



Policy and Procedure Style Guide

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Note:

This Style Guide remains under development. Alignment with the *Publishing and Writing Style Guidelines* is yet to be undertaken.

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All styles recommended in this style guide are based on guidelines in the Commonwealth Government's *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers*, 6th edition. This manual is commonly used for writing and publishing by public and private sector organisations.

1 Introduction

The University of Southern Queensland (USQ) requires that policy and procedure are presented in a manner which is clear, concise and consistent.

When preparing any policy, procedure or related document you need to use the style set out in this guide for such matters as shortened forms, capitals, hyphens, punctuation, en rules, bullets, quotations and italics. These rules apply whether your audience is internal or external and whether your output will be hard copy or electronic.

Drafters are responsible for ensuring that policy and related materials are prepared in accordance with this guide.

The rules in this guide are drawn from the *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edition) and the manual has been written in an informal style to assist in readability. Should you require guidance on writing or a formatting issue that is not covered by this guide, please refer to the *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edition). Copies of the manual can be borrowed from the Manager (Policy Services) and the USQ Library.

2 Policy writing tips

In the process of writing, you must continually make decisions about the particular words you choose, how much detail is included, the tone of the document, whether to include statistical information and so on.

2.1 Writing for your reader

Before starting to write, it is useful to ask yourself:

- Who am I writing for?
- How much do they need to know?
- What information needs to be communicated?
- What medium will best meet the audience's needs?

2.2 Adopt a writing approach

Sometimes it helps to write with a specific person in mind, even if you are preparing a document to be read by several people or a large audience. Often if you write with a specific person in mind, the whole document becomes much easier to write (and read).

2.3 Use plain English

Writing in plain English works because you are able to communicate with your audience. About 50 per cent of adult Australians cannot cope with a level of writing more complex than found in a popular newspaper. So if your documents are aimed at the general public, you will need to pitch your writing at this level. Do not use technical or specialised terms unless you know that your readers will understand them. If it is important that readers understand a specific term, explain it.

Writing in plain English is recommended because:

- plain English makes it easier for people to understand what we write
- it creates a friendlier relationship between organisations and their stakeholders.

Techniques that will help you to communicate in plain English include:

- writing in short sentences, averaging fewer than two printed lines
- structuring your documents to put the most important information first, followed by the details
- always considering your readers and adapting your writing to their needs rather than your personal preferences
- using short, familiar words where they match your meaning, and not dressing up text with long words to sound impressive
- using the same sort of language that you would in a personal letter
- paying attention to design and layout as much as to language
- writing in the active voice – put the agent of the action before the action (e.g. 'we do it', not 'it is done by us')

- using plenty of first and second person pronouns (I, we, you), especially in letters or reports
- not using unnecessary capital letters
- avoiding archaic words like 'heretofore', 'herein' and 'aforementioned'
- being ruthless on clutter, minimising words and details that add little value.

Some examples of common phrases that can be more clearly stated in plain English are:

I refer to your letter of 7 May	Thank you for your letter of 7 May
You wrote to me in relation to	You wrote to me about
Should you require further assistance	If you need more help
At such time as	When
Prior to and following	Before and after

Sentences that are too long are often unclear. Use two short sentences instead of one long one if possible. Many of us have the bad habit of using too many words to express an idea, or fall into the trap of using habitual phrases. Here are some examples and some useful substitutes for them:

due to the fact that because	since, as
have the capacity to	can
in the event that	if
we would be grateful if	please
at the time of writing	now
in relation to	about

Verbs have two voices: active and passive. We speak mostly in the active voice, but often write in the passive. If the subject does the action, the verb is active. If the action is done to the subject, the verb is passive. For example:

Active: The lecturer assisted the student.
 Passive: The student was assisted by the lecturer.

Statements in the passive voice are often wordy, misleading (because they may be incomplete) and hard to read. A common use of the passive voice is the 'it is' construction. For example:

It is recommended that the report be amended.

This construction conceals both who is making the recommendation and who should amend the report, whereas using the active voice makes it clear who is doing what:

The committee recommends that the authors amend the report.

2.4 Avoid jargon

Jargon is technical or specialist language that is peculiar to a profession or group, understood by those on the inside but often unintelligible or meaningless to outsiders. It can have many forms, for example, acronyms such as 'RUN', 'EFTSL' or 'AB', unfamiliar phrases such as 'capacity building' or conventional words with special meanings such as 'accreditation'. If you cannot avoid terms that are likely to be unfamiliar to your audience, clearly explain them when they are first used or list them in a glossary for a report or add them to the Definitions Dictionary in the case of a policy or procedure.

2.5 Use non-discriminatory (inclusive) language

Language can be used to discriminate against individuals and groups on the basis of gender, race or ethnic origin, physical or intellectual disability, sexual preference or age. Sometimes rewriting or recasting a sentence may be a better solution than substituting words to avoid discriminatory expressions.

2.6 Consider tables and charts

Tables are used to present numerical information that would be hard to understand when presented in words only.

Good graphics add immediacy, focus attention, stimulate interest, save words and help to communicate your ideas. Graphics should help the audience understand your meaning. Usually a chart serves one of two purposes: it gives a specific example of a general point being developed in the text, or it summarises a body of information that is being commented on in the text. Does it make the text clearer? Does it show what you intended it to show? Graphics should never be an afterthought to writing – plan ahead to incorporate them effectively. Make sure your text and graphics complement each other. Duplicating information in text, graphics and tables is a waste of time.

Number and label tables and figures and refer to them by number. Insert a table title before the table and figure title after the figure, using the following convention:

Table 1: <insert title> (bold text, before table)

Figure 1: <insert title> (bold text, after figure)

All graphics should be tagged with 'alternate text' to ensure accessibility by the vision impaired. Refer to 'Instructions for Writing a Policy' for guidance on how to do this.

3 Spelling

Policy and procedure documents are to be written in Australian English. The Macquarie Dictionary should be used to check spelling.

Common errors include using the letter 'z' instead of the letter 's', for example in organisation and deleting the letter 'u' in words that end in 'our' such as neighbour and colour.

The only time non-Australian English spelling should be used is when referencing a document title written in non-Australian English such as the 'World Health Organization Report' or 'The Center for Engineering Research Report'.

Be wary when using a computer spelling checker; spelling checkers have limitations:

- They do not identify words that, although correctly spelt, are incorrect in the context in which they occur (for example, their/there; diary/dairy).
- Spelling checkers may not be based on an Australian dictionary. (You can set the Australian language as the dictionary in Word through the 'Tools' menu.)

