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№ 1203

RESEARCH AID

# THE WRITING OF REPORTS

CIA/RR RA-8

31 August 1956

## CENTRAL INTELLIGENCE AGENCY

OFFICE OF RESEARCH AND REPORTS

~~SECRET~~

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CIA/RR RA-8

(ORR Project 00.1052)

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Office of Research and Reports

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# FOREWORD

This research aid is designed to assist analysts of the Economic Research Area of the Office of Research and Reports (ORR) in the writing of intelligence reports. Only those matters pertinent to the organization and actual writing of reports and to the preparation by the analyst of the final draft copy are covered. The principles and methods of research, though implied, are not discussed.

In stressing the organization and actual writing of reports, this research aid does not purport to be a complete style manual on rhetoric, grammar, syntax, and the mechanics of writing. Rather, it is concerned with some of the immediate problems of writing that confront the intelligence analyst and with matters that, on the basis of experience, are judged to be the most troublesome.

Although this research aid is intended primarily to reflect the standards which govern the writing of intelligence reports by analysts of the Economic Research Area, those standards are applicable, with minor exceptions, to the publications of the Geographic Research Area and to those reports of the Economic Intelligence Committee (EIC) published by the Coordination Area. In a general way the principles of effective writing discussed in this research aid should be of interest and value throughout CIA and the intelligence community as a whole.

As a prerequisite to writing good reports, the intelligence analyst must realize that good writing alone will not make a good report but that a combination of sound research and good writing is necessary. He must also realize that intelligence writing affects national security and that no other type of writing is more serious in intent and purpose. Intelligence writing seeks to provide a basis for planning, and the decisions of US policymakers often hinge on its evidence, analysis, and conclusions. The analyst himself must inject the ingredient of intelligence into what might otherwise be simply a collection of information.

CONTENTS

Appendixes

## Tables



## Illustrations

CIA/RR RA-8
(ORR Project 00.1052)

S-E-C-R-E-T

# THE WRITING OF REPORTS

## I. Introduction.

The purpose of the reports of the Economic Research Area of the Office of Research and Reports (ORR) is to provide finished economic intelligence for the use of US policymakers and the intelligence community. Intelligence reports are used by a number of people in a number of ways. At one extreme a report may be accepted without question, and at the other it may be subjected to the most searching examination. One consumer may read only the summary of the report and base decisions upon the summary. Another consumer may study the report in detail and use it as a basis for an extensive research project in an allied area. In addition, a report not only may be of immediate significance but also may stand for years as a definitive document on its subject.

Intelligence reports, like all other research reports, gain in effectiveness and usefulness, both immediate and eventual, if they follow an established pattern in organization, style, and technical practices. Certain standards of uniformity have been adopted, therefore, and all economic intelligence reports are expected to conform to those standards -- insofar as the nature of the material of the individual report will permit.

The accepted standards in the writing of economic intelligence reports have a sound basis in editorial and publications practice. There are other standards which are equally acceptable, but they apply to other kinds of writing. Newspapers and newsmagazines, for example, have developed excellent standards of reporting within their media. The mission of the newspaper and the newsmagazine, however, is different from that of the intelligence report, and different standards govern.

The maintenance of standards in the writing of economic intelligence reports is a divided responsibility. The responsibility of the analyst is to know the standards and be guided by them in the preparation of his report. But the analyst is a specialist in his own field and in research methods and is not always a specialist in editing and publication. Editing and publication belong to the editorial staff, which bears final responsibility for solving problems in its own field in cooperation with the analyst.

The responsibility of the analyst might be more precisely defined in his own mind if he examined the attitudes and procedures of the editor. The primary objective of the editor is to assist the analyst in the production of intelligence which maintains a high order of accuracy and clearness. This objective governs the entire editorial function.

The editor assumes the technical competence of the analyst in his own field. The editor also assumes that the complexity of the analyst's job makes possible the presence of substantive and structural error. The editor is inclined, therefore, to scrutinize the substance and structure of the report for weaknesses, inconsistencies, and contradictions. The editor's eye is an objective one. His point of view is closer to that of the consumer than is the analyst's. The editor may detect gaps which are bridged in the analyst's mind by the analyst's intimate knowledge of the subject.

The editor is responsible first for a careful review of the substantive and structural elements of the report and then for the editing of the actual language of the report. Although this latter phase of preparation for publication is no more important than review, it is more time consuming and is responsible for a considerable part of the timelag between the cutoff date and publication. The analyst, by improving his competence in written expression and by carefully observing the accepted standards of uniformity, can reduce the time required for "mechanical" editing and thus speed the publication of the report.

One aim of this research aid is to outline briefly what is expected of the analyst in the written presentation of his work. The analyst is responsible for the accuracy of the data and calculations included in the report. He must also check the tables and graphics to insure that titles, footnotes, and other details are correct and up to date. Documentation must be complete and correctly designated. The report must follow the standard format and must be properly organized, correctly and clearly written, and consistently developed in all its parts.

1. Types of Reports.

The formal intelligence reports of the Economic Research Area are of the following types: Economic Intelligence Report, Provisional Intelligence Report, Intelligence Memorandum, and Research Aid.*

a. Economic Intelligence Report (CIA/RR).

An Economic Intelligence Report (CIA/RR) is a definitive, comprehensive, and timely intelligence study of selected economic aspects of a specified geographic or political area. It should deal with all important aspects of the subject. The depth of research and reasoning should approach that of a scholarly monograph.

* See CIA, ORR, OCh/E, Comments on the Organization and Preparation of Economic Intelligence Reports, 4 June 1954, CONFIDENTIAL, pp. 1-3.
The Working Paper (WP) no longer exists as a category of ORR reports. Three other categories of issuances are not publications in the usual sense: the Internal Project (IP), the Miscellaneous Project (MP), and the Current Support Memorandum (CSM). The IP is prepared in direct response to internal CIA requests -- for example, ORR contributions to the Office of National Estimates (ONE). The IP is usually issued to the requester only, except when the subject matter is of sufficient interest to warrant distribution to others. The MP is usually prepared in response to requests from outside CIA. It is a brief study or comment designed to fill a particular but limited need and is transmitted, usually in typescript only, directly to the requester. The CSM is prepared to provide timely evaluation and analysis of current economic developments. Any one of these issuances may be later reworked into a formal report.
This research aid does not deal with contributions by analysts of the Economic Research Area to the National Intelligence Surveys (NIS's). These contributions are covered adequately in the NIS Standard Instructions, /June 1951/, CONFIDENTIAL (see especially "Editorial Instructions" and Chapter I, Section 16, and Chapter VI, Sections 60 through 65). The principles and standards of writing discussed in this research aid, however, except for minor variations in format, layout, and general mechanics, should help ORR analysts in the preparation of their contributions to the NIS's as well as in the preparation of the issuances mentioned above that are not publications in the usual sense.

The RR should serve as an authoritative reference. To guarantee accuracy in every detail, it must be written and reviewed with special care. Detailed documentation is required, as is coordination within CIA and with other interested US Government agencies.

b. Provisional (Economic) Intelligence Report (CIA/RR PR).

A Provisional (Economic) Intelligence Report (CIA/RR PR) is a preliminary version of an Economic Intelligence Report. It may be based on research which is, in some important respects, incomplete but which has reached a logical stopping point and will not reach another logical stopping point for some time. The PR is a report which is published in recognition of the fact that postponement of publication until all intended research is complete enough to permit an RR to be written on the subject would not be in the best interests of the intelligence community.

The PR may include much that is tentative and exploratory, especially in the methodology employed. Like the RR, however, it is a finished report, designed both to undergo careful scrutiny by specialists and to be read on a policy level. Detailed documentation is required, as is coordination within CIA.

c. (Economic) Intelligence Memorandum (CIA/RR IM).

An (Economic) Intelligence Memorandum (CIA/RR IM) is a brief, timely, interpretive statement on an economic subject of current importance. It is initiated either in response to an external request or by an ORR analyst. Documentation and coordination are required to the extent that time permits. High standards of accuracy and clearness must be maintained despite the timeliness of the substance and the urgency of the need.

d. (Economic Intelligence) Research Aid (CIA/RR RA).

An (Economic Intelligence) Research Aid (CIA/RR RA) is a publication designed to assist analysts in ORR and sometimes analysts throughout the intelligence community in the preparation of economic intelligence. Although substantive rather than operational or administrative in nature, the RA usually differs from other intelligence reports in that it may not contain conclusions usable in formulating policy affecting national security. The format, tone, and content of the RA are dictated by the nature of the subject itself and by the character of the consumer, who will normally not be a policymaker but an intelligence analyst.

Because the RA is designed to influence and to aid economic research and thereby the resulting intelligence, it should be as carefully prepared as an intelligence report. Usually the RA will present an evaluated methodology and one or more examples demonstrating the application and validity of the methodology.

2. Organization of Reports.

Economic intelligence reports must maintain a general uniformity of organization if they are to fulfill their purpose of both immediate and eventual usefulness. The consumer can more readily read and use a group or a sequence of reports if all are, to a considerable extent, uniform in structure. The structure of any one report, however, may differ in some respects from that of any other. Different subject matter may require different treatment.

The solution of the problem of uniformity of organization lies in compromise. All ORR reports should follow a pattern, but the pattern should be flexible enough to accommodate the structural requirements of individual reports. With the principle of compromise in mind, certain essential components of the general organizational pattern can be indicated. (Some of these components will be discussed in more detail in II, III, IV, and V, below.)

a. Title Page.

The form of the title page of a report is determined by standard editorial practice and presents to the analyst no problem except the careful wording of the title, which should be both definitive and brief.

b. Foreword.

A foreword is required in a report when it is necessary to convey to the reader certain information which cannot properly be included in the summary or in the body of the report. At times a detailed statement of the purpose and scope of the report is necessary to a proper evaluation and use of the material which the report contains. A foreword may also be used to clarify the relationship of a report to other reports on the same or a related subject or for the introduction of a statistical report which does not lend itself to summation in the usual way. Again, a foreword may be used to acknowledge contributions from other offices or agencies or to explain security problems or any other matters relating to the report that do not logically fall within the province of the body of the report.

The foreword is a special device to be used only if it serves a specific purpose. The foreword, which precedes the table of contents, should always be brief and to the point.

c. Table of Contents.

The table of contents, an essential part of every report, serves a twofold purpose. It provides a semigraphic representation of the organization and content of the report, and it provides a key for easily locating any particular part of the report. To be completely effective, the table of contents must be more than a mere listing of the headings and subheadings of the report and of the corresponding page numbers. The table of contents must have a close organic relationship to the body of the report. If the table of contents is, as it should be, a development of the working outline of the report (see II, "The Working Outline," p. 10, below), it will have this organic relationship. (See also f, below.)

d. Summary.

The summary is an end product of every good report. The purpose of the summary is to state concisely and clearly the findings of the report and the significance of those findings. A summary should be so written that the reader can learn in a few minutes what conclusions are reached in the report and what those conclusions mean in terms of useful intelligence. Every report except the very shortest should have a summary. (See III, "The Summary," p. 14, below.)

e. Introduction.

Many reports do not need an introduction, but there are situations in which an introduction may be valuable. For example, a report may be improved by certain historical or technological information which does not warrant inclusion as a separate section of the body of the report or as an appendix. An introduction might serve the purpose by providing this information. The introduction, like the foreword, should be used only if it serves a specific purpose. The introduction should never be a convenient catchall for odds and ends but should be brief and should consist only of information absolutely essential to the understanding of the report.

f. Divisions of the Body of the Report (Headings and Subheadings).

The organization of the body of the report is largely determined by the nature of the material covered. No set pattern can be established and applied to all reports. The organization of a plant analysis should not be the same as that of a commodity study. Perhaps the best criteria for the organizational structure of any report are logic and precedent -- in that order of importance. Usually an analyst may organize his material according to the pattern followed in similar reports already published. At times, however, the analyst may find that the pattern does not provide for the logical juxtapositions which would make his report more effective. In such situations the pattern must give way to the dictates of logic.

Careful attention must be given to the structural system used in dividing the report into headings and subheadings. Such a system is designed to guide the reader through the report -- to make clear the organizational pattern of the material and to show the relationship of each part of the body of the report to all other parts and to the whole.



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Not only are the headings and subheadings in the body of the report organizational labels and signposts for the reader, but also they must be closely related to the table of contents (see c, p. 6, above), which, in turn, is a development of the working outline. Headings and subheadings in the body of the report should follow those in the table of contents in matters of labeling, spacing, and actual wording, and the table of contents should contain no entry which does not have a counterpart within the body of the report.

It is not necessary, except occasionally for clearness, to use the definite or indefinite articles (the, a, or an) at the beginning of a heading or subheading (see II, III, and IV, below). The wording of headings and subheadings should be clear and fully descriptive, but an effort should be made to make them brief and nonrepetitious while, at the same time, avoiding "cookbook" or "telegraphic" English.

Major headings (designated by roman numerals) of the report are called sections; subheadings (designated by letters of the alphabet and arabic numerals) are called subsections or paragraphs. A report is not divided into parts (except in the casual use of the term) unless it is made up actually of parts, as, for example, when another office or agency contributes a separate part to an ORR report and the part is published as such. Then the two (or more) parts are called Part I, Part II, and so on. (For the mechanics of representing headings and subheadings, see II, "The Working Outline," p. 10, below.)

g. Footnotes and Documentation.

Several methods of treating the mechanics of footnotes and documentation are accepted as standard in research writing. The particular method followed depends upon the nature, purpose, and ultimate use of the particular piece of research and also upon the practice accepted as standard in an organization or institution. The practice followed in ORR reports is based upon the assumption that footnotes and documentation serve different purposes and should keep their separate identities; that footnotes should be used sparingly; and that footnotes and documentation, essential though they are, should not interfere with the reading and comprehension of the report.*

h. Tables and Graphics.

Most reports of the Economic Research Area include tabular material, and many of them include graphic material of several kinds: maps, cartograms, and charts. Tables and graphics should be used whenever they serve a useful purpose. Frequently they can substitute in part for textual material, at other times they complement the text, and at still other times they effectively summarize the conclusions of the report. The analyst must be sure, therefore, that contemplated graphics not only are of the most appropriate type but also contribute to the significance of the report.

Aside from the obvious necessity for absolute accuracy and clearness in tabular and graphic material, no specific requirements can be established. The nature of tables, maps, charts, photographs, and other types of illustrations will vary with the requirements of each report, and blanket rules would be of little value.

Tables and graphics can be presented in appendixes or in the body of the report depending upon whether or not they are required to clarify the written text on a specific page. (See V, 10, p. 38, below.)

i. Appendixes.

The number and kinds of appendixes in a report will depend upon the requirements of the report, but three appendixes are required in most reports of the Economic Research Area -- Methodology, Gaps in Intelligence, and Source References. The

* The practice of the Economic Research Area in the use of footnotes is discussed in detail in V, 8, p. 33, below. Source identifications are also discussed in detail in V, 8, p. 33, below, and the preparation of the Source References appendix is fully exemplified in Appendix C.

form and content of these appendixes are fairly well standardized and should present few major problems (see IV, "The Appendixes," p. 17, below).

II. The Working Outline.

The importance of the outline in the preparation of reports cannot be overstressed. The finished report is often a clear reflection of the care and skill exercised in the construction and use of the outline.

The outline is a device by which the material of the report is arranged in an orderly and logical fashion, and when it appears as a table of contents, it is a semigraphic representation of that arrangement (see I, 2, c, p. 6, above). The term working outline may properly be used to describe the outline during all stages except the final one, when it becomes the table of contents. The outline is actually the plan from which the analyst works, but it is not, during any of its various "working" stages, a set, completed plan. It is a plan which changes frequently as the writing of the report progresses, and at different times during the writing process the plan serves different purposes.

The outline in its initial form may be a broad survey of the problem, an estimate of the job to be done. It may then serve as a guide to research and a key to the classification and filing of the results of research. It may also serve as a guide to actual writing. Finally, it will serve as a guide to the review and the revision of the report before submittal.

With each of the functions that it performs, the outline may change in either form or content or in both, and the flexibility of the outline is one of its most important aspects. The analyst should never feel compelled to conform to the outline when there is a conflict between the plan and its practical application. For example, the analyst may have planned to discuss a number of factors according to a sequence which seemed logical before the actual writing began. The outline, then, would list the factors in that sequence. Actual discussion of those factors in the written text, however, might show that logic and clearness would be better served by an entirely different sequence. In that situation the outline would be changed. The plan would change to fit the practical application. Such changes may occur at any time during research and writing, and the final outline, as it appears in the table of contents, may be very different from the original one.

The broad framework of working outlines for most ORR reports is well established by the nature of the material to be covered. Precedent and practice will dictate the major divisions of plant, commodity, equipment, and raw materials studies.* Within the broad framework, however, the detailed organization may vary with each report, and it is in this organization that the working outline is an essential aid.

Because the analyst is both producer and consumer of the working outline, he may feel that the mechanical form of the outline is unimportant. This assumption might be valid if the human mind were a perfect instrument capable of total recall, but then there would be no need for an outline in the first place. The outline serves the analyst as a record of his organizational planning, and it must reveal carefully reasoned relationships and juxtapositions long after the individual steps of the thought processes have faded from memory. The mechanical form of the working outline is essential to its basic function, even though producer and consumer are the same.

The mechanics of the outline consist largely of labeling, indentation, and equality and parallelism of levels. Labeling and indentation are visual devices to show relationships of parts to one another and to the whole. Equality and parallelism of levels are necessary to the logical maintenance of the relationships established by the visual devices.

There are no immutable laws governing the use of labels in an outline, but practice has set a convenient precedent which is suggested here. Normally, major headings are designated by roman numerals; subheadings of the first degree, by capital letters; of the second degree, by arabic numerals; of the third degree, by lowercase (small) letters; of the fourth degree, by arabic numerals in parentheses; and of the fifth degree, by lowercase letters in parentheses. Thereafter, if one needs to go so far, lowercase roman numerals are used. Seldom need an outline be carried beyond the fourth or fifth degree of subdivision.

* See CIA, ORR, OCh/E, <u>Comments on the Organization and Preparation of Economic Intelligence Reports</u>, 4 June 1954, CONFIDENTIAL, pp. 7-14.

In a long report in which the subheadings under roman numerals are few, it may be preferable to proceed from roman numerals to arabic numerals and to omit capital letters altogether. Also in short reports it may be preferable to proceed from arabic numerals to lower-case letters. In very short reports, depending upon the methodology of presentation, it may be preferable not to use headings at all. Examples of the types of breakdown that may be used in reports are as follows:

Long Reports

Summary

- I.
  - A.
    - 1.
    - 2.
      - a.
      - b.
  - B.
    - 1.
      - a.
      - b.
      - c.
        - (1)
        - (2)
    - 2.
- II.
  - A.
    - 1.
    - 2.
      - a.
        - (1)
          - (a)
          - (b)
            - i.
            - ii.
        - (2)
      - b.
  - B.
    - 1.
    - 2.
  - C.

Summary

- I.
  - 1.
  - 2.
    - a.
    - b.
- II.
  - 1.
  - 2.
    - a.
    - b.
      - (1)
      - (2)
      - (3)
  - 3.
- III.
  - 1.
    - a.
    - b.
      - (1)
      - (2)
        - (a)
        - (b)
        - (c)
  - 2.
  - 3.

Short Reports

Summary

- 1.
  - a.
  - b.
- 2.
- 3.
  - a.
  - b.
  - c.

All the subheadings in the report need not be listed in the table of contents. The details of the table of contents are purely a matter of individual preference and editorial judgment.

The indentation of labels and subheadings needs little comment. Indentations, along with labels, show relationships, and they must be consistent. All capital-letter labels should be indented to the same extent, all arabic-numeral labels to the same extent, and so on. The outline will be more effective graphically if multiple-line headings and subheadings are blocked -- that is, if second and subsequent lines are started directly beneath the beginning of the first word of the first line of the heading or subheading.

Equality and parallelism of levels in the outline are achieved by making certain that all headings bearing the same label, and consequently indented to the same degree, are equal in weight and parallel in form. A simple example will clarify this basic point. Let us assume that the second major division of the outline is Operational Aircraft and that the following sectional outline is developed:

II. Operational Aircraft

- A. Combat Planes
  - 1. Bombers
- B. Planes Used as Fighters
  - 1. MAG 27
  - 2. GAM 72
- C. Transport Planes
  - 1. Cargo Planes
  - 2. Passenger Planes

This fragment of outline violates both equality and parallelism. Subheading B is not equal in weight to subheadings A and C, nor is it parallel in form with them. Subheading B should be reduced to the level of A, 2, with a corresponding reduction of the present subheadings 1 and 2 to a and b, and should read "Fighters." Then subheading C would become B.

To this discussion of the mechanics of the outline might be added the caution that division into one part is impossible -- a single heading or subheading should be avoided. For every "I" there should be a corresponding "II," for every "A" a "B," for every "1" a "2," for every "a" a "b," and so on. Usually an item which seems to be a logical single subheading can be incorporated into the next higher level, can be broken into two or more equal parts, or can be eliminated. Although this principle may seem to be inconsequential when applied to the mechanics of the outline, it becomes very important to the report itself, and disregard of it may result in a serious organizational flaw.

## III. The Summary.

The summary, as has already been stated, is an end product of every good report. The content of the report will be evaluated and the quality judged largely on the basis of the summary. Some consumers of the report will read only the summary.

The main purpose of the summary is to state in a few words exactly what useful intelligence the report contains. A summary is not to be confused with a précis, which is much longer than a summary and must give a faithful account of the complete text of the original in a somewhat shorter form, nor with an abstract, which is usually shorter than a summary, more objective, and more descriptive of the organization and structure of the report.

The writing of the summary may seem to be relatively easy -- a mere transfer of certain sentences from the body of the report to the summary -- but actually is very difficult. Not often can sentences or paragraphs be transferred bodily. Usually it is necessary to conduct a sort of distillation process in which a number of sentences, paragraphs, or sections are reduced and refined to yield a clear, concentrated result, free of evasions, omissions, and unnecessary repetitions.

The summary must be as brief as possible, as clear as possible, and as accurate as possible. It must include every important finding of the report, and it must not include information which does not appear elsewhere in the report. The effectiveness of the summary -- and, indeed, the entire usefulness of the report -- will depend upon the analyst's ability to achieve brevity, clearness, and accuracy and to make sound judgments of what is absolutely essential to the summary.

Facts and figures are essential to the summary to the extent that they contribute to the intelligence significance of the report. The job which the analyst faces in the preparation of a summary is the specific one of selecting from the entire body of facts and figures in the report those few which the consumer will find most useful. Sometimes the presentation of statistical data in the summary may be condensed by the insertion of a special-purpose table, a tabulation, or a graph.

A definite pattern for a summary cannot be established, but some specific suggestions can be offered. Usually the first paragraph of a summary is a statement of the significance of the problem analyzed in the report, stressing the importance of a fiscal factor, an economic trend, an industry, a commodity, or a service to the economy of the particular area under discussion and to the Sino-Soviet Bloc as a whole. This statement should be brief but should establish, at least by implication, the importance of the subject of the report.

The subsequent paragraphs in the summary should state the significant findings of the report and should give the essential data on which those findings are based. The reliability of the data should be qualified as necessary, and the relative weights of evidence should be clearly expressed. Whenever possible, all figures and estimates should be given perspective by comparison with other figures. For example, production figures for the area under discussion could be compared with production figures for other areas within the Sino-Soviet Bloc, for the USSR, or for the Sino-Soviet Bloc as a whole. Also, production figures for the area under discussion -- for example, the USSR -- could be compared with production figures for the US, for the UK, for the US and the UK, or for any other non-Bloc country; and production figures for the Sino-Soviet Bloc as a whole could be compared with production figures for the NATO countries or for any other grouping of non-Bloc countries. All figures and estimates should be the most recent available and should be clearly dated. If US production figures are given, US firm names and proprietary information should not be used.

