time for all good men and women to come to the aid of the party”, Ms Spong said.

NOR

“Is this a good time for all good men and women to come to the aid of the party,” Ms Spong asked?

And NEVER! NOT EVER!!!!

“Now is the time for all good men and women to come to the aid of the party,” said Ms Spong.

Running quotes:

“Now is the time for all good men and women to come to the aid of the party,” Ms Spong said.

“We need to win this election.

“A mammoth effort will be required from all members,” she said.

Partial Quotes:

Ms Spong said a “mammoth effort” would be needed from all members.

A quote within a quote takes single inverted commas.

“He looked very angry and said ‘I’m not fooling, believe me’, and I did believe him,” Mr Bloggs said.

Once the word “said” (which is past tense) appears in an indirect speech sentence, all related verbs must correspond. They must be past

tense verbs.

Thus, DO NOT write:

Ms Spong said a "mammoth effort" will be required from all members. "Will" is **incorrect**.

Instead be sure to write:

Ms Spong said a "mammoth effort" would be required from all members.

And, for example:

"The time has come," the walrus said. (**Direct speech**)

The walrus said the time has come. (**Indirect speech. WRONG!**)

The walrus said the time had come. (**Indirect speech. CORRECT**)

PLEASE DO NOT MAKE THE MISTAKE OUTLINED ABOVE. THAT IS, DO NOT USE PRESENT TENSE VERBS AFTER "SAID" IN INDIRECT SPEECH PARS. WE HAVE TO CHANGE YOUR COPY IF IT IS WRONG, AND WE HAVE MUCH BETTER THINGS TO DO.

Active Voice:

The cat sat on the mat.

NOT Passive Voice:

The mat was sat on by the cat.

Except in exceptional circumstances

Numbers: 0 to 9 are spelled out; 10 and above are written in figures

Numbers below 10000 have no comma

Thus: 3000 head of cattle

But: 40,000 horsemen

Money: words Sums of money are given as figures, not written out in

\$27,190 **NOT** twenty-seven thousand dollars

Per cent per cent **NOT** %

Z Do **NOT** use American spellings of words in which the “s” appears as a “z” (Change your word processing package to Australian English or amend your copy before submitting it).

Its/it’s

“Its” is a possessive pronoun indicating something belonging to “it” and does not have an apostrophe ... in the same way that “hers” (that which belongs to “her”) does not have an apostrophe. That which belongs to “him” is “his” and it does not take an apostrophe either.

“It’s” is a contraction of the two words “it is” and the apostrophe indicates a letter has been omitted ... in the same way that the apostrophe in “can’t” indicates missing letters

Time: 10am **NOT** 10.00 am

Date Monday, September 11, 2001 **NOT** 11 September 2001

During the 1950s **NOT** During the 1950's

More than More than 12,000 people attended the rally **NOT** Over 12,000 people attended the rally

En dash Use an en dash (–) **NOT** a hyphen (-) to indicate a pause. **In Word, select Insert from the menu at the top of the screen, select Symbol, select the en dash and insert it into your copy. The hyphen is used only as a hyphen.**

Reporters must also keep in mind that there are hundreds of student reporters in Brisbane chasing stories. The capacity of Ministers, and state and city council agencies to respond to student inquiries is, quite reasonably, very limited. On the other hand, we have a responsibility to give people an opportunity to respond to matters that are raised in our stories. You could be disappointed if you are relying on a response from the Premier as the basis of your story. Please be realistic and pursue realistic goals. If you have a story that needs to go to the Premier, discuss with the editor.

References

- Fowler, H.W. (1965), *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, 2nd ed, London: Oxford University Press.
- Gowers, Sir Ernest (1973), *The Complete Plain Words*, 2nd ed, Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin.
- Harris, Max (1989), *The Australian Way with Words*, Port Melbourne: Heinemann.
- Jervis, Bob (1986), *News Sense*, Adelaide: Advertiser Newspapers.
- Kahn, J.E. (ed) (1985), *The Right Word at the Right Time*, London: The Reader's Digest Association.
- MacDowell, Ian (1992), *Reuters Handbook for Journalists*, Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Mencher, Melvin (1987), *News Reporting and Writing*, 4th ed, Dubuque, Iowa: Wm C. Brown Publishers.
- Murray-Smith, Stephen (1990), *Right Words*, Ringwood, Victoria: Penguin.
- News Limited (2003), *Style: A Guide for Journalists*, Sydney: News Limited.
- Orwell, George (1946) "Politics and the English language", *Horizon* (April). Reproduced in many forms and accessible online at a number of sites, including <http://www.resort.com/~prime8/Orwell/patee.html>.
- Palmer, Frank (1971), *Grammar*, Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin.
- Partridge, Eric (1973), *Usage and Abusage*, rev. ed., Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin.
- Waterhouse, Keith (1993), *Keith Waterhouse on Newspaper Style*, London: Penguin.

