

English Style Guide

Developed for the Pacific Islands region

Published by SPC and SPREP

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I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STYLE GUIDE

This style manual has been written to help SPC and SPREP authors produce documents for publication and has been designed to establish a convention for style and grammar, streamline the editing process and facilitate layout. It is not meant to cover every style and grammatical issue the SPC or SPREP author may encounter. Volumes have been written on such subjects.

1.2. TYPES OF EDITING

There are three main types of editing: substantive editing, structural editing and copy editing. Substantive editing consists of ensuring that the author's argument holds and is consistent, and that the author's meaning is clear to readers. Substantive editing also involves making sure tables and graphs are in order, all references are listed and extraneous, superfluous or repetitive words and sentences are deleted. Structural editing involves checking that the document is organised and clearly presented. This often entails moving sentences or paragraphs around so that they are in the appropriate place within the document. Copy editing involves checking for grammar, punctuation, and spelling, making certain the manuscript is consistent, and making sure the manuscript conforms to the "house style". House style refers to a set of decisions made by a publisher or organisation concerning spelling, capitalisation and punctuation, to ensure consistency among all documents produced.

1.3 BASIC WRITING POINTS

English is not the first language for many readers of SPC and SPREP publications. Therefore, one of the most important considerations in producing a publication is that it be written clearly, concisely, and without unnecessary words, phrases or jargon. Below are some basic points to keep in mind.

- Before you begin writing, think about the people you are writing for. Who are you targeting? Farmers? Ministries of governments? Donors? School children? Scientists? You need to decide who the target audience is before sitting down to write because the writing style and complexity of language for each of these groups will be different. The target audience will also determine the way the material will be presented. A formal technical report may be appropriate for scientists but completely inappropriate for farmers and school children. In some instances, a simple poster or brochure with more graphics and less text can have more impact than a wordy report.
- Be concise, clear and direct in your writing. This point cannot be emphasised enough. Extra words that serve no purpose or give no information only clutter the page and confuse the reader. Too many words and details make it difficult for the reader to follow what is being said, and can potentially mix up two or more thoughts, which means your message will be lost. This is true whether the reader is a village farmer, a government official or a scientist. Less is more. Do not think that writing shorter, more concise sentences means your document

- will sound amateurish, unprofessional or watered down. You will reach more people if your writing is clear and direct.
- Think about how best to present the information and consider whether all of the information in your document needs to be there. It may be more appropriate to put some parts into an appendix or attachment. Likewise, some of the text may be less confusing if it is in table or graph form.
- Read your document aloud; this is often the best way to catch errors. Listen for repetition. If your writing sounds boring, stiff, long-winded or patronising, you have a problem. It may require tightening up sentences and substituting different words here and there.
- Be sure when you refer in your text to Table 8 or Figure 3 that such a table or figure exists and that it goes by the same title in the text as it does on the illustration itself. Tables or figures that are mislabelled, or a report that is poorly organised, will make the reader question the credibility of the author and his or her work. The same applies to reference citations.
- Double-check references, making sure information such as year of publication, publisher, or page number, is not left off.
- Avoid using jargon and technical terms that could be misunderstood, especially by people whose first language is not English.
- Please send the editor your best effort, not your first draft. After your first draft, let the document sit a few days before going back to it. Then, read it again, edit it yourself and then reread and re-edit.

It's also a good practice to let a colleague review your document.

1.4 SPELLING CONVENTIONS

The spelling of words in English is not governed by any national or international authority (unlike the spelling of French words). Many words in English take different forms that can be generally characterised as either American English or UK English, Many of the UK forms are also used in Commonwealth countries such as Australia, New Zealand and Canada. Both forms are acceptable, so the key is to be consistent throughout a document (see Section 14.) Generally, SPC and SPREP use UK spelling, the exception to this is if the target audience is not accustomed to -ise endings, or other UK spellings, as would be the case in Micronesian countries. The style rules in this guide have been derived from the latest editions of the following internationally recognised sources:

- Scientific Style and Format: the CBE Manual for Authors, Editors, and Publishers
- Science and Technical Writing: A Manual of Style
- The Chicago Manual of Style
- The Concise Oxford Dictionary
- The Random House Dictionary of the English Language
- European Association of Science Editors: Science Editors' Handbook
- Times Atlas of the World

1.5 PREPARING DOCUMENTS FOR EDITING AND LAYOUT

Let the publications section know your editing, layout and design needs as soon as possible; do not wait until the last minute to ask us to edit or lay out a report or brochure. This will ensure your document gets the attention it deserves.

All documents should be double-spaced when they are presented to the publications section. This makes it easier for the editor to write comments in the margins and between the lines of text and makes it easier for the author to read these changes. In addition, pages should be numbered and the entire document should be spell-checked. Use a simple and reasonable font and type size such as Times Roman, Bookman, or Arial using 11 pt. If your publication has complicated graphs or tables in Microsoft Excel or some other program, check with publications staff before submitting your document for layout.

If you need to include general cultural and physical background information about a Pacific country in your publication (e.g. total rainfall, land area, capital, major ports, language spoken, or other geographical information), please consult a reliable source. (This does not include any of the Lonely Planet guides.) Reputable sources can be found in SPC's or SPREP's library and include: The Pacific Islands: An Encyclopedia, The Statesman's Yearbook, The World Guide, and many others.

Most SPC and SPREP publications have the following structure.

- Title page: includes the title of the document, author or programme name, SPC or SPREP spelled out in full, SPC or SPREP logo, funding credits, publishing date and ISSN (if appropriate).
- Copyright page: includes the SPC or SPREP copyright notice (presented in full below), cataloguing-in-publication data, ISBN, and editing, translation, layout and photo credits (if any).
- Table of contents: this should reflect the headings that appear in the text.
- List of abbreviations and acronyms: gives the abbreviation or acronym and spells out the full name.
- Executive summary: is not always necessary, but is a feature that is intended to save the reader time by summing up the contents of the publication.
- Introduction: introduces the subject of the publication.
- Headings and subheadings: keep the number of levels of subheadings to three, if possible, as otherwise it's easy for the reader to forget where they are within a major heading.
- Conclusion(s) or results: outlines the results of the study. Conclusions are sometimes placed near the beginning of a document, especially if a number of recommendations are given.
- List of references: should include all the references that were cited within the text. Sloppily referenced documents, which are all too common, are a disservice to readers and a pain for editors. See Section 12 on references for help on how to write them out in full.