Use consistent spelling throughout your document for words that have alternative spellings. Take the following as correct for these words:

Acknowledgment	Judgment
advisor (not adviser)	online (not on line or on-line)
all right (not alright or allright)	organise/organisation (not organize/organization)
analyse (not analyze)	per cent (not percent)
benefited (not benefitted)	program (not programme)
committed (not commited)	skilful (not skillful)
cooperate (not co-operate)	targeted (not targetted)
coordinate (not co-ordinate)	trialled
email (not e-mail)	website (not web site)
focused (not focussed)	workforce

Take the trouble to ensure you spell the names of people, faculties, programs schools and the like correctly.

4 Font

Policy and procedure documents are to be written in size 11 black Verdana font. Footers are to be written in size 8 black Verdana. Templates will give you the correct size for headings etc.

5 Editing

When you have finished writing, you will need to check (edit) your work. Asking the following questions will help with editing:

- Have you referred to the relevant annotated template?
- Have you referred to the Instructions for Writing a Policy?
- Are the facts right? (Check dates, names, references and statistics.)
- Have you included all the information the reader needs?
- Have you included everything you were asked for?
- Is it clear and concise?
- Is there anything you can say more simply and directly?
- Are your sentences too long?
- Have you used technical or wordy terms or acronyms that may not be understood?
- Have you used the right words and spelt them correctly (refer to the Spelling section of this Style Guide)?

Edit your work carefully to achieve speedy endorsement and approval. Most text needs several rounds of editing, perhaps more. The objectives of editing include ensuring that:

- the main purpose of the document is clear
- the language and tone of the writing is appropriate for the identified audience
- the main message of the document stands out
- information (both text and any accompanying material such as tables or graphs) is presented in an effective way to reach the audience
- the conclusions or recommendations, if any, are clear.

Writers tend to overuse *and*. It is common to find *and* used at least three times in one sentence. Often *and* is used:

- to mean *so, or*
- in the rambling X and Y style, or
- to join two different points that are best set out in separate sentences.

Check your work to see *and* is used sparingly.

6 Common errors

Below are common errors and misused terms to be aware of:

Accept/Except

Except is a preposition that means 'apart from', while *accept* is a verb that means 'agree with', 'take in', or 'receive'. *Except* is also rarely used as a verb, meaning to leave out.

Affect/Effect

The verb *affect* means 'to influence something', and the noun *effect* means 'the result of'. *Effect* can also be a verb that means 'to cause [something] to be'.

Aid/Aide

A person is an *aide*, but an inanimate object and the verb is *aid* e.g. A hearing aid vs. a nursing aide.

Alternately/Alternatively

Alternatively is a word you use when you refer to an option, an alternative. *Alternately* is where you do one thing after another in turn.

Alternate/Alternative

Alternate means to switch between, whereas an *alternative* is an option.

Averse/Adverse

Adverse means unfavourable, contrary or hostile, and can never be applied to humans. You often hear it used in the term 'adverse weather conditions', a phrase which is best avoided in favour of 'bad weather'.

Averse means unwilling or disinclined or loath and is always followed by the preposition 'to'. It applies to a person and is used like this: 'He was *averse* to discussing the conference'.

Biannual/Biennial

Biannual means happens twice per year. *Biennial* means happens once every two years. These terms are easily confused by a reader and it is recommended that the terms 'twice per' or 'once every' be used in their stead.

Complement/Compliment

Things or people that go together well are *complementary*, whereas *complimentary* refers to a free bonus gift item or giving someone a compliment.

Dependent/Dependant

Dependent is something that is conditional. *Dependant* is someone who relies on another for support (usually financial).

E.g./I.e

The abbreviation *e.g.* stands for the Latin *exempli gratiā* 'for example', and should be used when the example(s) given are just one or a few of many. The abbreviation *i.e.* stands for the Latin *id est* 'that is', and is used to give the only example(s) or to otherwise qualify the statement just made.

Etc.

The abbreviation *etc.* stands for *et cetera* meaning 'and the rest', 'and others' or 'and so forth'. Careful drafters will not use the term 'and etc.'

Elicit/Illicit

Elicit is a verb that means *to draw out*; e.g. 'In the interview, Brady skillfully elicited the celebrity's secrets.' *Illicit* is an adjective which means illegal.

Enquiry/Inquiry

The distinction between these words is not clear-cut, and they are often used interchangeably. In policy writing *enquire* means to 'ask'. Whilst an inquiry is an official investigation; e.g. in Australia, Royal Commissions are asked to *inquire* into certain situations.

Fewer/Less

A common mistake is the use of the term 'lesser'. This is not correct usage. Appropriate terms to use instead are *fewer* or *less*.

It's/Its

It's is a contraction that replaces *it is* or *it has*. *Its* is the possessive determiner corresponding to *it*, meaning 'belonging to it'.

Prescribe/Proscribe

To *prescribe* something is to command or recommend it. To *proscribe* somebody or something is to outlaw him, her or it.

Practice/Practise

Practice is a noun; e.g. 'We need to put these ideas into practice.' *Practise* is a verb; e.g. 'To learn piano you have to practise.'

Precede/Proceed

Precede is a verb that means to be or to go before something or someone in time or space; e.g. 'Ecological extinction caused by overfishing precedes other human disturbance to coastal ecosystems.' *Proceed* is a verb that means to continue as planned. E.g. the government has decided not to proceed with the legislation.

Principle/Principal

Principal is a noun meaning the head of a school or an organisation or a sum of money. *Principle* is a noun meaning a basic truth or law.

Sight/Site/Cite

A *site* is a place; a *sight* is something seen. To *cite* is to quote or list as a source.

Sight refers to either your vision or to something you see; e.g. 'Seeing the sights around town.'

Site refers to a physical location, such as a house or a neighbourhood. There are construction sites, for example.

Cite means to quote something, usually something of authority. Citing can also be a case of mentioning supporting facts. Christians, for example, frequently cite the Bible as the foundation for their beliefs.

Who, Which & That

Do not use *which* to refer to persons. Use *who* instead. *That*, though generally used to refer to things, may be used to refer to a group or class of people. For example, 'I just saw a boy who was wearing a yellow banana costume.' 'I have to go to math next, which is my hardest class.' 'Where is the book that I was reading?'

Whose/Who's

Whose is a question, *who's* is a contraction for 'who is'.