Williams, Joseph (1975), *Origins of the English Language*, New York: The Free Press.

Referencing

You should ensure that your academic work is meticulously referenced (as suggested earlier). The school has adopted the following method as its referencing style. Note that punctuation and the position of punctuation marks are an important part of the style. This method is an adaptation of the MLA style. If you have problems referencing an unusual item, check in the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*, in the library. Please ensure that all your referencing in essays done for the School of Journalism and Communication follows this style, and be aware that referencing styles vary from school to school.

Paraphrased Documentation

School style is to use paraphrased documentation rather than footnotes:

Bowman (1988: 206) states that the newspaper's proprietor "gives it its political orientation".

Material that is quoted verbatim must be acknowledged by the use of quotation marks. An extract of three lines or more should be indented (left).

According to Bowman:

The proprietor decides where in the market he wants to pitch the paper: whether its chief appeal is to the more educated or less educated, or to particular age or social groups. He gives it its political orientation. (1988: 206)

Note: such extracts do not take quotation marks.

Except in those cases where you quote directly, your essay will accurately summarise or paraphrase the material you have read (with appropriate acknowledgment):

It has been said (Bowman, 1988: 206) that a proprietor gives a newspaper its political orientation.

or

Decisions made by a proprietor give a newspaper its political orientation (Bowman 1988: 206).

Where there are two or three authors, give all their surnames in the documentation. Thus:

There are five filters in the propaganda model (Herman and Chomsky, 1988: 13).

Where there are more than three authors, give all their surnames on the first mention, and thereafter give the surname of the first, followed by “et al.”. Thus:

The values of the dominant ideology are considered natural and universal (O’Sullivan et al., 1983: 103).

Where there is no author for an item, use the title, or if the whole title is too long and clumsy, use a shortened version of the title.

List of Works Consulted or Bibliography

This listing should be at the end of the essay, starting on a new page. It is recommended that students use a hanging indent format for their listings, as in the following examples, as this highlights authors' names and clearly distinguishes the items in the list. The listing should be arranged alphabetically by the author's surname, or, where there is no author for an item, by the title of the work. Do not alphabetise by the words "a" or "the" where they are the first word of a title — alphabetise then by the second word.

The basic order in which to arrange the information contained in a reference is as follows:

1. author's surname and initials
2. year of publication (in brackets)
3. title of a part of the book
4. title of the book
5. name of the editor, translator, or compiler
6. edition used
7. number of the volume used
8. number of the issue used
9. name of the series
10. place of publication
11. name of publisher
12. page numbers

The title of a book should be italicised, and capitalised as it appears on the title page. Here are some examples of situations you are likely to come across:

Book by a single author

Bowman, D. (1988), *The Captive Press*. Ringwood: Penguin.

An anthology or compilation

Henningham, J.P., ed. (1991), *Institutions in Australian Society*. St Lucia: Department of Journalism, The University of Queensland.

Two or more books by the same person

Henningham, J.P. (1988), *Looking at Television News*. Melbourne: Longman Cheshire.

Henningham, J.P. ed. (1991), *Institutions in Australian Society*. St

Lucia: Department of Journalism, The University of Queensland.

Two or more books by the same author and published in the same year

Add a letter to the year inside brackets, for example:

(1991a)

(1991b)

A book by more than one person

Siebert, F., T. Peterson and W. Schramm (1956), *Four Theories of the Press*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Do not use “et al.” in a bibliography; give all the authors’ names.

An anonymous book

The Macquarie Dictionary (1987), 2nd rev. ed. Macquarie University, NSW: The Macquarie Library.

A work in an anthology

Whitton, E. (1991), “Journalism and the Trade of Authority.” in *Institutions in Australian Society*. Ed. J.P. Henningham. St Lucia: Department of Journalism, The University of Queensland. 276–296.

Cross references

When citing a number of essays from one book, reference the book completely in each instance.

Moeller, S.D. (2004) “A moral imagination: the media’s response to the war on terrorism”. In *Reporting War: Journalism in Wartime*. Eds S. Allan B. Zelizer. London: Routledge. 59-76.

Reese, S.D. (2004) “Militarized journalism: framing dissent in the Gulf Wars”. In *Reporting War: Journalism in Wartime*. Eds S. Allan and B. Zelizer. London: Routledge. 247-65.