Statements of capabilities, vulnerabilities, and intentions are also essential to the summary when they are a significant part of the report. Conclusions about capabilities, vulnerabilities, and intentions, however, must be as carefully refined for the summary as are other sections of the report.

The chronological arrangement of the elements in the summary need not follow that of the body of the report. There must be a close organizational relationship between the summary and the body of the report, but priority is given in the summary to those findings which are of greatest intelligence significance.

In some reports the most important findings consist of information developed by research, and the summary is concerned primarily with the presentation of that information. At times, however, the major significance of the report lies in the conclusions to which the information leads -- for example, in a report devoted to the analysis of known conditions or readily available data. To emphasize the importance of the conclusions, the analyst may use the label Summary and Conclusions instead of Summary. In that event, the information and data contained in the report are reviewed briefly, and the section is devoted largely to a concise presentation of the conclusions reached in the report.

There are a few devices which analysts may find useful in the preparation of the summary. One of these devices is the drafting of a tentative summary and the revising of this tentative summary in the light of further information while the writing of the report progresses. In conjunction with an early draft of the working outline (see II, p. 10, above), the tentative summary of the report serves as an architectonic device and helps to define the purpose of the report, to keep constantly before the writer the main points of the report to be stressed, and to provide a flexible framework within which the summary itself may finally be written. Another useful device is the writing of the summary statement of findings for each major section of the report immediately after the writing of that section has been completed. This device has the advantage of immediacy of conversion, and the full development of the finding is still fresh in mind when the summation of the finding is made.

Any part of the summary which is prepared before the completion of the body of the report must be reviewed and revised in the light of the finished report. The summary, like the outline, must be flexible. It can become firmly fixed only when the body of the report is completed and ready for submittal.

Once the summary has been written in what the analyst feels is its final form, it should be read by another person, preferably one who is not a specialist in the subject covered by the report. The analyst, unlike the reader, is so familiar with the subject that he may be unable to detect gaps, apparent contradictions, and misleading connotations. His mind may unconsciously bridge the gaps, supply the key to the contradictions, and eliminate all connotations except those which suit his purposes.

The summary must be completely understandable to all readers of the report. The analyst is well advised to labor long over the summary -- to make it not only possible to understand but also impossible to misunderstand.

## IV. The Appendixes.

The three appendixes which are required in most reports of the Economic Research Area -- Methodology, Gaps in Intelligence, and Source References -- are given in the order named. The number of appendixes in any report -- whether these three or more -- will vary with the subject matter and be determined by the analyst. In making that determination the analyst should be guided by an understanding of the functions of appendixes. In general, an appendix has one or more of three functions: to offer valuable supplemental information, to substantiate data, and to provide guidance for future research. For example, an appendix on technology to a report on commodity production would normally be designed to furnish supplemental information, and an appendix devoted to statistical analysis might be intended solely to substantiate estimates. The Source References appendix, however, usually includes both substantiation and future research guides, and the Methodology appendix may provide supplemental information -- negative information, perhaps, but valuable information. The appendix should never be used as a "file-emptying" device to drag in extraneous or irrelevant material which the analyst may have accumulated during extensive research.

The Methodology appendix serves three functions. First, it provides for the analyst himself a device by which he may assure the logical development of his conclusions and estimates. Working with the knowledge that his methods and procedures must be accounted for in detail, he is less likely to cut corners in research. Second, this appendix offers to the reader of the report a means whereby he may check and verify the conclusions and estimates in the report. Third, it provides other analysts with methods of research which may be useful in similar or allied studies.

Relegating the methodology to an appendix sometimes gives the erroneous impression that it is less important than the body of the report. If anything, the methodology is more important. One widely used technique of review is to make a preliminary evaluation of a report on the basis of the summary and the methodology alone. The summary states the major estimates and conclusions; the methodology tells how they were derived. To many the "how" is as important as the "what."

The Gaps in Intelligence appendix also serves several functions. For the analyst, the preparation of a statement on gaps in intelligence serves as a final check on source coverage before the draft report is submitted. For the reader this appendix provides an indication of what the report would have included under ideal circumstances and indicates exactly where the coverage was thin. For other analysts this appendix provides a permanent record of the types of intelligence required for further work and serves as a guide to collection requirements.

Comments on the lack of information should be reserved for the Gaps in Intelligence appendix, not written into the body of the report. If the analyst consistently noted each gap as it arose, his report would be primarily a complaint about too little information. A report should deal with what has been found, not with what is still missing, and the writing should be positive in character. Chronic noting of gaps is a common form of wordiness that obscures rather than clarifies the positive findings.

The Source References appendix provides both a general appraisal of the accuracy and completeness of the source materials and a detailed identification of the individual sources. The evaluation describes areas of strength and weakness and in so doing suggests both cautions and opportunities for further exploitation. The source references not only substantiate the statements, conclusions, and estimates of the report but also provide valuable bibliographical material to other analysts who may work on the same subject at a later time. (See Appendix C.)

Any additional appendixes which may be required should be arranged in the order in which they are referred to in the body of the report. And they must be referred to -- in the running text, in the footnotes to the text, or in the footnotes to the tabular material. The three required appendixes -- Methodology, Gaps in Intelligence, and Source References -- should follow any other appendixes. Each appendix begins on a new page, and each bears an alphabetical label -- Appendix A, Appendix B, Appendix C, Appendix D, and so on -- which appears only on the first page of the appendix. Material in the appendixes should be documented if substantiation is advisable, and source identifications in appendixes should follow the sequence of numbering of source identifications established in the body of the report.

## V. Mechanics of Writing.

The usefulness of ORR reports, as stated before, is increased by the maintenance of uniform standards in organization, style, and technical practices. Particularly is this true of what may be called the "mechanical components" of the written report -- capitalization, punctuation, abbreviations, signs and symbols, numerals, and similar basic elements of construction. The standards themselves have been determined by the acceptance of certain printed authorities and by procedures and practices recognized as effective.

The primary printed authorities for ORR analysts are the United States Government Printing Office Style Manual (known as the GPO Style Manual), revised edition, January 1953,* and Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (latest edition**). The GPO Style Manual is

* A convenient abridgment of this full edition has been issued in paper covers -- an offprint of the first 20 chapters (229 pages) together with the index.

** Ultimate authority is represented by Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language, second edition, unabridged, Springfield, Massachusetts: G. & C. Merriam Company, Publishers, 1934 (reprinted several times, with additions, through 1955). The dictionary may be supplemented to great profit by reference to the following: Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms, Springfield, Massachusetts: G. & C. Merriam Company, Publishers, 1942; Fowler, H.W., A Dictionary of Modern English Usage, New York and London: Oxford University Press, 1926 (reprinted, 1952); and Horwill, H.W., Dictionary of Modern American Usage, second edition, New York and London: Oxford University Press, 1944.

the accepted guide for style and the mechanics of writing and complements the dictionary in matters of spelling and usage.* (See VI, 1, p. 42, below.)

Both the primary printed authorities and the recommended books on the writing of technical reports (see Appendix E) should be used intelligently and not slavishly. Many times the problems of mechanical components to be settled will not be questions of right or wrong, correct or incorrect, but rather questions of usage and consistency. If the analyst is in doubt in the use of mechanics, it is better for him to be consistently wrong than inconsistently right.

1. Capitalization.

All normal problems of capitalization are covered by the GPO Style Manual (Chapter 3, "Capitalization," pp. 17-26, and Chapter 4, "Guide to Capitalization," pp. 27-50). Probably the only questions not specifically answered there for ORR analysts are those concerning capitalization in tabular material and source references. (See Appendixes A and C, below.)

The use of capital letters in source references is clarified by the examples of source references which are given in Appendix C. The use of capital letters in tabular material is more difficult to exemplify, but the samples given in Appendix A will be helpful. There is always a tendency to use too many capital letters, and if any general policy can be stated in this connection, it is "When in doubt, don't."

2. Punctuation.**

A full treatment of the rules and practices governing punctuation is beyond the scope of this research aid. The GPO Style

* Guides for the usage of military terms are furnished by the Department of the Army, SR 320-5-1, Dictionary of United States Army Terms, November 1953, UNCLASSIFIED, and by the Joint Chiefs of Staff, AR 320-1 (OPNAVINST 3020.1A, AFP 5-1-1), Dictionary of United States Military Terms for Joint Usage, May 1955, UNCLASSIFIED.
** The punctuation of source references is illustrated in Appendix C.

Manual provides and illustrates all the rules of punctuation applicable to ORR reports (see Chapter 9, "Punctuation," pp. 127-139). A brief discussion of some of the major problems of punctuation, however, with a few examples, will be helpful to the analyst.

In basic terms the purpose of punctuation is to make writing clear. There are those rhetoricians who insist that the sole function of punctuation is to show the grammatical relationships of elements in the written language, and there are those theoreticians who are convinced that punctuation is merely the graphic representation of oral phenomena. From a practical point of view neither is wholly right and to what degree each is wrong is of little consequence.

(To illustrate the how-many-angels-on-the-point-of-a-pin argument which can develop, consider the last sentence of the preceding paragraph. The rhetorician would insist on a comma after "view" to set off an introductory adverbial element and a comma after "right" to separate clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction. The oral theoretician might insist on both of these commas and, in addition, a comma after "wrong" to show a pause in speech. The writer of the sentence might defend an omission of all three commas by pointing out that the sentence is perfectly clear and impossible to misunderstand without them and that the usual comma to separate coordinate clauses must be omitted to make it clear that the introductory qualifying phrase is intended to apply to both main clauses and not to the first one only.) (To draw an illustration from an illustration, the preceding sentence shows that it is possible to write an extremely long and clear sentence with no punctuation except the period.)

The length of a sentence has nothing to do with the punctuation of a sentence, any more than the volume of breath exhaled in uttering it or the amount of time required to write it. Punctuation is based upon meaning, grammar, and syntax, and the trend should always be toward less punctuation, not more. A clear and sensible explanation of the purpose of punctuation is that given in the GPO Style Manual:

> Punctuation is a device to clarify the meaning of written or printed language. Well-planned word order requires a minimum

> of printed punctuation. The trend toward less punctuation calls for skillful phrasing to avoid ambiguity and to insure exact interpretation.
>
> The general principles governing the use of punctuation are (1) that if it does not clarify the text it should be omitted, and (2) that in the choice and placing of punctuation marks the sole aim should be to bring out more clearly the author's thought. Punctuation should aid in reading and prevent misreading.

ORR analysts are expected to follow certain rules and practices of punctuation based upon the principles described in the paragraphs quoted above. In the following pages, only a few of these rules and principles will be considered, the few which seem to be more honored in the breach than in the observance.

The comma is the most frequently used mark of punctuation and the most frequently misused. Although there is a general tendency to use too many commas, the sin of omission is almost as common as the sin of commission.

The following rules and cautions are offered as practical aids in improving the use of the comma.

a. <u>The comma is used</u>

(1) To separate two words or figures that might otherwise be misunderstood:

Of the total, production was the greatest single item.
Instead of thousands, hundreds were built.
In 1953, 500 units were completed.
To replace Malenkov, Bulganin was appointed.

(2) To separate from each other the members of a series of coordinate modifying words:

short, swift streams
long, slender, brittle stems

If the modifying words are not coordinate -- if one modifies another or a unit of which another is a part -- the comma is not used:

dark brown color
hard-drawn 19-strand copper cable
short tributary streams

(3) To set off nonrestrictive words, phrases, or clauses:

Actual production, however, was lower.
The work was, in fact, completed.
The plant manager, who was dismissed in 1952, was reappointed in 1953.
His brother, Joseph, was appointed.

Whether or not the element is nonrestrictive, or nonessential, is determined by the intent of the sentence. Note that in the following sentences each of the elements which are nonrestrictive in the sentences above is necessary to the meaning of the sentence in which it appears, is therefore restrictive, and is not set off by commas:

<u>However</u> difficult it may be, the job must be done.
The work was completed <u>in fact</u> as well as in theory.
The plant manager <u>who was dismissed in 1952</u> was reappointed in 1953. (The <u>who</u> clause is used to identify the particular plant manager being discussed.)
His brother <u>Joseph</u> was appointed. (He had more than one brother.)

(4) After each element within a series of three or more words, phrases, clauses, letters, or figures used with <u>and</u> or <u>or</u> (provided that none of the elements contains internal commas):

copper, lead, zinc, and tin
The ore will be transported by truck, railroad, aircraft, or ship.
The figures were examined, the data were collected, estimates were made, and conclusions were drawn.
Figures a, b, c, and d show the trend.

If one or more of the elements in the series contains internal commas, the semicolon instead of the comma is used between the elements:

Production for the 3 years was 25,627; 28,201; and 32,642 metric tons.
The chief exports were brass, which is an alloy; platinum, which is a precious metal; and tin.

Although there is little need for such a construction, a writer may be confronted with a series of three or more elements each of which is joined by a conjunction to the following element. In that situation, no commas are used:

copper and lead and zinc
Figures a and b and c and d show the trend.

(5) Before the coordinating conjunction in a compound sentence (a sentence which contains at least two independent clauses):

Production figures were available, and they made possible an estimate of inputs.
The country imports copper, iron, and lead, but domestic tin is available.
The ore is of low grade, but it has been worked.

In a simple sentence with a compound predicate the comma is not used before the coordinating conjunction:

The ore is of low grade but has been worked.

If a compound sentence contains three or more independent clauses, the rule of commas in series applies:

The figures were verified ones, the data were supported by other sources, the estimates were firm, and the conclusions were fully justified.

(6) To separate thousands and millions in numbers of four or more digits:

1,206 250,000 5,750,000

In built-up fractions, in decimals, and in serial numbers the comma is not used:

1/2500 3.1416 Motor No. 1976432

The semicolon is much abused. Perhaps the most frequent misuse is the substitution of the semicolon for the colon. For that reason, it may be expedient to review the major uses of the colon before discussing the semicolon.

b. The colon is used

(1) Before a final clause which summarizes preceding matter:

Food, clothing, fuel, and building materials: these are the critical items.
Nitric acid is much more than a raw material for explosives: it is a basic commodity in a peacetime economy.

(Both of these sentences could be recast and improved.)

(2) To introduce formally any matter that follows:

The following question must be answered: What is the policy now in effect?
In June of that year, Premier Gooch stated: "The Plan figure was realized."

> The major factors to be weighed are as follows: peacetime production, present capacity, mobilization capacity, and probable wartime production.

If the matter to be introduced is made a grammatically related part of the sentence, the colon is not used:

> The most critical raw materials are copper, iron, and tin.
> The most critical raw materials are items such as wheat, corn, and rice.
> In June of that year, Premier Gooch stated that "the Plan figure was realized."

The colon has other uses -- in expressing time, ratio, and proportion (see 4, p. 30, below) and in tabulation and bibliography.

There is a tendency not only to confuse the function of the semicolon with that of the colon but also to use too many semicolons. The semicolon has two legitimate uses, only one of which is essential.

c. The semicolon is used*

(1) To separate the elements in a series which cannot be clearly separated by commas:

> Iron ore, which comes from Poland; nitric acid, which is imported from Czechoslovakia; magnesium, which is supplied primarily by the USSR; and nickel, which is furnished in adequate quantities by domestic producers, are the major inputs.

> Wildlife in the area is limited to reptiles, amphibians, and predatory mammals; waterfowl are rarely seen; and domestic animals, common in adjacent areas, are never present.

* See also a, (4), p. 23, above.

The area is characterized by hard, impervious subsoil; short, swift streams; and long, tedious spells of dry weather, particularly in February.

(2) To separate the clauses of a compound sentence when a coordinating conjunction is not used:

Guns are important; butter is essential.

This use of the semicolon is rarely effective. A compound sentence is more effective when a coordinating conjunction is used.

The dash is also much abused, but it fills a definite need. The dash (--) is not the hyphen (-), and the hyphen should never be used as a dash.

d. The dash is used

(1) To set off parenthetical matter:

The additional equipment was supplied, but -- contrary to official claims -- the production goals were not reached.
The original production plan -- later revised downward -- was announced on 30 June.
Five countries -- England, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain -- were included in the agreement.
Some of the major products -- sulfuric acid and soda ash, for example -- are consumed within the plant.

(2) Before a final clause that summarizes a series of ideas:

Greater labor productivity, increased effort by the local cadres, and closer control of distribution -- these were the objectives of the propaganda effort.

The dash should be used only when it is needed. Excessive use of the dash presents a visual barrier to the reader and interrupts the flow of thought. Within the scope of (1), above, the pair of dashes is often used interchangeably with parentheses; within the scope of (2), above, the dash is often used interchangeably with the colon. The dash should never be used immediately after a comma, a colon, or a semicolon.

Other rules governing the use of the comma, the semicolon, the colon, and the dash and other marks of punctuation (the period, the hyphen, parentheses, brackets, braces, the exclamation point, the question mark, quotation marks, omission marks, and so on) are adequately illustrated in the GPO Style Manual.*

3. Abbreviations.

Most questions about the proper use of abbreviations can be answered by the GPO Style Manual (Chapter 10, "Abbreviations," pp. 141-154). The index helps to locate the applicable rules. There is always a tendency to use too many abbreviations, and if any general policy can be stated in this connection, it is again "When in doubt, don't."

Some familiar abbreviations must be used frequently -- US, UK, UN, CIA, ORR, and USSR, for example. When less well-known abbreviations are used several times in a report, they should be spelled out the first time that they appear, with the abbreviations being given in parentheses immediately following the terms. Sometimes it may be more appropriate to give the abbreviation first, with the full identification given in parentheses immediately following. Examples of these devices are as follows: Air Technical Intelligence Center (ATIC), uniform target file (Einheitsobjektkartei -- EOK), the (Soviet) Ministry of Internal Affairs (Ministerstvo Vnutrennikh Del -- MVD), the Central Committee (Tsentral'nyy Komitet -- TsK), the Main Administration of Workers' Supply (Glavnoye Upravleniye Rabochego Snabzheniya -- Glavurs), the (Hungarian) Ministry of Heavy Industry (NIM), and SEK (Greek State Railroads). (See also Appendix B.) ORR reports use periods with abbreviations much less frequently than the GPO Style Manual.

* The GPO Style Manual also adequately covers the use of the apostrophe, which is properly an element in the spelling of words (see pp. 60-61), and the use of underlining to indicate italics (see Chapter 12, "Italic," pp. 161-162). The use of the hyphen in compound words is discussed in VI, 5, p. 54, below.

The use of abbreviations of technical terms often presents problems which are not covered by the GPO Style Manual. If the technical term is used frequently throughout the report or any part of the report, the parentheses device for full identification should be used the first time that the term appears, and thereafter the abbreviation alone should be used consistently -- for example, kilograms (kg), and thereafter, kg; kilowatt-hours (kwh), and thereafter, kwh; and gross national product (GNP), and thereafter, GNP. If the technical term appears only a few times in the report, or if it is a short word like hour, day, or mile, it should always be spelled out.

One notable exception to this policy of abbreviation is the use in the text of "T" for tons and "mt" or "MT" for metric tons, which is prohibited by practice. If tonnages are given in metric tons throughout the report, the full term metric tons (followed by an asterisk) should be used at the first reference, and the footnote should state: "Tonnages throughout this report are given in metric tons." Thereafter the word tons should be used consistently throughout the text, and in tables and tabulations the full term metric tons should be used (except that sometimes the abbreviations "mt" or "MT" or other abbreviations are used in tables to conserve space) (see 7, below, and Appendix A). If tonnages in a report are not all given in metric tons, provision must be made, either in a footnote or by consistent identification, for the clarification of each tonnage reference. For example, unless the term is otherwise identified, the footnote should state: "Tonnages throughout this report are given in metric tons unless otherwise indicated." This footnote will then cover any references to other types of tonnage, such as gross register tons (GRT) or standard displacement tons (SDT).

Certain Latin remnants should be scrupulously avoided, as follows: etc. (et cetera), i.e. (id est), e.g. (exempli gratia), cf. (confer), and viz. (videlicet).* The abbreviation etc. is obnoxious and can usually be replaced by the simple English phrases "and so on," "and the like," or "and so forth." Often it is preferable to avoid both etc. and an omnibus phrase by using a more definite but still inclusive phrase. For example, instead of writing "copper,

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* Occasionally, however, especially in the list of sources in the Source References appendix, ibid. (ibidem), op. cit. (opere citato or opus citatum), and et al. (et alii) are used. (See Appendix C.)

iron, tin, and the like," it would be better to write "copper, iron, tin, and other primary metals." The abbreviation i.e. means "that is," and the English phrase is preferable, just as "for example" or "for instance" is preferable to e.g. and "compare" to cf. (which never means "see"). The abbreviation viz. is even more obnoxious than etc. -- it is meaningless and as useless as its English equivalent "namely."

4. Signs and Symbols.

The GPO Style Manual (Chapter 13, "Signs and Symbols," pp. 163-166; see also pp. 154, 186, and 215) lists most of the signs and symbols used in scientific and technical work. Some of these signs and symbols have become standardized, but it is preferable not to use them in formal writing.

Signs and symbols should not appear in the text of a report except in mathematical and chemical formulas and equations, in geographic coordinates, and in other narrowly defined situations depending upon the context of the subject matter.* For example, the percent (%) and number (#) marks, the nongeographic degree symbol (°), the foot (') and inch (") symbols, and so on should not be used. The hyphen (-) should never be substituted for "to" or for "through" (except in dates) (see 6, below), the mathematical signs should not be substituted for the equivalent words, and the ratio (:) and proportion (::) symbols should be avoided. The dollar mark ($), however, may be used in referring to US dollars, the accepted form of which is US $.

5. Numerals.

Most reports of the Economic Research Area are concerned with quantities, measurements, and estimates. The problem of writing numbers and numbers in series is therefore important to analysts.

There is no universally accepted standard or practice in writing numerals. The standard or practice varies with the subject, the publisher, and the institution. For example, almost all publications in the field of engineering require that the comma be omitted

* For the practice in the use of signs and symbols in tables, see Appendix A.

in figures of four digits, but ORR reports require that the comma be used -- for example, 1,000, not 1000 (see 2, a, (6), p. 25, above). In the GPO Style Manual (Chapter 11, "Numerals," pp. 155-160; see also pp. 130 and 135) the practices in writing numerals are well defined, and most contingencies are provided for. (See Appendix A.)

6. Dates.

CIA has adopted military usage in the writing of dates. The only difference between military and "civilian" usage in the writing of dates is in the relative positions of the day number and the month name and the consequent omission in military usage of the comma before the year when a full date is used. Military usage, for example, calls for "17 March 1954," whereas civilian usage would call for "March 17, 1954." In almost all other respects the GPO Style Manual (pp. 130, 132, 146, 156, and 157) is an excellent guide for the use of dates. When it is necessary to abbreviate the names of the months, ORR reports also depart from the usage of the GPO Style Manual in respect to the months June, July, and September: Jun, not June; Jul, not July; and Sep, not Sept.

The writing of month and year dates is illustrated by the following examples: 1949, to indicate a single year; May 1949, to indicate a single month; May-June 1949 or May-September 1949, to indicate consecutive months; 1936-37 (but 1899-1900), to indicate 2 consecutive years; 1936-40 (but 1895-1910), to indicate more than 2 consecutive years; selected years, 1940-50, to indicate scattered years within a period; and 1895, 1900, and 1940-49, to indicate widely scattered years. Fiscal years, crop years, trade years, or averages of consecutive years should be presented as follows: 1945/46, not 1945-46. The type of year used, if other than a calendar year, should always be indicated.

7. Tables and Tabulations.

Tables and tabulations are basic devices used in statistical analysis to present significant data clearly and concisely. A table, with its title, should be completely self-explanatory. Properly constructed tables make possible logical presentation of data in a manner designed to facilitate comparisons and to emphasize specific relationships. One brief table may save the writer several pages of text and at the same time make it much easier for the reader to understand the data presented. The accompanying text should interpret the table, direct attention to important figures, or focus attention on significant comparisons and relationships but should not attempt to read the table for the reader.

