

HAWLEY & ASSOCIATES

Writing Style Guide

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Hawley & Associates
37456 Fremont Blvd.
Fremont, CA 94538
(510)-625-5270

Preface

This guide describes proper writing style for documents written by Hawley & Associates. Good technical writing is often hard to identify, because it usually goes unnoticed, while bad technical writing is easy to notice, whether it's spelling or grammatical errors, inaccurate or confusing technical language, colloquial or offensive language, or other problems. One way to avoid these pitfalls is to follow the rules found in a good writing style guide.

This guide is not the only definitive style guide in existence, and we recommend referring to other style guides, such as *Elements of Style* by Strunk and White and *The Chicago Manual of Style* in addition to this guide, for style questions.

How This Guide Is Organized

This guide contains the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Organization of Manual

Chapter 2: Style and Punctuation

Chapter 3: Abbreviations, Numbers and Miscellaneous Topics

Chapter 4: Choosing the Right Word

Chapter 5: Company Information

Appendix A: References

Guide Conventions

Main chapter topics or important concepts are displayed in bold text.

Examples or book titles are displayed in Arial font or italic text.

Computer messages are displayed in courier text.

Chapter 1

1. ORGANIZATION OF MANUALS

This chapter discusses how manuals written by Hawley & Associates employees will be organized. It is divided into four main parts:

- Title Page
- Body of Manual
- Appendixes and Glossaries
- Index

1.1 Title Page

The **Title Page** contains the following elements: **Title Page**, **Preface**, and the **Table of Contents**.

1.1.1 Title Page

The **Title Page** or **Cover Page** contains the manual title, part number, revision number, and date of publication just below the middle center of the page. It also lists the Hawley & Associates name, address, and phone number at the bottom center of the title page.

1.1.2 Preface

The **Preface** explains the organization of the manual and how to use it. It helps the reader decide if they are reading the correct manual. The preface should briefly describe the manual's purpose, the product the manual describes, the intended audience and what level of knowledge the reader should have before reading the manual. The preface contains the organization of the manual and a summary of each chapter in it. It also describes the font conventions used in the manual.

1.1.3 Table of Contents

The **Table of Contents** lists chapters, sections, and subsections by number and title. The lists of Figures and Tables are considered part of the table of contents and are listed by number and title after the chapter and index (if an index is included) listings.

1.2 Body of Manual

All Manuals will have the following elements: **Chapters, Figures, Tables, Lists, Examples, Notes, and Warnings.** Before beginning any writing, however, you should put together an **outline.**

1.2.1 Outline

An **outline** is the foundation for any manual. Write as detailed an outline as you can before you begin writing text. When putting together an outline, keep these ideas in mind:

- For each chapter, main section or topic, include as many subheadings or subtopics as you can.
- Be sure your outline includes descriptions for the following elements:
 - **Title or Cover Page**
 - **Table of Contents**
 - **Chapters or sections/topics and subtopics**
 - **Appendixes** (if needed)
 - **Glossary** (if needed)
 - **Index**

1.2.2 Chapters

Chapters are the largest divisions of the manual. They are numbered in simple numeric form and the chapter head is the first level head.(for example, 1) Each chapter begins with a summary of the scope of the chapter's organization and its topics. Chapters consist of the following items: **sections and subsections;** and **paragraphs.**

A **section** is the second largest division of the manual. They are always numbered, being the second level head (for example 1.1). A section covers a specific subdivision of the chapter, using subsections as needed. Treat a section like a chapter by briefly explaining the scope of the section. Some sections may have information that needs to be divided further, in which case a **subsection** should be used. Subsection titles use third level numbered heads (for example,. 1.1.1).

Occasionally, you may need to divide chapter information further; in which case a fourth-level subsection can be used. Generally, this is not encouraged unless a list, table, figure, or example can be used instead.

Each section or subsection consists of paragraphs. A **paragraph** is a group of sentences that support and develop a single idea or concept. A topic sentence states the major idea of a paragraph; the rest of it supports and develops that

statement with carefully related details. Length should be tailored to aid the reader's understanding of ideas. Paragraph length should be just long enough to deal adequately with the subject of the topic sentence. A new paragraph should begin whenever the subject changes dramatically.

1.2.3 Figures, Tables and Lists

Figures, Tables and Lists are all ways to make a concept easier or more memorable for the reader to understand. They also help break up white space and cut down on the number of words in a manual by explaining a concept more efficiently.

A **figure** is a graphic illustration of concepts, products or relationships. It should always appear before the text reference or as close to it as possible, either aligned to the left or right of the text it is referenced to, or beneath it in the center of the area just beneath the text it is referencing. It should also be referred to in text by number.

Callouts can be used when necessary. A callout identifies a certain part or area of a figure and includes a line that points to it. Use a callout to label a part, identify a setting, or to point out a feature.

When you use a figure, be sure that the reference explains to the reader exactly what they should notice. For example:

Figure 1-1 shows the Menu Bar:

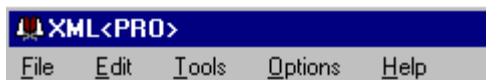


Figure 1-1 Menu Bar

A **table** is a clear summary of information. Tables can be one page of text or several pages. table format can vary by the type and quantity of information presented. The table name should be brief and placed below the table.

Tables should not only be introduced but explained. You need to walk the reader through an example entry showing them how to extract the information you said would be there. If you use abbreviations or symbols to save space, make sure to explain that in a legend or table notes.

Here is an example:

Table 1-1 on the next page shows the costs and other pertinent information for both prospective forklifts:

	Max Weight	Max Speed	Max Height	Costs	Production Stop Time	Distance to get Repair Parts
Electric Forklift	1000 pounds	30 mph	6 feet	Initial: \$19,350 Yearly: \$3,100	3 days	500 miles (next day delivery)
Gas Forklift	2000 pounds	40 mph	12 feet	Initial: \$20,670 Yearly: \$2,800	2 days	17 miles (same day delivery)

Table 1. Gas and Electric Forklift Comparisons

Lists are useful for breaking up white space and for emphasizing information. If you are writing a sentence with more than three serial commas, you probably should display it in a list. Try not to break lists across pages. There are three types of lists:

Bulleted Use bulleted or unnumbered lists when the list has no order.

Numbered Use numbered lists to explain steps in a process.

Indented Use an indented lists when the list is categorical or the category explanation is long.

1.2.4 Examples, Notes and Warnings

An **example** shows the reader an instance of a concept to help make it easier for them to understand. It should always have a 2.5 inch indent from the left, as follows:

When you want to change terminal emulation, type: `%set env`

A **Note** draws attention to important information that is either not covered in the text or is a special variation of information covered in the previous paragraph. For example:

Note: Release 4.5 and below of **Fortunit Software** has this feature disabled.

