Academic Writing in English

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This book began to emerge in 1985, based on the wisdom of my original guru in Finland, Jean Margaret Perttunen (1916—). For decades, she offered me advice, revealing the problems that Finnish scientists face when writing in English. Peggy’s extensive 1985 book, *The Words Between*, was the seed of the University of Helsinki’s first English writing course for scientists, initiated in that same year.

My current active guru is Björn Gustavii, MD, PhD, of Lund, Sweden. His slim book, *How to Write and Illustrate a Scientific Paper*, plus our frequent emails and now his unique 2012 guide to compilation theses have been so valuable that I cite him here very often.

The European Association of Science Editors (EASE) has, since 1997, allowed me to sit at the feet of major international journal editors to gather advice to import to Finland. The EASE journal *European Science Editing* publishes notes and articles based on our Helsinki in-classroom “action research.” My course participants from the benefit from EASE data and repay with their views and innovations.

To all of these, and to teaching colleagues Stephen Stalter and Vanessa Fuller, I offer for many reasons many years’ worth of gratitude.

Carol Norris, 2016
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Advice for Modern Academic Writing

In some fields, young scholars may imitate the often out-dated style of their professors or of journal articles published many years ago. Nowadays, style is evolving, because of widening democracy and internationalization, and also increased printing costs.

The KISS Rule is “Keep it Short and Simple,” and less politely: “Keep it Simple, Stupid!”

At a conference of the Association of European Science Editors (EASE), the editor of the British Medical Journal demanded:

He also wanted articles to be as short as possible. Rather than “Count every word,” we should “make every word count.” Remove every useless or extra word.

Teacher-editor-author Ed Hull wants “reader-friendly” scientific writing. Authors must realize that they are no longer in school; teachers demand performances greatly different from texts meant to inform busy readers wanting only “nuggets” of precious information.

Even years ago, in the EASE quarterly European Science Editing (ESE) (1998, 24, 1; 7-9), Frances Luttikhuizen criticized “exaggerated use of the passive voice and Latin-based words … [that] belongs to the formal style of the 17th century. It weakens scientific writing. The active voice is much more forceful than the passive . . . . For linguistic as well as cultural reasons, scientists who have English as a second language . . . tend to feel more comfortable writing in a more formal style.” Her ageless advice continues, “Readers of scientific papers do not read them to assess them, they read them to learn from them . . . . What is needed is more simplicity, not more sophistication!” Aim “to inform, not to impress.” (Emphasis added.)

General Advice for Non-Native Writers

Never translate. Of course you can use your own language to take notes and write outlines. But word-for-word translation into English means that anyone’s mother tongue causes interference. This will damage the grammar of your English and your vocabulary, punctuation, and everything else. Some Finns can rapidly write letters and stories in correct, charming English, but when they write a text first in Finnish and then translate it, the result will be awkward, unclear, and full of errors.

Accept total responsibility for being clear. If an intelligent reader has to re-read any sentence to understand it, the Anglo-American attitude is not to blame the reader, but to blame the writer. This may contrast with the direction of blame in your own culture, but think: Who has the time to re-read sentences? Bad idea!

The worst sin is ambiguity. Being ambiguous means accidentally expressing more than one meaning at one time, as in: “Women like chocolate more than men.” Does this mean that, given the choice between a nice Fazer chocolate bar and a man, a woman will prefer the chocolate? Or do you mean that “Women like chocolate more than men do”? Let’s hope, for the survival of humanity, that it’s the latter!
Careful editing will shorten your texts, making them more publishable. One writer wisely said, “If I had had more time, I would have written you a shorter letter.”

Trust your ear. English grammar rules are many, with multiple exceptions. At your language level, in this country, depend instead on what you have heard in English, idioms especially. Your ear will tell you when an odd-looking phrase sounds right. My long experience shows that Finns’ TV- and travel-trained ears are trustworthy. Read all your written texts aloud to yourself.

English is not logical. The most logical choice of words is often not what a native speaker would say. (Which is logical: “hang up,” “ring off,” or “close the phone?” How about “For the 20 last years” versus “for the last 20 years”?) In English, the most nearly logical system is punctuation, but even punctuation differs considerably from Finnish punctuation.

Finno-ugric versus Anglo-American Style

Finns, from a homogeneous, well-educated society, may tend to view their readers as informed colleagues who will work hard to understand a text. Good Anglo-American writers may seem to be “packaging” or even “marketing” their texts; they are actually trying to write so clearly that a busy, tired, easily bored reader can absorb their full meaning in only one rapid reading.

The Anglo-American writer leads the reader by the hand, but the Finnish writer often expects readers to find their own way. In Finland, be Finnish. But Finns wishing to publish in English in journals with Anglo-American editors and reviewers must use a reader-helpful style.

For instance, make the strategy of your text clear, not implicit. Present important points first, rather than gradually “sneaking up on them.” Let your readers know immediately what is going on.

Note: This book benefits from a collection of essays gathered by Professor George M. Hall entitled How to Write a Paper, 2nd edition, 1998 (British Medical Journal publishing group). Hall and his other expert contributors will be cited as appearing in “Hall 1998.”

Basic Methodology I: Process Writing

Write the first draft

- Never translate whole sentences from your mother tongue.
- Avoid trying yet to organize your items. Rather, get your ideas out in front of you first.
- Pour out your thoughts in English, in the language of speech.
- Write in many short, simple sentences.
- Refer immediately to the main items involved; use signposts.
- Write “long”: Produce a 1,000-word text that will end as 600 words.
- Allow yourself to use the passive voice (see section on passives) whenever comfortable.
- Let yourself use the spoken forms “there is / are / was / were.”
- Use simple verbs such as “to be / have / get / see / find out.”
Refer immediately and clearly to all the main items involved, ones perhaps your key words.

When referring to previously mentioned items with “this / these / such,” offer more than just the pronoun:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ambiguous</th>
<th>Specific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This …</td>
<td>This disease …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>These …</td>
<td>These two drugs …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It …</td>
<td>Such a program…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You can often save words by adding data: “This extremely effective model / program.”

Make the text talk about the text itself.

English loves signposts, or connectives, because they tell readers how to receive new information.

Use not only “First … second … third . . . ,” but other types of signposts:

“On the other hand . . . .” “Considering this from another angle . . . .”

“Similar to the last point is . . . .”

Edit to avoid series of short—and thus choppy—sentences:

Link some and embed others within their neighbors.

Elegant (linked and embedded)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>X costs a lot. You can’t get it there often.</th>
<th>X is expensive and is seldom available there.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>or do you mean: Because X is expensive, it is seldom available there.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation → Result = end-focus X, being expensive there, is seldom available.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use the shortest sentences for the strongest statements: “Every mouse died.”

Cut out every extra word that performs no task.

There is / are X.

X exists.
X occurs.
X appears.
X arises.
X emerges.

Avoid repeating FACTS. Planned repetition of WORDS helps linkage. Confusion results from synonym-use. Make yourself clear by choosing one term. Do not indulge in overuse of a synonym dictionary (thesaurus). For instance, “Method / methodology / procedure / system” must never mean the same thing. We will assume that they mean four different things.
One paper described a group of infants with these six labels: “neonates / newborns / infants / babies / patients / subjects.” We would view these as six groups. Instead, choose two terms such as “neonates” or “infants” and then use “They / These” and other pointing words to refer to them.

**Convert most verbs from passive to active voice.**

**Avoid ending sentences with passive verbs.** For good writing, this is the kiss of death. Replace them with active voice. In Methods, passives can go in the middle of the sentence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive verb</th>
<th>Active voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To X, Y was added.</td>
<td>Y was added to X.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Change some passive verbs into adjectives:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive verb</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X could be seen.</td>
<td>X was evident/apparent/visible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X was always used.</td>
<td>X always proved useful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All two-year-old children were studied.</td>
<td>All children studied were age two. (Note end-focus in each)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Change the verb itself:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive verb</th>
<th>Active voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patients were operated on.</td>
<td>Patients underwent surgery.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixty were used as controls.</td>
<td>Sixty served as controls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Each participant was given X.</td>
<td>Each participant received X.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Omit useless passive constructions:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive verb</th>
<th>Active voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It has been found that X causes Y (Aho 2001).</td>
<td>Aho (2001) found that X causes Y.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We found that Y was produced by X.</td>
<td>X causes Y (Aho 2001).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Y results from X. X leads to Y.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X produced Y. Y was a product of X.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The citation shows who (Aho) found X. Journals tire of these useless “found” phrases.

Avoid for your own findings even the active-voice “We found that X produced Y.” Simply write “X produced Y.” That past tense shows that this is your finding. Present tense is for others’ generalizations: “X produces Y” (16). (See the tense section.)
Use MAGIC—the inanimate agent, a non-human / non-living thing performing an action.

Table 3 shows . . . . Figure 5 illustrates . . . . Our results indicate . . . . Our hypothesis predicts X. Opinions among us vary.

Upgrade most rough-draft common verbs to become more precise verbs (see verb pages):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colloquial</th>
<th>Formal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>be/see/have/get</td>
<td>exist/observe/assess/measure/determine/possess/assess/confirm/characterize</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For elegance and formality, specify meanings of “get” (“receive?” “become?” “understand?”).

Change colloquial (puhekieli) expressions to more formal ones (see verb pages):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colloquial</th>
<th>Formal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>if like a lot of, lots of, plenty big</td>
<td>whether (or not) such as many, several large, great</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Never omit “such” with “as.” (“Treatment-as-such as chemotherapy . . . .”)

Beware of vague “so.” “So (thus?) X occurred?” “It was so fast.” (How fast?)

Avoid “too,” especially at the end of a sentence.

| He died, too. | He, too, died. He died, as well. He also died. |

And how hot is “too hot?”
Strengthen Negatives

“Not” is so common in speech that it frequently loses a letter, becoming a contraction such as “can’t / don’t / wouldn’t.” It is doubly contracted in “dunno” for “I don’t know.”

In writing, “not” is always a weak word. Murder the word “not” in three ways:

Substitute negatives  OR

Substitute negative prefixes  OR

Change to negative verbs or use negative adjectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong negatives</th>
<th>Weak</th>
<th>Stronger</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>There was not any X.</td>
<td>No X existed / appeared.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>Not one patient survived.</td>
<td>None of the patients survived.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>They had not seen X before.</td>
<td>Never had they seen X before.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Note: Beginning a sentence with a negative is powerful.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong prefixes</th>
<th>Weak</th>
<th>Stronger</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>un-</td>
<td>The cause is not known.</td>
<td>The cause is / remains unknown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-</td>
<td>The text was not coherent.</td>
<td>The text was incoherent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>im-</td>
<td>The task was not possible.</td>
<td>The task was impossible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non-</td>
<td>Results were not significant.</td>
<td>Results were non-significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>This drug isn’t made anymore.</td>
<td>This drug has been discontinued.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs / adjectives</th>
<th>Weak</th>
<th>Stronger</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fail</td>
<td>The plan did not work.</td>
<td>The plan failed (to succeed).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lack</td>
<td>The solution didn’t have X.</td>
<td>The solution lacked X.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absent</td>
<td>X was not in the samples.</td>
<td>In the samples, X was absent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insufficient</td>
<td>Controls didn’t have enough X.</td>
<td>Controls had insufficient X.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incomplete</td>
<td>The test was not finished.</td>
<td>The test was incomplete.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If X is “missing,” call the police!
Your final step in revising is to check to whether each verb agrees with its subject in number.

1. Locate every verb (Good sentences have only one or two.)
2. Scan to the left to find its subject (often located far away).

Read this too-complex and difficult practice-sentence with its five substantives in bold.

Which one is the subject of the verb?

“The actual reason for these changes in policy that seem to alter the newest reorganization plans for these hospitals is/are surprising.”

Note more sentences with widely separated subject and verb. Mark the agent; find the subject (agent) and the verb that shows its action. Revise and reorganize these sentences so that these are closer together, and information comes in a more logical, clear order. Note the words in italics.

Examples adapted from Duke University, (my alma mater!) Scientific Writing Resource, 2013

Eggs, nuts, shrimp, mushrooms, milk and other foods containing lactose, and some species of tree and grass pollen are often found to act as allergens.

Mapping of open chromatin regions, post-translational histone modification, and DNA methylation across a whole genome is now shown to be feasible, and by RNA sequencing, new non-coding RNAs can be sensitively identified.

Finns tend to over-use words like the adjective "present" and the verb "perform." The latter has soared in popularity in medical writing in the last 40 years. EASE leader Elise Langdon-Neuner illustrates the "fiends of academic writing: imprecision, wordiness, overuse of abstract/ nominalized nouns, and the passive voice" with this sentence:

Administration of H(2) receptor antagonists was performed in patients.

Slay these fiends "at the stroke of a pen." (European Science Editing, February 2015).

Similarly, slay (kill) The presence of a nucleus in each cell can be observed.
Basic Methodology II: Passive vs. Active Voice

Active and passive—like major (duuri) and minor (molli) keys in music—are the two types of voice. Tenses are unrelated to voice; tense indicates time.

Note the difference between tenses—present, past, and perfect—and voice. The English passive always includes two to four verbs and allows the addition of “by” someone / something.

- **Present tense, active** voice: “he finds.”  
  **Passive:** “it is found” (by X)
- **Past tense, active:** “he found.”  
  **Passive:** “it was found” (by X)
- **Present perfect active:** “she has found.”  
  **Passive:** “it has been found” (by X)
- **Past perfect active:** “she had found.”  
  **Passive:** “it had been found” (by X)

And even a future passive is possible—though horrible: “The test will have been given”!

As recently as 1997, Paul Leedy insisted, in his book *Practical Research, Planning and Design*, that “the researcher … should be anonymous. The use of the first-person pronoun or reference to the researcher in any other way is particularly taboo. … All of the action within the drama of research revolves around the data; they, and they only, speak.” (Emphasis mine, throughout.)

My response: Then why not let the data speak? Here, Leedy himself elegantly states that “the action . . . revolves.” IN ACTIVE VOICE! He also has “data . . . speak” in active voice. These are fine inanimate agents—non-living causes of actions. If such agents serve as subjects, we have no need for personal pronouns like “I” or “we.”

Leedy continues, “The passive voice … is used to indicate [Why not “the passive voice indicates”?] that no identifiable subject is performing the act. It is a kind of ghostly form of the verb that causes events to happen without any visible cause being present.” Then, “Note the passive voice construction in this sentence: ‘A survey was made of the owners of the Rollaway automobiles’ or ‘The researcher made a survey of the owners of Rollaway automobiles.’ … Here we have [an] . . . intrusion of the researcher. … The best research reporting does not use it.”

**Instead of the passive verb or “the researcher made,” why not “A survey of the owners . . . showed that . . .”? All surveys producing results have already been “made.”**

In the active, this is both shorter and stronger.

He adds that passive voice verbs can even “suggest events . . . in the future without any indication of who will do them by using the future passive form of the verb . . . ‘The test will have been given before the students are permitted to read the novel.’” These two passives consume eight words.

**Because all tests, once finished, “have been given,” why not: “After the test / after taking the test, the students will / can then read / will be able to read the novel”? Active voice and short.**
Do you fear that journals may reject papers written mostly or entirely in the active voice?

*Nature Medicine*, years ago, published its Methods all in active voice. **This is rarely possible to maintain throughout Methods**, but their authors freely used “We, we, we” in lines like

“We processed the samples. Then we rinsed the residue in a solution of . . . .”

Here are additional empirical data (Note: The word “data” is plural.)

Back in 2001, biologist Rupert Sheldrake queried **55 journals in the biological and physical sciences. Only two still required use of the passive voice**. “Most scientific journals accept papers in the active voice,” he said, “and some . . . positively encourage it.” *(New Scientist, 21 July 2001)*

*The British Medical Journal's “House Style”* on the internet has for many years demanded that we

“Write in the active and use the first person where necessary.”

Even in active voice, however, “I/We” first-person pronouns are usually unnecessary.

(Interestingly, “our” seems acceptable, even when the writer avoids “we.”)

The valuable **INANIMATE AGENT** allows you to avoid these pronouns for active voice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The mice each received / ingested 20 mg daily.</th>
<th>(Nonhuman agent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The reason for X remains unclear.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results indicate that our hypothesis is correct.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The evidence suggests an alternative cause.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All data came from X. (We know they did not walk there on their own feet.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our laboratory provided urine samples.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Save passive verbs for times when they do, in fact, prove essential, merciful, or comical.*

In one death notice, “Some of us **will greatly miss** Professor Aho.” This, however, implies that some may be pleased at this death. Avoid sending this sentence to his/her widow/widower!

Instead, “(The late) Professor Aho **will be missed.**” (“Late” is a polite adjective for deceased.)

**To be gentle:**

“You’re fired / sacked” becomes “Your candidacy / position is revoked / eliminated.”

Similarly gentle, “Your breast **must be removed.**” “Your results will arrive after tests are run.”

**To maintain anonymity:** “The suggestion was made today that nurses should go on strike.”

**Comedy:** “When my great-grandmother status is achieved, greater respect will be required.” *(Nancy Alexander, 1919-2015)*
Basic Methodology III: The End-focus Technique

End-focus makes sentences concise (shorter), clearer, and—if linked—flowing.

"The result may be excellent, as shown by our study" we re-write twice: with end-focus, it is "As shown by our study, the result may be excellent." Put into active voice, it becomes "Our study shows that the result may be excellent."

Only one word in this sentence is important—only "excellent" provides new information.

Every sentence should present its background information first, the WHO, WHERE, WHEN (HOW, WHY). These data orient (UK “orientate”) the reader. Then end-focus on the WHAT.

- The beginning of a sentence—regardless of what some teach—is only the second most important location. Most important is the end: the fresh, new information.

- In any sentence, find the most vital word or two—a key adjective, substantive, or a numerical value of interest. Put a period/full stop after it; it ends the sentence.

- Moreover, be sure that each sentence ends with words that lead you to the next point, creating intra-sentence linkage; this makes the next sentence almost predictable (=flow).

   Remember: FOCUS and LINK

A to D’s first and second sentences show end-focus with linkage (each italicized). Choose, from among sentences 1 to 6, the best-linking third sentence for each:

A. Finland has the world’s highest incidence of type 1 diabetes. This disabling disease and its treatment constitute a drain on the state’s finances.  (continue)

B. The world’s highest incidence of type 1 diabetes occurs in Finland. Finnish diabetes researchers now discover some of the field’s most interesting new data.  (continue)

C. Regarding type 1 diabetes, Finland’s annual incidence is the world’s highest. Its figure for 2008 was 60/100,000.  (continue)

D. Finland has the highest incidence of type 1 diabetes in the world. One nation’s mean incidence in 2008 was actually below 1/100 000, which means that Finland’s was 60-fold greater, though no one knows why.  (continue)

1. One important area of investigation is diabetes-associated nephritis.

2. Is sugar consumption unusually high, or is this rate mainly related to genetics?

3. Finland must continue to battle this key medical problem, despite research costs.

4. The Finnish state KELA covers medical care and supports those unable to work.

5. Such an incidence requires funding of the country’s top researchers.

6. Patients’ longevity is increasing, but what about their quality of life?
Observe my struggle with a rough draft totaling 28 words, with four passive-voice verbs (in italics) and no end-focus. I assume that we have already heard about drug X, so X offers no excitement.