The use of tables and tabulations, like the use of other extraverbal aids, should be governed by need and by the contribution made to the usefulness of the report. Tables should be introduced into the body of the report at logical points and should be referred to by number at these points. As stated previously, tabular material should be confined to an appendix whenever possible -- especially general-purpose tables designed to present original data for reference purposes or tables used in construction of other tables. Special-purpose tables which emphasize specific relationships, present selected materials, or summarize conclusions may be used in the body of the report but must be closely integrated with it.

Proper arrangement of the material in a table is basic to a ready comprehension of the data shown. For example, certain categories of information should be placed along the top (in the caption, or column headings) and other categories along the side (in the stub, or row headings) of the table. Direction of movement in the table should conform to conventional reading practices. For example, when categories suggest time sequence, they usually should be arranged to read from left to right or from top to bottom. (An exception to this practice occurs when the latest figures are of primary interest and it is desired to direct attention to these figures. In this situation the latest figure may be listed before the others and then separated from them by a double line.) Clear designation of the information should always be included. Confusion is often caused by uncertainty as to what the figures represent, what the terms mean, what the units of measurement are, and what periods of time are covered.*

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* For further discussion of tabular presentation, with examples, see Appendix A and also 8, below, especially Figure 1, following p. 36.

8. Footnotes and Documentation.

The primary responsibility for the form and accuracy of the mechanics for presenting footnotes and documentation rests with the analyst. He should strive to be as clear, as consistent, as complete, and as accurate with these details as with any other part of the report.

Footnotes and documentation in ORR reports should not be confused with each other. Footnotes in ORR reports are not a part of the documentation but are devices to provide information of supplemental value to the text. This footnote information may be comment, qualification, explanation, or guidance.

Documentation in ORR reports has two parts: source identifications and source references. Source identification numbers appear in the body of the report (and may appear in the appendixes), whereas the sources themselves are listed, with the corresponding source identification numbers, in the Source References appendix. Usually no source, classified or unclassified, is identified in the text.

Footnotes are of two kinds: text footnotes and table footnotes.

The footnote identification device in the text is the asterisk: a single asterisk (*) for the first footnote on a page, two asterisks (**) for the second, three (***) for the third, and so on through the page. The asterisk is placed after the word, phrase, clause, sentence, paragraph, heading, subheading, title, or other unit to which the footnote refers. The asterisk in the text follows a comma or period and precedes a semicolon or colon. The text footnotes themselves, bearing the number of asterisks corresponding to the identifications in the text, appear at the bottom of each page, separated from the text by a 15-space solid line. Rarely will more than 3 or 4 text footnotes be needed on one page. (Note the use of asterisks in lines 2, 3, and 34 of the sample page, Figure 1, following p. 36, and the corresponding footnotes at the bottom of the page.)

The footnote identification device in tables* is a lowercase letter within a half-box formed by an underscore and a diagonal: a/

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* See also Appendix A, especially Table 2, p. 89, below.

for the first footnote identification in a table, b/ for the second, c/ for the third, and so on through the table. The lowercase letter is placed after the title; caption (column headings); stub (row headings, or side entries); or other part of the table to which the footnote refers. Table footnote identifications are placed in order in the table, left to right, row by row -- not down and up, column by column. If the letters of the alphabet should be exhausted, the letters are repeated (aa/, bb/, cc/, and so on). The table footnotes themselves, bearing the lowercase letters corresponding to the identifications in the table, appear at the bottom of each table (whether or not it covers one page or more), separated from the tabular material by a solid line running the width of the table. The half-box is not used with the letter labels in footnotes -- the letters alone are used, followed by periods. (Note the use of lowercase letters in lines 9, 13, 14, 16, 17, and 18 of the sample page, Figure 1, following p. 36, and the corresponding footnotes at the bottom of the table.) Footnotes to tabulations within the text should be considered as text footnotes and treated accordingly. (Note the use of asterisks in line 34 of the sample page, Figure 1, following p. 36.)

The source identification device is an arabic numeral within a half-box formed by an underscore and a diagonal (1/, 2/, 3/, and so on) following the word, phrase, clause, sentence, paragraph, heading, subheading, title, or other unit involved, for the purpose of referring the reader to the documentary sources of information in the Source References appendix. The numeral within a half-box follows a comma or a period and precedes a semicolon or colon. (Compare lines 3 and 32 of the sample page, Figure 1, following p. 36.) The numeral should never be placed at the beginning of a line but should always follow the referenced item.

Source identification numbers are consecutive throughout the entire report into and through the appendixes. They do not begin anew on pages or in sections of the body of the report or in the first appendix or in subsequent appendixes. Each source identification number appears once in the body of the report and again in the Source References appendix as a label of identification. The summary need not contain source identification numbers, because all statements made therein may be documented elsewhere in the report.

Source identification numbers are never repeated in the report even though two or more identifications, whether consecutive or not, refer to the same source. If two or more sources are needed to support a statement, the proper procedure is not to use two or more source identification numbers but to use a single identification number and then list in the Source References appendix the several sources under a single corresponding number. (For example, source identification number 2 in line 19 on the sample page, Figure 1, following p. 36, may well refer to more than one source.) Often one source may be used to support more than one statement. (For example, source identification numbers 4, 5, 6, and 8 in lines 23, 24, 25, and 27, respectively, on the sample page may all refer to the same source.)

Source identification numbers should not appear in the table proper but only in the table footnotes. (See the table footnotes on the sample page, Figure 1, following p. 36.) All footnotes should be read at the time of the footnote identification, and source identification numbers should follow each other in the order in which the report is read. (See lines 32, 35, and 41 of the sample page, Figure 1, following p. 36. Note especially that the footnote in line 41 is read before line 35.)

A statement or other item in the text may be followed by both a footnote identification and a source identification. In that case the source identification usually applies to the statement or item itself and has no bearing on the footnote, but meaning and logic will always determine the relative position of the two. In most instances the asterisk should precede the arabic numeral in a half-box. The first source identification in every report should always be followed by an asterisk, and the corresponding footnote refers the reader to the last appendix in the report: "For serially numbered source references, see Appendix [capital letter]." (See lines 3 and 40 of the sample page, Figure 1, following p. 36.) The first footnote identification in every report should always follow the full title of the report on page 1, and the corresponding footnote, indicating the cutoff date of the report, should read as follows: "The estimates and conclusions contained in this [report, memorandum, or research aid] represent the best judgment of ORR as of [date]." (For further discussion of documentation, see Appendix C.)



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9. Foreign Words, Phrases, Names, and Terms.

Foreign words and phrases -- certainly those not yet made a part of the English language -- should be used sparingly. English has always "borrowed" extensively from other languages. Sometimes the borrowed words and phrases become completely anglicized, sometimes they become only partly so, and sometimes they remain alien in both appearance and sound. In general, words and phrases not completely adopted into English should be avoided if an English equivalent is in current use, but if such words and phrases are used in sentences, underlining (to indicate italics in printing) is required, as exemplified by the following list:

| | |
|---|---|
| ad nauseam | modus operandi |
| affaire d'honneur | mot juste |
| agent provocateur | mutatis mutandis |
| ancien regime | nolo contendere |
| Anschluss | nom de guerre |
| carte blanche | nota bene |
| cause célèbre | par excellence |
| coup d'état | pari passu |
| émigré | per se |
| en passant | persona non grata |
| ex parte | raison d'être |
| expertise | reductio ad absurdum |
| franc-tireur | sic |
| hoi polloi | sine die |
| idée fixe | sine qua non |
| inter alia | sotto voce |
| ipso facto | sui generis |
| lettre de change | vraisemblance |
| literatim | Weltschmerz |
| magnum opus | Zeitgeist |

Underlining is not required, however, as exemplified by the following list, for words and phrases completely naturalized:

| | |
|---|---|
| abatis | chargé d'affaires |
| ad hoc | cheval-de-frise |
| ad infinitum | communiqué |
| ad lib | corrigenda |
| apropos | de facto |
| blitzkrieg | en route |
| bona fide | errata |
| bon mot | ersatz |

# Figure 1

## Sample Page Illustrating the Use of Footnotes and Source Identifications

The number of wage earners employed in Slobovia can be estimated with some precision.* In 1950 there were about 8,900 wage earners at boiler plants in Slobovia,** compared with about 5,700 in 1940. 1/*** Labor productivity and the estimated number of wage earners at boiler plants in Slobovia for selected years, 1940-50, and the 1955 Plan are shown in Table 1.

/Sample Table/

Table 1.

Labor Productivity and Estimated Number of Wage Earners at Boiler Plants in Slobovia a/
Selected Years, 1940-50, and 1955 Plan

| Year | Production of Boilers (Metric Tons) | Production per Worker (Metric Tons) | Number of Workers b/ |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1940 c/ | 1,234,500 | 217.4 d/ | 5,678 e/ |
| 1945 | 2,345,600 | 345.5 | 6,789 |
| 1949 | 3,456,700 f/ | 438.1 | 7,890 g/ |
| 1950 | 4,567,800 f/ | 513.2 h/ | 8,901 i/ |
| 1955 Plan | 5,678,900 | 630.1 j/ | 9,012 |

a. 2/
b. Between the ages of 18 and 65.
c. Eleven months only.
d. Computed on average monthly production. 3/
e. 4/
f. 5/
g. 6/
h. Computed from weekly report figures. 7/
i. 8/
j. Increased 12 percent over 1950. 9/

Boilermakers receive the highest earnings in the Slobovian national economy. The monthly average earnings of a boilermaker in Slobovia in 1950 were 1,234 rubles. A breakdown of Slobovian boilermakers by type of worker and average monthly earnings in 1950 is as follows 10/:

/Sample Tabulation/

| Type of Worker | Rubles per Month |
|---|---|
| Cutters**** | 890 |
| Benders | 901 12/ |
| Welders | 1,234 |
| Finishers | 2,345 |

* For methodology, see Appendix F.
** For a detailed list of Slobovian boiler plants, see Appendix A.
*** For serially numbered source references, see Appendix H.
**** There is an oversupply of cutters in Slobovia. 11/

| | |
|---|---|
| esprit de corps | nom de plume |
| exposé | non sequitur |
| flak | per capita |
| incognito | prima facie |
| in absentia | pro forma |
| junker | rapport |
| kriegspiel | schnorkel |
| mandamus | status quo |
| mélange | verbatim |
| nol-pros | vice versa |

Many words and phrases, as exemplified by the list below, have become only partly anglicized, and the writer is often in doubt as to how to treat them. The only safe rule to follow when in doubt is to underline. The writer's choice is purely a matter of accepted usage.

| | |
|---|---|
| aide-de-camp | hara-kiri |
| a posteriori | in toto |
| a priori | kamikaze |
| ex post facto | laissez faire |
| fait accompli | quid pro quo |
| faux pas | savoir-faire |

In addition to foreign words and phrases which have been absorbed into the English language or whose meaning is understood, ORR reports frequently include names and terms from foreign languages, including the names of persons, places, plants, and organizations and terms designating commodities, processes, types, and practices. These names and terms either have not been absorbed into the English language or, although absorbed, remain foreign to unspecialized readers and frequently must be defined. These names and terms must be correct in spelling and application, and the responsibility for accuracy rests with the analyst.

The sources with which the analyst works supply the foreign names and terms, and accurate copying may seem to be the limit of the analyst's responsibility. Because the sources cannot always be relied upon, however, and because they are often wrong, these names and terms should be checked in the proper dictionaries. For further discussion of the proper use of foreign words, phrases, names, and terms, particularly Russian, see Appendix B (see also 3, p. 28, above).

The natural tendency is to use maps as final authorities for place names. Care must be exercised, however, in the use of maps. Although cartographers are extremely careful, maps are not intended to be gazetteers and should not be used as such. Place names change faster than maps, and what was Beriagrad on last year's map may now be Khrushchevsk. Because several different readings of the same place name may appear, all place names should be checked with the appropriate NIS Gazetteer. (See Appendix B, Section 5.)

The Soviet and Satellite systems of governmental and economic agencies and controls change in terminology from time to time, and reports must keep up with the changes. Misspelling, particularly of words in foreign languages, creates "ghost" words that are frequently unidentifiable, and some plant and place names may be so nearly like other plant and place names that a single misplaced letter may produce a serious substantive error. The CIA Industrial Register will serve as the final authority on plant names, as will the CIA Biographic Register on names of persons.

10. Graphics.

Graphics as used in the reports of the Economic Research Area include maps, photographs, charts, graphs,* schematic diagrams, flow-sheets, drawings, sketches, and any other illustrations that serve a purpose which cannot be adequately served by verbal exposition alone. Tables and tabulations are not usually considered to be graphics.

Mention has already been made of the function and the effective use of graphics (see I, 2, h, p. 9, above). Graphics should not be used merely as devices to embellish the report. Nor is the initial determination of the need for graphics necessarily final. When a project is initiated, graphics may not seem to be needed, but as the research progresses and the report begins to take form, it may become apparent that some graphics are necessary to the effectiveness of the finished report. It may also happen that graphics which

* Graphing is a useful analytical tool and should be employed whenever productive, even though the graphs may not be included in the final report.

initially seemed necessary no longer seem necessary in the finished report. Insofar as graphics are concerned, the analyst should not feel bound by the terms of the project action memorandum issued by the Planning and Review Staff (St/PR).

Once the need for graphics is determined, the analyst of the Economic Research Area should consult St/PB, which will, if necessary, arrange for an initial contact with the Cartography Division (D/GC) of the Geographic Research Area, where the requirement can be discussed in detail. The analyst must at that time indicate clearly what the purpose is and how he believes it can be achieved.

A basic principle governing the use of graphics is "Don't show too much at one time." Graphic material will lose its effectiveness if it attempts to do too much. For example, a flowsheet illustrating the beneficiation of taconite ores probably will be useless to a nontechnical reader if it attempts to show all the details of the process. Likewise the effectiveness of a map designed to show the location of mineral deposits in a certain area will be impaired if the map includes unnecessary geographic and topographic details of the area. Only such basic geographic data as help to orient the reader are required in addition to the substantive data that are to be featured.

All graphics must have titles. In selecting the title the analyst should be consistent and exact in phraseology and should recommend as short a title as possible to the person in D/GC. All graphics should be specifically introduced or referred to in the body of the report and numbered consecutively (Figure 1, Figure 2, and so on) in the order in which they appear. The reader should never be left in doubt as to what the graphic material means, what it illustrates, or when the analyst wishes the reader to consult it.

The titles of all graphics in reports of the Economic Research Area are entered as the last section in the table of contents. If the graphics are all maps or all photographs, the section is labeled "Maps" or "Photographs," respectively. If the graphics are all charts (which include graphs, schematic diagrams, flowsheets, and so on), the section is labeled "Charts." If the graphics are of two or more types, the section is labeled "Illustrations."

The final form of graphics used in ORR reports is determined by the members of D/GC, and the analyst should consult them before and during his determination of the general design of his graphic material. Initiation of and final arrangements for graphics to be used in the reports of the Economic Research Area are made through St/PB.

11. Technical Terminology.

Technical terminology involves words and expressions peculiar to a particular trade, profession, science, art, or occupation. Sometimes a technical term finds its way into popular speech, but the analyst should always assume that even the highly intelligent reader will need definitions of some of the technical language in a report. The analyst might justifiably assume that all of his readers would understand the meaning of automation and even of beneficiation of ore, but he could not safely assume that his readers would understand the meaning of such terms as heavy-media separation, wilfley table, and pelletization without definitions of these terms, either in the text or in a footnote, at the time that they are first used. The argument of a report often hinges on both the proper use and the understanding of such technical terms.

The analyst should use technical terminology to increase the knowledge of his reader rather than to display his own erudition. The terms penicillin and plutonium, for example, must be used if those products are being discussed, for there are no suitable synonyms. The use of the term comminution to mean "crushing" or "grinding," however, is an inexcusable substitution of the technical term for a familiar word which is equally accurate and more descriptive.

There are two basic rules governing the use of technical terminology in reports: the terminology must be accurate, and it must be consistent in form. Accuracy can be achieved more easily than consistency. Accuracy is a matter of substance. Consistency is a matter of leveling.

Few reports can avoid the use of such esoteric terms as gross freight-ton-kilometers, heavy-media separation, man-hours-per-unit analysis, room-and-pillar method, and two-high mill. Technical terminology, properly defined when necessary, is often more effective than monosyllabic circumlocution. The need for definition is a matter of judgment and usually can be determined by the joint effort of the analyst and the editor. The editor should be a good judge of what terms need defining, and the analyst should be the better judge of the accuracy of the definition.

Lack of consistency in technical terminology is often not apparent to the writer. If, for example, the analyst uses the phrase "Slobovian steel industry" on one page and changes it to "the steel industry of Slobovia" on the next, there is little likelihood that any misunderstanding will result. But if he uses secondary metal and scrap interchangeably, the reader may become puzzled or misled. To avoid the possibility of misunderstanding, therefore, the analyst should strive for complete consistency in terminology. He may or may not use "the steel industry of Slobovia" throughout the report (though the prepositional phrase is better form than is the adjectival use of the proper noun), but he must not use secondary metal and scrap to designate the same thing. A change in terminology should always signify a change in meaning. (See also VI, 8, p. 75, below, and Appendix B.)

The consistent use of the same technical word or phrase throughout the report naturally raises the question of repetition. The best answer to that question is that repetition, when there is a reason for it, is not bad and need not be avoided. Synonyms are a luxury in the language, and like other luxuries they often have a weakening effect.

## VI. Some Writing Problems and Pitfalls.

Although it is not the purpose of this research aid to give a detailed analysis of grammar, syntax, and rhetoric, a discussion of a few of the more common problems and pitfalls encountered in writing may be of practical value to the analyst. For those who wish to review more completely the fundamentals of writing, a number of excellent reference works are available. A few books on the writing of technical reports are listed in Appendix E.

1. Style and Levels of Language.

a. Style.

The concept of style in writing is often confusing. Style may be a term applied critically to the rhetorical techniques, mannerisms, and peculiarities of an author, or it may be a term applied to a body of standards, rules, and regulations governing the mechanics of writing and typography. It is in the latter sense that the term is used in the GPO Style Manual and is applicable to ORR reports.

At times the GPO Style Manual and the dictionary may seem to conflict, but actually they complement each other. The GPO Style Manual serves essentially as an authority on style and the mechanics of writing (see V, p. 19, above) and also to a limited extent on spelling and usage. The dictionary likewise serves as an authority on spelling and usage and also on meaning (see V, p. 19, above). In addition, the dictionary is a historical record of the words in the language and of how they are spelled, pronounced, divided into syllables, and used idiomatically. Variant spellings and pronunciations reflect the historical development of the language. The spelling or pronunciation given first in the dictionary is not necessarily preferable but is merely more often used than that given second. The dictionary is often cited as authority for departing from the standards of formal usage, but the analyst should never appeal to the dictionary as an excuse for introducing the unusual.

b. Levels of Language.

Another confusing concept in the writing of reports is levels of language. In both speaking and writing there are two levels of language -- formal and informal. Within each level there are several gradients, and there is no clear line of demarcation between the levels. For the purpose of this discussion, however, a distinction can be made.

The formal level of language is that on which the language follows strictly the formal rules of grammar and syntax. The use of language on the formal level is conservative, observing long-established rules and practices which are generally accepted as being "correct," even though departures from them are widely recognized and used. Contractions, colloquialisms, and provincialisms are rare; anglicisms, archaisms, improprieties, slang, and vulgarisms must never appear; and the idiom must always be correct. The tone of formal language is impersonal, and the writer maintains between himself and the reader a definitely formal relationship.

The informal level of language maintains a personal approach, a first-name relationship between the writer and the reader. The informal is no less "correct" than the formal. Contractions, colloquialisms, and provincialisms are common, and anglicisms, archaisms, and slang are often used without the apology of quotation marks.

The language of ORR reports is formal. Because ORR reports are designed to serve different purposes and different types of readers, informality of approach would not be appropriate. The very nature of formal reports calls for anonymity of authorship, an anonymity which can be preserved only on the formal level of language.

The writer of ORR reports must therefore strive not only for standard usage but also for current, idiomatic, reputable, exact, and appropriate usage. Standard usage means using words that are national -- that is, words that are understood in all sections of the country -- and avoiding provincialisms, unnaturalized foreign words and expressions (see V, 9, p. 36, above, and Appendix B), inexact or excessive technical terminology (see V, 11, p. 40, above), and anglicisms. Current, or present-day, usage means using words that are intelligible today and avoiding archaisms. Idiomatic usage means using words and expressions that are in accord with English idiom. Reputable usage means avoiding the use of improprieties, colloquialisms, slang, and vulgarisms. Exact usage means using words and expressions that are precise, specific, and concrete rather than vague, general, and abstract -- and avoiding trite, or hackneyed, expressions; harsh or unpleasant combinations of sound; and needless repetition. Appropriate usage means using words and expressions that are suitable not only to the subject but also to the occasion and to the audience for whom the analyst is writing -- words and expressions that are proper from the point of view of both denotation (or literal meaning) and connotation (or suggested meaning). For example, the word home is not the same as the word house, but either may be appropriate to the context, and the words contempt and insult are safer for most contexts than contumely.

Various categories of words and phrases that should not appear in ORR reports are listed below. In the case of idioms the correct expression is indicated.

(1) Provincialisms.

Provincialisms, or localisms, are words and expressions peculiar to one part of the country. The careful writer will not use allow for think, suppose, or expect; calculate for think, expect, or plan; guess, reckon, suspect, or expect for think or suppose; gather for think, suppose, or conclude; claim for say, assert, or maintain; recollect for remember; treacle for syrup or molasses; and wheel for bicycle. Note that provincialisms sometimes may become colloquialisms (see (6), p. 47, below) and once may have been vulgarisms (see (8), p. 48, below).

(2) Anglicisms.

Anglicisms are words and expressions peculiar to British English. During and since World Wars I and II the British and the Americans have interchanged many words and expressions, especially in combined staff functions. Increased travel and ease of communication have brought about further similarities between the two major branches of English, not to mention the contribution of Canadians, Australians, and New Zealanders to English as the lingua franca of the modern world. British English is more conservative and more traditionally "correct"; American English tends to indulge in more coinages and borrowings and to flaunt the rules in favor of more color and vigor and tends to be less "correct." American writers of reports, who frequently draw upon British sources, should remember that there are more resemblances than differences between the two forms of English, but they should follow American usage whenever possible, particularly in the choice of technical terms, where the differences are more pronounced. No serious damage will be done if shop is used for store, preference stock for preferred stock, van for covered truck, motor car for automobile, or gear-box for transmission, but petrol or motor spirit for gasoline, lift for elevator, cistern wagon for tank car, wireless for radio, or whilst for while are as affected and as much out of place in American writing as is a strange accent, supposed to be British, in American speech. And if paraffin is used for kerosine or coal oil, hoarding for bill-board, metalled for paved (road), verge for shoulder (of a road), or permanent way for fixed line facilities (of a railroad), the writing becomes incomprehensible to an American audience.

(3) Archaisms.

Archaisms are old-fashioned words and words which once were current but which now are not in general use. Such words are also called obsolete. Some words have become completely obsolete, many are obsolescent, others have lost earlier meanings, and still others have changed completely in meaning. Some archaic words survive only in poetic usage. A few examples of archaic words are listed below:

| | |
|---|---|
| albeit | must needs |
| amid | oftentime |
| amongst | olden |
| anent | peradventure |
| betimes | perchance |
| betwixt | plaint |
| bounden | quoth |
| deem | selfsame |
| erstwhile | tarry |
| fain | to wit |
| in fine | yesteryear |
| morn | weal |
| meet (fitting) | wont |

Some archaic words, however, have survived in set expressions that are in standard usage, such as much ado, stand in good stead, for the nonce, the twain, wherein, and whereupon.

(4) Idioms.

