Global Water Partnership

GWPO COMMUNICATIONS

Style Guide

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Contents

Introduction

This is a guide to GWPO's preferred style. It should be used for all GWPO publications to provide consistency in language style and formatting. This is important for an organization like GWPO, which is an authority on water issues, producing publications for many different audiences.

The aim of this guide is to indicate our preferences where there are no set rules on what is right or wrong, and to act as a quick reference for common points of inconsistency or uncertainty. It is by no means intended to cover every detail; there are several very comprehensive guides that give information on copy-editing in general, and on specific rules of grammar, spelling etc. In this respect the key documents you should refer to for further clarification include:

The Concise Oxford English Dictionary, Eleventh Edition, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2004

The Chicago Manual of Style, 14th Edition, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1993

Writing style and choice of words

For more detail on how to ensure your writing is clear and concise, see Appendix 1 (reproduced with permission from IPGRI Style Guide, Version 2, September 2000). As general rules: use simple words rather than jargon; omit superfluous words and empty phrases; if a technical term is needed for a general readership, explain it. It is fine to split infinitives if it would interrupt the flow not to.

Similarly you can start sentences with conjunctions and end them with prepositions if this helps the reader/flow of text. 'Which' should be used only to introduce clauses that can be removed from the sentence without affecting the meaning (non-restrictive clauses). 'That' should be used to introduce clauses that have to be included in order for the sentence to make sense (restrictive clauses), e.g.

Plants that flower only once before dying are called annuals.

The flowers, which were red, had a wonderful scent.

Avoiding use of sexist/racist language

Reword any texts that show a sexist or racist bias in terms of content or language, and avoid making generalizations about the characteristics of any nationality or ethnic/racial group. See Appendix 2 for detailed notes on non-sexist language (reproduced with permission from *IPGRI Style Guide*, Version 2, September 2000). Non-sexist alternatives for commonly encountered terms are given below in the Box 1.

Box 1: Non-sexist alternatives

Sexist term	Recommended alternative
Businessman	Business manager, executive, head of firm, agent, representative, business traveller: (pl) business community, business people
Cameraman	Photographer, camera operator, (pl) camera crew
Chairman	President or chair Use chairman/chairwoman when an established body is referred to and when a specific known person is meant (spokesman, etc.) For all new bodies set up, use president or chair
Domestics, maids, servants	Domestic workers
Forefathers	Ancestors, forebears
Foreman	Supervisor
Frenchmen, etc.	The French
Freshmen	First-year students
Gentleman's agreement	Unwritten agreement, agreement based on trust
Girl Friday, man Friday	Aide, key aide, assistant, helper
Lady	(see Appendix 2) Use lady only as a parallel to gentleman. Lady has become debased and its use is often jocular
Man, mankind	People, humanity, human beings, humankind, the human species, the human race, we, ourselves, men and women, *Homo sapiens*, one, the public, society
Man a project	To staff a project, hire personnel, employ staff
Man power	Staff, labour, work force, personnel, workers, human resources, human power, human energy
Man (as a verb)	Operate, work, staff serve at (or on or in)
Man-hours	Work-hours, labour time

Spelling

GWPO preferred spelling is UK English.

For UK English spellings, use the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (compact online version available at http://www.askoxford.com/dictionaries/compact_oed/?view=uk).

The words in Box 2 are never spelled with a z.

Never change the spelling of proper names to be consistent with the rest of the text. See the acronyms list in Appendix 4 for use of z or s in names of specific organiz/sations and for Center/Centre, etc.

Use a search and replace for instances of ize/ise, iza/isa etc. but accept each one individually; never do a global replace because of the exceptions and proper names.

Box 2: Exceptions

advertise	disfranchise	
advise	disguise	mortise
affranchise		
advertise	disfranchise	precise
apprise (inform)	enfranchise	premise
arise	enterprise	prise (open)
braise	excise	reprise
chastise	exercise	revise
circumcise	expertise	
comprise	franchise	supervise
compromise	guise	surmise
concise	improvise	surprise
demise		televise
despise	merchandise	treatise
devise	misadvise	

Plurals

The plural forms of foreign, especially Latin and Greek, words in English are often confused, e.g. 'criteria' is often used as if it were singular. For some words two plurals are possible, each reserved for a specific context, e.g. (Box 3 a and b).

In general, use the Latin plural, e.g. criteria, wherever possible. Watch out in particular for the use of 'data'. It is the Latin plural and so should take a plural verb: 'The data show that…'

Agenda: although derived from the Latin word, which is in a plural form, as a borrowed word in English the word is singular, and the plural is 'agendas'.

Box 3a: Plural and singular forms

Singular	Plural
appendix (of a book)	appendixes
appendix (anatomical or zoological term)	appendices
formula (chemical, mathematical)	formulae
formula (definition, recipe)	formulas
index (mathematical)	indices
index (of a book)	indexes

Box 3b: Note also

Singular	Plural
apparatus	apparatus
biennium	biennia
corrigendum	corrigenda
criterion	criteria
datum	data

Country names

It is important that the correct and up-to-date names of countries are used. For a complete list of definitive spelling/usage of country names go to:
http://www.iso.org/iso/country_names_and_code_elements
http://www.commondatahub.com/live/geography/state_province_region/iso_3166_2_state_codes
These sources are automatically updated when the UN makes any changes.

Use ISO 3166-1 codes for country names and ISO 3166-2 :2007 for principal sub-divisions.

Internet terms

Do not capitalize/hyphenate the following internet terms:

- the internet
- the world wide web
- the web
- website
- web page/home page

- email, ebusiness etc.
- online/offline

CD-ROM should be hyphenated.

All computer programmes should be capitalized as per their registered names: Adobe Acrobat, PowerPoint, Word, WordPerfect etc.

When referring to a website in text, preferably put it in parentheses as follows (www.gwp.org). If it must be part of the sentence, then aim to display it or avoid putting it at the end of a sentence so no confusion is caused by the full stop at the end. Leave http:// or https:// etc. in front of the address if given.

Abbreviations and acronyms

Minimize the use of acronyms and abbreviations. If an acronym only occurs a couple of times in a document then little is gained by using it and it simply confuses the reader. Avoid beginning a sentence with an acronym/abbreviation if at all possible.

Define all acronyms the first time they are used:

The World Health Organization (WHO) …

They may then be used alone:

According to a WHO spokesperson ...

Box 4: Abbreviations and acronyms

HIV/AIDS	NATO	CD-ROM
UK	UN	DVD
Ph.D.	USA	a.m.
BC	AD	p.m.

The exception to this is if the abbreviation or acronym is used more often than the full form (in which case they can be spelled out if wanted but don't have to be). Examples include in the Box 4.

Common sense and readability should prevail.

It is generally good practice to spell out acronyms used in preliminary items such as a Foreword, Preface or even Executive Summary again the first time they appear in the main text in case the reader did not read those items.

Avoid using acronyms in headings.

If an abbreviation/acronym can be pronounced (e.g. NATO, UNESCO) it does not necessarily require the definite article. Other organizations should usually be preceded by 'the' e.g. the BBC, the CGIAR, the UNDP. But GWP is normally used without 'the'.

In tables it is generally better to use acronyms within the table and then spell out the acronyms as a footnote to the table.

Be very careful to get the spelling of the organization correct when spelling out acronyms, especially with regard to ise/ize spellings and centre vs. center. See Appendix 4 for a comprehensive list.

If referring to the plural of an acronym, add an 's', e.g. NGOs. Note that most acronyms do not have full stops, e.g. FAO, not F.A.O.

If an acronym is for an organization whose name is in a foreign language then give the definition in the language of origin first and then its English translation afterwards, e.g.:

> The Centro Internacional de Mejoramiento de Maíz y Trigo (CIMMYT; the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center) …

In the acronym list this should appear as:

CIMMYT	*Centro Internacional de Mejoramiento de Maíz y Trigo (International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center)*

Acronyms lists should follow the same capitalization as in the text, e.g.:

CGIAR	*Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research*
NGO	*Non-governmental organization*

Punctuation

Punctuation is intended as an aid to clarity of expression. The key reason for punctuation is to assist the reader in understanding the exact meaning. Use the minimum punctuation possible.

Full stops

Leave only one letter space after a full stop at the end of a sentence. Use full stops for abbreviations such as e.g. and i.e. and M.Sc. and Ph.D. which are true abbreviations not contractions.

Do not use full stops:

- after contractions, i.e. when the last letter of an abbreviated word is the same as that of the original word, e.g. in people's titles: Mr, Mrs, Ms, Dr, or Ltd (limited company), St (Saint)
- in acronyms, e.g. FAO, UK, USA
- after a heading or a running head.

Commas

Use commas to separate items in a list as follows:

> sheep, goats, and oxen

Commas can also be used to indicate a short pause:

> It is a frustrating book, mainly because it is so short.

They can also be used in pairs to 'bracket' words or phrases:

The variety, which tolerated salt, was very valuable.

A comma is normally used after 'however' when used as a conjunct, but not when used as an intensifier:

However, the rainy season is very short.

However hard he tries, he never attains his goal.

A comma is not necessary after an adverbial phrase unless it is required for clarification:

After a period of calm, college students are gradually settling back into their work.

(Not 'calm college students'.)

A comma should not be used after i.e. and e.g.

Semicolons

Use a semicolon to join two main clauses/sentences that are linked because they comment on each other – a colon is not appropriate:

Rigorous safety measures are in force; these reflect the lessons learned from past mistakes.

Use a semicolon before 'however', 'moreover', 'furthermore', 'nevertheless' when these are used as transitional conjunctions:

Flooding was widespread in the spring; however, crops were protected by hastily built dams.

Colons

Colons are normally used to introduce a list, a long quote or a definition. They follow words that have prepared the reader for what is to come and point forward to an explanation or example:

The main problem facing scientists in this field is not a technical issue but one of perception by others: how to gain acceptance for their work by the general public.

Colons should be followed by a lower-case letter unless followed by a complete sentence:

Land-use planning can be expressed in the following questions: What is the present situation? Is change desirable?

They are also used to introduce a quotation that is not contained within the line, and to introduce lists.

Parentheses/brackets

(When a complete sentence is enclosed in parentheses, its punctuation is also enclosed.)

When only part of a sentence is enclosed in parentheses, punctuation is placed outside (as in this example).

(Use square brackets [if needed] within parentheses.)

En rules

Use spaced en dashes rather than em dashes when used as an alternative to parentheses/commas. They should not be overused; not more than once per paragraph.

An unspaced en rule should be used for all ranges, i.e. in place of the word 'to', e.g. 10–12 years, pp. 36–42.

They should not be used when the word 'from' appears in front of the numbers, e.g.:

> the war lasted from 1988 to 1991.

They should also be used to represent a link between two organizations, e.g. DFID–AHP; or between any linked items of equal standing, e.g. push–pull technology.

Hyphens

Hyphens should be used sparingly.

They should be used in compound adjectives:

> 6-week mission
>
> 35-year-old woman
>
> up-to-date technique
>
> long-term investment
>
> rain-fed ecosystem

But not if the compound adjective follows a noun:

> The woman was 35 years old
>
> The technique was up to date
>
> The investment was long term
>
> The ecosystem is rain fed

They may be needed in adjectival phrases to clarify meaning. For example, if you write 'neglected crops coordinator' this can mean a coordinator of neglected crops, or a crops coordinator who is neglected. Using a hyphen makes the correct meaning clear:

> neglected-crops coordinator

For hyphenation of compound words, refer to the first version given in the OED. The main consideration is consistency and the avoidance of ambiguity. Compile/use a quick reference sheet to keep track of decisions made.