**Nothing was known** about what happens to children who are given drug X. **It was found** that adults often have diarrhea if they are given / administered drug X. (3).

I first edited this by removing useless, wasted words and changing to active voice, end-focused.

**Active voice required** three inanimate agents: “effect,” “evidence,” and “X.”

For clarity, **these sentences needed** “however” or “whereas,” but not in the vital first position.

(The BMJ and I both avoid wasting the first-word position on “however” or “therefore.” These words become stronger as they move right, with maximum power when “however” serves as end-focus. Remember, it travels carrying two suitcase-like commas!)

**The effect of drug X in children is unknown. In adults, however, evidence indicates that X frequently leads to diarrhea.** (20 words)

A clever student then noticed that these sentences lacked linkage; the first sentence failed to flow into the second. I therefore sacrificed the best end-focus in the first sentence (“unknown”) and instead gave focus to my second choice (“children”). Note good linkage with only 17 words.

**The effect of drug X is unknown in children. In adults, however, X frequently leads to diarrhea (3).**

Another student then noticed that I was violating a major rule—to observe **strict chronology**. Always describe events in **chronological order**—the order in which they occur or the order in which we learned about them. Now all of these data fit into one 14-word sentence.

**X frequently leads to diarrhea in adults (3), whereas in children, its effect remains unknown.**

**X frequently leads to diarrhea in adults (3); in children, however, its effect remains unknown, however. (which location is better for “however”?)**
Writing a first draft with end-focus as well as with sentence-to-sentence linkage is, however, almost impossible. Instead, first get the words onto paper; then move words and phrases around.

Start all of your writing with a fast, disorganized rough draft, because such “bad” texts are the easiest to improve by means of passive-to-active voice changes, end-focus, and linkage.

- Find the most vital, novel word in the sentence, the one revealing the newest information.
- After this word, put a period (full-stop).
- Move all the words following this end-focus word back to the left. Often the best place to insert words is after a “that” or “which,” as below:

She does fine work that may win her a Nobel Prize within a few years. WHAT TOPS A NOBEL?

She does fine work that, within a few years, may earn her a Nobel Prize.

Now carry out these steps on sentences adapted from actual medical research articles. These have no grammar errors, just awful style.

1. In ulcerative colitis, a predisposing state for colorectal cancer, reduced TATI expression has been seen in affected areas.

2. Although this is generally accepted, there are contradictory findings, nor has any association between this mutation and survival been observed.

3. If enough protection is used during this procedure, infection is low, studies show.
Shrinking and revision of a paragraph.

This text is intentionally silly, so ignore the fake science; concentrate only on its language.

- First, locate and repair four errors frequent among Finnish writers.
- Then reduce its length from 114 words; aim at a third of its present length.
- Replace its 10 italicized verbs in passive voice; choose all active-voice verbs.
- Freely omit, alter, or rearrange words. Each of you will edit this differently.
- Finally, COUNT every word (and quantity) in your version. Length record = 26 words

The effectiveness against narcolepsy of caffeine was tested on humans by our group. It was effective, as was previously shown by Smith (Smith 2006) when mice, that were found to be narcoleptic were given caffeine when they demonstrated signs of narcolepsy. Therefore, an experiment was carried out by our group. We had 100 male narcoleptics. The initial test dose of caffeine that was chosen was 300 mg two times every day. In these subjects a history of narcolepsy had been confirmed. When they were administered a dose of 600 mg two times every day, the lowering of their symptoms of narcolepsy to a level that is considered in literature to be normal was accomplished.
Article Sections: An Overview

Because some journals cannot afford to hire copy editors to correct manuscripts line by line, do examine articles in the target journal, but avoid blindly trusting them as models of style.

What seems wiser is to trust the target journal’s own writing style.

- This style is demonstrated in “Instructions to Authors” and in journal editorials.
- Every journal has its own style, so study all instructions in the target journal.
- Seek instructions also on the internet; these evolve and thus frequently change.
- Follow each instruction exactly, checking and rechecking.

If you receive a rejection and submit elsewhere, follow the next target journal’s instructions equally carefully. (See Handling Reviewers section.)

Vital: Notice the style required for your references: either Harvard or Vancouver.

### Harvard style

Uses authors’ names: “(Aho 2000)” and an alphabetical reference list.

### Vancouver style

Uses numbered references, with each journal demanding different formats.

The usual formats are “... sentence end (3).” Or “... end [3].” Or “... end.3” Or“... end3.”

USA           UK

(Vancouver Uniform Requirements are available at [http://www.icmje.org/index.html](http://www.icmje.org/index.html))

Unlike authors in a Harvard reference list—numbered alphabetically—Vancouver style requires that the list follow the order in which citations appear in the text.

In Harvard style, date precedes article or book title; in Vancouver style, the date follows it.

The Hall book provides a clear pattern for the contents of a scientific article.

- **Introduction** tells what question you will be asking,
- **Methods** tell how it was studied,
- **Results** tells what you found,
- **Discussion** explains what the findings mean.

In “Suggestions to Authors” in the journal Neurology (1966; 46:298-300), Daroff and colleagues describe these IMRAD sections as answering the following questions:

- “What did you decide to do and why?” **INTRODUCTION** (ending with what you seek)
- **METHODS**
- **RESULTS**

**How does it relate to current knowledge?** **DISCUSSION**” (Beginning with main findings)
A wise order in which to write these sections

| 1. Rough version of the abstract | 5. Results |
| 2. Rough tables and figures | 6. Discussion |
| 3. End (your aim) of Introduction | 7. Rest of the Introduction |
| 4. Methods | 8. The final abstract |

I cannot advise this too strongly: Make tables and figures before you write Results.

Note: Gustavii reminds us that editors of journals and your readers have the right to ask to examine your raw data—even 5 or 10 years after publication of results!

Therefore, never discard your raw data.

Case-Reports

A case report may formulate a testable hypothesis.

Present that single, deliciously unusual case... at a departmental seminar, says Gustavii.

A case report may also prove useful—and thus deserve publication—if it reports a new diagnostic tool or a new treatment.

A case report usually occupies no more than two pages (double spaced) of running text and contains about five references. Since it is too brief to constitute a literature review, do not label it as one.

A case report seldom requires more than two authors, as surely only one would perform the observation of the patient. Once, an editor’s query caused a surgical case-report’s author-list to shrink from seven authors to only two! (With thanks again to Björn Gustavii’s first book.)
The Article Abstract

The abstract (now generally considered the same as a summary) is the first thing seen. It may be the only part of the article that is read.

The abstract “floats free,” appearing in various databases and on the internet. For easier electronic retrieval, front-focus both your title and line 1 of your abstract.

According to Professor Lilleyman (Hall, 1998) an abstract should reveal:

- “why what was done was done
- what was done
- what was found
- what was concluded”

And . . . the abstract must be “the most highly polished part of the paper.”

His rules: Include no lines that will appear again in the Introduction.
Avoid minor aspects of Methods.
Never end an abstract with the vague, useless line: “the findings are discussed.”
Do include confidence intervals (CI) and P-values.

I add, from other sources: Short sentences
No repetition of data in the article title
No references or study limitations

Abstracts must stand alone and be clearly understandable without the text.

Always obey length-restrictions: 250 words? Write 600 words and shrink it by use of Process Writing. If the journal instead provides a box to fill, prefer short words!

Abbreviations in abstracts

These must be few, and each full term plus abbreviation goes into the abstract. Write it out again when it first appears in the Introduction or later.

Never abbreviate a short, single word. Never use “ETX” for “endotoxin” or “AR” for “arousal,” says the American Thoracic Society (ATS), but the ATS accepts “LAM for lymphangioleiomyomatosis.”

Surely no one will ever need an explanation for pH, DNA, AIDS, or UN. (Note: No dots.)

Check journal instructions; some abbreviations are so common in your specialty that they need no explanation; one example is “coronary heart disease (CHD)” for a circulatory journal. One way to avoid abbreviating is to refer to only part of the long term.

One example: For “IRL,” meaning “inspiratory resistive load,” the ATS says, that after giving the entire term once, then “simply write ‘load’.”

An abbreviations list is useful, following the abstract, if you need many abbreviations. Such a list is, however, no substitute for the required in-text explanations.
Structured Abstracts

Many target journals require structured abstracts with subheadings for each section. These help the author to structure the abstract so that it maintains the most logical order and omits nothing. I thus suggest that you write every abstract with subheadings. Which does your target journal require? If it wants unstructured abstracts, remove subheads and make into complete sentences the incomplete sentences that most structured abstracts allow in order to save space. Popular subheadings include

- **Background** “Incidence of X has been rapidly rising in Nordic countries—”
  or Hypothesis tested “This study tested whether X correlates with latitude.”

  or Objective / Aim “Our aim was to compare X incidence above and below 60 degrees north latitude.”

- **Study design and setting**
- **Samples / Subjects**
- **Methods / Interventions**
- **Measurements, Statistics, P values, CIs, SDs . . .**
- **Results**
- **Conclusions** (Notice: instead of a Discussion, and no Summary; see below)
- **Implications** (answering “So what?”)

**Conclusions differ from summaries.** Merely as a memory aid, here is a comical SUMMARY of research into diet and health:

```
The Japanese eat very little fat and drink very little red wine, yet they suffer fewer heart attacks than do the British or Americans.
The French eat much fat and drink much red wine, yet they, too, suffer fewer heart attacks than do the British or Americans.
```

Its CONCLUSION (with clear IMPLICATIONS!)

```
Eat and drink whatever you like. It is speaking English that kills you!
```

**Informative abstracts** cover all of these categories, with sufficiently detailed results.

**Indicative abstracts** introduce your work and describe what you did. These are useful for conferences, if abstracts are due many months before you have any results. You later present orally the results lacking before the abstract-submission deadline.

**Review-article abstracts** include

```
Because journals now seek review articles to raise their impact factor, even young researchers should consider a review—perhaps as a condensation of their thesis Literature section.
```

Purpose, Data-identification and -extraction methods, Findings, Data synthesis, Conclusions
**Objective:** To determine the influence of body weight throughout the life course on the development of clinical hand osteoarthritis (OA).

(Again, journals want either Background or Aim / Objective, not both.)

**Methods:** A British national survey was used to perform a prospective cohort study of 1,467 men and 1,519 women born in 1946. Weight was measured at birth and at subsequent follow-up visits through childhood and adulthood. The main outcome measure was the odds ratio for the presence of hand OA at the age of 53.

**Results:** OA was present in at least one hand joint in 280 men (19%) and in 458 women (30%). Hand OA was significantly associated with increased weight at ages 26, 43, and 53 years and with decreased weight at birth in men. Birth weight and adult weight showed independent effects, such that men at highest risk for OA represented those who had been heaviest at age 53 and lightest at birth. These findings were not explained by grip strength. No significant relationship appeared between weight and hand OA for women.

**Conclusion:** Our results show that increased adult weight is associated with, and may precede, development of hand OA, but only in men. This relationship between hand OA and lower birth weight is a new finding concerning adult joint structure and function that may reflect the persisting influence of prenatal environmental factors.

(This is a more concise, end-focused version of a 2003 abstract in Arthritis & Rheumatism. Its citation is in Appendix II, along with a version of its Introduction.)

Repeating abstract lines in the rest of the article. One writer created an excellent abstract and then copied it piecemeal throughout his article: Two lines from his abstract began the Introduction, more lines from his abstract began Methods, some lines appeared in Results. The Discussion ended with exactly the same lines as in the Abstract. **I call this not plagiarism, just laziness. Some members of the European Association of Science Editors (EASE) disagree. You write a good line, said one, so why not use it again? But the abstract is unique, comes first, and who enjoys reading repetition? We learn nothing more on the second reading.**

**Key words** go here, below the abstract. Remember each journal has its own limit on number of key words. Usually separate them with commas and use no capitalization.

Some journals want you to avoid choosing as key words any words already in the title.

**Key words** in Vancouver style must be alphabetical and should come from any index of subject headings in your field that the journal recommends.

No one can say this often enough: Always study each journal’s instructions extremely carefully. Obey all of the instructions.
Titles & Authors

Professor Lilleyman (Hall, 1998) reminds us that even before reading the abstract, we read the title. A poor title may result in immediate prejudice against the author. He prefers that the title be descriptive and tell only what the article is about—neither why you wrote it, what you found, nor the conclusions you reached. He might prefer the very first title on this page.

Björn Gustavii would disagree; rather than a descriptive title, he prefers to give a suggestion of the outcome with a declarative title.

**Titles ARE ALWAYS in present tense**

Not too general:

**Trends in living alone among elderly Finns**

nor too detailed:

**Figures for living alone among 3000 men and women aged over 65 years in southern Finland from 1950 to 2000 rise from 17 to 37%**

(Improper in a title, this is end-focused on “rise from 17 to 37%,” with specific figures from the Results. Front-focus all titles and never give specific numbers.)

**Verb or no verb?** I dislike a full-sentence title with a temporal (tense-showing) verb. Check the reference list for each article or for the thesis that you are writing. Do you find many whole-sentence titles like “X causes Y” versus “X as a cause for Y”? These mean the same thing.

Descriptive: **Influence of aspirin on human megakaryocyte prostaglandin synthesis**

Compare this to the declarative title of the classic article by Nobelist John Vane (*Nature*, 1971):

**Inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis as a mechanism of action of aspirin-like drugs**

(Notice that this title needs no verb, because again, a powerful “as” here means “is.”)

Showing front-focus, the versions below are even better:

**Living alone among those over 65 in southern Finland: a comparative demographic population-based study of trends, 1950-2000** (descriptive) OR

**Increased solitary living among the elderly of southern Finland, 1950-2000: A population-based study** (more declarative, based on its first word)

These are professional, and the colon (:) is popular. We have reduced this from 25 to 14 words and moved the focus forward. To be very concise, we could reduce it to 12 or even to 8 words.

**Living alone among Finland’s elderly: Trends toward an increase, 1950 to 2000** OR **The elderly in Finland: solitary living, 1950-2000**

Avoid articles in titles, except “the” for unique items (the “only / usual / best / elderly X”).

**Capitalization?** Titles here are “down”—with only their first word capitalized (more British). All of this book’s section-titles are “up and down”—their main words capitalized (more USA).
To avoid sentence-titles, change temporal verbs into participles, or even into infinitives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temporal verb</th>
<th>becomes</th>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>or</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X leads to</td>
<td>X, leading to ...</td>
<td>or</td>
<td>X, found to lead to ...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Bad error:** Past tense in a title in English. (Captions in some languages, like Finnish, may use the logical past tense: “Man killed friend.” In English, we write “Man kills friend.”)

Unlike Finnish newspaper practice, all verbs that do appear in titles must be in present tense, although choice of tense in the text itself is difficult. See page 40.

Title or subtitle: “Surgery saves leg.” “X treatment succeeds in Y disease.”

No abbreviations in titles. Unless it is pH, DNA, or AIDS, write out each term in the title.

When it again occurs, probably in the abstract, write it in full and give the abbreviation. Do this again, once, in the body of the text.

“Our use of magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) began in . . .”

**Authors**

Editors often now require a declaration of participation stating each author’s contribution. You must thus be able to justify the actual contribution of every author listed: Original idea? Planning? Data collection? Statistics? Journals often now print, with the article itself, a list of their roles. This serves to discourage an authors’ list numbering 50, even 100!

**Often each author must sign a statement** agreeing to be an author and accepting responsibility for all article content. This discourages the vice of listing some authors who may never have read the text and accept no responsibility, especially not for scientific fraud or plagiarism.

“Contributors” at the end of the article—if the journal prints this—can include those who provided aid, but insufficient aid to be called authors. Thank other individuals in Acknowledgements.

Closely follow journal style for authors and for degrees, if included:

In English, degrees never precede names:

| Aho, A.  |
| Aho, Antti |
| Antti Aho, MD, PhD |

MD-A. Aho
A. Aho, MD

Note the commas around degrees.

How does your target journal link authors’ names with their institutions? With superscripts (a, b, c, 1, 2, 3, or *)? These guide the reader to footnotes giving their institutions.
Tables & Figures and their Titles & Legends

Use telegraphic title style without verbs or articles:
(These are descriptive titles)

| Levels of enzyme X in melanoma |
| Influence of European Union rules on Finnish medical services |

- Avoid repeating the table title or figure legend in the text.

Example: In a text, such a sentence: “Table 6 shows the condition of molars assessed by the Wibble Method” should never appear immediately before a table that is entitled “Table 6. Condition of molars assessed by the Wibble Method.”

Instead, describe some Wibble results and add the table / figure number in parentheses:

This particular method predicted 78% of third-molar caries (Table 6).
OR These data suggest a trend toward a 2% annual rise (Figure 3).

One table per 1000 words is appropriate, laid out tall & narrow -- not wide & flat.

Journals avoid printing a wide table across two pages; rows may fail to line up exactly.

- Number all tables/figures in the order of their appearance in the text. Mention each one, preferably only in parentheses (Table / table 6), (Figure 3 / fig. 3), (Figs. 3-4).

- Avoid tables containing fewer than six or eight figures. In the text itself you can write: “Of the ten patients, one lived for 6 years, one for 8, three lived for 10, five for 11.” These few data (eight figures) need no table. Note alternating word-vs.-number style.

- Similarly, avoid telling us in the text more than three or four findings from a table. Just generalize as to what is most important, is the highest or lowest or is significant.

(My absolute rule: Always create tables and figures before writing Results!)

- Most readers study tables and figures first, so save them from any need to search through the text to understand any term or any abbreviation.

To do this, explain each term or abbreviation in a footnote. Alternatively, give the abbreviation in parentheses in the title / legend (“Figure 1. Three Populations of obese (OA) and lean adults (LA) in Finland, 2005”) or give abbreviations in column headings.

- Omit from the table title, however, any words appearing (so nearby), word-for-word, as headings for that table’s columns. Remember, each word costs publishers money. Avoid heavy repetition in tables of any words, phrases, abbreviations, or numbers.
If your table includes columns of many (more than five) identical words or figures, re-think its layout.  
**No column should contain a stack of identical words or numbers.**  
**Omit repetitious items** entirely.

- Omit identical words where possible.
- Indent subordinate items with a tab and single-space them.

Gustavii says that the only single-spaced lines in an article manuscript should be these indented second-line subheadings.

In a table, **each column must be justifiable.** Replace some data by footnotes or by words in the title? As for **layout,** Gustavii feels that numbers being compared are easier to read if they follow down the columns, not across. (Columns are vertical, rows horizontal.)

- **State the number of items or subjects in every title / legend or in a column heading.** Replace any column of identical figures with—perhaps in the title—“(n = 20).” **Use a small “n” for a portion of the total, and call only the grand total “N.”**

- **Columns containing mostly identical P-values are unnecessary.** **Insert footnote symbols into other columns for any significant P-values,** and below the table give P-values and mention the statistical tests providing those values.

  **Example:** * All P < 0.001 (Mann-Whitney U-test)

- **Two horizontal lines** at the top of each table that separate levels of specificity are usual, with one line across the foot of the table. Separate items by spacing, not by lines.