Idioms are expressions peculiar to a language -- expressions that are acceptable even though they may seem to violate the rules of grammar. The surest test of a person's mastery of a language is his use of idioms, which can seldom be translated literally into another language. Observe the following lists, and note especially how much trouble is caused by prepositions:

| Unidiomatic | Idiomatic |
|---|---|
| accord to | accord with |
| acquitted from | acquitted of |
| adverse against | adverse to |
| aim at proving | aim to prove |
| all the farther | as far as |
| among one another | among themselves |
| as regards to | as regards |
| authority about | authority on |
| center about | center on |
| center around | center on |
| comply to | comply with |
| doubt if | doubt whether |
| equally as good | equally good |
| free of | free from |
| identical to | identical with |
| in accordance to | in accordance with |
| independent from | independent of |
| inferior than | inferior to |
| in regards to | in regard to |
| in search for | in search of |
| lest it becomes | lest it become |
| out loud | aloud |
| plan on staying | plan to stay |
| providing | provided |
| superior than | superior to |
| to home | at home |
| treat on | treat of |
| unmindful about | unmindful of |

(5) Improprieties.

Improprieties include errors in grammar and errors resulting from the confusion of one word with another. A common error in grammar is caused by a misunderstanding of both the meaning and the structure of the strong verb sit (sit, sat, sat) and the irregular weak verb set (set, set, set); the strong verb lie (lie, lay, lain) and the irregular weak verb lay (lay, laid, laid); and even the strong verb fly (fly, flew, flown) and the irregular weak verb flee (flee, fled, fled). A safe rule to follow in avoiding another type of error resulting from the confusion of one word with another is not to interchange the accepted parts of speech until such transference has become sanctioned by good usage -- for example, write to lend (not to loan) and to suspect (not to suspicion). Improprieties also sometimes result from confusion of meaning alone, such as to raise for to rear or to learn for to teach, but more often from failure to distinguish between words alike or similar in sound but different in meaning, such as capital and capitol, council and counsel, and ingenious and ingenuous. (See other examples in 7, p. 61, below.)

(6) Colloquialisms.

Colloquialisms (which include contractions and some abbreviations) are conversational or informal expressions which are appropriate to informal writing but which should be avoided in formal writing except to reproduce actual speech. A few colloquialisms that sometimes slip into formal writing are listed below:

| | |
|---|---|
| alongside of | get away with |
| a lot of | go in for |
| any place (anywhere) | gumption |
| auto | have got to |
| bamboozle | hotfoot |
| cannot help but | hunch |
| do in | inside of |
| every place (everywhere) | kind of |
| every which way | know-how |
| funny (queer, odd) | lots of |

mighty (very)
muchly
nowhere near
off of
outside of
overly
posted (informed, well informed)
quite a few
real good
show up
some place (somewhere)
sort of
still not yet
take it easy
this far
this much
thusly
whopper

Note that colloquialisms once may have been provincialisms (see (1), p. 44, above) or vulgarisms (see (8), below).

(7) Slang.

Slang is almost a language unto itself comprising certain widely current but usually ephemeral words and expressions which are coined or which are used in special senses and have a forced or grotesque meaning. Last year's slang is usually antiquated today, and the careful writer will avoid corrupting his writing by resorting to it. Such words as cab, chiseler, blurb, bunk, gimmick, high-brow, jinx, low-brow, mob, and sham may have found their way into respectable use, but many other words and expressions that are used informally have not, such as beef it up, egghead, go-getter, hoosegow, hornswoggle, nifty, nitwit, phony, plug (for commercial talk), take the rap, and shebang.

(8) Vulgarisms.

Vulgarisms are words and expressions (sometimes called barbarisms) used by some uneducated people. The careful writer hardly needs to be warned against the use of irregardless, nohow, could not hardly, howsomever, still and all, in back of, anyways, anywheres, everywheres, every so often, and every since. Note that vulgarisms sometimes may become provincialisms (see (1), p. 44, above) or colloquialisms (see (6), p. 47, above).

2. Objectivity.

The formal level of language in ORR reports contributes to objectivity in the presentation of the subject. Objectivity is closely related to impersonality and anonymity of authorship, but it is not the same. Objectivity is the ability to observe, evaluate, and present facts and their significance without reference to personal preferences, prejudices, or convictions. Objectivity applies to both manner and matter.

In every good report the analyst includes considerable material which is the product of judgment and interpretation. The analyst should be careful, however, to attribute the product to the facts upon which the judgments and interpretations are based. The analyst's process of evaluation, the intermediate step between evidence and conclusion, is omitted. The report should not say, "These data, upon interpretation and evaluation by the analyst, yield the conclusion that ... ." Rather, the report should say, "These data show that ... ." In maintaining objectivity, the analyst should remember that once the ORR report leaves the office of origin and goes into intelligence channels, it becomes an "institutional" publication. It is no longer identified with a specific writer, and its analyses, judgments, and conclusions become those of CIA.

3. <u>Active and Passive Voice</u>.

Writers of reports often use the passive voice to achieve objectivity. If the analyst cannot say, "The writer concluded on the basis of these data ... ," the natural alternative is "It can be concluded on the basis of these data ... ." There is nothing wrong with the passive voice. The passive voice is effective if it is used as needed, but it becomes objectionable if used as an evasive measure.

A weakness resulting from the use of the passive voice is wordiness. For example, "It can be concluded on the basis of these data ..." means no more than "These data show ... ." "Twenty thousand machines were produced by this plant" uses more words than "This plant produced 20,000 machines" but says no more.

Another weakness resulting from the use of the passive voice is its vulnerability to confused reference. The passive voice usually employs more pronouns than the active voice, particularly pronouns of the dummy-subject type. For example, the pronoun in "It can be concluded ..." has no antecedent and is not the real subject of the sentence. The pronoun it in this sentence is a dummy, thrown in as a mere mechanical device. The that clause (understood) which would logically follow the verb is the real subject of the sentence and might be considered the postantecedent of the pronoun it.

Still another weakness resulting from the use of the passive voice is the frequent recurrence of the wandering which clause. For example, one of the preceding illustrations might be expanded to "Twenty thousand machines were produced by this plant, which constituted the entire national production during that year." But while the sentence is being read, the which seems to refer to plant. When the sentence is finished, the antecedent of which becomes machines -- unless, of course, the writer misused constituted. If the sentence reads, "This plant produced 20,000 machines, which ... ," there is no question of antecedent or usage.

The active voice is preferable to the passive voice when a choice is possible. The active voice is more direct, more economical, and less liable to misunderstanding. The best rule to follow is to use the active voice unless conversion to the passive voice will add to clearness or avoid awkward phrasing. Although this rule leaves much to the judgment of the writer, it will serve to counteract the tendency toward overuse of the passive voice. At the same time, the ORR analyst can hardly avoid the occasional use of such phrases as "It is estimated that ..." or "Production is estimated at .... ," because he is forbidden by impersonality and anonymity of authorship to use pronouns of the first person.

4. Sentences and Paragraphs.

The major problems which confront the writer of reports in the construction of sentences and paragraphs are those involving length. Most writers are aware that sentences must not be too "simple," and in the avoidance of that fault they sometimes lean too far in the opposite direction. Likewise, writers understand that a paragraph is supposed to be a unit of subject matter, and they are reluctant to end a paragraph for fear of failing to include the whole unit. The tendency is to use too many overlong sentences and paragraphs.

Sentences which are overlong are not effective. The purpose of a sentence is to convey to the reader a complete and unified piece of information of immediate significance. The piece of information may be small, but it must be integral. A sentence may be compared to a section of a jigsaw puzzle. The section is only a fractional part of the whole, but it has a definite shape and size and can be treated as a unit. Unity rather than number of words should determine the length of a sentence, and the flaws which result in lack of unity produce overlong sentences. Most of these flaws result from overloading sentence structure with and, but, so, and then and from hitching long phrases and clauses to a sentence that has logically ended.

Overloading sentence structure destroys the unity of a sentence by crowding into the sentence more than can be conveyed or comprehended as a single piece of information or by combining dissimilar or noncoordinate elements. For example, the following wholly grammatical sentence commits both of these faults: "Copper is mined by the open-pit method, and then it is moved to surface level by diesel electric locomotives, but from there the ore is transported by belt conveyors to the loading docks, and these docks are owned by the Slobov Shipping Combine, so actual shipments from the mine are controlled by the shipping combine." Not only is there much more information in this sentence than can be comprehended as a unit, but also there are three separate significant elements. The material might be better expressed in three sentences, as follows: "Copper ore is mined by the open-pit method. Diesel electric locomotives move the ore to surface level, from where belt conveyors carry it to the loading docks. The Slobov Shipping Combine owns these docks and consequently controls the actual shipments of ore from the mine." (In retrospect, note that in the revised passage only 1 of the 5 uses of the passive voice in the original is retained.)

The flaw which results from hitching long phrases and clauses to a sentence that has logically ended often takes the form of trailing phrases introduced by thus or thereby: "In Siberia the weather is very cold in winter, thus requiring more heat for workers, thereby reducing available fuel for production." This flaw may also take the form of the house-that-Jack-built fault, or overlapping dependence: "The machines are made in a factory which is on the bank of a river which is used to generate the power which is used in the factory." Although neither sentence is too long in number of words, both are too long in terms of unity of content and should be recast.

Setting a categorical word limit to the length of sentences is both difficult and unwise, but a general policy may be suggested. Most sentences should contain fewer than 30 words, many should contain fewer than 20, and some should contain only 8 or 10.

The textbooks on rhetoric place considerable stress on variety of length and structure of sentences, but the writer of reports need not strive laboriously for variety. A degree of variety is a natural product of clear exposition.

Many of the basic principles governing the length of the sentence also apply to the length of the paragraph. A paragraph is a unit in itself -- a unified block of integrated fragments dealing with a single theme. A paragraph, like a sentence, may be compared to a section of a jigsaw puzzle composed of several individual pieces tightly fitted together. Again, unity rather than word count is the best criterion. The purpose of the paragraph is to present to the reader a block, or section, of information. The paragraph indentation is more than a mechanical device to provide a brief resting period in the reading process -- it is a sign to let the reader know that a unit of information, digestible as a unit, has been completed and that another unit is about to begin.

The amount of information which constitutes a paragraph unit will depend upon the detail in which the subject is being discussed. The following paragraph, for example, is a complete unit, but a more detailed study of the subject might require a dozen paragraphs to develop the same material:

"The airport has 3 concrete runways, each 6,000 feet long and 150 feet wide; 1 turf runway 4,000 by 150 feet; and 15,000 feet of concrete taxiway 50 feet wide. An additional concrete runway will be available when construction now in process is completed. This construction includes, in addition to the new runway, buildings for research and administration and hangars for the storage and maintenance of commercial and military flight equipment."

Analysis of unity in paragraphs will provide the best clues in detecting excessive length. Paragraphs of more than 300 words are too long, and most paragraphs should contain fewer than 200 words.

Paragraphs which are too short may also violate the principle of unity. Although one-sentence paragraphs may be written, the development of a unit of material will usually require more than one sentence.

Careful scrutiny of one-sentence paragraphs will determine whether or not the paragraph has unity. Perhaps it is a fragment which should be fitted into the preceding or the following paragraph, or perhaps it is an idea which needs further development.

Along with unity, coherence is another quality necessary to good, clear exposition. Applied to writing, coherence retains its literal meaning -- "a sticking together," or cohesion. Coherence in writing is that quality of clear interrelationship of the thoughts expressed which permits immediate and complete understanding. Reduced to the level of practical application, coherence means simply that sentences within a paragraph must stick together. The reader must be led from one sentence to another and from one paragraph to another without being expected to jump gaps or to build his own bridges.

Coherence in sentences usually presents no great problem. In the normal process of writing, the cohesive elements will be supplied without too much conscious effort on the part of the writer. These cohesive elements consist largely of pronouns, repetitions, and other transitional words and phrases. The preceding sentence, for example, contains a cohesive pronominal adjective, "these," and a repeated phrase, "cohesive elements"; this sentence contains a transitional phrase, "for example." Other common transitional words and phrases are <u>however</u>, <u>therefore</u>, <u>thus</u>, <u>hence</u>, <u>for instance</u>, <u>furthermore</u>, <u>moreover</u>, <u>in addition</u>, <u>consequently</u>, <u>on the contrary</u>, and other conjunctive adverbs.

The writer must exert considerably more conscious effort in achieving coherence in paragraphs than he exerts in achieving coherence in sentences. The writer often tends to go from one paragraph unit to another without providing the cohesive element necessary to bridge the gap between units. The useful transitional devices are the same -- pronouns, repetitions, and other transitional words and phrases. Note, for example, that this paragraph begins with a near repetition of the beginning of the preceding paragraph and that the first sentence of this paragraph repeats the phrase "conscious effort" used in the second sentence of the preceding paragraph.

At times, these simple transitional devices may not be enough to achieve the degree of coherence necessary for clear exposition. Such situations may occur when one phase of a subject has been completed and another, quite different phase is to be begun. In most reports the gap will be at least partially bridged by headings or subheadings, but frequently these labels are not present, and they should not be relied upon even if they are present.

Consequently, the writer must have at his command some bridge-building equipment. In constructing paragraphs he must be able to supply cohesive elements of a somewhat more complex nature than transitional words and phrases.

These complex cohesive elements are transitional sentences and paragraphs. An example of a transitional sentence is provided by the first sentence of the preceding paragraph, beginning "Consequently." This sentence links the idea of "bridgebuilding" to the idea of coherence. The paragraph begun by the example of a transitional sentence is itself an example of a transitional paragraph, linking the idea of simple transitional devices discussed in earlier paragraphs with the idea of complex cohesive elements discussed in this paragraph.

The transitional sentence may also serve as the topic sentence -- the sentence which expresses the central idea of the paragraph. Every paragraph should have a topic sentence. Although the topic sentence may be found anywhere in the paragraph, it is most effective as the opening sentence -- which should always be made independent of any heading or subheading.

All the elements of a report, having been unified and having attained coherence, must be arranged logically and so placed that the writer achieves the emphasis which he desires. Emphasis gives prominence to those words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs to be stressed. Growing naturally out of the preceding paragraph or paragraphs, the ideal paragraph reflects unity, coherence, order, transition, and proper emphasis and conveys to the reader the natural, logical growth of the paragraph idea.

A more detailed study of the rhetorical principles and structural problems involved in writing sentences and paragraphs would be helpful to ORR analysts. Several of the books listed in Appendix E provide the material for such a study.

5. Compounding.

Compounding is the process of combining two or more words to express a unit idea which cannot be expressed so well by individual words in sequence. This combining may be done by writing the words solid, with no space between, or by joining the words with hyphens.*

The GPO Style Manual lists and illustrates almost 50 separate general rules governing compounding (Chapter 6, "Compound Words," pp. 63-69) and also supplies a "Guide to Compounding" (Chapter 7, pp. 71-120). This considerable body of information would seem to settle almost every conceivable question about compounding. But because there are so many exceptions to the rules and so many deviations from the practices, the writer must often rely upon his own good sense for a solution to a particular problem of compounding.

Probably the most common problem involving compounds is that which arises when two or more modifying words immediately precede the word that they modify. The first part of the question is whether or not the words constitute a unit modifier, and the second part is what to do with them if they do. The first part of the question can be answered by a rule-of-thumb application.

If the modifiers are coordinate -- that is, if each could logically serve as a single modifier -- they do not constitute a unit modifier. For example, in "short, swift streams" the adjectives are coordinate; either short or swift alone could logically modify streams. In "40-horsepower engine," however, neither 40 nor horsepower could logically serve as a single modifier, and in a "carefully prepared report" only the second word could modify report. In these examples the first phrase does not contain a unit modifier, and the other two phrases do.

That part of the question which concerns what should be done if words constitute a unit modifier cannot be answered by a blanket rule. The best way to answer the question is to examine some of the major rules applicable to the compounding of unit modifiers.

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* The use of the hyphen as a line-end division to indicate the continuation of a word is fundamentally a problem of proper syllabification. Both the GPO Style Manual and the dictionary provide guides for word division. In addition, Word Division, fifth edition, October 1952, a pocket-size supplement to the GPO Style Manual -- which lists more than 20,000 words most commonly used -- should be helpful to the typist. The principle for the typist to follow is the avoidance of any kind of word break at ends of lines that interferes with ease and continuity in reading.

a. Words combined to form a unit modifier immediately preceding the word or words modified are usually hyphenated:

40-horsepower engine
blue-green clay
fire-tested material
national-defense appropriation
2-inch-diameter pipe
fine-grained sandstone
well-defined line
drought-stricken area
2-inch pipe
4-percent increase

b. The hyphen is not used in a two-word unit modifier if the first word is an adverb ending in "ly":

heavily laden ship
recently designed plan
carefully prepared report
frequently mentioned policy

c. The hyphen is not used in a three-word unit modifier if the first word is an adverb that modifies the second word:

unusually well preserved specimen
very well defined line
longer than usual period
fairly well known person

If, however, the first word of a three-word unit modifier modifies the other two, the hyphen is used between those two:

a nearly right-angle bend
thoroughly dirt-impregnated material
a formerly well-known person
a virtually self-educated man

d. The hyphen is not used in a two-word unit modifier if the first word is a comparative or a superlative:

higher level decision (but high-level decision)
best liked books (but well-liked books)
lower income group (but low-income group)
highest priced model (but high-priced model)

e. The hyphen is not used in a unit modifier which is a predicate adjective:

The effects were far reaching. (but far-reaching effects and The effects were far-reaching ones.)
The shale was oil bearing. (but oil-bearing shale)
The area is drought stricken. (but drought-stricken area and The area is a drought-stricken one.)
The paper is fine grained. (but fine-grained paper and The paper is of fine-grained stock.)

If, however, the unit modifier follows and reads back to the word or words modified -- as frequently occurs in listing and tabulation -- the hyphen is used:

1 motor, alternating-current, 3-phase, 60-cycle, 115-volt
2 belts, 2-inch and 1-1/2-inch

f. The hyphen is not used between proper nouns used as a unit modifier, in either their basic or derived form:

Latin American countries
US laws
North Dakota oil
World War II period

The hyphen is used, however, if the proper noun is normally a combined form:

Afro-American program
French-English descent
Franco-Prussian War
Moscow-Prague axis

In unit modifiers made up of two or more unit modifiers composed of proper nouns, whether or not normally combined forms are included, the hyphen is used between the parts but is spaced for clearness:

North American - South American sphere
Novosibirsk - Anzhero-Sudzhensk area
Alma-Ata - Frunze sector
Ulan-Ude - Chita - Ulan-Bator triangle

g. The hyphen is not used in a unit modifier composed of chemical terms:

carbon monoxide poisoning
iron carbonate water
sodium chloride solution
ethyl alcohol content

This rule does not apply to all scientific and technical terminology. The hyphenation of petrographic terms, for example, depends upon the technical classification of the terms used.

The seven rules given above are the major rules affecting the use of compounds as unit modifiers. Following are some of the more frequently applicable rules governing compounds in other usages:

a. Prefixes (except ex, self, quasi, and vice) and suffixes (except elect) are not usually hyphenated when forming a compound:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| antedate | isometric | multicolor |
| antiaircraft | hydroelectric | turbogenerator |
| biweekly | semiofficial | postscript |
| cooperate | subcommittee | unofficial |
| partnership | microphone | transship |
| self-control | twentyfold | outlet |
| lifelike | nonferrous | clockwise |
| counterintelligence | northward | quasi-academic |
| president-elect | vice-president-elect | ex-vice-president |

b. The hyphen is used with prefixes when forming compounds if mispronunciation or misunderstanding is possible without the hyphen:

| | |
|---|---|
| re-cover (cover again) | re-treat (treat again) |
| re-form (form again) | co-op (but cooperative) |
| mid-ice | un-ionized |

c. Prefixes are usually hyphenated when forming compounds with proper nouns:

| | |
|---|---|
| anti-Arab | un-American |
| pro-British | pre-World War II |

d. The hyphen is used in all written-out cardinal numbers from twenty-one through ninety-nine and in all corresponding written-out ordinal numbers.

e. Compounds of two words designating compass points are written solid. When the compound is composed of three words, a hyphen is used after the first word:

| | |
|---|---|
| northeast | southwest |
| north-northeast | south-southwest |

f. Compounds of technical terms designating units of measurement are usually hyphenated:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| kilowatt-hour | light-year | board-foot |
| passenger-mile | kilovolt-ampere | foot-pound |

In addition to all the rules and practices governing the use of the hyphen in particular instances, the writer must be aware that many other compound words are normally hyphenated regardless of whether or not they are used as modifiers, such as hard-grained, machine-forged, and off-sloping. The writer must also be aware that some words, depending upon meaning, are sometimes hyphenated and sometimes not regardless of their position in the sentence. For example, there is a decided difference in meaning between up to date and up-to-date.

6. Clear Modification and Reference.

Writing is a means of communication which depends upon the placing of individual words in sequence, and frequently the sequence of words rather than the words themselves causes a breakdown in the communication process. The major problems affecting the sequence of words are those which arise in matters of modification and reference.

Modifying elements are words, phrases, and clauses which limit, identify, qualify, or expand the meaning of a sentence. Reference elements are usually pronouns which refer to, or "stand for," another element. The fundamental principle of modification and reference is a simple one: a sentence should be so written that it is impossible for the reader to misunderstand the modifying or reference function of any element in the sentence. Exactly what is modified and what is referred to should be immediately and unmistakably clear.

Perhaps the most useful guidance can be provided by examples of unclear modification or reference:

"Their presence can only be determined by qualitative analysis." (Only is in the wrong place; it modifies the by phrase, not the verb. The modifier should be placed as close as possible to the element which is modified.)

Note the misplaced modifiers in the following sentences:

"Production is mainly estimated on the basis of inputs." (Mainly belongs after estimated.)

"The plant chiefly relies on subassemblies." (Chiefly belongs after relies.)

"Men who make such tests often tend to prejudge the results." (Often here is a "squinting modifier." Does it modify make or tend? The answer depends upon the meaning, and the position of often must be shifted accordingly.)

"Care should be taken to see whether such wells are contaminated by frequent testing." (Either the sentence does not say what it means or the tester has been careless.)

"The steel is of the standard gauge used by most manufacturers with a highly polished surface." (This sentence needs recasting; rearrangement will not improve it much.)

"In 1960 it is probable that the pipeline will be completed." (The in phrase belongs at the end, and the sentence should read "The pipeline probably will be completed in 1960.")

"In this area it is reported that shortages exist." (Probably the reporting was not done in this area. The in phrase belongs at the end of the sentence.)

"Power supplied to the plant which came from a nearby hydroelectric station was inadequate." (This sentence needs recasting to eliminate the ambulatory plant.)

The misplaced modifier in the last sentence produces a pronoun of doubtful reference. In the following sentences, note the examples of unclear pronominal reference:

"The plant manager dismissed the production superintendent. He accused him of favoritism toward his relatives and neglect of his duties." (The major question is, Who did what and to whom?)

"The basins receive much of the runoff of the adjacent mountainous areas, in which many streams arise, but which discontinue when they reach the margin of the desert." (The reference of the first which is clear -- its antecedent is areas. The grammatical antecedent of the second which and the they is also areas, but the logical antecedent of both is streams. The last clause should be changed to read "but these streams carry water only as far as the margin of the desert.")

"There is a nine-span steel highway bridge, three of which are over the normal river channel." (The grammatical antecedent of which is bridge, but the sentence should be rewritten so that the antecedent would be nine spans.)

In using a pronoun the writer should not assume that the antecedent of a pronoun exists in the adjectival use of a noun. The following sentence is a simple example:

"There were many moose tracks visible, but none of them could be seen." (Moose is used as an adjective and cannot serve as the antecedent of them. The but clause should read "but no moose could be seen.")