As a general rule do not use hyphens for common prefixes such as un-, non-, multi-, post-, pre-, etc. unless:

- needed to avoid double vowels or triple consonants in less usual compound words which would make the solid form difficult to read, understand or pronounce, e.g. pre-empt
- capitalization is required, e.g. sub-Saharan Africa, non-Asian.

Do not hyphenate adverbial clauses such as 'centrally planned economies' or 'environmentally sound development.'

In proper nouns, use upper case for all principal hyphenated words, e.g. European Commission for the Control of Foot-and-Mouth Disease. However, do not capitalize after the hyphen where a prefixed word is used, e.g. Global Confederation of World Food Day Non-governmental Organizations.

Box 5: Preferred hyphenation of some common GWP terms

non-governmental	subregion	multi-stakeholder
policy-maker/ing	coordinate	sub-Saharan
decision-maker/ing	cooperate	database

Don't add/remove hyphens in proper nouns to make them consistent with the rest of the text.

Apostrophes

Apostrophes either indicate missing letters (can't, won't) or signify possession.

To indicate possession in the singular the apostrophe comes before an s: a reader's letter (the letter of one reader); whilst in the plural it comes after the s: several readers' letters (the letters of several readers).

Do not use an apostrophe when referring to decades, e.g. the 1960s (not the 1960's) since the s denotes the plural, not the possessive; similarly, do not use an apostrophe to form the plural of acronyms (NGOs, not NGO's). Though do use one to indicate possession (e.g. the UN's Secretary-General, Ban Ki-moon, was reported as saying…)

Note that 'it's' is a contraction of it is, while 'its' is the possessive pronoun, e.g. It's something important, but its importance is relative.

Quotation marks/inverted commas

Single quotes (inverted commas) should be used for enclosing a technical or humourous word, for emphasis or definition of a word or words, and where the intention is 'so-called' or metaphorical, e.g.

The undisputed ‘king’ of rock…

The three ‘E’s (Equity, Efficiency, Ecosystems)

Double quotes should only be used for direct quotations.

For quotes, punctuation not referring to the quote itself falls outside the quotation marks:

Mr Vinci said he was “very concerned about the state of water resources in sub-Saharan Africa”.

However, where a complete sentence is quoted the full stop should fall within the quotation marks:

Mr Vinci said he was “very concerned about the state of water resources in sub-Saharan Africa. Donors need to take urgent action.”

Exclamation and question marks always appear within the quotes.

Where one quotation appears within another, the outer quotation takes double quotes, and the inner quotation single:

“When we say ‘urgent’, we mean the day before yesterday,” said the originator.

When a quotation is interrupted by words such as ‘she said’, a comma inside the quotation marks represents the punctuation in the original speech:

“We will do it by Friday,” she said, “so the deadline will be respected.”

If, however, the words quoted are continuous, then the comma does not belong to the quotation and goes outside the quotation marks:

“We will do it”, she said, “by Friday.”

Where there are several consecutive paragraphs of speech, open quotation marks at the beginning of the first and every following paragraph; close the quotation marks only at the end of the final paragraph.

Reported speech does not require quotation marks:

He said he had thoroughly tested the procedures.

Elipses

When indicating an omission in text, use three dots with one letter space before and after **…** as here, or four to include the full stop at the end of a sentence.

Numbers

Numbers from one to ten inclusive should be spelled out in text as words, and numbers 11 upwards should be written as numerals, with the following exceptions:

- a number that begins a sentence is always written out as a word, e.g. Fifteen NGOs were present, though try and reword sentences to avoid them starting with a number
- where a number accompanies a unit, e.g. 5 cm, 7 percent, US$2;
- all numbers with a decimal point should be written as numerals, e.g. 15.6; if the number is below unity then a zero should always be added before the decimal point, e.g. 0.5.
- when numbers above and below 11 are used for comparison in the same sentence, or when they simply appear close to each other in the text, in which case make all the same (either spelled out or numerals whichever is the clearest to the reader), e.g. The number of replies varied, ranging between 2 and 12 per group. Spell out numbers or write in full if confusion is likely to be caused by the use of numerals:

The inoculation experiments were conducted on 50 five-day-old plants.

Spell out ordinal numbers as you would cardinal numbers: third, sixth, ninth, 11th, 25th, 33rd.

Use commas to denote thousands, millions, etc. (e.g. 5,000, 10,000, 150,000,000). Use hard (non-breaking) spaces to avoid awkward number divisions at the end of lines. Always align numbers decimally to the right in tables etc. unless there is a huge variation in values, e.g. 0.0000005 and 1 500 000, in which case it is best just to right align (as normally the values are for unassociated items in this instance).

Write fractions in words rather than numbers: one third.

For telephone and fax numbers, be consistent in the use of hyphens, parentheses or spaces. Recommended is: +44 (0)1392 678224 (for a number where the zero in the area code is omitted when dialling from abroad, space between prefix and main number).

Units

Use SI units and the metric system (tonnes, hectares, etc.), with equivalents in parentheses if necessary. There should be a single space between the number and the unit: 1 cm, 6 mm, 5 g, 10 ha. The exceptions are degrees and percentages: 30°C, 5%.

Avoid abbreviating the word litre apart from in tables (as 'l' is confusing in text).

Use percent (not per cent or %) in text:

Exports increased by 16 percent in the last quarter.

But use % in tables and graphs, e.g. 16% (with no space between the number and the symbol). Also use % if there are lots of instances in the text and it will make things easier for the reader.

Units are not written as plurals:

1 tonne, 50 tonne

See http://physics.nist.gov/cuu/Units/units.html

and

See also outside rules on the same web site which deal with the issue of litre (L).

Dates

Write dates in this order: Monday, 16 October 2000 (with no comma between the month and the year).

Do not use stops in BC and AD. To be religion neutral CE (Common Era) and BCE (Before the Common Era) are preferred to BC and AD.

Do not abbreviate years: 1990, not '90.

A range of dates is normally indicated thus: 1995–1996 or from 1995 to 1996. This implies the whole period from the beginning of 1995 to the end of 1996 inclusive, whereas 1995/1996 implies one crop or fiscal year of 12 months starting in 1995 and ending in 1996.

Do not omit part of the date unless there is a particular reason (e.g. to fit text in a table) i.e. use 1995–1996 rather than 1995–96.

Centuries should be written out in full: the twenty-first century.

Time

The use of the 24-hour system is preferred (e.g. 0800 hours, 1330 hours). If it is necessary to use the 12-hour system, use full stops as follows: 8 a.m. and 1.30 p.m.

Currencies

Abbreviations such as US$ and UK£ may be further abbreviated to $ and £ if defined in an explanatory note. In these two cases, there is no space between the abbreviation and the amount, e.g. US$45 000.

ISO 4217 currency codes can be found at http://www.oanda.com/help/currency-iso-code-country

Be consistent in usage of currencies in the text. Ask the client to convert all amounts to the same currency so that the reader can make a comparison between figures. It is not helpful to say that e.g. Sweden donated 10 million Euros and the US donated 250 million dollars. Convert to one or the other.

Capitalization

Avoid excessive use of capital letters in text. Ensure consistency in usage throughout the document. Note decisions made on the quick reference sheet.

Proper nouns and adjectives should have initial capitals.

In headings, subheadings, captions and book titles, use capitals only for the initial letter of the first word and proper nouns.

When referring to a specific case, use a capital letter:

The French Government ruled that ....

When using a word generically, use a lower-case letter:

All participating governments were asked to comment on the ruling.

Follow the same rule for job titles, i.e. use capitals when referring to a specific person, e.g. 'the Prime Minister, David Cameron…' but lower case when generalizing, e.g. 'the leader of a government is normally called a prime minister or president ….'

Use a capital letter in recognized place/region names (South Africa, Southeast Asia) but lower case in general areas (northern Europe, southern Africa).

Italics

Use italics for:

- binomial scientific names
- mathematical variables (but best to follow author's usage if consistent)
- names of genes
- publication (but not article) titles when referred to in the text, e.g. *The Lancet* is a respected scientific medical journal
- foreign words and phrases that are not in common use (the meaning of which should follow in parentheses), e.g. *sangha* (self-help group). This does not include latin terms - ad hoc, inter alia, etc. Remember that what may be common in one discipline may not be common use in another.

Avoid using italics for emphasis, use single quotes instead.

Lists

If a list is made up of a few short items then it is generally best to keep it running on within the text. For longer items the list should be displayed for clarity. Use bullet lists where the sequence is not important, and numbered lists where there is a hierarchy or the order is important.

Random lists/bullets

Lists entries should use initial lower-case letters with no punctuation except for the final entry, which ends with a full stop:

There are several ways to reduce insect-transmitted diseases:

- use of mosquito nets
- spraying livestock with insecticides
- using bait traps.

When entries consist of complete sentences, begin each with a capital letter and end each with a full stop.

Numbered lists

Numbered lists should only be used where the sequence of events or hierarchy is important, e.g.:

The project was organized in five phases:

1. Problem identification
2. Diagnostic research
3. Technology development and evaluation
4. Technology dissemination
5. Impact assessment.

Numbered list items should always start with an initial cap, but full stops should only be used at the end of the last item, unless the items are full sentences.

Tables

Make sure that a table is necessary and facilitates the reader's understanding of the text and does what it says it does. Table captions should be succinct and should follow the form:

Table 1.1. Table caption text

Sources should be put as a footnote to the table in the following form and should come after any other footnotes:

Source: Smith and Jones (2012).

Source: adapted from data collected in mapping exercise by GWP.

Column and row headings should have initial capital for the first word and proper nouns only. Make them bold to differentiate them from the table contents. Units should be in parentheses.

Table and figure titles, and source information should not be in italics.

Avoid blanks in tables; insert zero, N/A (not applicable) or an en rule as appropriate to make it clear that data haven't been omitted inadvertently.

Figures

As for tables, make sure that figures do what they say.

Figure captions should follow the form:

Figure 1. Description of what is shown in figure. Source: adapted from Smith and Jones (2012).

Figure axes labels should have initial capital for first word and proper names only. Units should be in parentheses.

Boxes

Box headings (if appropriate) should follow the form:

Box 1. Heading of box

Sources, if any, should be put at the end of the box on a new line in the form:

Source: interview with study leader.

Source: adapted from Smith and Jones (2012).

Cross references

Reference citations are dealt with in the references section.

Figures, tables and boxes should take an initial capital when talking about a specific item, e.g.:

- Figure 3 shows…
- See Table 2.1 for…
- A detailed case study is given in Box 6.
- (see Fig. 1.1)
- (see Box on 'How X made a difference')
- (see pp. 6–8)

The word 'Figure' should be abbreviated to Fig. unless it is at the beginning of a sentence.

Footnotes/endnotes

Try and avoid footnotes/endnotes if possible. If essential use superscript numbers to identify and use continuous numbering throughout the document, rather than per section unless otherwise specified.

Copyright

In general, copyright covers the format and presentation of information or data, not the information itself. You cannot copyright the depth of the sea, for instance, but could copyright a table showing comparative depths at several locations.