7 Grammar references

7.1 Abbreviations and acronyms

Abbreviations are standardised short forms of words or phrases. Abbreviations that consist of the first letter of a word, usually some other letters, but not the last letter, have a full stop after them. For example:

- Mon. (Monday)
- Dec. (December)
- tel. (telephone).

Abbreviations that consist of the first and the last letters of a word and sometimes other letters in between are written without full stops. For example:

- Mr
- Dept
- Qld.

The abbreviations for *for example* and *that is* should be written with full stops after each letter as follows:

- e.g. (stands for the Latin *exempli gratia*)
- i.e. (stands for the Latin *id est*).

Acronyms are abbreviations that can be pronounced as words. Some very commonly used acronyms are written with an initial capital only or entirely in lower case. All acronyms are written without full stops. For example:

- USQ
- ATEM
- RUN
- QCWT
- Qantas
- Anzac.

Avoid the use of abbreviations and acronyms in general text. This applies particularly to documents for the general public. In situations where an abbreviation or acronym is acceptable, write in full what it stands for the first time you use it.

Abbreviations may be used in tables. These must be listed and spelt out at the top or bottom of the table unless they are very commonly known and used — for example, abbreviations for days of the week and months of the year.

Note: Just because an abbreviation or an acronym is presented in capital letters does not mean that the spelt-out form should have initial capitals. Normal capitalisation practices apply. For example, *NSW* becomes *New South Wales* but *EEO* becomes *equal employment opportunity*.

For further information on using abbreviations and acronyms, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 150–161.

7.2 Ampersand (&)

The ampersand should not be used in general text.

It may be used in tables and figures when there are space restrictions. It may also be used:

- in the names of organisations or programs that incorporate the ampersand in their names in preference to 'and' (for example, Postgraduate Certificate in Learning & Development, Cobb & Co Museum)
- between the names of co-authors of works in references and bibliographies.

7.3 Bullet/dot points and lists

Use a colon to introduce items in a list of bullet points or a list that is numbered or presented in some other way, such as 1., 2. and 3.

Note: Bullets are generally preferable to numbers or letters for itemised indented material. Numbers or letters should be used only when you need to demonstrate priority or a sequence to the items, or if individual items need to be identified for later reference.

When the items in the list are not a full sentence, start each item in the list with a lower-case letter and do not use any punctuation at the end of the item — no commas or semicolons. Use a full stop at the end of the last item. Make sure that all items in the list have the same grammatical form and that they follow logically from the stem that introduces them.

To write effectively, you must be clear about:

- the message you are communicating
- the audience you are targeting
- the medium you are using
- the result you are aiming for.

If each item in the list is a complete sentence, use an initial capital and a full stop at the end.

The committee came to two important conclusions:

- Officers from the department should investigate the feasibility of developing legislated guidelines for future investigations.
- Research should be funded in the three priority areas.

Where qualifiers are required to add meaning and the sentences are incomplete, start each item in the list with a lower-case letter and include a semicolon at the end of each item; e.g.

To write effectively, you must be clear about:

- the message you are communicating;
- the audience you are targeting;
- the medium you are using; and
- the result you are aiming for.

Where qualifiers are required to add meaning and the sentences are complete, start each item in the list with an upper-case letter and include a semicolon at the end of each item; e.g.

Examples of research misconduct include:

- Falsification of data by a student; and/or
- Breach of privacy; and/or
- Plagiarism.

Indenting should generally be restricted to two levels of subdivision. In the USQ Policy and Procedure Library a closed bullet is used for the first level of indent and an open bullet for the second.

- The strategic plan outlines:
 - our values
 - client services
 - integrity
 - respect
 - collaboration
 - learning
- our outputs
 - prevention services
 - early intervention services
 - immediate response services.

If numbered indenting is required, two levels are provided in the USQ Policy and Procedure Library as follows:

1. Text
 - a. Text

Note: It is not possible to nest bullets within numbered lists or vice versa as they will not replicate to the Policy and Procedure Library website.

Refer to the relevant annotated template for further guidance regarding policy and procedure formatting.

For further information on lists, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 142–144.

7.4 Capitalisation

The current trend is to reduce the number of words given initial capital letters. Unnecessary and inappropriate capitalisation of words may make your document appear old-fashioned and thus limit its credibility.

There are three exceptions to this convention with policy:

- All occurrences of terms defined in the Definitions Dictionary are to be capitalised.
- All occurrences of the term 'University' when referring to 'the University' are to be capitalised. General reference to a non-specific university does not require capitalisation.
- All occurrences of the term 'Faculty' when referring to a specific faculty are to be capitalised. General reference to a non-specific faculty does not require capitalisation.

Aside from the above exceptions, capitals should only be used for the first letter of the first word of a sentence and for the names of particular people, places and things (proper nouns). Many writers confuse names with descriptors or generic expressions (words and phrases that are general terms rather than specific names). Use capitals for names only. One way of differentiating between names and descriptors is to ask yourself whether the word or phrase names a particular thing or whether it refers to something in a general sense only. Use capitals if it names a particular thing and lower case if it is a general reference.

Example 1

Students from the across the University's faculties have worked very hard during the year, particularly those from the Faculty of Business, Education, Law and Arts.

Example 2

The University offers great courses in the Faculty of Business, Education, Law and Arts.

Example 3

I am looking for a great arts course from a university.

Note:

The term *arts* is not capitalised because it is not the specific name of a course — for example, *Bachelor of Arts*. The term *university* is not capitalised as it is not referring to a specific university.

Use capitals for ...	but NOT for ...
Names of programs, projects, positions, buildings initiatives, strategies and such like when they are written in full: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Head Start • Fraser Coast Campus • Bachelor of Arts. 	These names when they are referred to only by their generic element: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the program • the campus • the program.
Use capitals for ...	but NOT for ...
<i>Government</i> when it is part of a formal title or abbreviated specific title: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Queensland Government • the Commonwealth Government. 	Generic, adjectival or plural uses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the government • local government • this system of government • government control • whole-of-government response/action • the Queensland and Victorian governments.
Use capitals for ...	but NOT for ...
<i>State</i> when it is part of an official or abbreviated title: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the State of Queensland. 	Generic, plural or adjectival uses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the state government • state-wide • across the state • the states and territories • state programs • federal–state arrangements.
Use capitals for ...	but NOT for ...
<i>Federal</i> when it forms part of an official title: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Federal Court of Australia the Federal Court.	Generic or adjectival uses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the federal government • federal government initiative • federal legislation • federal funding. <p>Note: As <i>federal government</i> is a broad descriptive term for the Commonwealth Government, it does not need to be capitalised. (See note below on use of <i>federal government</i> and <i>Commonwealth Government</i> rather than <i>Australian Government</i>.)</p>