Annexes: are a way to deal with highly technical or other important information that might otherwise impede comprehension of the text or distract the reader by being too specific.

1.6 DOCUMENT CHECKLIST

All documents for editing should:

- be in one-and-half or double-line spacing;
- be left justified;
- have page numbers;
- be spell-checked;
- be consistent for example, check that you have spelled people's names the same way throughout, have written the names of programmes, organisations and job titles consistently, and have used the same format for dates:
- include a title page with the name of the project or report, date, SPC or SPREP logo, author or programme name, and Secretariat of the Pacific Community or South Pacific Environment Programme written out in full;
- include: copyright notice, funding credits, contents page, references, list of abbreviations (if necessary), and copies of any illustrations, tables, or figures;
- use a single space (not double) after a full stop; and
- follow the SPC/SPREP style guide.

1.7 SPC/SPREP COPYRIGHT

SPC's copyright is:

© Copyright Secretariat of the Pacific Community, [insert current year]
All rights for commercial / for profit reproduction or translation, in any form, reserved. SPC authorises the partial reproduction or translation of this material for scientific, educational or research purposes, provided that SPC and the source document are properly acknowledged. Permission to reproduce the document and/or translate in whole, in any form, whether for commercial / for profit or non-profit purposes, must be requested in writing. Original SPC artwork may not be altered or separately published without permission.

Original text: English

In the case of brochures, where space is at a premium, the copyright can be shortened to:

© SPC [insert current year]

SPREP's copyright is:

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Environment Programme [insert current year]
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requested in writing. Original SPREP artwork may not be altered or separately published without permission.

In the case of brochures, where space is at a premium, the copyright can be shortened to:

© SPREP [insert current year]

1.8 SOME PUBLISHING DEFINITIONS

ISBN — International Standard Book Number. This is a unique code used to identify a publication by its title, publisher and edition. The ISBN can be used to identify books in orders, stock control and library systems. ISBNs are always 10 digits long, and are divided into four parts. For example, the ISBN: 982-203-810-0 refers specifically to the document, Pacific Kava — A Producer's Guide: 982 refers to the South Pacific region; 203 refers to the individual publisher (in this case SPC); 810 refers specifically to Pacific kava (i.e. is keyed to the title); the last digit is a check mechanism. ISBNs should be assigned to all published books, pamphlets and reports more than four pages long, including microfilm publications, microcomputer software, multimedia kits containing printed matter, books on cassettes and maps. ISBNs are not given to most posters (unless there is detailed information), calendars, advertisements, and most serial publications.

ISSN — International Standard Serial Number. This is a unique number given to serial publications such as newsletters, magazines and newspapers. ISSNs are helpful in identifying a specific serial, especially when different seri-



als have the same or similar title. An ISSN can be given to any serial publication, no matter the format (CD-ROM, online, etc.). A serial publication is one that is published successively under the same title (e.g. *Fisheries Newsletter*). ISSNs are eight digits long. For example, the *Pacific Islands Nutrition* newsletter has ISSN 1022-2782. ISSNs should appear in the upper right-hand corner of the front cover of each issue.

Agdex — Agdex is a system for cataloguing agricultural publications. An Agdex number is not a unique number such as an ISBN or ISSN, but instead links similar subject matter (i.e. an Agdex number is subject specific, rather than item specific). Publications with the same Agdex number address the same subject. For example, all publications with an Agdex number of 622 are about insect pests and their control. Agdex numbers are three digits long.

CIP — Cataloguing-in-publication information is an internationally recognised description for a publication, and can include information on the title, author(s) or editor(s), place of publication, publisher, year of publication and page numbers. CIP information is generally found on the reverse side of the title page of a publication, near the publisher's copyright.

Please request ISBNs, ISSNs, SPC copyright, CIP data and Agdex numbers from the editors only. Do not reuse ISBNs or CIP data from other documents.

1.9 SPC/SPREP ADDRESS

In English language documents, SPC's address should be written as:

Secretariat of the Pacific Community BP D5
98848 Noumea Cedex
New Caledonia
Tel +687 26.20.00
Fax +687 26.38.18
Email: spc@spc.int

SPREP's address should be written as:

South Pacific Regional Environment Programme PO Box 240 Apia, Samoa Tel: +685 21929

Fax: +685 20231

Email: sprep@sprep.org.ws

2. SPELLING

2.1 BRITISH VS AMERICAN WORD ENDINGS

With words ending in -ise/-ize or -yse/-yze, both usages are correct; just be consistent throughout a document in the way you use them. The editors recommend using the Concise Oxford Dictionary as a guide. (See also Section 14.) Please note that for the name of an organisation, should be written the way the organisation writes it.

World Health Organization, Food and Agriculture Organization (both take a "z", not an "s").



2.2 OTHER SPELLING DIFFERENCES

SPC style is to use the first "e" in words such as judgement (not judgment) and acknowledgement (not acknowledgment).

Words with -ae- or -oe-. Use the British spelling for words such as aetiology, foetus, and oestrogen (etiology, fetus, and estrogen are American usage).

Write gram, kilogram, litre, metre (not kilogramme, liter).

3. CAPITALISATION

3.1 INSTITUTIONS, ORGANISATIONS AND PROGRAMMES

As a general rule, capitalise all nouns and adjectives in names of specific institutions and their subdivisions (DGs, directorates, divisions and other departments), committees, or working groups.

South Pacific Biodiversity Conservation
Programme
Catholic Church
Standing Committee on Tuna and Billfish

But, lowercase these terms when the reference is not specific.

the committee discussed . . . ; the programme encompasses . . .

NB: When using an original name in French or another language where only the first word is capitalised, follow the foreign style and put in italics or add inverted commas if confusion could arise.



3.2 POLITICAL ENTITIES

Capitalise specific political entities, but use lowercase when the reference is general. the Federated States of Micronesia, the FSM Government, Kosrae State but, the state has . . . ; the government is . . .