When writing, if it is necessary to reproduce material that is copyright, the authorization of the copyright holder (publisher and/or author) must be obtained and acknowledged. Authorization must be obtained for the reproduction of any drawing, diagram, graph, table or photograph, even if the original material has been slightly altered or certain parts have been omitted. In any case, the source of the information should always be cited at the bottom of a table or diagram.

A 'reasonable' amount of words may be quoted direct for review or discussion. 'Reasonable' is open to interpretation. The legal concept of 'fair dealing' differs from country to country. In the UK, for example, permission is not required to reproduce a single prose extract of up to 400 words, or a series of extracts up to a total of 800 words, provided that each is less than 300 words.

All authorizations must be obtained in writing. It is the author's responsibility to obtain permission. The form of acknowledgement requested by the publisher/copyright owner should be followed.

References and bibliography

The key thing to remember with references is to provide the reader with sufficient information so they can find the material in question easily. (Explain this idea to authors when requesting missing reference information if they are reluctant to make the effort to find it.)

If the references are already fairly consistent then use whatever style the author has used, correcting any inconsistencies and using the basic principles/guidelines here to request any missing data/format anything that is unusual. If the references are inconsistently styled then follow the style/rules given here.

Text citation

Text references to entries in the reference list should follow the author–date system and should be in alphabetical order when multiple citations at one time:

(Green et al., 1980; Johnson and Jones, 1975, 1982; Smith, 1978) or

Smith (1990, 1992) reported that…

When there are three or more authors abbreviate to et al**.** in the text (but not in the bibliography).

When an author has more than one work in the same year use a, b, etc. to differentiate between them, e.g. 2000a, 2000b. In the text this can be shortened to Smith (2000a, b).

Titles of books and journals and names of newspapers should be italicized in the text (do not use inverted commas). Titles of articles and chapters are not italicized.

Personal communications should not be cited in the bibliography but appear only in the text, e.g. (J. Wright, personal communication, 2000).

Arrangement of entries in list

Arrange reference entries alphabetically, with surname(s) of author(s) first and then by date of publication. When the first author is the same in a set of entries with two, three, or more authors, arrange them in the following order:

Smith, R.P. and Clegg, M.D. (1962)

Smith, R.P. and York, G.T. (1950)

Smith, R.P., Saxena, M.C. and Zilch, O.D. (1950)

Smith, R.P., Andrews, J.G., Judd, R.W. and Johnson, H. (1952)

Smith, R.P., York, G.T. and Clegg, M.D. (1970)

(i.e. for two authors follow alphabetization of surnames over dates, for more than 2 authors date takes precedence over alphabetization of second author).

See Appendix 3 for guidelines on alphabetisation of names beginning with St, Van, de la etc. and non-Western names.

Basic rules for formatting references

Abbreviations and contractions: please use the following with full stops and lower or upper case as shown:

Ed./Eds	editor/editors
Edn	edition
et al.	et alii (and others) (Note only to be used in text citations)
p./pp.	page/pages
Vol.	volume
No.	number

Acronyms: organisations and institutions should be spelled out in full if cited as 'author' and/or publisher/producer but an acronym can be used elsewhere in the ref, for example, in is a series such as FAO Technical Report, providing the full name appears either as 'author' or 'publisher/producer'.

Anon: avoid if possible. If no obvious authors or editors exist, use the name of the organization/institute/corporation. Sometimes it may be appropriate to use the name of the funding body/bodies, e.g. World Bank.

Authors' names: surnames should followed by initials with full stops but no space between initials. In multi-author works 'and' should be used between the last two authors. Do not use et al. in the bibliography, though it should be used for citation in the text for three or more authors.

Dates: should be given as 16 June–15 July 2010 or 14–20 July 2010.

Editions and volumes: Volume number should follow title of book; if each volume has a separate title, the title should be given in full. Edition should follow volume if both apply.

Italics: journal and book/report titles and Latin scientific names should be italicized (unless Latin name is in already italicized text in which case it should be roman). Titles of papers and theses are not italicized.

ISBN and ISSN numbers: These should be included at the end of a reference if given as they provide an easy means of locating publications, but don't chase authors for them if not provided.

Online material: For material that is available online, as well as in hardcopy, add a line at the end of the reference with the full web address. See the example under Journal below.

Languages: list all languages in which materials have been produced, unless English only, in square brackets at the end of the reference.

Publisher's location: Particularly important for publishers/producers that are relatively obscure. Provide city and country (and state if in US), e.g. John Wiley, Chichester, UK. If there are multiple publishers then put Publisher, Location, Country and Publisher, Location, Country.

Year: This should be in brackets or if not yet published then (in press), (submitted) or (in preparation) as appropriate should be inserted in place of the year.

Examples of styling of references

Journal articles

Bennison, J.J., Akinbamijo, O.O., Jaitner, J., Dempfle, L., Hendy, C.R.C. and Leaver, J.D. (1999) Effects of nutrition pre-partum and post-partum on subsequent productivity and health of N'Dama cows infected with Trypanosoma congolense. *Animal Science*, **68**(4): 819–829. Also available at: http://www.animalscience.com/vol684/bennison.doc

Notes: The journal name should be in full in italic, including series if necessary, e.g. *Transactions of the Royal Society (Series A).*

Volume number in bold, followed by non-bold issue number or month in brackets (if given).

Page range in full, i.e. 455–495

Authored book/report

Van Veldhuizen, L., Waters-Bayer, A. and De Zeeuw, H. (1997) *Developing Technology with Farmers: a Trainer's Guide for Participatory Learning*. Zed Books, London, UK. ISBN: 0 85954 463-X.

Institutional authorship

Citing the publisher as a corporate author is clearer than a long list of anonymous authors in the reference list.

Food and Agriculture Organization (2000) *FAO Production Yearbook 1999*. FAO Basic Data Unit, Statistics Division, Rome, Italy.

Annual reports

International Center for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas (2010) *Annual Report 2009*. ICARDA, Aleppo, Syria.

Edited (rather than authored) book

Scoones, I. and Thompson, J. (Eds) (1994) *Beyond Farmer First: Rural People's Knowledge, Agricultural Research and Extension Practice. Vol. 1*. International Institute of Environment and Development, London, UK and Intermediate Technology Publications Ltd., London, UK.

Paper/chapter in a book/report etc.

Carvalho, G.R. and Hauser, L. (1995) Genetic impacts of fish introductions: an African perspective. pp. 457–493. In: *The Impact of Species Changes in African Lakes* (Pitcher, T.J. and Hart, P.J.B., Eds). Chapman & Hall Fisheries Series No. 18. Chapman & Hall, London, UK.

Hastings, G. (1908, reprinted 1966) The production of Cajanus indicus (arhar), pp.196–220. In: *The Farm Products of India* (Rao, D.M. and Murphy, R.E., Eds). Vol. 3. Today and Tomorrow Printer and Publishers, New Delhi, India.

Full edited proceedings

Random, Z. (Ed.) (2005) *Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on Water*. Cairo, Egypt, 20–23 May 2004. Global Water Partnership, Stockholm, Sweden.

Nother, A.N. and Person, A. (Eds) (1982) Making a Difference. *Proceedings of a Workshop on Sustainable Agriculture*. Nairobi, Kenya, 15 June 1982. International Agricultural Research Centre, Nairobi, Kenya.

Note: The title of the publication should be in italic. If the title doesn't indicate the actual name of the workshop/proceedings then add it in as shown in the second example.

The name of the workshop/conference is obviously a proper name and so should have initial caps.

The sponsoring institute takes the author's place if there are no editors.

Papers/abstracts within edited proceedings

Riley, L.O. (1997) Integrated water resources management, pp. 97–108. In: *Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on Water* (Z. Random, Ed.). Cairo, Egypt, 20–23 May 2004. Global Water Partnership, Stockholm, Sweden.

Smithers, W. (2003) Integrated water resources management, p. 8. In: *Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on Water* (Z. Random, Ed.). Cairo, Egypt, 20–23 May 2004. Global Water Partnership, Stockholm, Sweden. [Abstract]

Oral presentations and lectures (including slide and PowerPoint), poster displays

Dillon, B. and Marley, B. (1998) How to talk at conferences – a practical approach. Paper presented at FAO/DANIDA (Food and Agriculture Organization/Danish International Development Agency) Workshop for English-Speaking African Countries. Walvis Bay, Namibia, 5–10 February 2002.

Green, S.T., Brown, J.H. and Yellow, K. (1990) Interesting and little known facts about fish. Poster presented at Conference on Bacterial Diseases of Fish. Stirling University, Stirling, UK, 1–4 June 2001. [Scientific poster]

Note: no italics here as there is no actual 'publication'.

Workshops, seminars, open days, training courses, exchange visits

Carpenter, E.J. (2000) Rainwater harvesting. Kakamega Research Station, Kenya, 29 May 2003. [One-Day Training Workshop for 74 farmers] [Swahili]

Notes: 'Author(s)' should be the workshop/training course leader(s) or speaker(s) or, if not available, then sponsoring/host institution.Give language of presentation, if not in English, in square brackets

Series reports/papers

Food and Agriculture Organization (1999) *Rainwater Harvesting*, p. 6. FAO Technical Series No. 13. FAO, Rome, Italy.

Notes: Series title and number should be roman.

Internal reports

Bloggs, F., Smith, A. and Jones, B. (2006) How to improve reference styling. Internal Report. Global Water Partnership, Stockholm, Sweden.

Newspaper and magazine articles

Agricultural Correspondent (2006) "The state of farming in KwaZulu Natal". *Farmers Weekly*, 13 July. p. 32. [South Africa]

Alias, B. (1990) "When will it rain again?" The Kenyan Times, 6 March. p. 5.

Notes: Author(s) name (if known) or use, for example, Agricultural Correspondent. If no author given then use Anon.

Newspaper/magazine name in italic, with initial capitals for main words.

Include country in which newspaper/magazine is published in square brackets if this is not evident from its title.

Theses and dissertations

Rao, J.V. (2004) Studies on fertilizer management of wheat in 'maize–wheat' and 'arhar–wheat' cropping systems. PhD thesis. Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi, India.

Notes: Title in lower case, not italic.

Include degree-awarding university and location, giving town/city and county/state – where appropriate – and country.

Internet-only references

National Research Centre (2006) *How to study wheat*. http://www.nrc.co.za/wheat

Gates, B. (1995) Distributing tactical business planning information via the Internet. In: Proceedings of an FAO Workshop on Internet Applications and Electronic Information Resources. http://www.fao.org/

Notes: If no specific author is given then use the publisher/owner/institution to whom the website belongs.

Year should be the date that the page was last updated/document was uploaded.

Use the title of the webpage as the title if it's a reference to a webpage rather than to a specific document on the web.

If there is no title to the page, no author and no year then it is better to simply cite the appropriate web address at the relevant point in the text rather than having it in the bibliography.

Foreign language titles

York, G.T., Jr and J.R. Smith. 1970. Le sorgho : cultures tropicales. *Agronomie Tropicale* **25**: 451–457. [English summary]

Varadinov, C.B. 1976. [Sorghum investigations in desert area.] In Russian. Isvestiya Akademii SSR Seriya Bibliogicheskikh Navk **7**: 30–34.

Notes: If the title is the English translation of another language, put it in square brackets and write 'In Russian' (or any other language as applicable) after the brackets.

