

FRENCH STYLE GUIDE

**Acadian and French-Language Services Branch
Nova Scotia Department of Education**

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1. Punctuation

1.1. *Non-breaking spaces*

Non-breaking spaces are used to prevent elements intended to appear on the same line to be separated from each other by a line break. Most word processors let you use an easy-to-remember keyboard shortcut to type a non-breaking space (commonly CTRL-spacebar on PC computers and COMMAND-spacebar on Macintosh computers).

In French, there are many uses for non-breaking spaces, including the following:

- with opening and closing French quotation marks: see 1.3
- before certain punctuation marks: see table below
- between two elements of a phrase that should stay together on the same line, such as: “3^e année”, “M. Comeau”, “M^e Lombard”, etc.
- before “etc.” at the end of a list, so as to prevent the “etc.” from being found all by itself at the beginning of the following line
- between money amounts and the symbol for the currency: “100 \$”
- on either side of the “h” used in notations of time (“17 h 00”)
- between the different parts of a big number (where you would use commas in English): “10 000 000”

The following table (next page) provides a summary of how ordinary and non-breaking spaces are used before and after the most common punctuation marks in French.

NON-BREAKING SPACES – When to use them in French

Punctuation Mark		Before	After	Example
/	slash between two words	∅	∅	les questions/problèmes qui se...
/	slash between two phrases, one of which includes more than one word	NBSP	SP	les questions / types de problèmes qui se posent
/	slash between lists of three words or more	NBSP	SP	les questions / problèmes / préoccupations / points qui se posent
[opening square bracket	SP/MK	∅	« les questions qu'[il] se pose »
]	closing square bracket	∅	SP/MK	« les questions qu'[il] se pose »
«	opening French quotation mark	SP	NBSP	L'expression « employeur » désigne...
»	closing French quotation mark	NBSP	SP/MK	L'expression « employeur » désigne...
(opening bracket	SP	∅	des questions (très) précises
)	closing bracket	∅	SP/MK	des questions (très) précises
.	period	∅	SP	Il fait beau. Le soleil brille.
!	exclamation mark	∅	SP	Il fait beau! Le soleil brille!
?	question mark	∅	SP	Fait-il beau? Le soleil brille-t-il?
...	ellipsis	∅	SP	Il fait beau... Le soleil brille...
:	colon	NBSP	SP	Il dit : « Je m'en vais. »
;	semi-colon	∅	SP	Il fait beau; le soleil brille.
-	dash	∅	∅	le soleil, c'est-à-dire cet astre...
–	en dash	∅	∅	dans l'année 2000–2001
—	em dash	SP	SP	le soleil — qui brille — se couche.
,	comma	∅	SP	le soleil, dès l'aube, se lève.
,	decimal comma	∅	∅	Le prix est de 20,35 \$ taxes comprises.
*	asterisk before word	∅	NBSP	* À noter : les élèves...
*	asterisk after word (footnote ref.)	∅	SP/MK	Les actrices* citent Greta Garbo.
¹	alphanumeric footnote reference	∅	SP/MK	Les actrices ¹ citent Greta Garbo.
\$	dollar sign and other currency symbols	NBSP	SP/MK	un montant de 100 \$.
“	opening English quotation mark	SP	∅	« J'ai dit : "Attention!" »
”	closing English quotation mark	∅	SP/MK	« J'ai dit : "Attention!" »

NBSP = non-breaking space || SP = regular space || ∅ = nothing || SP/MK = space or punctuation mark (dep. on context)

Please note that the percent (%) symbol is normally not used in the body text of documents. It can be used in tables or charts (see 4.2), in which case there is also a non-breaking space before (“12 %”).

1.2. Ellipsis

Computer keyboards have a special character for the ellipsis (“...”), which is different from typing three consecutive periods (“...”). The ellipsis character should be used, because consecutive periods may be separated from each other by an automatic line break.

In French, we **never** use consecutive periods separated by spaces (“. . .”).

EXCEPTION: The use of the ellipsis character should be avoided in documents intended for online publishing (e-mail or web), because it tends not to be supported properly by all systems.

NOTE: Never use the ellipsis with *etc.*, since *etc.* itself already stands for what the ellipsis would stand for in that case (i.e. interrupted list of items). Using the ellipsis with *etc.* would be redundant. As well, if *etc.* is the last word in a sentence, the period that is part of the abbreviation also stands for the period that closes the sentence and should not be repeated.

1.3. Quotation marks

1.3.1. Characters

So-called “English” quotation marks (“, ” et ") are **not** part of traditional French typography and should be avoided (there is one exception: see 1.3.2).

In French, one uses so-called “French” quotation marks (« for opening and » for closing). In traditional French typography, these quotation marks were separated from the words enclosed in between them by an “espace fine” (thin/fine space). Since this character has no equivalent in word processors, one uses a **non-breaking space** instead. (Advanced page layout programs such as Adobe InDesign do provide a variety of space characters, including thin spaces, however.)

In other words, in a word processor, the proper convention is:

« citation »

(with non-breaking spaces) and not: «citation» or “citation”.

French quotation marks and the non-breaking space characters are also included in the **ISO-Latin** code commonly used when encoding text for web pages: the HTML tags are `&lquo;` for the opening French quotation mark, `&rquo;` for the closing French quotation mark, and ` ` for the non-breaking space.

1.3.2. Punctuation inside quotation marks

Contrary to what happens in conventional English typography, punctuation marks that are **not** part of the quoted text are **not** included inside the quotation marks. In the following sentence, for example, the period is **outside** the quotation marks, because it belongs to the main sentence and not to the quoted text:

La ministre a annoncé la création « de deux cents postes d’enseignants ».

On the other hand, if the text inside the quotation marks is a full sentence or several sentences, then the final punctuation for the sentence(s) is included before the closing quotation mark, and no additional punctuation mark is used after the closing quotation mark if the quote is the last segment of the enclosing sentence. For example:

La ministre a annoncé : « Nous allons créer deux cents postes. » Cette annonce a fait l'effet d'une surprise.

La ministre a annoncé : « Nous allons créer deux cents postes! » Cette annonce a fait l'effet d'une surprise.

(Both the period and the exclamation mark in these two examples act as the closing punctuation mark of the first sentence.)

When the quote is interrupted by a short incidental clause, such as *dit-il* or *ajouta-t-elle*, one does not use closing and opening quotation marks before and after the incidental clause, so as not to interrupt the flow of the quote. If the incidental clause is significantly longer, however, closing and re-opening the quote might be necessary:

« Notre gouvernement est convaincu de la nécessité d'offrir à tous les élèves, qu'ils résident dans une communauté urbaine ou rurale, autant de possibilités que possible de réussir », précise Jane Purves, ministre de l'Éducation. « Pour remplir cet engagement, l'une de nos responsabilités est de mettre en place de bonnes écoles modernes qui disposent de l'équipement nécessaire pour offrir les programmes dont les élèves ont besoin pour trouver du travail, poursuivre leurs études ou réaliser leurs rêves. »

If the incidental clause is short (two or three words), the convention is not to interrupt the flow:

Le sous-ministre fait part aux journalistes de ses réflexions : « Il s'agit d'une bonne nouvelle, dit-il, puisque les écoles ont besoin de rénovations. »

When quotation marks are required **inside** a quote that is already enclosed by French quotation marks, then English-style quotation marks may be used:

Jean m'a raconté : « Jeanne m'a dit : "On n'y arrivera jamais." »

1.4. Apostrophes

The “curly” (also called typographic) apostrophe character (') should always be used in lieu of the “straight” apostrophe ('), which originated in the (severely limited) typography of early personal computers models in the 1980s. Most modern word processors have an option to insert curly apostrophes automatically when typing the straight apostrophe key on the keyboard. (The “Straight Quotes/Curly Quotes” option in word processors usually affects apostrophes as well.)

NOTABLE EXCEPTION: It is still recommended to use the straight quote character (') for text intended for web pages, since curly/typographic apostrophes may cause compatibility issues with certain common web browsers.

1.5. Dashes

1.5.1. Three types of dashes

There are three different types of dashes usually available in modern word processors:

Type of Dash	Character	Example
hyphen	-	c'est-à-dire
en dash	–	2000–2001
em dash	—	le directeur — c'est-à-dire le chef — est...

In French, the em dash is exclusively used for parenthetical clauses (with regular space characters before and after):

Le ministère a annoncé une série de mesures — qu'il compte mettre en œuvre au cours des mois qui viennent — lors de sa conférence de presse du 21 mars.

It may also be used to introduce each character's line in dialogue in novels or dramatic plays.

As for the en dash and the hyphen, there is a fair bit of hesitation, because the en dash is not well-known and is not always very different visually from the hyphen. (The difference in length between the two depends on the character font that is being used.) If people use a hyphen where an en dash should normally be used, therefore, it is not a major problem:

Lors de l'année scolaire 2000-2001, les élèves pourront s'inscrire à 18 cours.

Still, conventionally speaking, the hyphen should only be used for compound words such as *c'est-à-dire*, *garde-robe*, *vis-à-vis*, etc. and for optional hyphens used in page layout for justified text in columns. (Word processors and page layout programs usually have automatic hyphenation features for this.)

Please note that word processors also have a **non-breaking hyphen** option that enables you to prevent the two parts of a compound word to be separated by an automatic line break. This non-breaking hyphen is usually part of the list of “special characters” provided by word processors, and can be assigned an easy-to-remember keyboard shortcut.

1.5.2. Hyphens in proper nouns

English proper nouns rarely feature hyphens, which are more commonly used for creating compound words, as in “*the non-communication between X and Y*”.