Notes should always have a 2.5 inch indent with the word **Note** in **Bold** text.

A **Warning** draws attention to a potentially hazardous condition or problem. For example:

Warning: Do not attempt to reboot the system in event of a power failure.

As with Notes, Warning messages should always have a 2.5 inch indent with the word **Warning** in **Bold** text.

1.3 Appendixes and Glossaries

The Back Matter of all manuals contain the following elements: **Appendixes**, **Glossary**, and an **Index**. The **Index** is covered in the next section of this chapter.

1.3.1. Appendixes

Appendixes contains supplementary information. This is where an appendix differs from a regular chapter. For example, your manual may have a chapter on common system commands and what they mean, but you will also have an appendix to list less common or rarely used system commands. Another use for appendixes is for detailed product specifications or for system error messages.

Rules for writing appendixes are the same as for chapters. Each appendix begins with a summary of the scope of its organization and its topics. All elements used in chapters can also be used in appendixes. All appendixes must be referenced within the body of the manual.

1.3.2 Glossary

A **glossary** is an alphabetical list of words, acronyms, or other terminology used in a manual. It is an optional element, but we recommend one for any document written to audiences unfamiliar with the subject matter.

1.4 Index

The **Index** is an alphabetical list of topics with the page numbers where they appear in a manual. It is one of the last processes involved with producing a manual. We recommend including an index for any manual over ten pages in length.

An index contains three major parts:

- **Entries** - These are the main parts of an index; the topics the reader looks up to find page references, which lead to a location in the manual where more information is available. There are three kinds of entries: The **main entry** (the specific index entry), a **subentry** (an entry related to the main entry), and a **subsubentry**.
- **Page references** - These are the page numbers where the entries are located. Try to limit page references to two or three. A main entry with subentries should not have page references itself, but there should be page references next to the subentries.

- **Cross references** - Cross references direct the reader to related information in the manual. There are two types: *see* and *see also*. *See* references direct the reader to the appropriate main entry you have selected for the topic. *See also* references direct the reader to places in the manual where additional information about the topic is available. Examples of each are shown below:

Economic costs. See Benefit-cost analysis.

Technical Writing. See also Manuals.

Do not attempt to compile an index until the final manual is completed because the topics and page numbers will change constantly while a work is in progress. The best way to compile a list of topics is to read through the manual from the beginning, each time a key term appears in a significant context, list the term and its page number on either a 3X5 card (if done manually) or make a notation in whatever indexing software you are using in conjunction with writing of the manual.

The key to compiling a useful index is selectivity. Do not list every reference to a topic. Instead, select references to passages where the topic is discussed fully or where a significant point is made about it.

For actual index entries, choose words or phrases that best represent the topic. Topics can include:

- **Concepts and ideas.** Create one or more entries to help the reader find the concept. You may find it difficult to describe a whole concept or idea in a few words. For example, a paragraph that discusses the topics **computer memory and management** might also contain subentries about floppy disk storage and hard disk drive storage.
- **Definition of terms.** Readers often want to know the definitions of terms, so it is helpful to find definitions in the manual and reference them in the index. For example, a paragraph defining what a **proxy firewall** is can be used as an index entry.
- **Functions and Features.** To answer a reader's questions of what a subject does or how it works, look for **functions** (verbs) and **features** (nouns) in the text to include as entries. For example, a **text interface function** or **text filter** can be indexed this way.
- **Acronyms and Abbreviations.** These fall under the same category as Definition of Terms. A reader may need to know an acronym definition as well as other important information about it. For example, the term **Internetwork Packet Exchange (IPX)** can be indexed as both *Internetwork Packet Exchange* and *IPX*.

1.4.1 Creating the Index

When you create the index, start by doing a “draft index.” That is, create the major headings, adding subentries as you go with the intent of just gathering the major topics. Print out your draft. This makes it easier for you to remember what topics you have already selected and it makes subentries easier to organize. Then go through a second and third

time as needed, revising and adding entries and subentries as needed.

The first word of an index entry should be the first word because the reader will look for topics alphabetically by their main words. Selecting the right word to list first can be difficult; some topics are easier to list than others. For example, **tips on repairing electrical wire** would not be a good index entry; because the reader would not look under the word **tips**. However, if you create an index entry called **Electrical wire** with a subentry called **repairing**, it would tell them where they would find out how to repair the electrical wire.

If you are using Word 95/98, you can also use the **Search and Find** and **Search and Replace** features to create index entries.

In Styling the index, follow these rules:

- Capitalize the first word of a main entry and all other terms normally capitalized in the manual. Do not capitalize the first word in subentries unless they appear that way in the manual. *See* and *See also* cross-references should always be in *italics*
- Place each subentry in the index on a separate line, indented from its main entry, as follows:

Newts, history, 15 species, 19
- Separate entries from page numbers with commas. (e.g. *boot-up disk, 43*) Type the index in a double-column format.
- The font for all index entries is **Arial Black**, size 8.
- **Index** entries begin with symbols and numbers and then the alphabet. Index pages are numbered Index-# to distinguish themselves from other Back Matter elements.

Chapter 2

2 STYLE AND PUNCTUATION

This chapter discusses the writing style and punctuation used in manuals written by Hawley & Associates. It is divided into two main parts:

- Writing style
- Punctuation Marks

2.1 Writing Style

Hawley & Associates manuals are expected to be accurate, complete, easy to read, and timely. All manuals should be written in a friendly way. They should not, however, become folksy or humorous in an attempt to become friendly. Strive for a conversational tone without using technical jargon. Always use second person, active voice whenever possible. There may be some occasions that require you to use the third person, but when you do this, be sure to include the doer of the action.

Another way to achieve friendliness and also clarity is to avoid wordiness. Phrases like *in order* can be shortened to *to*, for example. Writing in second person can cut out as much as 20 to 30% of the words in a manual.

Manuals should not be boring to the reader. Try to always use active verbs and as few words as possible. For example, the word *use* comes up quite often in manuals. You could replace the word *use* with *manipulate*, *apply*, or *operate*.

2.1.1 Chapter Titles

When you create a new chapter or divide the information presented in some way, you generally start that section with a **title**. Titles enhance the information, making it easy for the reader to reference it. Titles should be explicit about the information to be found in that section and should indicate the scope and intent of the section. Here are two examples:

Bad example: *Titles*

Better example: *How to Write Meaningful Titles*

Bad example: *How to Start*

Better example: *Starting in Fortuneit 4.0*

2.1.2 Organizing Topics

Good manuals are focused and flow logically. While it may be clear to you how a manual is organized, it won't always be so clear to your reader. Always be sure that you have a logical organization in your manual and that you carefully explain it to your reader. This helps them follow your flow and helps you stay focused on your topic.

