Style Guide
for authors and editors

April 2015
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Introduction

The Society first published a ‘comprehensive style manual’ in 1979, somewhat coyly titled Suggestions to Contributors. It was intended for use by authors of journal articles, the Society having recently taken over direct responsibility for publishing all of its peer-reviewed journals. Prior to this there had been a ‘Guide to Authors’, which seems to have vanished without trace, but which presumably was a much less detailed document. In 1989 came Style Guide: Information and Advice for Authors, again principally for authors of journal articles, but also referring to The Psychologist and ‘newsletters of the Society subsections’.

In October 2001 the Publications and Communications Board decided that the Society’s primary research journals should follow the comprehensive American Psychological Association style (with a few exceptions for British usage), which really had already become the academic standard. This decision opened the way for a new guide for all other Society publications.

After consultation with interested parties, a new Style Guide was published in January 2003, founded on the established and familiar editorial style of The Psychologist. It was intended to be used not only by authors, editors and production staff concerned with the Society’s regular publications (The Psychologist, member network publications, etc.) but also by honorary officers and staff members involved in producing other written material for publication (advertisements, reports, press releases, etc.). Some minor revisions were incorporated in a reprint in January 2004.

This present edition follows the same format, but with a few added sections (e.g. section 10.4 on commonly confused words); some major updates to the sections on citing documents published on the internet and on copyright; many extra examples in existing sections; some minor updating of advice (e.g. from recommending e-mail, to allowing the disappearance of the hyphen); various bits of reorganisation and resequencing; some tidying up of a few typographical errors and inconsistencies; and a generally less prescriptive and more advisory approach. Much of the new material relates, as in previous editions, to actual questions that have arisen in the course of producing publications for the Society. Some of the advice is not strictly to do with style, being rather about acceptable English usage, particularly in those areas in which it is apparent that there is occasionally some difficulty and over which people are known to seek guidance (e.g. much of section 7 ‘Punctuation’ and section 11 ‘Sentence construction’).

Peter Dillon-Hooper
Academic Resources Manager
1 Abbreviations

1.1 Use of abbreviations
When abbreviations are used they should generally be spelt out on first appearance with their abbreviated forms following in parentheses.

Recent studies have looked at the diagnosis of conduct disorder (CD)...

The aim is always to ease communication with readers. Abbreviations should therefore be used only when (a) a term is more familiar in its abbreviated form than in its long form or (b) using an abbreviation aids readability by avoiding cumbersome repetition.

Some abbreviations are so well known that they usually need no explanation, though in some cases meaning varies according to context.

AGM  ETA  LSD  Ofsted
AIDS  EU   MEP  PR
AM   FBI  MLA  UK
BBC  GP   MP   UN
CV   HIV  MSP  UNESCO
DNA  HMSO NATO UNICEF
DSM  IQ   NHS  US
EC   ITV  OED USA

1.2 Latin abbreviations
In ordinary text certain standard abbreviations of Latin words and phrases are best used only within parentheses; outside parentheses the equivalent should be used instead.

cf. (compare)  etc. (and so on)
e.g. (for example, for instance)  i.e. (that is)
viz. (namely)

But in reported speech, if it was what was said, et cetera is preferred to etc.

Note: No comma after e.g. and i.e. Comma after the last item in a series preceding etc. …

(universities, schools, colleges, etc.).

In other formats (e.g. footnotes and endnotes, displayed lists) these abbreviations may be used both inside and outside parentheses.

The abbreviation et al. may be used in running text. But possessive constructions such as ‘Smith et al.’s recent study…’ look clumsy. Avoid by rephrasing, if possible:

The recent study by Smith et al....

The abbreviation vs. for versus may also be used in running text:

Students discussed the nature vs. nurture debate...
1.3 Punctuation in abbreviations

Period (full stop) after:
- abbreviations of first names: F. Smith, J-L. Duval
- curtailed words: vol., Capt. Prof. [but generally Professor written in full is preferred]

No period after:
- abbreviations whose last letter is the last letter of the full word: edn, Dr, Mr, Mrs

Note: Avoid using the abbreviation Drs to mean more than one doctor; Drs is an abbreviation of the academic title doctorandus for someone (broadly speaking) on their way to a doctorate and used principally in the Netherlands.
- ordinal number abbreviations: 1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc.

No period after or within:
- capital letter abbreviations and acronyms: BBC, IQ, NATO
- abbreviations for units of measurement: 35cm, 60mph
- abbreviations of US states: CA, DC, MO, etc.

(The main use is in references and displayed text – always use the full name of a state in running text, except Washington, DC is the recommended way to differentiate the city from the state of the same name. For a full list see Appendix 2.)

These abbreviations can only be used following the name of a city. The city name is followed by a comma then the state abbreviation: Springfield, IL Mahwah, NJ
- academic designations: BA, MSc, PhD, CPsychol, FBPsS

1.4 Indefinite article with abbreviations

Whether a or an is used depends on how the abbreviation or acronym is normally pronounced in speech.

- an NHS hospital
- a NATO meeting
- an EU proposal
- a UNESCO initiative

Where the abbreviation is usually expanded in speech, use a or an as appropriate to the full word.

- a MS [read as ‘a manuscript’]

1.5 Plurals of abbreviations

Where a plural form is needed, a lower-case s only should be added, no apostrophe is used.

- MPs, Special Educational Needs Coordinators (SENCOs)
Curtailed words that take a period in the singular (e.g. Ed., vol.) retain the period when made plural by adding s.

Eds. vols.

1.6 **British Psychological Society abbreviations**
The abbreviation of the British Psychological Society’s name to either ‘the BPS’ or ‘the Society’ is acceptable. The latter is preferred in formal or official writing.
In formal contexts use ‘Representative Council’, at least at first mention. Otherwise the name may be shortened to ‘Council’.
See Appendix 1 for a list of common abbreviations used within the BPS.

1.7 **Abbreviations in addresses**
In running text, and elsewhere unless there are real constraints of space, do not abbreviate terms such as Avenue, Boulevard, Building, Court, Drive, Mount, Place, Road, Square, Street, Terrace.

1.8 **Jr in personal names**
In running text, if it is necessary to make the distinction, use the abbreviate Jr (no full point) only to follow the surname if the first name or initials have preceded it. Do not use the abbreviation with the surname alone.

Alan Smith Jr gave a lecture on... A. Smith Jr gave a lecture on...

In text citations, always omit the abbreviation, but it should be used in the reference list if that is how an author’s name was given in the original publication; for example, the full reference:


has the text citation:

Smith et al., 2013
2 Capitalisation

Lower case is preferred where the choice is simply one of style. Hence:

internet                         master’s degree
(the) government               green politics
psychology [or the name of any other discipline] statement of interest

See Appendix 3a for guidance with specific words and terms.

2.1 When to use capitals

Uppercase should be used for the first letter of a word as follows:

a. The first word of new sentences, including complete illustrative sentences following a colon where there is a change of ‘voice’ in the sense of source of the thought.

The referees made at least one very strong criticism: The methods used were highly unethical.
Remember the advice given to beginners: Don’t try to run before you can walk. compare with
The referees made at least one very strong criticism: they said the methods used were highly unethical.
Remember the advice given to beginners: not to try to run before you can walk.

Note: Where a colon introduces material comprising more than one sentence, the text immediately following the colon should be a grammatically complete sentence and should begin with a capital letter.

b. The first word in captions for tables, figures and illustrations.

c. In titles of articles, book chapters, conference papers, public lectures and the like, and in webpage names, cited in reference lists or text, the first word of the title and the first word following a colon or question mark. In running text the full title can be enclosed in single inverted commas to make it clear it is a title.

How well do researchers report their measures? An evaluation of measurement in published educational research
Innovation in primary care: A COPC approach
The Society’s ‘Sharing our science’ web page

It is not good style to use the title of a chapter (or book), conference paper, lecture, etc. as the object of a preposition, such as about, on or with, when the individual words of the title properly belong to the sentence in which they fall.

Avoid, for example:

The group had organised a symposium on ‘Cognition and performance’...
The final chapter, which dealt with ‘Asking the right questions’...
preferred:
The group had organised a symposium on cognition and performance...
The group had organised a symposium called 'Cognition and performance'...
The final chapter, which dealt with how to ask the right questions...
The final chapter, 'Asking the right questions', ...

d. Major words* and words following a colon, dash or question mark in:
   - titles and subtitles of books and other non-periodical publications, e.g. reports, factsheets, proceedings, monographs (see section 9.2 for mentions in reference lists)

   *The Evolution of the Mind* [book]
   *The Future of the Psychological Sciences: Horizons and Opportunities for British Psychology* [BPS working party report]
   *Careers in Psychology: A Graduate Guide to Psychology* [BPS leaflet]
   - titles of journals and other periodicals

   *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*
   *Science and Public Affairs*
   - titles of conferences, exhibitions, specific projects and programmes, lecture or debate series, awards and training courses

   ‘Working with Families – Making It a Reality’ (international conference)
   Third International Conference on Child and Adolescent Mental Health
   Human Factors Exhibition
   Immersive Television Project
   Award for Promoting Equality of Opportunity

   Sometimes a quirky capitalisation may be followed (e.g. the ‘creating SPARKS’ festival).

   Note: Conference themes and titles of conference presentations and symposia should have only the first word capitalised and will be enclosed in inverted commas (quotation marks) in text (e.g. The conference theme this year was ‘Working together’).

   - job titles, ranks and offices when used in a formal sense as personal titles rather than as descriptions of function. See also section 2.3. If in doubt, use lower case.

   *compare* Her appointment as Director of Research came two years after joining the company.

   *with* We know that the director of research has many responsibilities...

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* Capitalise all verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns and subordinating conjunctions (*if, because, as, that, when*, etc.). Do not capitalise articles (*a, an, the*), coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, or, for, nor*) and short prepositions (*by, in, of, etc.*). Prepositions of five letters or more should be capitalised (*About, After, Through, Along*, etc.), and prepositions that are part of compound verbs should also be capitalised (e.g. *Coming Out, Setting Up a Business, Looking Down on Intelligence*). Capitalise only the first word in a hyphenated compound (e.g. *Co-dependency, Self-assessment*), unless the second element has a capital in its own right (e.g. *Pre-Columbian*).
- names of specific university departments, job titles and course titles

Dr F. Bloggs is Senior Lecturer in Social Psychology in the Department of Social Sciences, University of Anytown. He is coordinator of an offender profiling module of the MSc in Forensic Psychology course.

*but when non-specific:*

At many departments of psychology, senior lecturers like Dr Bloggs are delivering high-quality teaching on forensic psychology courses.

- titles of radio and television programmes. But capitalise first word only of titles of editions in series (as for chapter titles in books)

The recent *Horizon* broadcast ‘Taming the problem child’...

e. Nouns followed by a number or character denoting a specific place in a series.

   see Table 3
   as can be seen in Figure 1
   in the first experiment Group A was found to outperform Group B
   people with Type 2 diabetes

But do not capitalise nouns (and their abbreviated forms) denoting standard parts of books or tables:

   chapter 2 (or ch. 2), column 3 (or col. 3)

f. Proper nouns and trade names. Proper nouns (and adjectives and other words derived from them) that acquire a common meaning are sometimes not capitalised. Consult the *Oxford Dictionary for Writers and Editors* for guidance.

   Oedipus complex, Freudian slip
   *but* narcissism, roman numeral, wellington boot

Care should be taken with some proprietary names that have passed into common usage. It is safest to use a generic alternative. Examples with suggested alternatives:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Band-Aid</th>
<th>plaster</th>
<th>Marmite</th>
<th>yeast extract</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biro</td>
<td>ball-point pen</td>
<td>Martini</td>
<td>vermouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burberry</td>
<td>weatherproof coat</td>
<td>Optic</td>
<td>spirit dispenser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictaphone</td>
<td>dictation machine</td>
<td>Plasticine</td>
<td>modelling putty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fibreglass</td>
<td>glass fibre</td>
<td>Sellotape</td>
<td>sticky tape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoover</td>
<td>vacuum cleaner</td>
<td>Tannoy</td>
<td>public address system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeep</td>
<td>off-road vehicle</td>
<td>Thermos</td>
<td>vacuum flask</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiffy bag</td>
<td>padded envelope</td>
<td>Xerox</td>
<td>photocopier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kleenex</td>
<td>tissue</td>
<td>Yellow Pages</td>
<td>classified telephone directory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: It is unnecessary to use the ® or ™ symbol after a registered trade name. Proprietors of trade names may choose to use it to protect their commercial interests, but there is no duty on anyone else to do so.*
g. Names of geological, historical or cultural periods.

Age of Reason  Jurassic  Pleistocene  Stone Age
Dark Ages  Middle Ages  Reformation  Swinging Sixties
Enlightenment  late Middle Ages  Renaissance
Ice Age  Neolithic  Restoration
Iron Age  Palaeolithic  Roaring Twenties

Modern periods analogous to Bronze Age, Iron Age, Stone Age, etc. are not generally capitalised:

information age  nuclear age  space age

h. Titles of specific tests, etc. (published and unpublished).

Eysenck Personality Inventory  Byrne Repression-Sensitization Scale
General Health Questionnaire  Psychopathy Checklist

Note: Constituent parts of tests are not capitalised (e.g. the wellbeing scale of Tellegen’s Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire).

i. Names of sets of factors (the word factors is not capitalised).

the Big Five personality factors

Note: Individual factors are not capitalised.

2.2 When not to use capitals

Use lower case for:

- Names of conditions or groups in an experiment.
  Participants were assigned at random to interference and no-interference groups.
  
  but
  
  Groups A and B [see section 2.1(e)]

- Names of laws, theories, hypotheses, models, methods (apart from proper nouns in the name).
  attribution theory  theory of planned behaviour
  health behaviour model  Weber's law

- Names of syndromes, diseases, etc. (apart from proper nouns in the name).
  Down's syndrome  Alzheimer's disease
  obsessive compulsive disorder

- Names of effects and phenomena (apart from proper nouns in the name).
  Mozart effect  phi phenomenon

- Names of procedures and tasks.
  positron emission tomography (PET)  sustained attention to response task (SART)

- Names of seasons.
  spring, summer, autumn, winter, fall
• Compass points.

north, east, south, west, southeast, north-northwest, etc.

north London southern Scotland westerly winds

except

the North, the South East, etc. [referring to specific regions]

Northern Ireland, the Far East, East Africa, etc. [geographical names with recognised status]

Western attitudes, etc. [i.e. the West as an economic, social or philosophical entity]

• Some German nouns (capitalised in German) that have become naturalised into English.

gestalt zeitgeist

• Various political and institutional entities.

the state the government the court

But use capitals when referring to a specific court (e.g. Court of Appeal, High Court)

2.3 Words sometimes capitalised according to meaning

Capitalise certain BPS designations when used as such.

the Society Division Section Branch
Council Trustee Special Group Chartered Psychologist
Member [only in formal contexts to distinguish from Affiliates and Subscribers]

Honorary office titles may be capitalised in formal contexts. In general lower case is preferred.

president, chair, treasurer, honorary secretary, etc.