3.3 TREATIES AND INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENTS

Follow the same general rule for treaties, conventions, arrangements, understandings and protocols.

the Treaty of Waitangi, the Canberra Agreement

3.4 SEASONS, WEEKDAYS, MONTHS AND EVENTS

Do not use capitals for spring, summer, autumn, winter; use capitals for weekdays, months, holidays, and events (e.g. Friday, July, Independence Day, International Year of the Child).

3.5 EARTH, WORLD AND OTHER CELESTIAL BODIES

Capitalise earth and world *only* in connection with astronomy or astronautics (the Earth, the Galaxy, the Moon), but use lowercase where the proper noun is used as an adjective (earth satellites, moon rock); do not use capitals for the resources of the earth, the population of the world.

3.6 PROPRIETARY NAMES

Proprietary names (or trade names) are normally capitalised, unless they have become generic terms, such as aspirin, linoleum, and nylon. Capitalise registered trade names such as Xerox, Land Rover, Coca-Cola.



3.7 NATIONALITIES AND LANGUAGES

All words derived from country names should be capitalised.

I-Kiribati, ni-Vanuatu, English style guide, French-speaking people

3.8 PERSONAL TITLES

Capitalise titles before a name.

President Kennedy, Ratu Seru Epenesa,

Dr Arthur Whistler

3.9 GEOGRAPHICAL AND TOPOGRAPHICAL PLACE NAMES

Place names and topographical features should always be capitalised.

Pacific Ocean, Coral Sea, Viti Levu, Majuro Atoll, Apia, Mauna Loa, Sokehs Rock, Marianas Trench, Emperor Seamounts

NB: Pacific, when referring either to the region or the ocean, is *always* capitalised.

Likewise, all island groups are capitalised. Bismark Archipelago, Hawaiian Islands, Tuamotu Archipelago, Pacific Islands.

3.10 OCEAN CURRENTS

Ocean currents are capitalised.

Equatorial Counter Current, Humboldt
Current

3.11 WINDS

Winds are *not* capitalised (e.g. southeast trades, monsoon winds), *but* weather and climatic systems are.

El Niño, La Niña, Intertropical Convergence Zone, North Pacific High

3.12 COMPASS POINTS

Compass points (north, south, east, west) and their derivations (northern, southern, eastern, western, southwest, northeast, etc.) are lower cased unless they form part of a place name.

South Pacific, Southeast Asia, Pacific Northwest

A single capital letter (N, S, E, W) is used when writing latitude and longitude:

Honolulu is at 21°18.47′N, 157°52.00′W

Write a compass course direction as follows: 157°T

3.13 TITLES AND SUBTITLES

Capitalise the first word after a colon in a subtitle.

The effects of nickel mining on the environment: Nickel mining in New Caledonia.

4. HYPHENS AND COMPOUND WORDS

4.1 GENERAL CONVENTIONS

The trend is away from hyphens and towards joining words or leaving them open. Hyphens should only be used to avoid ambiguity. Compound words may be written as two or more separate words, or with hyphen(s), or as a single word.

Open compound: gill net Hyphenated compound: mass-produced Closed compound: taxpayer, bycatch

Sometimes hyphens are necessary to clarify meaning.

re-cover, recover; re-creation, recreation; re-form, reform



Many words tend to drop the hyphen as they become established.

antibody, codecision, cooperation, coordinate, subcommittee

4.2 SPC/SPREP USE OF HYPHENS

Some common examples include:

small-scale fisheries brackish-water tree user-friendly software four-month stay thiamine-deficient diet sea-surface temperature purse-seine fishery long-term plan five-year-old wine brackish-water tree two-day meeting two-day meeting thiamine-deficient diet decision-makers long-term plan up-to-date information

4.3 WORDS ENDING IN "LLY"

These do not take a hyphen. genetically modified foods, a beautifully phrased sentence

4.4 TO HYPHENATE OR NOT TO HYPHENATE

Many compound words lose their hyphens when used after a noun.

policy for the long term, production on a large scale, news that is up to date

If, however, the compound word is used as an adverb or adjective, it is hyphenated.

she works full-time, a part-time position

4.5 RECENTLY COINED WORDS WITH PREFIXES

These are usually hyphenated. co-worker, non-resident, non-flammable, non-smoker

4.6 PREFIXES BEFORE PROPER NAMES

These are hyphenated.

pre-Colombian, mid-Pacific, trans-European

4.7 NUMBERS AND FRACTIONS

Numbers take hyphens when they are spelled out. Fractions take hyphens when used as an adjective, but not when used as nouns.

twenty-eight, two-thirds completed, *but* an increase of two thirds

5. PUNCTUATION AND ITALICS

5.1 FULL STOP OR PERIOD

Use only one space after the full stop (period) at the end of a sentence. No additional full stop is required if a sentence ends with an abbreviation that takes a point (e.g. a.m.) or a quotation complete in itself that ends in a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark before the final quotes.

Mark Twain once said, "When in doubt strike it out."

5.2 ELLIPSIS POINTS

Always use three points, separated from one another by a hard space (non-breaking space). In French texts the points are commonly enclosed in brackets, but this is not done in English.

"The objectives of the Secretariat will be achieved . . . while respecting the wishes of individual governments."

5.3 COLON

A colon is most often used to indicate that an expansion, qualification or explanation is



about to follow (e.g. a list of items in running text).

Do not use a colon at the end of headings or to introduce a table or graph set in text matter.

Do not leave a space between a colon and the preceding word (unlike French usage).

The discussion group covered three topics: carbohydrates, lipids and proteins.

5.4 SEMICOLON

A semicolon is used to link two connected thoughts in the same sentence; separate items in a series in running text, especially phrases containing commas; add emphasis.

John says he intends to go on duty travel in August; however, he hasn't made definite plans.

In men the most important aetiological factor is a high-fat diet; in women, an oestrogen deficiency.

John Green, Fisheries Statistician, The WorldFish Center; Jane Brown, Fisheries Development Adviser, SPC; Pierre Blanc, Fisheries Information Officer, SPC.

5.5 COMMA

A comma has many functions, but some of the more important ones are to separate words in a series or list, and to separate words or phrases that would otherwise be unclear. Sometimes the absence of a comma can completely change the sense of a sentence.

There were, too, many objections. There were too many objections.

5.6 THAT VS WHICH

Clauses that are defined by "that" do not take a comma; clauses that are defined by "which" do take a comma.