Use capitals for ...	But NOT for ...
<p>Full, official names of organisations, institutions and similar entities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • University of Southern Queensland • University of Southern Queensland Council • Faculty of Health, Engineering and Sciences. 	<p>These names when they are referred to by their generic element only:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a university • the committee • the faculties • employees • team members.
Use capitals for ...	
<p>The following terms associated with the operations of the University:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the X Committee of Council • University of Southern Queensland Council • the Vice-Chancellor • the University • <i>the University of Southern Queensland Act 1998.</i> 	
Use capitals for ...	but NOT for ...
<p>Names of faculties, schools and centres — for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Australian Centre for Sustainable Catchments • Student Centre • Faculty of Health, Engineering and Sciences. 	<p>Generic terms referring to these offices - for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Several research centres have already submitted reports.

Use capitals for ...	but NOT for ...
<p>A person’s official title, whether or not it is accompanied by his or her name. Each major element of the title should have an initial capital. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Vice-Chancellor, University of Southern Queensland • the Executive Director , Human Resources <p>Note: Use lower case for shortened versions of titles, provided that no confusion is likely to arise (e.g. According to the executive directors ...).</p> <p>The following are exceptions; they are always capitalised even when shortened:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Prime Minister of Australia • the Prime Minister • the Premier of Queensland • the Premier • the Minister for XX • the Minister • the Chancellor • the Vice-Chancellor • the Senior Deputy Vice-Chancellor • the Dean • the Councillor/s. 	<p>General references to the names of positions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He wants to be an executive director... • When she became premier ... She was the former president of... • The manager is responsible for... • The director’s role involves ... • Student relationship officers will provide ... • Maintenance staff members are responsible for...
Use capitals for ...	But NOT for ...
<p>These terms:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elder (e.g. community Elder) <p>Internet</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Web • World Wide Web • Traditional Owners • Indigenous (when writing about Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander people). 	<p>These terms when they are used generically (e.g. not part of a specific name or title):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • action plan • annual report • corporate plan • branch business plan. <p>Terms such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • intranet • reconciliation • website.

Use capitals for ...	but NOT for ...
Geographical place names and names of recognised geographical regions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Darling Downs • Springfield • South-East Queensland. 	Descriptive or unofficial terms that refer to a general area: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • northern Australia • western Africa.
Use capitals for ...	
Titles of legislation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education Services for Overseas Students Act (2000) • The Public Sector Ethics Act 1994 • the Disability Services Act 1992 (first mention — in italic with year) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Public Sector Ethics Act OR • the Act the Disability Services Act <u>OR</u> • the Act (subsequent mentions)	
Use capitals for ...	but NOT for ...
Elements of a publication when mentioned in running text <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This is discussed in Chapter 4. • The amounts are shown in Figure 3.2 and Table 3.1 	Page numbers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This is discussed on pages 59–63

For further information on capitalisation, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 118–135. Some relevant excerpts are included below:

Traditionally, a capital letter has often been attached to a proper name to signify respect for a particular position or organisation or to draw a distinction between two entities with the same generically abbreviated title. For example, employees might refer to their own organisation as 'the Company', 'the Bank' or 'the Department' but to another organisation as 'the company', 'the bank' or 'the department'. The same distinction is sometimes seen in the use of capitals for positions within an organisation's own hierarchy but not for similar positions outside that organisation.

With the move to fewer capitals, this practice is rapidly declining. Apart from the apparent inconsistencies that such distinctions can create throughout a document, the practice also gives the impression of an 'us and them' attitude that is inappropriate in material produced for an external audience. Further, the practice does little to aid clarity: if the context does not make the meaning clear, a capital alone will rarely do so.¹

¹ *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers*, 6th edn, p. 120

The word 'government' should be capitalised as part of a formal title or abbreviated specific title, but lower case is generally appropriate elsewhere:

The Commonwealth Government is responsible for...

The government proposes to...

This government policy will...

*The policy will be reviewed by the Commonwealth Government from time to time.*²

The same general approach applies to the words 'state' and 'territory' when these refer to the jurisdictions that make up the Commonwealth of Australia: use capitals for official or abbreviated specific titles but not for generic or plural references. For example:

The Australian Capital Territory includes Jervis Bay.

*The territory's total area is more than 2000 square kilometres.*³

7.5 Dates and time

Dates

When writing a date in full, use the following form:

- 1 February 2004

No punctuation is necessary, even when including the name of the day as part of the date:

- On Thursday 21 June ...

Time

When writing years and spans of years, use the following forms:

- the 1990s
(**NOT** the nineties, or the 1990's, or the '90s, or the nineteen-nineties)
- 2004–2005 or 2004–05
(**NOT** 2004–5, or 2004–005, or 2004/05, or 2004/2005)

When writing time, use a full stop to separate the hours from the minutes. Two zeros may be used to indicate even hours but are not essential:

- 9 am
- 9.00 am
- 3.15 pm
- 10.15–11.00 am.

For further information on dates and time, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 170–173.

² *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers*, 6th edn, p. 124

³ *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers*, 6th edn, p. 125

7.6 Headings and subheadings

Headings and subheadings organise the content of a document. They provide pointers or guides for readers and make documents easier to read and follow. Large blocks of text without headings can be very off-putting to readers.

- Keep headings reasonably brief without compromising their usefulness.
- Do not use full stops after headings or subheadings.
- Capitalise only the first letter of the first word in a heading; do not capitalise any of the other words unless they would normally have an initial capital.
- Use the hierarchical heading styles provided in the the policy and procedure templates to ensure readability, ease of reference and consistency across the Policy and Procedure Library.

7.7 Italics

See Section 7.25.

7.8 Measurements

When writing quantities, distances and so on in **general text**, use the full name of the unit of measurement, rather than the symbol.

Symbols may be used in **tables** or in **documents that have many references to measurements**. The following are some examples:

Unit name	Symbol
10 per cent	10%
10 litres	10 L
10 kilograms	10 kg
10 metres	10 m

Note: Symbols such as *kg*, *km* and *L* are internationally recognised representations of units of measurement, not abbreviations. They are not written with full stops; nor do they have *s* on the end to indicate plural.

Insert a space between the number and the symbol, except for symbols such as % and \$.