At the end of the reference entry indicate the languages in which the document has summaries.

Note that in French titles spacing before and after a colon is used.

Radio and TV programmes

Bolonas, E.J., Mtunu, J. and Stubbs, T. (1998) Improved methods of drying fish. Look Now. Malawi Broadcasting Corporation. 20 November 2000 (09:30) 30 mins. Malawi. [Radio interview] [National] [Chichewa and English]

Notes: Use the performer(s) or reporter(s) name, as the author.

Then comes the title of the particular programme/item, the name of the programme/series if applicable and the station name.

Then the date of broadcast and start time in brackets (24-hour clock local time), and duration.

Include country. Indicate the medium (radio/TV etc.) and area covered: [Local], [National] or [International], in square brackets. When broadcast is in other languages, all languages should be listed, including English, in square brackets.

Video

Pottinger, A.J., Whittome, M. and Daniel, J. (2000) Gliricidia: a story of tree domestication. 18 mins. World Television Ltd., London, UK. [Video]

Notes: Producer(s) or publisher as author. Include duration

When produced in other languages, all languages should be listed, including English, in square brackets

CD-ROM

World Agroforestry Centre (2000) Agroforestree Database. World Agroforestry Centre, Nairobi, Kenya. [CD-ROM] Also available at http://www.icraf.org/agroforestreedatabase.dtb

Appendix 1: Writing well

This appendix presents some simple hints on writing well in English. Good technical writing is clear, concise and precise; it reflects the qualities of science.

Select vocabulary carefully. Use a vocabulary level appropriate for your reader. Research shows that scientists overestimate reader vocabulary when they write for nonscientists. If you are not certain the reader will understand a technical term, use the term accompanied by a more common synonym or a definition.

Write clear sentences. Sentences should average no more than 20 words, but sentence variety is what counts, both in length and in form. Examine each sentence you write to see whether:

- Example of a bullet point
- all ideas are conceptually related
- the sequence of ideas is logical
- the main idea is easy to find
- subject and object are close to each other.

Vary sentence form. Keep the main clause short and place it at the beginning or end of the sentence.

There are a number of aspects of writing in English that are commonly abused:

- Example of a bullet point
- Simple language and direct expression
- Active and passive voices
- Personal pronouns
- Nouns from verbs
- Compound nouns
- Long sentences
- Errors of meaning and form
- Jargon
- Incorrect use of common expressions

Simple language and direct expression

Always choose the simplest way of saying something. Choose a simple word rather than a difficult one; a concrete word over an abstract one; a familiar word over a rare one. Do not be influenced by the modern scientific literature. Much of it is extremely badly written. Never be impressed by a complex, hard-to-understand sentence. It is not a good sentence. Good scientific writing communicates in simple terms, even though the subject may be complicated. Repeated use of unnecessarily difficult, remote language not only prevents the subject being understood, it also makes the text hard to read.

Unnecessary and difficult words

Remember the word ‘verbosity’. It is very common, trying to say a thing in a complicated way, usually to make it sound more important. This is very bad style. For example, you can say:

> The efficacy of the therapeutic agent utilized was undeniable.

You are then being verbose. Much better if you write:

> The drug we used was very effective.

Use simple verbs like ‘use’ instead of utilize. Cut out phrases like ‘It is interesting to note that...’. Many writing guides and grammar texts give lists of verbose words and the shorter alternatives. Always try to use the easiest expression, and avoid ‘buzz words’, words that are suddenly popular but are not well defined, such as ‘empower’, ‘bottleneck’ and ‘leverage’.

Double negatives

In English you can use two negatives or negative words to make a positive statement. For example: ‘It is not unlikely.’

‘Not’ is a negative, and so is ‘unlikely’, so they cancel each other out and mean: ‘It is likely.’

This sort of construction is seen quite often. Most of the time it just gets in the way of plain speech. It is much better to avoid it. There is sometimes a very fine difference in meaning between a positive statement and a double negative statement so be careful changing such constructions and query if unsure. Other examples are:

> The total was not unimpressive (It was impressive)
>
> No decrease in numbers of species... (although ‘Increase in numbers of species’ has a difference in meaning...)

Active and passive voices

Many books on English style will tell you that you should avoid the passive voice because it makes text boring and dull. This can be true, but in scientific style the passive voice is often essential. In the phrase: ‘We measured the variation’ (active), it is clear that the subject (we) did something (measured) to an object (the variation). In the passive voice the object comes first and has something done to it by the subject: ‘The variation was measured by us.’ However, in the passive voice you can also say: ‘The variation was measured.’ That is, you can leave out the subject. And that is why the passive can be used in scientific style, because most of the time the subject is you, the writer. The subject is not important. Readers do not need to be told that ‘you measured the variation’. They already know that, because your name is on the title page of the paper.

You should try to use the active voice where it fits, because it will add variety and interest to your writing. But you should only do it where the subject is important:

> Stapleton (1985) found that... not:
>
> It was found by Stapleton (1985)...

But try to use the active voice when reporting conferences and meetings, i.e. this:

> In October 2000, GWP organized a multi-stakeholder workshop in Nairobi on the topic of sanitation.

Is better than this:

A multi-stakeholder workshop on sanitation was organized by GWP in Nairobi from 20 to 22 October 2000.

Personal pronouns

If you use the active voice you may have to say 'I' or 'we' 'did something'. There is nothing wrong with this. If you did the work, or if you think something is right, then you should say it. Do not say 'It is felt by us that...' Science writing encourages the use of 'impersonal' language, at the expense of readability. Using personal pronouns sometimes makes a more lively style and easier reading.

Nouns from verbs

These are also called abstract nouns. The overuse of abstract nouns is the single most common fault in scientific publications today. Research on writing style shows that beyond vocabulary, the greatest barrier to reading and speed comprehension is using nouns instead of verbs: more specifically, hiding verbs in nouns. We call this 'nominalization', and its use the 'nominal' form:

Nominal: Their recommendation was to plant earlier.

Verbal: They recommended earlier planting.

Nominal: Varieties must have tolerance for environmental stresses.

Verbal: Varieties must tolerate environmental stresses.

You can make a noun from a verb quite easily. 'To measure' gives you 'measurement', a normal English word that has its uses, but because it is a noun you have to put a verb with it, e.g. 'The measurement was done' [or carried out]. Often it is much easier to use a verb and say that something was measured. So you do not write: 'Measurements were carried out on the variation.' You write: 'The variation was measured.' Or, as we have just seen, if the subject is important: 'Stapleton (1985) measured the variation.'

Other common examples of this are 'production' from 'produce, 'interpretation' from 'interpret'. Using such abstract nouns too often produces long sentences and dull prose. The extra length comes in part from the length of the '-tion' nouns and in part from the need to use extra verbs. The dullness results from the abstractness of these nouns and the usually passive, weak verbs that must go with them. Replacing an abstract noun with a verb gives you more chance to bring the subject into the sentence and make it more alive and specific.

Abstract nouns are extremely common and easy to spot. When you are reviewing your manuscript, highlight all the nouns ending in -tion, -ance, -sion, -ment, -ness and -cy. You will be amazed. Usually you can replace them by rewriting the sentence using the original verb. These changes may also shorten a sentence and put its elements into a clearer sequence. For example, take:

It is possible that the pattern of herbs now found at the site is a reflection of past disturbances.

Better, and fewer, words say:

The pattern of herbs found at the site now may reflect past disturbances.

Compound nouns

These are simple to define. They are strings of nouns put together to form a phrase. To some they sound impressive. But in fact they hide the meaning of what you are trying to say, and also make the message unclear or ambiguous. There may be more than one way to interpret what you are saying. Poor writers and poor communicators frequently use these words. Avoid these compound nouns wherever you can. They are very hard to understand and terrible style. Use simple English. Note that compound nouns are usually made up of nouns from verbs, or abstract nouns. Sometimes you can go back to the verbs and make a proper sentence, with a clear meaning. For example, look at the way you can build up a compound noun. We can start with:

Research,

which leads on to: Research dissemination,

then: Research result dissemination,

then: Research result dissemination improvement,

and: Research result dissemination improvement methods

This final phrase is very hard to understand and 'unstring'. It is much easier to use verbs and break it up to say:

Methods of improving the dissemination of the results of research

Unfortunately, compound nouns are too common in science writing today, and are a sign of writers with a bad style. Two nouns together are easy enough to understand; more, and the meaning can be lost. As you are looking through the text, mark the places where two or more nouns occur together and go back and try to rephrase the sentences to use verbs instead of the nouns.

Long sentences

Avoid long sentences where you can. How long is a long sentence? Any sentence that you find is more than two typewritten lines may be too long. However, remember that a mixture of short and long sentences gives variety and interest to writing.

The problem with long sentences is that you have to remember so much before you get the message. There are several different types of too-long sentence. Below are three common examples.

1. Too much information in the sentence

There is so much information all strung together that it is impossible to understand the message. Go back and look for a place to split the sentence up into separate parts. Try to read a long sentence straight through, then ask yourself if you understood it all. The main problem is the lack of punctuation. Breaking the whole thing up often makes the sentence more understandable. It may take up more space, but it is worth the effort because it is clearer.

2. Hiding the subject under conditions

Often you may have a list of conditions that describe the main topic of the sentence, but by including them all you bury the main statement. Sometimes you can make a series of sentences, but at other times it may be better to take the conditions out of the way. You can either start a new sentence after you have said the most important thing, or make a list.

3. Qualifications

This can also be called 'hedging', when you are not certain of the truth of what you are writing, so you use conditional verbs and qualify what you want to say. It is good to say 'perhaps' when you are not sure of something, but it can be taken to extremes. You can still stop short of being too definite by using a single conditional.

Some vague and overused phrases in scientific writing are: 'it has long been known', 'it is believed', 'many aspects of this problem have been debated'. Avoid these phrases unless you follow them with specific examples of what is known or believed or debated.

The word impact is often overused/misused. There are many synonyms which are more precise in their meaning than the word impact.

Errors of meaning and form

Make sure you understand the meaning of all the words you are using. Do not use a long word that you think sounds impressive unless you are certain of the meaning. If you have used it wrongly you will look very foolish, and also mask what you are really trying to say. It is much better to use several simple words that give the proper meaning and are easily understood. There are also many words in English that look almost the same, but have different meanings.

Jargon

Jargon is defined as 'a system of signs or characters having an arbitrary meaning', which means that if you do not know what the jargon stands for, you cannot understand the sense of the sentence. All scientific disciplines have their own special language of technical words, but you must be very careful not to use them in a manuscript without defining them. English has become the 'universal language' of science because so many people understand it nowadays. But it is all useless if the reader cannot understand the specialized terms you are using. You might think that everyone knows what the terms mean, but you will be wrong. Researchers and other readers outside of the field will not understand them. So be careful. Review the manuscript to make sure you have defined all the 'jargon' that may be included.

Incorrect use of common expressions

The following words and phrases are frequently used incorrectly. You should strive to use them correctly, to avoid confusion or misunderstanding for the reader (see Box 6).

Box 6: Incorrect use of common expressions

among, between	When comparing more than two things, use 'among'; for two things, use 'between'
based on	Do not start a sentence with 'based on' because it is almost always incorrect to do so, e.g. '*based on* the results of the survey, we developed a model for effective conservation measures' is incorrect because 'we' (the subject) were not *based on* the survey results. Instead, say '*given* the results of the survey, we developed a model for effective conservation measures'.
compare to, compare with	If you compare A *to* B, you are likening them and suggesting that they are equals. If you compare A *with* B, then you are pointing out dissimilarities as well as similarities. In almost all cases, 'compare with' is the form required for scientific reports.