Certain words that are sometimes capitalised in specific instances need not be capitalised (a) when being used generically or (b) on their own without the accompanying name that makes them specific, even though the meaning is specific.

The Admissions Committee meets three times a year. The committee [b], like other committees [a] in the organisation, comprises...

The 1999 Annual Conference was held in Paris. The conference [b] opened on Friday...

We met Professor Jones on Friday. ... The next day the professor [b] gave a lecture on...

Prince Charles came to open the building. When the prince [b] made his speech...

Words in this category include:

board, committee, task force, working party, etc.; commission, agency, etc.; conference, symposium, etc.; various job titles, honorary titles, etc. [See also section 2.1 (d)]

Notwithstanding the general preference for lower-case initial letters, when a word can be read as simply standing for a shortened form of a full corporate name already given it may sometimes retain its initial capital.
The Human Genetics Commission report was released at the end of November. The Commission recommended...

Occasionally a title is virtually a person’s proper name itself. In these cases the initial capital may be retained when used to refer to specific individuals in given contexts.

the Pope, the Queen, the President, the Prime Minister, the Foreign Secretary, etc.

This usage should be avoided when referring to people by ordinary job or honorary office titles.

the chief executive, the editor, the president, the chair, the honorary secretary

2.4 Initial articles in names of corporate bodies, publications and place names

Some corporate bodies (including the BPS) formally style their names with a preceding definite article (e.g. The British Psychological Society, The Royal Society, The University of Liverpool). The article should always be included and capitalised where the name stands alone, for example as a heading or in displayed text. In indexes omit the definite article completely (preferred), or invert and place after a comma at the end of the heading of the index entry. Where the name appears in running text, the article either is not used or where it is used should not be capitalised:

She went to every Royal Society lecture she could.
They met at a Royal Society lecture.
They attended a lecture at the Royal Society.

A special note about the Psychologist and Digest Editorial Advisory Committee:

In the name of this committee the words ‘(the) Psychologist’ are not differentiated by italics in any context. The same rules about the definite article apply as for all other corporate bodies with an initial article:

The Psychologist and Digest Editorial Advisory Committee [in headings, etc.]
Members of the Psychologist and Digest Editorial Advisory Committee were consulted.
A Psychologist and Digest Editorial Advisory Committee meeting discussed...

Many newspapers and magazines (e.g. The Times, The Psychologist) have an initial definite article in their titles. This should always be used except where the title is used attributively (i.e. modifying a following word):

There was a report in The Times about the situation.
He read the Times report about the situation.
A news story on work-related stress appeared in The Psychologist.
A Psychologist news story on work-related stress...

In the second of each of the two pairs of examples the definite or indefinite article belongs to report or news story. It would be absurd, for example, to say or write He read the The Times report about the situation or A The Psychologist article on work-related stress...
In reference citations names of academic journals (The Journal of …; The … Review, etc.) are never given an initial article, even where one appears on their title pages. But if the initial article attaches to a word other than journal, Review, etc. it should be used:

The Coaching Psychologist The Lancet

In indexes initial definite and indefinite articles in names of publications may either be retained in position and filed under the article (e.g. The Psychologist filed under t), retained in position and filed under the second word (e.g. The Psychologist filed under p) or inverted and filed under the first word (e.g. Psychologist, The filed under p). The choice will depend on user expectations or ease of reference (e.g. to avoid a long string of entries beginning with The).

Unless there is a need to be formally correct, or to fit the syntax, initial articles in titles of handbooks, dictionaries, encyclopedias, guides, and so on, may be omitted in most contexts, including indexes, headings and displayed text. In bibliographies and reference lists it is usual to give formal titles.

He published A Textbook of Social Psychology in 1948. [article used to fit the syntax]

Political place names starting with a definite article are rare in English. Three common examples (The Netherlands, The Gambia, The Hague) show that there is no general rule.

The Netherlands [stand-alone]; the Netherlands [in running text]
The Gambia, The Hague [in all contexts]

The definite article used with country names such as the Republic of China, the United States of America, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom is not treated as though it is a part of the name, and so does not have an initial capital in its own right.

Similarly, definite articles before geographical place names never have initial capitals in their own right.

They canoed down the Amazon. They rowed across the Atlantic. They climbed the Matterhorn. They stopped for a rest in the Black Forest.
3 Italics

Use italics (or underlining in typescripts if italics not available) for:

- Titles of books (including all non-periodical publications), journals (but not articles in journals), newspapers, magazines, and radio and television programmes:
  
  *The Bell Curve*  
  *The Meaning of Truth*  
  *British Journal of Psychology*  
  *The Times*  
  *New Scientist*  
  *Any Questions?*

but not editions in a series:

The *Horizon* broadcast 'Taming the problem child'

In headings and other displayed material it is, in general, necessary to use italics for titles of books, etc. only where there is some need for the typographical distinction (e.g. to distinguish a title from adjacent text).

Names of computer programs are not italicised.

Word  
QuarkXPress  
Internet Explorer

- Foreign and Latin words and phrases:
  
  *raison d’être*  
  *in vitro*  
  *ipso facto*

Some foreign and Latin words have become naturalised into English. Such words are not italicised and are treated in the same way as any other English words (e.g. junta, ersatz, versus). See also section 12.1(i) for guidance on accents in foreign words and Appendix 3b for a selected list of specific words and phrases.

Where the grammatical function of the original has changed, assimilation into English is strongly indicated. It is appropriate then to treat the word or phrase as having been naturalised. In which case the words are set roman, though accents may be retained:

The room gave her a strong feeling of déjà vu. [adverb plus verb changed to noun]  
They met for a tête à tête. [adverb changed to noun]  
Vis-à-vis the current situation... [adverb changed to preposition]  
The government showed a laissez-faire attitude. [verb phrase changed to adjective]

Foreign proper names of corporate bodies are not italicised.

Whether a German city has a football team in the Bundesliga is a valid (but not infallible) cue to city size.

- Emphasising single words or short phrases.

This technique should be used only sparingly. In general, the choice and sequence of words should provide the necessary emphasis.
Indicating that a word (or phrase) is being treated as a word rather than for its meaning:
The word autism comes from the Greek autos, meaning 'self'.
In this article open question is used to mean a question that cannot be answered by a simple 'yes' or 'no'.

Indicating a word used as a label:
The researchers called this factor persuadability.

Single letters used as statistical or algebraic symbols, but not Greek letters:
\[ p = .7 \quad e = mc^2 \quad 2\pi r \]
See also section 6.1 on statistical and mathematical copy.

Scientific names of genera and species:
house mouse *Mus musculus*     gingko *Gingko biloba*

*Note:* In biological binomial nomenclature the first element (generic name) takes an initial capital, the second (specific name) is lower case. Taxonomic divisions at levels higher than the genus all take the form of Latin plurals and should be set roman with an initial capital (e.g. Fringillidae [finches], Passeriformes [perching birds], Aves [birds]).
4 Lists

4.1 Displayed lists

Bulleted lists are preferred over numbered lists, unless there is a clear reason why items need to be numbered (e.g. to indicate a particular sequence, or where there is a need to cross-reference to individual items). Whether to display a list or keep it in running text is usually a question of what reads best, though there may also be space considerations.

Lists that are grammatically part of an introductory sentence should not be preceded by a colon, unless a colon (or similar punctuation) would be used if the introduction and list were written out fully as a sentence (see section 4.2).

Punctuate with a semicolon after each item except the last (which takes a full stop), adding *and* (or *or*, if more appropriate) after the penultimate item. The first word of each item has a lower-case first letter.

The five job characteristics that predicted levels of individual innovation were:

- skill variety and challenge;
- task identity;
- task significance;
- autonomy; and
- task feedback.

Five job characteristics predicted levels of individual innovation:

- skill variety and challenge;
- task identity;
- task significance;
- autonomy; and
- task feedback.

Note: This guidance on punctuating and capitalising bulleted lists need not be followed when designing display material such as in boxed text or advertisements.

When a list is the continuation of a sentence, each item in the list must make grammatical sense when read with the introductory sentence.

Wrong:

The successful student needs to develop

- an organised approach;
- good study habits; and
- have a questioning mind.

Right:

The successful student needs to develop

- an organised approach;
- good study habits; and
- a questioning mind.

The successful student needs to

- develop an organised approach;
- develop good study habits; and
- have a questioning mind.
Lists comprising full sentences should always be introduced by a grammatically complete sentence followed by a colon. Items in the list are then punctuated normally.

The main findings from the study were as follows:
- No significant differences were identified in stress levels between the groups.
- Recorded stress levels for each group were similar to published norms.
- ...

The main findings from the study were:
- No significant differences were identified in stress levels between the groups.
- Recorded stress levels for each group were similar to published norms.
- ...

Note: Items in a list may not consist of a mixture of sentences and non-sentences.

4.2 Lists in running text
Lists may be introduced either by words that form a grammatically complete sentence on their own or by words that need the listed items to complete the sentence. In the former case (a) the list should be preceded by a colon with each item other than the last taking a following semicolon, and and being added after the penultimate item. In the latter case (b) there should be no intervening punctuation, and the sentence is punctuated normally with commas or semicolons as appropriate (see also section 7.4).

a. Five job characteristics predicted levels of individual innovation: skill variety and challenge; task identity; task significance; autonomy; and task feedback.

b. The five job characteristics that predicted levels of individual innovation were skill variety and challenge, task identity, task significance, autonomy and task feedback.

4.3 Numbered lists
In running text use letters rather than numbers.

(a)..., (b) ... and (c) ...

In displayed numbered lists with sublists, use arabic numerals first, followed by letters, then roman numerals. Indent successively, keeping the same indentation for all items at the same level.

1. ...
2. ...
   a. ...
   b. ...
       i. ...
       ii. ...
       iii. ...
   c. ...
3. ...

In running text the letter (or numeral) has no period and is enclosed in parentheses. In displayed lists the numerals and letters are followed by a period with no parentheses.
5 Numbers

5.1 When to write numbers as words
Generally, write the numbers one to nine as words (except when expressing percentages or units of measurement: see below). Write out any number starting a sentence (whether above or below 10). Where possible, rephrase a sentence to avoid spelling out long numbers at the beginning. Example:

The participants comprised 62 males and 62 females.

rather than

Sixty-two males and 62 females acted as participants.

Compound numbers between 20 and 99 should be hyphenated if they need to be written out as words.

Twenty-one

One hundred and seventy-six

Imprecise numbers should always be written out as words.

It must have happened at least twenty times.

If I’ve told you once, I’ve told you a hundred times...

There were thousands of people there.

Some established phrases keep their written-out numbers.

the Ten Commandments the Twelve Days of Christmas forty winks

Rounded large numbers combine figures and words.

10 million children a budget of £3.4 million

Large single-word numbers (hundred, thousand, etc.) and their multiples (two hundred, two thousand, etc.), even when exact and not rounded, may also be written as words.

The British Psychological Society, a hundred years since its foundation in 1901...

Number ranges in multiples of thousands, millions, etc. can have an ambiguous or awkward-looking result:

40 to 50 thousand 40–50 thousand between 40 and 50 thousand

These might better be given as:

40,000 to 50,000 or between 40,000 and 50,000

5.2 When to write numbers as figures
Generally, write the numbers 10 and higher as figures.

But write all numbers as figures if they express percentages or units of measurement or currency.

5 per cent 8 km £4 million

Note: In text always use per cent, in tables use the % sign.
Numbers 1–9 can nevertheless be expressed as words if they specify units of measurement spelt out in full.

five-and-a-half miles  eight kilometres  just over four million tons

*but not if decimal precision is needed:*

5.5 miles 8.0 kilometres 4.1 million tons

Write all numbers as figures if they refer to a place in a sequence or are identifying numbers.

chapter 1  Figure 3  Groups 4 and 5

Numbers should be written as figures if they represent a statistic or a ratio.

1 in 400 children

5.3  **Consistency**

Where there is a series of numbers some of which would normally be given as numerals and others as figures, they may all be treated alike within the same section of text.

The participants were tested again after 3, 6, 9, 12 and 15 months.

The children were separated into groups of four, eight and twelve.

Where series of numbers attach to different things in the same passage of text, they may be distinguished by making one set all figures and the other all words.

There were four groups of 9, eleven groups of 11 and ten groups of 12.

5.4  **Ordinal numbers**

Ordinal numbers (first, second, third…) follow the same rules as cardinal numbers (one, two, three…).

eighth trial/11th trial  
sixth day/25th day  
second century/19th century

Percentiles and quartiles are always expressed in figures.

3rd percentile 2nd quartile

5.5  **Arabic and Roman numerals**

Use arabic rather than Roman numerals except

* where Roman numerals are part of an established terminology (e.g. Type II error);

* for enumeration in sublists (see section 4.2); or

* to paginate preliminary pages in a monograph.

5.6  **Fractions and decimals**

Always use decimals for percentages and units of measurement.

Simple or rounded fractions may be expressed in words, when only the elements of the fraction itself should be hyphenated.

one and three-quarters  two and a half
There is no hyphen when the fraction stands on its own.

two thirds of the sample...
three quarters of those that were interviewed...

Use a zero before the decimal point when numbers are less than one, except when the number cannot be greater than one (as in levels of statistical significance, etc.).

0.8 per cent $r = -0.86$ $p < .01$

5.7 Commas in numbers

No commas or spaces in four-figure numbers or numbers to the right of a decimal point:

2500 3.14159

Use commas in numbers of five figures and more:

10,000 1,275,000

5.8 Dates

Set dates without internal punctuation. Express them in the form:

1 January 2001 14 September 2013

Sometimes a date can become the name of an event. In such cases use established forms.

September 11th Fourth of July

The rule about expressing numbers one to nine as words and 10 and higher as figures also applies in references to centuries.

11th century BC
second century AD [Note. Small capitals for BC and AD]
19th century

Designations of eras are placed as follows with years in numerals (but they need only be used where there is possibility of confusion of eras).

800 BC 800 BCE [before Common Era]
AD 800 800 CE [Common Era]

There is no general preference for either BC/AD or BCE/CE, but elements of the pairs should not be mixed in one document, and individual publications or editors may have their own preference.