7. Common Troublemakers.

In the English language there are a number of words and groups of words which commonly get in the way of understanding. Because they are not of the "ain't got no" error category, they frequently go undetected. Some of the most common of these troublemakers are discussed below.

adapt -- adopt

These words are different in meaning. Adapt means "to make suitable," "to cause to conform," "to adjust"; adopt, "to take by choice as one's own." One may "adapt a method" if he changes that method to fit the circumstances. He may "adopt a method" if he takes a method and applies it to the circumstances. He may also adopt a method and then adapt that method to the circumstances.

affect -- effect

These words are different in meaning. Effect used as a verb means "to accomplish" or "to bring about": "They hope to effect a change in the plan." Effect used as a noun means "influence," "result," "accomplishment," "intent": "They tried to bring the plan into effect"; "The statement was to that effect." Affect is a verb only, with the exception of its use as a noun in the technical terminology of psychology. Affect usually means "to alter" or "to influence": "The changes will not affect the result." It also may mean "to assume" or "to pretend": "He affects a British accent."

agree to -- agree with

One agrees to a plan and with a person.

allusion -- illusion

Allusion means "an indirect reference"; illusion, "an unreal image or false impression."

alternate -- alternative

Both alternate and alternative may be either adjectives or nouns. As adjectives, alternate means "taking place by turns" or "every other one"; alternative, "taking the place of another." One may write "production in alternate years" and "the alternative method," but he may not write "alternative years" or "the alternate method." As nouns, alternate means "one who takes the place of another"; alternative, "something that must be done or taken instead of something else if the latter is rejected." One may write that "he served as an alternate" and "the alternative was closing the plant," but he may not interchange the words.

an additional or an estimated (and similar expressions)

The indefinite article a (an) should always modify a singular noun or pronoun. "An additional labor force of 500 men" is correct; "an additional 500 laborers" is not correct. "An estimated increase in production" is correct; "an estimated 25,000 tons will be added" is not correct.

Because of the liability to error introduced by the use of a and an with an intervening modifier -- "an additional," "an estimated," "a reported," "a claimed," "a planned," and so on -- it is wise to avoid the usage. For "An estimated 500 more trucks will be needed," write "It is estimated that 500 more trucks will be needed." For "a claimed 50,000 tons will be added," write "The government claims that 50,000 tons will be added." For "a planned 50 million rubles will be invested," write "Plans call for the investment of 50 million rubles."

Even when the indefinite article is used correctly with the intervening modifier, there is danger of the piling up of modifiers. "An estimated additional 500-man labor force will be needed" is correct grammatically, but it is awkward to read. It is better even to use the passive voice and write "It is estimated that 500 more laborers will be needed."

and/or

This term is condemned in formal writing, but it may be used with certain restrictions. Such a term is needed, and and/or is concise as well as serviceable. The writer should be careful in using the term, however, not to give an alternative that is not intended.

ante -- anti

These prefixes are distinct. Ante means "before"; anti, "against."

apparently -- obviously -- seemingly

Apparently is so often used to mean either "obviously" or "seemingly" that both meanings are generally accepted. The best course for the writer to follow, however, is avoidance of apparently whenever misunderstanding is possible. Actually, apparently means something which is visible or something which can be inferred and connotes likelihood, whereas obviously means not only something which is seen or inferred but also something which is readily accepted and connotes certainty. Seemingly is closer in meaning to apparently than to obviously.

around -- about

Around does not mean approximately and should never be used as a synonym for it. To write of producing "around 2 million tons" when "about 2 million tons" is meant is as wrong as to write of talking "around the subject" when "about the subject" is meant.

as -- because

When used as an equivalent of because, as is not incorrect but sometimes is ambiguous.

balance -- remainder -- rest

The use of balance to mean that part of a whole which is left after another part, or other parts, have been removed is a colloquialism and should be avoided in formal writing. The correct word is remainder: "Of total output, 70 percent was consumed by the armed forces, and the remainder /not the balance/ was consumed by the civil economy." There is a tendency, however, to use remainder when more specific wording would be better: "Of total output, 50 percent was consumed by transportation, 30 percent by the chemical industry, and 20 percent /not the remainder/ by households."

The noun rest meaning "that which is left" is a loose synonym for remainder and may be used, on an informal level, as a collective noun that takes a plural verb: "The rest of them are not going." In the writing of formal reports, rest in this sense should be avoided and should never be used to mean a quantitative remainder: "After 76 percent had been exported, the remainder /not the rest/ was stockpiled." Usually others is a better word than rest: "Nine of the 26 plants were closed, and the others /not the rest of them/ were forced to curtail production."

because -- for

Because means "by the cause of" and gives the reason or cause for something; it has to do with what went before. For has to do with the evidence as to why a thing was done and is concerned with the result rather than the cause; it has to do with what comes after. Compare "The man took the money because he needed it" with "The man took the money, for we found his fingerprints on it."

beside -- besides

These words are different in meaning. Beside, a preposition, designates a place or position: "One plant is beside /next to/ the other." Besides, an adverb or a preposition, means "in addition" or "in addition to" and seldom needs to be used in formal writing.

between -- among

Between should be used in reference to two elements; among, in reference to three or more: "between the two of them"; "among /not between/ the three of them."

both -- each

Both applies to two persons or things considered jointly; each applies to one of two or more persons or things considered separately.

can -- may

Can and may are often misused. Both can and may imply possibility, but can more often implies the ability or the capability to do something, and may more often implies permission granted: "He can do it if he wishes," implying that he is able or capable of doing it; "He may do it if he wishes," implying that he has permission to do it. In the following sentence, depending upon the meaning intended, can implies possibility based upon ability or capability, and may implies possibility based upon chance without reference to ability or capability: "The enemy can /or may/ attack at a moment's notice."

case -- instance

These words should be avoided whenever possible, and usually avoidance is possible. Following are a few examples of the muddy writing which the indiscriminate use of case and instance can produce: "Samples in some cases show structural defects"; "In some cases the conglomerate is composed of fragments of shale, and in such instances it is gray or greenish gray"; "It is seldom the case that one department or bureau is enabled to render a service with such potential possibilities of the results being of value to so many departments or bureaus as is believed is the case in this instance."

compare to -- compare with

Compare to suggests that two things may be comparable; compare with, a detailed comparison in which resemblances or lack of resemblances are pointed out: "An electric power plant may be compared to a pumping station"; "Production of trucks in 1955 compared with that in 1954 shows an increase of 15 percent."

comprise -- constitute -- consist

These words are overused, particularly comprise in the passive voice. Comprise and constitute do not mean the same thing. Comprise means "to include" or "to be made up of." The meaning of constitute that causes confusion is "to make up as a constituent element or elements." Thus it is correct to write "The finished output comprises /not constitutes/ drill presses and machine lathes" and "Drill presses and machine lathes constitute /not comprise/ the finished output." Consist of is generally synonymous with comprise and can be substituted for it. Too often, however, consist of is used when the simple verb are would serve. For example, "The products made in this plant are /not consist of/ radio tubes and transistors."

continual -- continuous

Continual and continuous are not synonyms. Continual means "occurring regularly but with interruptions"; continuous, "occurring without interruptions either in time or order of succession." One may write "There were continual shortages of raw materials" if he means that the shortages were recurrent. If, however, he means that the supply of raw materials was never adequate, he should speak of "a continuous shortage."

credible -- creditable -- credulous

Credible means "believable"; creditable, "praiseworthy"; credulous, "overtrustful" or "easily duped."

data

Data means "facts"; it should not be used to mean "records" or "documents." Data, like criteria (singular criterion) and phenomena (singular phenomenon), takes a plural verb and plural modifiers.

definite -- definitive

Definite means "precise" or "exact"; definitive, "decisive" or "final": "The information was definite"; "The decision was definitive."

dilemma -- difficulty

Dilemma, which implies a situation demanding a choice between alternatives, should not be used loosely for difficulty.

direct -- directly

Direct means "straight" or "in a straight line"; directly, "immediately," "promptly," "in a short time."

due to -- owing to -- caused by

These phrases should preferably follow some form of the verb to be. Due to is much overused and is frequently misused for owing to. Grammatically, due to may be used as an adjective and owing to may be used adverbially or as an adjective. In actual practice, due to, owing to, and caused by should be avoided when because of, on account of, or the result of is meant.

each other -- one another

Each other should be used in reference to two elements; one another, in reference to three or more: "The two countries shipped commodities to each other"; "The three countries shipped commodities to one another /not each other/."

equivalent -- equal

Equivalent should be used only to describe two or more things which have a qualitative similarity -- an equality in power, significance, or effect. Equal has a definite quantitative connotation -- an equality in number or magnitude.

except -- excepting

Except is preferable to excepting: "All machines except /not excepting and not with the exception of/ the drill presses are of good quality." In the sentence "The coast line is, with few exceptions, rocky" it is actually the rockiness, not the coast line, to which there are exceptions. It would be better to write "Except in a few places the coast is rocky."

farther -- further

The word farther refers to a spatial relationship: "Gorsk is farther than Birsk"; "After the train reached Birsk, it traveled farther." Further refers to a degree or quantity relationship: "The plan was further developed"; "No further steps are necessary." The distinction between the two words is often disregarded without catastrophic consequences, but farther is correctly used to indicate actual space or distance.

fewer -- less

Fewer concerns number; less, amount: "Fewer laborers worked in the factory in 1955, and total output was less than that of 1954."

following -- after

Following used as a preposition is a vulgarism. Substitute the shorter and unambiguous after.

former -- latter

Former and latter are so often used ambiguously that it is better not to use them at all. Repetition of a word, phrase, or clause is preferable to misunderstanding resulting from indefinite reference.

gotten -- got

The principal parts of the verb get are get, got, got. Gotten, a somewhat archaic form of the past participle, is permissible only in certain phrases, such as "ill-gotten gain."

imply -- infer

Imply means "to hint at"; infer, "to deduce from evidence." The writer or the speaker implies; the reader or the listener infers.

incredible -- incredulous

Incredible means "too extraordinary to admit of belief"; incredulous, "inclined not to believe on slight evidence."

latter -- last

Latter should be used only in reference to the second of two persons or things, and not to the last when three or more are mentioned. Last should be used in reference to the final one of three or more persons or things mentioned.

liable -- likely -- apt

Both liable and likely imply probability. Liable connotes that which is unfavorable: "He was liable to arrest." Likely connotes that which is favorable or, at least, not unfavorable: "The plant is likely to begin production." Apt means "suited for" or "appropriate to," or a person is apt if he has a tendency to do something or is ready to learn. Liable and apt are sometimes improperly used for likely.

like -- as

Like is not in good usage as a conjunction. Use like before a substantive; use as or as if when a clause follows.

like -- such as

These terms are different in meaning. Like used as a preposition means "similar to." Such as introduces an example or examples: "Some machines, like drill presses, ..." means that the "some machines" are similar to drill presses but that drill presses are not included in the term. "Some machines, such as drill presses, ..." means that drill presses are mentioned as an example of the category covered by "some machines."

limited (for small, slight)

Limited should not be used when the shorter, simpler words small or slight are actually meant. For example, it makes little sense to write "Production of these items during 1953 was limited because of quota regulations." It is wise, then, to avoid such phrases as limited knowledge, limited amount, limited price, and limited extent unless the limiting factors themselves are clearly stated or implied.

mutual -- common

Mutual means "reciprocal" or "interchanged"; common, "belonging to or shared by more than one," "joint," "general," "ordinary." Mutual should be used only when the element of active interchange is present: "a mutual agreement," but "a common belief."

output -- production

Strict formal usage would demand a clear distinction in the use of output and production. Output refers to the amount of a commodity or commodities produced in a period of time; production refers to the process of creating commodities, goods, or values. Custom and usage, however, have sanctioned the use of production to mean output, and the two words are generally used interchangeably in ORR reports.

over (for more than)

Over (and also under) should always be used to denote position, never quantity. The following sentence illustrates what can happen if this principle is ignored: "The ore body usually lies under over 20 feet, and sometimes over 100 feet, of overburden." It is correct to write "The ore body usually lies under more than 20 feet, and in some places more than 100 feet, of overburden."

partially -- partly

Partly is usually preferable to partially. Fastidious writers save partially to mean "with partiality."

percent -- percentage

These words are not synonymous. Percent is an abbreviated form of the Latin per centum, meaning "by the hundred." Percentage is a more general term and means "the rate of interest" or "a part of the whole." Percent is usually preceded by a number or by a quantitative adjective.

personnel

Personnel means "a body of persons employed in some service" and is incorrect when used for individuals, persons, or employees.

portion -- part

Portion, properly used only to mean "a part of a whole set aside and thought of as an independent unit," is rarely needed for part.

practical -- practicable

Practical usually describes something proved to be useful or serviceable -- something based on practice. Practicable means "feasible" or "possible." A "practical method" is one that experience has shown to be useful or serviceable; a "practicable method" is one that can be performed. A practicable method, however, is not necessarily a practical one. It may prove to be impractical. An impracticable method, of course, is an impossible one.

principle -- principal

Misuse of these two words is not always a result of confused spelling. Principle is always a noun, never an adjective, and means "a fundamental truth" or "a basic doctrine or law": "The decision was based on the principle of equality among men." Principal may be either a noun or an adjective. As a noun it means "chief," "leader," "head," or it may refer to a capital sum: "The principal in the negotiations was the Prime Minister"; "He insisted that the principal be invested." As an adjective, principal means "main," "leading," "chief," "major," "primary": "The principal character was the president"; "His principal source was a classified document."

prior to (for before) and subsequent to (for after)

Prior to and subsequent to are circumlocutions and usually mean neither more nor less than before and after. Prior to, however, is not always incorrect, as is illustrated by the following sentence: "He made his report prior to /before would be ambiguous/ the committee meeting." Both prior and subsequent have legitimate functions as adjectives -- "prior agreements" and "subsequent events," for example -- but even as adjectives they are often less effective than earlier and following.

proven -- proved

The principal parts of the verb prove are prove, proved, proved. Proven, an archaic form of the past participle, is not in good usage.

quite (for very, somewhat, or rather)

Quite means "entirely" or "completely" and should be used only in that sense. In any other usage it is virtually meaningless. For example, quite a few and quite a distance are vague, colloquial, and informal phrases that convey little or no specific information.

range -- vary

The verb range when pertaining to estimates implies one lower and one upper limit, and these two limits should be given; otherwise vary should be used.

reason is because

The clause reason is because, which is redundant and illogical, is too frequently used in both speaking and writing for reason is that.

secure -- obtain -- procure

The verb secure means "to make safe," "to protect," "to close," "to confine," "to fasten"; obtain means "to get possession of," "to acquire," "to procure"; procure means essentially the same as obtain. Although the dictionary indicates that the verbs secure and obtain are sometimes used interchangeably, these words are not to be used as synonyms in formal writing. One does not "secure the information from a reliable source" -- he gets or obtains the information. One "secures the documents" by putting them in a safe place, but he "procures /or obtains/ the documents" from the library and "obtains information" from them.

similar -- the same

These terms are not synonymous and should not be used interchangeably. "Similar /not the same/ installations were reported at Birsk."

since -- because

When used as an equivalent of because, since is not incorrect but sometimes is ambiguous.

sum -- amount

Sum means "a simple addition of two or more items" and is not an exact equivalent of amount, which means "a combination of all the sums under consideration."

than -- from

Than should not be used as a preposition for from in the idiom different from: "His answer was different from /not than/ the kind of reply that I had expected"; "His answer was different from /not than/ what I had expected." Than is always used to express a comparative concept. It is correctly used as a preposition in the following sentences: "He was fond of any drink other than coffee"; "This workman, than whom no man has ever been more industrious, should be promoted." It is correctly used as a subordinating conjunction in the following sentence: "I like this more than [I like] that."

type

Type meaning "a particular kind or class" and used alone is a noun, not an adjective. The correct idiom is type of: "The Browning was the type of gun requisitioned." In compounds, however, type is sometimes used as a modifier: "The Browning-type gun was requisitioned," but "The Browning type of gun was requisitioned" is better English.

value -- valuation

Value is an attribute, not a substance. Valuation is a value artificially set.

various (for several or many)

Various is not a synonym for several or many and should be used only when difference or variety is the quality to be described.

verbal -- oral

These words are not synonyms. Verbal refers to words, whether written or spoken. Oral refers to spoken words only. "The difference between the two sources was purely verbal" means that the two sources agreed in all essentials but differed in the actual words used. "The document was based on an oral report" means that the report on which the document was based was made by word of mouth.

verify -- confirm

Verify means "to provide proof, on the basis of one's own effort, of the truth or accuracy of a claim or statement which, before verification, may or may not be true or accurate"; confirm, "to provide support for a claim or statement that is accepted as true or accurate on the basis of relatively little evidence" or "to provide support for a claim or statement on the basis of corroborative evidence obtained from another."

while (for and, but, although, whereas)

While as a subordinating conjunction denotes duration of time and should not be used indiscriminately as a general-service conjunction. It is correct to write "Nitric acid was being produced at Birsk while fertilizer was being produced at Gorsk" if the production was going on at the same time. But it would be incorrect to write "Nitric acid was being produced at Birsk in 1952 while fertilizer was being produced at Gorsk in 1953." Following are additional examples of the misuse of while: "In plant A, steady production was maintained for 20 days, while in plant B steady production was maintained for only 13 days." "While water power is economical, it is dependent on water supply." "At some places the river is very deep, while at others there are shallows." A safe rule to follow is never to use while unless it means "at the same time that."

with (for and or but plus a verb)

With is frequently misused for and plus a verb: "At Birsk the average rainfall is 3.97 inches, with the minimum 1.05 inches"; "Production is highest in August, with the minimum production in February"; "Ore is transported to the river by rail, with barge transportation from there to the plant at Gorsk."

With is also misused for but plus a verb: "The ore is mostly of low grade, with some deposits of high grade present"; "The power station is generally dependable, with some failures during the winter months."

8. Jargon and Triteness.

The word jargon originally meant "chattering." The essence of that meaning is retained when the word is applied to confused, unintelligible language -- gibberish -- and to trite cliché-cluttered writing. The word jargon now has a second meaning -- the highly specialized language of a trade, profession, science, art, or occupation (see V, 11, p. 40, above). Good intelligence reports scrupulously avoid jargon of the first kind and minimize jargon of the second kind.

Some technical terminology is necessary in ORR reports, and the analyst is not expected to reduce his language to the level of words of one syllable. He should remember, however, that the use of too many technical terms in reports results in turgid prose, which not only is in bad taste and obscures meaning but also may produce a ludicrous or unconsciously humorous effect. Excessive use in reports of any kind of jargon is bad -- pomposity and bombast are worse.

A kind of pseudojargon, consisting of ordinary words or phrases used unnecessarily and meaninglessly, may be even more detrimental to good writing than either the jargon of gibberish or the jargon of specialization. This kind of jargon is almost always circumlocution, and often it is trite circumlocution. When one says, "The answer is in the negative" instead of "No," he is using a trite grouping of words that blurs meaning. The same is true of an abstract phrase like "the fact that," which should be avoided when the same idea can be expressed more directly. Even certain words, such as factor (which means "that which produces a result") or basis or asset, are used loosely or too frequently. Why write above-mentioned or the archaic aforementioned when mentioned above is better? Any word or expression may smack of jargon or become trite through overuse.

Following are some examples of sentences infested with jargon and triteness, with each example purified stylistically:

a. There are many data available which lend support to the aforementioned conclusion. (Available data support this conclusion.)

b. In the case of the steel plants there is another instance of increased production. (The steel plants also increased production.)

c. The Birsk mines are highly mechanized, but along these lines the Gorsk mining operations are lacking. (The Birsk mines are highly mechanized, but the Gorsk mines are not.)

d. There is present in this deposit some amount of free silver. (This deposit contains some free silver.)

e. Gorsk is situated near Birsk. (Gorsk is near Birsk.)

f. Upon analysis the sample was found to contain some traces of tungsten. (Analysis revealed traces of tungsten in the sample.)

g. On the basis of these data the following conclusions can be derived. (These data lead to these conclusions.)

h. The nature of the metal does not lend itself to fabrication purposes. (The metal is not suitable for fabrication.)

i. The surface is of a very uneven character. (The surface is very uneven.)

j. With proper drainage conditions the land could be made suitable for farming purposes. (With proper drainage the land could be made suitable for farming.)

Following are further examples of words and phrases to be used with discrimination or avoided altogether. (The words or phrases in parentheses are not always to be used as substitutes, but they are simpler and frequently either preferable or more effective.)

a. Roundabout Prepositional Phrases.

along the lines of (like)

by means of (with, by)

for the purpose of (for)

in accordance with (with, by, according to)
in a number of cases (often, frequently, some)
in case of (if)
in connection with (of, with, on, in, about, concerning)
in order to (to)
in (with) reference to (with, toward, to, on, in, about, concerning)
in (with) regard to (of, with, on, in, about, concerning)
in (with) relation to (toward, to, with, on, in, about, concerning)

in (with) respect to (of, with, on, in, about, concerning)
in the amount of (for, about, to)
in the case of (on, in, about, concerning)
in the event of (if)
in the majority of instances (usually)
in the matter of (on, in, about, concerning)
in the neighborhood of (about)
in order of (in)
in the time of (during)
in view of (because)
in view of the fact that (as, because)

on behalf of (for)
on occasion (occasionally)
on the order of (about)
on the part of (for, among)

b. <u>Crutch Words That Should Not Be Leaned upon Too Heavily</u>.

apparently
as a rule
as a usual case
as such
assuredly

commonly
considerably

especially

generally

in a word
incidentally
indubitably
in general
in many instances
in most cases
in other words
in short
it appears
it cannot be said

it is believed
it is generally accepted that
it is thought
it is well known that
it seems

naturally
normally

obviously
on the whole
ordinarily

particularly
presumably

seemingly
seems to indicate
substantially

to sum up

undoubtedly
usually

c. Words and Phrases the Use of Which Requires Precise Analysis of the Context.

accompanied by (with)
accomplish (do)
acquaint (tell, inform)
advise (tell, inform)
ameliorate (improve)
anticipate (expect)
approximately (about)
are not in a position to (cannot)
around (about)
as a basis for (for)
ascertain (learn)
as regards (on, in, about, concerning)
assistance (help)
as to (on, in, about, concerning)
at all times (always)
at an early date (soon)

commence (begin, start)
commencement (beginning)
commitment (promise)
conclude (close)
conduct (do, make)
consequently (then)
considerable (much)
consummate (complete, bring about)
contribute (give)

demonstrate (show)
determine (decide, find out)
due to the fact that (because)
during (in)

effect an improvement (improve)
effect (make, take)
effectuate (bring about)
employ (use)
employment (job, work)
encounter difficulty (find it hard, have trouble)
endeavor to ascertain (try to find out)
expiration (end)

finalize (end, conclude, complete)
following (after)
foregoing (preceding)
forward (send)
furnish (give)

give consideration to (consider)

implement (carry out)
inadvertency (error, mistake)
in a satisfactory manner (satisfactorily)
inasmuch as (as, since, because)
inaugurate (begin, start)
indicate (show, tell)
initial (first)
initiate (begin, start)

in lieu of (in place of)
in order to insure (make sure)
interpose no objection (do not object, approve)
in the event that (if)
in the meantime (meanwhile)
in the near future (soon)

lengthy (long)
locality (place)
locate (find)

majority (most)
make provision for (do)
meet with approval (be approved)
modification (change)

nominal (small)
notwithstanding the fact that (although, even though)

objective (aim)
obligate (bind)
optimum (best, greatest)

participate (take part)
party (person)
place (put)
practically (almost, nearly, virtually)
preclude (prevent)
present (show)
presently (shortly, in a short time)
previous to (before)
procure (get)
pursuant to (under)

rarely ever (seldom)
reflect (show)
regarding (about)
render (give)
reside (live)
retain (keep)

seldom ever (seldom)
still remains (remains)
submitted (sent)
subsequent to (after)
substantial (large)
substantially all (almost all)
sufficient (enough)

terminated (ended)
the present time (now)
this time (now)
transmit (send)

until such time as (until)
utilize (use)
utilization (use)

very complete (complete)
vis-à-vis (in, on, about, concerning, compared with, contrasted with)

d. Words and Phrases That Should Be Discarded Altogether.

abreast of the times
absolutely essential
acid test
after all is said and done
after due consideration
after weighing all the evidence
all in all
as a matter of fact
at all costs

benevolent despot
be that as it may
beyond the shadow of a doubt
bitter end
brink of disaster
brought to a head
by and large

checkered career
complete the picture
complete the scene
considered opinion
conspicuous by its absence

dynamic personality
doomed to disappointment
doomed to failure
drastic action

each and every
epic struggle
evidence to the contrary notwithstanding
exception proves the rule
explore every avenue of approach

fall by the wayside
familiar landmarks
few and far between
first and foremost
first, last, and always
for better or for worse
force of circumstances
foreseeable future
for some time to come
for that matter
fraught with danger
fund of knowledge

give free rein
go against the current
go against the grain
goes without saying
goodly number

highly significant
hit an all-time low
hold no brief for

if the worst comes to the worst
imposing array
impressive figure
in dire straits
indissoluble ties
in great profusion
in the last analysis
in the light of recent developments
it is interesting to note that
it is the consensus of opinion that
it stands to reason

last but not least
life-and-death struggle
long-felt want

make every effort
more or less
more than meets the eye

never before in the history of
news leaked out

one of the most unique
optimum benefit
order out of chaos
other side of the coin
other things being equal

paramount issue
potential possibility
powers that be
predicated on the assumption that
psychological moment

ruthless dictator

sheds light upon
speculation was rife
successfully achieve
suffice it to say

take concrete steps
teeming millions
that being the case
this day and age
tide of events
too numerous to mention
to the bitter end

undercurrent of excitement
unexpected turn of events
unimpeachable source
unprecedented activity
untiring efforts
up-to-the-minute ideas
usually reliable source

venture an opinion

without question

In his reading, the analyst should grow conscious of the stifling effect resulting from the use, the too frequent use, or the misuse of words and phrases of the types listed under a, b, c, and d, above. In his writing, the analyst should strive to cull these words and phrases to the ultimate improvement of his reports and his own satisfaction and pleasure in preparing good reports. This effort is the least that he can afford to make. If the analyst will become language-conscious and severely critical of every word that he writes, eventually he may hope to make his language as much a tool of his profession as he makes his knowledge of a particular field of research.