Appendix 2: Guidelines on non-sexist language

The English language has many words with discriminatory overtones, such as spokesman, mankind, etc. but when editing and writing we should aim to use nonsexist language in all materials we work on. These guidelines give advice on how to write in English without bias.

Man as a verb

Do not use 'man' as a verb, as in:

> The emergency room must be manned at all times.

Work, staff, serve, operate and other alternatives can be used instead:

> The emergency room must be staffed at all times.

Man as a prefix

Speakers and writers often use man-prefixed compounds in contexts where man represents males alone or both males and females:

> 'Will mankind murder Mother Earth or will he rescue her?'

With a little thought this can be replaced by:

> 'Will human beings murder the Earth or will they rescue it?'

Alternatives for 'man' are humanity and human beings.

Various sex-neutral alternatives to manmade are available, including handmade, hand-built, synthetic, manufactured (in this case man- comes from the Latin *manus*, hand), fabricated, machine-made and constructed.

Manpower is usually replaceable with personnel, staff, work force, available workers, or human resources.

Man as a suffix

> A spokesman of the corporation will meet with the press.

can be replaced by:

> A representative of the corporation will meet with the press.

Also:

> Englishmen are said to prefer tea

can be replaced by:

> The English are said to prefer tea.

See the list given in the main guide for additional recommended alternatives.

The pronoun problem

It has been common in English to use the pronouns he, his and him to refer to any unspecified or hypothetical person, e.g.:

> Each farmer received his share

Using 'he or she' or 'his or her' is very clumsy. The trouble is that it becomes awkward when repeated. A writer can often recast the material in the plural, e.g.

Incorrect:

> The learner should not be cut off from his roots; his own culture and traditions should be respected.

Correct - rewritten in the plural:

> Learners should not be cut off from their roots; their own cultures and traditions should be respected.

One may also replace the 'he' with 'they' without changing the verb. This may seem grammatically wrong, but, in fact, 'they' was used as a singular pronoun a long time ago, as in Lord Chesterfield's remark (1759):

> If a person is born of a gloomy temper ... they cannot help it.

So, use 'they' instead of 'he'.

Pronouns may also be eliminated by repeating the noun they refer to, but again this can sound clumsy. A synonym for the word may be also be used.

Instructions or practical advice can avoid the problem by addressing the reader directly, e.g. 'The warehouse store is another way for you to curb your food bills.'

'One' or the passive voice sometimes serves as a third-person pronoun.

Assigning gender to gender-neutral terms

The assignment of gender to common-gender nouns may distort the information being presented, such as when terms like 'immigrants', 'settlers' and 'farmers' are used in contexts that refer to males only. Many farmers are women. According to United Nations estimates, women produce 60 to 80 percent of the food supply in Africa and Asia. Nevertheless, many people will be surprised and even confused by a statement such as 'The farmer showed she knew more than the scientist'.

Gratuitous modifiers

Gratuitous modifiers often slip into writing as a result of prejudice or out of habit, such as 'women scientists', 'women students', a 'woman photographer'. In most cases such sex-specific modifiers can be deleted.

Personification

Many nouns in English are traditionally (not grammatically) given a sex. Cars and ships are frequently called ‘she’. Instead use ‘it’. Do not write ‘sister Centre/Institute’, instead use ‘related Centre’ or ‘sibling Centre’, or change the sentence.

Girls, ladies, females, women

These words have strong overtones: of immaturity and dependence in the case of ‘girl’; and of decorum and conformity in the case of ‘lady’. They can be very offensive, such as:

> I’ll have my girl make some copies right away.

‘Lady’ is not a synonym for ‘woman’. ‘Lady’ is used most effectively to evoke a certain standard of propriety, correct behaviour, or elegance. Examine the use of these words very carefully. However, ‘Ladies’ may safely be used in ‘Ladies and gentlemen’.

Used either as a noun or an adjective, ‘female’ is appropriate when the corresponding choice for the other sex would be male:

> The cow had her calves last night: three females and two males.

‘Woman’ is the most useful all-around word for referring to an adult female person:

> The project team of seven women and five men was chosen quickly.

Traditionally, women tend to be seen as wives, whereas men are called ‘men’ more often than ‘husbands’, which is the appropriate parallel term. ‘Spouse’ is a gender-neutral word. If the husband is working then his spouse is his wife. If the wife is working then her spouse is her husband.

To ‘father’ (the biological act of insemination) is disappearing. A new word, parenting, is gaining acceptance.

Note also the following error:

> Research scientists often neglect their wives and children.
>
> (Thus the scientists must be men)

Correct:

> Research scientists often neglect their families.
>
> (So that the scientists may be men or women)

Used as a noun, ‘woman’ connotes independence, competence and seriousness of purpose as well as sexual maturity.

Describing women by appearance

Emphasis on the physical characteristics of women is offensive in contexts where men are described in terms of achievements or character.

It is still common to come across gratuitous references to a woman's appearance in contexts where similar references to a man would be ludicrous.

Trivializing

Language used to describe women's actions often implies that women behave more irrationally and emotionally than men, for example:

> It seems women 'bicker' but men 'disagree'.

Names and titles

Women are frequently referred to by their first names in circumstances where men are called by their last names, in particular in the titles of papers and books. There is no reason for this and it should be avoided if possible. However, some women prefer to use their first names to avoid possible confusion. This is a matter of personal preference. Unless specifically requested, use initials only. The impression created, intentionally or not, is that women merit less serious consideration, less respect. Thus do not write:

> Dr J.D. Morgan and Dr Judith James.

Mrs, Miss and Ms

Because many people feel strongly about social titles, the obvious and courteous solution for anyone writing about or to a particular woman is to follow her preference. If this is not known, use 'Ms'.

Correspondence

The salutation 'Dear Sir or Madam' is permissible but clumsy. 'To the addressee' or 'To whom it may concern' may be preferred.

Appendix 3: Guidelines on alphabetical listing of non-Western/prefixed names

In lists of names and addresses, alphabetical reference lists, etc., apply the following general rules (adapted from *World Economic Forum Style Guide*, September 2005 and *IPGRI Style Guide*, Version 2, September 2000).

De, Le, Van, Von etc.

These are particularly confusing and there is no easy way around it. As a general rule, when the prefix is capitalized then use that for alphabetization:

De Leo, F. (alphabetize under D)

Le Roux, B. (alphabetize under L)

Van Rooyen, J. (alphabetize under V)

But when the first component is lower case, the the first letter of the main surname should be used for alphabetization:

de Brunswick (alphabetize under B)

van Hammel (alphabetize under H)

Mac and Mc

Family names beginning with Mac and Mc should be arranged as though the letter a were present in all cases:

McAdoo

Macalister

MacAllister

Mac Arthur

O'

Family names beginning with **O'** are always alphabetized at the beginning of the Os.

O'Leary

O'Toole

Ochua

Owen

Arabic names

The family name of most Arab names comes last, so take the final name as the basis for ordering. Those names beginning with al, el, bin and ibn are alphabetized under the element following the suffix:

al Fayed	(alphabetize under F)
Al-Thani	(alphabetize under T)
el Kazir	(alphabetize under K)
ibn Amali	(alphabetize under A)

Chinese names

Chinese names generally consist of three syllables, the single syllable family name coming first, the double syllable given name following. The clan and personal names are now usually joined together, i.e. Chong Peng Wah is written as Chong Pengwah. The single syllable family name should be used for alphabetizing. Chinese names that follow the usual Chinese order place the surname first so do not reorder these or use commas. Unless the name has been Anglicized (e.g. T.J. Chin) in which case follow normal rules for Western names.

Chang Sangtai	(alphabetize under C)
Fu Chuangsheng	(alphabetize under F)

The second and third syllables of all other Chinese names (Hong Kong, Korean, Taiwanese) should be hyphenated.

Choi Shum-Ming	(Hong Kong, alphabetize under C)
Shin Myoung-Ho	(Korean, alphabetize under S)
Wu Kuan-Hsiung	(Taiwanese, alphabetize under W)

Japanese names

The family name comes first in Japan and so should be treated like Chinese names. However, in most cases the name will have been Westernized.

Indonesian names

If the name consists of more than one element, the first name can be considered the surname. When the first name is of European origin, use the first Indonesian origin name as the surname for citation purposes.

Malay names

Usually the first name is used as the surname, but occasionally another element of the name is preferred.

Thai names

The last element of the name is usually the surname.

Portuguese names (including Angolan, Brazilian, Mozambican)

These are alphabetized under the second or last family name.

Sousa Franco (Antonio)	(alphabetize under F)
Paiva Lopes (Carlos)	(alphabetize under L)

Exception: cases where Filho or Neto is the last name given, as Filho means Junior and Neto means 'Grandson' in Portuguese.

Jorge Filho (Miguel)	(alphabetize under J)
Campara Neto (Isaias)	(alphabetize under C)

Spanish names

Spanish names with two or more components should be alphabetized under the first family name.

Diaz Güell (Luis)	(alphabetize under D)
Garcia Carmona (Alberto)	(alphabetize under G)

Appendix 4: List of acronyms and abbreviations

AFD	L'Agence Française de Développement (French Development Agency)
AfDB	African Development Bank
AMCOW	African Ministers' Council on Water
ANBO	African Network of Basin Organizations
ANEW	African Civil Society Network on Water and Sanitation
APWF	Asia Pacific Water Forum
AWF	African Water Facility
AWIS	African Water Information and Documentation System
AWP	Area Water Partnership
BRGM	Bureau de recherche géologique (Office for Geological Research and Mining)
CA	Comprehensive Assessment of Water Management in Agriculture
CADC	Commission on the Application and Development of the Convention
Cap-Net	International network for capacity building in sustainable water management
CAR	Corporación Autónoma Regional (Regional Autonomous Corporation)
CDKN	Climate and Development Knowledge Network
CEENBO	Central and Eastern European Network of Basin Organizations
CEIVAP	Comite da Bacia do Rio Paraíba do Sul (Committee for the Integration of the Hydrographical Basin of the River Paraiba do Sul)
CEMAC	Economic and Monetary Community of Central Africa
CEN-SAD	Community of Sahel-Saharan States
CICOS	Commission Internationale du Bassin Congo-Oubangui-Sangha (International Commission of the Congo-Ubangi-Sangha Basin)
CILSS	Interstate Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel
CIPMS	Commission Internationales pour la Protection de la Moselle et de la Sarre (International Commission for the Protection of the Moselle and the Saar)
CONAGUA	Comisión Nacional del Agua (National Water Commission)
COP	Conference of the Parties
CSD	Commission on Sustainable Development (of the United Nations)
CWP	Country Water Partnership
CWRAS	Country Water Resources Assistance Strategy
CWRC	Changjiang (Yangtze) Water Resources Commission (China)
Danida	Danish International Development Agency