  **Never use vertical lines in a table or as a figure background. Journals dislike grids.**

- Into each blank space in a table add a **space-filler (—)** to guide our eyes across columns.

- Ensure that **multiple-part figures or tables have clear numbers or letters** nearby (1, 2, 3; A, B, C), with letters consistent in case, upper (A, B, C) or lower case (a, b, c).

- In figure legends, **show your actual symbols** or print them on the figure itself.

  Write “The men (■) numbered 16” in the legend or put “Men – ■” on the figure itself. The latter is now preferable. Otherwise, is this symbol a “filled,” “black,” or “solid square”? Is “o” “unfilled,” “white,” or “open”? Editors despair of multiple symbol-synonyms.

- **If you give names instead of examples for lines on a graph,** write “broken” or “dashed” ( - - ), “unbroken” or “solid” ( — ), or “dotted” ( . . . ) lines.

  **Never vary both lines & points** except in the rare cases of their close overlapping. For overlapping curves, you might lengthen the intervals on the vertical axis.

  Gray areas are “shaded.” Dotted areas are “stippled”: ······.

  Write “hatched” for /////// or “cross-hatched” for XXXXX. Or just show them.
As footnote superscripts

Vancouver style prescribes *, †, ‡, §, II, ¶.
When you need more, you start doubling them, as in: **, ††.
Avoid odd symbols such as dollar ($) or pound (£)! Check target-journal style!

Many now prefer as superscripts “a, b, c, d.” P-values usually have * and ** and ***.

If the journal uses superscript Vancouver citation form, never confuse us by choosing superscripts for anything else—like footnotes, numbers (“1, 2, 3, 4 . . .”)

Statisticians complain that whiskers alone mean nothing. If a figure includes this, the figure legend must state what the whiskers represent. Do they mean Maximum and minimum? SD? CI?

Histograms show frequency distribution.

Avoid using more than five or six vertical (sometimes horizontal) bars. Label them clearly below the axis, above them, or on them, or add a key showing each pattern / color of a bar. Choose clearly contrasting colors or shading, hatching, or stippling.

The bars should be 2-dimensional: Be clear, not decorative; no “city skyscraper” cubes.

Which corner of each of these cubes would show its value on either axis?

Limit such 3-dimensional bars to figures demonstrating three variables:
vertical (↑) plus horizontal (→), plus values running front-to-back.

Pie-charts show percentage distribution. They require strong contrast in colors or patterns.

Gustavii’s books (see Resources) cover tables and graphs well, describing a pie chart thus:

“(1) the largest segment begins at 12 o’clock;
(2) it continues with proportionally smaller portions in a clockwise direction;
(3) the number of segments does not exceed five; [in these models, six!] and
(4) labels are placed outside the circle.

For emphasis, one sector can be separated slightly.”

I myself find it easier to read a pie in 3 dimensions, set at a slight tilt.
Recipe for an Introduction

A good Introduction, according to John Swales, usually contains four “moves” (or strategies):

**MOVE I**

Establish the field: Assert briefly how significant, relevant, and important is your chosen topic. This usually requires no citation.

Those smart enough to read this publication would not demand evidence.

The world’s highest incidence of type-1 diabetes occurs in Finland.

**MOVE II**

Summarize your predecessors’ more general research:

On this question, Soto’s 1993 report was the earliest.

**MOVE III**

Focus in on your own research project. In this “however” move, indicate a gap in knowledge to be filled, a question to answer.

Seldom has this issue arisen. Data on this are few.

**MOVE IV**

Introduce your own research by stating the question you wish to answer, what you hope to discover, what hypothesis you will test. Novel methods can earn a brief mention, but rarely will an Introduction include any results. Check your target journal on this.

This study tests the hypothesis that $X$ is $Y$. To discover whether $X$ correlates with $Y$, we examined . . . [perhaps adding] . . . by use of a new method for . . .

The answer to this question, your discovery or confirmation—yes/no—will begin the Discussion, where the citations closely related to your own work (arguments pro and con) also belong. I dislike meeting low-numbered citations AGAIN in the Discussion.

An Introduction mentions (in Move II) general works relevant to yours, showing that you know what has been done in this area. You need not “start with the Romans.” Omit facts known to every scientist. Never march over us with a long parade of facts.

Introductions are shrinking; abstracts seem to be lengthening.

Richard Smith (*BMJ*) in Hall, concludes thus: “Know your audience, keep it short, tell readers why you have done the study and explain why it’s important, convince them that it is better than what has gone before, and try as hard as you can to hook them in the first line.” (Emphasis added.)
Methods

Referees seem to focus half their criticism here. Although they demand sufficient data to allow others to replicate your work for confirmation of its findings, this section must be brief.

Some journals use reduced font size for Methods. Some write their methods in lengthy table titles and figure legends. Some want your specific Methods details only on the net.

- Observe strict chronology:
  Report each step / event in a clear time-order, in the order in which each occurred.
  Never “We did X after Y” or “Before we did X, we did Y.” Write “We did Y, then X.”

- Stay in the past tense. Write long, and then cut, cut, cut out all useless, wasted words.

- Methods will be list-like. If you refuse to use “we,” Methods may require some passive-voice verbs, but not at sentence-end, where they lead nowhere (“For X, the value of Y was used” vs. “Y was used as the value for X.” Active: “Y served as the X value.”)

- From sentence end (focus position!), move passive verbs back; hide them in the middle of the sentence, or substitute adjectives or nouns. (See Process Writing.) Revise thus:
  
  With adjectives: “X was used for Y.” \(\rightarrow\) “X was useful for Y / the best for Y.”
  With nouns: “X was the choice for Y.” “For Y, our selection of X proved best.”

- Attempt end-focus, but linkage in this list-like section is often impossible.

- Present all that the reader needs to know: Study target-journal Methods sections

- Conventions for describing suppliers are on page 61, at #25.

- Say who did what to whom. When, and precisely how? Define all terms:
  For “high X,” “delayed X,” or “prolonged X” say how high, long, or prolonged.

Avoid numbers or letters for groups. “Groups A and B” gain descriptive labels:
  “Milk” versus “No-Milk children”; “Term” versus “Pre-term infants”

In abbreviating authors’ names in the text, use dots between letters. The reason?
  Miika Raimo Ilves or Ilpo Virta is no technique, Carol H. Doe is no disease.

“An experienced radiologist (M.R.I.) and cardiologist (C.H.D.) performed cardiac MRI.”

Observe standard (see journal instructions) rules concerning animal treatment and approval by an “ethics committee.” This means a committee ON ethics. Though some journals may still print it, “ethical” would mean that all your committee members are angelic. All other uses, as in “ethical standards / principles / review” are, however, correct.
If subjects gave their signed informed consent, was this before or after enrollment?

- Explain in detail all randomization procedures. Sealed envelopes? Computer program?
- How many were screened and how many excluded?
- How many dropped out and why? How many were lost to follow-up and why?
- Define any blinding (of whom and how?).
- Describe controls or control samples as thoroughly as you describe your study—or test—population.

This is essential to justify your claims to randomization. How did you find / select / match controls? Incredibly, the only information provided may be “Controls were from the general population.” Who? Strangers walking past your laboratory?

Björn Gustavii provided these points and stresses the need to “calculate sample size needed to demonstrate a difference, if it exists.” He wants this calculation reported in the paper and warns that the number needed is never the number of those originally enrolled, but the number completing the trial. (So subtract the drop-outs.)

If you have complex populations or results with complicated numbers, try to illustrate them with a flow-chart or Venn diagram. Like genealogical charts, these are clear at a glance with their so-visible boxes or circles. Be creative. Reviewers often prefer flow-charts for data hard to comprehend in a text, and for large quantities of data. Study flow charts in prestigious journals.

End Methods with statistics. In the statistics description, state what you consider to be your (statistically) significant P-value. “Significance was set at 0.05” or is “at >0.05” sufficient? Avoid repeating “X was statistically significant,” unless this is versus clinical significance.

Avoid repeating quantities. For adults, omit “years”—it is the default age-unit.

“Respondents were (age / aged) 40 to 60.” Omits years old” or “years of age.”
“Ages were 40 to 60.” “Adults 40 to 60 took part.” “Men over 50 / under 50 died sooner.”

But note: “Children enrolled were from 14 months to 5 years old / of age.”
“Follow-up times ranged from 6 months to 2 years.”

In English, we expect readers to recognize figures and words meaning years or months. We thus write merely “in 1999” or even “in 1066.” And just “in June.”

Such (ok English) phrases as Finns’ “In the year 1999 / until the month of June” sound like lawyer-language, too dramatic. (Note ↑ required use of “the ↑” preceding the unit.)

“The” goes, however, before any superlative or unique word: “The third of May / the last day” (see page 51). For further relevant tips, see “Handling numerals--” section.
Results

If you have table(s), figure(s), or both, **avoid Double Documentation**—Never repeat in the text much that appears in tables and figures, because most readers examine these first of all.

According to Professor John Norman (Hall 1998), with emphasis added:

> “What you must avoid is what any reader, editor, or assessor dreads: ‘The results are presented in Tables I to V and in the figures.’ This does not guide the readers into discovering what you want them to find but actively encourages them to find things you do not think important. ‘You must lead your readers into following your thoughts.”

He adds that in the Results you show the statistical significance of your findings, and in the Discussion, their practical significance. He warns that if your findings do not support your original hypothesis—and even if they refute it—you must report all findings.

What is the **answer to the question you asked?** Or **did you disprove the null hypothesis** with a P-value less than 0.05? What is the **power of the study?** How likely is a false negative? It is always wise to **seek aid from a statistician.**

The Results state—in the **past tense**—selected data, the most interesting results, the highest, lowest, or “not shown.” (Why are they “not shown,” in fact?) **Avoid passive voice:** let inanimate agents (“study / work / results”) do the showing and producing. Or use “we,” or at least “our.” **“Babies were tested” / “We tested babies” / “Our babies tested positive.”**

**Do not evaluate here.** No “remarkably” (a strong emotional term for “greatly / considerably / markedly”) or “This method's efficiency was greater than expected.” No “Surprisingly so.”

**End Results without a summary,** because in Anglo-American journals, the discussion now almost always begins with a statement of your main findings. Some journals now force authors to do this by dividing their Discussion section into two sub-sections labeled “Findings” and “Comment.” A structured Discussion is even emerging. See the next section.

Perhaps the journal publishing your work even combines Results with Discussion: lucky you!

**Sample lines to distinguish Results style from Discussion (referral) style:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Discussion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Of the 366 staff responding, those approving the plan numbered 89 (24%).</td>
<td>That only a quarter of the staff approved the plan seems surprising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Whammo Method performed well for our patients less than one-third of the time.</td>
<td>The Whammo Method’s ineffectiveness may stem from its untested premises.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absenteeism among the nursing staff of small hospitals from 2000 to 2005 compared to 1990 was four-fold. Older nurses, over age 50, were absent for fewer days annually (10 days) than were younger nurses (18 days).</td>
<td>Such a large increase in absenteeism involving so many younger nurses in small hospitals supports the suggestion of Piik (2005) that hospitals of this size may benefit more from our innovations than would larger hospitals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Recipe for a Discussion


After the Swales recipe for an introduction we have waited a long time for a similarly convincing scientific discussion recipe. Quotations indicated are from Gustavii, with emphasis added.

1. **“Main message.”** This, says Gustavii, **“answers the question** posed in the Introduction [in Swales’s Move IV] and includes the main supporting evidence.”

   Example: These findings show / support the hypothesis that X contributes to Y; its mode of action may be Z.

   Be careful with present / past tense throughout any Discussion. See Tense section.

2. **“Critical assessment”** will discuss “any shortcomings in study design, limitations in methods, flaws in analysis, or validity of assumptions.”

   My own term for this is the “Unfortunately” part.

   Now readers will want to know whether others agree.

3. **“Comparison with other studies”** may be organized as:
   
   **Your main finding**
   **Other studies’ findings** in agreement with it, differing from it, contradicting it.

   **Your secondary findings** (if your project is complex)

   **Other studies’ results** agreeing or differing with or contradicting these, and so on.

Next comes my own “So what?” stage. **“Conclusions”** means that here you state your results’ implications and suggest further research. You need no summary of findings here. They are in the abstract, implied in Results, and they start the Discussion.

**Here you reveal the value or consequences of your findings.**

Avoid priority claims such as “This is the first report of X” or “We are the first to do this,” because others may publish similar findings before your findings appear, 6 to 12 months after their first submission. Your editor will then receive the blame!

Gustavii wisely comments that “most studies could be designated ‘the first,’ because most of them have a design of their own.” In my own personal view, to modify a claim thus: **“To (the best of) our knowledge, this may be / seems to be** the first report of Y” seems safe. The two modifiers even make this sound rather modest.
One opponent at a thesis defense asked why a researcher would want to claim priority. Could it even be the case that no one else was stupid enough to carry out such research? Let the findings speak for themselves, or merely say they “represent interesting and unusual findings.”

Avoid promising to publish more; you may go under a tram before you publish the findings!

In close agreement with Gustavii’s Discussion pattern, the Scandinavian Journal of Primary Health Care offers “Instructions for Authors,” providing a structure for a Discussion section with these subheads:

“1. Statement of principal findings;
2. Strengths and weaknesses of the study;
3. Strength and weakness in relation to other studies, discussing particularly any differences in results;
4. Meaning of the study: possible mechanisms and implications for clinicians or policymakers;
5. Unanswered questions and future research.”

Reference List

- Prefer reviews and the earliest and best articles. Omit poor, weak papers.
- Check and recheck all references and keep a copy of each reference cited.
- Errors in references (incorrect or inconsistent order of items, punctuation, upper- versus lower-case letters, abbreviations) are signs of carelessness. Errors often occur in half a work’s citations. Nor is the net reliable; it too makes mistakes in spelling, dates, or pages. Such errors disillusion editors and reviewers and—publicly—irritate your opponent!
- Study the style of your target journal or the style recommended for university theses. Language revisers’ tasks rarely include editing references, so you are on your own! (See page 16 for an overview of Harvard and Vancouver styles.)
- Each reference mentioned must appear in the list, and you should have read them all. Opponents—and reviewers/referees (often unfairly) may expect to see their work cited, but one wise opponent, at the defense, praised a Finnish candidate’s honesty when her thesis cited no article of his; nothing of his was, in fact, closely relevant to her thesis.
- For “personal communication” data, obtain the permission of the “communicator.” Provide in the text full details concerning the source, stating whether it was “oral” or “written.” No personal communications go into your reference list. List anyone’s submitted and accepted work as “in press.”
- In citing material from the web, give in parentheses the date when you accessed it. Gustavii reminds us that data appearing on each site evolve and change. His example: “Cited Dec.4, 2002; available from: www.nlm.nih.gov/pubs/formats/internet.pdf.”

Submit manuscripts with their reference lists double-spaced to allow space for editorial revision; obey limits on maximum number of references (30?). Finns are often too inclusive.
All nations and universities differ, so here are only a few tips on the summary / overview / yhteenveto for a compilation Ph.D. thesis. (Caution: In the UK, “dissertation” means MA / MSc thesis, so a safer term for both is “thesis.”) Note: see Björn Gustavii’s new book, listed on p. 75.

**Title page**: See title section. For your big day, write “12 noon,” not “12 o’clock noon.”

**Table of Contents**: As in titles, avoid full sentences and most articles. Avoid five-place numbering (“3.1.2.5.1”); even three places seems odd to us non-Finns. Finally, you or your computer must ensure that all subtitles in your table of contents and in the text itself match.

**Your original publications**: You must request and receive permission from the publishers to reprint these at the end of your yhteenveto. If they are “Accepted,” they are not printed yet, so say “printed by permission of . . . .” If “Submitted” only, do not mention the journal; you need no permission. Any letter or short report should appear here, says Gustavii, if vital to your thesis; he reminds us that the double-helix Watson & Crick 1953 was just a “short report”!

I call these articles or papers “Study I” or “Study IV,” capitalized, because “study” is such a common word. Then use “(I)” or “(IV).” In a general context, “study” is uncapitalized:

“For the first study, we . . . .” “All five studies showed invasion, Study II showing the least.”

Reproducing parts of anyone’s work—even your own articles—in your yhteenveto / summary / overview, for instance, tables or figures, whether in full or as “adapted” or “modified,” requires publishers’ permission. If you relinquished copyright, you no longer own your own words; the publisher does (page 39; Plagiarism section). A permission line contributed by the copyright holder must appear, word for word, on each table / figure.

**Rules on this become stricter every year.** Ethics was central for two EASE conferences (and will feature in EASE2016). Almost half the presentations and workshops involved plagiarism.

Journals are not publishers. Publishers include Elsevier, Springer, Wiley—reachable via the net.

“Reproduced by permission of the Lancet” requires article title, authors, page numbers. A required permission line may thus be longer than the table title or the figure legend. If you retain copyright, however, you need no permission line. You must, however, inform readers of its source: “. . . appearing originally in [journal name, issue, page, and date].”

**Artwork from your own lab** requires a credit line to the artist, even if the artist is you. “Figure drawn by Anu Mäki,” “Figure / Photo by the author.”

From the net, if “public domain,” say so. Or “from Wikipedia Commons.”

**Tables created specifically for the thesis** itself—never published—seem to need no credit line.

**Referring readers to your original articles with** “(See Study III, Table 6, p. 888)” saves effort and space, but e-theses omit the original articles. Unless they are easily accessible, tables and figures should thus probably be reproduced in the yhteenveto itself but with permission!
Rules for permissions change rapidly. One student in 2010 wrote for me this adventure story:

“1.) One article had a link to the ‘Rightslink’ service where you click permissions/copyright on the webpage. You need to register for the rightslink service, but you can do that from the same link. Apparently some things they charge for, but I got permission to use my articles in my thesis using this link, just by filling out the information (that I am an author and that the manuscript would be reprinted in my thesis).

“I looked up the article that I used a figure from by using the same link, signed in, and clicked on the relevant boxes. (One figure, thesis, and so on). They charged me nothing, and gave immediate consent. I just have to acknowledge in the manuscript using a specific sentence (‘Adapted from –’).

“2.) One journal automatically (when you go to the article and click on permissions/request) grants you permission to use their manuscripts freely for non-commercial use.

“3.) One of the journals was discontinued, but luckily (thank you, google!) I found the volume of this journal (in which the article that I used a figure from appears) on Google Scholarly. On the first pages of this volume (not in the article itself), they stated that all material is public and can be used freely (for non-commercial use). I wasn’t able to print this directly, but I copied the screens of these first pages of this volume into paint and then printed them.

“Yugh. This won’t prevent me from getting a Ph.D., but I sure wish I’d done this ages ago.”
For more on permissions, see pages 70 to 73.

She still had to get or create permission lines when permission was required, and if not required, to state the source, even Creative Commons on line.

One journal has refused permission to reprint a candidate’s article in his thesis. He could reprint only a photocopy of the first page of its reprint, showing journal name, dates, and his article’s abstract. For more details see page 39 and the Plagiarism section.

Literature section:

This may be the most difficult part to write. Never plagiarize lines from others’ or your own published articles (see above, and Plagiarism section). Close the book / journal and create fresh wording (a paraphrase) or put irreplaceably elegant lines between quotation marks. For an example, see how carefully I quote and paraphrase to avoid plagiarizing from Björn Gustavii in “Recipe for a Discussion” on page 30.