Topic sentences are another way to keep your readers interested in your material. All paragraphs should have topic sentences. The rest of the paragraph should develop the topic logically and smoothly. Good writing is not just a set of well constructed paragraphs, but those paragraphs should flow smoothly.

Flow between paragraphs is also very important. Often, a reader will wonder why a topic is introduced suddenly. This usually means the reason for moving from one topic to another was not made clear with words like *therefore* or *on the other hand* or some other like phrase; in other words there is very little or no flow between paragraphs.

Writing in parallel should also be followed especially when writing lists. Parallel writing means when you state one instance, all following instances should be stated in the same way. For example:

You can perform these actions: turning on the computer, logging in, entering your password, and reading your mail.

Parallel writing helps to lead the reader along and keeps them interested in the topic being discussed.

Always write a manual in present tense. The computer *does* this, not the computer *will do* this. Future tense sounds vague and dependent. If you must use another tense, be sure it is valid. Do not change tense in the same sentence.

2.2 Punctuation

This section lists basic punctuation rules and guidelines. Note that traditional punctuation marks can take on specialized meanings when documenting programming languages. For example, quotation marks in the C or Bourne shell, which provide specialized meaning for single, double and back quotes.

2.2.1 Apostrophes

The **apostrophe** is used to show possession and to mark the omission of letters. Use an apostrophe in the following cases:

- **In contractions.** Apostrophes replace omitted letters. For example, *can't*, *aren't*, and *it's*.
- **In place of numerals.** Apostrophes replace omitted numerals. For example, *Spirit of '76*, *Class of '94*.
- **For possessives.** Use apostrophes to note the possessive case of nouns. If a noun does not end in 's,' add an apostrophe and an 's' to most indefinite pronouns, singular nouns and plural nouns. For example, *the file's properties* and *women's rights*. To form the possessive of a singular noun ending in s (or its sound), add an apostrophe and an 's' to it. For example, *the mouse's buttons* or *the bus's capacity*.

If the addition of an 's' produces an awkward sound, add only the apostrophe, as in *Stevens Systems' Employees*. Add an apostrophe to form the possessive of plural nouns that end in 's,' as in *Mr.*

Andrews' files. The possessive of two or more proper nouns depends on ownership. For example, *John and Yoko's files* indicates joint ownership, while *John's and Yoko's files* indicates individual ownership.

Use apostrophes to form the plurals of most numerals and symbols, lowercase letters, or single uppercase letters. For example: *drive B's* and *-f's*.

The apostrophe is not necessary (although not incorrect to use) when you are forming the plural of two or more unitary uppercase letters or numerals. For example: *plug in all CPUs* and *the operating system of the early 1980s was CP/M*.

2.2.2 Brackets

Brackets are not substitutes for parentheses. Brackets should not normally be used, except for the following cases:

- **With parenthetical text.** Use brackets when inserting a parenthetical word or phrase into text already enclosed in parentheses. For example: *According to Time magazine, (page 14 of May, 1996 [Volume 1]), 90% of Canadians think DB Cooper is still alive.*
- **In Optional command-line entries.** Brackets can set off an optional part of a command line. For example: *date [yymmdd]*

2.2.3 Colons

The **colon** lets the reader know there is a close connection between the first statement and the one immediately after it. A colon can also be used to connect a list or series to the clause, word, or phrase with which it corresponds to. For example:

There are three ways with which you can download network data: from the World Wide Web, gopher and FTP (File Transfer Protocol).

Do not place a colon between a verb and its objects. For example, the statement "*The three fluids for cleaning metal are: acetone, alcohol, and water.*" should be changed to "*The three fluids for cleaning metal are acetone, alcohol, and water.*" Do not place a colon between a preposition and its object.

A colon can be used to link one statement to another that develops or explains the first. For example: "*Any large organization has two main informational problems: it should maintain an effective internal communication system, and it must insure that an effective communication system is maintained at all times.*"

The first word after a colon may be capitalized if the statement following it is a complete sentence or it introduces a formal resolution or question.

2.2.4 Commas

The **comma** helps readers understand the meaning of your words and prevents ambiguity. There are numerous instances where commas should be used. Use the serial comma for lists of items. Notice in the example shown below, there is a comma after the word *and*.

John now owns a 6 GB hard drive, a CD-ROM, and a zip drive.

Use a comma between independent clauses that are linked by a coordinating conjunction, or to separate two main clauses in a compound sentence (*and, but, or, not, and sometimes so, yet, and for*). Example:

Human beings have always prided themselves on their unique capacity to create and manipulate symbols, but today computers are manipulating symbols.

Here is a list of common cases where commas are used:

To separate a list of items. Use a comma between three or more items, including before the *and*.

To separate two or more adjectives. Use a comma to separate two or more adjectives that modify the same noun, as in “*We need an exciting, hard-hitting ad campaign.*”

To separate numbers. Use a comma to separate the hundreds-place in numbers greater than 9999.

To indicate omission. Use a comma to indicate an omitted word, as in “*Half the purchase price is due on delivery of the goods, the balance in three months.*”

To indicate full stops. Use a comma to indicate a full stop, as in “*What will happen, we don't know.*”

After Introductory elements. Use a comma to separate an introductory element that comes before the subject and verb of the main clause, as in “*When I return to the office, I will get back to you.*”

After Introductory requests or commands. Use a comma in these cases: “*Look, we've been through this before,*” and “*Established in 1974, the firm grew swiftly to over 500 people.*”

Use commas after introductory adverbs and phrases when they function as transitional expressions (*well, therefore, however*) and when they function as independent comments (*in my opinion, by all means, obviously*)

You should always include the command after a last word in a series. It makes the statement clearer and the presence of the comma reduces ambiguity.

Do not use a comma after introductory adverbs or short introductory phrases.

Do not separate a subject and a verb.

Do not separate a verb and its object of complement: “*She is honest, hard-working, and extremely capable.*”

Do not separate an adjective and a noun.

Do not separate a noun and a prepositional phrase that follows, as in: *“The board of IBM will announce this new product.”*

Do not separate a coordinating conjunction and the following word, as in *“You can read it now/ or when you get home.”*

Do not separate two items joined by a coordinating conjunction, as in *“We hope that you will visit our store soon and/ that you will find the style you like.”*

2.2.5 Contractions

A **contraction** is a shortened spelling of a word or phrase with an apostrophe substituting for the missing letters. Here are some rules for using contractions:

- Don't overuse them.
- Avoid obscure contractions and nonstandard usages and regionalisms, like *mustn't* or *shan't*, or using *ain't* and *don't* to mean *does not*.
- Never create your own contraction.
- Use "it's" correctly. "It's" is the contraction of "it is." "Its" is the possessive of it.
- Use "you're" correctly. "You're" is the contraction of "you are." "Your" is a possessive adjective.

