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The Gregg Reference Manual

Fifth Edition

Sabin



A QUICK GUIDE TO KEY PARAGRAPHS

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William A. Sabin

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PREFACE

The Gregg Reference Manual is intended for anyone who writes, transcribes, or types. It presents the basic rules that apply in virtually every piece of business writing, as well as the fine points that occur infrequently but cause trouble when they do. It offers an abundance of examples and illustrations so that you can quickly find a model on which to pattern a solution to a specific problem. It also provides the rationale underlying specific rules so that you can manipulate the principles of style with intelligence and taste.

Features of the New Edition. The Gregg Reference Manual has been expanded by about 50 pages in this edition to ensure that users will find a definitive answer to virtually every problem that is likely to occur in ordinary written communications. Among the new topics covered in this edition is metrication: ¶¶537–538 deal with metric measurements and the style of metric abbreviations; various paragraphs in Section 13 deal with metric sizes of stationery and envelopes. Also a topic of primary concern in this edition is the matter of sexism in our language: ¶¶808–809 discuss the generic use of terms like businessman and chairman and how to avoid them; ¶837 discusses ways to avoid feminine suffixes like ess and ette; ¶¶1050–1053 discuss ways to avoid the generic pronoun he when the antecedent is a noun of common gender (like parent or teacher) or an indefinite pronoun (like everyone or anyone); ¶1350 discusses alternatives to the common salutation Gentlemen.

Along with this expansion in coverage The Gregg Reference Manual has been updated to reflect the significant changes in style that have occurred since the last edition was published. The manual acknowledges, for example, such trends as dropping the comma before terms like Jr., Sr., and Inc. or dropping the period after abbreviations of measurements (like ft, oz, and lb). The manual also offers up-to-date answers to such questions as these: (1) how to address a woman when you are not sure which title of respect she prefers; or (2) how to address a person (like C. V. O'Brien or Marion Nichols) when you are not sure of the person's gender.

To enhance the effectiveness of the manual as a reference tool, many new illustrations, models, and examples have been added in this edition. Note, too, that each section of the manual begins with a detailed list of the topics covered in that section. These lists will make it easier for you to grasp the organization and coverage of each section; they also provide you with a new way to look things up.

Accompanying The Gregg Reference Manual is an all-new, 64-page set of worksheets. These worksheets are designed to build three critical editing skills. First of all, the Worksheets for The Gregg Reference Man-

ual will familiarize you with the wide range of potential problems you are likely to encounter in any material that you write, transcribe, or type. Second, these worksheets will direct you to the key rules in each section of The Gregg Reference Manual so that later on, when you encounter similar problems in your own work, you'll know where to look. Third, they will sharpen your ability to apply the rules correctly under many different circumstances.

An Overview of the Organization and the Coverage. This edition of The Gregg Reference Manual consists of 18 sections, organized as follows:

Part One (Sections 1-11) deals with grammar, usage, and the chief aspects of style—punctuation, capitalization, numbers, abbreviations. plurals and possessives, spelling, compound words, and word division.

Part Two (Sections 12-15) deals with techniques and procedures for producing all kinds of written communications in business—letters, memos, reports, manuscripts, and tabular matter.

Part Three (Sections 16-18) provides three appendixes for fast reference: a listing of model forms of address, a glossary of grammatical terms, and a bibliography of useful reference works.

While a reference manual is not intended to be read from cover to cover, an hour or two devoted at the outset to scanning the manual will enhance its usefulness later on as specific problems occur. The following comments provide a brief orientation to the manual and highlight features of each section that warrant special attention.

Section 1 (¶¶101–199) deals with the major marks of punctuation—the period, the question mark, the exclamation point, the comma, the semicolon, and the colon. As you scan Section 1, give especially close attention to the rules on the comma and the semicolon, since they treat punctuation problems that commonly occur in all business writing. In particular, note ¶122-125, which provide a new overview of commas used to set off and commas used to sepurate. Also note paragraphs such as \$132, which provides an extensive list of model sentences for all the varied applications of the basic rule.

Section 2 (¶¶201-299) deals with the other marks of punctuation—the dash, parentheses, quotation marks, the underscore, the apostrophe, ellipsis marks, the asterisk, the diagonal, and brackets. Of special note are the model sentences provided for quotation marks (particularly those in ¶257-258) and the rules in ¶299, which indicate the typewriter spacing to be used with all marks of punctuation.

Section 3 (¶¶301-362) covers capitalization. Give particular attention to the introduction and the basic rules (¶¶301-310). If you grasp the function of capitalization, you will not only have a better perspective on all the specific rules that follow but also be better equipped to resolve capitalization problems on your own.