No cutting & pasting. Italics? Expensive and difficult to use consistently. I avoid them.

Aims: Avoid repetition: End the introductory line (“The aims of this project / study / work are the following:”) with enough words so that each aim in the list contains only new information. Your aim is not to investigate a topic but to discover truth. Avoid synonyms like “to investigate / to explore / to determine / to assess,” or you sound like a thesaurus. You are writing science, here, not writing poetry. In all manuscripts, synonyms are a curse. (See pages 5 and 6.) Use blank spaces, numbers, or black bullets (●) – an old printers’ term) beside each aim, or number them. No French lines (―). We do not recognize what they are; do the French?!

Make all AIMS grammatically parallel, for instance, choose all infinitives, all participles, or all nouns.
As a Model Aims:

The main aim was to discover the effects of drug X on Y disease.

Specific aims were to discover the

- effect of long-term X treatment of Y-affected patients on their cell-mediated immunity (I)
- long-term efficacy and safety of X in Y-affected patients (II, V)
- pharmacokinetics and long-term safety of X for infants under age 2 (III, IV).

Methods and Results:

In Methods, try to avoid much cutting and pasting of Methods from your original articles. Paraphrasing biochemical methods is, however, so difficult that some techniques can usually be carried over from your articles with little alteration. See page 61, #25, for suppliers’ addresses.

In Results, definitely avoid plagiarizing passages. Any identical phrasing should appear between quotation marks. State the facts in your own fresh words. Years have probably passed since you wrote your articles. You have matured, and your thinking and language mature, as well. Re-state what you found. Paraphrase yourself as you paraphrased others’ lines.

Now, in the Helsinki medical faculty, “cut and paste” is illegal. Do not imitate theses from years ago which lack permissions and do plagiarize. Constantly picture your thesis as an ethesis, flying by net around the world. Its most eager readers will be those from whom you face the temptation to plagiarize. Beware. Sanctions and academic blacklisting are becoming more frequent.

Try to create new tables and figures synthesizing or consolidating study data from several or all of your studies. Opponents seem delighted with such syntheses. Opponents, reviewers, and editors appreciate flow charts and Venn diagrams. A picture is worth thousands of words.

One opponent happily praised a thesis because, after reading the original articles, he did not meet the same lines again, cut and pasted into the yhteenveto! Its language, he said, was “fresh.”

A student’s tip: Conclude sections or subsections with lines providing a “take-home message.”

Discussion:

In a thesis summary or a thesis monograph, you may start the discussion with background. You need not state your findings first, as in an article.

Beware, however, of repeating the Literature. The Literature section will be more general or historical. Try to avoid citing many or even any of the same works in your Discussion that have appeared in your Literature section. (I give this advice also for articles: avoid having Introduction citations appear again in the Discussion.)

As in an article, discuss your results/findings, rather than repeating each in much detail. Remember that yours and others’ theorizing is in present tense. (See Tense Choice, page 40.)
Acknowledgements

Acknowledgements, essential in theses and also appearing at the end of some articles, may be left until too late and thus receive zero editing. Everyone, however, reads these pages attentively, particularly while sitting in the hall, awaiting the start of your defense. This reality means . . .

Be exquisitely polite. Failing in politeness can be risky; some errors can even be hilarious.

A native English-speaker can most accurately judge the between-line connotations of words or phrases. Unedited text may include startling phrases that you innocently considered okay.

Beware: “I acknowledge NN.” This is merely a cool nod of the head: it means that NN exists. Similarly, the adjective “competent” describes minimal ability; it is almost negative.

Never call yourself kind, as in “I kindly thank her.” Very bad! Others kindly aid YOU.

Suppose that A did far more for you than did B, but B is of higher rank. Or you must praise G, whom you dislike. One solution is to praise that person’s skills—“NN has great expertise in X and Y.” Here, you avoid stating that NN used any of these great skills for your benefit!

Actual examples that required rescue:

“NN serviced / satisfied all my needs” sounds like master to servant—or worse!

“Thanks for all those educational experiences during nights in the lab.” What fun! (Omit“-s.”)

“I appreciate all their excellent implications.” Whatever did they imply (hint at)?

“I thank Professor Blit for her relentless aid that made the topic truly pellucid.” Relentlessness is harsh and merciless; “pellucid” is rare, a fancy term for translucent.

“My little sun brightened my days.” Presumably “son”? “Our son,” unless traumatically divorced?

“I want to/wish to thank N.” is an expression that I dislike, because it seems to mean “But I cannot, because . . . N ran off with my wife / husband!” Write only “I thank N.”

Avoid the task of creating a dozen splendid phrases like:

“Heartfelt thanks go to / My deepest appreciation / I am deeply indebted to / I warmly thank / my sincere gratitude goes to / X deserves thanks / X earns my thanks / my gratitude overflows—”

Instead, collect helpful individuals into cohesive groups.

Use one gratitude phrase at the beginning of each group’s paragraph.

One phrase or line per person then shows why you are grateful to each:

“My warmest appreciation goes to A for his constant wise guidance, to C for her humor and cheery encouragement, to D for his aid with statistics, to E, G, and K for their faithful support, and to L and M for excellent laboratory assistance.”
Avoid giving both title and degree(s): “Professor Timo Koponen, Ph.D.” Omit one of these, unless forced (as on page one of the thesis) to use both. My preference is for thanking “Professor Koponen” and “Docent Vehkalahti,” with no degrees, because those ranks require a PhD.

In English, degrees never precede names. Never write “MD Antti Aho” or “PhD Carol Norris.”

I prefer omitting all degrees like “MS / MSc,” “MD” (lääk. lic.), or “PhD” (tohtori, doctorate).

Gustavii is of the same opinion, saying bluntly that no degrees belong in article acknowledgements. I would extend his advice to theses, as well.

For those without professorships or docentships, organize the names so you can write “My deep gratitude goes to the young doctors in our group: Antti, Tero, Esko, and Lisa.”

“To my co-authors not elsewhere mentioned, I offer my sincere thanks, to Pasi Aho . . . .”

For technicians, “We all depended on the expert staff of the lab, especially Timo Ui and Vivi Poo.” Adding “Mr.” and “Ms” or “Mrs.” seems rather insulting. You seem to be trying to conceal the fact that some people hold no degrees.

Notice, however, that no one ever provides the academic degrees of parents, siblings, or spouses. That never implies that your family members have earned no academic degrees.

Usually acceptable to all—degree-holders or not—with or without their family names, is

“I could not have succeeded without my invaluable / precious / irreplaceable neighbors Asi, Celia, Jyrki, Johanna, and Mari; nor without Sari, Harri, and Jenni of the running gang.”

The usual order of persons honored is department head, director(s), special mentors, co-authors, reviewers, language reviser, colleagues, technicians, close friends, less-close friends.

Then build backwards, from distant relatives, closer ones, child(ren), spouse / partner, and DOG!

No one regrets giving generous thanks, but you might regret being too stingy.

Should you include your siblings? Of course. Avoid, however, thanking someone for “nursing” your baby (means with breast milk). Write “cared for my [poor neglected] baby”!

Thank in-laws? (Yes.) Very young children? Yes! Children grow up to examine their parents’ theses. Treat all of your offspring equally. Infants cause joy as well as exhaustion.

Please vary the so-frequent “Little Aksel reminds me of what is truly real / important in life.”

Yes, how about thanking your faithful dog or cat? Think how much time with you they lost!

Why fear emotion? Why avoid humor or even personal, private allusions? This event occurs once in your lifetime, and even big, tough men have written four A4 pages of Acknowledgements full of grateful affection and humor.

Thank all funding agencies and remember “the” in front of almost all of them. Read these aloud to check them by ear. “The Finnish Medical Society, the Generosity Foundation,” but “Kuopio University,” “Helsinki University FundS /FundING.”
Model Acknowledgements

This is a disguised actual Acknowledgements in one University of Helsinki medical thesis, adapted and slightly shortened for this book with the author’s permission.

Start with something like “My warmest gratitude goes” continuing:

. . . to Professor NN for her positive and encouraging approach regarding this research.

to my supervisors Professor NN and Docent NN. Professor NN suggested the topic of this study and had trust in my capability to complete the work even at times when I myself had none. As head of the Department of X, he has been my supervisor in clinical work as well. Docent N’s supportive attitude and quick responses to any questions concerning this study have been invaluable [note that this deceptive adjective means almost too wonderfully valuable to describe].

to the official reviewers DocentS / ProfessorS NN and NN for constructive critiques [note plural in titles for >1].

to Professors NN and NN, my clinical supervisors, for their collaboration. Professor NN has always provided me with prompt information when needed. NN’s help, especially in the very start of the study but also later, has been irreplaceable. NN is also my coworker at the X Department and an admirable person and expert to work and have discussions with.

to NN for reviewing the language of my thesis and NN for her author-editing and her useful English courses.

to all the participants in this study.

to all of my colleagues and present and former fellow workers at the Department of N. Twelve years ago I knew nothing about X, specific or otherwise, but from the very beginning I felt appreciated and accepted as I was and received so much support and friendliness that it still carries me along. You have all taught me so much. In contact with each person, adult or child, new things evolve, and we along with it.

to my wonderful parents-in-law, N and N. We have had many great times together and will hopefully have many more.

to my loving parents N and N, my adorable big brothers and my dear little sister and best friend N and their spouses and children. We live in close contact, especially during summer, in the lands of our ancestors in our leisure time paradise in X, which has been the root of my being and well-being since childhood. I am very fortunate; I realize that.

to my N [husband] and our lovely children N, N, N, and N, I am ultimately grateful for our love and companionship. Both being medical doctors has turned out positive in our relationship, and N’s hard work has enabled me to work part-time, be available to the children, and do some research somewhere in between. Our best creations ever are our children, who have loyalty put up with my recurrent absentmindedness and bursts of bad temper, and helped me place things in the right order of importance by their mere existence. I will also have to mention our little dog N who has numerous times during this process healed my wounded pride and self-worth with her ever-ending affection and approval.

This work has been financially supported by N, N, N . . . to whom I am sincerely grateful.
**Thesis dedications**

These appear on the first free page and have ranged over my decades in Finland from:

“Dedicated to my Saviour Jesus Christ” down to

“In memory of my beloved cocker spaniel who led me into veterinary medicine.”

Gustavii, in his book on compilation theses, warns against printing Great Thinker quotations at the beginning of the thesis. At least avoid lines that have become clichés, or lines that could apply to any thesis. He says, “I have only found one citation that illustrated the essence of the actual findings.” And that line was “formulated by the graduate student himself.”

So choose, if you must, some words very relevant . . . maybe those of a noted scholar in your field . . . or from your beloved mom, dad, or child. Or quote yourself, from your conclusions.

---

**Article acknowledgements**

Remember to ask permission to acknowledge. Anyone disagreeing with your findings may prefer that his / her name be omitted; otherwise you are indicating the person’s endorsement of your study and its findings.

Example: “We thank Ilpo Aho of Oulu University for the X samples, Sara Kohn for statistical analyses, and the Tivoli Company of Copenhagen for the reagents.”

(Note to Finns: Neither “the reagents used” nor dirty old “used reagents”!)

No degrees included, but writing “Professor Blim of Oxford University” is okay if she donated essential specimens or provided learned advice.

New journal rules may ask you to specify the contribution of each co-author. Because of the huge proliferation of authors (up into the hundreds for some papers!), those who aid you, but not sufficiently to earn co-authorship, can receive acknowledgement at the article’s end,

Some journals now refuse to publish any personal acknowledgements, particularly for aid in the laboratory or language revision, sometimes even for assistance with statistics.

To repeat: If you gave up copyright to the publisher, you need copyright-holder’s permission to reprint your or others’ material in your thesis summary. You cannot reprint your own table or figure without permission and including a permission line. If not, you are plagiarizing.

Even reprinting your own lines without quotation marks around them is self-plagiarism. Some very complex methods may, however, be carried over from attached articles. (See your faculty’s current rules and see, here, the plagiarism section.)
Permission lines, in theses and articles, on the actual page

NEVER cite a source for a table/figure on its page in this manner: BAD →

Table 3. Enzyme X in pancreatitis (Smith 2010)
OR Enzyme X in pancreatitis (14)

If you base a new table/figure on data in another person’s work—data not in a table or figure, then say “Based on data from . . . .”

If the publisher holds the copyright for the source from which you wish to reprint a table/figure, you must request permission to reprint and ask for a permission line. Your title stands alone at the top; usually your legend sits at the bottom, looking thus:

Table 3. / Figure 3. Enzyme X in pancreatitis

And at the bottom of a table/figure:

Reprinted / Reproduced (here) with the publisher’s permission.
with the permission of [Name of Publisher], from
Smith, JC, “Pancreatitis can be fun,” in Medical Comedy 2010; 73(1): 13.

If the publisher does not supply a detailed line, note these thesis examples:

Reprinted with permission from the website owner. From Creative Commons.
Permission to reproduce granted under BioMed Central’s general terms.
Photos reprinted with the kind permission of the authors/artist.
Photograph by the author. Image: Mary Maro.
Table with kind permission from Springer . . . .
© 2011 Japan Pediatric Society . . . . © the authors

Some think that a small alteration in a figure or table allows them to reprint it without permission. No! You must add “Adapted from . . . .” or “Modified from . . . .” and still have permission granted. (Perhaps the publisher must first see the adapted/modified version.) One opponent repeatedly asked a candidate during the defense why highly modified figures had no mention of their being modified. Academic fraud increases; rules grow stricter; editors grow more suspicious. With no adaptation/modification, reprint all items exactly as copyrighted, with no revisions.

If you wish to create a new figure based on two or more published figures, request permission from the publisher(s), and if possible, from authors and artists. For instance . . .

You admire a complicated arrow showing physiological process X, and in another publication a stair-step illustration of that same process X. You want to show X as an arrow climbing a staircase. You must ask permission from the two original publishers, perhaps attaching your proposed combined figure. Cite them both completely.

My best metaphor: You visit a friend overnight. You use the guest room, bed, towels, soap. But if you forget your toothbrush, you would never, never use your host’s own toothbrush. An author’s own copyrighted tables, figures, and LINES are personal property, like his/her toothbrush.
### Tense Choice

#### Present tense

1. **Established knowledge:** “Finland has the world’s highest rate of X infection.”

2. **Others’ general findings:** “Aho found that no evidence for X exists.”
   
   This verb can be in the present tense as well, if it sounds logical (“found” → “finds,”) but usually for a living author: “Aho suggests / states that X is Y.”

3. **Your own goal** in the introduction or abstract: “This study attempts / will attempt / attempted to discover whether X falls when Y rises.”

4. **Yours or anyone’s theorizing:** “We hypothesize that X is —” “Results may depend on population size.” “It seems that mice very seldom die from over-eating.”

5. **Contents of tables or figures:** “Table 2 includes further details.”

#### Past tense

1. **Specific details in yours or others’ published work (be alert to mention of quantities)**
   
   “We / Aho found that the two years with the highest rates were 2002 and 2004.”
   “Only six of the mice survived (Aho 1999).” (past tense) But generalize to:
   “showing that, under these conditions, very few survive.” (present tense)

2. **Others’ general findings if logic demands,** often in a list of findings: “At this temperature, most mice died (8), but after immediate air-cooling, those that died were few (9), and when immersed briefly in cold water, all survived (10).” (Note end-focus x 3!)

3. **All of your own current work:** “Subjects stated their ages.” “X formed a Y.”
   “None of them arrived,” except for things truly permanent: “The city is in Savo; its trees were mainly birches.” (Cities do not move, but trees die.)

4. **What others have said:** Aho (1999) predicted that this test will become the gold standard. Present tense “predicts” is also acceptable here; see under present tense, #2.

   When I see present tense for your own methods or results, I assume that you cannot be discussing your own work. I thus seek a citation, but no citation, of course, appears.

**Perfect forms** are fine for data most similar to yours in topic or findings: “We found that mice died at -20 degrees, and in Smith’s work (2006), mice have died at a similar temperature.”

The present perfect tense is useful: “X has never survived where Y is a common virus (6).” The perfect brings events up to the present, “No one has shown [and still haven’t] X to be true.”

If I cannot decide between past and present tense, I choose non-temporal forms (ones indicating no time)—such as participles and infinitives (see page 22 in Titles for examples).
Citations and Layout

Avoid repeating the same citation several times with no intervening citations, even if it is given only as “3” or “(3)” or a superscript.³

Do this by using pronouns to link findings back to their source article:

“Brown et al (1998) found X. They continued with Z. In their study, A was B; their findings also showed that Y was Z, although Smith et al (2000) have disagreed with their conclusions.”

Never repeat parenthetically citation data you have—in Harvard style—already given:

“Aho found that X is Y (Aho 1991).” Use “X is Y (Aho 1991).”

Choices: “Brown (1991) suggests that X is Y” or “X is Y (Brown 1991 / Brown, 1991).”

Sentence-final citations in parentheses save words with no effect on end-focus. Devoting the second most vital position in a sentence to a name is wasteful; instead, place there an important word. You could, for instance, begin the sentence with powerful “Never” or “Only.”

I like Harvard names in chronological order, starting with the earliest date. For ones in the same year, alphabetize them: (Laos 2000, Kerkel 2007, Laane 2009, Mare 2009, Bo, 2010)


If, however, you agree closely with Brown, you know Brown personally, or if Brown is your professor, reviewer, or opponent, then the name as the subject of the sentence might be wise!


If you choose one of these, use it throughout. Synonyms always confuse or irritate readers.

“Collaborators”? Maybe okay, but it sounds to us like those who are aiding a criminal!

Avoid the too-common Nordic use of “e.g.” in citations: “(e.g., Aho 1989).”

Because Vancouver style never allows “It ended.”⁶ or “ended [e.g. 6].” or “ended (e.g. 6),” bravely select the best work to cite. We know that other sources exist. Only occasionally will you need something like:

“(As best shown by Aho 1999)” or “(Reviewed in / by Aho, 2000).”

Saving words:

“This is true of measles (Pop 1991), smallpox (Pip 1994), and typhoid (Pup 1999).”

(In present tense, because these three papers are published, and this sounds like a generalization.)

Or “. . . of diphtheria (5), smallpox (7), and influenza (8).” Or “Oho [3] and Ton [7], like Iho [9], found these diseases to be widespread.” (Note my infinitive).
Font issue: italics or not

Obey your target-journal style when deciding whether to use italics. Use them for Latin (not only for *in vivo* but also for e.g., i.e., AND for every *et al.*)? Then you must also use italics for every foreign term, like *laissez faire*, or any Finnish or Swedish word. I find italics to be decreasing in popularity. I suspect that they are expensive. For your thesis, the choice is all yours.

You do need italics to distinguish genes from other abbreviations. Here is an authoritative quote provided by a student as to italics for genes and proteins:

"Non-human oncogenes are usually written as uncapitalized three-letter words in italics (e.g. *myc*-italics) while their protein products are written in roman font with an initial capital (e.g. Myc). . . . . To make matters more confusing, human genes follow a different nomenclature, so that the human *myc* [italics] gene is denoted as *MYC* [italics] and its protein product is written as MYC."