The translations, which have been revised, can now be typed. (which in this instance adds detail and indicates that all the translations have been revised)

The translations that have been revised can now be typed.

(that in this case defines what exactly is to be typed, i.e. only those translations that have been revised are to be typed)

5.7 STRINGS OF ADJECTIVES

More than one adjective modifying one noun, should be separated by commas.

long, sharp spines small, brown, flightless bird

5.8 ITEMS IN A SERIES

These are separated by commas. A comma may be needed for clarification before a final "and".

bananas, fish, coconut products bananas, fish, and coconut products (i.e. not fish products and coconut products) bananas, fish and shellfish, and coconut



5.9 DASHES/RULES

Em dashes, or em rules, are used to indicate an abrupt break in a sentence. An em rule should be used instead of commas or parentheses. Include a space on either side of an em dash. Em dashes are inserted by going to the Word toolbar Insert>Symbol>Special characters and selecting em dash.

There are many differences — aside from physical ones — between men and women.

En dashes, or en rules, are used to join coordinating or contrasting pairs of words (current-voltage graph, cost-benefit analysis, mark-recapture study, ice-seawater slurry); or to indicate a range of numbers

(34–96), including dates (1956–2001), degrees of latitude (23°N–18°S) or temperature

(0°-30°C), or to give a range in months or page numbers (May-August; p.37-48)

Use an en dash to express a minus sign (e.g. -10° C). En rules should be closed up (i.e. without a space on either side of it). En dashes are inserted by going to the Word toolbar Insert>Symbol> Special characters and selecting en dash.

5.10 BRACKETS

A complete sentence in brackets should have the final stop inside the closing bracket.

There were many forest birds in the study area. (This was no doubt due to its isolation.)

Square brackets are used to make insertions in quoted material.

5.11 QUESTION MARK

Courtesy questions: No question mark is needed after a request or instruction put as a question for courtesy.

Would you please sign and return the attached form.

Do not use a question mark in indirect speech.

The Director-General asked when the Annual Report would be completed.

5.12 EXCLAMATION MARK

Avoid using it.

5.13 OUOTATION MARKS

Double vs single quotation marks: Use double quotation marks (") first and single marks (') for quotations within quotations.

Short quotations: Short quotes of up to four lines or so are normally run into the surrounding text. They are set off by opening and closing quotation marks.

It has been said that, "A classic is something that everybody wants to have read and nobody wants to read."

Extended quotations should be indented and separated from the surrounding text by paragraph spacing before and after. No quotation marks are required with this distinctive layout.



Kirch and Dye (1979:55) have noted the following:

Ethnographers have provided a scholarly legacy, replete with detailed descriptions of indigenous hooks, traps, nets and the like . . . but sadly lacking in information which could answer such important questions as: How were these items used? In what specific micro-environments were they effective? At what phase of the tide, moon, or other significant environmental parameter were they used? What were the kinds of fish caught?

5.14 APOSTROPHE

Words ending in "s": Common and proper nouns and abbreviations ending in "s" form their singular possessive with 's, just like nouns ending in other letters.

Chris's document, a hostess's pay

5.15 PLURAL FORMS OF ABBREVIATIONS

These do not take an apostrophe. NGOs, FADs, EISs, VCRs

5.16 PLURALS OF NUMBERS

These do not take an apostrophe.
Pilots of 747s undergo special training.

5.17 ITALICS

The names of ships, vehicles and aircraft are italicised. Scientific names are also italicised. SV Nomad; FV Rachel; HMS Endeavour Cordyline terminalis; Caranx melampygus



The names of newspapers, books, SPC and SPREP publications, and journal names (appearing within running text) are italicised.

the New York Times, Zen and the Art of Motorcycle Maintenance, Environment Newsletter

Note this does not apply to lists of references (see Section 12).

6. NUMBERS

6.1 GENERAL

In nonstatistical or nontechnical documents write the numbers nine and below in words (except in a range such as 9–11); all others to be written as numerals.

In scientific writing, metric measure is the accepted form for expressing quantities.

6.2 WRITING OUT NUMBERS

Do not combine single-digit figures and words using hyphens (e.g. a 2-hour journey). a two-hour journey, a three-year period, a four-door car

With hundreds, thousands and so on, there is a choice of using figures or words.

300 or three hundred (not 3 hundred)

Million and billion, however, may be combined with figures.

million; 3 million; 31 billion

Try not to start a sentence with a figure or a symbol followed by a figure. These should be written out, or the sentence rephrased.



When two numbers are next to one another, it is often preferable to spell out one of them. ninety 50-gram weights, seventy 25-franc stamps

6.3 COMMAS WITH NUMBERS

Use a comma in numbers above 9999. 10,132; 654,321

6.4 NUMBERS WITH UNITS OF MEAS-URFMFNT

Always use figures with units of measurement denoted by symbols or abbreviations.

10°C, 1000 nm, 50 ml, 250 kW, 5 km or five kilometres, *but* not five km

However, numbers qualifying units of measurement that are spelled out may be written with figures.

250 kilowatts, 500 miles, 300 kilohertz

6.5 COMPOUND EXPRESSIONS

Compound expressions containing numbers must be hyphenated.

a seven-year-old wine; five-year plan

6.6 RANGES OF NUMBERS

from XPF 20 million to XPF 30 million between 10°C and 70°C

6.7 ABBREVIATED RANGE OF NUMBERS

If the symbol or multiple remains the same, insert a closed-up en dash between the figures. XPF 20–30 million; 10°–70°C

6.8 DATES AND TIME

Write out the month, preceded by a simple figure for the day, e.g. 23 July 1997. Use all four digits when referring to specific years (i.e. 1997 not '97).

Write a range of days as follows: 12–18 May 2000, 29 May–3 June 2000

When writing times using the 12-hour system, separate the hour and minute with a colon. Use a.m. or p.m. to indicate the division of the day.

4:30 a.m., 2:15 p.m., 12 noon

When using the 24-hour system, do not use any punctuation.

1430 (to express 2:30 p.m.); 0800 (to express 8:00 a.m.)