Use figures for decades when the intention is merely to locate the date.

By the 1960s car ownership was becoming more widespread. [not ‘the 1960’s’ or ‘the ’60s’]

Sometimes a decade is referred to as a specific historical or cultural period. In such cases the word may be spelt out; but it should not be capitalised unless part of a popular name for the period. See section 2.1(g).

Many sexual taboos were questioned in the liberal climate of the sixties.
Many sexual taboos were questioned in the Swinging Sixties.
The word should be spelt out when referring to people’s ages.

The first group of participants comprised women in their late thirties and forties.

Differentiate between a range of years simply denoting the extremes of a length of time (using an en rule between the years) and a range of years that defines a specific period such as a term of office, academic year, sporting season, and so on (using a solidus).

In the years 1998–1999 first-year students... [covering students from three years’ intakes]
First-year students in 1998/99... [meaning only one year’s intake]

Note: It is permissible to write ‘1998–1999’ or ‘from 1998 to 1999’, but mixing the two forms (‘from 1998–1999’) is wrong and sometimes ambiguous.

5.9 Time
In general in text use am and pm, rather than the 24-hour clock (e.g. 10pm or 10.00pm, not 22:00). But the 24-hour system may be preferred where the giving of times is in a context of scientific measurement or in displayed material such as conference programmes. Give 24-hour times up to midday always with two digits for the hour (e.g. 09:30) unless it is clear from context that it cannot mean some time in the evening.

In time ranges use whichever form is most appropriate in the context:

from 9am to 2.30pm; from 1pm to 2pm

or

9am–2.30pm; 1pm–2pm

Note: It is usually better to keep am/pm with every time (e.g. 1pm–2pm not 1–2pm).

For a less formal style of referring to time words may be more appropriate than figures.

At six o’clock every evening...
She did not emerge until half past ten. .

Noon and midnight can be expressed in whichever form is most appropriate in the context:

noon/midday/12 noon midnight/12 midnight

Note: The forms 12am and 12pm may be misunderstood, and are sometimes argued over as to which is which, so are best avoided.

5.10 Page numbers
Page numbers are written in the form

p.9 pp.158–186

Except in indexes, page ranges should be expressed in full (e.g. pp.275–278) not in elided form (pp.275–8). In all cases the page ranges (and other number ranges) are separated by an en rule (not a hyphen).
5.11 **Degree classifications**
There are various acceptable ways of referring to degree classifications:

- first class degree/first
- upper second class degree/upper second/2:1
- second/2:2
- third class degree/third
- fail
- second class degree/second
- lower second class degree/lower
- pass degree
- unclassified

5.12 **Telephone numbers**
Express UK telephone numbers in the form:

- 0116 254 9568 ext 112
- 020 7692 3411

*Note:* The grouping of digits in London telephone numbers is STD code first (020) followed by a space then the local number (in two groups of four digits). All UK geographical numbers beginning 02 are treated similarly.

Express overseas telephone numbers in the form that is dialled from the UK:

- 00 33 1 4297 5316 [where the first two groups of numbers are the international access code and the country code; subsequent groupings will vary from country to country]

If writing for a specifically or predominantly overseas readership, then both UK and overseas numbers may be expressed in the form:

- +44 116 254 9568  or  +44 (0)116 254 9568
- +33 1 4297 5316
6 Statistical & mathematical copy

6.1 Statistics
Statistical data presented within the text should be kept as simple as possible, preferably transposed to ordinary language. If more than the most straightforward statistical figures must be given they are best given in tables (see section 13).

Use a zero before the decimal point when positive numbers are less than one, except when the number cannot be greater than one (e.g. levels of significance, correlations and proportions); similarly for negative numbers that cannot be less than minus one.

\[ p < .01 \quad r = -.86 \]

The form of the most common symbols and abbreviations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Typeface</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>( M )</td>
<td>capital italic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>( p )</td>
<td>lower-case italic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F ratio</td>
<td>( F )</td>
<td>capital italic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation coefficient</td>
<td>( r )</td>
<td>lower-case italic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number in sample</td>
<td>( N )</td>
<td>capital italic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student ( t ) test</td>
<td>( t )</td>
<td>lower-case italic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom</td>
<td>d.f.</td>
<td>lower-case roman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>capital roman</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2 Mathematical formulae
Simple mathematical formulae may occasionally need to be presented.

For ease of reading, leave a space on each side of signs.

\[ a + b = c \] is better than \( a + b = c \)

The sequence of brackets should be:

\[ < \{ [\ldots] \} > \]

6.3 SI units
The BPS uses the International System of Units (SI) for measurements. The basic units are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical quantity</th>
<th>Name of unit</th>
<th>Symbol for unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>length</td>
<td>metre</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mass</td>
<td>kilogram</td>
<td>kg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>second</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>electric current</td>
<td>ampere</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thermodynamic temperature</td>
<td>degree Kelvin</td>
<td>K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luminous intensity</td>
<td>candela</td>
<td>cd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Symbols for units do not take a plural form.*

Unless text is primarily statistical or mathematical, it is permissible to use other units of measurement (e.g. 25 miles, 75°C). See section 12.1(d) for a comment on the use of *tonnes.*
7 Punctuation

For fuller guidance on punctuation see the *Oxford Guide to English Usage*. A few points of standard usage and house style are noted here. For punctuation in text citations see section 9.1(e).

7.1 Apostrophe

a. Possessives

- Used with a following *s* in singular nouns:
  the client's, the class's

- Used with a following *s* in plural nouns that have not been formed by adding *s* or *es*:
  the children's, the men's, the people's

- Used after the final *s* in plural nouns that have been formed by adding *s* or *es*:
  the clients', the classes'

- Not used with possessive pronouns:
  hers, its, ours, theirs, yours

- Used after personal names (including most of those ending in *s*) with a following *s*:
  Alex's, Davies's, James's, Williams's

*Note: By convention the possessive of certain biblical and classical names ending in *s* and *es* is formed by adding an apostrophe only (e.g. Jesus', Moses', Herodotus'); also in French names ending in a silent *s* (e.g. Descartes’), thus rendering the *s* no longer silent when spoken.*

b. Mark of omission

- Used to indicate a missing letter or letters:
  he'll, hasn't, it's, we're

  But this usage is discouraged in strictly scientific writing.

- Some curtailed words have become the natural word to use in place of the longer form. The apostrophe should not be used in:
  bus, flu, phone, plane

c. Plurals

Do not use an apostrophe to form simple plurals. Such wrongly formed plurals are most often seen with abbreviations (see section 1.5), years, and words ending with a voiced vowel.

- We surveyed 500 GP's.
- Much progress was made in the 1990's.
- The children watched video's all evening.
All the above examples are incorrect. Only exceptionally will an apostrophe be needed to form a simple plural. Exceptions arise when not to use an apostrophe would look odd or might mislead (e.g. dotting the i’s and crossing the t’s).

7.2 Comma
Commas are not required after short adverbial phrases at the start of a sentence, unless to avoid ambiguity, even if only a momentary one.

In 1999 the researchers set up a study...

but (to avoid ambiguity)
A year after, they went to Scotland and tried again to set up their business...

A comma should follow certain prefacing words and phrases (‘sentence adverbs’).
Some examples:

First, ...
For example, ...
However, ...
In conclusion, ...
Nevertheless, ...

Not required before and or or in a list of items (known as the series comma), unless to avoid an ambiguity or to clarify where one item ends and another begins (particularly where the items are lengthy). Examples:

...in the professional work of clinical, forensic and educational psychologists.
The Bishops of Winchester, and Bath and Wells [two bishops, not three]

7.3 Full stop (full point or period)
There are few difficulties with the placing of full stops. (Though for the purpose of aiding comprehension, shorter sentences, and therefore more full stops, are better than peppering text with commas and semicolons.)

If a complete sentence appears within parentheses, the full stop is correctly placed inside the closing parenthesis (as in the previous paragraph, but not this one).

For problems that arise with quoted material see section 8.2.

Sentences that end with an email or website address still take a full stop. People are generally familiar enough with these not to think that the terminating punctuation is part of the address.

7.4 Colon
In running text the colon’s main uses are as introductory punctuation to quotations, lists, explanations, and expansions on the preceding text.

[quotation] The project leader said: ‘We are looking forward to introducing the technique in real-life settings…’
[dict] Five job characteristics predicted levels of individual innovation: skill variety and challenge; task identity; task significance; autonomy; and task feedback.
[explanation] Science is imperfect: pick any branch and you will find skeletons in the
closet, including dubious ethics, the ‘file drawer’ effect or outright research fraud.

[expansion] Those who reported being lonely had a 14 per cent greater risk of dying: around twice the impact seen with obesity.

The colon can sometimes seem overly formal but can almost always be replaced by a dash (spaced en rule: see section 7.6). For example, when writing direct quotations of speech (e.g. transcribing interviews) it is best to avoid the colon and use a dash instead.

'Science is imperfect – pick any branch and you will find skeletons in the closet, including dubious ethics, the “file drawer” effect or outright research fraud.'

### 7.5 Semicolon

A semicolon marks a more definite break than a comma, without separating two related clauses too emphatically by use of a full stop.

> Language is a rhetorical device for reasoning, not just a method of labelling; as such it provides us with the tools for thinking.

*is better than*

> Language is a rhetorical device for reasoning, not just a method of labelling, as such it provides us with the tools for thinking.

*or*

> Language is a rhetorical device for reasoning, not just a method of labelling. As such it provides us with the tools for thinking.

In the last example the full stop subtly throws more emphasis on to the second sentence. This may, of course, be the intended effect.

*Note:* Overuse of the semicolon results in unwieldy and indigestible chunks of text. The advice to writers and editors is to aim for the shortest sentences that sense and tone will allow.

A semicolon is useful for showing clear separations between items in a list when the items themselves are subdivided by commas.

Other tests included verbally presented spatial problems; exercises in which participants decide which of a series of shapes would, when assembled, make a target shape; a spatial memory reference test; and a wide range of reading and spelling measures.

A semicolon is sometimes needed before expressions such as *for example* or *that is* to signify a greater pause than the comma that usually follows them.

...to progress the field, researchers will have to use a good scientific approach; that is, a well-developed theory and rigorous methods.

### 7.6 Dash

An unspaced (i.e. no space either side) en rule is used (rather than a hyphen)

- in number ranges (e.g. pp.15–24, 1995–98);
- to link joint names to avoid confusion with the hyphen in a double-barrelled name (e.g. Praader–Willi syndrome); and
- to indicate a relationship of opposition, interrelationship or scale (e.g.

Note: In typography an en rule is longer than a hyphen – originally the width of a letter \( n \). It can be produced by most modern wordprocessing applications.

A spaced en rule is used as a long dash in text

- as an alternative to a colon as introductory punctuation:
  
  This is what this study has done – it has forced us to confront the issue.

- to bracket parenthetical words:
  
  It is possible to use various modalities – visual, auditory and kinaesthetic – to improve memory performance.

- or as a rhetorical device:
  
  The results supported the hypothesis – much to the researchers' surprise.

If an en rule cannot be produced, use a hyphen or (in typescripts) a double hyphen.

Neither in running text nor in displayed material is there a need to add a hyphen or other rule to follow a colon indicating text to follow.

7.7 Ellipsis

A three-point ellipsis is used to indicate missing text from quoted extracts. Spacing of the ellipsis should be as follows:

'At the end of an extract…'

'At the end of a question…?'

'...at the beginning of an extract.'

'In the middle of a sentence...no space either side.'

'The end of a sentence is missing... And a new sentence follows.'

'The end of a question is missing...? And a new sentence follows.'

'The end of a sentence is missing...and the beginning of the next sentence missing, but the whole quotation makes sense as a complete sentence.'

'The end of a sentence is missing... [T]he beginning of the next sentence is missing but is grammatically complete and separate from the first.'

'One sentence ends...beginning of next sentence is missing.'

'One sentence ends. ...Then text is missing before another complete sentence starts.'

There is not usually any need to use an ellipsis where a quoted extract or phrase is incorporated into a sentence.

The researchers found that 'more than half of the target group self-reported significant levels of childhood trauma'.

And finally… a three-point ellipsis can also be used as a literary device to introduce a topic or at the end of a passage to leave a thought suspended.

Note: Most wordprocessing applications have a specific symbol for an ellipsis. Using this symbol rather than three full stops will prevent the dots in the ellipsis inconveniently breaking across lines.
7.8 Quotation marks (inverted commas)

a. Quotations in running text
Use single quotation marks round cited material. Use double quotation marks to enclose material that was within quotation marks (whether double or single) in the original.

b. Displayed quotations (set off in blocks)
Do not enclose in quotation marks. Use single quotation marks to enclose material that was within quotation marks (whether double or single) in the original.

c. Titles of chapters, journal articles, conferences, etc. in text
Use quotation marks to set off these titles from surrounding text.

Smith's recent article 'Creativity, imagination and genius' stimulated much debate...

Since the sole purpose here is to distinguish the title from the text, there is no need to use quotation marks round titles that are already typographically distinct.

Smith's recent book *Creativity, Imagination and Genius* stimulated much debate...

d. Special uses
- To indicate a word or phrase used as a literal definition:
  The word *autism* comes from the Greek *autos*, meaning 'self'.

- As an alternative to italics to indicate a word treated as a word rather than for its meaning:
  Freud wrote *Jokes* during the early days of psychoanalysis, before he had become a public figure and before he was using terms such as 'id' and 'superego'.

- To mean 'so-called':
  The interactive exhibits offered 'real-life' experiences.
  But there is no need to use *so-called* as well as quotation marks:
  The interactive exhibits offered so-called real-life experiences.

- To indicate a slang expression, or a non-standard use of a term:
  They believed that success was 'in the bag'.

- To indicate a novel or coined term at first appearance:
  ...suffering from what can be described as 'postdoc depression'.

e. Punctuation with quotation marks
In accordance with standard British practice, trailing punctuation is placed outside closing quotation marks:

They believed that success was 'in the bag'.
It was 'in the bag', or so they believed.

*not* (American usage):

They believed that success was 'in the bag'.
It was 'in the bag,' or so they believed.
But if the punctuation itself belongs to the matter within quotation marks, different conventions apply. For more information on punctuation with quoted material see section 8.2.