In the case of proper nouns, multiple words are separated by spaces (non-breaking if necessary):

St. Francis Xavier
New Brunswick

In French, however, most multiple-word proper nouns require hyphens:

Saint-François-Xavier
Nouveau-Brunswick

In Acadian French, however, especially in areas where municipalities or provinces are not officially bilingual, the English majority tends to impose its way of spelling proper nouns on signs, displays, etc., which causes Acadian writers to hesitate. For example, should one write “Isle-Madame” or “Isle Madame”? “Petit-de-Grat” or “Petit de Grat”?

As French speakers, however, we should resist this influence. The rules in standard French are universal and clear: the multiple parts of a compound proper name are always separated by hyphens. As the examples above show (“*Saint-François-Xavier*” and “*Nouveau-Brunswick*”), and as can be seen in all the French names of our country’s provinces and territories, this rule is indeed used in French in Canada as well.

In other words, hyphens should always be used in proper names. In every proper name consisting of more than one word, the words composing the name are separated by hyphens—unless, of course, the first word is normally a substantive in French, in which case there is no hyphen:

Université Sainte-Anne (not *Université-Sainte-Anne)

In names such as *Petit-de-Grat* ou *Isle-Madame* (in which “Isle”, while it used to be a substantive in old French, is no longer perceived this way, “Île” being the modern spelling of the word), we feel that hyphens should be used, even though they are not used systematically in Acadian French at the present time:

Petit-de-Grat
Isle-Madame
Cap-Breton
Terre-Neuve
Lac-à-Victor
Station-de-Saulnierville
etc.

(NOTE: The official spelling for Prince Edward Island in French, i.e. *Île-du-Prince-Édouard*, is an exception to the rule. “Île” is indeed a substantive and should only be capitalized, as in **Île du Prince-Édouard*. However, the proper French spelling features hyphens between every word of the name, probably because it is not only the name of an island, but also the name of a province.)

There are a number of exceptions to this rule in Canadian French.

1.6. Punctuation with brackets

If the text enclosed within the brackets is a full sentence, the punctuation mark at the end of the sentence is included inside the brackets:

Le sous-ministre fait part aux journalistes de ses réflexions. (Ces réflexions ont été reprises au journal du soir.) Il a annoncé de nouveaux postes.

On the other hand, if the text enclosed within the brackets is only a portion of a sentence, then the final punctuation mark stays outside the brackets:

Le sous-ministre fait part aux journalistes de ses réflexions (qui ont été reprises au journal du soir). Il a annoncé de nouveaux postes.

In the case of multiple brackets, the second level is distinguished from the first level through the use of square brackets:

Le sous-ministre fait part aux journalistes de ses réflexions. (Ces réflexions ont été reprises dans le journal du matin [voir ci-dessous].) Il a annoncé de nouveaux postes.

It should be emphasized, however, that this type of situation is best avoided altogether.

2. Capital letters

2.1. *Accented capital letters*

All modern equipment supports accented capital letters (À, É, È, Ù, etc.) as well as the capital C with a cedilla (Ç). There is therefore no reason not to use them.

2.2. *Institutions and organizations*

2.2.1. *Departments*

Neither *ministre* nor *ministère* are capitalized (except when they are the first word on the line, in which case they are capitalized like any other word). The convention in Nova Scotia is that we capitalize **every key word** (usually substantives) in the portfolio of the corresponding minister:

Le ministère de l'Éducation
La ministre de l'Agriculture et de la Commercialisation
Le ministère des Services aux entreprises et à la consommation

This rule also applies to cases where the word *ministère* is used by itself. In other words, the word is **not capitalized** in such cases either:

Le ministère a annoncé hier une réduction des dépenses administratives d'environ 100 000 \$.

As for *ministre*, it is only capitalized in cases where the writer is addressing the Minister **directly**. It is then capitalized as a mark of deference, like any other title (see 2.3.2).

2.2.2. Other institutions and organizations

In most cases, only the **first word** in the name of an institution, organization, committee, etc. is capitalized:

le Centre provincial de ressources pédagogiques
l'Association canadienne d'éducation de langue française
l'Assemblée législative

Exceptions include those names which contain a proper noun such as the name of a saint or a place:

l'Université Sainte-Anne
le Collège de l'Acadie
la Cour suprême du Canada

There is an important different difference between English and French that should be emphasized, however: In French, when the key word in the name of the organization is reused in a subsequent sentence to refer to the same organization (a common grammatical process known as “anaphora”), then it is **never** capitalized (unlike what happens in English). In the example below, the word *conseil* is not capitalized in the second sentence, where it acts as an anaphoric reference to the same organization mentioned in the first sentence.

Le Conseil scolaire acadien provincial a annoncé la création de 10 nouveaux postes d'enseignants. Le directeur général du conseil a confirmé cette annonce à la radio ce matin.

In fact, instead of reusing the key word in the name of the organization for anaphoric purposes, it is usually preferable to use the abbreviated name of the organization. Conventionally, the above paragraph should therefore be as follows:

Le Conseil scolaire acadien provincial (CSAP) a annoncé la création de 10 nouveaux postes d'enseignants. Le directeur général du CSAP a confirmé cette annonce à la radio ce matin.

It should also be noted that names of institutions or organizations are **never** italicized in French. In Nova Scotia's specific context, however, it is sometimes appropriate to italicize the names of organizations that do not have a French name and are mentioned **in English** within a French text, so as to indicate that the name is not translated. (Several organizations in Nova Scotia have no official French translation for their name.) For example:

Les mesures annoncées par le *Conference Board of Canada* ont été bien accueillies par la communauté francophone de la Nouvelle-Écosse.

Such cases, however, should be kept to a minimum, so as to avoid any confusion with other more common uses of italics in French texts, such as document titles (see 3.1). When the institution or organization is well-known and is frequently referred to using its English name, then it should not be italicized:

Les conseillers du Southwest Regional School Board (SWRSB) ont annoncé un accord avec le CSAP.

Les étudiantes de St. Francis Xavier University ont créé leur propre groupe d'entraide.

The use of italics should be restricted to those organizations that are not well-known or not frequently mentioned.

Every word in French has a gender. Generally speaking, an institution with an untranslated English name takes the gender that similar institutions usually have in French, i.e. masculine if it's a *board* (“*un conseil*”), a *committee* (“*un comité*”), etc. and feminine if it's an *association* (“*une association*”), a *university* (“*une université*”), etc. For example, one would say:

la *Certified General Accountants' Association of Nova Scotia*

le *Conference Board of Canada*

2.3. Titles

2.3.1. *Madame, monsieur*

Many French speakers are unsure when it comes to capitalizing *madame* and *monsieur* in French texts. In this style guide, we recommend that the rules outlined below be used.

When the word *monsieur* or *madame* is used to communicate with the very person that it refers to, then one capitalizes the word as a **mark of deference**. Here are a few examples:

Veillez agréer, Madame, l'expression de mes sentiments les plus sincères.

Je précise, Madame Boudreau, que les lettres que vous évoquez me sont bien parvenues.

Chère Madame,

When the word *monsieur* or *madame* is used to talk about the person in question to a **third party**, the word is no longer capitalized, as deference is no longer required.

J'ai rencontré monsieur Saulnier.

Connais-tu madame Jeanne Comeau?

2.3.2. *Titles describing a person's function*

In the case of titles that describe what the function of the person in question is, the rule is the same as with *monsieur* and *madame*, i.e. the **first word** of the person's title (*ministre, directeur, coordinateur*, etc.) is capitalized if it is used to speak to the very person that it refers to:

Veuillez agréer, Madame la Directrice des services culturels, l'expression de mes sentiments les plus sincères.

Je précise, Monsieur le Président, que les lettres que vous évoquez me sont bien parvenues.

Madame la Ministre de l'Éducation,

Again, however, if the title is used to talk about a person to a third party, the word is **not** capitalized:

La ministre de l'Éducation a déclaré ce matin que le programme de prêt aux étudiants serait maintenu.

On a parlé des nombreuses lettres envoyées à Jean-Louis Robichaud, directeur du CPRP.

On a parlé des nombreuses lettres envoyées au directeur du CPRP, Jean-Louis Robichaud.

2.4. *Capitals with punctuation marks*

In French, the first word that follows a colon is **never** capitalized, except in cases where it comes after an opening quotation mark and is the first word of a **full sentence** that is being quoted:

Le programme comporte les points suivants : mise en œuvre, évaluation et révision.

La ministre a déclaré : « Nous allons prendre toutes les mesures nécessaires. »

2.5. *Names or adjectives describing peoples, ethnic groups, and residents*

French **substantives** that are derived from the proper names of places of residence and names of peoples and ethnic groups are always capitalized (and, in the case of a compound name, every word is capitalized):

les Acadiens et les Acadiennes
un Canadien
les Noirs
un Néo-Écossais
une Franco-Manitobaine

On the other hand, the corresponding French **adjectives** are **never** capitalized :

une jeune femme acadienne
un citoyen canadien
un membre de la communauté noire
un musicien néo-écossais
une infirmière franco-manitobaine

Since “francophonie” is not a proper noun (it doesn’t refer to a geographic entity), the substantive *francophone* is not considered as being derived from the name of a place and is therefore **not capitalized**, contrary to the convention for the word in English-speaking Canada. The same rule applies to other communities defined by their language (*anglophones, germanophones, etc.*):

le grand rassemblement des francophones de la Nouvelle-Écosse
les écoles des anglophones sont en cours de construction
les Acadiens et les francophones de la Nouvelle-Écosse

Of course, the word *francophone* used as an adjective is not capitalized either:

des élèves francophones
des enseignants anglophones

EXCEPTION: There **is** an organization called « Francophonie », whose current chair is Boutros Boutros-Ghali. When one refers to this particular organization (and not to the **concept** of “francophonie”), then the word is capitalized.