Editions

Sellers, L. (1985), *The Simple Subs Book*. 2nd ed. Oxford: Pergamon.

Periodical article

The title of an article should be enclosed in inverted commas and should not be capitalised apart from an initial capital. For periodicals whose pagination is not continuous throughout a volume but restarts with each issue, the format is as follows.

Anderson, D.C. and W.W. Sharrock (1979), "Biasing the news: technical issues in `media studies'." *Sociology* 3 (3): 367–385.

(Note: the order here is journal name, volume number, issue number in brackets.)

For periodicals whose pagination is continuous throughout a volume there is no need to give the issue number.

Newspaper article

Chester, R. (1992), "Burns calls ministerial meeting on Aurukun crime." *The Courier-Mail* 16 January, home ed.: 5.

(Note that this includes the edition of the newspaper, where possible. Articles and their placements can vary from edition to edition.)

Letter to the editor

Tedford, K. (1992), "Sign of the times." Letter. *The Courier-Mail* 16 January, home ed.: 8.

Editorial

The Courier-Mail (1992), "What about savings, Mr Keating?" Editorial. *The Courier-Mail* 16 January, home ed:8.

Television and radio programs

Information follows this order: title of episode (if any, in inverted commas); year (in brackets, after the first piece of information); program title (italicised); title of series (if any – also italicised); name of station; city; broadcast date.

"Media and the Unions" (1977), *Four Corners*. ABC TV Brisbane. 11 June.

Morning Crew (1992), B105-FM. Brisbane. 11 February.

Films and videos

Information follows this order: title, year, type of material (eg videocassette), director, producer, writer, performers, distributor, size and length of film.

Gallipoli (1981), Dir. Peter Weir. Prod. Robert Stigwood and Patricia Lovell. Screenplay David Williamson. With Mel Gibson and Mark Lee. Associated R & R Films. 110 min.

"Media and the Unions" (1977), Videocassette. *Four Corners*.

ABC TV 11 June. 50 min. Black and white.

Your own interviews

O'Connell, June (1992), Personal interview. 15 February.

O'Gorman, John (1991), Telephone interview. 30 November.

World Wide Web referencing:

Information should include the author's name, year of publication, title of the page, internet address and the date you visited the site.

ABC Radio National, *The Media Report* (1998) "Does the media understand the law and the constitution."

<<http://www.abc.net.au/rn/talks/8.30/mediarpt/mstories/980507.htm>>. 7 May.[Accessed 26 April 1999].

Online Journal:

Name. (Year). "Title of article". *Name of Journal* (Online), Volume(Number) .

<<http://www.routledge.com/routledge/journal/mc.html>> [Accessed day month year]

e.g.

Gilroy, P. (1998). "Race ends here". *Ethnic and Racial Studies* (Online), 21(5). <<http://journals.routledge.com/ers.html>> [Accessed 2 September 1998]

FTP Site:

Name. (year). "Title". <[ftp://.....\(as for journals\)](ftp://.....(as for journals))>. Day month. [Accessed day month year]

Listserv Messages:

Green, K. <kgreen@mailbox.uq.edu.au>. "REPLY: Computer assisted reporting." In JOURNET-L. <journet-l@American.edu>. 18 October 1995.

Usenet Group Messages:

Zanotto, J. (1995) <j.zanotto@mailbox.uq.edu.au>. "The Berlusconi factor" In soc.culture.italian>. 3 October.

E-Mail:

Zanotto, J. (1999) <j.zanotto@mailbox.uq.edu.au>. "Copy deadlines". E-mail message to *The Queensland Independent* <tqi@mailbox.uq.edu.au>. 27 July.

Missing information

When information about an item is unavailable, the following

abbreviations should be inserted in the reference in place of that information:

unknown place of publication —n.p.

unknown publisher — n.p.

unknown date of publication — n.d.

unknown pagination — n. pag.

Students must make every reasonable effort to find information before use of these abbreviations will be acceptable. They are not to be used to avoid gathering the information.

Block Quotes

Where exact quotes longer than three lines are used, they should be indented on the left side, without quotation marks, and with the same line-spacing as the main text, for example:

Many modern students seem to have skimmed instruction in grammar. That may be fine and fitting for most young people, but it is nowhere near good enough for the Bright Young Things who aspire to a career in journalism. (Jervis, 1985: 12)

Note that in this case the parenthetical documentation is outside of any sentence and is not followed by a full stop. Block quotes are usually introduced by a colon at the end of the preceding paragraph.