2.2.6 Dashes

The **dash** is versatile because it can link, separate and enclose a clause. However, it also can be limited because it can easily be overused. Use dashes cautiously to indicate more informality or emphasis than would be achieved by other punctuation marks.

A **dash** can emphasize a sharp turn in thought, as in *“The project will end January 15—unless we get more capital.”* A **dash** can indicate an emphatic pause, as in *“We will start the software project—after Windows98 is installed.”* A **dash** can also be used with *but* to emphasize contrast, as in *“We can produce work more quickly—but the end result will not be as good.”*

There are two types of dashes used in **Hawley & Associates** manuals: **Em dashes** and **En dashes**. **Em dashes** usually are a long dash and are used when you need to mark a sharp break in a sentence and a comma doesn't provide the emphasis you want (see the example in the previous paragraph for an example of an em dash). **En dashes** on the other hand are a shorter dash on the other hand are used to indicate a range, such as *“See pages 16-25.”* Or to indicate negative numbers, such as a minus sign for numbers less than zero, such as *“Do not operate this equipment in temperatures lower than -20 degrees C.”*

Remember too when using dashes to never leave a space before or after the dash.

2.2.7 Ellipsis Mark

An **ellipsis mark** is used to note an omission of quoted material in text. It is made up of three ellipsis points (periods) with a space between each point. One space separates the ellipsis mark from text before and text after the point where the mark is located.

Use an **ellipsis mark** for the following:

- **For omissions.** An **ellipsis mark** shows that text has been omitted from a sentence, phrase, or clause. Example: *"The system displays: "Do you want . . . menu choices now?"*

Add a period when a complete sentence ends with an ellipsis mark or when you have omitted entire sentences from quoted material. Example: *"You will see the following message displayed on screen: If you wish, you can press the Enter key . . ."*

When the omitted portion of the quoted text is at the beginning of a sentence, begin the quotation with a lower case letter. Example: *"This text states that the programmer " . . . must enter the system code before making any changes."*

- **For pauses.** Use an **ellipsis mark** to indicate a pause when quoting a displayed message. Example: *"System loading. Please wait . . ."*

2.2.8 Hyphens

Using **hyphens** has become troublesome because the computer field has developed so many unique terms. As a general rule, hyphenate a multiword expression when it is used as a modifier, and do not hyphenate it when it is being used as a verb or a noun.

Here are some general rules to follow in using hyphens. Use a hyphen:

- **With compound modifiers.** Generally, use a hyphen to form a compound modifier when the modifier is used before the noun. Use hyphens with numerals in compound modifiers. Example: *Here is the 2,000-byte file* or *This applies to read-write operations.*

Hyphenate a compound modifier when it appears *before* the noun, but not usually *after* it. Example: *An easy-to-remember password is also one that will be easy to steal.*

Occasionally, the initial elements of two or more compound modifiers within the same sentence share the same final element. In these constructions, hyphenate the initial elements, even when they are not directly joined to the final element. Example: *The system should have read-, write-, and file access to all users.*

- **To prevent ambiguity.** Hyphens help clarify ambiguous text. Example: *Robert runs a car-repair*

store as opposed to *Robert runs a car repair store*.

- **With prefixes and suffixes.** A hyphen is often used between a prefix and suffix and a root word when the combination results in double letters. Words like *re-enable*, *co-organizer*, and *shell-like* fit under this category. However, not all prefixes and suffixes fall under this category; follow the guidelines found in a standard dictionary if you have a question about a word.

Use a hyphen to join numbers and proper nouns or adjectives with the following prefixes: *anti-*, *mid-*, *neo-*, *non-*, *pan-*, *pro-* and *un-*. Hyphens also join, almost without exception, the following prefixes: *all-*, *ex-*, and *self-*.

- **In fractions.** A hyphen separates the components of a spelled-out fraction. Example: *Writing the code for the Java program will take up one-fourth of the project time.*
- **In key combinations.** Use a hyphen to separate key combinations. Example: *Press Control-Shift-R.*

Do not use a hyphen in the following cases:

- **For industry-accepted terms.** Do not hyphenate compound words that are now widely accepted, like *backup* and *database*.
- **To construct verbs.** Do not hyphenate two words that are used as a verb, but that are hyphenated when used as a compound modifier. Example: *Log on only after reading the dial-up instructions.*
- **With a compound modifier (adverb) ending in ‘ly.’** Do not hyphenate a compound modifier that includes an adverb that ends in ‘ly.’ Example: *“An easily remembered password is probably not safe to use.”*
- **With numerals as single modifiers.** Do not hyphenate numerals or numbers when they serve as single modifiers. Example: *“This file contains 200,000 bytes.”*
- **With some prefixes and suffixes.** Do not use a hyphen in a word that is listed as unhyphenated in a standard dictionary and that uses a common prefix.

Prefixes in this category include: *bi*, *non*, *inter*, *pre*, *meta*, *post*, *micro*, *un*, *mini*, *multi*, and *under*.

- **To indicate a range.** Use an **en dash** instead of a hyphen to indicate a range. Do not put a space either before or after the dash. Example: *Refer to pages 16-24.*”

Note: Some word processing and authoring tools support automatic hyphenation of words if they break at the end of a line.

2.2.9 Parentheses

Parentheses are used to enclose words, phrases, and sentences. If you feel you need to use them, consider if the parenthetical material is important enough to be included at all. If so, it may fit better without parentheses within the paragraph. If not, don't include it. Use paragraphs in these cases:

- **With digressive text.** Use parentheses to enclose relevant material that should not be part of the main sentence, either because it would be confusing if punctuated otherwise or because it is digressive. Example: *“The Font menu, which provides four options (Regular, Bold, Italic, Underlined) is easy to use.”*
- **For elaboration.** Parentheses enclose material that further explains an element of the main sentence, but is not critical to that sentence's meaning. Example: *“To keep the printer from printing supplementary information (especially when printing multiple copies of a document), check the box in the Printer window.”*
- **In lists.** Use parentheses to offset letters or numerals that designate items listed within a sentence. Example: *“Choose from a) keyboard entry, b) mouse entry, or c) voice entry.”*
- **With first occurrences.** Parentheses enclose special keyboard symbols, and abbreviations and acronyms when they first appear in text. Example: *“The operating system inserts a tilde (~) when a file name is too long.”*

To enclose an entire sentence. Use parentheses to enclose an entire sentence that is relevant to information presented in the paragraph, yet dispensable to the paragraph's meaning. When an entire sentence is enclosed in parentheses, place the final parentheses after the sentence's last punctuation mark. Example: *“Place the pointer at the top scrollbar and click on the left mouse button (See page 44 for further instructions).”*

2.2.10 Periods

A **period** usually indicates the end of a sentence. Use them in the following cases:

- **In file and directory names.** A period is sometimes part of a file name (separating a file name from a file extension). Example: *“The instructions are in the README.DOC file.* In the UNIX system, a period also serves as an abbreviation for the current directory, as shown here: *“To copy a file into the current directory, type `cp ~/work/budget .`*
- **To end a sentence.** Use a period to end a declarative or imperative sentence. Example: *“Computer manuals are always precise.”*

Whenever possible, avoid ending a sentence with a command that must be typed. For example, “To restart the computer, type `boot`.” can be replaced with “Type `boot` to restart the computer.”