For further information on measurement, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 178–186. (See also Numbers.)

7.9 Non-discriminatory language

Language plays a powerful role in both reinforcing and eliminating stereotypes. It is important for all people using language in the public arena to be aware of how language can unintentionally perpetuate discrimination.

Under federal and state legislation it is generally unlawful to discriminate on the grounds of race, colour, national or ethnic origin, gender, or physical or mental capabilities.

References to people with a disability

Refer to a person's disability only if there is a specific need to do so. When it is necessary to mention a disability, put the person first, not the disability, for example:

- People with a disability.
- The man who is blind/has a vision impairment.
- The woman who is paralysed.

Also ensure that the person is referred to as 'having' the disability, not 'being' the disability. Remember, for example:

- A person is not disabled but has a disability.
- A person is not an amputee but has an amputated limb.
- A person is not an epileptic but has epilepsy.

Discriminatory-

Some equipment needs to be modified for the disabled.

Non-discriminatory-

Some equipment needs to be modified for people with a disability.

The following are some other terms and expressions to avoid:

Words to avoid	Acceptable alternatives
the blind, the visually impaired	person who is blind, person with a vision impairment
the deaf	person who is deaf (People who are deaf are those who identify as a part of the deaf community or who use sign language. The 'deaf community' is only appropriate when referring to this particular community.)
handicap, handicapped	disability, person with a disability
confined to a wheelchair, wheelchair-bound	uses a wheelchair
suffers from a disability, stricken with a disability, sufferer	person with a disability (Not all people with a disability actually suffer.)
victim	has a disability (People with a disability are not necessarily victims and prefer not to be seen as such.)
people with disabilities (refers to people who have multiple disabilities)	person with multiple disabilities OR people with a disability

For further information on writing about, or for, people with a disability, refer to: www.disability.qld.gov.au/publications/waywithwords.pdf

References to Indigenous peoples

The most preferred and inclusive collective reference for Indigenous Australians is:

- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

Other group terms that are also acceptable, but not comprehensive, are:

- Aboriginal people (OR Aboriginal peoples)
- Australian Aboriginals
- Torres Strait Islanders.

Capitalise the term *Indigenous* when it refers to the original inhabitants of Australia:

- Indigenous Australians
- Indigenous people (or peoples) Indigenous communities.

The Commonwealth Government Style Manual recommends that the term *non-Indigenous* not be used as a way of distinguishing between Australia's original inhabitants and other Australians, as it can be viewed as unnecessarily divisive.

The terms *Aboriginal* and *Aboriginals* are preferred to *Aborigine* or *Aborigines*.

Do not use the abbreviation ATSI to refer to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

References to ethnic groups

Avoid the terms *ethnics* and *ethnic Australians* when they could be seen as implying a 'them and us' distinction, where the suggestion is that migrants are exotic or strange by comparison with people in the mainstream. When used in a straightforward, descriptive way, however — as in *ethnic and racial groups* — there is no problem.

When referring to people who do not speak English as their first language, use the following:

- People from non-English speaking backgrounds.

Non-discriminatory portrayal of the sexes

Avoid references to someone's sex, sexuality or marital status except where it is the issue under discussion.

Avoid gender-specific pronouns (*he, his, him; she, her*) when the subject is generic. There are several ways of redrafting sentences to avoid these pronouns. For example:

- Rewrite the sentence in the plural:
Discriminatory: As a mentor, you must train and support the person you are working with. If *she* needs special support ...
Non-discriminatory: Mentors must train and support the people they are working with. If any of them need special support ...
- Repeat the noun:
Non-discriminatory: As a mentor, you must train and support the person you are working with. If this *person* needs special support...
- Leave out the pronoun:
Discriminatory: Each applicant must provide a copy of the document to his referees.
Non-discriminatory: Each applicant must provide copies of the document to referees.
- Use he or she, or she or he.
- Rewrite the sentence and use another pronoun such as you, I, or we.

There are mixed opinions about the use of the pronouns *they, them* and *their* to avoid the use of gender-specific pronouns. *They, them* and *their* are grammatically plural pronouns, with the primary function of referring back to a plural noun, as in:

- Applicants must provide a copy of the document to their referees.

Some people argue that these pronouns should therefore only be used for plural references; others argue that they can be used in singular references where they show notional rather than formal agreement (between noun and pronoun). For example:

- Everyone must provide a copy of the document to their referees.
- Each applicant must provide a copy of the document to their referees.

This style guide recommends that *they*, *them* and *their* are generally used only for plural references.

For further information on non-discriminatory language, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 55–62.

7.10 Numbers

In **general text**, you should usually write the numbers one to nine in words, and the numbers 10 and above in figures. **However, there are some exceptions as noted in the box below.**

Examples — numbers with symbols and units of measurement:

Sums of money	\$5.08	23c	
Time	10.30 am	12 noon (then 12.01 pm) 10 pm	50 min
Mass	250 t (250 tonnes)	5 kg (5 kilograms)	50 g (50 grams)
Measures	57 L (57 litres)	8 km (8 kilometres)	16 mm (16 millimetres)
Degrees of inclination	An angle of 45 degrees	An angle of 45°	
Latitude and longitude	45°52'S	170°30'E	
Percentages	9 per cent	9% (not percent or p.c.)	

Exceptions:

When the number is accompanied by a symbol or unit of measurement, use figures, regardless of whether the number is under or over 10 (see examples below). If the sentence contains a mix of small numbers (under 10) and larger numbers (over 10), **do not use a mixture of numerals and spelt-out numbers**. Write all the numbers in words or all in numerals, whichever seems most appropriate in the context of the article or page. For example:

- We met all six Council members individually over a period of sixteen weeks.
- We met all 6 Council members individually over a period of 16 weeks.

Use words, not figures, to write numbers that open a sentence, even when elsewhere these are expressed in figures. For example:

- Forty people went to the workshop.

In tables, use figures for all numbers.

In print documents, when writing numbers with more than four digits (10 000 and upwards), use a space rather than a comma to separate each group of three digits. This applies also to sums of money. (*See below for website documents.*)

A space is not needed in numbers containing only four digits (1000–9999), as these are short enough to be easily comprehensible. For alignment purposes in tables, however, a space may be inserted in 4-digit numbers when these are listed in a column with numbers of more than 4 digits. For example:

- 5000
- 650 000
- 1 000 000.