I note that he does not italicize “e.g.”

Layout

Do not copy your target-journal’s layout. Gustavii recommends using for submitted articles:

a. **Times New Roman font 12**

b. **Headings** with three levels:

1. bold **UPPERCASE**

2. bold **lower case**

3. **italics**

c. **No split words.** Computer programs split the same word at different points, and opinion even differs as to where syllable-breaks occur, even among scholars who are all native English-speakers. Dictionaries also differ regarding syllable-breaks.

As I recall, “democratization” can be divided into syllables in about ten different ways, a few begin with: de / mo; dem / o, and cra / tiz; crat / iz. So do not try this (at home)!

To avoid splitting words, never justify the right margin. Justify left side, only. Leave the right side ragged, as in this book, for article manuscripts.

Full, both-side justification necessitates splitting words, which slows our reading pace and also produces illogical horizontal spacing and gaps in lines.
Verbs for Academic Scientific Writing

Your own research field supplies enough substantives. Most need a greater stock of verbs. For first drafts, use boring common verbs ("to be / have / get / find out"); then be more specific.

Verbs are muscular; they move ideas along. Always, however, check connotations in an English-to-English dictionary. Avoid pompous or rare words. Be specific, not fancy. Below, UPPER case indicates the stressed syllable; "+" means that this verb, spelled thus, can also serve as a substantive.

to look at
- obSERVE
- view + / reVIEW +
- perCEIVE
- reGARD +
- appROACH +
- be aWARE of
- STUDy +

o compare
- conTRAST +
- match +
- CHARacterize
- probe +
- reLATE
- CORrelate +
- asSOciate +
- differENtiate
- disTINguish

- learn
- search +
- surVEY, (SURvey+)
- inSPECT
- inQUIRE
- ascerTAIN (= check)
- exPLORE
- inVEStigate
- iDENtify
- aGREE
- check +
- deTECT
- unCOVer
- deTERmine
- asSESS
- ANalyze (vs. anALysis!)

- to be finding out
- see
- search +
- (SURvey+)
- inSPECT
- inQUIRE
- ascerTAIN (= check)
- exPLORE

- to balance
- eVALuate
- SPECulate
- deCIDE
- conCLUDE
- acKNOWledge
- ADvocate +
- deFEND
- conCEDE

- to show
- INdicate
- sugGEST
- DEMonstrate
- point out
- exHIBit +
- reVEAL
- disCLOSE
- disPLAY +
- ILLustrate
- exEmplify

- to test
- disCERN
- inFORM
- conFIRM
- FALsify
- enSURE
- esTABlish

- to cause—from outside, something to decrease
- to cause—from outside, something to increase

- reDUCE
- curTAIL
- cut +
- deGRADE
- dePRESS
- diMINish
- drop +
- imPAIR
- LESsen
- LImit +
- MINimize
- MODerate
- resTRICT
- WEAKen

- raise +
- adVANCE +
- AGgravate
- AMplify
- aROUSE
- ELevate
- enHANCE
- enLARGE
- enRICH
- exCITE
- FOSter
- HEIGHTen
- imPROVE
- inFLATE

- inTENsify
- lift +
- MAgnify
- proMOTE
- proVOKE
- STRENGTHen

I consider the verb deTERiorate to be always intransitive, so that nothing can “deteriorate X.” X can, however, itself “deteriorate” or decrease. Note: things cannot reduce themselves, nor can a thing “increase / decrease” anything transitively.

(See the Words Confused and Misused section.)
Groups of useful or problematic verbs

“Imply” and “implication” are common & safe, but “Implicate” always shows blame or guilt.

“Consist” for ingredients (cake) and “contain” for contents (of a pill).
“Includes” implies less than 100%. “It comprised 80 men” means 100%.
“It was comprised of 80 men” is correct but uselessly wordy.

“x clearly shows / undoubtedly is”
“This proved / has proven effective.”
This “prove” means shown with some evidence, and is safe.

“Answer”→“reply /responder” (respondents);
“gave” → “provide / supply / furnish.”

Upgrade spoken-English
“There is / was / were X” to “X exists / occurs / appeared / arose / emerged.”

These verbs do differ.
Things exist permanently,
Occur regularly,
Appear suddenly,
Arise theoretically,
Emerge from something.
These can also help you in replacing passives.

To end-focus on a digit, use
“number” as a verb or
“figure” as a noun:
“Girls numbered 71;
the figure for boys was 11.”

Handy words
if all else fails:
regard / involv / concern.

“Regarding this item . . . .”
“She regarded it as complete.”
“In regard(s) to this issue . . . .”
“It involved effort.”
“Concerning this danger ...”
“The problem concerns funding.”

Beware!
To “prove” anything is
For naive amateurs;
it means proven forever, everywhere,
thanks to brilliant you!
Failure to prove is okay,
as is disprove, meaning falsify.

“Includes” implies less than 100%. “It comprised 80 men” means 100%.
“It was comprised of 80 men” is correct but uselessly wordy.

“ConSist” for ingredients (cake) and “conTAIN” for contents (of a pill).
Formality Levels

Colloquial spoken, first-draft words with some synonyms, in order of increasing formality

Avoid these

Choose among these

a bit
a little, slightly, somewhat

a couple
two, a pair, a duo (for people, “couple” implies man and woman)

a lot, a lot of, lots of
several, many, multiple (see “plenty of”)

anyhow
in any case, in any event, nevertheless, nonetheless

anyway
although, thus, however

besides; too
also, in addition, likewise; furthermore, moreover

enough
sufficient (insufficient is also useful)

fix (verb)
arrange, manage, handle OR repair, renovate, recondition

give (verb)
supply, furnish, offer, provide, yield

gone; none
lacking, absent; missing (think cops)

hard
difficult, demanding, laborious, time-consuming, taxing

let (v)
allow, permit, give permission for

little (= few)
few, insufficient, lacking, rare, scarce, sparse

look for (v)
try to find, seek (sought), search for

make
produce, construct, form, compose, build, create, originate, constitute

plenty of
abundant, ample (vs. sparse), numerous, frequent (occurring over time)

pretty; quite
somewhat, almost, moderately, not uncommon, not infrequent

quite X
very (a weak word), rather, considerably, noticeably, notably, markedly, greatly (I would avoid “remarkably” as too emotional.)

so
therefore, thus, hence

start (v)
begin, initiate, undertake

take (v)
adopt (100%), adapt (with changes), transfer, possess

think X is
consider X to be, judge X to be, deem X to be

though
even though, although, notwithstanding

too
also, in addition, as well as, likewise

try (to)
attempt to / endeavor to

turn out (v)
prove/proven to be X (show by evidence; “It proved to be a wise choice.”)

way
means, approach, method, procedure, manner

work out (v)
solve, resolve, determine, devise, OR clarify, elucidate

(Sources include The Words Between, JM Perttunen, 2000, and many author-editors.)
Words Confused and Misused

amount and number: “Number” goes with countables, as does “fewer”: Fewer cells. Less sugar (uncountable). “Each” and “any” often prove useful to maintain the singular: “Of the 10, each patient received 3 g of the drug.”

any: This is handy to allow you to use the singular and to include zero. Any = 0 → ∞

“We sought correlations between age and enzyme X levels. (They surely existed.) We sought any correlation between and enzyme X level.” (Maybe nonexistent.)

count vs. change: “Their first chance to change X will be in 2009.” Careful; they sound alike.

chapter: Finns use this for almost everything! Wrong choices are extremely confusing.

1. paragraph = an often-indented unit usually covering one major point.
2. section = such as Introduction, Methods, Results, Discussion.
3. chapter = a long portion of a book, comprising many pages. (Moby Dick!)

counter to: Overused. “On the contrary” (French influence, au contraire?) is argumentative!

Instead, write “Contrary to X is Y.” “In contrast, X seems preferable.” “Conversely, our mice survived X.” “We chose the opposite.” “The reverse is true.”

control: (säättää ohjata) Use monitor / check / follow(-up) (valvoa, tarkistaa, seurata).

“ConTROL” (stress 2nd syllable) goes with hand-cuffs, ropes, dog-leashes, tempers. Doctors monitor patients, follow them in a follow-up study, check them.

different: Avoid over-use; all things differ. Why “Six different men shared a ward”?

Perhaps to stress wide differences, “Six widely differing viral species thrived.”

“Differ” is a good, strong verb: “These patient populations differed in ethnicity.”

economical: “Economi” has to do with the economy. “Economical” is rare and suggests a saving of money (säästävää). An ecoNOMical person eCONomizes.

effect and affect: “EffECT” is almost always a noun and “afFECT,” a verb.

Learn: “We affect its effects.”

The rare noun “Affect” (capitalized) refers to emotions. “He is lacking in Affect.”

The rare verb “effECTION” means to establish. “We hope to effect changes here!”

gold standard: Never “golden standard,” as this is monetary—££, $$. It is a metaphor contrasting a nation’s gold reserves with silver reserves.)

More usual in medicine is “X of choice” usually “Treatment of choice.”

health vs. healthy: She is healthy (adjective). She is in good health (noun).
increase, decrease: These apply only during a specified time-period. They may occur “from inside,” on their own, as in a lesion healing, versus—from outside—being cured.

Occurring within: “His pain increased.” “Values increased / rose / soared.” “Levels decreased / fell / dropped / deteriorated.” (See Verbs section.)

By outside forces: “Aspirin reduced/raised / elevated / enhanced / promoted / X.” Or it “reduced / lowered / diminished/ X.” Or “Y caused a decrease in X.”

Or is X merely “higher / lower” or “larger/ smaller” than is Y?

“As the length of the neonates decreases, their relative heart weight grows.” (Babies shrink?) Accurate: “The shorter the baby at birth, the greater (is) its relative heart weight.”

Never write “When mountains increase in size, their number of species rises.” Write “The larger the mountain, the greater (is) its number of species.”

incidence (vs. prevalence): Gustavii calls these “the total number of cases of a disease or condition existing at a specific time” vs. “the number of new cases that develop over a specific time,”

Prevalence = how many now have X disease. “Prevalence is 213 / 100 000.”

Incidence = how many develop it annually. “16.3 /100 000 develop it annually.”

in print, in press: “In print” means being sold; “out of print” means sold out, unavailable.

In press—more useful to authors—means now being printed, soon to appear, Or (mainly non-academically) “forthcoming.” No phrase “out of press” exists.

keep vs. give: “I will keep a talk.” No! You will do the opposite: “I will give a talk.”

But we do “hold a meeting / a conference”; we “give—or throw—a party.”

lend vs. borrow: Lend goes out—from you; borrow comes to you. Finns generously lainavat.

next: Near a day, we say, “See you this coming Monday.” “Next Monday?” In 10 days?

other: “On the one hand, and on the other hand,” doubles contrast strength and is okay, but never use 2x “other” to refer to two related items. Dangerously confusing.

Never “On the other hand, X . . . but on the other hand, Y . . . .” or, without hands, “The other patient lost weight, and the other gained weight.” NO. A Finnish error! Write “One patient lost weight, and the other gained (weight).”

She was blind in the other eye” = totally blind! “Other” always means second of two.

own: Always preceded by a genitive: “her / his / Oulu’s / their own X.”
**parameter:** This is overused and mispronounced! Say “paRAmeter” (not “pair of meters”) and reserve it for mathematically derived values like means, CIs, SDs, or constants. Instead, use “**characteristics / variables / measurements.**”

Similarly, avoid “**paradigm,**” sounding like “pair of dimes.” Model? Pattern? Ideal?

**range:** From smallest to largest figure, use “**range / ranging,**” “His temperature ranged from 36 to 40 C. Prevalence, ranging from 20 to 30/100 000, is sure to rise.” (See “vary,” below.)

**risk:** Most academics seem to prefer “**at risk for X**” (X is something not inevitable), rather than “risk of,” which seems lay-person’s language. We can then write “The **risk of over-eating for obesity.**” But always “**risk of death,**” a thing inevitable.

**significant:** Unless you have no P-values in your manuscript, use only for a statistical difference (P-value), not for achievements or for human relationships. Many drop “statistically” after using it once, unless “**clinically significant**” is relevant.

Avoid “almost / highly significant.” Instead, give the P-value. (See “Handling Numerals—”)  

**similar, same, identical:** These words are not interchangeable. “Same” and “identical” are more similar than is “similar.” Brothers and sisters are similar, but only identical twins, being monozygotic, are genetically exactly the same.

**since, as, while:** Beware! Each of these can also have a time-sense.  

“**Since / As he came to live here, he has been studying Finnish.”** (Because, or in 2001?)  
“**Since / As / While I am busy in surgery, you look after our family.”** (Huh?)

(For “**since**” and for “**as,**” we therefore often substitute “**because.**”)  

“X accumulated in the nucleus, **while** tabulin was cytoplasmic” means whereas or when?

(For any “**while**” not meaning “at the same time as” please substitute “**but**” or “**whereas.**”)

**vary:** Less often appropriate than “range,” discussed above. “Vary” means to go up and down. “The patient’s temperature varied hour by hour.” Often it includes no figures.

**weigh vs. weight:** We weighed (verb) the neonate. Because her **weight** (noun) was only 1000 g, her mother felt **weighted** (participle) down with fear. The Mafia gang **weighted** (verb) the corpse with rocks before throwing it overboard.

**worth x; worthy of x:** Finns may write: “That is worth of **X**.” The correct alternatives are: “That is **worth studying,**” or, more formally, “That is **worthY of study.**”

**Confusing plurals:** Unusually, the longer form is the singular: criterion / criteria; phenomenon / phenomena. Two words, species and series, serve either as singular or plural: “Aho’s two series are larger than is our first series.” “One species **occurs** here, but **five** species **occur** in Sweden.”

**Words never plural:** equipmentS, adviceS, informationS. I dislike researches.
A Sample of Preposition Problems

- absent from
- added to, not into; an addition of sodium
- apply for (money), but apply ointment; apply to the university for money
- approve/ disapprove of
- agree/disagree with
- ask him, never ask from him (“Ask him for information.”)
- associate with (and correlate/consistent with, but relate to, characteristic of)
- at this level (Use AT for precise stopping-points: point, age, temperature, stage, level, dose, dosage.) I prefer “AT risk FOR.”
- Finns have problems with “at” and with “by” (authorship).

- on average (“On average, earthquakes there occur every 12 years.”)
- call (phone) her, never call to her (British: “ring her, and when finished, ring off.”)
- compare with = seek likenesses and differences; often in the USA, compare to.
  Use “compared to / with” early in the sentence, with no comparative degree: “Compared to rats, mice thrived.” “Finland, compared to the USA, is safer.”
  But with comparative degree, with an -er modifier; use “than”: “X is longER than Y, less than Z.” So avoid: “longer compared with / to Z.”

- correlate with, associate with, connect with (unless electrically!) but relate to
- introduce to the audience a speaker. Wrong: “I introduce you Dr. Ilo.” (We say that to Ilo.)
- different from (always!) US error: “different than”; UK error: “different to.”
- dissolved in, but extracted from
- the effect/influence of statins on cholesterol / of nurses on doctors
- essential to
- exclusive of
- fill in (USA also fill out) a form; complete a form
- foreign to
- grateful to her for the gift
- an increase in (not of) X (size?) a reduction in cost
- independent of, dependent on
- isolate from
- at a mean height / weight / level
- participate in (always “in,” except when final: “Glad you could participate.”)
- prefer X to Y
- prior to
- (in) pursuit of
- in the range of
- similar to
- substitution of x for y (where y is what leaves)
- representative of (. . . this syndrome, this class of drugs)
- varies with (. . . weight, age)

Academics work at the university, in the department of X, in Helsinki.
Patients in a hospital have doctors who work on their floor, or in a clinic of / at that hospital.
Students, once accepted by a university, then study at that school. When in school, they study.
Participle Problems

“Using” often dangles: “Using lasers, the patients' eyes were studied.” (Eyes use lasers?)

“The disease was identified using the latest technology.” (A clever disease!)

“The children were studied using MRI.” (Technically advanced children!)

Change “using” to “with” or “by”: “With” an instrument, or a substance (As the instrument gets more complex and more automatic, however, one can use “by”: by a method or technique, or a complex instrument (even “by means of” or “by use of” something).

“The patients were warmed with blankets.” “By this method, we succeeded.”

“Results were calculated not by computer, but with a slide rule.”

“Using” is okay with an agent: “Aho, using X, did Y,” even “These cells, using sodium as a—”

“Using” can also serve as a substantive, called a gerund, as in “Swimming is good exercise.”

“Use of / Using soap is wise.”

“Used” is one of my enemy words, like “not,” “so,” “get.” All of these are vague and weak, especially when “used” is the passive verb at sentence-end. (See Process Writing section.)

An often-ignored rule in English is the genitive before a participle. “HER arriving early was considerate,” Not “SHE arriving.” “This drug’s being expensive is unfortunate.”

(I will forgive those who forget this rule, however.)

Be careful with all participles ending in “-ing.”

These may become “dangling modifiers.” Native English-speakers joke with them. Visualize.

“Lying across the colon, the surgeon saw the lost dressing,”

“Hanging from the ceiling, the elderly nurse suddenly noticed an electrical cable.”

Repair both by flipping them so that the modifying phrase comes last, next to what it modifies.

“The surgeon saw the suture lying . . . .” and “The nurse noticed a cable hanging . . . .”

As with subject and its verb

Put things that go together close together.

(See page 9 for examples.)
A Sample of Article-Use Guidelines

A / An / no article

Use with an unspecified, singular, countable noun.

“A man arrived” (not specified; any man).
“Use lemon juice in water to remove rust” (none is a countable).

Note: “AN” precedes a vowel sound (an uncommon, an FBI man, a unique, a European).

The

1. When an item has already been specified: “The study” means one already mentioned. For good linkage backward: “This study / These studies. Such studies.”

2. When an item is about to be specified:
“We carried out three experiments; the experiment involving mice . . . .”

3. When an item is otherwise known to the reader:
“The teeth were intact.” (You mentioned skulls, and all know that skulls have teeth.)

4. When a countable is unique:

English allows you to avoid repetition by using THE:

“We captured mice in Lapland. The/These animals were healthy.” You can avoid writing “The animals used were healthy.” or an error such as “the used needles,” old needles from which you can become HIV-positive! “Used” before a noun means not new; think of a used car.

Special cases: Body organs—the heart, the liver, the brain, the arm, the kidneys, the bones

Institutions and organizations—the Finnish Academy, the FCS, but Oulu University, and words unmodified: the sick, the old, and the former, the latter; the elderly, the blind.

No articles for: both, noon, midnight, winter, childhood, pregnancy, birth, youth, death, biology, history, malaria, oxygen, Ireland, Monday, June, fifteen, Table 1, Figure 3.

Note verb: commit suicide / murder, always without “the.” Murder is a verb; suicide is not.

None in addresses: Department of Art, University of Texas; Joan Aho, Editor

None for above sea level, below zero, by accident, at once, at present, in case, by chance, in addition, in brief, in contrast, in detail, in effect, in full, in fact, on time, on purpose, within reach, beyond reach, without doubt, without warning

Many singular nouns need no article. Judge them by ear by creating a simple sentence:
“Incidence is rising.” “Nature can heal a patient.” “Treatment cured her.”