APPENDIX A

TABULAR PRESENTATION*

The comments on tabular presentation which follow should be considered in conjunction with sample Table 2.**

1. Numbering.

a. Tables are numbered consecutively in order of physical location. When tables appear in appendixes, the first appendix table bears the number following that of the last table in the body of the report.

b. The table number should be placed above the title and centered on the page.

c. Tables should be introduced (parenthetically, if necessary) and referred to by number in textual commentary. (When textual references are widely separated from tables, page numbers should be given in footnotes.)

d. Small tabulations within the text are not numbered (see 11, p. 92, below).

2. Title.

a. The title of a table should be in topic form, briefly indicating what, where, and when, in order of importance. For example, if a report deals with the harmonica industry of East Germany, a table emphasizing production might be headed "Production of Harmonicas in East

* See also V, 7, p. 31, above.
** Table 2 follows on p. 89. Note that this type of footnote should be inserted when the table does not follow on the same page as the main reference thereto. All other footnote references to tables should be by page number, with "above" or "below" added (for example, see p. 92, below). See also sample Table 1 in Figure 1, following p. 36, above, and CIA/RR RA (ORR Project 11.3), The Presentation of Statistical Data, 11 March 1955, FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY, which for analysts of the Economic Research Area is superseded by the discussion of tabular presentation in this research aid.

Germany, 1930-52." If, on the other hand, the report is on production of musical instruments in East Germany, a table on production of harmonicas might be headed "Harmonica Production in East Germany, 1930-52." If the place is to be emphasized, in a report on world production of harmonicas, the table might be headed "East German Production of Harmonicas, 1930-52." Whichever order or emphasis is chosen, it should be used consistently throughout a single report, or, in some instances, throughout a section of a report having a specific emphasis.

b. Dates (see V, 6, p. 31, above) showing the period covered should be placed on a separate line beneath the descriptive part of the title. The type of year used, if other than a calendar year, should be indicated in the title of the table or in a footnote.

c. Titles should be given with initial capital letters, should not be underlined, and should not be followed by a period.

d. When a table covers more than one page, the word Continued in parentheses should appear under the title on all pages except the first.

3. Prefatory Note.

A prefatory note may be placed directly beneath the descriptive part of the title and before the date(s) for the purpose of clarifying or limiting the title, provided this explanation can be given in a brief phrase. Such brief notes should be of a general nature, applying to all or most of the table. Longer explanations or explanations of specific items in the table should always be given in footnotes.

4. Spacing.

There should be a double space between the title (including the word Continued in parentheses, when used) and the beginning of the table. The unit of measurement, placed as indicated under 5, a, below, marks the beginning of the table for this purpose.

5. Units.

a. When the unit of measurement is the same throughout the table, it should be placed at the extreme right, not in parentheses, on the solid line marking the beginning of the table.

[redacted]

Table 2

[TITLE] Production and Cost of Turtle Food in Selected Counties of Ruritania a/ [PREFATORY NOTE]
(Excluding Cottage Production)
1938 and 1946-53

[CAPTION] [UNITS]

| Year | County X b/ | | County Y | | County Z | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Production (Pounds) | Cost c/ (Dollars) | Production (Pounds) | Cost (Dollars) | Production (Pounds) | Cost (Dollars) | Production (Pounds) | Cost (Dollars) |
| 1938 | 400 | 82 | 120 d/ | 22 | Negligible | 0.1 e/ | 520 | 100 |
| 1946 | 210 | 60 | 30 | 9.5 | Negligible | 0.1 | 240 | 70 |
| 1947 | 260 | 100 | 35 | 12 | 2.2 | 0.9 | 300 f/ | 110 |
| 1948 | 300 | 120 | 55 | 19 | 4.0 | 1.9 | 360 | 140 |
| 1949 | 300 g/ | 130 | 70 | 25 | 2.0 | 1.4 | 370 | 160 |
| 1950 | 320 | 150 | 90 | 35 | Negligible | 0.2 | 410 | 190 |
| Total, 1946-50 | 1,400 | 560 | 280 | 100 | 8.2 | 4.5 | 1,700 | 660 |
| 1951 h/ | 350 | 160 | 100 | 43 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 450 | 210 |
| 1952 | 400 | 200 i/ | 120 | 52 j/ | 4.1 | 3.9 | 520 | 260 |
| 1953 k/ | 410 | 210 | 130 | 58 | 4.2 | 3.9 | 540 | 270 |
| Total, 1946-53 | 2,600 | 1,100 | 630 | 250 | 20 | 15 | 3,200 | 1,400 |
| Average, 1946-53 | 320 | 140 | 79 | 31 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 400 | 170 |

[STUB] [BODY]

a. Except where indicated otherwise, all data contained in Table 2 are from source 103/. All data are rounded to two significant figures. Totals and averages are derived independently from unrounded figures and do not always agree with rounded data shown.
b. As of 1 July.
c. Except where indicated otherwise, cost data for County X are from source 104/.
d. 105/
e. 106/
f. 107/
g. 108/
h. 109/
i. 110/
j. 111/
k. Data for 1953 are from the following sources: County X, 112/; County Y, 113/; County Z, 114/.



[redacted]

b. When there is more than one unit of measurement and the data are arranged in columns, units should be indicated in parentheses in the caption, below column headings. When the data are arranged in rows, a units column may be used to designate the unit of measurement for each row. Units in a units column should not be enclosed in parentheses.

6. Caption (Column Headings).

a. Column headings should be brief and in the singular.

b. Comparable column headings should be consistent -- for example, value is comparable to quantity, not tons.

c. Units of measurement should appear in parentheses under the appropriate heading (see 5, b, above).

d. Underlining of column headings or subheadings should extend to the limits of all columns under the heading.

7. Stub (Row Headings).

a. Stub entries (side entries), or row headings, should be listed in the order best suited to the data -- for example, geographically, alphabetically, according to importance, and so on.

b. When a second line is required for a stub entry, the second line should be indented, and related column entries should be placed opposite the bottom line of the stub entry.

c. Subheadings should be double-spaced below main headings and indented two spaces. Items subordinate to subheadings should be double-spaced below the subheadings and indented two spaces.

d. Totals and averages should be double-spaced below the entry which they follow, and the designation should be indented two spaces.

e. Stub entries should not be underlined.

8. Body.

a. A cipher (0) should be entered when data have values of zero.



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b. When data have values equal to or less than one-half of the minimum unit being carried, the word Negligible should be entered.

c. When data are not available but the phenomenon which the data would represent is known to exist, the abbreviation N.A. (not available) should be entered.

d. When data are not available and it is not known whether any item or activity exists to be represented, the word Unknown should be entered.

e. In figures of four or more digits the comma should be used.

f. Totals should be underlined with a single line, grand totals with a double line.

g. Ditto marks, hyphens (except in dates), and dashes should never be used in tables.

h. Signs and symbols, like abbreviations, may sometimes be used in tables to conserve space.

9. Footnotes.*

a. Lowercase letters are used to identify table footnotes.

b. In making footnote identifications, each line, or row, should be considered in its order, with more than one identification on a given line lettered consecutively from left to right.

c. Footnote identifications should be placed after an entry. When there is no entry, the footnote identification should be placed in the position of the entry.

d. When a table is more than one page long, footnote entries should appear at the end of the table. In such cases the first footnote identification should be followed by an asterisk (a/*), and the asterisked reference at the bottom of the first page should read, for example, as follows: "Footnotes to Table /number/ follow on p. /number/."

* See also V, 8, p. 33, above.



Approved For Release 1999/09/27 : CIA-RDP79S01046A000400090001-8

10. Source Identifications.

Source identification numbers should be kept out of tables. Lowercase letters, arranged alphabetically, are used to footnote all material in tables. When the footnote identification is to a source, the source identification number should be given in the table footnote following the lowercase letter representing the footnote identification. All footnotes should be read at the time of the footnote identification, and source identifications in table footnotes should follow each other in the order established in the text as well as in the order in which the report is read (see Table 2*). (See V, 7 and 8, pp. 31-35, above.)

11. Small Tabulations Within the Text.

a. Small tabulations within the text are considered to be part of the text and may have the format of a table.

b. Small tabulations should be introduced with a statement, such as "Production of electric power during the 4-year period was as follows:"

| Year | US Production of Electric Power (Billion KWH) | Index (1950 = 100) |
|---|---|---|
| 1950 | 389 | 100 |
| 1951 | 433 | 111 |
| 1952 | 463 | 119 |
| 1953 | 514 | 132 |

c. Footnotes to small tabulations within the text are considered to be text footnotes and are treated accordingly.**

* P. 89, above.
** See the sample tabulation in Figure 1, following p. 36, above.

APPENDIX B

## TRANSLATION AND TRANSLITERATION

### 1. Translation.

Translation may be defined as a roughly equivalent rendition from one language into another. Words and phrases from foreign languages which have not been absorbed into English or which, although absorbed, remain foreign to unspecialized readers and must be defined will be underlined and followed by an English translation in parentheses the first time that the foreign word or phrase appears in an ORR report. On subsequent appearances the foreign word or phrase will be neither underlined nor followed by an English translation. Certain foreign words in this category are exceptions to this rule and are neither underlined nor defined. Because Russian is the foreign language most frequently encountered by ORR analysts, Russian words will be used as examples. The rule for translation of foreign words and phrases, however, applies equally to translations from all foreign languages. Examples of Russian words neither underlined nor defined are given in a and b, below. Examples of Russian words and phrases that must be defined are discussed in c, below. The rules for the treatment of names of foreign organizations are exemplified in d, below.

#### a. Russian Words Absorbed into the English Language.

Certain Russian words have been absorbed into the English language:

| | |
|---|---|
| artel (artel') | menshevik |
| bolshevik (bol'shevik) | podsol (podzol) |
| chernozem | ruble (rubl') |
| chervonets | sovkhoz |
| commissar (komissar) | steppe (step') |
| feldsher (fel'dsher) | suslik |
| kolkhoz | taiga (tayga) |
| kopeck (kopek) | tundra |
| kulak | ukase (ukaz) |
| kvass (kvas) | vodka |

b. Russian Territorial-Administrative Designations.

Russian words for which there are no precise English translations are frequently used to designate territorial-administrative areas:

| | |
|---|---|
| guberniya | okrug |
| kray | rayon |
| oblast (oblast') | uyezd |

Words in the category of the examples noted here and in a, above, are treated as English words, will take the English plural in -s or -es (kolkhozes, krays), and are neither underlined* nor followed by their translations in parentheses. All other Russian words are treated as foreign words and take the appropriate Russian plurals. For example, the plural of kolkhoznik (collective farmer) is kolkhozniki (collective farmers), although the plural of kolkhoz (collective farm) is kolkhozes.

c. Russian Words and Phrases That Must Be Defined.

The usual procedure in using a Russian word or phrase that must be defined is to underline the word or phrase and follow it with an English translation in parentheses the first time that it appears -- for example, "Facilities are financed in part from the kul'tfond (social-cultural fund)." Depending upon the context of a particular statement, however, it may be preferable sometimes to give the English designation first, followed by the term in the foreign language, underlined and in parentheses -- for example, "Facilities are financed in part from the social-cultural fund (kul'tfond)."

Wherever possible, foreign words appearing in ORR publications will be given in the nominative case, singular or plural depending upon the context, of the particular foreign language involved -- for example, "outlines of the proyekty (projects)," not "outlines of the proyektov (projects)." Oblique cases may be used, however, when the context demands such use, as in the translation of a quotation from a foreign language -- for example, "Produced by contract (podryadnym sposobom)" is preferable to "Produced by contract (podryadnyy sposob)."

* Words of any language, including English, treated as words are always underlined -- for example, "The word the is a definite article"; "The plural of kolkhoz is kolkhozes."

Oblique cases must be used for words in a phrase dependent upon other words in the same phrase if demanded by the rule of grammar of the foreign language -- for example, Ministerstvo Vodnogo Khozyaystva (Ministry of Water Transport) and upravlyayushchiy delami (director of affairs or business manager). In these examples, Ministerstvo and upravlyayushchiy are in the Russian nominative case; Vodnogo Khozyaystva is in the genitive case modifying Ministerstvo; and delami is a plural noun in the instrumental case following upravlyayushchiy.

d. Names of Foreign Organizations.

Names of foreign organizations are usually translated into English and followed at their first appearance by the foreign form and its abbreviation, if any, in parentheses. Thereafter the abbreviation may be used (see V, 3, p. 28, above). Examples are as follows: Committee on State Security (Komitet po Gosudarstvennoy Bezopasnosti -- KGB); Ministry of the Aviation Industry (Ministerstvo Aviatsionnoy Promyshlennosti -- MAP); Main Administration of the Metallurgical Industry (Glavnoye Upravleniye Metallurgicheskoy Promyshlennosti -- GUMP); Young Communist League (Kommunisticheskoy Soyuz Molodezhi -- KSM or Komsomol); Institute of Economic Research (Institut Ekonomicheskikh Issledovaniy -- IEI). Sometimes, as with English abbreviations (see V, 3, p. 28, above), when the foreign abbreviation is well known, it is used throughout the report without explanation -- for example, SSSR, RSFSR, SSR, Gosbank, Gosplan, Gossnab, Gosizdat. Names of foreign organizations, like names of organizations in English, are not underlined in either their full or abbreviated form.

2. Translation Aids.

In the absence of an Agency-wide or IAC list of standard translations for Russian words or phrases, the decisions of the Ad Hoc Committee on Standardization of Translated Russian Terminology will be acceptable as translations of Russian organizational and administrative terms.

Useful publications furnishing translations of difficult Russian words and phrases appearing in the Soviet press and on the Soviet radio are as follows: State, Moscow, Review of the Soviet Press, Annex No. 1, Translation Guide, January 1950, RESTRICTED; [redacted] STATSPEC

STATSPEC

1 September 1950, UNCLASSIFIED; and Department of the Army, Corps of Engineers, Army Map Service, Russian Glossary, December 1951, UNCLASSIFIED.

CIA, FDD, Reference Aid No. 39, Foreign Language Serial Publications Exploited by Foreign Documents Division, 10 June 1955, SECRET, gives the titles of all foreign-language newspapers and periodicals exploited by the Foreign Documents Division (FDD) and is recommended to ORR analysts as a guide to proper transliteration (see 4, below) and translation of titles.

A useful guide to Soviet personal names is CIA, FDD, Reference Aid No. 30, Key to Soviet Personal Names, 12 April 1955, FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.

The CIA Library carries dictionaries in virtually all languages likely to be encountered in ORR research. These dictionaries may be used in the library and in some cases borrowed for a period of 2 weeks. In addition, it is recommended that ORR analysts obtain for retention dictionaries of those languages most frequently encountered in their own research -- Russian; German; French; and, in special circumstances, Chinese.

Consultants in foreign languages and area experts are available in FDD, and time spent with them in checking translations from foreign documents and transliteration of non-English words, phrases, names, and terms will be time well invested.

3. Standard Usage.

Certain practices have been established in ORR reports for handling troublesome words and phrases. It is recommended that ORR analysts follow the practices noted below.

The phrases "new course" and "new lands" will be enclosed in quotation marks.

The initial letters of the words state and government will not be capitalized when reference is made to the Soviet state or the Soviet government or to the states or the governments of the other countries of the Sino-Soviet Bloc. The terms state loan and state reserves will not be capitalized unless reference is made to them as parts of the Soviet budget or the budgets of the other countries of the Sino-Soviet Bloc.

References to Soviet ministries will be, for example, to the Ministry of Defense rather than to the Ministry for Defense.

The term machine tractor station will not be capitalized unless the term occurs as part of a title -- for example, the Stalin Machine Tractor Station. The abbreviation will be MTS, which may also be used adjectivally as in the MTS program. The plural of MTS is MTS's.

The word Soviet (Sovet), which means "council," may not be used as a noun to mean an inhabitant of the USSR but may be used as an adjective in this sense. For example, "The Soviet government and the Soviet people participated in World War II" is acceptable, but "The Soviets participated in World War II" is not acceptable. The use of the noun Soviets should be limited to certain administrative bodies in the USSR designated by the name Soviet. As a noun or an adjective, Russian may be used to refer to a particular ethnic group within the USSR as opposed to Ukrainians, for example, or to a Slavic language. The word Russian may not be used as a synonym for a Soviet citizen, nor the word Russians as a synonym for the Soviet people or the USSR.

4. Transliteration.

Transliteration (for speakers of English) is the process of converting into the roman, or Latin, alphabet languages which use a system of writing other than the roman alphabet. Transliteration consists in assigning some letter of the roman alphabet, some group of letters, or some artificial symbol to each character of the original alphabet, thus reproducing the traditional orthography in roman letters.

Numerous systems have been set up for the transliteration of foreign alphabets. For example, at least six clearly defined systems and several haphazard amalgams are in daily use for the transliteration of the Russian language, which uses the Cyrillic alphabet. To eliminate the confusion inherent in the random use of several systems of transliteration, it is essential that ORR analysts use a single system of transliteration.

A system of transliteration should be based upon the principles of uniformity and simplicity. A single letter or a digraph (a group of two letters representing a single speech sound) in the roman alphabet should, if possible, always stand for the same symbol in the foreign alphabet. The use of symbols or diacritical marks to supplement the roman alphabet should be kept to a minimum. A system of transliteration should facilitate the recognition of the transliterated word and, if necessary, the reconstruction of the original text.

Although reports of the Economic Research Area will not use diacritical marks for languages written in the roman alphabet, French and Spanish are so widely known that the omission of diacritical marks in these languages would tend to confuse the reader rather than simplify the text. Consequently, for French, the grave accent (\`), the acute accent (´), the circumflex accent (^), and the c cedilla (ç) will be shown; and for Spanish, the n tilde (ñ). In place of the German umlaut over a vowel, the umlauted vowel will be followed by an e (ae for ä, oe for ö, and ue for ü). Languages of the Soviet Bloc written in the roman alphabet for which diacritical marks will not be shown include Czech, Polish, Latvian, Lithuanian, Rumanian, Albanian, Hungarian, and Estonian.

CIA, HB 50-15-1, Transliteration Handbook, January 1954, UNCLASSIFIED, provides transliteration tables based upon the principles of uniformity and simplicity for various widely used languages employing writing systems other than the roman alphabet. In accordance with CIA Regulation No. 50-150, Transliteration of Foreign Languages, 6 January 1954, SECRET, the systems of transliteration given in this research aid are approved for CIA use and will be followed by ORR analysts.

For the transliteration of Russian and other languages using the Cyrillic alphabet, the CIA system of transliteration is that prescribed by the Board on Geographic Names (BGN). For conversion from other systems of transliteration for the Cyrillic alphabet to the BGN system, the analyst is referred to the following three publications of the Geographic Research Area of ORR: Russian Alphabet, GR 1304, January 1953, UNCLASSIFIED; Transliteration Table, 13173, April 1954, UNCLASSIFIED (see Figure 2*); and Transliteration Table, 13301, June 1954, UNCLASSIFIED (see Figure 3*).

* Following p. 102.

In transliterating from the Cyrillic alphabet into the roman alphabet, the analyst must pay special attention to the Cyrillic letters and combinations noted below and their roman equivalents:

| | |
|---|---|
| ь | soft sign, transliterated by the symbol of the apostrophe (') |
| ъ | hard sign, transliterated by the symbol of the quotation marks (") |
| е | ye used initially, after vowels, and after the soft and the hard signs; elsewhere e |
| ье | 'ye |
| ъе | "ye |
| э | always e |
| б | b |
| в | v |
| г | always g |
| ы | y |
| й | y |
| ые | yye |
| ый | yy |
| у | u |

Chinese will be transliterated in accordance with the revised Wade-Giles System with certain exceptions as noted in CIA, HB 50-15-1, Transliteration Handbook, January 1954, UNCLASSIFIED, p. 15.



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5. Place Names.

The latest editions of the various NIS Gazetteers, as supplemented by current decisions of the BGN on place names, will be accepted as the final authority for all place names given in ORR reports.*

If the NIS Gazetteer gives only one form of a place name, this will be the form appearing in ORR reports. If more than one form of a place name is given by the NIS Gazetteer, the ORR analyst may use the acceptable conventional form or the preferred original-language form, depending upon which form he feels will be most familiar to his readers. The first time that the place name appears, however, any alternate forms given by the NIS Gazetteer will follow in parentheses. On subsequent appearances of the place name, any alternate forms will be omitted.

If a place name does not appear in the NIS Gazetteer in any form, it will be transliterated according to the BGN system of transliteration for the particular language involved. If coordinates are available for this place name, the coordinates should be given in parentheses after the first appearance of the place name in the report.

According to the NIS Gazetteer for the USSR, names of autonomous republics, oblasts, autonomous oblasts, krays, national okrugs, and rayons in the USSR will be given in their adjectival forms, followed by their respective geographic designation, as illustrated by the following examples:

Mordovskaya Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic (ASSR)
Astrakhanskaya Oblast
Adygeyskaya Autonomous Oblast (AO)
Khabarovskiy Kray
Taymyrskiy National Okrug (NO)
Kozhvinskiy Rayon

---

* For the use of the hyphen in place names that are unit modifiers made up of two or more unit modifiers, combined or not combined, see VI, 5, f, p. 57, above. Place names are not underlined.