- **With abbreviations.** A period follows some common abbreviations. Example: *“The meeting starts at 10 a.m. on Tuesday.”*

2.2.11 Quotation marks

Quotation marks are used to enclose spoken or written material and should not be used to emphasize. Use them in the following cases:

- **For quotes.** Quotation marks indicate that the material (other than computer commands, system messages, file commands, etc.) was taken directly from another source. Do not enclose computer or file commands, system messages and related text in quotation marks, unless the marks are part of the command. The reader may think the quotation marks are part of that specific command or message.

Example:

The command in the `.csbrc` file means that the file becomes “read and write” after you set the permissions accordingly.

- **For chapter titles.** Use quotation marks to enclose titles of chapters in a book. Example:

For more information about UNIX system commands, see Chapter 8, “Unix File System Commands.”

- **For highlighting.** Quotation marks highlight a word or phrase when it is the subject of discussion or it is used in an unusual way. Example:

Press the Control key and P to take a “snapshot” of your screen.

- **Around single letters.** Quotation marks also surround single letters. Example:

The letter “x” means no special permissions.

There is no single rule governing the placement of quotation marks that are next to other punctuation marks. Whether the final quotation marks follow or precede another punctuation mark depends upon context. Place the final quotation mark after most adjacent punctuation marks, no matter how long or short the quoted material is. Example: *“Yes,” he said, “the file has been downloaded.”*

Always place the final quotation mark before a colon or semicolon. Example: *There are three buttons on the “mouse”: left, middle, and right.* Place the final quotation mark after a question mark or an exclamation point when the question or

exclamation is part of the quoted material. Example: *The system will now prompt you, “Do you wish to save or delete the file?”*

Be sure to place the final quotation mark after the question mark or exclamation point. An example of this is *“How do I save a file to CD-ROM?”*

Note: Most examples in this guide have quotes at the beginning and end of the example. This section leaves them deleted, to avoid confusing the reader.

2.2.12 Semicolon

Use a **semicolon** between closely related and evenly balanced complete sentences. Also use a semicolon in the following cases:

- **Before explanatory statements.** Use a semicolon before a phrase that introduces an explanatory or summarizing statement. Example:

The Open key is a toggle key; that is, a key with alternating features.

- **With independent clauses.** Use a semicolon to separate independent clauses joined by conjunctive adverbs, such as *hence*, *however*, or *therefore*. Example:

Because this software is in Java form, it can be used on many other platforms; however modified Java source code may not always work with Microsoft programs.

A semicolon also separates independent clauses not joined by a conjunction. Example:

Don't write the preface; all prefaces are now written by the Publications Manager.

- **In a series.** A semicolon separates items in a series when the items themselves include commas. Example: *The Reply button provides the following options: Replay (all), include; Reply, include; Reply (all) and Reply.*

Chapter 3

3. Abbreviations, Numbers and Miscellaneous Topics

This chapter discusses **Abbreviations, Numbers, Capitalization** and miscellaneous writing topics. It is divided into five main parts:

- Abbreviations, Acronyms, and Units of Measurement
 - Numbers and numerals
 - Capitalization
 - When to use **bold** and *italic* fonts
 - Clichés, Euphemisms, and Sexist Writing

3.1 Abbreviations, Acronyms and Units of Measurement

Computer manuals require extensive use of abbreviations and acronyms, as well as occasionally units of measurement. Many computer acronyms, like the term *Internet*, are now widely accepted as computer industry words. As with any word, it is important that you use **Abbreviations, Acronyms and Units of Measurement** accurately and consistently. To do this, rely on industry definitions; never try to create your own. Refer also to books like the *IBM Dictionary of Computing* and the *Microsoft Press Computer Dictionary*.

3.1.1 Abbreviations and Acronyms in Text

An **abbreviation** is a shortened form of a word or phrase that is used in place of the entire word or phrase. CPU (Central Processing Unit), HTML (Hyper Text Markup Language), and BBS (Bulletin Board System) are examples of abbreviations. An **acronym** is an easily pronounceable word formed from the initial letters or major parts of a computer term. COBOL (Common Business Oriented Language), BIOS (Basic Input Output System), and LAN (Local Area Network) are examples of acronyms.

Use abbreviations or acronyms in the following cases:

- Write out the full word or phrase the first time you use it and enclose the abbreviation or acronym in parentheses. After that, use the abbreviation or acronym. Example:

A Local Area Network (LAN) is the preferred network for most companies today.

- If you cite a term only once or twice in a document, don't shorten it unless the abbreviation or acronym is well known.
- If an abbreviation or acronym appears often in your document, repeat the spelled-out version in each chapter where it is used.

- Do not shorten trademarked terms or spell out trademarked terms that appear to be abbreviations or acronyms.
- When using an acronym, make sure its pronunciation is natural and obvious to a reader. The acronym *SCSI*, for example is pronounced "scuzzy." A user not knowing that *SCSI* is pronounceable may expect to see "*an SCSI port*," not "*a SCSI port*." In cases like this, provide some kind of pronunciation key where you first use the acronym by itself; for example:

A small computer system interface (SCSI--pronounced 'scuzzy') cable connects the disk drive to the SCSI port.

3.1.2 Abbreviations and Acronyms Punctuation

Usually, you do not need to add punctuation to abbreviations and acronyms. However, there are a few exceptions:

- Use periods or other punctuation marks in abbreviations or acronyms when it is standard form. Examples: *in. for inch, I/O for input/output, 3-d for three-dimensional.*
- Add an "s" and no apostrophe to form the plural of abbreviations or acronyms that do not use internal periods. Examples: *PCs, GUIs.*
- Add an apostrophe and "s" to form the plural of abbreviations or acronyms that use internal periods. Examples: *M.S.'s, Ph.D.'s.*

The following pages list some common abbreviations and acronyms used in the computer industry. It is not comprehensive and we recommend referring to the resources listed at the beginning of this chapter for any not listed here. New abbreviations and acronyms are being created daily as new technologies emerge, and old ones disappear. Note too that definitions of terms can vary from one computer system to another. Definitions of terms can even vary slightly within the same computer system.