2.6. Names and adjectives referring to places

Many people in the Atlantic provinces are hesitant about when to capitalize the words *atlantique* and *maritime* in French. This is just a note to remind you that the rules are the same as in 2.5:

région de l’Atlantique
provinces atlantiques
provinces maritimes
les Maritimes

2.7. Family names

In French family names, the *de* is a preposition and is not capitalized (although there are exceptions):

Georges du Puy
Charles de Gaulle

Also, capitalizing the entire last name (as in « Charles DE GAULLE ») is not recommended in regular texts. It is only a common practice for proper names in bibliographies and lists of reference titles.

2.8. Titles of books, discs, etc.

2.8.1. Books, newspapers, magazines

Only the first word in the title is capitalized:

le livre *À la recherche du temps perdu*
le film *Belle de jour*
le recueil *Les fleurs du mal*

There are exceptions for titles in which the capital letter is a distinctive mark and the article is part of the title:

le journal *Le Devoir*
le journal *Le Monde*
La Gazette
La Presse

On the other hand, the monthly *L'actualité* published in Quebec is always written with a lowercase *a*.

If the first word of a title is an article and this article is contracted with the *à* or *de* preposition that comes immediately before it, then the italics only begin with the next word and this next word in the title is capitalized:

la préface aux *Fleurs du mal*
j'ai écrit au *Devoir*

For English titles in French text, English capitalization conventions are preserved:

le *Chronicle-Herald*
le *Globe and Mail*

(The title is usually given the gender it would have if it were a French publication, i.e. masculine if it is a newspaper title — “*un journal*” — or a novel — “*un roman*” — etc.)

2.8.2. Legal documents

When acts of law are referred to using their common designation, neither capitalization nor italics are used:

Dans la loi sur l'éducation de la Nouvelle-Écosse, on trouve...

The first word of the title is capitalized and the title is italicized (see 3.1.2) only if the **exact title** of the document is used:

Dans la *Loi concernant l'éducation (Chapitre premier des lois de 1995–1996)*, on trouve...

2.9. Events

2.9.1. Historical events and periods

For historical periods, capitals are used if the word would have another, common meaning without the capital letter:

la Renaissance
l'Empire
la Résistance

If there is no ambiguity, on the other hand, then no capitals are used:

les années 30

There are, however, a number of exceptions:

la Deuxième Guerre mondiale
le Moyen Âge
l'Antiquité

2.9.2. Calendar events

For holidays, only the **key word** in the designation of the holiday is capitalized:

la fête des Mères (*Mother's Day*)
la fête du Travail (*Labour Day*)
le jour de l'An (*New Year's Day*)
le jour des Morts (*Mother's Day*)
le jour des Rois (*Epiphany*)
le mercredi des Cendres (*Ash Wednesday*)
le dimanche des Rameaux (*Palm Sunday*)

2.10. Web, Internet

While there is still some hesitation, we recommend that both *web* and *internet* be systematically capitalized in French:

J'ai rencontré une ancienne amie sur Internet.
Veuillez visiter notre page Web.
Le Web compte désormais près d'un milliard de pages.

(Some have tried to introduce French equivalents for *Web* — most notably “la Toile” — but none of these have been very successful so far.)

3. Quotations

3.1. Book titles

3.1.1. Works

The underline is **never** used for titles of books or articles. As well, the English practice of capitalizing every word in a title has no equivalent in French.

To indicate titles of works of art or other publications, either italics or (French) quotation marks are used, depending on the nature of the work:

<i>Italics</i>	«Quotation marks»
books movies records reviews magazines newspapers full-length musical pieces long poems self-contained works of art reports plays TV or radio series	review articles newspaper articles magazine articles songs individual poems short musical pieces chapters or sections in a report episodes in a series

Please note, however, that “la Bible” and “le Coran” are never italicized.

Here are a few examples of titles written in italics:

J'ai lu dans *Le Monde* que...
Dans cet extrait d'*À la recherche du temps perdu*, on note que...
La popularité de l'album français *D'Eux* de Céline Dion ne se dément pas.
Le nombre de spectateurs qui ont vu *Les voyageurs* dépasse désormais le million.

Here are a few examples of titles written with quotation marks:

Dans son article « La France au tournant du millénaire » paru dans *Le Monde* le 24 décembre 1999, Jacqueline Marchand déclare que...

C'est la chanson « Et moi, et moi, et moi » qui a lancé la carrière de chanteur de Jacques Dutronc.

As well, please note that if the body text is **already** in italics (for whatever reason), then work titles that would normally be in italics should be written in **roman**, so as to preserve the distinction:

J'ai lu dans Le Monde que...
Dans cet extrait d'À la recherche du temps perdu, on note que...
La popularité de l'album français D'Eux de Céline Dion ne se dément pas.
Le nombre de spectateurs qui ont vu Les voyageurs dépasse désormais le million.

3.1.2. Official publications

When acts of law are mentioned using their abbreviated title, unlike what happens in English, neither italics nor capitals are used:

Dans la loi sur l'éducation de la Nouvelle-Écosse, on trouve...

One only uses italics if the full official title of the document is used (and then the first word is capitalized as well: see 2.8.2):

Dans la *Loi concernant l'éducation (Chapitre premier des lois de 1995–1996)*, on trouve...

Other documents produced by official organizations follow the same general rule as other works (see 3.1.1 above):

À la page 10 du *Programme des écoles publiques*, les résultats d'apprentissage...

3.2. Authors (in footnotes)

Contrary to what happens in English, French writers should **never** use a comma to separate the last name of an author from his/her first name in bibliographic notes or lists. In order to distinguish last names from first names, the common practice is to use ALL CAPS (or SMALL CAPS) for the last name:

PROUST Marcel, *À la recherche du temps perdu*, Gallimard, Paris, 1922.

When there is more than one author, then the normal order (First Name LAST NAME) is used for the additional authors:

SAND George et Alfred de MUSSET, *Collaboration*, Grasset, Paris, 1840.

When the publication is a collective one and is filed under the name of its editor, then the name of the editor is used, followed by “(dir.)”, which stands for “directeur” and is the French equivalent of the English “ed.”:

ALPHONSE Pierre (dir.), *Mélanges pour Georges Dumas*, Seuil, Paris, 1980.

3.3. Text excerpts

3.3.1. Within the body text or as indented paragraphs

The general rule is that, if the quoted excerpt is **three lines or fewer**, then it should be incorporated into the flow of the main body text, with quotation marks:

C'est ce que suggère Georges Dumas, quand il écrit dans son *Histoire de la langue roucadienne* : « Le terme employé ici ne reflète pas la réalité de l'usage dans cette région du pays. » Il est certes possible de revenir sur cette question et d'en débattre plus longuement.

If the excerpt is **more than three lines**, then the excerpt is separated from the body text using an indent. In such cases, quotation marks are no longer required:

Voici un exemple. Dans son ouvrage sur le style, Guillaumet déclare :

Il faut absolument tenir compte de la ponctuation à l'intérieur des guillemets lorsqu'on veut présenter un texte de façon lisible et agréable à l'œil. Il arrive souvent, en effet, que la ponctuation à l'intérieur des guillemets et la ponctuation à l'extérieur des guillemets soient redondantes. Dans ce cas, c'est la ponctuation intérieure qui l'emporte. (*Manuel de stylistique*, p. 45)

C'est en effet important. Il faut en tenir compte à tous les niveaux.

It should be noted, however, that there are numerous cases where this three-line rule is not applied. In press releases and newspaper or magazine articles, for example, no one ever uses indents, even if the quoted excerpt is longer than three lines. In other cases, the indented presentation is used for excerpts taken from books, whereas oral statements are incorporated into the body text.

In order to reinforce the visual distinction introduced by the indentation, one can also combine it with the use of a different font, different font size, etc. — but these are optional.

3.3.2. Quoted excerpts in a foreign language

In Canada, we often have to quote the contents of documents written in our country's other official language. We recommend that such quotes be **italicized** so as to introduce an additional visual distinction:

Dans la licence de CANCOPY, l'expression « *copyright owner* » désigne « *in respect of any act in relation to a copyright work, the person or persons with authority to authorize such act* ».

La licence de CANCOPY comprend la disposition suivante :

The purpose of this Licence is to authorize Copying of Published Works in consideration of remuneration to the Copyright Owners and so to provide access to such Published Works, without substituting for material which a user would reasonably be expected to purchase.

3.3.3. The “Keep With Next” and “Keep Lines Together” options

Word processors automatically calculate where page breaks need to go. This is a useful feature as the word processor automatically repaginates an entire document when paragraphs are added or removed. However, this also means that the word processor might sometimes add an automatic page break where one might not want it to do so.

In order to prevent a paragraph from being separated from the one that immediately follows it, the “**Keep With Next**” option should be used. (This option is called “Paragraphes solidaires” in French.) In order to prevent a paragraph that introduces a quoted excerpt from being separated from the actual quoted excerpt, for example, the “Keep With Next” option should be applied to the introductory paragraph:

■ Voici un exemple. Dans son ouvrage sur le style, Guillaumet déclare :

Il faut absolument tenir compte de la ponctuation à l'intérieur des guillemets lorsqu'on veut présenter un texte de façon lisible et agréable à l'œil. Il arrive souvent, en effet, que la ponctuation à l'intérieur des guillemets et la ponctuation à l'extérieur des guillemets soient redondantes. Dans ce cas, c'est la ponctuation intérieure qui l'emporte. (*Manuel de stylistique*, p. 45)

(The ■ character used here indicates where the “Keep With Next” option has been applied. The option is normally invisible in word processors.)