But “THE study / patient / dose was—” Can you hear whether an article is usual?

RULE OF THUMB: Usually “the” means 1 of 1; “a / an” means 1 of >1.
# Chief Uses of the Comma

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF COMMA</th>
<th>PROBLEM</th>
<th>EXAMPLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. List-commas</td>
<td>Final comma before “and.” Often comma before “or.”</td>
<td>a, b, c, and d a, b, c, or d</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2. “Fetal parentheses” (always paired) | A commenting or a defining unit? | Doctors __who constantly overwork__ need higher pay.  
The timer__which broke__ will never work.  
(Test these two, with and without commas.) |
| 3. Subject + verb and, or, but subject + verb | Clarity                                      | Loss of signal correlates with concentration of contrast agent and relative blood volume is calculated by the X method.  
(Why must we read this sentence twice?) |
| 4. Introductory word or phrase | Does an oral pause follow? | First, tell me . . .  
Finally, finished reports arrived.  
In May, is the test complete? |
| 5. Dependent clause (always use if initial) | Is the clause dependent? | Whereas 251 cooperated, 17 withdrew.  
If you wish, the doctor will call. |
| 6. Adjective series | A comma goes where “and” could appear. | It is a tall, broad, dark oak tree.  
The fit, lean Arab patients survived. |
| 7. Apposition (paired) | Identical, not defining | Paula, our director, arrived.  
But: Our director Paula arrived. |
**Punctuation Terms**

(US / British form)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Punctuation</th>
<th>(US)</th>
<th>(British form)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>period / full stop</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>piste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comma</td>
<td>,</td>
<td>pilkku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>semicolon</td>
<td>;</td>
<td>puolipiste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colon</td>
<td>:</td>
<td>kaksoispiste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hyphen</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>väliiviava between linked words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“n” dash / &quot;m&quot; dash</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>between words, units / ajatusviiva (p. 57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dot (for the net)</td>
<td><a href="http://www.helsinki.fi">www.helsinki.fi</a></td>
<td>Use also for initials in names, C.B.N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decimal point</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parentheses / brackets</td>
<td>( )</td>
<td>sulut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brackets / square brackets</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>hakasulkeet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>braces / curly brackets</td>
<td>{ }</td>
<td>aaltosulkeet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exclamation mark</td>
<td>!</td>
<td>huutomerkki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>question mark</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>kysymysmerkki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slash, slant line, diagonal, stroke, virgule</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>kauttaviiva</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>backslash</td>
<td>\</td>
<td>kenoviiva</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apostrophe</td>
<td>heittomerkki ’</td>
<td>it’s = it is, a contraction; genitive: its lung one rat’s heart; six rats’ hearts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quotation marks</td>
<td>“US” ; ‘UK’</td>
<td>lainausmerkki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ellipsis dots</td>
<td>. . .</td>
<td>When final, add final mark: “.../?!/.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asterisk (not comic Asterix!)</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>superscript</td>
<td>soon&lt;sup&gt;15&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subscript</td>
<td>H&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt;O</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise in Punctuation

All punctuation in this passage is absent, except for two full-stops (periods) after the two paragraphs. Punctuate it. In some locations, three or four options will each be suitable.

Non-native English speakers find that rules governing the use of articles are particularly tough to negotiate in technical contexts a common error that an editor may encounter in medical papers is omission of articles before the names of body parts the rule is simple and easy to follow the definite article the should precede the names of body parts such as the heart or the lungs when the names of body parts are provided in a list however an article is necessary only after the first name such as in the heart lungs and brain.

Appropriate capitalization for terms that have been derived from proper nouns is a controversial topic editors are unsure whether to capitalize Petri dish and Gram stain the popular rationale is that terms derived from proper nouns should be in lower case the adjectival form whereas terms should be capitalized for the proper noun itself thus Gram stain vs. gram positive bacteria and parkinsonian gait graafian follicle and luciferase we do capitalize Southern blotting the technique discovered by Edward Southern who was born ironically in northwest England northern and western blots are in lower case being based merely on the naming of the Southern blot.

On Punctuation: the only logical system in English

**Commas** cause the most difficulty for everyone—native and non-native.

Commas mark speech pauses (“By winter, her symptoms may disappear”), but not always.

Although speakers do generally pause before each verb, no comma belongs in this sentence: “The population near this river flowing across the continent are in danger from a rare disease.”

Although you had to breathe before “are,” we are limited by this rule:

*Never place one comma—a single comma (,)—between a subject and its own verb.*

I categorize commas as either single or paired—calling them **wed** or **unwed commas**.

**Single—or “unwed”—commas**

The **final list / serial comma** before “and” and sometimes before “or”—always popular in America—is now a requirement of the *British Medical Journal* (BMJ) and *Lancet*, even in this era of expensive printing when other punctuation symbols (such as my beloved hyphen) are threatened.

**In the picture is a** “two-legged clause.” Each such clause can stand alone. **Unwed commas** should always **separate independent clauses joined by and, or, or but**.

This prevents confusion: A comma warns you that a new subject and verb are coming, rather than more of the first clause such as an additional object. Study this sentence:

“Joe has three cats and seven dogs of many breeds, large and small, live next door to him.”

Does Joe have three pets or ten? Note the shock of unexpectedly meeting that second verb, *live*.

He has three, so help readers by placing a comma after “cats.”

**Unwed commas** also set off **introductory words & phrases**. “In time, children learn.” “Surprisingly, it worked.” “Now, test the reagent.” “First, tilt the flask.”

**I call a dependent clause one-legged. It never forms a complete sentence.**

A two-legged clause can support, with a comma, a one-legged clause, → and generally does so when the one-legged (dependent) clause comes first.

“If it rains, you'll be wet.” (But “You'll be wet if it rains” is okay.)

“While the sun shines, rest.” (But “Rest while the sun shines” is okay.)

Any “whereas” clause is dependent, needing a comma: Fish swim, whereas birds fly.”

To distinguish an independent from a dependent clause, **say it aloud**. If a puzzled listener says, “So? **Go on!”** or “Are you **crazy**?” then it was a **dependent** (one-legged) clause.

**Unwed commas** also separate **adjectives in series** (“New, well-educated, enthusiastic nurses”). But they go **only** in a space that **could contain an “and”** (“A well-educated Filipino nurse”).

Put single commas **after all places and dates**. “The conference begins on 20 July, 2004, in Beijing, China, and lasts for one week.”

Note the two pairs of commas →
Paired—or married—commas

These go around “comment” clauses and phrases—ones that are nonessential, meaning just side remarks that do not alter or limit the sentence meaning.

They never go around “definition” clauses / phrases essential to identify what comes before.

This rule causes difficulty for Finns, because a comma is required before “joka”/“että.”

One safe rule is that no comma ever goes before “that,” but a comma does go before “which.”

Scientists seem, however, to favor “which,” either with or without a comma.

(“That” seems to me, also, to be uncomfortable, to tie words too tightly together.)

My name for commas that surround comments is “fetal parentheses.”

The commas required around “a tough field” could “grow up” to be parentheses or dashes:

“Neuroradiology (a tough field) is her choice.” “Neuroradiology—a tough field—is her choice.”

Scientific papers require many parentheses (for citations, quantities, p-values), so use parentheses sparingly; limit, also, the number of dramatic pairs of dashes.

How does one recognize a parenthetical comment? Say the sentence aloud, whispering the words which may be either comment or definition. If the sentence fails to make sense without the whispered words, you have a definition. If it still makes sense, the words were a comment.

After a comment, a singular verb will not even change: “Juha, in addition to Outi, has come.”

Test yourself: One sentence shows she has one sister, but the other shows more than one.

Which is a comment, and which is a definition?

“Her sister, who is her identical twin, arrived.” “Her sister who is her identical twin arrived.”

Special If a parenthetical comment stands by itself (two-legged) as a complete sentence, then, instead of putting commas around it, use two dashes or parentheses:

“These cells (see Figure 1) divide rapidly.” “Many topics—HIV-AIDS was one—led to debate.”

No punctuation goes before parentheses unless the parentheses contain a complete sentence.

Paired commas also set off appositives, acting like words following “i.e.” “Ted, my uncle, left.” But “My Uncle Ted left.” “Mari Storpellinen, a UK college graduate, visited.”

Semicolons (;) are too seldom used by Finns, though they offer an extra choice of pause. They link closely related but independent clauses, allowing a dramatic pause (“Many treatments followed; none succeeded.”) They solve the problem of deciding between one long or two shorter sentences.

They also indicate stronger breaks in a series of items that also need commas, such as“(mean, 60 years; range, 42-71).” Below, instead of nine commas, find five commas + three semicolons:

“The dietician provided apples, tasty, soft ones; sweet, ripe naval oranges from Spain; big, firm bananas; and red, seedless grapes.”
Colons (:) mean “viz.” or “thus” and introduce a list (“. . . are the following:”) or announce an explanation (“The wreck was terrible: injured people, glass all over the road.” “It was terrible: No one survived.”).

Avoid use of a colon between a verb and its object. Write “The three best cities in the world were Zurich, Vancouver, and Helsinki,” or “. . . those top cities: Zurich, Vancouver, and Helsinki—”

Dashes The “em-dash”—like the ones around these seven words—is the width of an “m.” Dashes create a gasp-like sudden break. In formal writing, I would avoid using more than one or two pairs of dashes per article. “We prescribed Marevan, Emconcor—both low in price—and two expensive antibiotics.” A dash can be single: “Her drug is inexpensive—warfarin.”

An intermediate-length dash, the “en-dash,” is the width of an “n,” and often connects pairs or ranges such as “The calcium–sodium combination” or time such as “the period May–July.”

Note the three lengths: hyphen, n-dash, and m-dash.

Hyphens (-) link words, when several words stack up as pre-modifiers of a head word.

“Carefully built, long-lasting, color-coordinated ward furniture” has “furniture” as head word, and shows that “-ly” itself serves as a hyphen. Never add a hyphen after any-ly adverb.

What a hyphen can do: “Beer containing lemonade” vs. “beer-containing lemonade.” Different?

Head words here are bolded; do you want one or two hyphens?
“Every level of toxin neutralizing IgG antibodies in the X serum samples was / were high.”

“That disease causing mutation in . . . .”

Note: Pre-modifying paired words need a hyphen only if they precede their “head word.”

“A well-known method is well known” takes one hyphen.

Or “Each was 3 ml.” vs. “3-ml aliquots.”

Note two hyphens in “waist-to-hip ratio.”

No hyphen in: “Group \( \rightarrow \) A comprised 111 mice”; a hyphen in “Group-A mice were thinner.”

Guess my hyphenation rule for numbers above one: “Six-yeaR-old boys arrived” vs. “Boys ten years old can act like six-yeaR-olds.”

(Tip: Consider the plurals and singulars.)

“A 6-meteR rod” vs. “a rod 6 meterS long,” “3-daY tests” vs. “tests lasting 3 dayS.”

All these hyphens act like crutches for s-less plurals. Note that even with many toxins involved, We still write “a toxiN-detection test.”

Remember the required anticipatory hyphens in “6- to 8-yeaR-old boys,” and “fire- and water-resistant fabric.”

Notice the reverse position: “drug-independent and -dependent patients.”
The *BMJ* discourages most hyphen-use, but this 2009 quote in the European Medical Writers’ journal *The Write Stuff* (vol. 18, no. 3, p. 177) originated in a *BMJ* office: “You are being invited to take part in a non-invasive and ionizing radiation free arteriovenous fistulae surveillance study.” Is the sole hyphen here even useful? Don’t we desperately need two or three word-to-word hyphens in this sentence? (Where? And can the hyphenated word instead become one word?)

Slashes (/), also called slant lines / diagonals / strokes / virgules, can mean “per,” “and” or “or,” as in 10 mg/day, 11 meters/second. Avoid slashes for ratios; write “X to Y” or “X:Y.”

Avoid “Many (231/536; 43%) died.” Write “Of 536, 231 (43%) died.” Or “(231 of 536).”

No spaces go around slashes. **My breaking this rule in this book is for better visibility!**

**Apostrophes** (’) indicate the English genitive or indicate contractions.

**Singular genitive:** “Smith's research,” “Jones’s ideas.” “Finland’s health service.”

**Plural genitive:** “All the doctors’ pay,” but “children’s cups” and “Men’s stress levels.”

With joint ownership, use only one apostrophe: “Stephen and Maria’s children.”

Use **no contractions** (“don’t, couldn’t, we’re, I’ve, time’s up!”) in medical articles and theses.

Use **no apostrophes in plurals** (“The Smith’s- Smiths are coming”), except for numbers and symbols. “MRI’s, 5’s,” and “UFO’s” are, however, evolving into “MRIs, 5s,” and “UFOs.”

Decades have grown shorter: “the 1930ies” → “the 1930’s” → “the 1930s” → “the Thirties.”

(Be sure to make clear in what century!)

**Parentheses / Brackets** (( )) always go inside final punctuation marks: “ended (5).”

Never place any punctuation in front of any parenthesis.

Never: “Tests were thorough, (6) and they were also frequent.”

Instead, “Tests were thorough (6), and they were also frequent.” (Note end-focus x 2.)

**Brackets / Square brackets** ([ ]) allow insertion of words into quotations to add data or clarify, or with “[sic],” meaning “thus,” to point out errors:


**Quotation marks** (" ") go around all borrowed words / phrases, and around words themselves: “‘Moi’ is also French” in the USA; most Britons write “‘Moi’ is also French.”

Notice their single quotes outside, double inside. Order of punctuation also varies: For Britons, all marks go outside if not part of the quotation. (Did he say “Never”? but “They shouted “Help!””)

In the USA, commas and periods always go inside, and location of semicolons, colons, exclamations marks, and question marks depend—as with the British—on sentence meaning.

(See Lynne Truss’s best-selling and hilarious punctuation guide, *Eats, Shoots and Leaves.*)
Handling Numerals, Numbers, and Other Small Items

1. **Numbers:** Check your target publication for its preferred style. Generally, write numbers as words for items with no units (patients, treatments) up to 11. Use number figures from one / 1, and thereafter for items with standard units (ml, mg, km).

2. **For numbers with unit symbols** (kg, m, or °C, or the percentage sign, %), if you write out a number under 11, usually write out the unit, as well (6 kg, six kilograms). Note British: “six per cent,” but USA: “six percent.” (But always per day, per week.)

3. **Avoid mixing words and numerals** for the same item in the same sentence.

   “Two boys and 11 girls attended” -- > “Of the 13 attending, 2 were boys, and 11, girls,” with a comma replacing the second "were." Or give only the larger number: "...13, 11, girls.”

4. Use **ordinals** up through ten (“first . . . to tenth, then 11th. . . 160th, 161st, 163rd”).

5. **Never add a space between number and percentage sign:** “6%,” never “-6%.”
   Do insert a space before any amount: “3 mg; 10 K.” One okay oddity is “120 mmHg.”

6. **Use numerals for figures and tables** and never add an article or a period / full stop.
   “Figure 3 is attached,” not “the Figure 3. is attached.”

   In the actual caption: “Fig. 3. Costs for Health Care, 2000-2008 in Finland.”
   Some journals use Roman numerals (I, II, III) for article figures

7. **As dates,** “14 May 1998” or “14/5/98” is generally preferable. I meet “14.05.98” only in Finland. Internationally, this is recommended: 1998-05-14, but rare.

   In the USA, nonscientists use “May 2, 1998,” which is confusing when abbreviated in US style as “5/2/98,” because this could mean either **February 5 or May 2.**

8. **Sentences never begin with numerals** A short word (“Six / Ten studies”) is acceptable. Otherwise, rearrange the sentence:
   Start with the magic preposition “Of.” Change “32 of the 76 men attended” --> “Of the 76 men, 32 attended.” Or link related sentences with a semicolon :“A few are gone; 158 are left.” If desperate, write
   “A total of 21 men” (I dislike “Altogether”) or “The year 1939 saw the start of war.”

9. **The decimal in Anglo-US texts** is a point (5.75). This point may be raised in some British texts (5-75). Other European countries, like Finland, accept the comma (5,75).

10. **Zero before decimal point:** A zero here is easier to see (0.21), although some journals use no zero here in text / figures. Or they drop zero only in P-values—being always less than 1.

11. **A decimal rule:** Show values under 0.01 to only two decimal places. From 0.01 to 0.001 show values to only three decimal places.
12. Large numbers: Group your digits into trios (12 345 000). With spaces and no periods. Or, in the older style, insert commas (12,345,000) between trios.

We usually insert no space into four figures, unless they appear in a column or are in comparison with larger figures: “We sent 1511. But “We sent 1 511, not 15 111.”

Can your “2014” be mistaken for a year? Do we know whether “the 2014 mice” were that many, were in that year’s project, or were born then?

13. P-values: Gustavii says that, because \( P > 0.05 \) means “unpublishable,” give exact \( P \)-values \( (P = \) rather than \( P < \) for values above 0.001, using \( “P < “ \) only for 0.001 or less.

Check each journal’s preference for the symbol \( P / p \) or \( P / p \) and for spacing inserted.

14. We have no plural word for percent, never percentages; use “percentages,” usually “days,” “weeks,” and “months” should be written out as words.

15. Ratios can appear as 10:1, to mean “per” or 10 to 1. We can separate items as “per” with a slant line or slash, as in “cases/year,” but some advise never placing more than one slash in a series (not “cases/year,” but “cases/year per country”). (See under “Slash”). In text, though perhaps not in tables, “6/18” may confuse; write “6 of 18.”

16. Cite sources according to target-journal style. Check how the journal, in Vancouver style, spaces citation numbers either on the line or as superscripts (6, 8-11 or 6,8-11).

In Harvard style, check for comma (Aho, 1999) or no comma (Aho 1999).

17. Superscript figures go outside the punctuation in US style: . . . ended.\(^6,8,9\)

The British (not the BMJ) often use the reverse order: . . . ended\(^7,11,14,16,21,28\).

18. For readability, some prefer spaces around \( =, -, +, \pm, <, >, P \). Check the journal.

19. Always state (vital for credibility) the total number of items in your data, the ”N,” then comes the ”n” for each subgroup. Then comes the percentage in parentheses:

“The 53 (17%) who survived . . . .” To write merely “17% survived” means little. Was that 17% of 10, of 100, or of 1000?

20. Remember: The shorter item goes into parentheses. Never separate a percentage from its figure: not “45 of the 60 (75%) survived.” Change to “Of the 60, 45 (75%) survived.”

21. Prepositions before numbers require “and” or prepositions between figures:

“Between two and ten men”; “from 16 to 18 days . . . .”

In text, I prefer aged 40 to 50,” but you can omit “to” in parentheses or in tables or figures.

“Men were older (40-50).” Or in a table, “Men, 21-65.” “Year” is our default AGE.

I can live with “Patients enrolled (in) 2000-2010 were older,” but only with “in” or nothing.
22. Gustavii suggests that for numbers under 25, offer no percentages at all.

   At 25 to 100, no decimal (7%)
   At 100 to 100 000, one decimal place (7.2%).
   Above that, two places (7.21%).

   Hall (1998) feels, however, that for numbers under 100, percentages are never relevant.