Section 4 (¶¶401-468) discusses number style. For an explanation of the concepts that underlie all aspects of number style, read the introduction and the basic rules (¶401-406). If you understand the functional difference between expressing numbers in figures and in words,

you can solve many specific style questions without having to refer to the manual.

Section 5 (¶¶501-547) deals with abbreviations. Study the basic rules (¶501-514) and give special attention to the rules for abbreviating customary measurements (¶535-536) and metric measurements (¶9537-538). Also note the new or expanded lists of common abbreviations provided in ¶541, 543, and 544.

Section 6 (¶¶601-650) covers plurals and possessives. Because of the frequency with which these forms occur, give special attention to the basic rules that govern their formation and usage.

Section 7 (¶¶701-718) provides a number of spelling guides that could help you reduce your dependence on the dictionary. For fast assistance on words that look alike or sound alike, consult 9717, which provides a 12-page guide to these troublesome combinations. To avoid spelling errors, consult 9718 for a 3-page list of words commonly misspelled.

Section 8 (¶801-838) deals with all kinds of compound words and provides guides as to whether they should be spaced, solid, or hyphenated. Note in particular ¶813-829 on compound adjectives; these paragraphs offer an extensive series of patterns and examples to clarify the applications of the basic rule.

Section 9 (¶901-922) discusses word division in terms of a few absolute rules and a number of preferred practices. In addition, Section 9 offers several hints on determining correct syllabication without reference to a dictionary.

Section 10 (¶¶1001-1084) offers a compact survey of all the rules of grammar that you are likely to need. The coverage ranges from subject-verb agreement to proper sentence structure, with special attention given to problems involving verbs, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and the use of negatives.

Section 11 (¶1101) deals with problems of usage. Individual entries are provided for a wide range of troublesome words and phrases and are listed alphabetically for fast reference.

Section 12 (¶¶1201-1231) provides a useful summary of proper dictation, transcription, and typing techniques.

Section 13 (¶¶1301-1399) is a key unit for anyone who writes or types letters and memos. Substantially revamped and expanded for this edition, it provides extensive styling notes on every element in a letter-from the letterhead to the postscript. It also discusses letter styles, punctuation patterns, and effective placement, with the aid of extensive illustrations and tables; it treats the preparation of envelopes and gives up-to-date instructions on how to handle addresses; and it provides special guides on memos and social-business correspondence.

Section 14 (¶1401-1433) provides guides and illustrations on the preparation of reports, manuscripts, footnotes, and bibliographies. Note in particular ¶1418, which offers a series of easy-to-follow patterns for constructing footnotes.

Section 15 (¶¶1501–1514) offers detailed guidelines and sample layouts for the arrangement of tabular matter.

Section 16 (¶1601) lists the correct forms of address and appropriate salutations for government officials, members of the armed services, religious dignitaries, and education officials.

Section 17 (¶1701) provides an alphabetized glossary of grammatical terms for the user who wants to quickly check the meaning of a particular term or who wants a fast review of grammatical terminology as a whole.

Section 18 (¶1801) offers a recommended bibliography of reference books that are useful on any office bookshelf.

The foregoing notes are only a preliminary guide to what you can discover more effectively firsthand. As you make your own survey of the text, you will want to single out the key rules that deserve further study; these are the rules that deal with everyday situations, the rules you need to have at your command. You may also want to develop a passing acquaintance with the fine points of style. It is sufficient simply to know that such rules exist; then, when you need them, you will know where to find them. Finally, you will want to take note of special word lists, sentence patterns, and illustrations that could be useful to you later on. If you find out now what aids the manual provides, you will know what kind of help you can count on in the future. And what is more important, you will be able to find what you are looking for faster.



HOW TO LOOK THINGS UP

Suppose you were writing to someone in another department:

I understand you are doing a confidential study of the Bronson matter. May I please get an advance copy of your report [At this point you hesitate. Should this sentence end with a period or a question mark?]

This is the kind of problem that continually comes up in any type of written communication. How do you find a fast answer to such questions? In this manual there are several ways to proceed.

Using the Index. The surest approach, perhaps, is to check the detailed index at the back of the manual (11 pages, with over 1,600 entries). For example, any of the following entries will lead you to the right punctuation for the problem sentence above:

Periods. 101-109 Question marks, 110-118 Request, punctuation of, 103

at end of requests, 103 at end of requests, 103, 113

In each entry the boldface number refers to the proper rule, ¶103. (If you look up ¶103, you will find that a question mark is the right punctuation for the sentence in question.)

In almost all of the index entries, references are made to specific rule numbers so that you can find what you are looking for fast. In a few cases, where a page reference will provide a more precise location (for example, when a rule runs on for several pages), a page number is given in lightface type. Suppose you were confronted with this problem:

If you compare the performance records of Catano, Harris, and Williams, you won't find much difference (between/omong) them.