Note: In documents that are professionally formatted and prepared for publication by graphic designers, request that this space be a 'thin space' (i.e. slightly smaller than the normal space). This is not possible or necessary in documents prepared in Word — a normal space will suffice.

In website documents, use a comma instead of a space to separate each group of three digits. This will eliminate possible problems with screen readers, where a number such as 650 000 may be read as two separate numbers.

Write the words *million* and *billion* in full in **general text**. The shortened forms *m* and *b* may be used in **tables**; they must be written in lower case, without a full stop, and without a space between the number and the shortened form. For example:

- \$649 million
- \$649m.

Use decimal fractions whenever it is necessary to convey numerical information fully and accurately. Use a full stop on the line as a decimal marker and always use the same number of decimal places for all decimal quantities that are being compared, whether in the text or in a table or illustration. For example:

- 3.002
- 6.950
- 0.149.

It is best to avoid expressing fractions in words — for example, use 3.5 rather than three and one-half. Do not use fractions in the Policy and Procedure Library as they will not render correctly to the website in HTML.

When two sets of numbers appear together in text, rearrange the sentence or insert a comma between them to prevent misunderstanding. For example:

- By 2005, 75 more employees will be needed.

Alternatively, you could rewrite the sentence to avoid having the two sets of numbers appear together. For example:

- By 2005, the organisation will need 75 more employees.

For further information on numbers, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 162–177.

7.11 Punctuation

The purpose of punctuation is to make the meaning of a text as clear as possible. Incorrect or insufficient punctuation may cause ambiguity or misunderstanding; unnecessary punctuation may distract the reader and be unsightly. The University's policy is to use minimal punctuation.

Apostrophe

The apostrophe is used to:

- indicate possession (for example, manager's book, employees' responsibilities)
- show the omission of one or more letters (as in wouldn't/would not).

Note: A simple rule to indicate possession is to add an apostrophe followed by an *s* for singular words and add an apostrophe after the *s* for plural words:

- a life guard's responsibilities = responsibilities of a life guard
- several life guards' responsibilities = responsibilities of several life guards

Use the apostrophe to indicate possession with nouns only; the pronouns *hers*, *its*, *theirs* and *yours* are already possessive and do not need the apostrophe.

Do not confuse the possessive pronoun *its* with the contraction *it's* (it is). For example:

- Last year, the department achieved all its major goals. (possessive pronoun)
- It's likely that we will achieve all our major goals. (contraction of *it is*)

In plural words that do not end with *s*, place the apostrophe before the *s*. For example:

- International Women's Day
- People's needs.

For the possessive of singular nouns that end in *s*, add an apostrophe and an *s*. For example:

- Mr Smith's report on
- ... the business's reports.

For the possessive of compound nouns, add an apostrophe and an *s* to the last word only:

- the chief executive's office.

It is not necessary to use an apostrophe in expressions of time when these contain a plural form; however, use an apostrophe for the singular form to help mark the noun as singular. For example:

- in five years time **but**
- a day's labour.

Some organisations include an apostrophe in their names; others do not. **Always check the names of organisations to ensure accuracy.**

For further information on apostrophes, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 85–88.

7.12 Brackets/parentheses

Brackets (parentheses) may be used to enclose an expression that is not essential to the meaning of a sentence but that amplifies a point being made or is intended as an aside.

Example

Funding was provided to improve drainage in rural areas. This included \$200 000 (from a commitment of \$350 000 made in 2007-2008) to employ extra staff.

Do not use brackets within brackets; use a combination of brackets and dashes.

Example

The Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Students and Communities) met with stakeholders at two campuses — Toowoomba and Springfield — to discuss ways of improving student services.

For further information on using brackets, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 110–112.

7.13 Colon

The most common use of the colon is to introduce further information. This information can be a list, a word, a phrase or clause, or a quotation.

Example 1

The meetings will be with three schools: the School of Arts and Communication, the School of Commerce and the School of Management and Enterprise.

Example 2

The USQ Strategic Plan (2013-2015) states: Over the past decade, the University of Southern Queensland has built on its heritage of providing educational excellence, focused research on issues vital to regions and engaged service to the community.

There is no need to use a colon before short quotations that are not set off from the rest of the text, or with direct speech. A comma is sufficient in these cases.

As the report states, 'The Academic Board endorsed specific initiatives to improve student retention'.

A colon is also used to indicate a ratio. For example: 1:100.

For further information on using colons, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 99–101.

7.14 Comma

The modern practice is to leave commas out if the meaning is quite clear without them. If readability and understanding are improved by commas, use them.

Generally, do not use a comma before *or*, *and* or *etc.* in a list (see also next point):

Joe Bloggs, Cindy Smith and Wayne Jones attended the seminar.

Use a comma before *or*, *and* or *etc.* in a list when leaving it out might make the meaning unclear or cause the last word or phrase to be construed with a preposition in the preceding phrase:

- At the seminar, we enjoyed the activities, the speakers, and the food we ate.
- They should seek the support of landholders, philanthropists, government, and community and industry groups.
- The long days at work, the nights of intense study, and inadequate food eventually caused them serious health problems.

A comma can be used before *and* or *but* if they are connecting two clauses with different subjects. There is no need to add the comma if the two clauses are short:

- Staff members went home when the power failure occurred, but the security officers continued to patrol the building until 6 pm.
- Staff members went home but the security officers stayed in the building.

When a person's title is incorporated with his or her name, do not place a comma between the title and the name.

- Mr Brown
- Councillor Fox
- Vice-Chancellor Thomas
- Premier Newman.

However, when using 'the' in conjunction with the title, you should place a comma between the title and the name.

- The Executive Director, Sustainable Business Management & Improvement..
- Ms Smith, the President of the Health Improvement Association, endorsed the policy.
- The Director, Marketing and Student Attraction, Ms Smith, advised ...

Words or word groups are often added to a basic sentence to give more information. These are sometimes set off by commas. The use of commas depends on whether the words or word groups are essential to the meaning of the sentence.

Do not use commas to set off words or word groups when these **are essential** to meaning.

Use commas to set off words or word groups when these are **not essential** to meaning.

The easiest way to decide whether they are essential is to read the sentence without them. If omission of the word or word groups changes the meaning, they are essential.

Example 1

Students who fail to meet the required academic standards will have their enrolment reviewed.

Students, who fail to meet the required academic standards, will have their enrolment reviewed.

In the second sentence, if you omit the information set off with commas, the meaning of the sentence is changed. The sentence is not referring to all students; it is referring only to those who fail to meet the required standard. Commas should not be used in this sentence.