Abbreviation	Name or Term
A	
amp	ampere
ADP	automatic data processing
AF	audio frequency
AFC	automatic frequency control
AI	artificial intelligence
a.m.	ante meridian (morning)
AM	amplitude modulation
ANSI	American National Standards Institute
API	application programming interface
ARPANET	Advanced Research Projects Agency Network
ASCII	American National Standard Code for Information Interchange
async	asynchronous

Abbreviation

ATM
B
BASIC
BBS
BIOS
BOF
bps
Bps
BSD
C
C
C
c
CAD
CAE
CAI
CAM
CASE
ccw
CD-ROM
CDE
CMOS
COBOL
cpi
cps
CUI
D
DAT
DBMS
DC
DCE
DOS
DRAM
DTD
DTE
DTR
E
EGA
EIA
EOF
EPROM
F
F
FAQ
FAT
fax
FM
FPA
FTP
G

Name or Term

asynchronous transfer mode
beginners all-purpose symbolic instruction code
bulletin board system
Basic Input Output System
beginning of file
bits per second
bytes per second
Berkeley System
C programming language
Celsius
centigrade
computer aided design
computer-aided engineering
computer-aided instruction
computer-aided manufacturing
computer-aided software engineering
counterclockwise
compact disc read-only memory
Common Desktop Environment
complimentary metal-oxide semiconductor
common business-oriented language
characters per inch
characters per second
character user interface
digital audio tape
database management system
direct current
data communication equipment
disk operating system
dynamic random access memory
Document Type Definition
data terminal equipment
data terminal ready
enhanced graphics adapter
Electronics Industry Association
end of file
erasable programmable read-only memory
Fahrenheit
frequently asked question
file allocation table
facsimile
frequency modulation
floating point accelerator
file transfer protocol

Abbreviation

Gbyte, GB

GUI

H

HTML

HTTP

I

IDE

IEEE

I/O

IP

IRQ

ISDN

ISO

K

Kbyte, KB, K

KSR

L

LAN

LED

M

Mbyte, MB

MHz

MIDI

MIPS

modem

MTBF

O

OS

OSI

P

PAL

PBX

PC

PCB

pixel

PLA

p.m.

PMOS

PPP

PROM

R

RAID

RF

RFI

Abbreviation

RISC

ROM

RTF

SCSI

Name or Term

gigabyte

graphical user interface

Hyper text Markup Language

Hypertext Transfer Protocol

Integrated Drive Electronics

Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers

Input/Output

Internet Protocol

interrupt request

integrated Services digital network

International Organization for Standardization

kilobyte

keyboard send receive

local-area network

light-emitting diode

megabyte

megahertz

Musical Instrument Digital Interface

million instructions per second

modulator-demodulator

mean time between failures

Operating System

Open Systems Interconnection

programmable array logic

private branch exchange

personal computer

printed circuit board

picture element

programmable logic array

post meridiem (afternoon)

positive-channel metal-oxide semiconductor

point to point protocol

programmable read only memory

redundant array of inexpensive disks

radio frequency

radio frequency interference

Name or Term

reduced instruction-set computer

read-only memory

rich text format

small computer system interface

SGML	Standard generalized Markup Language
SLIP	serial-line Internet protocol
SQL	structured query language
SRAM	static random access memory
T	
TCP	Transmission Control Protocol
TCP/IP	Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol
TELEX	
TIFF	teletypewriter exchange
U	
UART	universal asynchronous receiver-transmitter
UHF	ultra high frequency
UPS	uninterruptible power supply
URL	Uniform Resource Locator
U.S.	United States
UUCP	UNIX-to-UNIX copy
V	
VAR	value-added reseller
VDT	video display terminal
VGA	video graphics adapter
VHF	very high frequency
VLSI	very large scale integration
VRAM	video random access memory
W	
WAN	Wide Area Network
WWW	World Wide Web

3.1.3 Units of Measurement

Follow these rules when abbreviating units of measurement:

- Do not abbreviate common American units of measurement, such as "inches," "pounds," and "feet," unless you are worried about space (such as within a table column).
- Use standard abbreviations for units of measurement with great care. For example, the difference between Mb and MB is the difference between a megabit and megabyte. You can avoid confusion by always spelling out a term like *megabyte* or by using the less-abbreviated form, *Mbyte*.
- Be aware that most abbreviations for units of measurement already account for plurals. For example, the abbreviation for 1 kilowatt and 10 kilowatts is the same: kW.
- If an abbreviation for a unit or measurement is more than one letter, leave a space between the numeral and the abbreviation, but if an abbreviation consists of only one letter, do not leave a space. Examples: *12 mm*, *12V*.

- Include the metric or U.S. equivalent of a unit of measurement, when appropriate. Examples: *1 in (2.54 cm), 1m (3.2808 ft)*.

3.2 Numbers and numerals

A **number** describes a unit within a collection. A number is expressed by numerals (1, 2, 3, 4) or by words. **Cardinal numbers** use the words "one, two, three," while **ordinal numbers** use the words "first, second, third." With most manuals, you will most often use numerals when numbers are discussed in text.

3.2.1 Spelling out numbers

Spell out:

- Numbers zero through nine, unless the number is part of a measurement. Examples: *three computers* (a count), *3 inches* (a measurement).
- Approximations. Example: "*You can choose from hundreds of Pentium computers.*"
- Extreme values, such as "million" and "billion," but precede them with a numeral. Example: *3 million instructions per second*.
- The first number if a numeral immediately follows the number. Example: *Print ten 500,000 byte files*.

3.2.2 Using Numerals

Use numerals for:

- Numbers 10 or greater.
- Numbers less than 10 if they are of the same type and appear in the same paragraph as numbers of 10 or greater.
- Negative numbers.
- Most fractions.
- All percentages.
- All decimals. Examples: *0.15, 1.25*.
- All measurements. Examples: *6 pounds; 3.5-inch disk drive*.

- Chapter, section, part, page, figure, and table numbers. Example: *Part 4, Chapter 6*.

3.2.3 Punctuating Numbers and Numerals

Numbers and numerals generally require the same punctuation as words. Punctuating numbers and numerals can become troublesome when they are compounded.

- Do not hyphenate numbers or numerals when they serve as single modifiers. Example: *Your binary file is now 855,000 bytes.*
- Hyphenate numbers or numerals in compound modifiers. Examples: *Print your 855,00-byte file.*
- Do not use a comma in numerals of four digits. Examples: *1028, 6000.*
- Use a comma in numerals of more than four digits. Examples: *10,000, 600,000.*

3.2.4 Using Fractions

Usage of numerals for fractions depends on the context. Sometimes it may be best to spell out the fraction or use decimals.