Similarly, if one wants to prevent a word processor from inserting an automatic page break somewhere **within** a given paragraph, the “**Keep [Lines] Together**” option should be used. (This option is called “lignes solidaires” in French.) For example, in order to prevent a long quoted excerpt from being divided by an automatic page break into two incomplete paragraphs over two pages, the “Keep Lines Together” option should be applied to the corresponding paragraph:

□ Voici un exemple. Dans son ouvrage sur le style, Guillaumet déclare :

□ Il faut absolument tenir compte de la ponctuation à l'intérieur des guillemets lorsqu'on veut présenter un texte de façon lisible et agréable à l'œil. Il arrive souvent, en effet, que la ponctuation à l'intérieur des guillemets et la ponctuation à l'extérieur des guillemets soient redondantes. Dans ce cas, c'est la ponctuation intérieure qui l'emporte. (*Manuel de stylistique*, p. 45)

(The □ character used here indicates where the “Keep Together” option has been applied. The option is normally invisible in word processors.)

3.3.4. Abbreviated quotes

In French, when parts of the text of a quoted excerpt are removed by the person who quotes it in order to make it shorter and only keep the relevant parts, one uses the character sequence “[...]” (opening square bracket - ellipsis - closing square bracket) in italics (or in roman if the rest of the text is already in italics).

Here is an example:

[...] Dans son ouvrage sur le style, Guillaumet déclare :

Il faut absolument tenir compte de la ponctuation [...] lorsqu'on veut présenter un texte de façon lisible et agréable à l'œil. (*Manuel de stylistique*, p. 45)

C'est en effet important. [...]

Here is the same example when the quoted excerpt itself is already in italics:

[...] *Dans son ouvrage sur le style, Guillaumet déclare :*

Il faut absolument tenir compte de la ponctuation [...] lorsqu'on veut présenter un texte de façon lisible et agréable à l'œil. (Manuel de stylistique, p. 45)

C'est en effet important. [...]

In such situations, one **never** uses the ellipsis (...) by itself, without square brackets, as is the convention in similar situations in English. For example, in the quote above, one would never write « Il faut absolument tenir compte de la ponctuation... lorsqu'on veut présenter un texte... » in French, but always: « Il faut absolument tenir compte de la ponctuation [...] lorsqu'on veut présenter un texte [...] ».

(It should also be noted that, even when the quoted excerpt begins with the beginning of a sentence, one still uses the “[...]” symbols if the sentence is **not the first one** in the original paragraph from which it is taken.)

See also 1.3 for more information on punctuation within quotation marks.

3.3.5. Grammatical adjustments

When a quoted excerpt is integrated into an existing sentence, its grammatical structure needs to be adjusted so that it fits with the structure of the main sentence. Such adjustments are indicated using square brackets. Here is an example:

Elle dit : « Je trouve que mes résultats sont bons. »

Elle dit qu'elle « trouve que [ses] résultats sont bons ».

In such cases, the portion of the sentence that is between brackets is **not** italicized. (In such cases, English is much more flexible than French and often lets you mix first person and third person without it sounding awkward, so that bracketed changes are often not necessary.)

4. Figures, numbers, etc.

The general rule is that any number smaller than 10 is **written out**, whereas numbers higher than 10 (including 10) are written in digits:

Une élève âgée de neuf ans

Un groupe de 15 élèves

EXCEPTION: In mathematical exercises, if converting real life issues into numbers is part of the required work, then numbers will be written in words, regardless of their value. Conversely, if the exercise doesn't require this type of work, then they may be written in digits, including numbers smaller than 10.

4.1. Thousands

For big numbers, the (optional) separator for thousands, millions, billions, etc. is a **non-breaking space**. The comma is never used for this, since it is the standard decimal separator in French (instead of the period in English):

12 345 678,90 \$

4.2. Percentages

The percentage symbol (%) is never used in the body text of a document. The “pour cent” expression is always written out in words, with a non-breaking space before the “pour”:

50 pour cent du montant

The percentage symbol may be used (with a non-breaking space before: see 1.1) in tables and charts:

	1998–1999	1999–2000	2000–2001	2001–2002
Taux	10 %	20 %	15 %	30 %

4.3. Money amounts

The currency symbol is always typed with a non-breaking space before it:

10 000 \$

When one needs to distinguish between the Canadian currency and the American currency, the following abbreviations are used:

10 000 \$CAN

10 000 \$US

4.4. Time

To indicate time, the *h* abbreviation (lowercase “h” without a period) is used, with non-breaking spaces before and after and with a *0* prefix for minutes if the number of minutes is lower than 10:

14 h 05

16 h 30

When the number of hours is lower than 10, then a *0* prefix (as in “09 h 15”) is **not** required, except in very formal contexts (time table, etc.):

9 h 15

7 h 45

Similarly, when the time is exactly on the hour, the two *00* (as in “14 h 00”) is not required, except in very formal contexts:

14 h

7 h

4.5. Units

WARNING: Even though this is a very common mistake, the abbreviations for units of measure are **never followed by a period** in French. The only time the abbreviation is followed by a period is when it is at the end of a sentence. (But then the period is part of the sentence’s punctuation.)

There is always a **non-breaking space** between the number and the unit symbol:

150 grammes = 150 g

3 litres = 3 L

50 minutes = 50 min

45 secondes = 45 s

3 kilogrammes = 3 kg

10 kilomètres = 10 km

Please note that the general rule is that, if the unit is derived from the last name of a historical figure (usually the name of a scientist), then its abbreviation is a capital letter: A for Ampère, C for Coulomb, etc.

The non-breaking space is used to prevent the number from being separated from the unit symbol by an automatic line break.

4.6. *Temperature*

The usual way to write a temperature measurement is to type the number followed by a non-breaking space followed by the degree symbol (°; not to be confused with the smaller superscript ° used in French with *n* as an abbreviation for *numéro*; see 5.7.1) and then the letter of the measurement unit (C for Celsius et F for Fahrenheit) :

10 °C

32 °F

4.7. *Intervals*

4.7.1. *Years*

When referring to a school year interval, the **en dash** is used (not the hyphen and not a slash) and the second part of the interval is not abbreviated:

1998–1999, 1999–2000, etc.

(Not « 1998-1999 » or « 1998–99 ».)

The apostrophe symbol (') is **never** used to abbreviate a date in French like it is in English. One will never write a title such as *Rapport '99*, for example. The correct way is:

Rapport de 1999

or (although it should be avoided):

Rapport de 99

In order to refer to a decade, one uses either:

les années 1980

or:

les années 80

but **never** “les années '80”. (Please note that it is preferable to write *les années 30* rather than *les années trente*.)

4.7.2. Numeric intervals

The plus (+) sign is **never** used in French to signify “and more”, as in “10+” (“10 or more”) in English.

In French, one always writes out “et plus” in words or the mathematical symbol for “greater than” can be used (i.e. “>” or “≥”) **before** the number:

10 et plus
≥ 10

To indicate a numeric interval, one may use either the en dash:

M–12

or the *de* and *à* prepositions:

de 10 à 20

In such cases, the *de* preposition should never be used without the *à*. In other words, one doesn't write “7^e à 9^e année” but “de la 7^e à la 9^e année”. For example, the correct program title for *Smoke-Free For Life* for Grades 7 to 9 is:

Une vie sans fumée
Supplément de programme
De la 7^e à la 9^e année

4.8. Fractions

In the body of a printed text, fractions such as 1/3, 1/4, etc. should be written out **in words** (“un tiers”, “un quart”, etc).

It should be noted that certain computer fonts include special character symbols for the most common fractions (such as “ $\frac{3}{4}$ ” instead of “3/4”). Such symbols, however, are far from universal and tend to be incompatible when sharing documents with other people. It is therefore best to avoid using them. (Certain word processors, such as Microsoft Word for Windows, have a feature that automatically replaces “1/2”, “1/4” and “3/4” with these special characters. If you need to share your documents with other people, it is recommended that you deactivate this feature.)

Mathematical fractions may be used in mathematics and science exercises (obviously) or in tables, charts, and other statistical illustrations. In such cases, it is recommended that you use the proper mathematical notation, with a horizontal fraction bar:

$$\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{3} \quad \frac{3}{4}$$

(This type of fraction usually requires a special “Equation Editor” type of feature.)

5. Abbreviations

5.1. Acronyms

Organizations whose name consists of several words are usually abbreviated by writing the initial letters of every word in capitals, even though the word itself is not capitalized when it's written in full. It is not necessary — and often inconvenient — to put a period after each letter:

le CPRP (Centre provincial de ressources pédagogiques)
la DSALF (Direction des services acadiens et de langue française)
etc.

Contrary to what is common practice in English, one never uses an *-s* for the plural form. For example, in French “Individualized Program Plan” is called “Plan de programme individualisé” and abbreviated “PPI”. While “IPPs” is often used as the plural form in English, this is not possible in French:

le PPI de l'élève
les PPI des élèves

(Due to the influence of English in certain highly specialized fields, there are a few exceptions, such as “les CFCs” and “les BPCs” in science.)

As a general rule, when one wants to repeat the name of an organization several times within a text, the abbreviation is introduced between brackets after the **first occurrence** of the organization's name (written in full), and then the abbreviation is used in lieu of the full name:

Le Centre provincial de ressources pédagogiques (CPRP) a ouvert ses portes en 1979. Il possède une collection de près de 100 000 ressources. Le CPRP a lancé son catalogue en ligne en 1998.

In French, one **never** abbreviates subsequent occurrences of the name of an organization by simply repeating the first word (with a capital initial). The method used is the one described here.