DGIS	Netherlands Government Ministry of Foreign Affairs
DHI	Danish Hydraulic Institute
DSS	Decision Support System
EAC	East African Community
EC	European Commission
ECCAS	Economic Community of Central African States
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EECCA	Eastern Europe, Caucasus, Central Asia
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EMWIS	Euro-Mediterranean Information System on know-how in the Water Sector
EU	European Union
EUWI	European Union Water Initiative
EUWI FWG	European Union Water Initiative Finance Working Group
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization (of the United Nations)
FFEM	Fonds Français pour l'Environnement Mondial (French Global Environment Facility)
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GIEBV	Gestion Intégrée de l'Eau par Bassin Versant (Integrated Water Resources Management at Basin Level)
GIRE	Gestion Intégrée des Ressources en Eau (Integrated Water Resources Management)
GIS	Geographic information system
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (German Agency for International Cooperation)
GWA	Gender and Water Alliance
GWP	Global Water Partnership
GWP CACENA	GWP Regional Water Partnership for Central Asia and Caucasus
GWP CEE	GWP Regional Water Partnership for Central and Eastern Europe
GWP China	GWP Regional Water Partnership for China
GWP Southern Africa	GWP Regional Water Partnership for Southern Africa
GWP TAC	GWP Technical Advisory Committee (the former name of the GWP Technical Committee)
GWP TEC	GWP Technical Committee
GWPO	Global Water Partnership Organization
HELP	Hydrology for the Environment, Life and Policy
ICE	Instituto Costarricense de Electricidad (Electricity Institute of Costa Rica)
ICPDR	International Commission for the Protection of the Danube River
ICPO	International Commission for the Protection of the Oder
ICWC	Interstate Commission for Water Cooperation

IDRC	International Development Research Centre
IFAS	International Fund for Saving the Aral Sea
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
IHP	International Hydrological Programme
IJC	International Joint Commission
INBO	International Network of Basin Organizations
IOWater	International Office for Water
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IRBIS	Irtych River Basin Information System
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
IWAC	International Water Assessment Centre
IWMI	International Water Management Institute
IWRM	Integrated Water Resources Management
IWRMP	Integrated Water Resources Master Plan
JDS	Joint Danube Survey
LANBO	Latin American Network of Basin Organizations
LCBC	Lake Chad Basin Commission
LWC	Local Water Commission
MDBC	Murray–Darling Basin Commission
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MENBO	Mediterranean Network of Basin Organizations
MERCOSUR	Mercado Común del Sur (South America Common Market)
MLIT	Japanese Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
MRA	Malta Resources Authority
MRC	Mekong River Commission
MWR	Ministry of Water Resources
NBA	Niger Basin Authority
NDP	National Development Plan
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NHS	National Hydrological Service
NWC	National Water Committee
NWRMP	National Water Resources Master Plan
NWRMS	National water resources management strategy (Mozambique)
NWSAS	North Western Sahara Aquifer System
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OIEau	Office International de l'Eau (International Office for Water)

OKACOM	Okavango River Basin Commission
OMVG	Organisation pour la Mise en Valeur du fleuve Gambie (Organization for the Development of the Gambia River)
OMVS	Organisation pour la Mise en Valeur du fleuve Sénégal (Organization for the Development of the Senegal River)
ORASECOM	Orange-Senqu River Commission
OSCE	Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe
OSS	Sahara and Sahel Observatory
OTCA	Organização do Tratado de Cooperação Amazônica (Amazon Cooperation Treaty Organization)
PAWD	Partnership for Africa's Water Development
PIANC	World Association for Waterborne Transport Infrastructure
PIDA	Infrastructure Development Programme in Africa
PNIR	National Rural Infrastructure Project (World Bank)
PPEA	Multi-Year Support Programme to Water and Sanitation (Benin)
PRSPs	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
RBC	River Basin Committee
RBO	River Basin Organization
RELOB	Rede Latino-Americana de Organismos de Bacia (Latin American Network of Basin Organizations) (Portuguese)
RELOC	Red Latinoamericana de Organismos de Cuenca (Latin American Network of Basin Organizations) (Spanish)
RWP	Regional Water Partnership
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAG	Water Sector Advisory Group (Zambia)
SAGE	Schéma d'Aménagement et de Gestion des Eaux (Water Development and Management Scheme)
SAP	Strategic Action Plan
SDAP	Sustainable Development Action Plan
SDC	Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
SEA	Strategic Environmental Assessment
SEIS	Shared Environmental Information System
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SONEB	La Société Nationale des Eaux du Bénin (National Water Company of Benin)
TDA	Transboundary Diagnostic Analysis
UCPEÑAS-ICE	Unidad de Cuenca del Río Peñas Blancas (ICE Unit for the River Peñas Blancas Basin)
UEMOA	Union économique et monétaire des Etats de l'Afrique de l'ouest (West African Monetary and Economic Union)
UK	United Kingdom

UN	United Nations
UNCCD	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFCCC	United Nations Conference on Climate Change
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNSGAB	United Nations Secretary-General's Advisory Board on Water and Sanitation
USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VBA	Volta Basin Authority
VBTC	Volta Basin Technical Committee
WACDEP	Water, Climate and Development Programme
WFD	Water Framework Directive (of the EU)
WHO	World Health Organization
WHYCOS	World Hydrological Cycle Observing System
WIS	Water Information System
WISE	Water Information System for Europe
WMO	World Meteorological Organization
WRAP	Water Resources Action Plan (Zambia)
WRCU	Water Resources Coordination Unit (of ECOWAS)
WRMA	Water Resources Management Authority (Kenya)
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

Appendix 5: Glossary of common terms used in GWP publications

A

Acidity: See pH

Adaptive capacity: The potential or ability of a system, region or community to adapt to the effects or impacts of a particular set of changes; enhancing a system's adaptive capacity makes it better able to cope with change and uncertainty, thereby reducing its vulnerability

Advocacy: Process undertaken by an individual or group, which normally aims to influence public policy and resource allocation decisions within political, economic and social systems and institutions; it may be motivated from moral, ethical or faith principles or simply to protect an asset of interest.

Agenda 21: Global programme adopted by the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. Agenda 21 puts forward several principles and recommendations for sustainable development in the 21st Century.

Alkalinity: See pH

Allocation: To set aside a specific amount of water for a particular purpose or use (for the hydrologic system in which there are multiple uses or demands for water)

Alluvium: Deposits of sand, silt, clay, gravel or other particulate material that has been deposited by a stream or other body of running water in a streambed, on a flood plain, on a delta, or at the base of a mountain

Alluvial groundwater: Groundwater that is connected to a surface stream, usually in permeable rock, broken rock and gravel.

Anglophone: English-language speaking people or location

Aquaculture: Farming of plants and animals that live in water, e.g., fish, shellfish and algae

Aquatic: Plant and animal life growing in water, living in water, or frequenting water

Aqueduct: Man-made canal or pipeline used to transport water

Aqueous: Something made up of water

Aquifer: Underground layers of permeable rock, sediment or soil filled with water and interconnected, so the water stays within or flows through them. The two major types of aquifers are confined and unconfined

Area Water Partnership (sub-national): Water partnership at a basin, district, city or other sub-national level within a country

Artesian water: Groundwater that is under pressure when tapped by a well and is able to rise above the level at which first encountered. It can flow out at ground level, but does not always do so. The water pressure is commonly called artesian pressure, and the formation containing artesian water is an artesian aquifer or confined aquifer.

Artesian well: A well in which water under natural pressure rises to the surface without being pumped.

Artificial recharge: Process in which water is channelled from surface water supplies back into groundwater storage; the water can then be drawn from irrigation or induced infiltration from streams or wells

Associated Programme: See GWP

B

Base flow: The amount of water in a stream that results from groundwater discharge

Basin: The area of land that drains to a particular river or lake. A river or lake basin is the area bordered by the watersheds of a system of streams and rivers that flow towards the same outlet. In the case of rivers this is generally the sea, but may be an inland water body, such as a lake or swamp (see also watershed, catchment)

Best management practices (BMPs): measures applied to management activities to help ensure water efficiency and decrease water use

Biofuel: Type of fuel whose energy is derived from biomass (biological carbon fixation), e.g. from plant starch, sugar or oil or from animal fat

Blue water: Fresh surface and groundwater, i.e. the water in freshwater lakes, rivers and aquifers

Blue Book: Tool that promotes exchange, dialogue and mobilization of stakeholders involved in managing water resources and services, in order to promote large-scale projects in partnership with decision makers, civil society and the private sector

Borehole: Narrow shaft driven into the ground, either vertically or horizontally, to obtain water. A borehole may be constructed for many different purposes, including the extraction of water, oil or gas

Brackish: Water that contains too much salt to be useful to people, but that is less salty than seawater

C

Capacity building: The actions needed to enhance the ability of individuals, institutions and systems to make and implement decisions and perform functions in an effective, efficient and sustainable manner

Capacity development: The process by which individuals, groups and organizations, institutions and countries develop, enhance and organize their systems, resources and knowledge

Capillary action: The process by which water rises through rock, sediment or soil; it is caused by cohesion between water molecules and adhesion between water and other materials; together, these forces pull the water upwards

Carbon sink: Natural or artificial reservoir that accumulates and stores carbon-containing chemical compounds for an indefinite period. The process by which carbon sinks remove carbon dioxide (CO_2) from the atmosphere is known as carbon sequestration

Catchment: Drainage area (see Basin)

Chlorination: Treatment of drinking water with chlorine to kill disease-causing organisms

Civil society organization: The multitude of associations around which society voluntarily organizes itself and which represent a wide range of interests and ties. These can include community-based organizations, indigenous peoples' organizations and non-government organizations (OECD definition).

Climate change: A long-term alteration in global weather patterns especially increases in temperature and storm activity. It is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and is in addition to natural climate variability observed over comparable time periods

Climate change adaptation: Initiatives and measures to reduce the vulnerability of natural and human systems against the actual or expected effects of climate change

Climate change screening: A way of assessing the impacts of climate change on development activities, and how these linkages can be taken into account in development activities and national planning processes

Cost effective: Obtaining the best results for least expense or offering the maximum benefit for a given level of expenditure that provides good value for money

Cost recovery: Adjusting fees/prices for a water system where all costs of operation and maintenance are covered for supplying water or services

Country Water Partnership: A water partnership at the national level

D

Dam: Structure built to hold back a flow of water

Delta: Fan-shaped area at the mouth of a river formed by deposition of sediments

Demand management: measures taken to predict and meet consumer demand for environmentally sensitive goods such as water, e.g. through activities that alter water use

Depletion: The loss of water from surface water reservoirs or groundwater aquifers due to usage at a greater rate than they are recharged

Deposition: The gradual dropping or laying down of matter by a natural process, or getting rid of sediments as performed by an agent of erosion, such as a river or glacier; also called sedimentation

Desalination: The process of removing salt from seawater or brackish water

Desertification: Land degradation in arid, semi-arid and dry sub-humid areas resulting from various factors, including climate variation and human activity

Developed water: Water that is produced or brought into a water system through the efforts of people (where it would not have entered the water system on its own accord)

Disbursement: The action of paying out money

Discharge: The amount of water flowing past a location in a river or stream in a certain amount of time; usually expressed in volumes (liters per second or gallons per minute)

Drainage basin: All the land that serves as the drainage area of a specific stream or river; See Basin

Drip irrigation: Common method of irrigation, in which water trickles slowly through pipes or tubes onto crops. Drip irrigation is a low-pressure method of irrigation with the advantage that less water is lost to evaporation than with high-pressure spray irrigation

Drought: The naturally occurring phenomenon that exists when precipitation has been significantly below normal recorded levels, causing serious hydrological imbalances that adversely affect land resource and production systems

E

Economic instruments: Tools based on economic incentives and disincentives that encourage certain behaviour toward water through market signals

Economic value: The amount of water that a rational user of a publicly or privately supplied water resource is willing to pay for it. The economic value of water comes from the many uses to which water can be put in satisfying people's needs.