The index will show the following entries:

among-between, 214 on between-among, 214

The rule on page 214 indicates that between is correct in this situation.

Using a Fast-Skim Approach. Many users of reference manuals have little patience with detailed indexes; they would rather open the book and skim through the pages until they find what they are looking for. If you are the kind of person who prefers this approach, you will find the brief topical index on the inside front cover especially helpful, since it indicates the key paragraphs for each major topic. Moreover, at the start of each section you will find a detailed list of all the topics covered in that section. This list will help you quickly focus on the rule or rules that pertain to your problem. Extensive cross-references have also been provided throughout the manual so that you can quickly locate

related rules that could prove helpful. Suppose the following problem came up:

The only point still at issue is whether or not new Federal [or is it federal?] legislation is required.

The index on the inside front cover indicates that ¶¶301-362 deal with the topic of capitalization. A fast skim of the outline preceding ¶301 will turn up the entry Names of Government Bodies (¶¶325-330). If you turn to that set of rules, you will find in ¶328 that federal is the proper form.

Playing the Numbers. There is still a third way to find the answer to a specific problem—and this is an approach that will grow in appeal as you become familiar with the organization and the content of the manual. From a fast inspection of the rule numbers, you will observe that they all carry a section number as a prefix. Thus Section 3 (on capitalization) has a "300" series of rules—from 301 to 362; Section 4 (on number style) has a "400" series—from 401 to 468; and so on. Once you become familiar with the section numbers and the section titles, you can find your way around fairly quickly, without reference to either index. For example, you are about to write the following sentence:

43 percent of the questionnaires have now been returned. [Or should it be, "Forty-three percent of the questionnaires . . . "?]

If you know that matters of number style are treated in Section 4, you can quickly turn to the "400" series of rules, where a fast skim of the outline of topics at the start of the section will lead you to the answer in \$\\$421. (Forty-three percent is the right answer in this instance.)

A familiarity with the section numbers and section titles can also save you time when you are using the index. If your index entry lists several different paragraph numbers, you can often anticipate what the paragraphs will deal with. For example, if you want to know whether to type 5 lb or 5 lbs on a purchase order and you check the index, you might encounter the following entry:

Weights, 429-430, 535-538, 621

If you know that Section 6 deals with plurals, you will try ¶621 first.

Looking Up Specific Words. Many of the problems that arise deal with specific words. For this reason the index provides as many entries for such words as space will permit. For example, in the following sentence, should therefore be set off by commas or not?

It is(,) therefore(,) essential that operations be curtailed.

A check of the index will show the following entry:

therefore, 122, 138-142

A reading of the rules in ¶141 will indicate that no commas should be used in this sentence. If you asked the same question about another specific word and did not find it listed as a separate entry in the index, your best approach would be to check the index under "Comma" and investigate the most promising references or make a direct scan of the comma rules in Section 1 until you find the answer you are looking for.

If you are having difficulty with words that look alike and sound alike—jibe and gibe or affect and effect—turn directly to ¶717. For other troublesome words and phrases, consult ¶1101.



1 PUNCTUATION: MAJOR MARKS

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PUNCTUATION: MAJOR MARKS

THE PERIOD

At the End of a Statement or Command (¶101-102) At the End of a Polite Request or Command (¶103) At the End of an Indirect Question (¶104) With Decimals (¶105) In Outlines and Displayed Lists (¶106-107) With Headings (¶108) A Few Don'ts (¶109)

THE QUESTION MARK

To Indicate Direct Questions (¶110-113)
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THE COMMA

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THE COLON

Between Independent Clauses (¶187)

Before Lists and Enumerations (¶¶188-191)

In Expressions of Time and Proportions (¶¶192-193)

After Salutations (¶194)

In References to Books or Publications (¶195)

Capitalizing After a Colon (¶¶196-199)

Punctuation marks are the mechanical means for making the meaning of a sentence easily understood. They indicate the proper relationships between words, phrases, and clauses when word order alone is not sufficient to indicate these relationships.

One important caution about punctuation. If you find it particularly hard to determine the appropriate punctuation for a sentence you have written, the chances are that the sentence is improperly constructed. To be on the safe side, recast your thought in a form you can handle with confidence. In any event, do not try to save a badly constructed sentence by means of punctuation.

Section 1 deals with the three marks of terminal punctuation (the period, the question mark, and the exclamation point) plus the three major marks of internal punctuation (the comma, the semicolon, and the colon). All other marks of punctuation are covered in Section 2.

The Period

At the End of a Statement or Command

Use a period to mark the end of a sentence that makes a statement or expresses a command.