5.2. Names of provinces

Here are the official French abbreviations for Canada's provinces and territories according to Geomatics Canada:

Alberta = Alb.	Ontario = Ont.
Colombie-Britannique = C.-B.	Québec = Qué. ou Qc
Île-du-Prince-Édouard = Î.-P.-É.	Saskatchewan = Sask.
Manitoba = Man.	Terre-Neuve = T.-N.
Nouveau-Brunswick = N.-B.	Territoires du Nord-Ouest = NT ou T.N.-O.
Nouvelle-Écosse = N.-É.	Yukon = Yn

Nunavut does not have an abbreviation. (The postal code abbreviation is « NU ».)

(See <http://geonames.nrcan.gc.ca/francais/prov_abr.html>.)

5.3. Titles

5.3.1. Madame, monsieur, etc.

The “Mr” abbreviation (with or without period) is **never** used to abbreviate *Monsieur* in French. The only acceptable abbreviation is “M.” for the singular form and “MM.” for the plural form (*Messieurs*):

M. Comeau
MM. Comeau et Saulnier

The abbreviation for *Madame* is “M^{me}” with a **superscript** *-me* (whenever possible).

List of common title abbreviations in French:

Titre	Abréviation
monsieur	M.
messieurs	MM.
madame	M ^{me}
mesdames	MM ^{mes}
mademoiselle	M ^{lle}
mesdemoiselles	MM ^{lles}
monseigneur	M ^{gr}
maître (avocat ou notaire)	M ^e
père	P.
révérend père	R.P.
docteur (médecine uniquement!)	D ^r
sœur	S ^r

5.3.2. Docteur

Contrary to what is common practice in English with “Dr.” (everyone with a Ph.D. is a “doctor”), the “D” title in French is **exclusively** used for physicians (and veterinaries).

In other disciplines, “docteur” may be used as a full word to indicate that someone holds a doctorate in the discipline (one can be a “docteur ès lettres” or “docteur en biologie”), but the “D” abbreviation (with a superscript *-r* and no period) is never used for people other than medical doctors.

Some people seem to think that an appropriate way to translate the “Dr.” abbreviation in French is to use the “Ph. D.” abbreviation after the name of the person (as in “Jules Miraux, Ph. D.”). However, while Ph. D. is the abbreviation of a Latin phrase (*philosophiae doctor*), its use is once again borrowed from English and is not the norm in French.

Simply put, in French, people do not insist on reminding everyone that they have a doctorate every time they sign a document. If Mr. Jules Miraux absolutely wants to mention that he holds a doctorate in literature, then he will have to write it in full:

Jules Miraux
Docteur ès lettres
Professeur de linguistique

In most cases, however, he will simply say nothing and sign with his name and (optionally) his professional title:

Jules Miraux
Professeur de linguistique

(The fact that M. Miraux is a professor clearly implies that he holds a doctorate.)

5.3.3. *The period at the end of an abbreviation*

In French, an abbreviation ends with a period **if and only if** the last letter of the word is **not** the last letter of the abbreviation.

In other words, the abbreviations for *Madame* and *Docteur* are “M^{me}” and “D” (**without** a period), because both the word and the abbreviation end with the same ending (what is being left out is the letters in between). On the other hand, the abbreviation for *Monsieur* is “M.” and the abbreviation for *Père* is “P.” (**with** a period) because the endings of *Monsieur* and *Père* do not appear in their abbreviations.

This rule differs from the rule in English, where there is **always** a period at the end of the abbreviation, even when the last letter of the abbreviation is also the last letter of the word (“Mr. Jones”, “Dr. Watson”, etc.).

5.3.4. *The « honourables »*

In Canada, it is common practice to refer to federal and provincial ministers with the “Honourable” title. Unless it is at the very beginning of the sentence, however, the word “honorable” does not have a capital initial in French. It may be abbreviated using “hon.”:

L'hon. Jane Purves, ministre de l'Éducation, vient d'annoncer la nouvelle.

5.4. Names

In the case of compound names, each part of the name is abbreviated and the hyphen is preserved:

Nouvelle-Écosse = N.-É.
Jean-Louis = J.-L.
Jésus-Christ = J.-C.

5.5. Bibliographic references

5.5.1. Pages

In French, one never uses a double “pp” to refer to a series of pages. The convention is simply to use *et* when referring to two consecutive pages and an en dash when referring to a series of more than two pages:

p. 10 et 11
p. 15–24

The “p.” is **always** followed by a non-breaking space, so that it cannot be accidentally separated from the actual page number by an automatic line break.

5.6. Ordinals

While there is a lot of hesitation about how to abbreviate ordinals throughout Francophonie, the rule is simple and universal: the abbreviation for *premier* (first) is *1^{er}*, the abbreviation for *première* is *1^{re}* and all other ordinals ending in *-ème* are abbreviated using a simple superscript *e* 1^{3^e}, *4^e*, *5^e*, etc.

The “3^{ème}” and “3^{ième}” types of abbreviations should therefore be avoided. Grade levels are also always written with this type of notation (*2^e année*) rather than in full (“deuxième année”).

Centuries are an exception. In French, it is always recommended to use **roman numerals** to abbreviate references to centuries. In addition, using the letters “X”, “I”, “V”, etc. as **small caps** rather than regular capitals (X, I, V, etc.) is preferable. The rules for the superscript *er*, *re* and *e* are the same as with Arabic numerals. In other words, the preferred notations for the 1st century and the 20th century, for example, are:

I^{er} siècle
XX^e siècle

(Rather than the regular capitals “I^{er} siècle” or “XX^e siècle” or the Arabic numerals “1^{er} siècle” or “20^e siècle”.)

5.7. Special phrases

5.7.1. Numéro

The word *numéro* (equivalent to the English “number”) is abbreviated using a lowercase “n” followed by a small “o” in superscript [°] (not to be confused with the degree symbol [°], which is usually bigger — see 4.6), a non-breaking space and the number in question:

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This small superscript “o” is usually available as a special character on most modern keyboards and in most computer fonts.

The “no.” abbreviation is **never** used to abbreviate “numéro” in French. “#” is even less acceptable, as it is the English way of abbreviating “number”.

5.7.2. “C’est-à-dire” and “par exemple”

The *c’est-à-dire* phrase may be abbreviated as “c.-à-d.”. The abbreviation “*i.e.*” is never used in French. While it stands for the Latin phrase *id est*, this Latin phrase is only used in English, and never in French.

The *par exemple* phrase may be abbreviated as “p. ex.” (with a non-breaking space between the two). The abbreviation “*e.g.*”, which stands for the Latin phrase *exempli gratia*, is mostly used in English and is not part of regular usage in standard French, even though it is sometimes used in French in North America.

6. Morphology

Morphology deals with variations in the **forms** of words (*morphê* is the Greek word for “form”) depending on various contextual or semantic factors (conjugation, agreement, etc.).

6.1. Gender and number

6.1.1. Note at beginning of document

It is best to avoid using the combined masculine and feminine forms (see below) as much as possible, as it tends to make texts harder to read.

A special note regarding gender placed in a strategic location at the beginning of a document is usually deemed sufficient:

Note importante :

Dans le présent document, la forme masculine n'est utilisée qu'afin de préserver la clarté et la lisibilité du texte et ne saurait en aucun cas être interprétée comme étant une quelconque forme de discrimination.

It should also be noted that the use of “generic” words such as *personne* and *direction*, which **are** feminine words but stand for both men and women, can help **correct the balance** between masculine and feminine words and phrases, in texts where masculine words are predominant.

6.1.2. Combined masculine and feminine forms

When it is absolutely necessary, one may indicate the feminine form of words between brackets:

Le(la) directeur(trice) apporte son soutien à l'élève.
Les Acadiens et les Acadiennes de la région sont invité(e)s à participer à la soirée. Chacun(e) des participant(e)s est invité(e) à présenter son point de vue.

One should never use the period or the slash character for this purpose (as in “les Acadiens et les Acadiennes de la région sont invité.e.s à participer à la soirée” or “les Acadiens et les Acadiennes de la région sont invité/e/s à participer à la soirée”).

The fact remains that such an approach, even with brackets, is very **laborious** and makes texts much harder to read. It is best avoided unless absolutely necessary.

6.2. Names of foreign locations beginning with an aspirate “h”

The history of the *h* letter in French is rather complex and means that, today, in modern French, there are two types of *h* : aspirate and non-aspirate, but neither type is actually pronounced (it only affects the pronunciation of its immediate context). Since the situation in English is different (*h* is always aspirate in English and is actually pronounced), there is a certain amount of hesitation among French speakers, especially when it comes to pronouncing and writing English names of locations in French.

For example, the *de* preposition becomes *d’* before a word beginning with a vowel or a non-aspirate *h*, but remains *de* before a word beginning with a consonant or an aspirate *h*. The *H* in *Halifax* is aspirate in English, but is it aspirate or non-aspirate in French? In other words, does one say “il vient d’Halifax” or “il vient de Halifax”?

When examining the general rules for names of foreign locations in French, one notes that, in general, the *h* at the beginning of a foreign proper noun is deemed aspirate:

Il vient de Hollande (et non « d’Hollande »)
La maison de Habsbourg (et non « d’Habsbourg »)
La forêt de Hagenau (et non « d’Hagenau »)
Le Harz (et non « L’Harz »)

However, in French, we also say:

l’île d’Haïti (et non « de Haïti »)
l’île d’Hawaï (et non « de Hawaï »)

In fact, the recommendations of the Office de la langue française (OLF) are clearly in favour of *de*, i.e. of maintaining *h* as an aspirate letter when using a foreign word in French. Here are the various examples provided by the OLF:

Pour ce qui est des noms de lieux et de personnes des pays de langue germanique comme l’allemand, l’anglais, le néerlandais, de même que ceux de langue espagnole et des pays arabes et orientaux, c’est le h aspiré qui est utilisé.