6.9 DECADES AND CENTURIES

When referring to decades and centuries, do not use an apostrophe.

the 1990s, the 1800s

Use a closed-up en dash with ranges of dates. 1870–1901, 1996–2006

NB: Do not truncate or shorten dates. 1990 to 1995 (not 1990–95), between 1990 and 1995 (not between 1990–95), 1990 to 1995 inclusive (not 1990–95 inclusive)



7. ABBREVIATIONS, ACRONYMS AND SYMBOLS

7.1 GENERAL

In general, write acronyms in uppercase. However, if an acronym has come to be regarded as a common word, it is lowercased.

AIDS, NGO, EEZ, WHO, ACIAR but scuba, radar

7.2 USING "AN" BEFORE AN ACRONYM

This should be based on the way an abbreviation is read. The choice of a or an depends on the pronunciation of the first letter.

a UN resolution; an SPC publication

7.3 USING "THE" BEFORE AN ACRONYM

Do not use "the" before an acronym or abbreviation, unless that acronym acts as an adjective.

SPC is a regional organisation. (*not*, The SPC is a regional organisation.)

7.4 SINGLE ABBREVIATED WORDS

These take a full stop unless the last letter of the word is included.

Jan., Sun., Co., fig., etc. *but* Mr, Mrs, Dr, Mme, Ltd

7.5 FOREIGN LANGUAGE ABBREVIATIONS

Untranslated foreign language abbreviations should retain the capitalisation and punctuation conventions of the original.



7.6 PER CENT SYMBOL

The per cent sign (%) sits directly next to the figure (i.e. no space), unlike French practice. Note that percentage is one word, but per cent is two words. In nontechnical text, spell out per cent rather than using the symbol.

7.7 UNITS OF MEASUREMENT AND SCIENTIFIC SYMBOLS

Names of basic and derived SI units of measurement are always lowercased when they are written out in full, even if they are derived from a personal name, such as ampere, kelvin, hertz, watt. They have normal plurals: 250 volts, 50 watts, 90 hertz.

Symbols for units of measurement are normally abridged forms of the names of these units. They are written without stops, with a space between the number and the unit, and do not have plurals (4 ha, 9 m, 10 lb, 20 psi). The first letter of an SI unit that is derived from a personal name is always capitalised: Hz (hertz), K (kelvin). Symbols derived from generic nouns are always lowercased: fl oz (fluid ounce), ft (foot), etc.

8. FOREIGN IMPORTS

8.1 FOREIGN WORDS AND PHRASES IN ENGLISH TEXT

Latin and other foreign language expressions that are not commonly used or considered part of the English language should be italicised (but not within quote marks) and should have the appropriate accents.

used *inter alia* as proof of payment; a possible *raison d'être* for these studies



Exceptions: words and phrases now in common use and/or considered part of the English language, such as angst, ennui, ad hoc, per capita, per se, vice versa.

8.2 DIACRITICAL MARKS

Diacritics are marks or symbols written above, below or between letters to indicate a difference in pronunciation from a letter without this mark, for example the French é and c or the Spanish ñ. Many Pacific Island languages also use diacritical marks, most commonly in the form of glottals for Polynesian words (Hawai'i, ahupua'a, Vava'u, Ha'apai). SPC and SPREP style, however, is to use diacritics in French documents only. The reason for this is that in addition to glottal stops, some Pacific Island languages use other types of diacritics as well, many of which are extremely difficult to make with the software we use. Perhaps more importantly though, there is no inhouse expert to check the accuracy of these notations. If the author feels that diacritics are justified for his/her document, then they will be responsible for ensuring the accurate use and placement of those marks. Perhaps one of the few exceptions to the use of diacritics with Pacific languages is when an organisation or institution specifically uses a diacritical mark in their name (e.g. the official way to write University of Hawai is with a mark between the two "i"s).

9. VERBS AND VERB FORMS

9.1 SINGULAR OR PLURAL

Use the singular verb form when referring to a whole entity (such as a country, institution or organisation).

The government *is* considering the matter, the advisory committee *has* met twice this year, the United States *is* reconsidering its position

Use the plural verb form when referring to individual members.

The police *have* failed to trace the goods.

A majority of the committee *were* in favour.

Writers are sometimes confused about whether to use a singular or plural verb when a collective noun comes after a singular subject. In this case, the verb is singular because the subject is.

One of the documents *is* missing, The number of plants *is* extraordinary

A singular verb form is common in English with a double subject if it is felt to form a whole.

Checking and stamping the forms *is* the job of the customs authorities.

The word "none" may take either a singular or plural verb.



9.2 WORDS ENDING IN -ICS

The sciences of mathematics, dynamics, kinetics, statistics and economics are singular. Statistics, meaning simply "figures", is plural; so too is economics in the sense of "commercial viability", as in: The economics of the new process were studied in depth.

9.3 SOME VERB FORMS

In UK usage, a final "I" is doubled after a single vowel on adding -ing or -ed.
total, totalling, totalled
level, levelling, levelled

The sole exception to this rule: parallel, paralleled.

Other consonants double only if the last syllable of the root verb is stressed or carries a strong secondary stress.

admit, admitting, admitted refer, referring, referred format, formatting, formatted

but

benefit, benefiting, benefited combating, combating, combated

Exception to this include a few verbs ending in -p (e.g. handicapped, kidnapped, worshipped).

IO. USTS AND TABLES

10.1 LISTS

Lists of short items (without main verbs) that appear in bullet form should be introduced by a full sentence and have the following features:

- introductory colon
- no initial capitals
- no punctuation (very short items) or comma after each item

Where each item completes the introductory sentence, you should:

- begin with the introductory colon;
- label each item (using no initial capital) with the appropriate bullet, number or letter;
- end each item with a semicolon; and
- close with a full stop.

If all items are complete sentences without a grammatical link to the introductory sentence, then:

- a. Introduce the list with a colon.
- b. Label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter.
- c. Start each item with a lowercase letter.
- d. End each one with a full stop.

Try to avoid running the sentence on after the list of points.

If any one item consists of several complete sentences, announce the list with a main sentence and continue as indicated below.

- a. Do not introduce the list with a colon.
- b. Label each item with the appropriate bullet, number or letter.
- c. Begin each item with a capital letter.
- d. End each item with a full stop. This allows several sentences to be included under a single item without throwing punctuation into confusion.
- e. The list of points may extend over several pages, making it essential not to introduce it with an incomplete sentence or colon.