Ecosystem: The dynamic mixture of plant, animal and microorganism communities and their non-living environment interacting as a functional unit

Effluent: In issues of water quality, this refers to liquid waste (treated or untreated) discharged to the environment from such sources as industrial processes and sewage treatment plants

Enabling environment: A set of interrelated conditions such as legal, organisational, fiscal, informational, political, and cultural that impact on the capacity of development actors to engage in the development and management of water resource processes in a sustained and effective manner.

Environmental flow: the amount of water needed to maintain healthy ecosystems. In broader terms, it refers to the provision of water within rivers and groundwater systems to maintain downstream ecosystems and their benefits, where the river or groundwater system is subject to competing water uses and flow regulation.

Environmental goods and services: Refers to actions and products derived from human activity rather than benefits obtained directly from the natural environment

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA): An analytical process or procedure that examines the possible environmental consequences of the implementation of a given activity

Erosion: Natural process in which the land surface and the soil are worn down or washed away by the action of water, wind, ice and landslides

Estuary: Where fresh and salt water mix, i.e., a coastal bay, salt marsh or where a river enters the sea

Eutrophication: A condition of having waters rich in mineral and organic nutrients that promote growth or multiplication of plant life, especially algae, which reduces the dissolved oxygen content and often causes the extinction of other organisms. Occurs following large inputs of nutrients (e.g. nitrogen and phosphorus) from agricultural runoff and human or industrial waste into water bodies, leading to excessive plant (principally algae) growth and decay and resulting in lowered oxygen concentration in the water

Evaporation: Occurs when a liquid changes into a gas; e.g., when water turns into vapour

Evapotranspiration: Process in which water evaporates from the surface of the soil surface and water is transpired by the plants growing on the land

Externalities: Indirect or accidental consequences of actions, positive or negative, associated with water, often measured in economic sense in terms of impacts.

F

Financing mechanisms: Various innovative ways or means to raise additional funds for development aid through projects such as micro-contributions, taxes, public-private partnerships and market-based financial transactions

Financial Partners Group: Donors to the GWPO

Fiscal policy: The use of government revenue collection (taxation) and expenditure (spending) to influence the economy

Flood: The temporary inundation or overflow of water onto land that is used by man and not normally covered by water

Floodplain: A low area of land adjacent to a stream or other watercourse that is subject to flooding and holds the overflow of water during a flood.

Food Security: Physical and economic access, at all times, to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life

Forestry: Management of forested land, together with associated waters and wasteland, primarily for harvesting timber but also for conservation and recreation purposes

Francophone: French-speaking countries

Fresh water: Low salt content water (less than 0.5 parts per thousand dissolved salts)

G

Gender mainstreaming: The concept of assessing the different implications for women and men of any planned policy action, including legislation; mainstreaming essentially offers an approach that takes into account the diversity of views among women and men

Geographic information system: GIS integrates hardware, software and data for capturing, managing, analyzing and displaying all forms of geographically referenced information

Geyser: Thermal spring that erupts intermittently and to different heights above the surface of the Earth; eruptions occur when underground water is heated sufficiently to turn it into steam, forcing the liquid water above it out into the air

Glacier: Large mass of ice formed on land by layers of compacted snow; glaciers creep downhill due to the pressure of their own weight

Global Water Partnership Organization (GWPO). The intergovernmental organisation established in Sweden that comprises the Global Secretariat, its Steering Committee, and the Technical Committee

Governance: refers to sustaining coordination and coherence among a variety of actors with different purposes and objectives. Such actors may include political actors and institutions, interest groups, civil society, non-governmental and transnational organizations. Governance can also be the means by which an activity or group of activities is controlled or directed.

Grassroots: At the level of the community. A grassroots movement is driven by the politics of a community, implying natural and spontaneous creation of the movement and the group supporting it, rather than a movement orchestrated by traditional power structures

Green economy: Results in improved human well-being and social equity, while significantly reducing environmental risks and ecological scarcities. In its simplest expression, a green economy can be thought of as one that is low carbon, resource efficient and socially inclusive (UNEP definition)

Green water: The precipitation on land that does not run off or recharge the groundwater but is stored in the soil or stays on top of the soil or vegetation temporarily

Grey water: Wastewater other than sewage; includes household washing water

Groundwater: Water that flows or seeps downward and saturates soil or rock, supplying springs and wells; the water is stored underground in rock crevices and in the pores of the rocks.

GWP Partners: Organizations and institutions around the world that have signed the Partner application form and been approved as Partners of the GWP Network by the GWPO Executive Secretary

GWP Associated Programme: A programme that was initiated specifically (e.g., Cap-Net), or an existing programme that was identified (e.g., Flood Management) to support GWP water partnerships in regions and countries. (Term no longer used although there are legacy programmes)

GWP Consulting Partners Meeting: A large gathering of participants beyond the GWP Network Meeting at which issues facing GWP are addressed

GWP Network Meeting: The GWP statutes state that the Partners of GWP shall hold an annual Network Meeting at which the Partners exercise formal functions, such as receiving and commenting on the yearly activity and financial reports, and deciding on statutory changes, if any

H

Headwater(s): The source and upper reaches of a stream, river or reservoir; the water upstream of a structure or point on a stream; the small streams that come together to form a river. Any and all parts of a river basin except the main river and main tributaries

Hydraulics: Study of practical applications of liquid in motion

Hydrologic cycle: The cycle that water goes through during the natural processes of evaporation and precipitation: from the sea, through the atmosphere, to the land and back to the sea

Hydrology: The science of the world's water supply; its distribution and movement on the surface and underground, and the cycle involving evaporation and precipitation

Hydropower: Electricity produced by the power of rushing water, turning turbine generators

Hydrosphere: Discontinuous layer of water at or near the Earth's surface; includes all liquid and frozen surface water, groundwater held in soil and rock, and atmospheric water vapour

I

Iceberg: A large chunk of ice that has broken from a coastal glacier and floated away on ocean currents

Infiltration: Water trickling into the ground from a surface supply, such as precipitation or irrigation

Institutional roles: The functions and responsibilities of the institutions (e.g. government departments) that deal with water management

Integrated Flood Management: A process promoting an integrated – rather than fragmented – approach to flood management

Integrated resource planning: The management of two or more resources in the same general area; these include water, soil, timber, grazing land, fish, wildlife and recreation

Integrated Water Resources Management: IWRM is a process that promotes the coordinated development and management of water, land and related resources in order to maximize economic and social welfare without compromising the sustainability of ecosystems and the environment (GWP definition).

Intergovernmental organization: Composed primarily of sovereign states (referred to as member states); e.g. United Nations, World Bank; an organization established by states and usually hosted by a Government (GWP is one)

Inundation: Covering over or flooding, as when floodwaters cover a valley

Irrigation: Supplying water to agriculture by such artificial means as pumping water onto crops in an area where rainfall is insufficient to sustain their growth

IWRM Toolbox: An online free and open database with a library of background papers, policy briefs, technical briefs and perspective papers as well as case studies and references organized under the different water themes

L

Land degradation: A human-induced or natural process that interferes with the ability of the land to function effectively within an ecosystem

Land use: Refers to the arrangements, activities and inputs undertaken by people within a certain land area

Leaching: The process in which soil components (e.g. nutrients) are washed into the lower layers of the soil by the downward movement of water

Levees: Dykes or other embankments that contain water within its normal course (man-made or natural)

M

Memorandum of Understanding (MOU): Document describing a bilateral or multilateral agreement between parties; it expresses a convergence of will between the parties, indicating an intended common line of action

Micro-hydropower: A type of hydroelectric power that typically produces up to 100 kW of electricity using the natural flow of water; these installations can provide power to an isolated home or small community, or are sometimes connected to wider power networks

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs): A list of 10 goals (including eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, ensuring environmental sustainability and providing clean drinking water) adopted by the UN General Assembly

Mitigation: Structural and non-structural measures undertaken to limit the adverse impact of natural hazards, environmental degradation and technological hazards

Municipal water system: A network of pipes, pumps and water storage and treatment facilities designed to deliver potable water to homes, schools, businesses and other users in a city or town and to remove and treat wastewater

N

National IWRM Plan: Sets out a national strategy that identifies the priority steps that must be taken to reform the water management system to meet IWRM principles

Non-governmental organization (NGO): Voluntary group of individuals or organizations, usually not affiliated with any government, formed to provide services or to advocate a public policy

Non point source pollution: Pollution coming from a wide, non-specific source, such as runoff from cities, farms or forest land.

O

Outcome Mapping (OM): Methodology for planning and assessing development programming that is oriented towards change and social transformation. OM provides a set of tools to design and gather information on the outcomes, defined as behavioural changes, of the change process. OM puts people and learning at the centre of development.

Outfall: The place where a sewer, drain or stream discharges; the outlet or structure through which reclaimed water or treated effluent is finally discharged to a receiving water body

P

Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness: This was developed at a forum in Paris in 2005 and looks at the responsibility of developed and developing countries for delivering and managing aid

Participatory Approach: Securing an adequate and equal opportunity for people to place questions on the agenda and to express their preferences about the final outcome during decision making

Partnership for African Water Development (PAWD): GWP programme (2003–2008) funded primarily by the Canadian Government and Government of the Netherlands (among others); offered support to African countries for the development of national IWRM plans and integration of water into poverty reduction activities

Peak flow: Maximum instantaneous discharge of a stream or river at a given location

Percolation: The movement of water through openings in rock or soil; contributes to groundwater replenishment

Permeability: The capacity or ability of a porous rock, sediment or soil to allow the movement of water through its pores

pH: Measure of the relative acidity or alkalinity of water: water with a pH of 7 is neutral, lower pH levels indicate increasing acidity, while pH levels higher than 7 indicate alkalinity

Pipeline: Structure to carry water underground to homes and businesses

Plankton: Tiny plants and animals floating in bodies of water; often a major source of nutrition for larger aquatic life forms

Point source pollution: Pollution coming from a single identifiable source, such as discharge pipes from industry, sewage outlets, agriculture

Policy: Any form of intervention or societal response; this includes statements of intent (e.g., water or forest policy) the use of economic instruments, market creation, subsidies etc.