Cities, towns, and villages will be given in their noun forms, as follows:

Moscow (note that Moscow rather than Moskva is preferred)
Tbilisi
Gor'kiy
Kiev (preferred to Kiyev)
Arkhangel'sk
Khar'kov

The preferred forms of the 16 Soviet Socialist Republics are given below:

Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic (SSR)
Azerbaydzhan SSR
Belorussian SSR
Estonian SSR
Georgian SSR
Karelo-Finnish SSR
Kazakh SSR
Kirgiz SSR
Latvian SSR
Lithuanian SSR
Moldavian SSR
Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic (RSFSR)
Tadzhik SSR
Turkmen SSR
Ukrainian SSR
Uzbek SSR

The English definite article precedes all of the above Soviet republics used in the anglicized adjectival form ending in -ian. The English definite article is not used for any of the other Soviet republics.

| | |
|---|---|
| of Azerbaydzhan SSR | of the Estonian SSR |
| in Kirgiz SSR | in the Moldavian SSR |

One feature of Soviet toponymy relates to suffixes. As a locality rises from a small village to a large village and then to a workers' settlement, town, or city, the suffix of the name (if such a suffix exists at all) may change successively from skaya to skoye to skiy and to o or sk. A hypothetical small village named for Stalin would thus be successively known as Stalinskaya, Stalinskoye, Stalinskiy, and Stalino or Stalinsk as it passes through the phases of growing urbanization. These changes in suffixes are due to changes in gender of the words signifying village (feminine derevnya, neuter selo), workers' settlement (masculine rabochiy poselok), or city (masculine gorod). It is therefore not uncommon to encounter different spellings for the same place depending upon the recency of the source.

Place names which lack suffixes are also encountered and are generally applied to sizable cities. Suffixes signifying "town" or "city," such as Russian grad (a variant of gorod), Armenian akan, and Iranian abad, also occur frequently.

Figure 2

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# TRANSLITERATION TABLE
## Russian–Miscellaneous Foreign Languages–English

| RUSSIAN | | ALBANIAN | GREEK | ITALIAN | RUMANIAN | TURKISH | B.G.N.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| А | а | a | Α α | a | a | a | a |
| Б | б | b | Μπ[4] | b | b | b | b |
| В | в | v | Β β | v | v | v(f)[16] | v |
| Г | г | g | Γκ[5] | gh | g(gh)[10] | g | g |
| Д | д | d | Ντ[6] | d | d | d | d |
| Е | е | e(je)[1] | Ε ε | e,ie | e,ie | e(ye)[17] | e(ye)[21] |
| Ё | ё | jo | Γιο, Ιο | iò | io | yo | ë(yë)[22] |
| Ж | ж | zh | Ζ ζ | zh | j(g,ge,gi)[11] | j(c)[18] | zh |
| З | з | z | Ζ ζ | z | z | z | z |
| И | и | i | Ι, Η ι,η | i | i | i | i |
| Й | й | j | Ι ι | — | i | y | y |
| К | к | k | Κ κ | k | k,c(ch)[12] | k | k |
| Л | л | ll | Λ λ | l | l | l | l |
| М | м | m | Μ μ | m | m | m | m |
| Н | н | n | Ν ν | n | n | n | n |
| О | о | o | Ο ο | o | o | o | o |
| П | п | p | Π π | p | p | p | p |
| Р | р | r | Ρ ρ | r | r | r | r |
| С | с | s | Σ σ,ς[7] | s | s | s | s |
| Т,Ш | т,m | t | Τ τ | t | t | t | t |
| У | у | u | Ου | u | u | u | u |
| Ф | ф | f | Φ φ | f | f | f | f |
| Х | х | h,kh[2] | Χ χ | kh | h | h | kh |
| Ц | ц | c | Τσ | ts | ţ | ts | ts |
| Ч | ч | ç | Τσ | ci | (c,ci,ce)[13] | ç | ch |
| Ш | ш | sh | Σ σ,ς[8] | sh | ş | ş | sh |
| Щ | щ | shç | Σ σ,ς[9] | shci | (şc,şci,şce)[14] | şç | shch |
| Ъ | ъ | — | — | — | — | — | " |
| Ы | ы | i | Ι ι | i | î | ı[19] | y |
| Ь | ь | j[3] | — | — | i[15] | — | ' |
| Э | э | e | Ε, Αι | è | e,ă | e | e |
| Ю | ю | ju | Γιου, Ιου | iu | iu | yu(ü)[20] | yu |
| Я | я | ja | Για, Ια | ia | ia,ea | ya | ya |

Adjectival Endings

| | RUSSIAN | ALBANIAN | GREEK | ITALIAN | RUMANIAN | TURKISH | B.G.N.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| singular | ый | ij | ιι | — | îi | iy | yy |
| singular | ий | ij | ιι, ηι | — | ii | iy | iy |
| plural | ые | ije | ιε | — | îie | iye | yye |
| plural | ие | ije | ιε, ηε | — | iie | iye | iye |

### EXPLANATORY NOTES

1 "je" used initially, after vowels (a, e, ë, и, o, y, ы, э, ю, я), and after ъ and ь; elsewhere "e".
2 "h" normally used, although "kh" is occasionally used.
3 Sometimes omitted entirely.
4 When used initially.
5 When used initially.
6 When used initially.
7 "ς" used in final position; "σ" used elsewhere.
8 "ς" used in final position; "σ" used elsewhere.
9 "ς" used in final position; "σ" used elsewhere.
10 "gh" used before "e" or "i"; "g" used elsewhere.
11 "g" used for the Russian digraph "дж" before "e" or "i"; "ge" and "gi" used for the digraph before "a", "o" and "u".
12 "ch" used before "e" or "i"; "k" or "c" used elsewhere.
13 "c" used before "e" or "i"; "ci" and "ce" before "a", "o" and "u"; "ci" in the final position.
14 "şc" used before "e" or "i"; "şci" and "şce" before "a", "o" and "u".
15 "i" used after consonants and in the final position; sometimes omitted entirely.
16 "v" and "f" normally used interchangeably, although "f" used in final position in place names of non-Russian origin.
17 "ye" used initially, after vowels (a, e, ë, и, o, y, ы, э, ю, я), and after ъ and ь; elsewhere "e".
18 "c" used for the Russian digraph "дж".
19 Turkish undotted letter "ı".
20 "ü" used in place names of non-Russian origin, particularly German and Turkish names; "yu" used elsewhere.
21 "ye" used initially, after vowels, (a, e, ë, и, o, y, ы, э, ю, я), and after ъ and ь; elsewhere "e".
22 "yë" used initially, after vowels (a, e, ë, и, o, y, ы, э, ю, я,) and after ъ and ь; elsewhere "ë".

GENERAL: This table and other tables to be issued in the future are designed to facilitate the direct conversion to the B.G.N. system of such Russian place names as appear in transliterated form in other foreign languages. In order to achieve uniformity, it is of utmost importance that foreign transliterations from the Russian be converted to the B.G.N. system, even though the original transliteration uses the Roman alphabet. This table gives foreign language transliterations of the Russian, which can then be directly equated to the B.G.N. system.

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**Figure 3**

# TRANSLITERATION TABLE

## Russian–Other Slavic Languages–English

| RUSSIAN | BULGARIAN | CROATIAN-SLOVENE | CZECH-SLOVAK | MACEDONIAN-SERBIAN | POLISH | B.G.N.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| А а | а | a | a | а | a | a |
| Б б | б | b | b | б | b | b |
| В в | в | v | v | в | w | v |
| Г г | г | g | g | г | g | g |
| Д д | д | d | d | д | d | d |
| Е е | е | e(je)[2] | e(ě,[9] je) | e(je)[10] | e(je,ę) | e(ye)[18] |
| Ё ё | ё | jo | jo | jo | jo | ë(yë)[19] |
| Ж ж | ж | ž | ž | ж | ż,ź,zi[13] | zh |
| З з | з | z | z | з | z | z |
| И и | и | i | i | и | i(y,e)[14] | i |
| Й й | й | j | j | j | j | y |
| К к | к | k | k | k | k | k |
| Л л | л | l | l | л | ł (l)[15] | l |
| М м | м | m | m | м | m(mi)[16] | m |
| Н н | н | n | n | н | n(ń,ni)[17] | n |
| О о | о | o | o | о | o,ó | o |
| П п | п | p | p | п | p | p |
| Р р | р | r | r | р | r | r |
| С с | с | s | s | с | s | s |
| Т,Ш т,m | т,m | t | t | т | t | t |
| У у | у | u | u | у | u | u |
| Ф ф | ф | f | f | ф | f | f |
| Х х | х | h | ch | х | ch | kh |
| Ц ц | ц | c | c | ц | c | ts |
| Ч ч | ч | č | č | ч | cz | ch |
| Ш ш | ш | š | š | ш | sz | sh |
| Щ щ | щ[1] | šč | šč | шч | szcz | shch |
| Ъ ъ | — | — | — | j[11] | — | " |
| Ы ы | и | i(y)[3] | y | и | y,e | y |
| Ь ь | — | j | — | j[12] | — | ' |
| Э э | е | e | e | e | e | e |
| Ю ю | ю | ju | ju | jy | ju,u | yu |
| Я я | я | ja | ja | ja | ja | ya |
| **Adjectival Endings** | | | | | | |
| singular ый | ий | ij(yj)[4] | yj | иj | i | yy |
| singular ий | ий | ij | ij | и | i | iy |
| plural ые | ие | (ije,yje)[5] (ie)[6] | yje | иje | e | yye |
| plural ие | ие | (ije)[7] (ie)[8] | ije | ие | e | iye |

### EXPLANATORY NOTES

1 This letter has the sound value (sht) in Bulgarian.

2 In Croatian, "je" used initially, after vowels (а, е, ё, и, о, у, ы, э, ю, я), and after ъ and ь, elsewhere "e".

3 "i" and "y" are used interchangeably in Croatian.

4 "ij" and "yj" are used interchangeably in Croatian.

5 "ije" and "yje" are used interchangeably in Croatian.

6 "ie" used in Slovene.

7 "ije" used in Croatian.

8 "ie" used in Slovene.

9 "ě" does not occur in Slovak.

10 "je" used initially, after vowels (а, е, ё, и, о, у, ы, э, ю, я), and after ъ and ь; elsewhere "e".

11 Sometimes omitted entirely.

12 Sometimes omitted entirely.

13 "ż" used before all vowels except "a" and "e" when "zi" is used; "ź" before consonants.

14 "e" used in the final position; "i" normally used elsewhere, although "y" is occasionally used.

15 "l" used before "и" or "ь"; "ł" used elsewhere.

16 "mi" used occasionally.

17 "ń" used frequently to indicate softening of "n"; "ni" used before "e" and "a".

18 "ye" used initially, after vowels (а, е, ё, и, о, у, ы, э, ю, я), and after ъ and ь; elsewhere "e".

19 "yë" used initially, after vowels (а, е, ё, и, о, у, ы. э, ю, я), and after ъ and ь; elsewhere "ë".

GENERAL: This table and other tables to be issued in the future are designed to facilitate the direct conversion to the B.G.N. system of such Russian place names as appear in transliterated form in other foreign languages. In order to achieve uniformity, it is of utmost importance that foreign transliterations from the Russian be converted to the B.G.N. system, even though the original transliteration uses the Roman alphabet. This table gives the Russian equivalents for transliterating other Slavic languages according to the B.G.N. system.

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APPENDIX C

SOURCE REFERENCES

This appendix, which discusses the Source References appendix of ORR economic intelligence reports, supplements the information on documentation and source identifications given in the text (see V, 8, p. 33, above). The most pertinent principles and practices are described, and a sample list of source references is given below. In the discussion of principles and practices, reference is made to the sources listed in the sample appendix. Some of the source references are based on actual documents, and other source references are based on fictitious documents which are used to illustrate valid principles and practices.

1. Introduction.

Source references in ORR reports will be made according to the procedures given in CIA, OCD, CIA/CD/17, Research Aid, How to Document Intelligence Reports, February 1955 /issued on 14 March 1955/, CONFIDENTIAL (see CIA, DD/I Notice No. 50-100-4, Documentation of Research Intelligence Reports, 8 February 1955, SECRET, and CIA, ORR, OCh/E, Publications Instruction No. 5, Documentation of Reports in the Economic Research Area, 17 March 1955, SECRET). The main details of documentation prescribed by CIA/CD/17 are discussed in this research aid.* A few minor exceptions have been permitted for clearness and consistency, and they will be noted as they occur. Particular attention is called to paragraph 5a, page 4, of CIA/CD/17, which directs that page numbers be given for all references if the source cited "contains four or more pages."

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* This research aid also includes materials from the following CIA publications: ORR Office Regulation R50-10, Documentation of Reports, 19 August 1952, SECRET; [redacted] and DD/P, CSI No. 210-4, Reporting and Dissemination of Positive Intelligence Information, 23 January 1953, SECRET. When variations in usage among publications occur, analysts of the Economic Research Area will follow the procedures given in this research aid. 25X1C4000

25X1C



[redacted]

The evaluation of sources used in ORR reports will be made according to the procedures given in CIA, ORR Office Regulation R50-10, Documentation of Reports, 19 August 1952, SECRET, with an additional qualification (agreed to orally) on original documents of foreign governmental organizations (see 5, p. 113, below). For a discussion of the procedures involved in evaluating field reports, see CIA, ORR Office Regulation R50-611, Evaluation of Information Reports, 23 September 1954, SECRET. The analyst should remember that there is no relationship between the validity of the information contained in a document 25X1A and the classification of the document.

25X1A

Information reports in the [redacted] series will be treated according to the procedures given in CIA, DD/I Notice No. 50-100-4, 8 February 1955, SECRET. The Source References appendix of draft reports submitted for publication to St/PB of ORR will contain the reference numbers of all documents used as sources. When necessary, these reference numbers will be deleted after the draft has reached the ORR staffs, and a supplementary list of source references containing them will be issued. Classification of sources is discussed in 4, p. 113, below.

A draft report submitted for publication should be documented correctly. Correct documentation (including evaluation), which is useful and necessary to any informative report, also will save time in publication. It is more efficient for the analyst to copy a citation correctly and to evaluate it when he has the document before him than to have to locate the document a second time in order to correct the citation. Incorrectly or incompletely documented draft reports will be returned for correction.

Each line in the source references should be triple-spaced to facilitate editing.

2. Identification of Sources.

a. Intelligence Documents.

(1) Example.

48. Army, USAREURIC, 513 MIG. RV 941-54, 11 Oct 54, Muehlhausen Electronic Tube Plant, p. 4, info Dec 52, CIA C35587. S. Eval. Field C-3 (RR 4).

(2) Breakdown.

(a) Source reference number: 48.

Followed by a period.

(b) Office, agency, or department of origin: Army, USAREURIC, 513 MIG.

Organizational elements are listed in order of subordination from top to bottom and are separated by commas. The last organizational element is followed by a period.

(c) Identification of the document given by the originating organization: RV 941-54,

Followed by a comma.

(d) Date of the document: 11 Oct 54,

In source references to official publications (excluding periodicals) which do not represent finished intelligence, the date precedes the title of the source (see source references 4 and 52). In source references to finished intelligence, the date follows the title and volume number (if given) of the source (see source references 20 and 33). Most ONE, ORR, OCI, and OSI publications will be considered finished intelligence (see source references 16, 18, and 22). Field publications and most OO publications (such as FBID and FDD documents) will not be considered finished intelligence (see source references 1, 12, and 30). The date of the document is followed by a comma.

(e) Title or subject of the document: Muehlhausen Electronic Tube Plant,

The title of the document is always underlined, whether published or to be published, and is followed by a comma.

(f) Pagination: p. 4,

Page numbers, followed by a comma, will be given for all source references if the source cited contains four or more pages.

(g) Date of information: info Dec 52,

The date of information is included when it is available, and it is followed by a comma.

(h) Number assigned by CIA: CIA C35587.

The CIA number is included when it is available and advisable, and it is followed by a period.

(i) Classification*: S.

Periods follow the last item before the classification and also the classification.

(j) Evaluation**: Eval. Field C-3 (RR 4).

b. Books.

(1) Example.

110. Abramovich, S.F., Moiseyev, C.F., and Kurzon, A.A. Parovyye turbiny (Steam Turbines), 1st ed, Moscow, 1949, p. 16. U. Eval. RR 1. (encl to Air, Paris. IR-238-51, 23 Feb 51. R)

(2) Breakdown.

(a) Source reference number: 110.

(b) Author: Abramovich, S.F., Moiseyev, C.F., and Kurzon, A.A.

If 1 to 3 names are listed as authors of a particular book, all these names may appear in the source reference. A period follows the author's name. If more than three names are listed, the first name appearing in the listing may be utilized in

* See 4, p. 113, below.
** See 5, p. 113, below.

the source reference followed by et al. (et alii, "and others") in place of the names of the additional authors. The term et al. is underlined and followed by a period (see source reference 111).

If no author is given for a book, the country of origin, followed by the originating agency within this country, is listed (see source references 102, 103, and 108). If the name of the originating agency is not available, the country of origin is followed by the title of the book (see source reference 116).

(c) Title: Parovyye turbiny (Steam Turbines),

Titles of books in foreign languages are given in a transliterated form of the original (approved by the Board on Geographic Names), followed by the English translation of the title enclosed in parentheses (see source references 102 and 111). If a translated version of a foreign book has been used, the foreign-language title is not given (see source reference 103).

The first letter of the first word in the foreign language version of the title is capitalized. With the exception of proper names in all foreign languages and nouns in German, all other words in this version begin with lowercase letters (see source references 8 and 84).

The title of the book is always underlined and followed by a comma. If a translation of the title in parentheses is included, the comma follows the parentheses.

(d) Edition: 1st ed,

This entry is included when it is available, and it is followed by a comma.

The word edition is abbreviated ed and is to be distinguished from the word editor, abbreviated edr. The phrase edited by is spelled out in full.

(e) Place of publication: Moscow,

The place of publication is given by city without country (or state) unless the name of the country is necessary to distinguish between cities of the same name in different countries. The place of publication is followed by a comma.

The name of the publisher is not included.

(f) Volume number:

This entry is included if the source consists of more than one volume.

(g) Date of publication: 1949,

(h) Pagination: p. 16.

Page numbers are given for all source references to books.

(i) Classification*: U.

Periods follow the last item before the classification and also the classification.

(j) Evaluation**: Eval. RR 1.

(k) Notes: (encl to Air, Paris. IR-238-51, 23 Feb 51. R)

If the citation requires an explanatory note, this information is enclosed in parentheses and follows the evaluation. The first letter of the first word of the note is not capitalized, and no punctuation follows the note (see source references 102 and 103).

c. Periodicals -- Governmental.

In a sense, all periodicals published by the Sino-Soviet Bloc are governmental publications. A distinction, however, will be made between governmental periodicals published by the various governments acting as governments (see source references 101, 115, and 117) and all other periodicals, which will be considered nongovernmental.

* See 4, p. 113, below.
** See 5, p. 113, below.



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(1) Example.

101. USSR, Embassy, Washington. "Oil Workers Fulfill Five Year Plan Ahead of Schedule," by N. Baibakov, Information Bulletin, vol 11, no 1, 12 Jan 51, p. 6. U. Eval. Doc.

(2) Breakdown.

(a) Source reference number: 101.

(b) Country of origin: USSR,

The country of origin is listed if other than US (compare source references 43 and 71 with source reference 97), and it is followed by a comma.

(c) Office, agency, or department of origin: Embassy, Washington.

If the name of the originating agency is not available, the country of origin is followed by the title of the article (see source reference 117).

(d) Title of the article: "Oil Workers Fulfill Five Year Plan Ahead of Schedule,"

The title of the article is followed by a comma and enclosed in quotation marks. Note the position of the comma inside the closing quotation marks.

If the title of the article (set off by quotation marks) is in a foreign language, the English translation of the title, enclosed in parentheses, must always be given (see source reference 117).

(e) Author of the article: by N. Baibakov,

The name of the author, if given, is preceded by the word by.

(f) Title of the periodical: Information Bulletin,

The title of the periodical is underlined and is followed by a comma.

Titles of newspapers and periodicals in foreign languages are not translated into English (see source references 117, 122, and 125).

(g) Serial number of the periodical: vol 11, no 1,

(h) Date of the periodical: 12 Jan 51,

(i) Pagination: p. 6.

Page numbers are given for all source references to periodicals.

(j) Classification*: U.

Periods follow the last item before the classification and also the classification.

(k) Evaluation**: Eval. Doc.

(l) Notes.

If the citation requires an explanatory note, this information will be enclosed in parentheses and will follow the evaluation. The first letter of the first word of the note is not capitalized, and no punctuation follows the note (see source references 94 and 95).

In the case of foreign-language materials translated or summarized by FDD or other US translating services, the translating service will be given as the source, and the original foreign-language document will follow the source reference in parentheses (see source reference 8).

* See 4, p. 113, below.
** See 5, p. 113, below.

d. Periodicals -- Nongovernmental.

The procedure for nongovernmental periodicals is similar to that employed for governmental periodicals, with the exception that no originating agency or office is given. If the article has an author, the name of the author is given first, followed by the title of the article (see source references 98 and 109).

If no author is indicated, the source reference begins with the title of the article (see source references 94 and 95).

If neither the name of the author nor the title of the article is indicated, the source reference begins with the title of the periodical (see source references 122, 125, 128, and 130).

3. Source Identification Problems.

a. Repeating Source Identifications.

It has been pointed out in the text that no source identification number is ever repeated and that consequently it is often necessary to identify the same source several times. To avoid the laborious repetition of the complete identification of sources, the documentation devices *ibid.* (for *ibidem*, "in the same place") and *op. cit.* (for *opere citato*, "in the work cited," or *opus citatum*, "the work cited") are used. *Ibid.* indicates repetition of the immediately preceding source or group of sources.

The notation *op. cit.* will be used only to refer to a previous citation if the author's name is the first item given in the original citation. *Op. cit.* will be followed by the source reference number of the original citation (followed by a comma) and by the word *above*, both enclosed in parentheses (see source references 91 and 93, 109 and 114, and 110 and 112).

If the author's name is not the first item given in the original citation, the notation *op. cit.* will not be used. The source reference number of the previous citation (followed by a comma) and the word *above*, both enclosed in parentheses, will follow the first item in the subsequent citation (see source references 94 and 96, 97 and 99, and 117 and 121).

Repeated references to official sources will list the originating office and project numbers or designations (see source references 4 and 6, 24 and 26, 41 and 46, and 75 and 77).

Repeated references to books or periodicals will list key words previously noted in the first reference to the particular source in the parenthetic phrase hereafter referred to as (see source references 94 and 96, 95 and 97, 102 and 104, and 103 and 106).

The use of an op. cit. or a "([source reference number], above)" notation such as "(4, above)" (see source references 93 and 6) indicates repetition of all items in the particular source reference occurring after the initial items (originating office and project numbers or designations for official documents; author's name or key words for nonofficial books or periodicals). If the subsequent source reference is to the same page as the previous reference, nothing follows the op. cit. or the "(4, above)" type of notation (see source references 52 and 54, 91 and 93, and 94 and 96). If the pages cited in subsequent source references differ from those of the original source reference, the changed page numbers, classification, and evaluation are all written out after the op. cit. or the "(4, above)" type of notation (see source references 110 and 112, 7 and 9, 24 and 26, 95 and 97, and 102 and 104). The classification and evaluation may differ for different pages from the same source. If there is a difference, it must be indicated (see source references 4 and 6).

The first use of ibid. is in source reference 10, where it serves to indicate a repetition of the CIA, FDD Translation referenced in 9. Note that ibid. may follow an op. cit. identification or a "(4, above)" type of notation (see source references 10, 115, 119, 133, and 135).

An op. cit. may never refer to an ibid., but it may follow immediately after an ibid. to which it does not refer (see source references 132 and 134). Note also that one ibid. may follow another (see source references 11 and 120).

b. Grouping Source Identifications.

Often a single source identification will refer to two or more sources (see p. 35, above). In that situation, all the sources referred to are grouped under a single number in the Source References appendix (see source references 7, 38, 50, 51, 97, and 115). A group of sources may be listed under a single source number if all these sources were used in writing a particular section or part of the report.