### 7.9 Punctuation of postal addresses

When addresses are displayed (i.e. a new line for each line of the address), no punctuation should be used. When addresses are run on, a comma is used to separate each line of the address. In neither case does a comma separate the elements of a line (e.g. house number and street name, or town and postcode).

```
The British Psychological Society
St Andrews House
48 Princess Road East
Leicester LE1 7DR

The British Psychological Society, St Andrews House, 48 Princess Road East,
Leicester LE1 7DR
```

If a country name needs to be given, it should follow the postcode (or equivalent):

```
The British Psychological Society, St Andrews House, 48 Princess Road East,
Leicester LE1 7DR, United Kingdom
```
8 Quotations

Short quotations can be incorporated in the text within quotation marks. Longer quotations are set off from the main text as freestanding blocks without quotation marks. See also section 7.8(a) and (b).

Quotations of up to 40 words will generally be incorporated in the text, but whether to incorporate in text will depend on the layout and format of the page on which it is to appear. It may also depend on the content. For example, quotes and comments in interviews or news stories will usually be set within the main text.

For quotation of copyright material see section 15.1(c).

8.1 Changes to cited material

Direct quotations must be cited word for word (for omitted material see section 7.7). Where any incorrect spelling, grammar or punctuation might confuse readers, (or to indicate authorial or editorial awareness of a mistake) use the word *sic* in square brackets immediately following the error.

'A number of them has [sic] been involved in research into...'  

Note: Do not use *sic* merely to express disagreement with a quoted author’s choice of terminology or with the way something has been expressed.

The first word of a quotation may be changed to a lower case or capital letter to fit the sentence construction (a) below. Alternatively, such a change may be indicated by placing the changed letter in square brackets (b).

Original (from Davies & Thasen, 2000, p.425): ‘Until such time as automatic image processing reaches acceptable levels of efficiency, identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution.'

(a) Davies and Thasen (2000) concluded that ‘until such time as automatic image processing reaches acceptable levels of efficiency, identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution’ (p.425).

or

(b) ‘[l]Identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution’ was the conclusion reached by Davies and Thasen (2000, p.425).

Another way to deal with beginning a quotation other than at the start of the source sentence is by use of an ellipsis. See section 8.2.

The punctuation mark at the end of a quoted extract incorporated into a sentence may also be changed or omitted to fit the syntax. Other punctuation, spelling, etc. should follow the original, even if it is incorrect.
‘Identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution,’ wrote Davies and Thasen (2000, p.425).

Any changes made to a quotation (e.g. italicising a word for emphasis) must be explicitly indicated by a comment within square brackets immediately following the italicised word or phrase.

Smith (1989) concluded that ‘in general the morning [emphasis added] is the best time for strictly mental work’ (p.149).

Material inserted to clarify the quotation should be placed within square brackets. Words in parentheses belong to the original.

Myers (2000) concluded that ‘these groups [repressors and the truly low anxious] react very differently on the three systems of anxiety (verbal, behavioural and physiological)’ (p.403).

### 8.2 Punctuation with quotations

#### a. Quotations in running text

Can be set in two ways:

- with a colon introducing one or more complete sentences (i.e. complete grammatically, not necessarily complete sentences from the original)

Davies and Thasen (2000) concluded: ‘Until such time as automatic image processing reaches acceptable levels of efficiency, identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution.’ (p.425.)

Davies and Thasen (2000) concluded: ‘...identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution’ (p.425).

- by incorporating in a sentence

Davies and Thasen (2000) concluded that ‘until such time as automatic image processing reaches acceptable levels of efficiency, identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution’ (p.425).

Davies and Thasen (2000) concluded that ‘identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution’ (p.425).

Where more than one sentence is quoted, the extract should always be introduced by a colon. It is not possible logically to incorporate more than one sentence in a sentence.

*Note:* The ellipsis (…) is used to indicate missing text at the start or end of a quotation only if the quotation was introduced with a colon. Do not use an ellipsis at the start or end of a quotation incorporated into a sentence. In either case an ellipsis may be used in the middle of a quotation (see section 7.7).

The original terminating punctuation must be kept in quotations introduced by a colon. The citation or page reference that follows will then need a full stop inside
the closing parenthesis (see above).

In quotations incorporated in a sentence the original terminating punctuation is omitted (unless the terminating punctuation is a question mark or exclamation mark). The citation or page reference that follows will then need a full stop (or comma, colon or semicolon) outside its closing parenthesis (see above). Or if no page reference is given, the full stop or other punctuation immediately follows the closing quotation mark:

Davies and Thasen (2000) concluded that ‘identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution’.

If the terminating punctuation of a quotation incorporated in a sentence is a question mark or an exclamation mark, this must be placed inside the closing quotation mark (because it belongs to the quotation, not to the surrounding sentence). If the sentence containing the quotation then ends at the same place, no full point is needed after the closing quotation mark.

...questions such as ‘How large is the universe?’ and ‘Does chaos rule the cosmos?’ Not far down the list was the question...

This convention is to avoid a rather fussy three punctuation marks in a row, two such marks being enough to mark the end of a sentence. But if the quotation does not end at the same place as the sentence, this may not be avoidable.

...questions such as ‘How large is the universe?’, ‘Does chaos rule the cosmos?’ and ‘What is consciousness?’

Page references usually follow the quotation. Where a quotation is incorporated into a sentence that is a direct question, placing the question mark outside the closing parenthesis of the page reference (or citation) separates it from the text to which it belongs. Placing the question mark after the closing quotation mark (not within, as it was not part of the original quoted material) separates the quotation from its reference. The preferred solution is to place the reference elsewhere, recasting the sentence if necessary.

Why did Davies and Thasen (2000, p.425) conclude that ‘identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution’?

not

Why did Davies and Thasen (2000) conclude that ‘identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution’ (p.425)?

not

Why did Davies and Thasen (2000) conclude that ‘identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution’?

(p.425.)

b. Block quotations

Longer quotations that are printed as freestanding blocks should not be written as a continuation of an introductory sentence. The original initial capitalisation and terminating punctuation is kept. If such a quotation begins mid-sentence, an ellipsis
(...) must indicate this and the first word is not capitalised (unless it was capitalised in its own right in the original).

The citation should follow the extract in parentheses without any terminal punctuation either inside or outside the closing parenthesis.

Until such time as automatic image processing reaches acceptable levels of efficiency, identification of persons from CCTV footage based purely on alleged physical resemblance needs to be treated with caution. Moreover, the training of video operators should take account of the accumulated research which points to the importance of human factors governing the deployment and effectiveness of video technology.

(Davies & Thasen, 2000, p.425)

Note: Block quotations may be distinguished typographically (e.g. by smaller type size or italics).
9 Citation of sources

In academic and scientific writing, findings and assertions reported in the text should always be supported by a reference to their source. Where space and readability are considerations (e.g. in a magazine format such as *The Psychologist*), a single reference for each instance is preferred; and if more than one reference could be cited, the most recent or most accessible can be given as an ‘e.g.’ reference. The most recent of a string of publications on the same topic will often itself contain references to the earlier ones.

The function of denial as a psychological defence mechanism is integral to mainstream thinking about coping with physical illness (e.g. Goldbeck, 1997).

Where there is good reason to give more than one source, try to limit citations to a maximum of three for any single instance, using the ‘e.g.’ device if necessary, unless comprehensive referencing is genuinely needed (as in formal academic papers).

### 9.1 Citation in text

The author–date system (also known as the Harvard system) is the preferred method of citation. The style adopted is based on APA reference style but with minor variations detailed here. For full details refer to the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*.

The surname of the author(s) or editor(s), or the name of a corporate originator, and the year of publication are inserted in the text at the appropriate point.

Nettle (2006) argues that trait variation has evolved through fitness-related cost–benefit trade-offs. Rationality can be undermined by certain intuitions (Baron, 1994). Areas of application have included voting (Nickerson & Rogers, 2010), shopping (Fennis et al., 2011) and healthy eating (Allen et al., 2011). Stalking has been defined as unwanted contacts or intrusions on two or more occasions (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1996).

References cited in the text must appear in the reference list (see section 9.2). Text citations should remain in quoted material, but it is not necessary to add the corresponding references to the reference list on the sole basis of their appearance in a quotation.

#### a. Multiple citations

Give multiple citations chronologically for a single author:

(Smith, 2009, 2013a, 2013b)

but in alphabetical order for a multi-author list:

(Brown, 2009; Jones, 1996; Smith, 2013)
The sequence is strictly alphabetical, even if a chronological sequence seems more logical:

In the last 25 years the department has carried out three major surveys (Brown, 2012; Jones & Smith, 2000; Smith, 1989).

b. Multiple authors
If a work has two authors, cite both names every time and link them with an ampersand (&) if the citation appears in parentheses:

The original study (Smith & Jones, 2013)...

or with and if in running text:

The original study by Smith and Jones (2013)...

If a work has three or more authors, for both first and subsequent occurrences cite only the first author followed by et al.

If the abbreviation et al. leads to a confusion between two groups of authors, cite as many of the authors as necessary to distinguish the two citations:

Dixon, Black et al. (2010) and Dixon, Davies et al. (2010)

When there are five or more authors, the corresponding entry in the reference list need only give the surnames and initials of the first three authors followed by et al.

c. Same author and year
Works by the same author(s) and with the same year of publication are differentiated by adding the suffixes a, b, etc. to the year both in the text citation and the reference list. The suffixes are assigned alphabetically according to the words following the year in the reference list, and not according to the sequence of citation in the text (though sometimes these will be the same).

listed in reference list


referred to in text as
MacKay (2000a, 2000b)

Where the authors are not identical but the text citation using et al. could lead to confusion, the citations should be differentiated by listing additional authors (as in section 9.1(b)) not by using year suffixes.

listed in reference list
Statham, S., Richards, D., Dumas, F., Jones, M., Smith, P., Brown, W. et al. (2013)...

referred to in text as
Statham, Richards et al., 2013; Statham, Dumas et al., 2013
d. Specific parts of cited sources
Include references to a particular page, figure, table, etc. at the appropriate point in the text or in with the source text citation rather than in the reference list.

When such citations appear in parentheses, use commas and not parentheses to set the date.

(Cooper, 2009, Table 2.4); (Hunter, 2011, pp.251–253)

Note: No space between pp. and the following number; en rule (–) not hyphen (-) in page ranges (see section 5.10).

e. Punctuation in text citations
A modified APA style has been adopted. One modification is to ignore the APA preference for the series comma (i.e. the comma before and, &, et al.) in a series of names). Thus:

Smith, Brown and Jones (2012) reported...
It has been reported (e.g. Smith, Brown & Jones, 2012)...
Smith, Brown et al. (2011) found...

APA style would require a comma after Brown in each of these citations.

f. Personal communications
Personal communications (letters, memos, emails, telephone conversations, etc.) do not provide recoverable data. They are therefore not included in the reference list and appear in text citations only. Give the initials and surname of the correspondent and as exact a date as possible.

J. Brown suggested (personal communication, 14 September 2013)...
It has been suggested (J. Brown, personal communication, 14 September 2013)...

g. Secondary sources
If a work is cited as discussed in a secondary source, give the name of the original author with a reference only to the secondary source. Rubin’s study of romantic love (as cited in Sabini, 1992)…

The sole entry in the reference list here would be:

h. Legal cases
The parties in a case should be referred to in the following format:

Bolam v. Friern Hospital Management Committee
R. v. Smith

It is usual, but not always necessary in psychological texts, to add the year of the case in parentheses. In general this will suffice, and there is no need for an entry in a reference list. Note that the year will normally refer to the year of publication of a law report; many cases (particularly the significant ones most likely to be referred to) will have gone through various stages of interim judgments and appeals, each of which may have been reported in different years; frequently a case is decided in one
year and reported the following year. If precision is needed or if a quotation from the judgment needs a full citation, there are standard legal formats for referring to legal cases that are too complex to set out here. Follow the format used in the legal source. For example, in the *Bolam* case referred to above a correct formal citation would be:

*Bolam v. Friern Hospital Management Committee* [1957] 1 WLR 582

This means that the judgment was reported in volume 1 of the Weekly Law Report series of 1957 starting on page 582. Reports of this particular case were published elsewhere, so there are other ways of giving it a full reference. It is not necessary to give all the valid references.

**i. Statutory material**

Statutory material may be referred to in text without needing a corresponding entry in the reference list. Refer to an Act of Parliament as follows (roman, date not set off by commas or parentheses):

Mental Health Act 2007

Specific parts of an Act may need to be specified:

Statutory registration for psychologists was made possible by section 60 of the Health Act 1999.

Statutory registration for psychologists was made possible by the Health Act 1999 (s.60).

Statutory instruments – Orders in Council, Regulations, Rules (legal system) – are sequentially numbered by year. The identifying number need not be given provided the title and year of the instrument are stated, but may be given in the text reference if felt necessary.

Health Professions Council (Constitution) (Amendment) Order 2013

Adoption Agency (Miscellaneous Amendments) Regulations 2013

*or*

Health Professions Council (Constitution) (Amendment) Order (SI 2013/3004)

Adoption Agency (Miscellaneous Amendments) Regulations (SI 2013/985)

Specific parts of a statutory instrument may need to be specified:

Under article 2(4) of the Health Professions Council (Constitution) (Amendment) Order 2013 the composition of the council was reduced from 20 to 12 members.

The Adoption Agency (Miscellaneous Amendments) Regulations 2013 amended the Adoption Agency Regulations 2005 and, among other changes, inserted a new regulation 22 requiring the adoption agency to prepare a written plan with the prospective adopter.

*Note:* The various subdivisions of Acts and statutory instruments have specific names (Part, Schedule, section, subsection, regulation, article, etc.). Care should be taken to use the correct terms.
j. Literary works

References to literary works will rarely need an entry in the reference list. Well-known works can be referred to by merely giving the title in the text. A year in parentheses may be added for lesser-known works, or where the date has some extrinsic significance. Even where an extract from a literary work is quoted it is not usually necessary to give page numbers (or in the case of plays, act and scene numbers) or an entry in the reference list. However, it may be appropriate to do this where a literary work is the main subject being discussed.

k. Broadcast media

Television and radio programmes should be referred to only by title of programme, series or edition either in the body of the text or parenthetically. If relevant, the channel may also be given. The specific date of broadcast and channel should be added if a direct quotation or academic point is being made. There is no need to give a full citation in the reference list.

l. The Bible and other sacred works

References to specific parts of the Bible are always given in the text, not in a reference list. Give the name of the book (roman type) in full (i.e. not the standard abbreviation) followed by chapter and verse(s) in arabic numerals separated by a colon.

Hebrews 13:8
1 Thessalonians 4:11
Ruth 3:1–18

Where a biblical passage is quoted, there is no need to give line numbers. Nor does the version quoted (e.g. Hebrews 13:8 RSV for the Revised Standard Version) need to be given unless there is a specific reason to include this information.