10.2 TABLES, FIGURES AND GRAPHS

Table headings. Place table headings *above* the table. Diagrams, figures and graphs should be labelled *at the bottom*.



II. SCIENCE GUIDE

11.1 SCIENTIFIC NAMES (FAMILY, GENUS AND SPECIES)

The names of genera, species and subspecies (varieties, cultivars) are always italicised.

The initial letter of the genus in a scientific name is capitalised, while the species name is always lowercased, even if it is derived from a proper noun. Family names are not italicised.

Family: Araceae Genus: Colocasia

species: Colocasia esculenta

The genus name should be spelled out in full the first time it appears in the text and abbreviated thereafter: *Escherichia coli*, abbreviated *E. coli*. If another genus name is introduced into the text with the same initial as one already in use, then both genus names should be spelled out in full from that point on to avoid confusion.

11.2 COMMON OR VERNACULAR NAMES

Those that are familiar to the reader should not be bolded or italicised, but left the same as the surrounding text (e.g. a taro plant; a taboo area). They should also not be capitalised unless they include a proper name.

Galapagos shark, Asian papaya fruit fly, but, blacktip reef shark, melon fruit fly



I2. CITATIONS, REFERENCES AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES

12.1 SPC/SPREP STYLE

Different publishing houses and journals have their own style for formatting references. SPC and SPREP use a combination of the CBE Scientific Style and Format and the Vancouver system.

12.2 BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND LISTS OF REFERENCES

A list of references is not quite the same as a bibliography. A list of references gives a complete citation of all works cited in the text. A bibliography is a list of references, plus sources used in compiling the document but not necessarily cited within the text.

12.3 CITATIONS WITHIN TEXT

Use the author–date (also known as name–year) system: the author's surname and the year of publication (*without a comma separating the two*), and enclosed in round brackets.

The incidence of NCDs in the Pacific Region is increasing rapidly (McDonald 1999).

12.4 PUNCTUATION IN CITATIONS

A comma followed by a space separates citations of different references by the *same* author.

On average, women on Kosrae fish four times a week (Smith 1998, 1999a, 1999b).

Separate references by *different* authors by a semicolon.

Tuna stocks in the western and central Pacific Ocean will soon be extinct (Hampton 1998; Lawson 2000).

12.5 MULTIPLE AUTHORS

For two authors, use both surnames, joined by "and"; for three or more authors use the first author's surname, followed by "et al." (Dawson and Briggs 1996; Luciani et al. 1997)

NB: "et al." is not italicised, and takes a full stop.

12.6 REFERENCES (GENERAL)

In general, SPC uses minimal punctuation and capitalisation in all references.

Titles of foreign language works or names of publishers should not be translated into English or italicised.

Within a reference list, do not write out in full some journal names and abbreviate others. For example, the Journal of Pacific History can be abbreviated to J Pac Hist. Both are acceptable but only *one* form should be used within any given list of references or document.

12.7 JOURNAL ARTICLES

One author:

Johannes, R.E. 1982. Traditional conservation methods and protected areas in Oceania. Ambio 11(5):258–261.

Multiple authors:

Chou, R. and Lee, H.B. 1997. Commercial marine fish farming in Singapore. Aquaculture Research 28:767–776.



12.8 BOOK

Multiple authors:

Cambie, R.C. and Ash, J. 1994. Fijian medicinal plants. Australia: CSIRO. 365 p.

Editors as authors:

Gilman, A.G., Rall, T.W., Nies, A.S. and Taylor, P. (eds). 1990. The pharmacological basis of therapeutics. 8th edn. New York: Pergamon. 1811 p.

Chapter from a book:

Haines, A.K. 1982. Traditional concepts and practices and inland fisheries management. p. 279–291. In: Morauta, L., Pernetta, J. and Hearney, W. (eds). Traditional conservation in Papua New Guinea: Implications for today. Boroko: Institute for Applied Social and Economic Research.

12.9 PROCEEDINGS AND CONFERENCE REPORTS

Seret, B. and Sire, J-Y. (eds). 1999. 5th Indo-Pacific Fish Conference; 1997 3–8 November; Noumea, New Caledonia. Paris: Société Française d'Ichtyologie. 866 p.

Nietschmann, B. 1984. Indigenous island peoples, living resources, and protected areas. p. 333–343. In: National parks, conservation, and development: The role of protected areas in sustaining society. McNeely, J.A. and Miller, K.R. (eds). Proceedings of the World Congress on National Parks, Bali Indonesia, 11–22 October 1982. Washington D.C: Smithsonian Institute Press.

12.10 DISSERTATIONS AND THESES

Ritzmann, R.E. 1974. The snapping mechanism of Alpheid shrimps. PhD dissertation. Charlottesville (VA): University of Virginia. 59 p.

12.11 NEWSPAPER ARTICLES

Rensberger, B. and Specter, B. 1989 Aug 7. CFCs may be destroyed by natural processes. Washington Post; Sect A:2(col 5).

12.12 PUTTING REFERENCES IN ORDER

Two or more references by the same author, should be ordered by date; i.e. oldest first, most recent last.

Chapman, M.D. 1985. Environmental influences on the development of traditional conservation in the South Pacific region. Environmental Conservation 12(3):217–230.

Chapman, M.D. 1987. Women's fishing in Oceania. Human Ecology 15(3):267–287.

Several references where one or more authors is common to all of them:

Alcala, A.C. 1988. Effects of marine reserves on coral fish abundances and yields of Philippine coral reefs. Ambio 17:184–199.

Alcala, A.C. and Luchavex, T. 1981. Fish yield of the coral reef surrounding Apo Island, central Visayas, Philippines. Marine Biology 8:69–73.

Alcala, A.C. and Russ, G.R. 1990. A direct test of the effects of protective management on abundance and yield of tropical marine resources. Journal of Conservation 46:40–47.

Other examples:

Nunn, P. 1991. Causes of environmental changes on Pacific Islands in the last millennium. p. 8–19. In: Johnston, T. and Flenley, J.R. (eds). Aspects of environmental change. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Massey University Press.

Nunn, P. and Diamond, J. 1990. Sea level rise in the Pacific and the effects on human populations. Journal of Conservation 46:81–97.