23. For numerals or words and their units of measure, hyphenate: “a 6-ml sample” or “six-part sessions.” The confusing “4 4-mg doses” can be “four 4-mg doses.”

   Use a singular verb for a quantity viewed as one unit: “3 ml was best.”

24. Avoid French lines (–) for items in a list or to indicate speech; most non-Finns have never met them. In lists, use numbers (1, 2, 3), letters (A, B, C), or black balls—“bullets” (•).

   Quoted oral or written words in English take quotation marks: “Help!” or ‘Help!’

25. Suppliers of materials: Use the manufacturer’s name and address at first mention, then only the name. Include company, then city + country, or city + state + country or city + province + country.

   Examples: “(Smart Systems Oy, Turku, Finland),” then only “(Smart Systems).”

   “(Sigma Chemicals, Inc., St. Louis, MO, USA),” then only “(Sigma).”

   But omit “USA” in articles for US journals.

26. Now banned as unclear: “Pain and/or fatigue.” Write “Pain or fatigue or both.”

27. Strongly discouraged: “respectively.” AVOID “Levels in the heart, brain, and liver were 11, 21, and 28%, respectively” or “... were a respective 11%, 21%, and 28%.”

   That requires two readings. A version of almost the same length requires only one reading.

   Note how the number of words per item decreases—here, from five to four to three.

   “The level in the heart was 11%, in the brain, 21%, and the liver, 28%.”

   But if you must use several sets of the same pattern “A, B, and C were 1, 2, and 3,” use “respective / respectively” only once—for the first set. Readers grasp the pattern!

28. Remember: Italics for book and journal titles; quotation marks are for titles of shorter works, meaning articles, chapters, sections, stories, plays, poems.

   Italics are always the requirement for Latin genera and species: Helicobacter pylorus.

29. Italics are, however, expensive and difficult to use consistently. If you use any, you must use them for all Latin terms and all foreign words: i.e. / e.g. / et al. / in vivo / laissez-faire (also see page 42). Check whether your target-journal uses any italics.
30. **Latin abbreviations:** Finns, I notice, use i.e. (*id est*; that is; Finnish *eli*) well:

“Our leader, i.e. the director of the study, arrived early.”

**Finns greatly overuse** e.g. (*exempli gratia*; for example / for instance; Finnish *esim*),

It is correct only for an example following the name of the group it belongs to.

“**Large countries, e.g. France and Germany**—”

**Commas normally go before, rarely also after** e.g. and i.e., just as in “**X, for example, won.**”

Never, therefore, begin a sentence with “e.g.” (“E.g., malaria was common”).

Nor begin a citation with “e.g.” (“e.g., Smith 2005”). **Substitute “for example / for instance / such as.”** Why not . . .

create an OPEN SERIES: “Symptoms of concussion (headache, nausea, dizziness) may occur.” The absence of “**and**” or “**or**” shows that these do not make up 100%.

31. **Etcetera / etc.** (jne.) **is too informal** for articles or theses. End with “among others”?

32. **Avoid sexism.** Instead of “Everyone took his dose” (or the ungrammatical “Everyone took their dose”) or “took his / her dose.” Why not the plural: “All took their doses.”

Avoid the genitive entirely? “Everyone took the required dose.” “Each took that dose.” Rather than “found in Man / man,” write “found in human beings.”

“Female” is fine as an ADJECTIVE. Avoid it as a NOUN. “Female patients” is fine, but if over age 17, “females” are “women.” The same goes for **males vs. male subjects.** And if more than genitals or hormone status is relevant, use “gender,” not “sex.”

33. **Avoid long noun clusters as pre-modifiers.**

The American Thoracic Society Publications says that because “the goal is clarity, not brevity,” instead of “cultured sheep pulmonary artery endothelial cells,” write “cultures of endothelial cells from the pulmonary artery of sheep.”

34. **Comparisons with “times” + comparative vs. times as**: Assuming that patients’ recovery-time was 6 days; then notice what you are saying:

A. “**Controls took three times longer to recover**” = Controls took 24 days. (Patients’ recovery time is the bottom book. You added 3 times that value.)

B. “**Controls took three times as long to recover.**” = Controls took 18 days.

With “times,” always use “. . . as.”

I recommend “fold,” which goes both up and down. “The increase was almost five-fold.” ”**In the 20th century, incidence fell 12-fold.**”
Take-home messages

- Write junk and edit it gradually.
- Avoid identical lines in one text.
- Use mainly active voice.
- Use of “we” no longer illegal.
- Avoid long sentences.
- Avoid synonyms.
- Every wasted word goes out.
- Ask a research question and answer it.
- Follow every journal’s instructions EXACTLY.
- Ask a friend to read your texts.
- Read your lines aloud.
- Trust your ear, not rules.
- Link all sentences in a paragraph.
- End sentences with vital words.
- Trust this book more than computer grammar-checkers.

Spell as journals prefer – US OR UK style, never a mixture.
Sample Professional Cover Letter

- Be careful. Avoid begging, boasting, or pressuring the editor.
- Keep cover letters brief and cool, because journals need manuscripts.
- On-line submission may, however, require no cover letter.

“Dear Dr. Shaw,” NOT “Dear Dr. James Shaw.”
(We like our names, but give only family name, sukunimi, here, unless gender is unclear (Kim, Lee). No “Ms.-Jane Shaw.”(If unsure of degree, use “Dr.”))

“Thank you for your kind aid” should be “Thank you for your kind aid.”
Never capitalize “you / your” unless you write to God!

“Please find enclosed a manuscript entitled “X in Y,” reporting my / our / research into Y, for consideration by Nature. Its findings indicate that A may be a cause of B.”

(Your title goes in quotation marks; a journal title deserves honor = italics.)

The words “publish” or “for publication in” seem to me too intimate and too obvious. The editor can certainly guess what you are seeking!

“The material presented is based on the original research of the author[s] and is not being offered for publication elsewhere. This is the third of five articles based on the same series and methods; I enclose copies of the others, one already published, one in manuscript.

“Correspondence regarding this article should be directed to NN. [Perhaps adding] We / I look forward to your reply / We look forward to your / We await your response.”
(And pregnant women are expectant, not waiting.)

“We are waiting for X” is rude. Remember, never confuse “wait” with “expect”!

Always add the journal’s own disclaimers, lines in lawyers’ precise language, usually provided in the journal’s “Instructions to Authors.” Copy them exactly. Some may be:

“All authors contributed substantially to this work.”

“This manuscript is not submitted elsewhere.”

“It duplicates no portions of other texts by the author(s).” (If it does, be sure to enclose reprints or manuscripts of those texts.)

“No financial support was received from anyone benefiting from these results.”(Meaning no conflict of interest).

“This project followed accepted humane and ethical practices.”
Which ones? From which (Helsinki, of course!!) declaration?

Journals also usually advise that you list all financial sources on the title page.
Enclose manuscript copies of all unpublished sources that you cite.

Enclose permission letters for material you reprint, such as figures or tables.

See PhD thesis pages, 32 to 33, 39, and plagiarism and permissions, pages 71 to 73.

News flash:

Some important journals like the BMJ now require you, the author of a submitted article, to reveal whether this article has already been rejected by another journal. The recipient editor may demand to read the comments made by the reviewers / referees of the rejecting journal(s), and also to read all responses of the author(s).

This requirement may discourage many from submitting to these major journals, or may make them submit their work first to the most prestigious journal that would conceivably accept it.

This requirement aids the journal. It saves time and money. But this rule prevents you, upon a second or third submission, from concealing the fact that your manuscript has already been rejected.

Warning: Never risk disobeying this rule!

I suggest that you do submit initially to the highest-quality journal that might accept your work.

One of my students, facing this rule, created an excellent statement to the editor who next received his manuscript—at the BMJ:

“The work was originally offered to the NEJM. After respectful and positive comments from two external reviewers, this work was rejected due to editorial policies, however. We have attached to this submission the letter from that editor and the reviewers’ comments, have revised our manuscript significantly now, and we sincerely hope that you appreciate the value of this study.”

(If you borrow this, alter it considerably if you, too, send it to the BMJ!)
Second-Submission Cover Letter after Review

Sample lines useful for the body of this letter

Thank you for considering / taking into consideration our paper / article, entitled “X in Y.”

The reviewers’ / referees’ suggestions will much improve our text / article / presentation.

We have made [Add: “to the best of our ability”?] all of the revisions suggested, and these are explained point by point in / on the following pages / in the accompanying file.

You can also compliment the reviewers / referees by calling them “helpful / wise / thorough,”

But never direct your comments to the reviewers; your response goes to the editor’s desk.

If a reviewer criticizes your English, you must seek native-speaker language aid (again?!).

Repeat what you said in any revised first submission, writing something like this:

This version has been revised by a native English speaker . . . .

(Give the name? Add, if true, “. . . trained / experienced in the field of [say what].”)

As well as revision of the re-submitted manuscript, ask an expert to revise your crucial—and very respectful—responses to the referees.

End the letter with something like “We hope that you will find this version more acceptable.”

See Handling Reviewers, page 68.

Layout and Lines for Formal Letters on Paper

On stationery with a pre-printed letterhead (*logopaperi*), appearing at top center in the design below, center the date just below the letterhead.

Otherwise, type your own 2- to 3-line address in the upper right corner, then the date below it.

Your address may even sit at the left margin, if every line of the letter begins at the left.

**Phone and fax numbers and email address go below your name at the bottom**, not at the top.

The recipient’s address is a list at the left margin, with locations stacked as shown here:

Professor Joan White, Editor
The Journal of Applied Cleverness
Department of Brains
University of South Cerebrum
1600 Pons Lane
Bedford, XY3 LM7, UK

Dr. Mark Phoey, Director
Department of Biogenetics
Super Genes Company
1616 23rd Street N.E.
Oleander, Florida, 26731
USA
More lines to borrow

Because I am interested in participating in the X Conference held 12 to 15 August in Vienna, I am requesting an application form and data concerning submitting an abstract for a poster / talk. Please send the relevant information at **your earliest convenience** [Never say “Send it soon”] to the address above / below.

I would **like to apply for a position at** / **in** the X laboratory. (This means a **job**.)

**Would it be possible** for me to obtain a sample of Y / advice on Z / information on **accommodation(s)**?

“Acommodation(s)”—2 c’s + 2 m’s, means a **place to stay**.

“Room & board” means bed & food.

I am planning to visit Rome this summer. Because my current research project is in many respects similar to **Yours**, I would find it extremely rewarding to visit your institute to consult with **you**.

As underlined above, compare **yourself** (up) to experts—**never** experts (down) to you:

“Aho’s 2007 findings agree with ours.” “Our findings agree with those of Aho (2007).”

Excuse my **late submission** of this abstract; I have been ill.

Belatedly [= I am late], I send payment for X / send **reimbursement** [pay-back] of your expenses.

I trust that the **check enclosed** / **amount enclosed** is sufficient /funds are proper.

(We avoid saying or writing “MONEY.” Alternatives: “funding / support / expense(s) / grant.”)

Please accept our sincere regrets for our inability to attend X / do X.

We send our **heartfelt sympathy for your loss** / **our hearts go out to you** (death).

Thank you for your time / effort / concern / interest / support / aid.

**Thanking you in advance** (for your kindness in doing / sending X).

**Never call yourself** “kindly,” as in “I kindly send you—” Compliment the other person.

“Will you kindly aid us?” “Dr. Stephens kindly provided the cells.”

**Sincerely yours, / Sincerely, / Yours, / With best regards.** (Only first word capitalized.)

Repeat nothing here that is in the letterhead (logopaperi). Below this complimentary close go

**Your signature(s)**

your typed name, title, department, work-place and address

phone, fax, email address
Email Suggestions

Choose a **subject line** that clearly informs the recipient of the **topic**. Vast numbers of emails are—in self-defense—deleted unread. Yours is not spam, so make sure your message is identifiable.

Reading **long sentences** on screen is almost as **difficult** as understanding long sentences in an oral presentation. Keep sentences short—and **simpler than in a letter** on paper.

Use **active voice**.

**Email is less formal than posted letters**, Though I often omit a greeting, Kate Kellaway of *The Observer* in England has recommended this practice. British people are polite. A compromise—in Finland—may be just a simple “Hi!” But for editors, **“Dear Dr. Brown.”** No first name.

Unless your email is going to a total stranger or to someone you greatly respect, use a style close to that of first-draft writing, meaning **almost spoken English**. Kellaway describes email as

> “Like writing on water”; email style is halfway between written and telephone language

Most, and soon perhaps all article submissions will be on line. Elegant phrases (“I await your answer,” “at your earliest convenience,” “pardon my belated submission”) may be overkill.

End with a brief closing such as “(Best) regards,” your name and contact data.

**Double-check before you copy or forward anything.** Some copying and forwarding requires permission. **Avoid putting into email anything you would not write on a picture postcard.**

**Handling Reviewers / Referees and Editors**

Before its submission, **three people should read your manuscript** (ms): one naive person who does not know your field, one who is your scientific equal (peer), and one expert. All **co-authors** should examine the ms carefully and sign the cover letter and all disclaimers.

**Never rush to submit.**

After submission, your manuscript **surely will come back with criticism** from the editor and from reviewers / referees. **Almost never is any manuscript accepted without changes.**

Resist any rage or despair; have faith and say to yourself: **“We are all on the same team.”**

In 99% of all cases, everyone at / with the journal is struggling to improve your manuscript.

> The most valuable thing you can receive is fair and honest criticism. Invite such criticism, welcome it, utilize it. Karl Popper, philosopher of science

When you submit a rejected manuscript elsewhere, **follow that journal’s instructions** equally carefully. As Hall says, “It is a grave [as in burying yourself alive] mistake to submit a paper in the style of another journal; this suggests that it has been rejected recently.” (But see p. 65.)
Rarely will reviewers ask you to cite their own or the journal’s articles just to enhance their reputations or raise that journal’s impact factor. Even more rarely will a reviewer hold an ms. for an extraordinarily long time, or—horrible to contemplate—will steal data from it.

All authors experience shock and shame over criticism. Non-native English-speakers must also decipher referees’ language. Often even native English-speaker referees / reviewers make grammar (“between you and I”) and spelling errors (“library February,” “”). Your overburdened, unpaid reviewer may be writing the report at three o’clock in the morning after a heavy day. They use slang and unusual idioms (“expand on / shed / shrink X”; ask a native-speaker for aid.

Reply directly to the editor, not to the reviewers; they may never see responses. Quote each criticism in full or almost completely. Never force your editor to search through papers or net files for reviewers’ comments in order to understand your responses. To author-edit authors' responses, I always need to see the comments in full. Your responses should be almost as polished as the ms.

Never attack a reviewer! Take all blame upon yourself. Always be polite to the editor and polite regarding your reviewers. (On the same team, remember?)

Obey, or fully explain why you cannot:

“Procedure X is not an option / not according to general policy, here.”
“I must have been unclear: Because we used no X, we can provide no photo of X.”

Reviewers often disagree among themselves. Politely explain to the editor why you prefer one opinion to the other. Rarely, with extreme reviewer error, you might dare say, "Perhaps this is not his/her precise area of expertise."

Editors may send a manuscript to an extra reviewer. Uninformed, prejudiced, or careless reviewers may receive no more manuscripts (mms.) to review.

What you can say

“As advised / suggested / pointed out, I have reworded / added / deleted / revised / corrected X.”
“Altered lines are highlighted / italicized in the text itself.”

(Avoid underlining / underscoring unless upon editor's demand. It hides some punctuation.)

A common journal instruction is to write fully—inside your responses—all lines added.

And also highlight these new lines in the text. Be sure that they match identically.

Again, I stress: A native English-speaker should also edit, if possible, each revised manuscript and edit replies to reviewers and editorial correspondence such as cover letters.

Famous authors can argue; young authors must be cautious. Was your journal choice unwise?

If the silence is very long, write briefly to ask whether the manuscript arrived. If the editor confirms its receipt, be very careful. Wait six months? Ask your professor for advice, or someone who is in contact with the editor?
Pay close attention if a journal invites you to suggest one or more referees. Evidence indicates that journal editors tend to choose at least one of the referees suggested. For anyone suggested, provide full contact information.

Editors may invite you to name some individual as undesirable as a referee of your work.

In this case, politely explain why that person is inappropriate.

Journals tend to honor authors’ requests to avoid a certain person as a referee, less often to use a suggested reviewer.

Fraud increases, however, even with fake reviewers doing peer review—including even the reviewed article’s own author.

Words to the Wise

*Nature* (2013;497:433-434) published CG Begley’s “Six red flags for suspect work.” As summarized in *European Science Editing* (2013;39,3:82) by Anna Maria Rossi, these are

> “Were experiments performed blinded?
> Were basic experiments repeated?
> Were all the results presented?
> Were there positive and negative controls?
> Were reagents validated?
> Were statistical tests appropriate?”

Ask these questions of your papers. And add, “Are all lines my own, if not in quotation marks?”
Permissions and notification

Before you reprint—exactly, or as an adapted / modified table or a figure, or a major portion of one—in your own publication, you must request and receive the publisher’s permission. You must print in your article or thesis, below the borrowed material, the exact line that the publisher supplies, such as “Used with the permission of Journal X.” (See this book’s thesis section, particularly page 39, for more on this.)

Cutting very thin the data from one project to produce a maximum number of articles is called redundant, prior, or fragmented publication. This “salami publishing” means that articles resemble very thinly—too thinly—meat sliced meat from a large chunk. Students and even professor-candidates may salami publish to earn degrees or to pad (fatten) their c.v’s.

To avoid this, one author sent to her editor a list of all published articles presenting data from her group’s single large project. This showed that her own paper was fresh—had minimal overlap.

Journals usually now require that each article submitted be accompanied by reprints or the manuscripts of any of your other articles that overlap with that one, especially texts with data based on material, methodology, or controls identical to those of your current submission.

Radiology defines redundant publication as one or more authors in common for a work which also has populations, methods, and results the same or similar. A report is also redundant if it has already appeared in another language; ask both editors’ permission for its publication in English.

Possible redundancy requires “an accompanying letter informing the editor of any potential overlap with other already published material or material being otherwise evaluated for publication . . . also . . . [stating] how the manuscript . . . differs substantially from this other material. The provision of copies of such material is required.” (Emphasis mine.)

The British Journal of Surgery net instructions similarly explain: “Please submit with your manuscript copies of any other papers (including abstracts)—published, in press, or submitted to consideration elsewhere—that relate in whole or in part to the same data set; this is essential to allow [our] assessment of any potential overlap.” (Emphasis mine.)

Every journal wants fresh, unique data only. Receiving redundant (repeated) data, some journals threaten not only to reject the manuscript but also to inform your institution. If you fool the journal into printing your redundant data, the editor may announce your sin in their next issue and refuse to consider future articles of yours or even of your group or institute. This blacklisting is serious censure. Ensure, therefore, that each manuscript is fresh and worthwhile on its own.

Another crime usually leading to blacklisting is multiple submission—submitting the same article to more than one publication simultaneously. Because much effort and cost go into assessing an article, no author can survive withdrawal of a submitted—or even accepted!—ms.