4. Classification.

All source references must include the classification of the sources identified or an indication in nonofficial sources that the source is unclassified.* Classifications are indicated by the following abbreviations: U (UNCLASSIFIED), C (CONFIDENTIAL), S (SECRET), and TS (TOP SECRET). Any special limitations on distribution of the document must be stated in full as a part of the classification. Among the more commonly used of these limitations are NOFORN (NOT RELEASABLE TO FOREIGN NATIONALS) (see source reference 27), which for current publications has superseded US ONLY (FOR US OFFICIALS ONLY) (see source reference 28); LTD (LIMITED) (see source reference 3); CONT CONTROL (CONTINUED CONTROL) (see source reference 27); CIA ONLY (CIA INTERNAL USE ONLY) (see source reference 29); and OFF USE (FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY) (see source reference 12).

5. Evaluation.

An evaluation** must be given for every source reference, with the exception of finished CIA intelligence reports*** and outgoing cables (compare source references 39 and 41 with source reference 50).

The field evaluation is given when available. If the ORR evaluation agrees with the field evaluation, no ORR evaluation should be shown in the source reference (see source reference 49).

If the ORR evaluation differs from the field evaluation the ORR evaluation is given in parentheses after the field evaluation.

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* See CIA Regulation No. 10-6, Security of Classified Documents, 28 January 1952, FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY; CIA Regulation No. 51-700, Control of Dissemination and Use of Intelligence and Information, 1 March 1956, CONFIDENTIAL; and CIA, OCD, CIA/CD/17, Research Aid, February 1955, p. 6, CONFIDENTIAL (see 1, p. 103, above).

** See CIA, ORR Office Regulation R50-10, Documentation of Reports, 19 August 1952, SECRET, and CIA, ORR Office Regulation R50-611, Evaluation of Information Reports, 23 September 1954, SECRET (see 1, p. 103, above).

*** See 2, a, (2), (d), p. 105, above.

If both a field and an ORR evaluation are included, the word Field follows the abbreviated word Eval. (see source reference 52). (This abbreviated form of the word evaluation is always followed by a period.) If the field evaluation is given without reference to an ORR evaluation, the word Field is omitted (see source reference 49).

The analyst is not expected to give a letter evaluation to a source unless he is familiar with the source and not merely with the particular item of information that he is using from the source.

The actual list of source references following any discussion of sources and source material in the Source References appendix is always preceded by the following explanation of the method of evaluation:

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Evaluations, following the classification entry and designated "Eval.," have the following significance:

| Source of Information | Information |
|---|---|
| Doc. - Documentary | 1 - Confirmed by other sources |
| A - Completely reliable | 2 - Probably true |
| B - Usually reliable | 3 - Possibly true |
| C - Fairly reliable | 4 - Doubtful |
| D - Not usually reliable | 5 - Probably false |
| E - Not reliable | 6 - Cannot be judged |
| F - Cannot be judged | |

"Documentary" refers to original documents of foreign governments and organizations; copies or translations of such documents by a staff officer; or information extracted from such documents by a staff officer, all of which may carry the field evaluation "Documentary."

Evaluations not otherwise designated are those appearing on the cited document; those designated "RR" are by the author of this report. No "RR" evaluation is given when the author agrees with the evaluation on the cited document.

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/Sample List of Source References/

25X1A

1. [redacted]
2.
3.
4. CIA. FDD U-6623, 11 Oct 54, Information on the Iron and Steel Industry in the GDR, p. 6. C. Eval. RR 2. (tr of Europa-Archiv, Frankfurt, 20 Jun 54. U)
5. CIA. FDD Q-468, 30 Jul 52. S/US ONLY. Eval. RR 3.
6. CIA. FDD U-6623 (4, above), p. 8. C. Eval. RR 3.
7. CIA. FDD Summary no 372, 4 Feb 55, Data on USSR Extractive Industries (No. 3), p. 54. C. Eval. RR 2.
   CIA. FDD Translation no 289, 19 Oct 50, Proposed Czechoslovak 1949 Operational Plan for Railroad Transport, p. 25-27. S. Eval. RR 2.
8. CIA. FDD Summary no 274, 30 Nov 54, Construction of Major USSR Electric Power Stations, 1953-54, p. 34. C. Eval. RR 2.
   CIA. FDD Translation no 37/49, 14 Jun 49, Yearbook of the Industry of Regenerated Poland, chap 5, pt 3. C. Eval. Doc. (tr of Rocznik przemyslo odrondzonej Polski, 2d ed, Warsaw, 25 Mar 48. U)
9. CIA. FDD Translation no 289 (7, above), p. 30. S. Eval. RR 2.
10. Ibid., p. 28. S. Eval. RR 2.
11. Ibid.

25X1A

[redacted]

12.

STATSPEC

13.
14.
15. CIA. OCI, Current Intelligence Weekly, no 2923, 24 Dec 54, p. 2. S.
16. CIA. OCI, Handbook: Czechoslovakia, 28 Dec 54, p. 7. S.
17. CIA. OCI, Current Intelligence Digest, no 1416, 19 Jan 53. S/US ONLY. (quoting State, Rome. Dsp 3152, 16 Jan 53. S)

18. CIA. NIE 65, Soviet Bloc Capabilities Through 1957, 16 Jun 53, p. 4. TS.
19. CIA. CIA/RR IM-411, Soviet Plan Fulfillment, 1954, 5 Jul 55, p. 5. S.
CIA. CIA/ORE 42-48, Rolling Stock in the USSR, 1 Sep 48, p. 41. S.
20. CIA. CIA/RR 39, Agricultural Labor in the USSR, 31 Aug 54, Table 3, p. 21. S.
21. CIA. CIA/RR RA (ORR Project 25.186), Civil Consumption of Petroleum Products in the USSR, 1945-55, 27 Sep 54, p. 20. S/US ONLY.
22. CIA. CIA/RR CSM 270, Organization of Construction Ministries for USSR Heavy Industry, 20 Apr 55. C
CIA. CIA/RR PR-107, Soviet Bloc Trade in Petroleum, 1947-53, 6 Apr 55, p. 12. S/NOFORN.
23. CIA. CIA/RR 39 (20, above), Table 7, footnote a, p. 31, and Table 9, p. 37. S.
CIA. ORR Project 10.714, Unit-Cost Index for Capital Investment in the USSR, 1952-54 (to be published). C.
24. CIA. CIA/RR IP-385, Soviet Capabilities and Probable Soviet Courses of Action, 1954-60, 7 Mar 55, p. 12. S.
25. CIA. ORR Project 22-52 (WP), The Dependency of the Soviet Bloc Electrotechnical Industry on Western Sources of Supply, 27 Jan 53. S/US ONLY.
26. CIA. CIA/RR IP-385 (24, above), p. 103. S.
27. [redacted]
28. [redacted]
29. [redacted]
30. [redacted]
31. CIA. EIC-R1-S4, Communist China's Imports and Exports, 1954: Trade and Transport Involved (to be published). S.
32. CIA. Photos 48734AC-48736AC, 13 Nov 53. S.
CIA. OCR/GR, E 7139, Der Augenzeuge (The Eyewitness), 31/1953, 1953. OFF USE. Eval. RR 2. (motion picture film)
33. [redacted]
34. [redacted]

25X1A

25X1A

25X1A

35. [redacted]
36.
37.
38.
39.
40.

41. NIS 14, Poland, sec 61, 1953, p. 61-1, 61-13. C.

25X1X7

42. NIS 26, USSR, supplement V, Oct 52, p. 2-2. S.
43. [redacted]
44.
45. NIS 26 (42, above).

25X1A

46. NIS 14 (41, above), fig 63-14, p. 63-33, 63-34. S.
47. Army/Navy. JANIS 118, 23 May 45, p. 34. S. Eval. RR 2.
48. [redacted]
49.
50.
51.
52.

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25X1X7

73. [redacted]

74. [redacted]

75. [redacted]

76. [redacted]

77. [redacted]

78. [redacted]

79. [redacted]

80. UN, FAO. European Timber Statistics, 1913-1950, Geneva, 1953, p. 61. U. Eval. RR 3.

81. UN, ECE. "Standards of Health and Education in Eastern Europe," Economic Survey of Europe in 1954, Geneva, 1955, p. 117-118, 121-122. U. Eval. RR 2.

82. UN. Treaty Series, vol 1, 1946-47, p. 74. U. Eval. Doc.

83. UN, Secretariat. Statistical Yearbook, 1954, 1955, p. 359-362. U. Eval. RR 1.

84. Bank of International Settlements. Press Review, no 11, 17 Jan 55. U. Eval. RR 3. (citing Nachrichten fuer Aussenhandel, Berlin, 12 Jan 55. U)

85. International Institute of Agriculture. International Yearbook of Agricultural Statistics, 1938-39, Rome, 1939, p. 52. U. Eval. RR 1.

86. National Committee for a Free Europe, Inc., Mid-European Studies Center. The Hungarian Oil Industry, New York, 1954, p. 64-76. U. Eval. RR 4.

87. [redacted]

25X1A5a1

88. [redacted]

89. [redacted]

90. Joint Committee on Slavic Studies. "American-British Struggle for Markets," Current Digest of the Soviet Press, vol 5, no 37, 24 Oct 53, p. 34. U. Eval. RR 2. (tr of N. Torsuyev. Pravda, 11 Sep 53, p. 3. U)
91. Bergson, Abram, and Heymann, Hans, Jr. Soviet National Income and Product, 1940-48, New York, 1953, p. 109. U. Eval. RR 2.
92. Shreve, R.N. The Chemical Process Industries, New York, 1945, p. 224. U. Eval. RR 1.
93. Bergson and Heymann, op. cit. (91, above).
94. "The Soviet Fifth Five Year Plan," New York Times, 23 Aug 52, p. 2. U. Eval. RR 2. (tr from Pravda, 20 Aug 52. U) (hereafter referred to as "The Soviet Fifth Five Year Plan")
95. "Hydroelectric Developments," Pakistan Fair, vol 6, no 58, Mar 52, p. 834. U. Eval. RR 2. (hereafter referred to as "Hydroelectric Developments")
96. "The Soviet Fifth Five Year Plan" (94, above).
97. Congressional Record, vol 97, no 145, 8 Aug 51, p. 9758-9759. U. Eval. Doc.
"Hydroelectric Developments" (95, above), p. 832. U. Eval. RR 3.
98. Daniel, Clifton. "Soviet Assessing Its Land Program," New York Times, 13 Sep 54, p. 4C. U. Eval. RR 2.
99. Congressional Record (97, above).
100. Daniel, op. cit. (98, above), p. 5C. U. Eval. RR 2.
101. USSR, Embassy, Washington. "Oil Workers Fulfill Five Year Plan Ahead of Schedule," by N. Baibakov, Information Bulletin, vol 11, no 1, 12 Jan 51, p. 6. U. Eval. Doc.
102. USSR, Gosplan. Slovar'-spravochnik po sotsial'no-ekonomicheskoy statistike (Dictionary Handbook for Social and Economic Statistics), Moscow, 1944, American Council of Learned Societies Reprint, Russian Series, no 19, Baltimore, 1949, p. 123-125. U. Eval. Doc. (hereafter referred to as USSR, Gosplan. Slovar'-spravochnik)
103. USSR, State Planning Commission. Socialist Construction in the USSR, Moscow, 1936, p. 52. U. Eval. Doc. (hereafter referred to as USSR, State Planning Commission. Socialist Construction)

104. USSR, Gosplan. Slovar'-spravochnik (102, above), p. 122. U. Eval. Doc.
105. Ibid., p. 124. U. Eval. Doc.
106. USSR, State Planning Commission. Socialist Construction (103, above).
107. USSR, Gosplan. Gosudarstvennyy plan razvitiya narodnogo khozyaystva SSSR na 1941 (State Plan for the Development of the National Economy of the USSR in 1941), American Council of Learned Societies Reprints, Russian Series, no 30, Baltimore, nd, p. 86. U. Eval. Doc.
108. USSR, Gosudarstvennyy Nauchnyy Institut. "Olenevodstvo" (Reindeer Husbandry), Bol'shaya sovetskaya entsiklopediya (Great Soviet Encyclopedia) (in 1 vol), Moscow, 1947, American Council of Learned Societies Reprints, Russian Series, no 18, Baltimore, 1949, p. 930-931. U. Eval. Doc.
109. Aristov, N. "Organizovannyy nabor rabochey sily" (Organized Recruitment of the Labor Force), Planovoye khozyaystvo, no 11, Nov 39, p. 88-99. U. Eval. Doc.
110. Abramovich, S.F., Moiseyev, C.F., and Kurzon, A.A. Parovyye turbiny (Steam Turbines), 1st ed, Moscow, 1949, p. 16. U. Eval. Doc. (encl to Air, Paris. IR-238-51, 23 Feb 51. R)
111. Poroshin, K.M., et al. Spravochnik po proizvodstvu zhestyanoy konservnoy tary (Handbook for the Production of Tin Can Materials), Moscow, 1949, p. 78, 82-84, 86. U. Eval. Doc.
112. Abramovich, Moiseyev, and Kurzon, op. cit. (110, above), p. 22. U. Eval. Doc.
113. Poroshin, et al., op. cit. (111, above).
114. Aristov, op. cit. (109, above).
115. Ibid.
USSR, Verkhovnyy Sovet SSSR. Zasedaniya verkhovnogo soveta SSSR, chetvertogo sozyva, pervaya sessiya, stenograficheskiy otchet (Proceedings of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, 4th Meeting, 1st Session: Stenographic Report), Moscow, 1955, p. 39. U. Eval. Doc. (hereafter referred to as USSR, Verkhovnyy Sovet SSSR. Zasedaniya)
116. USSR. Spisok abonentov Moskovskoy gorodskoy telefonnoy seti (List of Subscribers, Moscow City Telephone System), pt 2, Moscow, 1954. U. Eval. Doc.
117. USSR. "Ukazy" (Decrees), Vedomosti verkhovnogo soveta SSSR, no 2, 19 Jan 46. U. Eval. Doc. (hereafter referred to as USSR. "Ukazy")

118. USSR, Verkhovnyy Sovet SSSR. Zasedaniya (115, above), p. 25. U. Eval. Doc.
119. Ibid., p. 64. U. Eval. Doc.
120. Ibid.
121. USSR. "Ukazy" (117, above).
122. Pravda, 2 Nov 54, p. 22. U. Eval. RR 3.
123. Ibid., p. 3. U. Eval. RR 3.
124. Ibid., 7 Dec 54, p. 1. U. Eval. RR 2.
125. Moskovskaya pravda, 15 Nov 51. U. Eval. RR 2.
Leningradskaya pravda, 15 Nov 51. U. Eval. RR 2.
126. Krasnaya zvezda, 12 Oct 47. U. Eval. RR 2.
127. Izvestiya, 21 Sep 47. U. Eval. RR 2.
128. Rude pravo, 12 Dec 53. U. Eval. RR 2.
129. China, Mukden (Shen-yang) Locomotive and Rolling Stock Manufacturing Company. The Railroad Equipment Industry in Northeast China, Mukden, 1948, p. 107-135. U. Eval. RR 2.
130. Probleme economice, Bucharest, 1 Mar 48, p. 4. U. Eval. RR 2.
131. Ibid.
132. Poroshin, et al., op. cit. (111, above).
133. Ibid.
134. Aristov, op. cit. (109, above).
135. Ibid.

APPENDIX D

## EDITORIAL CHECKLIST

The following editorial checklist used by editors in St/PB is offered as an aid to analysts in making certain that a draft report is ready for submittal.

1. General.

a. All parts of the report complete, in proper order, and ready for editing.

b. Any limitations in scope of report explained.

c. Entire report coordinated as necessary with appropriate analysts in CIA and other agencies.

d. Three minimum appendixes included (Methodology, Gaps in Intelligence, and Source References).

e. All problems of security and classification settled.

f. Technical terms defined or explained as necessary and used consistently throughout.

g. Place, plant, biographic, and other proper names checked for accuracy and used consistently throughout.

h. Translations, transliterations, and titles of foreign organizations and publications checked for accuracy.

i. Ministries, main administrations, and other organizations correctly identified as of present date, checked for accuracy, all relationships clearly stated, and used consistently throughout.

j. Abbreviations explained as necessary and used consistently throughout.

k. Units of measurement consistent in kind and form throughout.

l. Data and calculations checked for accuracy.

m. Graphics consistent with text.

n. Pages of text in order and numbered consecutively beginning with the Summary.

o. Classification at top and bottom of each page.

p. Complete text proofread for typographical errors and corrections indicated.

2. Title Page (unnumbered).

a. Title of report brief but fully descriptive of contents.

b. Agency and Office designations complete.

3. Foreword (if any).

a. Begins on page iii.

b. Properly labeled -- FOREWORD -- center of page.

4. Table of Contents.

a. Begins on page v (on page iii if no FOREWORD).

b. Properly labeled -- CONTENTS -- center of page.

c. FOREWORD (if any) not listed.

d. Summary first entry -- not preceded by a numeral.

e. Labeling accurate and consistent.

f. Indentation accurate and consistent.

g. Appendixes included under center head -- Appendixes.

h. Appendixes identified -- Appendix A, Appendix B, Appendix C, and so on -- and full title of each given.



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i. Tables (if any) included under center head -- Tables -- listed 1, 2, 3, and so on, in proper order and full title of each given.

j. Illustrations (if any) included under center head -- Illustrations (or Charts or Maps, as the case may be) -- listed Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3, and so on, in proper order and full title of each given.

k. All entries agreeing in form and relative position with their counterparts in the body of the report.

5. First Page of Report.

a. Agency and Office designations at upper left.

b. Full title identical with that on title page in solid capital letters, underlined, centered at top of page, with asterisk following.

c. Asterisk and footnote at bottom of page, under 15-space solid line, indicating cutoff date or equivalent.

d. Summary centered under title.

6. Summary.

a. All essentials included.

b. All nonessentials excluded.

7. Body of the Report.

a. All sections (headings, subheadings, and so on) properly numbered and labeled.

b. References made to all appendixes, tables, and illustrations.

8. Footnotes.

a. Asterisks properly used in text and coordinated with entries at bottom of page.

b. Footnotes set off from text by 15-space solid line.

c. Table footnotes (in lowercase letters) properly designated and placed following tables.

9. Tables.

a. All tables in text properly introduced.

b. All tables correctly numbered and titled.

c. Titles consistent in wording and punctuation.

d. Form of individual tables consistent with form of similar tables.

e. Units of measurement clearly stated and consistent among tables.

f. All entries checked for accuracy.

10. Source Identifications.

a. Numbered (in arabic numerals) consecutively throughout.

b. Asterisk following number 1/ and proper footnote at bottom of page, under 15-space solid line.

c. No number repeated.

d. All numbered in agreement with the listing in the Source References appendix.

11. Source References Appendix.

a. All sources numbered in agreement with the sequence of source identifications in the text.

b. All sources complete, with page numbers, classification, and evaluation.

APPENDIX E

## BIBLIOGRAPHICAL AIDS

The books listed in this appendix are only a few of the good texts in the general field of technical reports. They are offered as aids for those analysts who feel the need for more extensive and intensive review of the principles of effective writing than is provided in this research aid. (See also CIA, OCD, CIA Library, Report Writing: An Annotated List of Selected Aids, revised edition, March 1955, UNCLASSIFIED.)

1. Gaum, Carl G., Graves, Harold F., and Hoffman, Lyne S.S. Report Writing, third edition, New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950 (reprinted, London: Chapman & Hall, Ltd., 1951).

This is a general book on technical writing designed for undergraduate engineering students. Of particular interest are Chapter 3, "Fundamental Forms of Composition," and Chapter 4, "Some Matters of Style." Chapter 3 contains some discussion of summaries and of methods and types of definition.

2. Johnson, Ellen. The Research Report: A Guide for the Beginner, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1951.

This book, though elementary, contains valuable discussions of the major principles and problems of research, with illustrations of research papers and cautions on documentation.

3. Kent, Sherman. Writing History, New York: F.S. Crofts & Company, 1941.

This book is not directed primarily toward the writing of reports, but it contains helpful material on style and usage and valuable discussions of the elements of research and the methods of organizing material.

4. Linton, Calvin D. How to Write Reports, New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1954.

This book contains valuable discussions of the types of research reports and the principles of effective writing.



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5. Nelson, Joseph R. Writing the Technical Report, third edition, New York, San Francisco, Chicago: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.; London: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, Ltd.; Toronto: McGraw-Hill Company of Canada, Ltd., 1952.

This book, on an undergraduate level, contains in Chapters 5, 6, and 7 a discussion of the purposes and functions of introductions. This discussion is also applicable to summaries.

6. Rautenstrauch, Walter. Industrial Surveys and Reports, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.; London: Chapman & Hall, Ltd., 1940.

Although aimed specifically at industrial reports, with considerable emphasis on fiscal analysis, this book contains in Chapter 1 an excellent discussion of the general principles of effective writing. The entire book would be of considerable interest to ORR analysts.

7. Rhodes, Fred H. Technical Report Writing, New York, San Francisco, Chicago: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.; London: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, Ltd.; Toronto: McGraw-Hill Company of Canada, Ltd., 1941.

This excellent general book on technical writing contains some useful material on mathematical and graphic methods.

8. Rose, Lisle A., Bennett, Burney B., and Heater, Elmer F. Engineering Reports, New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1950.

Several chapters of this book are of value to analysts. Chapter 5, "Getting and Preserving Facts," discusses aids in research methods and makes suggestions on the evaluation and use of sources. Chapter 6, "Reinterpreting and Reevaluating Your Data," extends the discussion to source evaluation. In Chapter 8, "Using Language Efficiently," problems of unity, clearness, conciseness, and emphasis are treated at some length. Those parts of Chapter 11, "Digests," which deal with the précis, the abstract, the outline, and definitions are of particular value. In Part IV, "Written Reports," there is a sensible discussion of the various kinds of written reports.

9. Stewart, John L. Exposition for Science and Technical Students, New York: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 1950.

This is an excellent book on expository writing in general and especially on the structure of paragraphs in scientific and technical reports.

10. Sypherd, Wilbur O., Fountain, Alvin M., and Brown, Sharon O. The Engineer's Manual of English, revised edition, Chicago, Atlanta, Dallas, New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1943.

This book is precisely what the title implies. Chapter 2, "The Elements of the Whole Composition," and Chapter 3, "Mechanical Details," contain useful basic information for both study and reference. Chapter 5, "Report Writing," gives a fairly comprehensive survey of the problems of report writing.

11. Trelease, Sam F. The Scientific Paper, How to Prepare It, How to Write It: A Handbook for Students and Research Workers in All Branches of Science, second edition, Baltimore: The Williams & Wilkins Company, 1951 (reprinted, London: Bailliere, Tindall & Cox, Ltd., 1952).

As its title indicates, this book is slanted toward the preparation of scientific reports. It is a good general reference text and contains a useful section on proofreading.

12. Ulman, Joseph N., Jr. Technical Reporting, New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1952.

This book, designed for the undergraduate in science and engineering, is on a rather basic level. The most immediately useful section is Chapter 10, "Writing: Style."

OPTIONAL FORM NO. 10



UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT

# *Memorandum* FOR THE RECORD

TO :

DATE: 19 May 1965

FROM :

SUBJECT: Destruction of CIA/RR RA-8, Writing of Reports, Secret

All copies now being held by Records Center may be destroyed. This report has been revised by OTR.

25X1A9a

per [redacted]
Acting Chief, Publications Staff

nb

Rpt. No. RA-8 Pub. Date 31 Aug 56

Distribution to RC: 624

Number in RC: ~~572~~ ~~570~~ ~~568~~ ~~566~~ ~~564~~ ~~565~~ ~~564~~ ~~560~~ ~~558~~ ~~555~~ ~~553~~ ~~561~~ ~~558~~ ~~556~~ ~~546~~ ~~544~~ (per checked with RC - 25 Sep 63)

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Jeanne -

Delete section on "Sonus" - Pages 103-122.

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Otherwise ok for [redacted]

— C. L.