Treat references to other sacred texts similarly.

9.2 Citation in reference lists

The purpose of the reference list is to allow readers (or librarians) to find the original material. To allow them to do this it is essential to include the following information for each item in the list: author or originator; year of publication; title of work; publication data.

Take care to check that all references cited in the text are included, and that dates and spellings of authors’ names are consistent in the text and the list.

BPS reference style follows APA style for content, capitalisation and sequence of information (see Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association). Individual styles of layout, typography and punctuation may be used by different publications, but should always be internally consistent.

The APA Publication Manual should therefore be referred to for detailed guidance on how to set out the many variations on the elements of a reference. The main types of entry are listed here, with examples that will serve as patterns for analogous cases.
Entries in a reference list are in a letter-by-letter alphabetical sequence. That is, spaces between the elements of an entry, and all hyphens, periods and other punctuation marks are ignored for the purpose of deciding the filing order. Ampersands are ignored when they separate individual author names. Names with prefixes (e.g. de Gaulle, van den Boom) are filed under the initial letter of the prefix, regardless of capitalisation. Names beginning Mac, Mc, and so on, are filed strictly alphabetically, not as if they were all spelt Mac.

In a biographical or similar account, such as an obituary, it is not normally necessary to supply a full reference for books and texts mentioned as having been written or contributed to (or even having been read) by the subject of the account. Simply add the year of publication in parentheses after the first mention of the title in the text.

Myers established a laboratory at King’s College London, published *A Textbook of Experimental Psychology* (1909) and lobbied...

Give all the author names in the reference list up to four. When there are five or more authors, the corresponding entry in the reference list should give the surnames and initials of the first three authors followed by et al. Thus there are never more than four elements in the series of names in a reference. If two such references shorten to the same form and the year of publication is the same, distinguish the two by a and b suffixes to the year, notwithstanding that the full list of authors might not be identical.

An author listed as ‘with’ should be included in parentheses: Smith, J. (with Jones, B.) (2014)…. but is not included in the text citation.

In books, reports, and other publications where the publisher is the same as the author or originator, give the publisher as Author.

**a. Journal articles**


*If accepted for publication, but not yet published:*


**b. BPS member network periodicals**

*Numbered by volume and part (treat as journal references):*


*Note: It is only necessary to give a part number (as in the Freeman, 2013, example) where pagination is by part rather than by volume.*
**Numbered by issue/edition:**


c. **BPS reports, guidelines, etc.**


*Note:* The author of all such publications is either the British Psychological Society or the member network (Division, Section, etc.) under whose authority the publication was produced. The names of individual authors or co-authors or the names of working parties or committees are never cited as the author. In all instances the publisher is the British Psychological Society (given as British Psychological Society or Author as the case may be).

d. **Books and monographs**


*if accepted for publication, but not yet published:*


e. **Edited books**


f. **Chapters in edited books**


*if in a separately titled volume in a multi-volume work:*


*Note:* For books that are in press, page numbers are not available.

g. **Republished works**


*Note:* In text citations give both original and later dates: Freud (1915/1984); Jaspers (1913/1963).

**h. Magazine articles**

**i. Newspaper articles**

*without named author:*

*Note:* In a parenthetical text citation use a shortened form of the title: (*How video games teach children*, 2014).

**j. Letters to the editor**

*Note:* Words that describe form and are not part of the title are enclosed in square brackets.

**k. Interviews**


**l. Book and other media reviews**


*Note:* If the review has no title use the description in square brackets in place of the title.

**m. Official reports**


*Note:* For BPS reports, guidelines, etc., see section 9.2(c).

**n. Unpublished theses/dissertations**


*Note:* For theses available in an institutional repository, see section 9.3(d).

**o. Conference papers, proceedings etc.**

*Papers in published proceedings:*


*Note:* Published proceedings may appear in either periodical or book form.

*Unpublished papers presented at a conference or symposium:*


**p. Government publications**


*Note:* It is not necessary always to give the command paper number. If it is given, the publisher’s details may be omitted, but the command paper reference should be given accurately, as different formats refer to different periods (Cmd: 1919–1956; Cmnd: 1956–1986; Cm: 1986 to the present). Not all government publications are published ‘by command’.
q. **Unpublished/submitted/in preparation papers**

*Note:* The year is that of the draft referred to. In text citations use the year, not ‘in preparation’, ‘submitted’, etc.

r. **Press releases**
Birkbeck, University of London (2014, 6 January). £3.7m Wohl Wolfson Toddlerlab to advance leading autism research [Press release].

s. **Foreign-language books, title translated into English**

*Note:* Use any accents and capital letters for foreign-language words as in the original title (e.g. initial capitals for all nouns in this example).

9.3 **Citing documents published online**
The rapid expansion of the number and variety of documents available over the internet has meant that systems of citation are only slowly settling to standardised forms. Complicating factors are that website addresses may change and that information found at a given address may change. The rise of advance online publication of journal articles also needs to be accommodated.

Note that the advice given here (and throughout this guide) is intended for citing documents in Society publications other than its major peer-reviewed research journals (now published by Wiley). Users of the guide seeking BPS citation and reference style to use in student dissertations, theses or any work requiring a strict academic style should refer instead to the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* for guidance on citing electronic sources.

Many online sources need not be given full academic-style references. In such cases the website addresses and any other information necessary to the context may be given in the main text or in a footnote or endnote, according to the publication’s preferred style. If space is a consideration, web address may be given as a short alias (such as those generated TinyURL or Bitly), but this is not recommended for books or monographs.

If a document is known to be also available in ordinary printed form, then only the printed form need be cited in a reference list. A website address or digital object identifier (doi) may be added (and different publications may have different preferences), but either way it is worth while being consistent for all references of the same type within an article or a publication.
Where a formal internet citation must be given in a reference list, the principle is that enough information should be provided for retrieval of the source. The minimum information needed is

- author or originator;
- publication year (or n.d. for ‘no date’);
- document title or description;
- website address (preferably of the specific document rather than a home or menu page), digital object identifier (doi), or other specific identifier; and
- date of retrieval (except where doi is given).

**Note** (1) For reasons of space, or for some other reason, it is permissible to give the address of a home or menu page instead of the full website address, using the wording ‘Available via…’. (2) Where both a web address and doi are available, use only the doi.

Most website addresses are available via hypertext transfer protocol (http). The protocol and its associated colon and slashes (http://) may be omitted from the cited address when followed by **www**. Do not omit when followed by any other letters. The letters **www** cannot safely be omitted, as many website addresses do not begin this way.

Test the web address you are giving to ensure it has been transcribed accurately. Where possible cut and paste addresses to ensure accuracy.

Line breaks can be a problem, especially as the hyphen is a functional character in internet addresses. If an address needs to be broken, avoid breaking directly before or after a full point or hyphen. If possible break after a forward slash or underscore, or if necessary before.

**avoid:**

- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm
- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm
- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm
- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm
- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm

**preferred:**

- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm
- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm
- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm
- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm
- www.bps.org.uk/sub-syst/subsysytems_div1.cfm

**a. Online journal article (available also in print)**


**or with doi:**


**Note:** It is always useful to give as much retrieval information as possible, but if space is a consideration the doi may be omitted. Try to be consistent.
b. **Online-only journal article**

*Note*: It is usually better to give the doi for online-only articles. Omit only if you are sure that the remaining information is enough both to identify the article as an online source and to locate it.

c. **Advance online publication**

d. **Thesis/dissertation available in an institutional repository**

e. **Non-periodical document**

*Note*: In the above example ‘Available via…’ is given because the full document is downloadable in parts with different web addresses.


There is no need to identify the publisher if it is the same as the author:

f. **News item**


*Note*: Where no author is given, use the title of the item to start the reference. In text the citation for the *Guardian* example above could be: (‘Resources to end internet child abuse’, 2014).

g. **Blog post**
h. **Message posted to an online forum or discussion group**

*Note:* Here the author has used a screen name for posting the comment.
10 Word selection

10.1 Sex-specific language

a. Sex-specific jobs, roles, etc.

Avoid using sex-specific forms generically or as supposed neutral terms. Examples (with preferred alternatives):

- businessmen (business people, managers, executives, etc.)
- chairman (chair, chairperson, convenor, etc.)
- conman (con artist, confidence trickster)
- forefathers (ancestors, forebears)
- foreman (supervisors, head juror)
- mankind (humanity, humankind, human race)
- manpower (staff, personnel, workers, workforce)
- policemen (police officers)
- sportsmanship (sense of fair play)
- workmanlike (efficient, skilful, thorough)

It is, of course, acceptable to use forms such as policeman, policewoman when referring to a specific male or female police officer, or conmen for specific male confidence tricksters.

Avoid making sex-stereotyped assumptions about people, their abilities, attitudes and relationships. Examples:

- Busy politicians often neglect their wives and children.
- The behaviour was typically female.
- *can be changed to*
- Busy politicians often neglect their families.
- The behaviour was... [specify].

Avoid specifying the sex of a person unless it is relevant.

- male nurse
- woman doctor

Where the sex of people is specified, make sure that masculine and feminine terms are balanced. Thus men needs to be balanced with women, not ladies or girls.

b. Pronouns

Singular personal pronouns (he, she and their cognates) often cause problems. There are various possible strategies for coping with this:

- rephrasing into the plural
  - When a child is disruptive he often...
  - When children are disruptive they often...
rephrasing to avoid using a pronoun
After the client has been greeted by the counsellor he is asked to take a seat.
After being greeted by the counsellor the client is asked to take a seat.

using plural pronouns
You should sit at the same level as the young person so that you are not towering above him.
You should sit at the same level as the young person so that you are not towering above them.

replacing the pronoun with an article
The participant completes his task.
The participant completes the task.

simply omitting the pronoun
The trainee must hand in his project work by the end of the course.
The trainee must hand in project work by the end of the course.

There are other ways of avoiding the problem, but these often look clumsy or read oddly and should not be used:

using both male and female pronouns (e.g. he or she, her or him), though this solution is acceptable in isolated instances;
alternating between he and she, etc.; and
using the formula s/he.

Making an introductory statement that he, etc. embraces she, etc. is not acceptable.

10.2 Inappropriate labels

a. Disabilities
This is a difficult area in which to be prescriptive: terms that some people are comfortable with, others find offensive, and yet others prefer as militantly political language. Furthermore, attitudes to language change over time and sensibilities vary culturally. In choosing which words to use, consider the following guidelines:

If a term is generally regarded as offensive, it should be avoided. (e.g. mentally retarded, cripple, invalid).

The fact that some people, but not people in general, say they are offended by a term (e.g. handicap) should not on its own preclude its use, though it is best avoided if there are ready alternatives.

The words used by major organisations operating in the relevant area should have a persuasive influence on choice of terms. For example, the British Dyslexia Association uses the term dyslexic (as a noun), which some people say is the sort of term that equates the person with the condition; Scope, formerly known as the Spastics Society, does not now use the word spastic.

Such a formula as people with disabilities is often preferred to disabled people or the disabled because the last two terms are said to focus on disability as the defining feature of a person or group and to label such groups as homogeneous. Authors and editors should be aware that using this formula
can sometimes lead to cumbersome or ambiguous phrasing.
people with autism and people with dyslexia  [cumbersome]
people with autism and dyslexia  [ambiguous]
autistic people and dyslexics  [concise and unambiguous]

- Avoid phrases incorporating the words *victim* (e.g. stroke victim), *suffering from*, *afflicted by*, and the like.
- Do not use terms such as *visually challenged*. Apart from inviting derision, these constructions are so vague as to be almost meaningless.

b. Race
A person’s race, ethnic or national origin should be referred to only when it is relevant. If it is necessary to use a racial designation, the golden rule is to avoid giving offence while maintaining precision in language. It is often lack of precision that itself causes offence.

Some words are quite unacceptable because of pejorative associations and should never be used.

*Black* is an acceptable generic term covering people of African, African-American, Afro-Caribbean or South Asian origin, or only to the first three of these groups in the phrase ‘black and Asian’. The term *blacks* is not acceptable. The word *negro* should not be used in general writing, but may need to be used as a technical term in an anthropological context.

*Oriental* is not now an acceptable racial term. *Asian* or, preferably, more precise terms such as *Chinese* or *Malay* should be used instead.

*Red Indian* is no longer used to refer to the indigenous peoples of North America. *Native American* or particular tribal names are the recommended terms.

c. Age
Terms such as *children*, *adolescents*, *young people*, *middle-aged people*, *older people* are rather hazily delineated. While their use is acceptable for general purposes, where precision is needed the age range meant should be defined or more specific terms used (e.g. 12- to 18-year-olds).

*Boy* and *girl* may be used generally for people of school age (i.e. up to 18). But context may sometimes require alternative words to be used for those at the older end of the age range.

While some people object to the use of *elderly* or *the elderly*, they are not generally regarded in the UK as unacceptable and may be used. Often they are a better choice than *older people*, which can be ambiguous, particularly when age comparisons are being made. (e.g. ‘While under-18s receive some benefit, older people are bypassed by the system.’ Does this mean that all those over 18 do not benefit or only elderly people?)

d. Research participants
Participants in research should not be referred to impersonally as *subjects*, rather as *participants*, *respondents*, *individuals*, or by a more specific word, such as *children* or
students. However, subjects may be used when the people concerned cannot provide informed consent (e.g. in field observations).

e. **Recipients of psychological services**

Patient is generally recognised to be a medical term and not normally one appropriate to describe the recipient of the services of a psychologist. The term should therefore be avoided in non-medical settings, where an alternative such as client, service user or simply person should be used. In medical contexts, where patient is the normal word to use for the recipient of medical services, it is acceptable to use the term for all purposes. In forensic settings the term offender should also be avoided when referring to such people simply as recipients of psychological services.

10.3 **Parochialisms**

Do not refer to people’s first names as Christian names. Use forename, given name or first name.

If a publication has an international as well as a domestic circulation, the use of certain parochial words and forms of expression should be avoided.

- In this country... [change to 'In the UK...', 'In England and Wales...', or whatever is meant]
- In the North... [be more precise, e.g. ‘In the North of England...’]

Similarly, chronological references need to be used carefully. Recently can be used in a monthly publication (as long as it still can be described as recent by the time readers get to see it) but becomes fairly meaningless in less frequently published periodicals and monographs. The solution is to be specific.

10.4 **Commonly confused words**

Certain pairs of words, mostly of similar spelling or pronunciation, are sometimes confused, and hence misused. Automatic spelling checkers will not help here, and grammar checkers will only rarely indicate a wrong choice. The list below includes some pointers to help distinguish which to use; but for better explanations of the occasionally subtle differences in meaning, a dictionary would be more useful.