*On dira □ les habitants **de** Hambourg, **la** Hollande, le règne **de** Hirohito.*

<<http://www.olf.gouv.qc.ca/ressources/faq/901.html>>

In other words, *Haïti* and *Hawaï* appear to be exceptions (or might not have an aspirate *h* in their language of origin).

The bottom line is that all English proper nouns beginning with an *H* should be deemed to be words beginning with an aspirate *h* in French and be used with *de* rather than *d’*. For example:

Je viens de Hantsport
La région de Halifax
etc.

7. Syntax

7.1. Co-ordination

The term *et/ou* is being used more and more, due to the influence of the English *and/or*. It should be noted, however, that, in French just as much as in English, this term is entirely superfluous, since *ou* itself already **means exactly that**: “A ou B” means “A ou B ou A et B”. Unless otherwise indicated, the *ou* conjunction is not exclusive and includes the possibility of both A and B being true at the same time.

In cases where the meaning of *ou* is ambiguous, it is the context that enables the reader/listener to determine whether the alternative is exclusive or not. For example, in the following sentence:

La présence du père ou de la mère est requise à la réunion.

the absence of context means that the **default** meaning is that either the father or the mother **or both** can attend the meeting. If one wants to specify that **only one** of the two may attend (either the father or the mother, but not both), then such a requirement needs to be specified in a separate phrase or sentence.

(English grammar tends to be less strict when it comes to logical/syntactical rules, which explains why the use of *and/or* in English has become so prevalent so quickly. The same cannot be said of French grammar, however.)

7.2. Comma

7.2.1. Lists of items within the body text

Contrary to what is the norm in English, when one wants to list a series of items, there is **no comma** before the *et* or *ou* conjunction that introduces the last item in the list:

les élèves, les parents, les enseignants et la communauté

When the list is interrupted and *etc.* is used, it comes after a comma followed by a non-breaking space, so that the *etc.* doesn't end up being all by itself at the beginning of the next line:

les élèves, les parents, les enseignants, la communauté, etc.

7.2.2. Names of locations and affiliation

In English, when one wants to indicate the region of which a given location is part, or the department of which an individual is a member, the separator is a comma:

Université Sainte-Anne, Church Point, Nova Scotia

Ms. Susan Knutson, Director, Department of English Studies

English often allows such syntax even within regular sentences. For example, instead of writing this:

I have just moved to Yarmouth, in Nova Scotia, and am very pleased with my new house.

English speakers often simply write:

I have just moved to Yarmouth, Nova Scotia, and am very pleased with my new house.

Unlike English, it is not possible to do without the preposition in French in regular sentences. In other words, one cannot write: “Je viens de déménager à Yarmouth, Nouvelle-Écosse et je suis très contente de ma nouvelle maison.” The location always needs to be written out in full:

Je viens de déménager à Yarmouth, en Nouvelle-Écosse, et je suis très contente de ma nouvelle maison.

Similarly, one cannot write things such as “M^{me} Susan Knutson, directrice, Département des études anglaises, Université Sainte-Anne, a déclaré que les inscriptions étaient en hausse.” in French. The prepositions are always required:

M^{me} Susan Knutson, directrice du Département des études anglaises de l'Université Sainte-Anne, a déclaré que les inscriptions étaient en hausse.

Not using prepositions in such cases would be an anglicism. (The only cases where one can do without prepositions in French are in abbreviated contexts such as mailing addresses — see 9.1 — or when signing off or in carbon copy mentions at the end of a letter — see 9.7.)

7.3. Formatted lists

7.3.1. First-line indent

When one wants to write down a list of items in a formatted presentation, i.e. over several lines, the best formatting option is to use a **negative first-line indent** so as to make the bullet symbol (or item number) stick out and make sure all the lines in each item are properly aligned:

- la forme masculine n'est utilisée qu'afin de préserver la clarté et la lisibilité du texte et ne saurait en aucun cas être interprétée comme étant une quelconque forme de discrimination
- les citations font référence à des ouvrages publiés au cours des dix dernières années
- on utilise un retrait de première ligne négatif afin de faire ressortir la marque de liste

One should **never** use a succession of tabulation characters (TAB) to attempt to align the lines in the item. This produces unpredictable results.

7.3.2. List symbol

The em dash (—) shouldn't be used for lists, as it is too long and is usually employed for lines in a dialogue in a novel or lines in a play.

Characters commonly used for this purpose include the hyphen (-), the en dash (–), the bullet (•) or various other symbols (>, >, for check boxes, etc.).

The asterisk (*) shouldn't be used, because it is always higher than the baseline and cannot be properly aligned with the rest of the text.

7.3.3. Keep With Next / Keep Together

In order to prevent the introductory paragraph to be separated from the list itself by an automatic page break, the “**Keep With Next**” feature should be used, as was the case with quotes (see Section 3). In addition, in most cases, in order to prevent the list itself from being separated in two by an automatic page break, every item but the last one should be formatted with the “Keep With Next” option as well:

■ Voici un exemple. Dans son ouvrage sur le style, Guillaumet mentionne :

- les paragraphes
- les phrases
- les signes de ponctuation
- les apostrophes
- les guillemets

(The ■ character used here indicates where the “Keep With Next” option has been applied. The option is normally invisible in word processors. Please note that the **last item** in the list is not formatted using this option, as using it would force the word processor to try and keep the whole list with the following paragraph, which is usually unnecessary and might lead to further layout problems.)

In addition, if some items in the list consist of a few lines and you do not want the word processor to separate these lines by inserting an automatic page break within an item (which it can still do even if the “Keep With Next” option is on), then you should use the “**Keep Together**” option for all items, including the last one.

7.3.4. Interrupted lists

If the list ends with *etc.*, the word *etc.* appears on a new line, without the bullet/list symbol, since “etc.” itself is not an item in the list, but rather an indication that the list is interrupted:

Dans son ouvrage sur le style, Guillaumet mentionne

- les paragraphes
- les phrases
- les signes de ponctuation
- les apostrophes
- etc.

7.3.5. Spacing

When list items consist of more than one line of text, there should be some **space** between each item, so as to make the list easier to read and items easier to locate:

- la forme masculine n'est utilisée qu'afin de préserver la clarté et la lisibilité du texte et ne saurait en aucun cas être interprétée comme étant une quelconque forme de discrimination
- les citations font référence à des ouvrages publiés au cours des dix dernières années
- on utilise un retrait de première ligne négatif afin de faire ressortir la marque de liste

The best way to create this space is to use the “Space After” option in your word processor (rather than to insert extra paragraphs of empty lines, which might be bulleted as well and might also end up at the top of the next page if the word processor inserts an automatic page break in the wrong place).

The space after the **last item** in the list is usually larger (24 points instead of 12, for example), so as to indicate that the list “belongs” to what comes before it rather than what comes after it.

7.3.6. Punctuation

Generally speaking, the semi-colon should not be systematically used at the end of each item in a list, unless one is writing in a very formal context (legislation, etc.). The semi-colon often adds nothing to the understanding of the text, and is even sometimes inappropriate from a purely grammatical point of view. This being said, the degree of “formality” of a text is a subjective aspect that can vary from text to text and depend on the targeted audience. The writer is therefore ultimately responsible for deciding on whether the use of semi-colons is required or appropriate or not.

When the items in a list are only parts of a sentence and are relatively short, it is best not to use any kind of punctuation at the end of each item. The only punctuation should be the period at the end of the list if the list itself is the last part of the sentence.

Le conseil scolaire a des responsabilités vis-à-vis des intervenants suivants :

- a) les élèves
- b) les parents d'élèves
- c) les enseignants
- d) les directions d'école
- e) la communauté.

On the other hand, when the items in a list are **full sentences**, the actual punctuation of the sentences should be used, including the capital letter at the beginning of it and the period at the end:

A. La loi impose les règles suivantes :

- a) Les conseils scolaires existants dans la région scolaire, à l'exclusion du Conseil acadien, sont dissous.
- b) Par dérogation à l'article 42 et à l'alinéa 46(2)(f), les membres des conseils scolaires dissous demeurent membres du conseil scolaire régional jusqu'à l'élection des membres du conseil scolaire.
- c) L'actif et le passif des conseils scolaires dissous, notamment tous les avantages et droits à pension des employés, sont dévolus au conseil scolaire régional.

If the items in a list consist of phrases (not full sentences), the punctuation of the sentence as a whole should be used, including the punctuation that would be used for the phrase if it were written as part of the main body of the text rather than in an indented list. In other words, there should be no colon at the end of the introductory paragraph (the punctuation of the sentence shouldn't be interrupted), each item should have a lowercase initial, and a semi-colon at the end of each item (i.e. each phrase) may be used:

B. Lorsqu'un conseil scolaire régional est établi pour une région scolaire,

- a) les conseils scolaires existants dans la région scolaire, à l'exclusion du Conseil acadien, sont dissous;
- b) par dérogation à l'article 42 et à l'alinéa 46(2)(f), les membres des conseils scolaires dissous demeurent membres du conseil scolaire régional jusqu'à l'élection des membres du conseil scolaire;
- c) l'actif et le passif des conseils scolaires dissous, notamment tous les avantages et droits à pension des employés, sont dévolus au conseil scolaire régional.

(Please note in the example above that the introductory paragraph ends with a comma, which is the correct punctuation mark after an adverbial phrase of time.)