Nunn, P., Diamond, J. and Allen, B.J. 1999. Climate change in the Pacific region. Pacific Ecology 23:15–23.

12.13 ELECTRONIC CITATIONS

Information on the Internet can appear and disappear with no notice or warning. Therefore, electronic citations are somewhat less reliable than hardcopy documentation such as iournal articles or books. Because of this, it is best to cite only websites that are relatively stable (e.g. that of an international organisation or government). Also, because web-based information is relatively new, conventions and guidelines for citing such information are subject to change and vary among different publishing houses. The main point is to provide the reader with enough information so that he or she can locate the website you are referencing, and that you are consistent in how you reference online material. SPC/SPREP conventions for citing websites and web-based information are outlined below.

12.14 REFERENCING A WEBSITE

To cite information within your document from an online source, include the name of

the source and the year it was posted, copyrighted or last updated. For example:

Papua New Guinea is home to more than 700 species of birds and of the 43 known species of bird of paradise, 38 species are found here — 36 of which are found nowhere else in the world (The Nature Conservancy 2002).

In your List of References, you would provide full details, including the name of the website, year the information was posted (copyrighted or last updated), the URL, and the date the information was retrieved from the Internet. For the example above, this would be: The Nature Conservancy. 2002. http://nature.org/wherewework/asiapacific/papuanewguinea/. Retrieved from the Internet 10 September 2002.

Another example:

Mahi mahi are a highly migratory species found in tropical and subtropical waters of the Indian, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans (FishBase 2001).

The full reference is: FishBase. 2001.

http://www.fishbase.org/Summary/ SpeciesSummary.cfm?genusname=Coryphaena &speciesname=hippurus. Retrieved from the Internet 02 July 2001.

12.15 REFERENCING A ONLINE JOURNAL ARTICLE

Stone, R. 2000. European Union to fund science in Balkan region. Science 290(5500):2230. http://www.sciencemag.org/cgi/content/full/2



90/5500/2230a. Retrieved from the Internet 18 July 2001.

Jacobson, J.W., Mulick, J.A. and Schwartz, A.A. 1995. A history of facilitated communication: Science, pseudoscience, and antiscience: Science working group on facilitated communication. American Psychologist 50: 750–765. http://www.apa.org/journals/jacobson.html. Retrieved from the Internet 25 January 1996.

I3. SPC/SPREP MEMBER COUNTRIES AND CURRENCIES

Country/ Territory Name	Inhabitants	Currency	Abbrevia— tion
American Samoa	Samoan	US dollar	USD
Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands	Chamorro	US dollar	USD
Cook Islands	Cook Islander	NZ dollar	NZD
Federated States of Micronesia	Micronesian	US dollar	USD
Fiji Islands	Fijian	Fiji dollar	FJD
French Polynesia	French Polynesian	Pacific franc	XPF
Guam	Chamorro	US dollar	USD
Kiribati	I-Kiribati	Australian dollar	AU
Marshall Islands	Marshallese	US dollar	USD
Nauru	Nauruan	Australian dollar	AUD
New Caledonia	Caledonian	Pacific franc	XPF
Niue	Niuean	NZ dollar	NZD
Palau	Palauan	US dollar	USD
Papua New Guinea	Papua New Guinean	kina	PGK
Pitcairn Islands	Pitcairn Islander	NZ dollar	NZD
Samoa	Samoan	tala	WST
Solomon Islands	Solomon Islander	SI dollar	SBD
Tokelau	Tokelauan	NZ dollar	NZD
Tonga	Tongan	paanga	TOP
Tuvalu	Tuvaluan	Australian dollar	AUD
Vanuatu	ni-Vanuatu	vatu	VUV
Wallis and Futuna	Wallisian and Futunan	Pacific franc	XPF

Currencies should be written as follows: USD 1,000,000 AUD 500,000.



14. SPC/SPREP SPELLING STYLE



aboard

acknowledgements

adviser

affect vs effect (affect is generally used as a verb, while effect is generally used as a noun.)
Water quality *affects* the well-being of corals; The net *effect* is the same.

agroforestry

ANOVA — analysis of variance

AOSIS — Alliance of Small Island States

 $\label{eq:auxald} \mbox{AusAID} - \mbox{Australian Agency for International} \\ \mbox{Development}$

Australasia



baitfish

beach seine

beche-de-mer

bigeye tuna

bilateral

biotechnology (one word)

blight-resistant taro

BMI (body mass index)

boatbuilder (one word)



boatowner (one word)

boatyard (one word)

brackish water (noun; mangroves are found in an area of brackish water.); brackish-water (adj; In brackish-water areas such as mangroves. . .)

branchline

breastfeeding, breastfed, breastmilk

bridge deck

butterflyfish

bycatch (one word)

byproduct



centre

clean-up (noun); to clean up (verb)

CMT — customary marine tenure

colour

community-based fisheries/ing

comprise vs compose (*comprise* means contain, not constitute; e.g. a zoo comprises animals — it's not *composed* of them)

continual vs continuous (continual means happening frequently but with breaks between occurences; continuous means uninterrupted, incessant. So, if you're continually on the Internet, it means you're off and on; if you're continuously on the Internet, it means you've been on all day without going off.

cooperate, cooperation (no hyphen)

CPUE (catch per unit of effort)



CRGA — Committee of Representatives of Governments and Administrations

criterion (sing.), criteria (pl.)

CROP — Council of Regional Organisations of the Pacific

CSIRO — Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation

curriculum (sing.); curricula (pl.)



data (a plural noun: the data show; *not*, the data shows)

database

decision-making

deep-bottom (e.g. deep-bottom fish)

deep-sea (adj.); deep-water (adj.)

deforestation

depth sounder (two words)

Deputy Director-General

DFID — Department for International Development

DFP — destructive fishing practices

Director-General

disk (not disc, in reference to computers)

distant-water fishing nations

drift net

DWFN — distant-water fishing nation



echo sounder

ecotourism

EEZ — exclusive economic zone

EIA — environmental impact assessment (also known as an EA or environmental assessment)

EIS — environmental impact statement

El Niño

email

ENSO — El Niño Southern Oscillation

ensure vs insure (Ensure means to make certain. *Insure* is what an insurance company does.)