- affect (v. influence; n. only when = mood/emotion)
- assume (for the sake of argument)
- bi-annual* (twice a year)
- complement (v. complete/accompany)
- continual (recurring at intervals)
- defuse (v. calm/neutralise)
- discrete (separate/distinct)
- flaunt (display ostentatiously)
- enquiry (request for information)

- effect (v. achieve; n. result/influence)
- presume (as a known or believed fact)
- biennial* (every two years)
- compliment (v. say something nice)
- continuous (non-stop)
- diffuse (v. spread)
- discreet (tactful/not showy)
- flout (disregard a rule)
- inquiry (formal investigation or research)

*Because of the genuine possibility of misleading readers, even if the correct word is used, it is probably best to avoid these altogether (and similar words, such as bi-monthly).
ferment† (v. brew/agitate/incite; n. commotion/unrest)
forbear (v. abstain)
forego (go before)
forcefully (strongly)
fortuitous (by chance; strictly by good neutral or bad chance, but rarely now other than the first of these)
homogeneous (of the same kind)
loath (adj. averse/rebutant; not loth)
mitigate (soften the effect of; never + against)
minimum (least)
oral (spoken)
pedal (as on a bicycle)
prescribe (authorise)
principal (adj. main; n. main actor)
stationary (adj. motionless)
substantial (of meaningful size)
tortuous (twisting/complex)

foment† (v. agitate/incite)
forebear (n. ancestor)
forgo (do without)
forcibly (with physical force)
fortunate (lucky/favourable; not necessarily by action of chance)
homogenous (sharing genetic origin)
loathe (v. detest)
militate (+ against = affect adversely)
minimal (slight/negligible)
verbal (in words, spoken or written)
peddle (sell; what French onion sellers also used to do on a bicycle)
proscribe (forbid)
principle (n. value/belief)
stationery (n. writing materials)
substantive (adj. real/independently existing)
torturous (painful)

See also section 12.1(c) for the difference between practice and practise, and similar words.

10.5 Miscellaneous matters

a. a or an?
The question whether a or an should be used before a word beginning with h is resolved according to whether the h is (or can be) aspirated. Thus:

a historical perspective but an honest approach

See also section 1.4 for use of a or an with abbreviations.

b. and/or
Try to avoid this shorthand formula in running text. Use only where shorthand is really needed (e.g. in tables). It can almost always be replaced by and or or without loss of meaning in context.

Separation and/or divorce inevitably involve some sense of loss that requires resolution.

may be rewritten:

Separation and divorce inevitably involve some sense of loss that requires resolution.

or

Both separation and divorce inevitably involve some sense of loss that requires resolution.

† There is a big overlap in meaning here, and sometimes either word will do; although foment is perhaps the more usual word for the sense of stirring up (trouble). But foment is never a noun (e.g. ‘The students were in a ferment’, not ‘…in a foment’), and cannot be used as an intransitive verb (e.g. ‘Discontent was fermenting in the department’, not ‘Discontent was fomenting…’).
The mistake is in thinking that *and* on its own implies only a cumulative series and that a solitary *or* must imply mutual exclusivity. If a simultaneous possibility of cumulation and exclusivity must be made explicit, then write *X or Y or both*.

c. **Ampersand**
The ampersand has a particular use in text citations and entries in reference lists. Elsewhere it should be used in corporate names or in titles of conferences or similar events where the ampersand is the usual or official way of setting out the name (e.g. Weidenfeld & Nicolson). Or it may be used as an alternative to *and* where this is integral to a corporate name and there is unity of sense (e.g. Wessex & Wight Branch but not Divisions of Clinical & Counselling Psychology, where two Divisions are referred to). With the latter usage try to be consistent in the same document, such consistency to cover not only the specific instance but also all analogous instances (e.g. Wessex & Wight Branch, Lesbian & Gay Psychology Section).

In titles of publications *and* should never be replaced by the ampersand. But the ampersand should be kept where the title includes a corporate name that has an ampersand in its own right, and in journal or periodical titles where it is the journal’s usual style.

d. **Authors’ references to themselves**
Authors should avoid referring to themselves in the third person (e.g. ‘the authors studied…’). Use the first person (e.g. ‘we studied…’).

See also section 11.3 on the use of the passive voice.

e. **Sex or gender?**
Avoid using *gender* as a synonym for *sex*, a usage described by the *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* as euphemistic or colloquial.

In social and feminist psychologies *gender* has taken on a distinct meaning that incorporates social and cultural aspects. This distinction is a useful one to make and is worth preserving by not writing *gender* where only biological sex is meant. In such cases the ordinary word *sex* needs no alternative.

f. **Overused words and phrases**
Commonly used words and phrases that come too readily to mind can easily make writing sound dull and hackneyed. It is worth the effort to find alternatives.

*Some overused expressions (with a selection of alternatives):*

- focus on (centre on, concentrate on, deal with, look at)
- highlight (demonstrate, draw attention to, discuss, show, speak about)
- key (central, important, main, principal, salient, vital)
- on a regular/daily/temporary basis, etc. (regularly/daily, every day/temporarily)
- incredibly (very)
- in order to (to)

In conference reports avoid the stock phrase ‘delegates came from as far afield as…’.
g. **Use of foreign and Latin phrases**

Some non-English words and phrases appear frequently enough to be familiar to every reader. Conversely, other such expressions sometimes seen in print are obscure to all but a few. Between these extremes it is a matter of judgement for authors and editors whether a particular phrase achieves the purpose of clearly communicating meaning to their readers.

The recommended approach is to avoid all but the most familiar expressions, which in any event should be used only where technical or literary considerations favour it. There is usually a good way to state a proposition in plain English without resorting to foreign imports.

Another reason for this advice is that certain less well-known phrases, especially Latin ones, are occasionally used incorrectly. So the writer might simultaneously be accused of pomposity (by those not familiar with the offending phrase) and of ignorance (by those who know its true meaning). In any event, an obstacle is placed in the way of clear understanding.

See Appendix 3b for a selection of foreign and Latin words and terms.

h. **Use of the word refute**

The verb *refute* is frequently used as a synonym for *deny*. Careful writers avoid doing so, remembering that *refute* means to prove that something is false, whereas *deny* means only to assert its falsehood.

i. **Use of the word journal**

The only BPS publications that may be called *journals* are the academic periodicals published for the Society by its publishing partner Wiley.
Some questions of grammar or syntax present choices, or apparent choices, of style. Some guidance on a few matters is offered here.

11.1 Number agreement
Collective or group nouns can be singular or plural according to the sense in which they are used. Verbs and pronouns should be consistent with this sense.

The committee meets every two months. [i.e. a singular verb for the committee as a whole body]

The committee were given the chance to air their views on this topic. [i.e. a plural verb and pronoun for the members of the committee as individuals]

The word none may take a singular or plural verb. Both are good idiomatic English, though the singular verb, sometimes claimed to be the only correct form, can sometimes sound a little stilted. If so, use the plural.

A number of… is a rather vague formulation; if it must be used, it is plural in sense and takes plural verbs and pronouns.

A number of people die each year after contracting this condition.
Every year a number of delegates arrive by car.

Though the word data is a Latin plural, and though some writers might prefer always to treat it as such, particularly in academic and technical writing, it is permissible to treat it as either singular or plural depending on whether the prevailing sense is collective or multiple.

When the data had been collected, it was time to do something productive with it. [collective sense/singular]

Many data continue to be collected. [multiple sense/plural]

But increasingly the word data is understood to be a mass noun analogous to information and therefore always singular. In which case the second example above is ungrammatical and should instead be ‘Much data continues to be collected.’

By contrast media (also a Latin plural) should be treated as plural in all its senses; but not agenda, which despite its plural origin is now emphatically singular, taking a normal English plural with an added s.

11.2 Split infinitives
Split infinitives are acceptable unless they sound unnatural. Those who prefer not to split should nevertheless tolerate a split infinitive if a change of meaning, or unnatural or distorted phrasing results from moving an intruding adverb. For resolute anti-splitters, rephrasing may be the only answer. The following examples show the alternatives in a sentence where the adverb really is meant to attach to the verb listen:

They wanted to really listen to the lecture on Darwin. [acceptable split infinitive]

They wanted really to listen to the lecture on Darwin. [ambiguous meaning]

They really wanted to listen to the lecture on Darwin. [ambiguous meaning]
They wanted to listen really to the lecture on Darwin. [unnatural English and ambiguous]
What they wanted to do was really listen to the lecture on Darwin. [a solution for anti-splitters]

11.3 Passive voice
In formal academic journal papers use of the passive voice is deprecated. This does not mean that it should always be avoided in other forms of writing. Though the active voice is a more direct (and therefore often preferred) way of expressing an idea, the passive is nevertheless a useful technique that writers should not be restrained from using to good effect, for example to add variety, to place emphasis exactly where it is wanted, or simply to get to the main verb more quickly.

*active voice:*
Medical advances that raise awkward ethical issues, a greater awareness among patients of their rights, and a new ‘customer-oriented’ culture have challenged the traditional role of doctors.

*passive voice:*
The traditional role of doctors has been challenged by medical advances that raise awkward ethical issues, by a greater awareness among patients of their rights, and by a new ‘customer-oriented’ culture.

Each of the above is acceptable. Either might be preferred in a particular setting. If the required emphasis is on the fact of the challenging rather than on the variety of challengers, the passive version is the better choice.

One form of the passive that is best avoided altogether is the ‘impersonal passive’. This takes the form ‘It is acknowledged…’ or ‘It is believed…’. The fault with this is lack of clarity about who is acknowledging or believing, and so on. Is it everybody? Some people? The author alone? If an author is acknowledging something or wants to assert belief in something, the words chosen should be direct, confident and unambiguous:

I acknowledge... I believe...

11.4 *that* and *which*
There are two types of relative clause. The first (defining clause) defines or limits what it refers to and is necessary for the sentence to make proper sense; the second merely gives additional information (non-defining clause).

Defining clauses may be introduced by *which* (generally referring to things) or *who* (generally for persons) or *that* (for things or persons).

The universities *which offer this course* are generally the newer ones.
The universities *that offer this course* are generally the newer ones.

Most students *who applied for this course* said it was not their first choice.
Most students *that applied for this course* said it was not their first choice.
Note that whichever word introduces it, a defining clause is not enclosed in commas. The inappropriate use of commas, thus making a defining clause non-defining, can have a drastic impact on meaning.

Psychologists who know little about statistics make poor scientists.
Psychologists, who know little about statistics, make poor scientists.

Here the use of commas turns a trite comment about some psychologists (limited to those who know little about statistics) into a contentious one about all psychologists. Non-defining clauses can be introduced by *which* or *who* (never *that*) and are always enclosed in commas.

Their research results, *which have since been replicated many times*, were published in 1965.
Smith and Jones, *who were independent pioneers in this field*, later established a research institute together.

To avoid the possibility of ambiguity it is recommended that, in general, defining relative clauses should be introduced with *that*, except where idiom, clarity or euphony strongly prefers *which* or *who*; and that the use of *which* and *who* should otherwise be restricted to non-defining clauses.

11.5 *And and But at the start of sentences*

There is no rule of English grammar proscribing the use of *And* at the start of sentences; there is a ‘rule’ of English style not to overdo it. The same applies to *But.*
12 Spelling and hyphenation

12.1 Spelling
In general British English spellings are used.

a. –ise or –ize?
All BPS publications apart from journals published by Wiley use the –ise termination in preference to –ize. Where –ize is used, some words are nevertheless always spelt –ise, such as:

advertise  
despise  
improise  
advise  
devise  
incise  
apprise  
disguise  
revise  
chastise  
enfranchise  
suprise  
comprise  
enterprise  
surmise  
compromise  
excise  
surprise  
demise  
exercise  
televise

In British usage the following words are spelt –yse not –yze:

analyse  
dialyse  
paralyse  
catalyse  
electrolyse

d. –ment
Use acknowledgement in all contexts; and judgement in all contexts except for formal court or tribunal rulings, when judgment should be used.

c. practice or practise?
Use practice for the noun and practise for the verb. As a noun, practice inflects only to the plural form practices; as a verb, practise inflects to practises, practising, practised.

This distinction between the c (noun) and s (verb) forms applies also to licence/license, advice/advise, device/devise and prophecy/prophesy. Though with the last three pairs confusion is unlikely because of their differentiated pronunciation.

Note: American usage is different – practice and license for both noun and verb forms.

d. tonnes and tons
Use tonnes for precise metric measurements only. Use tons for informal or rhetorical senses (and, of course, for precise imperial measurements if necessary).

The shipment weighed 3 tonnes.
There are tons of ways that could be done.

e. Foreign place names
Established anglicised spellings of foreign place names should be used where such exist, unless the names appear in their native language context. Some examples:

Basle  
not  
Basel
Brussels  
not  
Brussels
Similarly, use the English form of a foreign place name if it is the current familiar form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foreign Name</th>
<th>English Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Córdoba</td>
<td>not Cordoba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Düsseldorf</td>
<td>not Düsseldorf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hannover</td>
<td>not Hanover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lyon</td>
<td>not Lyon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marseille</td>
<td>not Marseille</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Québec</td>
<td>not Québec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zürich</td>
<td>not Zürich</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Copenhagen      | not København  |
Gothenburg      | not Göteborg   |
Firenze         | not Firenze    |
The Hague       | not ‘s-Gravenhage |
Nürnberg        | not Nürnberg   |
Praha           | not Praha      |

But use Mumbai and Beijing not Bombay and Peking. Also Braunschweig and Livorno are now preferred to Brunswick and Leghorn, and there may be other examples of such outmoded anglicised forms.

**f. Chinese names**

Chinese place names and personal names are usually nowadays romanised according to the pinyin system introduced by the Chinese in the 1950s to replace the Wade–Giles system. Pinyin, in which, for example, Beijing and Mao Zedong replace Peking and Mao Tse-tung, is the system recommended for general use. Though the Chinese philosopher Confucius may still sometimes be best referred to by this romanised version of his name rather than by the unfamiliar Kongfuze (pinyin) or Kʻung Fu-tzu (Wade–Giles).

For further advice on this complex subject, refer to the *Oxford Dictionary for Writers and Editors* (for some commonly occurring names) or to an authoritative Chinese–English dictionary.