- Use numerals for fractions in tables and for units of measurement, but spell out common fractions in running text. Examples: *1/2-inch tape drive, half the users in the test.*
- Use a space between a numeral and its related fraction. Example: *8 1/2-inches.*
- If a fraction is being used as a modifier, insert a hyphen between the fraction and what it is modifying. Example: *8 1/2-inch width.*
- Use decimals when that is the industry standard. Examples: *5.25-inch drive, 3.5-inch drive, 1/2-inch tape drive.*
- Spell out a numeric modifier of a fraction. Example: *Ten 1/2-inch tape drives (10 tape drives for 1/2-inch tape).*

3.2.5 Dates and Times

You may need to include dates and times in your manuals, especially in examples. Follow these rules when expressing dates:

- In examples, use the mmddyy format or May 10, 1997. Always spell out the month name. Avoid the 5/10/97 format. In the US it means May 10, 1997; however in other countries it means October 5, 1997.

- When describing how to enter dates, be clear which number is the month. Example: *Enter 5/10/97 for May 10, 1997.*

Follow this rule when expressing times:

- Use numbers to express the time of day. Use a colon between hours and minutes (and between minutes and seconds, if needed). Always capitalize AM and PM. Examples:

Regular banking hours are 9:00 AM to 4:00 PM.

If you select Time, the time displays in 24-hour format after the date. An example of this is 14:08, which represents 2:08 PM.

3.3 Capitalization

Writers tend to use too much **capitalization**. The main reason to capitalize a word is that it is proper, not because it has greater status than other words. A *proper noun* identifies a specific member of a class, whereas a *common noun* denotes either the whole class or any random member of the class.

3.3.1 When to Capitalize

In general, if an article or another limiting word ("a," "the," "this," "some," or "certain,") appear before the noun in question it is a *common noun*. Example:

Use a text editor to change information in the file.

Use Text Editor to change information in the file.

Note the difference in these two sentences. In the first sentence, the article "a" makes it clear the writer is talking about a generic text editor. In the second sentence, the absence of an article makes it clear the writer is talking about a specific text editor. In that case, *Text Editor* should be capitalized.

In general, capitalize:

- The letters of many abbreviations and acronyms.
- The first letter of the first term used in figure callouts and proper nouns in figure callouts.
- The first letter of a table, figure, appendix, chapter, and section when followed by a letter or number. Examples:

Turn to Chapter 3.

Turn to the next chapter.

- The first letter of the names of function keys on a keyboard. Examples: *Control key*, *Escape key*.
- The first letter of the first word of a sentence, unless the sentence begins with a command name or other computer term that is not capitalized.

format allows you to divide the disk into partitions.

However, you should try to avoid starting off a sentence with a computer command. For example, the above sentence could also be written:

Use the format utility to divide the disk into partitions.

- The first word of a complete sentence following a colon. Example:

Select from two options: Save stores your file, and Discard erases it.

- The first letter of any word in a title or head, with the exception of conjunction and articles, prepositions of fewer than four characters, and the "to" in infinitives, unless they appear at the beginning or end of the title or head. Example: *See Chapter 3, "Splitting the Infinitive."*
- The second element of a hyphenated compound in a title or head, only if it is a noun or proper adjective, or if it has equal force with the first element. Example: *"Ordering Third Party Peripherals."*
- Figure and table captions, using the same rules you establish for titles and heads in your document.

3.3.2 When Not to Capitalize

Do not capitalize:

- The word *page* or *step* when it is followed by a number. Example: *see page 45*.
- The first letter of the words in certain phrases, even though the phrases ordinarily appear in a shortened form in capital letters: Example:

*field-replacement unit*FRU

- Any word for the sole reason of emphasizing it (use *italics* for emphasis).
- Variable names used in code examples.
- Alphanumeric keys in a key combination. Example: *Control-q*
- Words in figure callouts other than the first word or proper sentence.

- In a title or head, conjunctions, articles, prepositions of fewer than four characters, and the *to* in infinitives, unless they appear at the beginning or end of the title. Example: *Elements of the User Interface*.

3.4 Font Conventions

Follow these font conventions:

Bold For Main chapter topics or important concepts.

Italic Examples or book titles.

Arial same as above.

`courier` For computer messages or commands .

3.5 Miscellaneous Topics

This section addresses miscellaneous writing topics.

3.5.1 Clichés

Clichés are expressions that have been used for so long they no longer sound fresh. In addition to being stale, clichés usually are wordy and often vague. Clichés usually come to mind easily. An example of one is, "*Clichés make a writer look dumb as a doornail.*" They are often used to attempt to make writing sound impressive, but instead slow communication and can even irritate your reader. Avoid them whenever possible.

3.5.2 Euphemisms

Similar in some respects to clichés are **euphemisms**. Euphemisms are words that are inoffensive substitutes to words that can be distasteful, offensive or too blunt. Used judiciously, euphemisms can help you avoid embarrassing or offending someone; however overuse of them can hide the facts of a situation. Examples: *remains* for *corpse*, or *incident* for *accident*.

3.5.3 Sexism in Writing

Writers must be careful to avoid their writing does not convey sexism. Up until the not-so-recent past, the pronouns *he*, *him*, and *his* were regarded by some as gender-neutral words. However, today use of these pronouns is considered offensive. Avoid them at all costs. Here are some ways to avoid sexist writing:

- Write plural antecedents and pronouns as often as possible. Instead of saying "*his machine*," change it to read "*their machine*."
- Eliminate the possessive as much as possible when you are writing in the third person. Instead of

saying "*ask his advice*," change it to read "*ask their advice*."

- Use the word *you*. Instead of saying "*If the user wants to change his access*," change it to read "*If you want to change your access*."
- Use gender nonspecific nouns as much as possible. Instead of saying "*chairman or mailman*," say "*chairperson or letter carrier*."