Example 2

The Graduart Exhibition, which began in 1972, is one of the ways in which the University is helping to showcase the work of art students.

In this sentence, the meaning does not change if the information set off with commas is omitted; it is not essential information. Commas should be used.

For further information on using commas, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 101–105.

7.15 Ellipsis points

Ellipsis points, or suspension points, consist of three full stops (...) and are mainly used to show the omission of a word or words from quoted material:

The report stated: 'Currently, no one level of government is responsible for education ... Education needs are met by a range of public sector agencies in conjunction with the private sector ... The University's main role in providing education is...'

Use only three points, even if the ellipsis points come at the end of a sentence — in other words, do not add a full stop. To insert an ellipsis, use the 'Symbol' option from the 'Insert' menu in Microsoft Word.

For further information on using ellipsis points, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), p. 110.

7.16 Hyphens and dashes

Hyphens

Hyphens are used in:

- some compound words (words made up of two or more separate words — owner-operator, government-owned, employment-based)
- some words with prefixes (ex-member, de-emphasise).

There are many variations in the use of hyphens in the English language. The easiest way to determine whether a hyphen should be used in a word is to consult the *Macquarie Dictionary*. When you have decided on the hyphenation of a word, make a note of it and use that style consistently.

These are some examples of when hyphens are used:

Compound words that are adjectives	full-time [job], part-time [job], long-term [contract] well-known [book] Note: When compound words such as these are not used as adjectives (that is, they do not describe a noun), they do not have a hyphen — for example, <i>He works full time; It is well known that ...</i>
Compound words containing a number	two-hour workshop; four-part series
Words with the prefix <i>ex</i> or <i>co</i>	ex-student, co-worker (but not in <i>cooperate</i> or <i>coordinate</i>)
Words with the prefix <i>e</i> (for 'electronic')	email but e-business, e-learning, e-Democracy, e-petition Notes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The <i>e</i> prefix is so small that such words would be in danger of being misread unless the hyphen is there. • The exception is <i>email</i> as it is commonly accepted without the hyphen.
Fractions	one-third (but not in phrases such as <i>five and a half years old</i> — see Numbers)

Do not insert a space before or after a hyphen.

Do not use a hyphen after prefixes when the word is so well known it is unlikely to be mispronounced. For example:

- coordinate **not** co-ordinate
- cooperate **not** co-operate.

For further information on using hyphens, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 88–94.

7.17 Dashes

There are two kinds of dashes: short (the en rule) and long (the em rule). Both of these are longer than hyphens, and each one has a particular use.

The key command in Microsoft Word for the **long dash** is CTRL/ALT/MINUS (on the number pad of the keyboard). The key command for the **short dash** is CTRL/MINUS.

The **long dash** can be used:

- to explain or amplify what immediately precedes it or to 'gather up' what comes before or after
- to mark off a phrase that is not essential to the meaning of a sentence but that expands on what has gone before.

Examples

There are two kinds of dashes — short and long.

Clarity, conciseness and correctness — these are the essentials of effective writing.

The eye cannot cope comfortably with too many words — 10 or 12 words per line is ideal — so use a large type size when the line length is long.

Insert a space before and after a long dash.

The **short dash** is a linking device. It is used:

- between spans of figures, time or distance
 - pages 24–25 (**not** pages 24/25)
 - 2003–04 financial year (**not** 2003/04 financial year)
 - Brisbane–Fraser Coast flight (**not** Brisbane/Fraser Coast flight)
 - April–June (**not** April/June).
- to show an association between two things that retain their separate identities:
 - federal–state agreement
 - purchaser–provider relationship.

Do **not** use the short dash with the words *from* and *between*:

- the period from 2003 to 2005 **not** the period from 2003–2005
- the period between 2003 and 2005 **not** the period between 2003–2005.

Do **not** insert a space before or after the short dash. (Note the exception to the rule: if there is more than one word to be linked on one or both sides, a spaced **short dash** should be used — for example, *Commonwealth – New South Wales agreement*.)

For further information on using dashes, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 106–109.

7.18 Quotation marks (inverted commas or speech marks)

Use **single** quote marks throughout your document. The only exception is if you are writing an article for a newsletter, magazine or media release — use double quote marks instead of single in the text of these documents throughout.

Use quote marks:

- around text introduced with words such as *labelled*, *marked*, *titled* or *the term*
- around a word or phrase that has been coined or that is being used in a specific sense
- around colloquial words, nicknames, slang, or humorous words and phrases in formal writing
- for the title of an unpublished document, a chapter in a published work, an article in a periodical, an essay, a lecture, a short poem or a song.

Examples

The term 'e-petition' refers to ...

The artworks are displayed in a 'virtual gallery' created by a multimedia developer in the local community.

The topic of the conference was 'Support your students'.

All staff should read the draft document 'Work Health and Safety'.

Use quotation marks to enclose direct speech or direct quotes:

- 'Twenty people responded to the survey,' the researcher said.
- The report made the following recommendation: 'Communities, government and businesses need to work together to ...'
- The case study described Head Start as 'an innovative education initiative'.

For quotes within quotes, use the reverse style — i.e. if style throughout is single, use double, and vice versa:

The manager said, 'The papers were marked "Top Secret", but were nevertheless opened.'

7.19 Semicolon

The break provided by a semicolon is stronger than that provided by a comma but weaker than that created by a full stop.

The semicolon can therefore be used to link two clauses that could be treated as separate sentences but that have a closer logical link than such separation would imply. Using the semicolon shows that there is a close connection between the two parts. Often the semicolon could be replaced by a full stop, but this would not point out the connection.

- The system is complex for those who work within it; for those outside the system, it could be almost impossible to understand.
- We expect ministerial approval next week; the work can then start immediately.

Use a semicolon before clauses introduced by words such as 'however', 'nevertheless', 'thus', 'accordingly' and 'therefore'. (**Note:** These words should then be followed by a comma.)

Examples

These two programs have similar aims; however, each one focuses on a different target group.

Members of the work team encountered many obstacles; nevertheless, they achieved their goals.

Semicolons can also be used to separate clauses or phrases that already contain commas.

Example

Staff can nominate for Learning and Teaching Awards, which recognise, reward and support outstanding teaching and practice; a Research Excellence Award, which recognises researchers who have demonstrated excellence in research, scholarship or postgraduate research supervision; and the Community Engagement and Service Awards, which recognises contributions to the community.

For further information on using semicolons, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), p. 101.