**g. Plural formation of Latin and Greek nouns**

Latin or Greek nouns form their plurals in irregular ways, but once naturalised into English they tend to adopt an ordinary English plural by adding *s* or *es*. If there is a regularly used English plural, this is the preferred form, even where a Latin or Greek version may also be in common use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin or Greek Noun</th>
<th>English Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aquariums</td>
<td>not aquaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dogmas</td>
<td>not dogmata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formulas</td>
<td>not formulae (except in mathematics)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forums</td>
<td>not fora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memorandums</td>
<td>not memoranda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referendums</td>
<td>not referenda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stadiums</td>
<td>not stadia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syllabuses</td>
<td>not syllabi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some words (often for reasons of euphony) retain a Latin or Greek plural:

- basis (bases)
- curriculum (curricula)
- hypothesis (hypotheses)
- neurosis (neuroses)
- radius (radii)
- stimulus (stimuli)
- crisis (crises)
- diagnosis (diagnoses)
- matrix (matrices)
- phenomenon (phenomena)
- schema (schemata)
- symposium (symposia)
- criterion (criteria)
- crises
- matrixes
- phenomenas
- schemata
- symposia
- genera
- diagnoses
- species
- theses

Note: The plural of criterion is too often incorrectly used as the singular, though its corollary, the plural ‘criterias’, would no doubt be shunned by all but the most careless writers.

Some words vary their plural form according to meaning:

- appendixes [all senses]
- focuses [metaphorical senses]
- indexes [at the back of books, etc.]
- stigmata [referring to Christ’s wounds]
- vortexes [whirlpools, etc., literal and figurative]
- appendices [only in books etc.]
- foci [technical senses]
- indices [all other senses]
- stigmas [all other senses]
- vortices [mathematical and technical senses]

h. Other non-English plurals
As with Latin and Greek words (section 12.1(g)), other non-English words that have become firmly established as English nouns deserve ordinary English plurals. Some examples:

- bureaus
- concertos
- plateaus
- tableaus

i. Accents in foreign words
Where words appear clearly as foreign words within an English text they are italicised and retain their native spellings, accents, capitalisation (e.g. German nouns) and plural formation. They normally retain their grammatical function (i.e. nouns should be treated as nouns, etc.).

Many foreign words that have become naturalised English words no longer need to be italicised and, as part of the process of anglicisation, often lose their accents and capitalisation. For a time the original form may coexist with the new. Where there is such a choice, use the form without any accent or original capitalisation:

- role
- elite
- creche
- gestalt
- naive/naivety
- zeitgeist
- not
- not
- not
- not
- not
- not

Some words and terms resist cutting such ties with their origins:

- blasé
- ménage à trois
- café
- protégé
- cliché
- señor
- déjà vu
- résumé
Most of these examples probably retain their accent because pronunciation might be ambiguous without them. In many other cases the fact that foreign words or phrases retain their accents can be a sign that they have not been fully assimilated into English, and that they should therefore be set in italics (see section 3).

Note that, if it must be used, apropos is the fully English version of à propos.

**j. Ligatures**

The vowel pairs æ and œ in English words derived from Greek or Latin should not be used. They are replaced by e, ae or oe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>aesthetic</th>
<th>encyclopedia</th>
<th>medieval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>archaeology</td>
<td>fetus</td>
<td>paediatric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>economy</td>
<td>homeopathy</td>
<td>palaeontology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: American usage favours e over ae or oe in many more words than in British English (e.g. paleontology, pediatric). British spellings are preferred.

The ligature æ (or Æ) in French words should always be retained:

Mauriac’s novel Le Nœud de Vipères... The visual effect was a trompe l‘œil.

Some Anglo-Saxon names (e.g. Ælfric, Ælfryth) may retain the initial Æ. But King Alfred the Great is familiar enough to be usually preferred to King Ælfred the Great.

**12.2 Hyphenation**

**a. Aid to syntax**

If a sequence of words is capable of being misread, hyphenation should be used to connect words into single concepts to clarify meaning. Without a hyphen the following either would be ambiguous or could throw the reader momentarily off the track:

The long-lost documents were discovered last year.
He was a hard-working man.

In the above examples the hyphenated compound is used attributively (the compound immediately precedes the noun that it modifies). Where the use is predicative (the compound is separated from the noun) there is usually no potential ambiguity and therefore no need for a hyphen:

The documents, having been long lost, were discovered last year.
The man was hard working.

Compounds consisting of –ly adverb and participle or –ly adverb and adjective never need a hyphen, whether used attributively or predicatively. Because the adverb cannot be mistaken for an adjective there is no possible confusion over which word is modified by the adverb.

In an elegantly devised experiment...
The highly motivated students...
A mostly cautious interpretation...
The rapidly approaching exams... but The fast-approaching exams...
[not –ly adverb]
By convention the adverbs *well* and *ill* always take a hyphen when used attributively, regardless of whether there is a possibility of misunderstanding.

The well-attended lectures and the ill-planned social events... [a lack of hyphens here could be misleading, though amusing]

The doctor met these well-informed people at her clinic. [small chance of this being momentarily misread without the hyphen]

She was wearing an ill-fitting dress. [no possible ambiguity without the hyphen]

But predicatively the hyphen is not needed.

The lectures were well attended and the social events ill planned.
The proponent of the technique was well known.
The dress was ill fitting.

The usefulness of a hyphen to show the correct relationship of words can be lost when a part of the compound itself consists of two or more words.

Various British research-led initiatives were suggested...

It is not clear whether these were initiatives led by British research or were British initiatives led by research. Omitting the hyphen does not help. Adding a hyphen between *British* and *research* is possible for the first meaning, but there is always the alternative of rephrasing:

Various initiatives led by British research were suggested...
Various research-led British initiatives were suggested...

Hyphens have an important role in compounds that include numbers and should always be used with precision. Note the difference in meaning in the first two of each of these groups of examples. The third example in each group shows the ambiguity arising from the omission of hyphens altogether.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>two-year-old children</th>
<th>two year-old children</th>
<th>two year old children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>six-foot soldiers</td>
<td>six foot-soldiers</td>
<td>six foot soldiers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. *Compound words*

The life history of compound words often shows a tendency to develop from two distinct words through hyphenation to spelling as one word (e.g. book shop, book-shop, bookshop). Where has been reached in the development of any one compound is often a matter of judgement or opinion. This can lead to considerable difficulties in maintaining a certain style over time, being consistent across a range of publications, and making sure that the same approach is used for similar word compounds. The position can be further confused by usage varying according to whether a phrase acts as a noun or a verb. Usage also varies between British and American English, with the latter having a strong influence particularly in psychology and the social sciences, and most particularly with technical and scientific terms. New forms arise continually.

Some compounds used in *The Psychologist* are given in Appendix 3a. Otherwise, when in doubt the only practical answer is to seek the advice of a good spelling dictionary and follow it (we recommend the *Oxford Dictionary for Writers and Editors*).
c. **Prefixes**  
The common prefixes over which the question of hyphenation arises are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefixes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>anti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>macro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>semi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mega</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>socio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>counter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>micro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pseudo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ultra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stylistic consistency over hyphenating prefixes is difficult to achieve for much the same reasons as for compound words (above). And the problem for technical and scientific terms is aggravated by the two facts that many such terms are constructed using prefixes and that American usage, with its influence in the social sciences, strongly favours joining prefix and word without a hyphen in cases that British readers may find aesthetically disagreeable (e.g. the suggestion of *cow* in the American form *coworker* may be what leads to *co-worker* being the preferred British form).

Since achieving consistency over all publications is impossible, those responsible for maintaining an orthographic style for any one publication should at least try always to treat the same word in the same way, and as far as possible treat the same and similar prefixes in a similar way. To do this, there is no substitute for keeping a constantly updated list of words. (For a selection from the word list of *The Psychologist* see Appendix 3a.) What is beyond reach here is the coordination of innumerable separate editorial decisions on these questions. The best that can be offered is a few points of guidance and the hope that these will more often than not result in the same treatment of the same compound by different users of this guide.

The general position to start from is a willingness to discard the hyphen in favour of joining prefix and base word. But use a hyphen:

- where the prefix ends and the base word begins with the same vowel
  
  anti-intellectual  meta-analysis  pre-empt
  
  pre-existing  re-enter

  *Note.* The familiar words *cooperate* and *coordinate* are nevertheless written solid. This avoids having to write *un-co-operative* and *un-co-ordinated.*

- where there is a suggestion of an odd pronunciation without the hyphen
  
  contraindicate  coworker  deice  deskill
  
  prolife  reuse  subedit

- to avoid confusion with other words
  
  pre-date  re-cover  re-creation  re-form
  
  re-present  re-publication  un-ionised
where a prefix is a ‘living prefix’ (that is, it has been recruited to do a job with a word that it is not permanently associated with)

anti-psychiatry counter-example inter-study non-social
post-empiricist post-qualification pre-injury pre-scientific

Note: This is a most subjective consideration. It is to do with what feels right in context. Such occasional uses are not normally found in dictionaries; and if they are found they will often be listed under the prefix itself, rather than having their own entry.

where the base word begins with an initial capital, even when the whole compound is set in capitals

anti-Semitism ANTI-SEMITISM pro-French PRO-FRENCH
neo-Darwinism NEO-DARWINISM un-English UN-ENGLISH

Note: One exception here is transatlantic, doing away with both hyphen and capital.

with an abbreviation or a number (even where the number is a word)

non-UK mid-sixties pre-1990

in all self-compounds (except selfsame, selfhood)


Note: This gives rise to a difficulty with adding un (a prefix that is never normally hyphenated) to self-conscious giving unself-conscious. The recommended form is unselfconscious.

in most cross-compounds

cross-contamination cross-fertilisation cross-modal cross-section

Note: Some cross-compounds are not strictly prefix plus base word, rather an ordinary compound of two words. Most of these are set as one word (e.g. crossbar, crossroad, crossword).

in most e-compounds where e stands for ‘electronic’

e-commerce e-journals e-books

Note: The previous edition of this guide recommended e-mail over email; however, the latter is fast gaining currency and looks in time to become the dominant, settled form. Use either. The form ebooks is gaining ground too.

in ex-compounds where ex means ‘former’

ex-boss ex-wife

in words with prefixes joined for an established technical use that have a more everyday or occasional use when it might be felt that the prefix is ‘living’ and the hyphen more appropriate in context:

nonhuman non-human
Note. This advice will no doubt give different results with different people in
different contexts. The question of hyphenating prefixes is usually treated as
one of spelling only. In cases of frequently used words and settled
compounds, this must be right (but there is less difficulty with such words).
However, if hyphenation is also imagined as akin to punctuation, being an
aid to the proper reading of a text, it need not be disconcerting to those
sensitive to such things occasionally to have the same compound treated in
different ways in different contexts. For example, the hyphen can be used to
place emphasis on the prefix; this is particularly useful with anti-, non- and
pro- prefixes.

- when the prefix is attached to an already hyphenated compound
  pseudo-self-esteem  ultra-high-quality research

Note. Where a term modified by a prefix consists of two or more words that
are an open (non-hyphenated) compound, join the prefix to the first word
with an en rule instead of a hyphen (e.g. ex-head psychologist, post-Gulf
War).

The use of ‘floating’ hyphens (connecting different prefixes to a common second
element) is both useful and acceptable.

In both pre- and post-test questionnaires...

The researchers recruited a cohort of 40- and 50-year-olds who had been diagnosed
with generalised anxiety disorder.

It is also acceptable when there would be no hyphen in either of the two terms used
on their own.

In both pre- and postnatal development...
13 Tables

13.1 Presentation in typescripts
The main points of the data presented in tables should be discussed in the text, but
every item in the table should not be re-presented in text format. Likewise, tables
should not repeat readily understood information given in the text. Tables should be
comprehensible in themselves without further reference to the text. Tables are useful
for displaying precise values and many small data sets, whereas patterns and exceptions
may be more clearly demonstrated as a figure.
Authors should indicate the position of a table either by incorporating it within the
typescript in the required place or by stating in the typescript as follows:

\[\underline{\text{insert Table 3 about here}}\]

In the text itself say, for example, ‘as shown in Table 2’ or ‘the data are related (see
Table 2)’. Do not refer to ‘the table above/below’ or ‘the table on page 12’ because
the position and page number of the table cannot be determined until the typesetter
makes up the pages. All tables should be mentioned at least once in the text.
Tables submitted for publication should be double spaced on a separate page and
numbered with arabic numerals in the order they are mentioned in the text (e.g.
Table 1, Table 2). Related items should be clearly and sensibly separated in rows
and columns by using horizontal and vertical space rather than lines or rules, but
the table need not take up the full width or depth of the page.
Column and row headings should be clear and succinct.

13.2 Captions
The caption should describe the content of the table as briefly as possible. It should
not imply or express the results shown in the table.
The caption should be substantive in form without relative clauses. That is, avoid
verbs other than participles and infinitives.

*The effects of positive mood on evaluations in a crossed categorisation context*

*is preferred to either*

Positive mood affects evaluations in a crossed categorisation context

*or*

The effects of positive mood on evaluations that are made in a crossed categorisation
context

Avoid repeating all the information given in column or row headings.

*Comparative degree performance of male and female psychology and non-psychology
graduates 2001–2014*
might (depending on the principal salient points or the need to distinguish it from other similar tables) reasonably be shortened to

Comparative performance of male and female graduates

13.3 Tables from other sources

If a table (or part of a table) is to be reproduced from a third-party copyright source, permission to use the item must be sought from the copyright holder (see section 15.1(c)).

The source of the table can be cited either in a footnote to the table or after the table caption, with the full reference appearing in the reference list. Any permission to reproduce or adapt copyright tabular material should be acknowledged in a footnote to the table giving the name of the copyright holder.
14 Figures, graphs and illustrations

14.1 Presentation with typescripts
Diagrams, graphs or other illustrations intended for publication may be incorporated in a typescript, but an acceptable electronic version will also need to be supplied prior to publication.

Number all figures consecutively with arabic numerals in the order they are mentioned in the text (e.g. Figure 1, Figure 2, etc.). Authors should indicate the position of a figure either by incorporating it within the typescript in the required place or by stating in the typescript as follows:

\[ \text{insert Figure 2 about here} \]

In the text itself say, for example, ‘as shown in Figure 2’ or ‘the data are related (see Figure 2)’. Do not refer to ‘the figure above/below’ or ‘the figure on page 12’ because the position and page number of the figure cannot be determined until the typesetter makes up the pages. All figures should be mentioned at least once in the text.

14.2 Captions
Captions to figures should be concise and explanatory.

Figure 1: Ratings of mental effort and changes in heart rate during tasks with differing cognitive loads (means and standard errors are shown)

Any information that is needed to clarify the figure – such as an explanation of the abbreviations used or of units of measurement – may be added in parentheses after
the caption. The reader should not have to refer to the text to decipher the figure. Do not include the caption to the figure in the figure itself. Instead, list all the captions – each with its figure number – on a separate page.