EpiNet

epipelagic (one word)

EPIRB — emergency position-indicating radio beacon

EU — European Union

EU-funded



FAD — fish aggregating device

FAO — Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (NB: use "z" in this instance as this is how FAO writes it.)

FFA — Forum Fisheries Agency

field trip; field work (two words)

Fiji Islands (not just Fiji)



feasibility (not feasability)

floatline

focus, focusing, focused

ForSec - see PIFS

fresh water (noun; the fish is found in fresh water.); freshwater (adj; a freshwater fish.)



gamefishing

gamefishing boat

gastrointestinal

GDP — gross domestic product

GEF — Global Environment Facility

gill net (n.)

gillnetting (v.)

 ${\sf GIS-geographic\ information\ system}$

the government, Government of Fiji Islands

GPIRB (global position indicating radio beacon)

GPS (global positioning system)

groundwater, groundwork

grow-out

GRP (glass-reinforced plastic) (also known as FRP)



handline (noun); hand-line (adj.)

health care (noun); health-care (adj.)

HIV/AIDS

hook-and-line (fishing)

human resource development

hydroelectricity

hydrocarbon

hydropower



ice house/ice plant

ICLARM — see The World Fish Center

ICT — information and communications technology

in-depth (adj.)

input, inputting

intergovernmental

Internet

inshore

insure (see ensure)

interagency

interrelated

intertidal

IUU fishing — illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing



JICA — Japanese International Cooperation Agency



knowledgeable

knot (abbrev: kt)



labour

land breeze

landfill

landowner

landslide

La Niña

large-scale (adj.)

length-frequency

like (*Please* don't use this word if you mean "such as".)

longline fishing

longliner

long-term (adj: long-term plan)

low-grade (adj.)

lowland

low water (noun), low-water (adj.)

LRFFT — live reef fish food trade



mahi mahi (two words, no hyphen)
masterfisherman
MHLC — multilateral high level conference
midocean (noun) (The fish is found in midocean.)
multilateral



multi-layered

NCD (non-communicable disease)
nearshore (no hyphen)
neighbouring
NGO — non-governmental organisation
nonprofit
NZAID — New Zealand Agency for
International Development



offshore
onboard
ongoing (no hyphen)
onshore
open water (tuna are found in the open
water)
open-water (adj.) (tuna are open-water fish.)



organisation (with an "s" unless the name of an organisation uses a "z" such as Food and Agriculture Organization)

overexploitation (one word)

overfishing (one word)

overharvesting

overhaul



Pacific (this word should always be capitalised when referring to the ocean or the region)

Pacific Island countries and territories (lowercase the "c" and "t" in countries and territories but abbreviate as PICTs)

Pacific Islands; Pacific Islanders

PacNet

PACPOL — Pacific Ocean Pollution Prevention Programme

Pacific region

palu-ahi

parrotfish

part-time (adj. and adv.)

per diem

PHALPS — Permanent Heads of Agriculture and Livestock Production Services

PhD

PICs — Pacific Island countries

PICTs — Pacific Island countries and territories



Pidgin

PIDP — Pacific Islands Development Program

PIFS — Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat (formerly Forsec)

Pijin (Solomon Islands)

PINA — Pacific Islands News Association

pole-and-line gear/fishing

policy-maker/policy-making

post-harvest fisheries

proactive

programme (except in documents targetting US territories; *but* use program when you're talking about computer programs.)

provincial governments

purse seine, purse seiner, purse seining. *But*, a purse-seine fishery, a purse-seine vessel.



rainwater

rainforest

reef flat

regrowth

resurvey

RDF - radio direction finder

runoff

RSW — refrigerated seawater





salt water (n; tuna are found only in salt water); saltwater (adj; a saltwater species)

satnav

school-leaver

scuba (write in lower case)

seabed

seabird

sea breeze

seafarer

seagrass

sea level (n.); sea-level (adj.)

seamount

sea surface temperature

sea wall

seawater (n. and adj.)

semi-subsistence

sewage (waste matter); sewerage (system for

removing sewage)

shallow water (n.); shallow-water (adj.)

shoreline

shortlist

short-term (adj.); short term (n.)

size-class (n.)

skipjack tuna

small-boat (adj; small-boat harbour)



small boat (n; an alia is a small boat)

small-scale fishery

socio-economic

Solomon Islands not the Solomon Islands

SOPAC — South Pacific Applied Geoscience Commission

Southeast Asia (no hyphen)

South Pacific Biodiversity Conservation Programme

SPC — Secretariat of the Pacific Community

SPC/Nelson Polytechnic Fisheries Officers Training course

Sportfishing

SPREP — South Pacific Regional Environment Programme

SPTO — South Pacific Tourism Organisation

State of the Environment Report

STI (sexually transmitted infection)

subspecies

substandard

subtropical (no hyphen)

supervisor

sustainable



taboo

Taiwan/ROC (not just Taiwan)

target, targeted, targeting



that vs which (that defines, which informs.

The translations, which have been revised, can now be typed. (*which* in this instance adds detail and indicates that all the translations been revised)

The translations that have been revised can now be typed. (*that* in this case defines what exactly is to be typed, i.e. only those translations that have been revised are to be typed)

TEK — traditional environmental knowledge

TMK — traditional marine knowledge

topsoil

transshipment (yes, two ss)



UNCLOS — United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea

underdeveloped

underutilised

underwater (one word, no hyphen)

underwater visual census

UNDP — United Nations Development Programme

UNEP — United Nations Environment Programme

UNESCO — United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNFPA — United Nations Fund for Population Activities

upgrade

UNIFEM — United Nations Fund for Women

usable

user-friendly

USP — University of the South Pacific



vector-borne disease

videotape

VMS — vessel monitoring system



wage-earner

watercourse

watershed

the Web

webpage

website

Westernstyle

Westernisation

western Pacific

western and central Pacific Ocean

which (*which* informs, *that* defines, "This is the house that Jack built." *But*, "This house, which Jack built, is now falling down."

whitetip shark

WHO — World Health Organization



wide-ranging

wild-caught fish

WIPO — World Intellectual Property Organization

woodchipping

workforce

workload

The World Fish Center (formerly called ICLARM)

NB: use "er" ending, not "re". This is how the organisation writes it.

World Heritage Site status

worldwide

WWF - World Wide Fund for Nature



yellowfin tuna