Chapter 4

4.Choosing the Right Word

This chapter lists words that are often misused or have more than one meaning.

absolutely	absolutely means 'definitely,' 'entirely,' or 'unquestionably' and should not be used to mean 'very' or 'much.'
accept/except	accept is a verb meaning 'consent to' or 'admit willingly;' except is normally a preposition meaning 'other than,' or 'excluding.'
accumulative/cumulative	accumulative and cumulative are synonyms that mean 'massed' or 'added up over a period of time.' Accumulative is rarely used.
advice/advise	advice is a noun that means 'counsel' or 'suggestion;' advise is a verb that means 'give advice.'
affect/effect	affect is a verb that means 'influence;' effect can either be a verb that means 'cause' or as a noun that means 'result.' However, it's best to use a less formal word than effect.
all together/altogether	all together means 'all in one place' or 'all acting together.' Altogether means 'entirely' or 'completely.'
allude/elude/refer	allude means to make an indirect reference to something not specifically mentioned; elude means to escape notice or detection; refer is used to indicate a direct reference to something.
and/or	and/or means that either both circumstances are possible; however we recommend not using this, because it confuses the reader.
almost/most	Do not use most as a substitute for almost .
amount/number	amount is used with things thought of in bulk; number is used with things that can be counted as individual items.

between/among	between is used to relate two items or persons; among is used to relate to more than two.
can/may	can refers to capability; may refers to possibility or permission.
compare/contrast	When you compare something, you point out similarities or both similarities and differences of an item. When you contrast something, you point out only the differences.
data/datum	With most computer writing, data is considered a collective singular. However, in formal scientific and scholarly writing, data is considered the plural, and datum the singular.
definite/definitive	definite and definitive both apply to what is 'precisely defined,' but definitive more often refers to what is complete and definitive.
e.g./i.e.	e.g. and i.e. are abbreviations for the Latin words "for example" and "that is." Usually, you will not need to use these abbreviations unless you need to save space in notes or figures.
explicit/implicit	An explicit statement is one expressed directly; an implicit meaning is one not directly expressed.
fewer/less	fewer refers to items that can be counted; less refers to mass quantities or amounts.
foreword/forward	foreword is an introductory statement at the beginning of a document; forward means 'at or toward the front.'
Illegal/illicit	Something that is illegal is prohibited by law; illicit behavior may not be illegal, but does violate custom or moral codes.
imply/infer	To imply something means that you hint or suggest it; to infer something means you reach a conclusion based on evidence.

insure/ensure/assure

insure, ensure, and assure all mean 'make sure or certain.' **Assure** refers to persons; **ensure** and **insure** also mean 'make secure from harm.' **Insure** also is used to mean 'guaranteeing the value of life or property.'

notable/noticeable

notable, which means 'worthy of notice,' sometimes gets confused with **noticeable**, which means 'readily observed.'

per cent/percent/percentage

percent, is used instead of **per cent**, or the symbol (%) in all manuals; **percentage**, which is never used with numbers, indicates a general size.

that/which/who

that and **which** refer to animals and things; **who** refers to people.

there/their/they're

there is an expletive or adverb; **their** is the possessive form of they; **they're** is a contraction of they are.

Chapter 5

5. Company Information

This chapter discusses company information about Hawley & Associates and associated legal issues. It is divided into the following parts:

- Company Name and Address
- Product Names and Trademarks

5.1 Company Name and Address

Hawley & Associates is a writing consulting firm. Our company name is not included in any manuals written for a client company. However, if the specific client wishes to credit us in any of their manuals, we are referred to as **Hawley & Associates, Inc.** at all times. Our company address is:

Hawley & Associates, Inc.
37300 Fremont Blvd.
Fremont CA 94536-0764

Our telephone number is (510) 789-5000.

5.2 Product Names and Trademarks

Rewrite sentences that use the possessive form of a **product name**. Product names are adjectives, not nouns or verbs, so they cannot legally possess anything. Example:

The Windows 95 file format

5.2.1 Trademarks

A **trademark** is a word, phrase, name, symbol, logo, or a combination of all of these elements, adopted and used by a company to identify its specific brand of products or services, and to distinguish them from other companies.

Some trademarks are acceptable as nouns when they are singular. For example, when referring to Microsoft Word 98, the term Microsoft Word 98 is acceptable, but when referring to more than one copy of it, write it as follows: *Microsoft Word 98 menus* instead of *Microsoft Word 98 menu*.

If in doubt as to how a trademarked product (for example, Microsoft Windows 98, Netscape, Macintosh OS) should

be typed out, consult that company's manual if it is available. If in doubt about a product trademark for a client company, consult with a lead engineer, marketing person or (if available) the legal department at the client site.

Here is an example of how a trademark should be typed:

Copyright © 1999 Hawley & Associates.

All trademarks should have:

- The appropriate notice (® , ™ , or ©) the first time the trademark is mentioned in the text. After the first designation, use the trademark name as a proper adjective, without the associated symbol.
- The appropriate legend (either in the front matter or at the end of the manual) attributing company trademarks.

Here are other trademark rules:

- Use ® only with registered trademarks. For trademarks that are unregistered or are pending, use ™.
- Never use trademarks in the possessive or the plural. For example, "UNIX can be fun and enjoyable" should be written to say "The UNIX system can be fun and enjoyable."
- Do not capitalize common nouns preceded by proper adjectives. If the noun is part of a product name, capitalize it like a proper noun.
- Do not put acronyms or abbreviations that are trademarked terms in parentheses.

Below is a short list of companies' trademarks.

Trademark

Apple®

AST®

Compaq®

CompuServe®

DEC®

DECnet®

Ethernet

Hewlett-Packard®

HP®

IBM®

Informix®

Intel®

Trademark

Company

Apple Computer.

AST Research.

Compaq Computer Corporation.

CompuServe, Inc.

Digital Equipment Corporation.

Digital Equipment Corporation.

Not trademarked.

Hewlett-Packard Company.

Hewlett-Packard Company.

International Business Machines, Inc.

Informix Software, Inc.

Intel Corporation.

Company

LaserJet®
LaserWriter®
Macintosh®
Microsoft®

MS-DOS®
NCSA Mosaic®
Netscape®
NetWare®
NFS®
Solaris®
SPARC®
SPARCsystem™
Sun Microsystems®
Sun Workstation®
UNIX®

U.S. Robotics®
Windows®

Hewlett-Packard Company.
Apple Computer, Inc.
Apple Computer, Inc.
Microsoft Corporation. Microsoft Access, Chart, Excel, File, Mouse, Project, Sort, Word, Works and Write are not trademarked. However, Microsoft requests that any untrade-marked product be preceded by the word Microsoft in the text (Microsoft Word, etc.) Microsoft Corporation. Note the hyphenation.
Copyright of University of Illinois.
Netscape Communications Corporation.
Novell, Inc.
Sun Microsystems, Inc.
Sun Microsystems, Inc.
Sparc International, Inc.
Sparc International, Inc.
Sun Microsystems, Inc.
Sun Microsystems, Inc.
Sun Microsystems, Inc.
Unix is a registered trademark in the United States and other countries, licensed exclusively through X/Open Company Limited.
U.S. Robotics, Inc.
Microsoft Corporation.

Appendix

A

Appendix A: References

I used the following books and previous TECO class projects as reference material in producing this writing style guide.

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