14.3 Formats
Submitted material must be of publishable quality. Provide figures (diagrams, graphs or other illustrations) in separate clearly named digital files – PDF, tif, jpeg, eps, or QuarkXPress (Mac format) files. If you are unable to supply in these formats directly, then you may need to seek assistance from a reprographics department. Electronic files may be sent by email or uploaded to a file-sharing website (useful for large files or collections of files).

In some cases authors may be asked to supply the data from which the graph was drawn so that the graph can be redrawn.

14.4 Figures, etc. from other sources
Authors must get copyright clearance for all images (including graphs and diagrams) that are integral to an article or paper. This is a legal requirement, and images will not be used unless it is clear that there is no risk of breaching copyright (see section 15.1(c)).

Credit may need to be given to the copyright holder, either in the caption or elsewhere (in the main text, as a footnote, in an introduction). Figures published from scholarly sources will need to be referenced in the normal way with an entry in the reference list. The citation may be given in the caption or elsewhere as appropriate.

If there are other images (photographs, cartoons, paintings or drawings) that would go well with a submitted article, authors are welcome to supply these with details of where copyright permission may be sought. Whether such images can be used or not will depend not only on the cost of getting permission but also on image quality and general editorial and production considerations.
15 Copyright

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## Appendix 1

A selection of current abbreviations commonly used within the BPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADM</td>
<td>Assessment and Development Matters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFBPsS</td>
<td>Associate Fellow of the British Psychological Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BCAG</td>
<td>Behaviour Change Advisory Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BJCP</td>
<td>British Journal of Clinical Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BJDP</td>
<td>British Journal of Developmental Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BJEPC</td>
<td>British Journal of Educational Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BJMSP</td>
<td>British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BJP</td>
<td>British Journal of Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BJSKP</td>
<td>British Journal of Social Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BoEQE</td>
<td>Board of Examiners for the Qualifying Examination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BPS</td>
<td>The British Psychological Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFP</td>
<td>Clinical Psychology Forum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CORE</td>
<td>Centre for Outcomes Research and Effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPsychol</td>
<td>Chartered Psychologist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTCN</td>
<td>Committee on Training for Clinical Neuropsychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTCP</td>
<td>Committee on Training for Clinical Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTS</td>
<td>Committee on Test Standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAG</td>
<td>Dementia Advisory Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DARTP</td>
<td>Division for Academics, Researchers and Teachers in Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DClinPsy</td>
<td>Doctorate in Clinical Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCP</td>
<td>Division of Clinical Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCoP</td>
<td>Division of Counselling Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DECP</td>
<td>Division of Educational and Child Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFP</td>
<td>Division of Forensic Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHP</td>
<td>Division of Health Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DoN</td>
<td>Division of Neuropsychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOP</td>
<td>Division of Occupational Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSEP</td>
<td>Division of Sport and Exercise Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EBMH</td>
<td>Evidence Based Mental Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECP</td>
<td>Educational and Child Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPEB</td>
<td>Education and Public Engagement Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EWAG</td>
<td>Expert Witness Advisory Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FBPss</td>
<td>Fellow of the British Psychological Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FPOP</td>
<td>Faculty of the Psychology of Older People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GBC</td>
<td>Graduate Basis for Chartered Membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCPC</td>
<td>Health and Care Professions Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HonFBPsS</td>
<td>Honorary Fellow of the British Psychological Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HonMBPsS</td>
<td>Honorary Life Member of the British Psychological Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HoPC</td>
<td>History of Psychology Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPPS</td>
<td>History and Philosophy of Psychology Section</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HPU</td>
<td>Health Psychology Update</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICPR</td>
<td>International Coaching Psychology Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IQOP</td>
<td>International Qualification in Occupational Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JOOP</td>
<td>Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LCP</td>
<td>Legal and Criminological Psychology</td>
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<tr>
<td>MBPsS</td>
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<tr>
<td>MN</td>
<td>Member Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSB</td>
<td>Membership Standards Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCCMH</td>
<td>National Collaborating Centre for Mental Health</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAC</td>
<td>Partnership Accreditation Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>PaCT</td>
<td>Partnership and Accreditation Team</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAPTRAP</td>
<td>Psychology and Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAT</td>
<td>Policy Advice Team</td>
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<tr>
<td>PDEAC</td>
<td>Psychologist and Digest Editorial Advisory Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>PEB</td>
<td>Psychology Education Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PER</td>
<td>Psychology of Education Review</td>
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<tr>
<td>POWS</td>
<td>Psychology of Women Section</td>
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<td>PPB</td>
<td>Professional Practice Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>PSC</td>
<td>Personnel Subcommittee</td>
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<tr>
<td>PSR</td>
<td>Psychology of Sexualities Review</td>
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<tr>
<td>PsyPAG</td>
<td>Psychology Postgraduate Affairs Group</td>
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<td>PTC</td>
<td>Psychological Testing Centre</td>
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<td>RB</td>
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<td>RoPSiP</td>
<td>Register of Psychologists Specialising in Psychotherapy</td>
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<td>RPAC</td>
<td>Regional Psychology Advisory Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>RQTU</td>
<td>Register of Qualifications in Test Use</td>
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<td>SACWAP</td>
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<td>SGCP</td>
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<td>SGIP</td>
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<td>SGPSC</td>
<td>Special Group for Psychology and Social Care</td>
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<td>TPR</td>
<td>Transpersonal Psychology Review</td>
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## Abbreviations of state names and other US territories

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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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Appendix 3

a. Selection from the word list of *The Psychologist*

3-D (three-dimensional)  breakup (n.)
11-plus (exam)       burnout
ADHD (no oblique)   bypass
adviser (not –or, unless spelt that way in a job  byproduct
     title)              Byrne Repression-Sensitization Scale
cognitive-behavioural   callout
adviser (not –or, unless spelt that way in a job
title)  caregiver
cognitive-behavioural   casenotes
aesthetics               case study
eptology                 casework
caregiver                catchphrase
aftercare               CD-ROM
after-effect             chair elect
age group               chatroom
AIDS                     checklist
A-level                  child care (predic.)
all right (not alright)  childcare (attrib.)
Alzheimer’s disease      cock-up
antenatal               coedit
to clockwise            coexist
to convulsant           colour-blind
to depressant           cognitive behaviour therapy
to discrimination       cognitive-behavioural
anti-epileptic  Cold War
anti-oxidant             comorbidity
to psychotic            continuing professional development (CPD)
to racist                 contra-indicate
to Semitism               cooperate
to social                coordination
to archaeology           counterargument
to Asperger’s syndrome   counterintuitive
to attention deficit hyperactivity disorder
to audiorelative         countertransference
to backdround            co-worker
to backup (n.)           cross-contamination
to bar graph             cross-cultural
to basinateral           cross-disciplinary
to bestseller            cross-modal
to bidirectional         crossover
to bilingual             cross-section
to bi-monthly (but is ambiguous, so best avoided)
to biodeterminism        cut-off (n.)
to biosocial             cut-out (n.)
to bipolar              de-individuation
to brain scan            demystify
brainstem               deoxygenated
double-check
downplay
Down’s syndrome
DSM-IV
DSM-5
Duchenne’s muscular dystrophy
earwitness
e-commerce
eigenvalue
e-journal
e-mail (but see also section 12.2(c))
encyclopedia
extramarital
extravert (but introvert)
eye-opener
eyewitness
fault-line
fetus/fetal
film-maker
fingertip
first-born (adj.)
firstborn (n.)
firsthand (adv. and attrib. adj.) (but at first hand)
fist-fight
follow-up (adj. and n.)
fragile-X syndrome
frontline (adj.)
frontoparietal
functional magnetic resonance imaging
General Health Questionnaire
graduate basis for registration (GBR)
groupwork
handover (n.)
handwriting
handwritten
hangup (n.)
hardwired
hay fever
headset
headteacher
health care (predic.)
healthcare (attrib.)
helpline
Holocaust, the (but lower case for generic usages)
homepage
home-work (employment or self-employment at home)
homework (what schoolchildren do)
homeopathy
homeostasis
hyperactive
hyperarousal
Huntington’s disease
ill health
in so far (not insofar)
ingroup
in-house
inpatient
in so far (three words not one)
interdisciplinary
intergroup
internet
interpersonal
interracial
intrapersonal
jet lag
left-hand (adj.)
left-handed
letterbox
leukaemia
lifespan
lifestyle
line-up (n.)
lipreading
long-standing
make-up (n. all senses)
manic-depressive
manoeuvre
marketplace
master’s degree
medico-legal
medieval
meta-analysis
metacognition
meta-imagery
metapsychology
microsociology
midday
midlife (adj. and n.)
mindreader adj. and n.
mindreader/mindreading
mind-set
motor neurone disease
multiaxial
multicultural
multibillion
multidimensional
multidisciplinary
multi-ethnic multi-faceted multi-lingual multi-media multi-modal multi-racial multi-rater multi-sensory multi-system narcissism nationwide National Curriculum, the neonatal neuro-anatomy neuro-biological neuro-chemical neuro-development neuro-imaging neuro-rehabilitation neuro-transplantation newborn news-reader news-stand night-time Nobel Prize no one non-adaptive non-conformist (Nonconformist when referring to the religious separation from the Church of England) non-conscious non-existent non-human/non-human (see section 12.2(c)) non-medics non-pathological non-repressor non-science non-smoker non-social non-specific non-stereotypical non-traditional non-typical non-verbal/non-verbal (see section 12.2(c)) obsessive compulsive disorder Oedipal/Oedipus complex offbeat Ofsted OK (not okay) ongoing online orbitofrontal out-group outpatient outperform overarching over-critical over-emphasis over-estimate over-general over-protect overspecialised over-react over-reliant over-represent over-use paediatric palaeo-anthropology palaeontology Parkinson’s disease Parliament (when referring to Westminster; otherwise parliament) pay-packet peace-keeper per cent (not % or percent; but % in tables) perinatal pinpoint (v.) policy maker positron emission tomography post-doctoral post-empiricist post-experimental post-graduate post-holder post-modern post-natal post-qualification post-structuralist post-traumatic stress disorder postwar pre-adolescent predefined predispose pre-empt prefrontal premenstrual premorbid
prenatal
pre-operative
pre-scientific
presuppose
printout
proactive
proofread
pro vice chancellor
pseudodementia
pseudoscience
pseudoword
psychobehavioural
psychoeducational
psychomedical
psychoneuroimmunology
Psychopathy Checklist
psychophysiological
psychosocial
reacknowledge
reanalysis
reapply
reappoint
re-assess
reinforce
reintegrate
reinterpret
reinvent
reoffend
resit
resubmit
retest
rethink
re-use
right-hand (adj.) /right-handed
Rorschach inkblot test
roundtable (discussion)
Royal Assent
school leaver
schoolwork
second-hand (adj.)
sensorimotor
shelf-life
shell shock
shock wave
short cut (n.)
shortcut (attrib. as in shortcut key)
shortlist (n. and v.)
sickle-cell disease
side-effect
sidetrack (v.)
sociobiology
sociocultural
sociodemographic
socio-economic
sociohistorical
sociopolitical
spatiotemporal
spin-off (n.)
stepchild/stepfather/stepmother
step-parent
stomach-ache
subcommittee
subcortical
subdiscipline
subdivision
sub-editor
subgroup
subhypothesis
subnucleus
suboptimal
subpopulation
subscalesubsystem
subsystem
supranational
synaesthesia
tae kwon do
takeover (n.)
tape-record (v.)
tape-recorder
taxpayer
teamwork /–ing
techie
teleworking
textbook
t test
thank you (short for I/we thank you)
thank-you (n. or adj.)
think-tank
throwaway (adj.)
time lag
timeframe	imescale
toolkit
Tourette’s syndrome
trade-off (n.)
transsexual
‘Troubles’, the (in N. Ireland)
troubleshooter
twofold/threefold (etc.)
uncooperative
Some of the above are best avoided altogether, either because there are ready English alternative expressions (e.g. for *par exemple, per se, raison d'être, vis-à-vis*) or they are imperfectly understood and sometimes misused (e.g. *ad hominem, a priori*).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>Latin</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>under way</td>
<td>video-game</td>
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<tr>
<td>underachieve</td>
<td>video-link</td>
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<td>willpower</td>
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<td>upbeat</td>
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<td>workload</td>
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<td>vice chancellor</td>
<td>world view</td>
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<td>vice president</td>
<td>worldwide</td>
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<td>video camera</td>
<td>wrist-watch</td>
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<tr>
<td>video recording/video recorder</td>
<td>X-chromosome</td>
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<tr>
<td>video-clip</td>
<td>X-ray</td>
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<tr>
<td>video-conference</td>
<td>Y-chromosome</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### b. Some foreign and Latin words and terms

- *a posteriori*
- *a priori*
- *ad hoc*
- *ad hominem*
- *ad infinitum*
- *ad lib*
- *aficionado*
- *aide-memoire*
- *blasé*
- *bona fide*
- *café*
- *cliché (also clichéd)*
- *coup de grâce*
- *de facto*
- *de rigueur*
- *déjà vu*
- *elite*
- *en masse*
- *en route*
- *ersatz*
- *et al.*
- *ex officio*
- *façade*

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<tr>
<th>English</th>
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<th>Latin</th>
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<td>gestalt</td>
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<td><em>idiot savant (pl. idiots savants)</em></td>
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<td>imprimitur</td>
<td><em>imprimatur</em></td>
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<td>in utero</td>
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<td>in vivo</td>
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<td>ipso facto</td>
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<td><em>post mortem (adv.)</em></td>
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<td>post-hoc (adj.)</td>
<td><em>post-mortem (adj.)</em></td>
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<td>post-mortem (adj. and n.)</td>
<td><em>post-parturum (adj.)</em></td>
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<td>vice versa</td>
<td><em>vice versa</em></td>
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<td>versus/vs. (use v. in legal citations only)</td>
<td><em>versus/vs.</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>versus/vs. (use v. in legal citations only)</td>
<td><em>versus/vs.</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>vice versa</td>
<td><em>vice versa</em></td>
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<td>vis-à-vis</td>
<td><em>vis-à-vis</em></td>
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<td>volte-face</td>
<td><em>volte-face</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>zeitgeist</td>
<td><em>zeitgeist</em></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of the above are best avoided altogether, either because there are ready English alternative expressions (e.g. for *par exemple, per se, raison d'être, vis-à-vis*) or they are imperfectly understood and sometimes misused (e.g. *ad hominem, a priori*).
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