As much as possible, one should avoid having list items which include the end part of a sentence that begins in the introductory paragraph, and then a period and a **new sentence**, all within the same item. In other words, things like item *b*) in the example below should be avoided:

C. Lorsqu'un conseil scolaire régional est établi pour une région scolaire,

- a) les conseils scolaires existants dans la région scolaire, à l'exclusion du Conseil acadien, sont dissous;
- b) par dérogation à l'article 42 et à l'alinéa 46(2)(f), les membres des conseils scolaires dissous demeurent membres du conseil scolaire régional. Ceci est valable jusqu'à l'élection des membres du conseil scolaire;
- c) l'actif et le passif des conseils scolaires dissous, notamment tous les avantages et droits à pension des employés, sont dévolus au conseil scolaire régional.

(The second sentence in *b*) is no longer part of the main sentence that begins in the introductory paragraph.)

In such cases, it is more appropriate to rephrase everything so that each item in the list can be a full sentence with its own punctuation (as in A. above) or so that each item is only a phrase within the main sentence that begins in the introductory paragraph (as in B. above).

7.3.7. Logical connections

Contrary to what is done in English, it is not appropriate, in French, to add the logical connection between items in a list (*and* or *or*) at the end of the item, after the semi-colon. In French, the default connection is ET (“AND”) and is implied by the list format itself. If one wants to indicate that the logical connection is OU (“EITHER/OR”), then each item in the list should begin with the word *soit*:

Le conseil scolaire établit un comité d'école consultatif à l'initiative des personnes suivantes :

- a) soit au moins huit pères ou mères d'élèves de l'école
- b) soit une association foyer-école, une association parents-enseignants ou une autre association semblable liée à l'école
- c) soit le directeur de l'école.

7.3.8. Repeated preposition or conjunction

Contrary to what happens in English, it is often mandatory to repeat the preposition (*de*, *à*, etc.) or conjunction (*que*, *dont*, etc.) before each item in a list of items, whether the list is part of the body text or formatted as a list (for example, the correct translation of “*the beauty of the moon and stars*” would be “la beauté **de** la lune et **des** étoiles”). The problem, however, is that, as in this example, the repeated preposition or conjunction may take a different (contracted) form if the item begins with a vowel (such as *d'*, *des*, *au*, *aux*, *du*, *qu'*, etc. — here *des étoiles* is the contracted form for *~~de~~*es* étoiles, which wouldn't be correct).

In order to avoid any problems, it is therefore best to repeat the connecting word at the beginning of every item in the list. In other words, it is better to use (I) rather than (II) in the example below:

- (I)
Les enseignants pourront demander aux élèves
- de faire ceci
 - d'aller faire cela
 - de prétendre faire telle ou telle chose.

rather than

(II)

Les enseignants pourront demander aux élèves de (d')

- faire ceci
- aller faire cela
- prétendre faire telle ou telle chose.

The way of presenting things in (II) is correct in theory, but the need to take into account the contracted form of the preposition (*d'*) which applies to the second item in the list makes for a clumsy presentation that is harder to read. This can be even worse in other situations, such as:

(IIa)

Le conseil scolaire a fait appel à la(au)(x)

- direction de l'école
- comité d'école consultatif
- parents.

The approach used in (I) is “cleaner”, lighter and easier to read:

(Ia)

Le conseil scolaire a fait appel

- à la direction de l'école
- au comité d'école consultatif
- aux parents.

In addition, in the case of rather long lists, it might be actually better to repeat the connecting word for every item, so as the reader does not lose track of the connecting logic between the list of items and what comes before it.

In brief, the use of the (I)/(Ia) approach with the repeated connecting word is recommended whenever possible. This being said, every case is unique and there might still be a situation where not repeating the connecting word is more appropriate. It will be up to the writer to decide which approach is better in his/her particular situation.

8. Document formatting

8.1. *Pagination*

8.1.1. *Automatic page numbering*

In a word processor, page numbers should **never** be entered manually. Every word processor has an automatic page numbering function which can take care of this and ensure that page numbers remain up-to-date even when pages are added or removed.

8.1.2. *Cover page and first page*

The cover page and first page of a document do not normally have a page number, even though the first page does count in the page numbering. (The cover page doesn't count.) In order to automate this, the recommended approach is to use the "Different First Page" option in the word processor. Documents may also be divided into several "sections" that each have their own numbering options.

As much as possible, if the text is to be printed in double-sided format, the first page of each section of the document should begin on the **odd** side (which appears on the right-hand side when the document is bound).

8.1.3. *Odd and even pages*

It should also be noted that, in a double-sided document, if the page number needs to be located on the right-hand side of odd pages and on the left-hand side of even pages, then you will need to define a **different header (or footer)** for even pages than for odd pages. The only other way to have a page number that is located in the right place on both even and odd pages is to place it in the centre of the page.

Here again, word processors have features designed to automate the creation of different headers and footers for odd and even pages.

8.1.4. *References to total number of pages*

Word processors usually have a feature that can insert the (dynamically updated) total number of pages of the document anywhere in the document. You should use this feature to create page numbers formatted as "Page X of Y", where "X" is the current page number and "Y" is the total number of pages.

In French, "Page X of Y" is translated into

Page X sur Y

(and not "Page X de Y", which is a common mistake). The abbreviated way to write this is the same as in English:

Page X/Y

8.2. Table of contents

Traditionally, in French documents, the full “Table des matières” would be located at the end of the document. Books would also sometimes contain a “Sommaire” at the beginning of the document, that would only contain the main subdivisions of the document.

Due to various factors, including the use of word processors in desktop publishing, most French documents now include a full “Table des matières” at the beginning (and no longer include a “sommaire”).

Whenever possible, one should use the word processor’s automated table of contents feature, which will generate the headings text and page number references automatically and update them automatically if the document is altered later on.

8.3. Bibliographies

The bibliography is usually located at the very end of the document, before the index if the document has one.

The presentation style used for bibliographies in French is the following (with a **negative** first line indent so that the last name of the author sticks out):

WILSON-SMITH Danielle, *Mode de vie des Canadiens à l’orée du nouveau millénaire*, Gallimard, Paris, 1990.

WILSON-SMITH Danielle, « Mode de vie des Canadiens à l’orée du nouveau millénaire », *Revue canadienne*, vol. 2, n° 6, Seuil, Paris, 1990.

Nouvelle-Écosse, Ministère de l’Éducation, *Mode de vie des Canadiens à l’orée du nouveau millénaire*, Imprimeries de la Couronne, Halifax, 1990.

Please note that French documents should **not** use the comma as a separator between the last name and the first name of an individual. In order to mark the distinction between last name and first name, ALL CAPS or SMALL CAPS may be used for the last name.

8.4. Footnotes

Certain word processors have the unfortunate habit of formatting the footnote number in the footnote itself in **superscript**, like it is in the footnote **reference** (within the body text). This is incorrect. In the footnote itself, the footnote number should be the same size as the rest of the text of the footnote and vertically aligned with the rest of the text. For example, instead of “² Danielle WILSON-SMITH, *Mode de vie des Canadiens*”, a properly formatted footnote should read:

2. Danielle WILSON-SMITH, *Mode de vie des Canadiens à la fin du XX^e siècle et à l’orée du nouveau millénaire*, p. 34.

9. Letters

9.1. Addresses

In French, a **comma** should be used to separate the number from the rest of the street address:

1, rue Brunswick

(rather than « 1 rue Brunswick »).

The province is indicated **between brackets**, in its abbreviated or full form:

Pointe-de-l'Église (Nouvelle-Écosse)
Pointe-de-l'Église (N.-É.)

The postal code is a combination of letters and digits. The “0” in postal codes is **always** the digit “0” and never the letter “O”. For example, the postal code for Church Point, Nova Scotia is:

B0W 1M0

and not « BOW 1MO » (even though « 0 » and « O » are sometimes almost identical in certain computer fonts).

In a mailing address, the postal code comes after the reference to the province, **on the same line**:

Louis LeBlanc
1, rue Brunswick
Halifax (N.-É.) B3J 2S9

9.2. Phone and fax numbers

The proper abbreviations for “Téléphone” and “Télécopieur” are:

Tél. : (902) 424-3927
Télec. : (902) 424-3937

(Please note the period at the end of each abbreviation, followed by a non-breaking space and a colon.)

9.3. Email and web addresses

9.3.1. Email addresses

Since email addresses are a fairly new thing, there is still a lot of hesitation. Some people use the English “email” in French (sometimes with a hyphen, as in “e-mail”), some use “courrier électronique”, some use “courriel”.

In most cases, it is not necessary to use **anything** before an email address. Indeed, one rarely writes “Mailing address” in front of a mailing address, simply because the fact that it is a mailing address is instantly recognizable. Similarly, when a string of characters contains the “@” symbol, it is instantly recognized as an email address. It is therefore perfectly correct to write one’s email address on its own line without any kind of abbreviation before it.

If an abbreviation is still required, we recommend “Courrier élec.”:

Courrier élec. : education@gov.ns.ca

Within the body text of a document, it is sometimes more appropriate to indicate quite clearly where an email address begins and where exactly it ends, in particular when the email address is the last word in the sentence and is immediately followed by a period. In such cases, it is recommended to use the “lower than” (<) and “greater than” (>) symbols to enclose the email address, as in:

Nous vous recommandons de communiquer avec le responsable du site, à l’adresse
<responsable@cprp.ednet.ns.ca>.

(Please note that the period comes **after the** “lower than” (>) symbol, thus clearly indicating that it is **not** part of the email address.)

The use of the < and > symbols is very common on the Internet for this very reason.

9.3.2. *Web sites*

A web site address is also called “URL” (for “Universal Resource Locator”). As was the case with email addresses, it is usually unnecessary to specify that a web address is a web address.