Cancer Cell: “If excerpts from other copyrighted works are included in your manuscript, you must obtain written permission from the copyright owners and credit the sources in the article. . . . If you have adapted a figure from a published figure, please check with the copyright owners to see if permission is required and include a complete citation/reference for the original article. Obtaining permissions can take up to several weeks. . . lack of appropriate permissions can delay publication.” (Emphasis mine.) Editors hate all of this!
Plagiarism

Customs vary, but in Anglo-American cultures, using other scholars’ exact published lines—even with citations but with no quotation marks—is stealing. The term is “plagiarism.”

The style of a text must not bounce back and forth between the author’s own writing level and splendid “Oxbridge” language. That screams “Plagiarism!”

Although we all describe the views and findings of others, merely citing the source “(Smith 1995),” gives you no right to present Smith’s lines as if they are of your own creation. The original author struggled to create those lines and must not meet them in your pages, masquerading as yours. To quote a few lines (between quotation marks, “ ”) and with a citation is, however, sophisticated practice and is a compliment to the author.

You no longer own published lines that you yourself have written, if the publisher holds the copyright. Editors thus generally consider self-plagiarism as illegal—against copyright law.

Stuart Handysides, MD, of the European Assoc. of Science Editors (EASE) says “Elsewhere [than in Methods] simple cutting and pasting from earlier work might suggest that the writers have stopped thinking about their subject, as the new data should be the prime focus of the discussion and change the context at least somewhat. If not, what was the work for?”

The most frequent plagiarizers are non-native English speakers writing in English. Paraphrasing (putting ideas in your words) is truly difficult, even for native speakers.

Beware plagiarism—including self-plagiarism—in a thesis; e-theses travel worldwide. The Helsinki medical faculty now forbids use of your own lines, tables, or figures in theses.

- Place quotation marks around all borrowed phrases or lines (quoting).
- Close the book and put the facts into your own words (paraphrasing).
- Give source and write “says/states/reports,” then quote a bit without “ .”
  This might, for instance, be a vital, difficult definition of some object or process.

This anonymous news item is adapted slightly from Nature, number 422, 13 March, 2003.

Emphysema is a lung disease that is predicted to become one of the top five causes of death and disability worldwide by 2020. Cigarette smoking is the greatest risk factor for this disease. Despite this correlation, however, only about 15 to 20% of cigarette smokers develop emphysema. The fact that these susceptible individuals are generally clustered into families hints that there may be certain genes that predispose people to smoking-induced emphysema.

Unlike asthma, in which the flow of air through the lungs is temporarily obstructed, emphysema is characterized by a progressive airflow restriction that results from permanent enlargement of the lungs’ peripheral air spaces and loss of lung elasticity.
Exercise in Plagiarism Hunting

I have attributed this anonymous news story to an author with the invented name “Thoraksman.”

These five passages make use of the Nature news item on page 72. Where is plagiarism, and where are the data presented well? Fix the illegal passages so that they will become legal.

1. Our patient was diagnosed with emphysema, a progressive airflow restriction that results from permanent enlargement of the lungs’ peripheral air spaces and loss of lung elasticity (Thoraksman 2003).

2. Thoraksman in 2003 considered rather low the 15 to 20% incidence rate for emphysema among cigarette smokers. He warns, however, that emphysema may, by 2020, become one major worldwide cause of disability and death.

3. The figure of “15-20%” for the incidence of emphysema among “cigarette smokers” seems low to Thoraksman (2003), who continues: “there may be certain genes [perhaps the X gene?] that predispose people to smoking-induced emphysema” (Thoraksman 2003).

4. Concerning cigarette smokers with emphysema, the fact that these susceptible individuals are generally clustered into families suggests that there may be certain genes that predispose folks to smoking-induced emphysema (Thoraksman 2003).

5. Although pulmonary emphysema, as we read in Nature, may “become one of the top five causes of death and disability worldwide by 2020” (Thoraksman 2003), not everyone believes that heavy cigarette smoking offers a serious risk for emphysema.

If your director, or language revisers aid you in writing up your work and know that you will submit their phrases or lines under your own name, this is ethical. Lines they write with or for you are unpublished. But another person's writing your entire paper is unethical ghostwriting.

Plagiarism can no longer escape detection. Programs now allow reviewers and editors to check whether your words are actually yours. These sites search billions of documents in minutes, highlighting matching passages. More and more journals now run every manuscript submitted through a plagiarism checker. Check your own manuscript before submission?

Medics are not alone in their sins. The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers says that plagiarism in its journals soared from 14 cases in 2004 to 26 in 2005, and in 2006 to 47, thus, annually doubling. The IEEE initiated a tutorial for author-education and crime prevention!
Impact Factors

In The European Association of Science Editors (EASE) Science Editors’ Handbook section “Journal impact factor,” Jane Moody, in November 2005, discussed impact factors, developed by the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI) in the 1960s. “The impact factor (IF) of a journal is calculated by dividing the number of citations in a year by the articles (source items) published in that journal during the previous two years.” Some of the problems that Moody notes:

- Multiple authors all citing their own articles will affect the impact factor.
- Impact factor differences are not credible unless differences reach about 22%.
- Frequent citation may occur because of negative responses to an article, and criticism of it, because “it is simply quantity that is being measured, not quality.”
- Review articles are often cited; therefore, the more review articles a journal publishes, the higher its impact factor. (See page 19, bottom.)
- The earlier in the year something is published, the longer the time it receives citations.

“Artificial manipulation of the impact factor can be unethical” according to the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), at www.publicationethics.org.uk, an organization established to provide aid regarding authors’ and editors’ ethics questions and problems.

For example, one editor arranged for that journal’s own referees to “insert citations” of that journal’s articles into submitted papers. Authors were afraid to refuse. The COPE declared that this “manipulation had been ‘wicked practice’ [an extremely strong term], and the editor was reprimanded [severely scolded].” In other cases, editors have agreed to cite each others’ journals, gaming the system to raise IF. Mention this to senior staff who still consider IF to be holy & sacred.

Universities or employers who hire, rate, pay, and fund authors based on IF, they are being naïve. The journal earns—honestly or otherwise—its IF.

As Björn Gustavii states, “The impact factor ranks journals; it does not evaluate individual papers.” regardless of journal. Other ranking systems exist. Look for them.

Update, 2014

European Association of Science Editors (EASE) members have been debating issues around impact factors, including their manipulation and their over-use in academic hiring- and promotion decisions. Impact factors rate—more or less accurately—the status of a journal, but not of one particular paper in that journal. Many papers are accepted and even praised in the media, despite errors that reviewers miss, and even despite fraudulent practices. They may attract citations, making a journal’s impact factor misleading.

One hoax recently demonstrated that a totally imaginary project and its resultant fake report could fool experienced reviewers and fool a good journal into publishing it.

When academic crime-rates rise, academics must fight back. Honest Finns, beware!
Valuable Resources, in order of relevance


Gustavii, Björn, 2012. How to Prepare a Scientific Doctoral Dissertation Based on Research Articles. CUP

(Gustavii, a physician/journal editor/professor at Lund. University, Sweden, is clear, witty, brief, and especially excellent on tables and figures).


(For Finns in biology/medicine, much about Finnish) Out of print; seek it in a library.


(Former Bulletin editor for the European Association of Science Editors)


Uniform Requirements for Manuscripts Submitted to Biomedical Journals (the Vancouver Document) is at http://www.icmje.org/index.html

The Cobuild Dictionary (for learners), any edition (Large, cheap, essential for natives and non-natives, with idioms, verb + preposition pairs, US versus British usage. Explanations are simple; actual examples are numerous and authentic). Check for what is on the net and on CD-ROM.

Suomi/Englanti/Suomi Sanakirja, Ilkka Rekiaro and Douglas Robinson, Gummerus, Jyväskylä/Helsinki (Brit + US; modern, idiomatic)

The Collins Thesaurus in A-Z Form, 1990, Collins, UK.

Useful addresses:


www.ease.org.uk/esecont.htm The Association of European Science Editors (EASE) journal

www.wordiq.com/definition/American and British English differences US-British styles—writing & pronunciation

www.howjsay.com Includes medical terms galore in UK and US pronunciation
Appendices with Exercises*

Appendix I  Find more than 60 problems here (many resulting from Finnish interference).

1. 35 females and 11 men of age over 90 years old were studied. It was shown by this study, that elderly can, despite of their old age, get improvements by participating a weight training program, etc.

2. Based on one criteria, informations indicate their equipments are the finest ones.

3. The aims include e.g.: 1) to control the patients for 1 year, 2) discovering non-compliance, 3) a search for ways to monitor patients compliance with doctors’ orders.

4. In 1994, in a survey in X province it was reported that the prevalence of diabetes was 3 % in the 30-60 years old age group (See the Table 7.). The prevalence rose up to 6 % in the age 30-60 population in 1997, as shown by the present study.

5. Eighty-seven per cent (131/150) of the patients, who had lymphoma diagnosed improved with this treatment after a period of sixteen weeks had past. The majority of them was male.

6. Also Aho’s 2007 results are more impressive compared to Bix’s findings (Bix 2001). Bix’s results are different to/than our study.

7. Her income was 70.000 € at a tax-rate of 48,5 % a rate she wieved as far too high.

8. On other hand, these two series contain remarkably interesting phenomenon, but on other hand resemble those of Smith, et al.’s whose so-called QRX series was published in 2009.

9. John Jones discusses about this data shortly in her third articles' result's chapter.

10. Other article soon will appear in the "Nature," It is now in print.

11. However, during the recession as much as every ninth nurse was remaining unemployed; studied hospital districts comprised of Helsinki, Lahti and Tampere.

* Those outside Finland can receive answer keys to this book’s exercises from carol.norris@helsinki.fi
Appendix II Introduction exercise

First, glance through “Recipe for an Introduction.”

Below is an excellent Introduction from a good journal. I split sentences and rearranged clauses to give you practice in recognizing good introduction organization. Consider this a rough draft that you might write, pouring your thoughts onto page or screen. Locate in it, in pieces, the actual four Swales Introduction moves (page 26). Improve some end-focus? Where did citations appear?

1. In the mechanism underlying the association between increased body weight
2. and OA, mechanical loading across joints is probably involved. However,
3. evidence is inconsistent from cross-sectional surveys for a link between
4. obesity and hand osteoarthritis (OA). In the longitudinal Tecumseh Community Health Study, adult obesity associated with incident hand OA
5. in men and women ages 50-74 years was suggested. Therefore, the relationship between birth weight, childhood growth, adult weight and hand osteoarthritis (OA), and the relationship is not known between OA and body weight in early life. Prospectively collected data from a large population-based birth cohort was used to explore this issue in our study. However, the force across hand joints is not necessarily greater in persons who are overweight, and metabolic factors associated with obesity have been implicated; some of these factors, e.g. impaired glucose tolerance, are also linked to low weight at birth.

Appendix III  Editing exercises

1. For this exercise from Gustavii, 2005 (adapted from Kelsing, 1958), shrink these four sentences, making their 53 words into one short sentence. Omit no vital information.

   Our research, designed to test the fatal effects of PGFα on dogs, was carried out by intravenously introducing the drug. In the experiments, a relatively small quantity, 30 mg, was administered to each animal. In each case, PGFα proved fatal. All 10 dogs expired before a lapse of 5 minutes after the injection.

2. It is shown in this randomized double blind case control study that intravenous X has no renal protective effects in patients operated for coronary heart disease.

   (Find the vital “what.” Move the “who,” “when,” & “where” to precede the end-focused “what.”)

3. Discuss these three okay variants. Note differing end-focus. What would follow?

   - For disease Z, X may become the treatment of choice, because X is well tested and causes few side-effects. (continue)
   - Drug X, because it is well tested and has few side-effects, may become the treatment of choice for disease Z. (continue)
   - For disease Z, drug X, well tested and with few side-effects, may become the treatment of choice. (continue)

4. This kind of packed-full Results paragraph appears too often. The English is fine, but is it clear? Can one present all these data instead in a figure? Attempt one? Write a legend for the figure.

To study these Vantaa residents over age 85 in 1991, we recruited 601 individuals. Examinations were clinical and covered 92% of them, of whom 61% were non-demented. Before being examined, however, 36 died. Those refusing the examination numbered 11, and one could not be contacted. The demented and non-demented became two groups. Of the 203 demented individuals who died by 2001, 60% had an autopsy. Of the non-demented 61%, one moved away. Of the other 337, 231 remained non-demented. The others showed incident dementia. Of the former, 211 died by 2001, and of the latter, 92. Autopsies for these groups numbered 99 (47%) and 60 (65%), respectively. The overall total of autopsies for the 506 who died by 2001 was 281 (51%). The results shown by the autopsies were the following: cortical Lewy bodies in 42, severe amyloid pathology in 178, severe NFT pathology in 128, and both of the latter in 110.
Appendix IV  Passive to active in Methods

Improve this Methods section by changing its 15 passive-voice verbs → active.  
Cut its length in half! Remember the essential exclusion line.
Do you also have the skill to avoid many—or any?—“we” pronouns?

A retrospective review of all breast cancer patients treated for local recurrence in our hospital was performed. Cases with other cancers present or unknown primary were excluded. The information was gathered from the patient database of the Department of XXX, Turku University Central Hospital (TUCH), consisting of 5859 breast cancer patients. All the patient records in the database were reviewed, and those patients with local recurrence of breast cancer were selected to be included in this study. A total of 506 patients were found. They had been treated between 2005 and 2009 for local recurrence in the excision scar or for in-transit metastasis. Factors predicting outcome after local recurrence were analyzed. Patient records were analyzed for patient, tumor, and treatment characteristics. Details on tumor characteristics were obtained from pathology reports, and all pathology reports were re-examined by a specialist in pathology to obtain all information on the primary tumor. Surgical and radiological reports were analyzed for follow-up data on patterns and timing of local recurrence. Furthermore, possible development of lymph node or distant metastases was recorded. The ABCD staging system from 2003 was used for grouping patients according to their stage of the primary disease.

(15 passive verbs in 195 words)
Appendix V  Proofreading exercise and course review

This sample lacks any authenticity, so ignore the medical data. The grammar is fairly acceptable. Here, repair the extremely common style errors overlooked by most young Finnish authors. This imaginary author has obviously, by varying everything, failed to obey any target-journal style instructions.

1 139 men and 125 females were in the study. The XYZ procedure was performed in

2 44.7% (118/264) cases. 1/3rd (90/264) of these cases were under 60-years-old, and 66% (174/264) were over the age of 60-years and under 80 years in age. Their disease was

3 considered acute in 62.5% (165/264) and chronic in 31.4% (83/264). In statistical

4 analysis, PLI was associated with poor prognosis (p=0.002). In addition, tumor stage

5 (p<0.0001), prevalence of GHI (p < 0.0001), distant metastasis (P<.001), tumor size

6 (P<0.0001), tumour site (p = 0.0001), patient age (P = 0.004) and noncurative operation

7 (p < 0.0001) were associated with poor prognosis. Consensus between two oncologists,

8 HIV and MRI, determined which patients were candidates for experimental drug LPE.

9 LPE treatment was organized by the county hospital district where the ethical

10 committee gave consent to the study procedures because they were the golden standard

11 of care.
Appendix VI  Discussion

This nonsensical Discussion exercise includes elements of Appendices II and IV. First, examine page 30--the Gustaavi Discussion recipe. Then reorganize this mess while editing it: reduce its length, remove passive verbs, and add end-focus and linkage.

To lose an outer ear can cause distress and shock in a patient and quality of life will be less. Molded plastic ears, transplanted donated ears or ears from cadavers may cause dissatisfaction and unhappiness in the recipient patient.

Population-based ear-injury studies all over the world have been published (Austria, Canada, China, India, Ireland, and Spain). The rate of these injuries every year in our study was 18 per 100,000. This is a much higher incidence compared to some studies (1.96 to 21.3 per 100,000), but significantly less than others (334 to 2090). The wide variation in reported incidences may result from the various described study settings. Our study also includes minor traumas, although some minor trauma patients never seek care.

Brown et al demonstrated that destruction of the entire outer ear will happen at work more often, compared to other environments except for sports. This was consistent with our report as many ear-injuries had a relationship with work.

To our knowledge this is the first epidemiological population-based study describing outer-ear trauma epidemiology, etiology, classification, clinical examination results, treatments, and cosmetic results. In our study, complete loss of the outer ear caused depression of the patient. According to Desai et al the most common type of ear injury is blunt injury. In our study, alike, contusion was the most frequent ear injury causing permanent impairment (40%), and contained most of the injuries, (60%), with poor final psychological result.

Comparing our study results to the study of Salmenen the proportions of men and assaults have decreased, (86% versus 60%, and 13% versus 7%, respectively), injuries at home have increased (40% versus 60%), but there were no changes in work-related injuries (33% versus 36%).

Smith et al, identified lack of ear protection as a risk factor for ear injury, and there were not any of our study-patients which used winter ear-muffs or acoustic headphones. High amounts of serious ear injuries inside and outside home has been suggested as a reason for a need for prevention against high-risk activities at home, not only at work and in sports. This is consistent with other studies. According to Hernandez et al young adult men have the highest risk of ear injuries which is consistent with our study. Altogether, the education and safety measures of ear protection should be focused more than before towards young men, and on sources, that cause at home and at work loss of outer ears.

The limitations of our study are: lack of donations of outer ears by Finns., patients that were lost in follow-up, and one self-inflicted injury by a painter upon himself causing bias in calculating violence as a cause.
Appendix VI  Table exercise

First, in the article Results section in which this table would appear, suppose that readers meet these lines:

“Table 1 shows the responses found in mice in haemoglobin and in enzyme X after feeding them with the HSF diet and the LC diet and the respective figures for control mice on a normal diet.”

Why is this useless and stupid to write in your article or thesis text?

Hint: on the same article page, comes this table: Find errors throughout this terrible table, ranging from macro to almost invisible. Revise its title.

Table 1. The responses found before and after the feeding of mice with the HSF diet, the LC diet and a normal diet for 15 and 30 days.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diet Group Type</th>
<th>Time of blood sample</th>
<th>Length of the diet</th>
<th>Numbers of studied mice</th>
<th>Male mice</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Hemoglobin</th>
<th>p value</th>
<th>Enzyme X</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HSF diet</td>
<td>Before diet</td>
<td>15 days</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11/18</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.41 µg</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LC diet</td>
<td>Before diet</td>
<td>15 days</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12/18</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.37 µg</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal diet</td>
<td>Before diet</td>
<td>15 days</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10/18</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>8.50</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.39 µg</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSF diet</td>
<td>After diet</td>
<td>15 days</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11/18</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>8.70</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.43 µg</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LC diet</td>
<td>After diet</td>
<td>15 days</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12/18</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.42 µg</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal diet</td>
<td>After diet</td>
<td>15 days</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10/18</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>10.10</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.41 µg</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSF diet</td>
<td>Before diet</td>
<td>30 days</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9/18</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.41 µg</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LC diet</td>
<td>Before diet</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.8</td>
<td>8.4</td>
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<td>0.41 µg</td>
<td>NS</td>
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<tr>
<td>HSF diet</td>
<td>After diet</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>9/18</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>&lt; 0.03</td>
<td>.44 µg</td>
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<td>9.3</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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