7.20 Slash/solidus

The forward slash (/) — also known as a solidus, diagonal or oblique — is used to indicate alternatives:

- male/female.

Do **not** use a slash instead of a short dash between spans of figures or dates or to indicate a connection:

- the 2004–05 financial year (**not** the 2004/05 financial year)
- joint state–local government program (**not** joint state/federal program)
- Brisbane–Townsville flight (**not** Brisbane/Townsville flight)
counsellor–client relationship (**not** counsellor/client relationship).

For further information on using slashes, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), p. 109.

7.21 References, reference lists and bibliographies

If your writing contains information from other works, you must acknowledge the sources. Such acknowledgments are called *references*. There are two options for providing references:

- author–date system (the most commonly used option)
- note system.

In the Policy and Procedure Library the author-date system is used and APA Referencing is the style which must be adopted. The USQ Library provides an [APA Referencing Guide](#) and the bibliographic software program, [EndNote](#) is also available from the USQ Library website. Assistance is available from the [Manager \(Policy Services\)](#) or the [USQ Library](#).

7.22 Internal references

References internal to a policy or procedure should be referred to by section number, with the word 'section' capitalised.

Example

Refer to Section 7.20 of this Style Guide for advice on how to reference external sources.

7.23 Author–date system

With this system:

- **Textual references** are used (short references that cite the author and date of publication of the source within the text); and
- **A list of these references is provided at the end of the document** showing all publication details. (This list should be headed 'References'. If works that are not actually cited in the text are included in the list, it should be headed 'Bibliography' — see the next section on bibliographies and reference lists.)

Examples of **textual references**

Keats (2002) recommended that ...

As at 30 June 2004, 73.5 per cent of University staff were engaged in direct service delivery to students (Keats 2004:35).

Examples of entries in a **list of references** (see also the section on bibliographies and reference lists)

Brockhurst, JM 2002, *Guidelines for Good Writing*, Macmillan Education Australia, Melbourne, p. 124.

7.24 Reference lists and bibliographies

A **reference list** contains only works cited in the document. A **bibliography** may be:

- A list of works related to the subject but not actually cited in the document.
- A list of works that includes sources cited in the document **and** other works that may be useful or interesting to the reader.

As indicated above, [APA Referencing](#) is used in the Policy and Procedure Library and the same method of presentation is used for reference lists and a bibliography. List the works in alphabetical order of their authors' names or sources' names.

This style guide recommends maximal capitalisation for titles of publications (i.e. all words except prepositions capitalised). Titles of publications are also italicised.

These are some examples of different types of sources:

Books and booklets

Smith, T 1997, *New Directions in Local Government* Local Government Publishers: Longreach.

With some publications the author and publisher are the same. This is often the case with documents produced by government departments or organisations. In these cases, there is no need to repeat the name of the department or organisation within the reference.

Example

Department of Communities 2004, *Engaging Queenslanders: An Introduction to Community Engagement*, Brisbane.

Periodicals

Cowley, T 2001, 'One people, one destiny', *Australian Geographic*, vol. 61, January–March, pp. 48–67.

Note that the title of the article, which is within the publication, has an initial capital only and is in quotation marks. The publication itself has maximal capitalisation and is italicised.

Published proceedings and papers (e.g. of conferences)

Brannigan, L 2002, 'Water Quality Management', *Third Annual Conference of Water Supply Operators*, Australian Quality Water Association, Brisbane, pp. 24–30.

Unpublished material

Horace, M 2003, 'Trends in Asset Management', draft internal discussion paper, Queensland Transport Asset Management Association, Brisbane.

Note: The titles of unpublished documents are in quotation marks and are not italicised.

Websites

The following information should be provided when citing a website:

- author — person/organisation responsible for the site
- site date — date the site was created or last revised
- **if different from the author**, the name and place of the sponsor of the source (in the first example below, the author and sponsor are the same — there is no need to repeat the name; in the second example, the author is different from the sponsor)
- date of viewing the source
- URL.

University of Southern Queensland 2012, Toowoomba, viewed 17 December 2012, <<http://www.usq.edu.au>>.

The following information should be provided when citing a document within a website:

- author, editor or compiler
- date of document — the date of creation or the date of the most recent revision
- title of document
- version number (if applicable)
- description of document (if applicable)
- name and place of the sponsor of the source
- date of viewing
- URL (either the full location details if these are necessary to find the document or just the main site details).

University of Southern Queensland, Strategic Plan 2013-2015, Toowoomba viewed, 21 December 2012, <<http://www.usq.edu.au>>.

For further information on references and bibliographies, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), Chapter 12, pp. 187–232.

7.25 Titles, legislation and regulations

Italicise the titles of books, periodicals and other published documents.

Examples

The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money laid the foundations of Keynesian economic theory.

Refer to the latest edition of *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers*.

The information appeared in an article in *The Australian*.

Shortened titles may be used for publications, provided the full title has already appeared in the text and the order of words is not changed. If shortened titles are used, these should also be italicised.

Examples

The reforms are outlined in *The Way Forward: A White Paper on Revitalising Human Services*.

Extensive consultation was conducted during the preparation of *The Way Forward*.

If only a generic title is used, however, this should not be capitalised or italicised.

Example

Extensive consultation was undertaken during the preparation of the white paper.

Italicise the full titles of Acts and Ordinances. The titles of Bills before parliament do not take italics; nor do the titles of legislation if they are not written in full:

- *Public Sector Ethics Act 1994* (but **not** the shortened version — Public Sector Ethics Act)
- Child Safety Legislation Amendment Bill 2005.

Italics are also used for the titles/names of:

- films, videos, television and radio programs
- works of art, plays, long poems and most types of musical composition
- ships, aircraft and other vehicles
- legal cases.

Italics should **not** be used for:

- whole sentences or paragraphs (italic type is more difficult to read than normal type)
- titles of initiatives, plans, projects or programs (these are not published documents)

For further information on italics, see *Style Manual for Authors, Editors and Printers* (6th edn), pp. 145–149.

7.26 Web addresses

The full and correct address for a website includes `http://`; however, you can omit it when writing the address in a document and simply include: www.usq.edu.au

Do not use a full stop at the end of a website as the reader may think the full stop is part of the address. Wherever possible, try to place the website reference at the end of a paragraph and set it off from the rest of the text, or include it in brackets at an appropriate point in the sentence.

Example

You can find further information on the network's website: www.run.edu.au
The University's website (www.usq.edu.au) gives details of services available.