We recommend, however, that you **always** include the opening sequence of the address (the “http://” part), even if this sequence is always the same and is usually not required in current web browsers (they will add it automatically for you). This sequence is what enables a computer to distinguish a web address from an FTP address (which begins with “ftp://”) and also clarifies the situation for web addresses that do not begin with “www”, where people might be tempted to add a “www” that they believe is missing:

http://www.canada.com
http://www.gov.ns.ca
http://cprp.ednet.ns.ca

Here again, in order to better separate web addresses from the rest of the sentence when they are mentioned in the body text of a document, we recommend using the “lower than” (<) and “greater than” (>) symbols to enclose the web address:

Nous vous recommandons de consulter le site Web de TERMIUM à l’adresse
<http://www.termium.com>.

(Please note that the period comes **after the** “lower than” (>) symbol, thus clearly indicating that it is **not** part of the web address.)

The use of the < and > symbols is very common on the Internet for this very reason.

9.4. Dates

Commas are never used in dates in French. As well, the initials of names of days and months are never capitalized (unless they are the first word of a sentence). In letters, it is best to write out the date in full rather than in an abbreviated form:

Le mardi 15 février 1999

or:

Le 15 février 1999

The date should be left-aligned and be located above the address of the recipient.

9.5. Letter openings

Contrary to what is conventional in English, the French equivalent of “Dear”, which is *cher(chère)*, is not used in formal correspondence (only in letters to friends and family). As well, one uses a person’s title rather than his/her name whenever a title is available.

In other words, one should not write “Cher Directeur,” or “Chère M^{me} Purves,” but rather:

Madame la Ministre de l’Éducation,

Monsieur le Directeur,

Monsieur le Président,

Madame Comeau,

(See 2.3 for rules regarding the use of capital initials.)

9.6. Letter closings

The writer should repeat the title of the recipient in the closing line:

Veuillez agréer, Monsieur le Directeur, l’expression de mes sentiments les meilleurs.

9.7. *Signature*

In a formal context, the writer should normally indicate his/her professional title and the name of his/her institution:

Annick Godin, enseignante
École Petit-de-Grat

If the title comes on the next line, its initial is capitalized:

Annick Godin
Enseignante
École Petit-de-Grat

In the case of senior officials, the title is placed before the signature with an article (with space for the signature between the title and the name):

La directrice administrative,

Margelaine Holding

10. Character styles

10.1. *Italics*

10.1.1. *Emphasis*

The standard way to emphasize a word is to use *italics* rather than **bold**. (Bold may however be used to indicate an even higher degree of emphasis in specific situations.)

Le ministère a consacré *deux millions de dollars* à cette initiative.

Italics are also used for citing words or phrases as words or phrases (i.e. when the writer wants to refer to the word or phrase itself):

J'ai trouvé dix fois le mot *francophone* dans la première page de cet article.

Dans le mot *être*, la lettre *ê* vient d'une ancienne forme *es-* dans laquelle le *s* était prononcé.

(PLEASE NOTE: In order to avoid any confusion, in this guide we have used **bold** instead of italics for emphasis, because the text contained so many *cited* words in italics. But this is an exceptional situation. In addition, one should never use bold and italics **combined** for emphasis, as this would be redundant.)

10.1.2. Latin phrases

Certain French phrases and abbreviations that come from Latin, such as *a priori*, *cf. (confer)*, *id.*, *ad infinitum*, etc., are **always** in italics. Please note, however, that a “Frenchized” version of *a priori* written “à priori” (with an accented à) is becoming more and more common. If the version with the accented à is used, then it is no longer italicized:

Les francophones sont à priori les mieux placés pour le dire.

10.1.3. Italics and punctuation

It should be noted that, whenever a phrase in italics is immediately followed by a punctuation mark (such as a comma, semi-colon, closing bracket, etc.), this may lead to aesthetic problems, as the letters in italics tend to “collide” with the punctuation mark and produce unsightly results. In such cases, it is best to avoid any problems by **italicizing the punctuation mark** as well, even though it is not technically part of the phrase that is being italicized. (This is especially true for semi-colons, question and exclamation marks, and brackets.)

Here is an example:

Les déclarations de la ministre portent sur les points suivants : la loi sur l'éducation; la *Charte canadienne des droits et libertés*; les règlements du gouverneur en conseil et les règlements du ministre.

(Please note the italicized semi-colon after *Charte canadienne des droits et libertés*.)

When an entire quote is in italics, then the French quotation marks around the quote are italicized as well:

La présidente du NSTU a déclaré : « *Our members will not sign the new collective agreement until Section 21 is revised.* »

(Please note the italicized « and ».)

10.2. Bold

10.2.1. Bold or italics?

Bold may be used occasionally for emphasis, but it is better to use it exclusively for text formatting (headings, titles, etc.).

It should also be noted that even the *italics* used for emphasis should be used sparingly. It is always better to phrase one's text so that the emphasis is actually expressed through syntactic structures, especially in French where phonetic emphasis on words is used much less often than it is in English.

10.2.2. Bold and punctuation marks

As was the case with italics (see 10.1.3), if a punctuation mark comes immediately after a phrase in bold, this may cause aesthetic issues, and the way to circumvent these issues is to put the punctuation mark in bold as well, even though it is not technically part of the phrase in bold.

10.3. Underline

The underline format should **never be** used in modern typography (except for purely aesthetic reasons). It is a remnant of the era of the typewriter, when neither italics nor bold were available. There is no reason to continue to use the underline in modern typography. The major problem with the underline is that it cuts through any letter that has a "hanging" part, such as *g* in: désagréable.

When citing titles of books, magazines, albums, etc., *italics* should be used. When citing titles or chapters, articles, songs, etc., quotation marks should be used. (See also 3.1.)

On the web, the underline should be used exclusively for **HyperText links**.

11. Miscellaneous

11.1. Ligatures

French typography uses several common ligatures (i.e. letters joined together). Some of them are readily available on modern computers.

11.1.1. A plus E

The *æ* ligature (not to be confused with *œ*, which looks very similar sometimes, depending on the font you are using) consists of a joined *a* plus *e*. It is available on all keyboards and should be used for Latin phrases that require it, such as:

curriculum vitæ

The æ ligature is also part of the universal ISO-Latin code and may therefore be safely used in web pages. Its HTML code is `æ`. The HTML code for the corresponding capital (Æ) is `&Aelig;`.

11.1.2. *O plus E*

For purely political reasons, the committee responsible for the selection of characters included in the ISO-Latin code left out the œ ligature (joined o plus e), in total disregard of the fact that it is used in many very common French words such as *cœur*, *sœur*, *œil*, *œuvre*, etc.

The unfortunate consequence of this decision is that, at this point in time, we cannot recommend the systematic use of the this œ ligature. If you are typing a document that you will be printing yourself or that you will be sending to a computer user who you know will be able to view the ligature properly on his/her machine, then you may use it. Otherwise, it is best to avoid it and use *oe* and *OE* (without ligature), even though it is not correct.

Fortunately, the new standard for international and special characters, which is called Unicode (<http://www.unicode.org>), solves all these issues once and for all by including a total of 65,536 characters in its standard set. This includes, of course, æ and œ (and many other ligatures). However, this new code has yet to be universally adopted. Computer software will need to be updated to support it, and this will take a while.

The œ ligature may already be used in web pages, however. The `&oeelig;` HTML code has yet to be universally supported, but the most common versions of the two most important browsers, i.e. Internet Explorer and Netscape Navigator, already recognize its numerical equivalent `œ` (`Œ` for capital **Œ**).

11.1.3. *F plus F, F plus I, etc.*

Traditional French typography includes many more ligatures intended to improve the aesthetic quality of print and make it more pleasant to read. It includes ligatures for *f plus f*, for *f plus i*, etc. They are not universally supported, however.

Eventually, the widespread adoption and support for Unicode should solve all these issues and give us full access to the range of ligatures provided by traditional typography. But it will still be years before this is achieved.

11.2. ***“Frenchizing” names of institutions***

People are sometimes tempted to “Frenchize” names of the English institutions of Nova Scotia or other Canadian provinces. For example, people sometimes refer to “l’Université Dalhousie”, “l’Université Acadia”, “l’Université Saint-François-Xavier”, “l’école secondaire de Yarmouth” (instead of “Yarmouth High School”), etc.

This is not appropriate in our opinion. We would not appreciate it, for example, if English-speaking people started referring to “University of St. Anne” instead of “Université Sainte-Anne”. We believe that we should continue to use the English names of English-only institutions in French texts:

Je me suis inscrit à Acadia University.
Il est le directeur de Yarmouth High School.

When the institution or organization has both an English name and a French name, however, the appropriate name should obviously be used:

le personnel de la Direction des services acadiens et de langue française
the staff of the Acadian and French Language Services Branch

BIBLIOGRAPHY

IMPORTANT: The following works are mentioned for reference purposes only. This guide was developed through a process involving people who work in the area of French education in Nova Scotia and is based on recommendations coming from various sources within our province. None of the following works can be considered the “Bible” that has the answer to all our specific questions. The ultimate reference for French style in Nova Scotia is and should be this guide. If the guide does not contain the required information, then a discussion should be initiated within our team in order to develop a recommendation that could be added to a future version of the guide.

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Robert, Paul, ed. *Le petit Robert* (latest edition). Paris: Dictionnaires Le Robert. (Also available as Macintosh or Windows CD-ROM.)

Web Sites

Office de la langue française (Gouvernement du Québec)
<<http://www.olf.gouv.qc.ca>>

Terminology

GRAND DICTIONNAIRE TERMINOLOGIQUE (Office de la langue française, Gouvernement du Québec)
- free on-line access / CD-ROM available. Also includes *Le français au bureau*
<<http://www.granddictionnaire.com/>>

TERMIUM (Translation Bureau, Government of Canada) - on-line subscription or CD-ROM
<<http://www.termium.com>>

Questions, Comments & Suggestions

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