Pollutant: Any inorganic or organic substance that contaminates air, water or soil

Potable: Water that is considered safe for domestic human consumption; drinkable water

Porosity: A measure of the water-bearing capacity of subsurface rock. Regarding movement of water, the size of the voids and their connectivity are equally important

Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers: PRSPs are prepared by the member countries through a participatory process involving domestic stakeholders as well as development partners, including the World Bank and International Monetary Fund; updated every three years with annual progress reports, PRSPs describe the country's macroeconomic, structural and social policies and programmes over a three-year or longer horizon to promote broad-based growth and reduce poverty, as well as associated financing needs and major sources of financing (IMF definition)

Precipitation: Water falling toward the Earth's surface in the form of fog, rain, hail and snow

Primary wastewater treatment: The first stage of the treatment process, which employs mechanical methods (e.g., filters and scrapers) to remove pollutants; solid material also settles out in this process

Provincial Water Partnership: As China is as large as some GWP regions, water partnerships have been established at provincial level

Public good: Refers to a resource or benefit that individuals cannot be effectively excluded from using and where use by one individual does not reduce its availability to others. Examples of public goods include fresh air, knowledge and flood control systems

R

Rainfed agriculture: Farming practices that rely on rainfall for water

Rainwater harvesting: The accumulating and storage of rainwater for reuse; used to provide drinking water and water for agriculture; rainwater is usually collected from the roofs of houses but can also be collected using simple structures in crop fields

Ramsar Convention (The): An intergovernmental treaty that provides the framework for national action and international cooperation for the conservation and wise use of wetlands and their resources

Recharge: Groundwater supplies are replenished, or recharged, when rain or snowmelt enters the saturation zone

Reclaimed water: Effluent usable for irrigation or ready for release into lakes and rivers

Regional Water Partnership: A water partnership at a regional level

Reservoir: A natural or artificial place to store water; water storage created by building a dam; a pond, lake, or basin used for the storage, regulation and control of water

Resilience: The capacity of a system, community or society potentially exposed to hazards to adapt by resisting or changing in order to reach and maintain an acceptable level of functioning and structure

Restoration: return of an ecosystem to a close approximation of its condition prior to disturbance or the reestablishment of predisturbance of aquatic functions and related physical, chemical and biological characteristics.

Results-based management: A way of managing, whereby an organization ensures that all of its processes, products and services contribute to the achievement of desired results. It depends on clearly defined accountability for results, and requires systematic monitoring, self-assessment and reporting on progress (FAO definition)

Return flow: The amount of water that reaches a surface or groundwater source after it has been released from the point of use and thus becomes available for further reuse

Reuse: water that is used more than one time before it passes back into the natural water cycle. This can be reuse of treated wastewater for beneficial purposes such as agricultural and landscape irrigation, industrial processes, toilet flushing, or replenishing a groundwater basin.

Riparian water rights: The rights of a landowner whose property includes a river bank, lake shore, etc.

River basin: The land area surrounding one river from its headwaters to its mouth; the area drained by a river and its tributaries

River Basin Organization (RBO): Entities that have been established in, or among countries, that see a need to manage their water resources through a basin-wide approach

Riverine: See Riparian

Runoff: See Surface runoff

S

Sediment(s): Material in suspension in water or recently deposited from suspension; includes all kinds of deposits from the waters of streams, lakes and oceans

Sedimentation: See deposition

Sedimentation tanks: Wastewater tanks in which floating wastes are skimmed off and settled solids are removed for disposal

Seepage: The slow movement of water through small cracks and pores in rock or soil into or out of a body of surface or subsurface water; the loss of water by infiltration into the soil from canals, ditches, watercourses, reservoirs, or from a field

Septic tank: Tank used to retain domestic wastes to allow the settling of solids prior to distribution to a leach field for soil absorption. Septic tanks are used when a sewer line is not available to carry the waste to a treatment plant.

Settling pond: An open lagoon that holds wastewater contaminated with solid pollutants. The solids sink to the bottom of the lagoon and the liquid is allowed to flow out

Sewer: System of underground pipes that collect and deliver wastewater to treatment facilities

Situation analysis: Assessment of the current situation regarding water resources

Social equity: IWRM's social equity goal is 'to ensure equitable access to water, and to the benefits from water use, between women and men, rich people and poor, across different social and economic groups both within and across countries, which involves issues of entitlement, access and control.' (Taken from R. Lenton and M. Muller (eds.) (2009). *Integrated Water Resources Management in Practice: Better Water Management for Development*. GWP/Earthscan.)

Sponsoring Partners: Those governments, inter-government and international agencies that signed the Agreement creating GWP as an intergovernmental organization

Spray irrigation: Common irrigation method, in which water is sprayed from high-pressure sprayers onto crops; not the most efficient means since some is lost to evaporation

Spring: The point at which the water table meets the earth's surface, causing water to flow from the ground

Stakeholder: A person, group or organization that has a legitimate interest in a project or entity. A stakeholder can affect or be affected by water related actions, objectives and policies.

Steering Committee: A board of directors who oversee the GWPO or the RWP

Storm water: Water that originates during extreme precipitation events

Storm sewer: Sewer that carries only surface runoff, street wash and snowmelt from the land; usually kept separate from those carrying wastewater

Strategic Environmental Assessment: SEA is undertaken for plans, programmes and policies; it helps decision makers reach a better understanding of how environmental, social and economic considerations fit together

Stream: General term for a body of water flowing in a natural water course for at least part of the year; normally a natural feature rather than a man-made canal

Streamflow: The water discharge that occurs in a natural channel; more general than runoff, applied to discharge whether or not it is affected by diversion or regulation

Surface runoff: Water flowing over the ground into rivers, lakes and oceans

Surface water: Water on the surface of the ground (lakes, rivers, ponds, floodwater, oceans, etc.); precipitation that does not soak into the ground or return to the atmosphere by evaporation or transpiration

Suspended sediment: Very fine soil particles that remain in suspension in water for a considerable period of time due to turbulence and currents

Suspended solids: Solids that are not in true solution and that can be removed by filtration; these usually contribute directly to turbidity

Suspension: Method of sediment transport in which air or water turbulence supports the weight of the sediment particles, thereby keeping them from settling out or being deposited

Sustainable Development: Paths of progress that meet the needs and aspirations of the present generation without compromising the resource base on which future generations depend

T

Technical Committee (GWP TEC): A group of global experts who contribute technical leadership and resources to the GWP Network

Technical Advisory Committee (GWP TAC): The former name for the GWP Technical Committee. Some regions still use TAC to refer to their regional technical expert groups

Thermal pollution: Reduction in water quality caused by increased water temperature, due often to the disposal of waste heat from industrial or power generation processes; thermally polluted water can harm the environment because plants and animals may be unable to adapt to it

Thermal spring: Warm or hot water spring; may occur in regions of recent volcanic activity where thy are fed by water heated through contact with hot rocks far below the Earth's surface

Trade-off: An exchange of one thing in return for another, especially relinquishment of one benefit or advantage for another regarded as more desirable.

Transboundary: River, lake or other water resource that crosses at least one political border, either a border within a nation or an international boundary

Transpiration: Process by which water absorbed by plants (usually through the roots) is evaporated into the atmosphere from the plant surface (principally from the leaves)

Treated water: Water that has been filtered and/or disinfected; the term is sometimes used in the same way as ‘potable’

Tributary: A surface water drainage system connected with a river system

Turbidity: The amount of solid particles that are suspended in water and that cause light rays shining through the water to scatter; thus, turbidity makes the water cloudy or even opaque in extreme cases. Turbidity is measured in nephelometric turbidity units (NTU)

U

Urbanization: The physical growth of urban areas as a result of rural migration and even suburban concentration into cities, particularly the very largest ones

United Nations Advisory Board on Water and Sanitation (UNSGAB): An independent body formed to assist the international community to achieve the MDG related to water and sanitation

United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED): Also known as the ‘Earth Summit’, this conference was held in Rio de Janiero, Brazil, in 1992. It proclaimed the concept of sustainable development as a workable objective for everyone around the world. Agenda 21 was one of UNCED’s major achievements

United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD): Convention to combat desertification in countries experiencing serious drought and/or desertification, particularly in Africa, and to mitigate the effects of drought through national action programmes that incorporate long-term strategies supported by international cooperation and partnership arrangements

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC): The Convention was adopted on 9 May 1992 in New York and signed at the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro by more than 150 countries and the European Community

V

Vulnerability: The degree to which a system is susceptible to, and unable to cope with, the adverse effects of climate change, including climate variability and weather extremes

W

Wastewater: Water that has been used and contains unwanted materials from homes, businesses and industries; a mixture of water and dissolved or suspended substances

Wastewater treatment: Any of the mechanical or chemical processes used to modify the quality of wastewater in order to make it more compatible or acceptable to humans and the environment

Water abstraction: The process of taking water from any source, either temporarily or permanently; most water is used for irrigation and domestic purposes

Water allocation: The quantity of water available to be taken under a water access license

Water-borne diseases: Diseases that arise from infected water and are transmitted when the water is used for drinking or cooking (e.g., cholera and typhoid)

Water budget: The description and quantification of input, output and net changes to a particular water resource system over a period of time

Water, Climate and Development Programme (WACDEP): Programme developed by GWP and the African Ministers Council on Water (AMCOW) in response to the climate change commitments established in the 2008 Sharm el Sheikh Declaration

Water conservation: The wise use of water; includes more efficient practices in farm, home and industry and water capture through water storage or conservation projects

Water cycle: Transition and movement of water involving evaporation, transpiration, condensation, precipitation, percolation, runoff and storage

Water footprint: An indicator of freshwater use that looks at both direct and indirect water use by a consumer or producer

Water Framework Directive (of the EU): Commits European Union member states to achieve good qualitative and quantitative status of all water bodies (including marine waters up to one nautical mile from shore) by 2015

Water governance: The political, administrative, economic and social systems that exist to manage water resources and services and that are essential to manage water resources sustainably and provide access to water services for domestic or productive purposes

Water law: The field of law dealing with the ownership, control and use of water as a resource

Water Partnership: A network that offers practical advice on the sustainable management of water resources; water partnerships can operate at a variety of levels, from local to global

Water quality: The condition of water in relation to impurities

Water quality standard: Recommended or enforceable maximum contaminant levels of chemicals or substances in water; the levels are established for water used by municipalities, industries, agriculture and recreation

Water reform: The process of changing a country's water governance system

Water right: The right to use water but not to own it; good water law recognizes and acknowledges existing uses and rights, including customary uses and local community entitlements

Water scarcity: Occurs when annual water supply falls below 1 000 m^3 per person, or when more than 40 per cent of available water is used

Water security: The availability of an acceptable quantity and quality of water for health, livelihoods, ecosystems and production, coupled with an acceptable level of water-related risks to people, environments and economies

Watershed: The region draining into a river, river system or body of water; the total land area, regardless of size, above a given point on a waterway that contributes runoff water to the flow at that point; all the land that serves as a drainage for a specific stream or river

Water storage: The locations in which water is stored; they can be above ground in lakes, rivers and other waterways, or below ground as groundwater

Water stress: See Water scarcity

Water supply: The share of water abstraction supplied to users (excluding losses in storage, conveyance and distribution)

Water table: The upper level of groundwater; the level below which soil and rock are saturated with water

Water-use efficiency: Efficiency with which water is used for a specific purpose, such as for domestic use, irrigation or industry; includes water withdrawal from surface and groundwater sources, water delivery to homes and businesses, consumptive use of water, water released from wastewater treatment plants, water returned to the environment and use of water to produce hydroelectric power

Well: Any structure or device used for the purpose to obtain groundwater from an aquifer; a shaft or hole dug or drilled down vertically to tap an underground supply of water

Wetlands: Areas that are inundated by surface or groundwater with sufficient frequency that they can support vegetative or aquatic life that requires saturated or seasonally saturated soil conditions for growth or reproduction

This is a guide to GWPO's preferred style. It should be used for all GWPO publications to provide consistency in language style and formatting. This is important for an organization like GWPO, which is an authority on water issues, producing publications for many different audiences.