I was very happy to read about your promotion.

I question the wisdom of Jones's recommendation.

Be sure to insist on quick service when you order from Lyons Inc.

102 Use a period to mark the end of an elliptical (condensed) expression that represents a complete statement or command. These elliptical expressions often occur as answers to questions or as transitional phrases.

> By all means. No. Yes.

Now, to answer your closing question.

NOTE: Do not confuse elliptical expressions with sentence fragments. An elliptical expression represents a complete sentence. A sentence fragment is a word, phrase, or clause that is incorrectly treated as a separate sentence when in fact it ought to be incorporated with adjacent words to make up a complete sentence.

Great news! The shipment arrived yesterday. After we had waited for six weeks. (Great news is an elliptical expression; it represents a complete sentence, I have great news. After we had waited for six weeks is a sentence fragment, incorrectly treated as a sentence in its own right; this dependent clause should be linked with the main clause that precedes it.)

REVISED: Great news! The shipment arrived yesterday, after we had waited for six weeks.

At the End of a Polite Request or Command

Requests, suggestions, and commands are often phrased as questions out of politeness. Use a period to end this kind of sentence if you expect your reader to respond by acting rather than by giving you a yes-or-no answer. (Continued on page 4.) Will you please let us have your decision as soon as possible.

Would you kindly send my order to this address.

May I suggest that you call in advance to be sure of prompt service.

If you would like a free ticket to the exhibition, would you please send us your name and address.

If your reader might think your request presumptuous when presented as a statement, use a question mark instead. The question mark offers your reader a chance to say no to your request and preserves the politeness of the situation.

May t have an appointment to see you next week?

May I make a suggestion?

Will you please handle the production reports for me while I'm away?

NOTE: If you are not sure whether to use a question mark or a period, reword the sentence so that it is clearly a question or a statement; then punctuate accordingly. For example, the sentence directly above could be revised as follows:

Would you be willing to handle the production reports for me while I'm away? I would appreciate your handling the production reports for me while I'm away.

At the End of an Indirect Question

104 Use a period to mark the end of an indirect question. (See also ¶¶115–116).

Our marketing director has asked when the sales figures will be ready.

The only question I have is whether the job will be completed on schedule.

Who the new vice president will be has not yet been decided.

The problem is clear; the question is what to do about it.

With Decimals

105 Use a period (without space before or after it) to separate a whole number from a decimal fraction; for example, \$5.50, 33.33 percent.

In Outlines and Displayed Lists

106 Use periods after numbers or letters that enumerate items in an outline or a displayed list—unless the numbers or letters are enclosed in parentheses. (See ¶107, 223 for illustrations.)

NOTE: Ordinarily, leave two spaces after the period that follows a number or letter in an enumeration. However, if the list consists entirely of one-line items typed single-spaced, then leave only one space after the period. (See also \$1409c.)

107 Use periods after independent clauses, dependent clauses, or long phrases that are displayed on separate lines in a list. No periods are needed after short phrases unless the phrases are essential to the grammatical completeness of the statement introducing the list.

Please order the following items:

- 1. Paper clips
- 2. Rubber bands
- 3. Staples

BUT: Capitalize the first word of:

- a. Every sentence.
- b. Direct quotations.
- c. Items displayed in a list.

With Headings

- 108 a. Use a period after a run-in heading (one that is immediately followed by text matter on the same line) unless some other mark of punctuation, such as a question mark, is required.
 - b. Omit the period if the heading is free-standing (displayed on a line by itself). (However, retain a question mark or an exclamation point with a free-standing head if the wording requires it.)

OVERVIEW OF THE OFFICE WORK FLOW

The Three Clerical Systems

Sales System. When orders come into the office from customers, they are forwarded immediately to the Sales Department, where clerks . . .

NOTE: A period follows a run-in expression like Table 3, even though the heading as a whole is free-standing.

Table 3. Equipment Acquisition Schedule

A Few Don'ts

- 109 Don't use a period:
 - a. After letters used to designate persons or things (for example, Miss A. Class B. Grade C. Brand X). exception: Use a period when the letter is the actual initial of a person's last name (for example, Mr. A. for Mr. Adams).
 - **b.** After contractions (for example, cont'd; see \$505).
 - c. After ordinals expressed in figures (1st, 2d, 3d, 4th).
 - d. After roman numerals (for example, Volume I, Henry Ford II). EXCEP-TION: Periods follow roman numerals in an outline. (See 9223.)
 - Periods with abbreviations: see \$506-510.
 - Periods with dashes: see \$\frac{1}{213}, 214, 215a.
 - Periods with parentheses: see \$\frac{1}{224c}, 225a, 225c, 226c.
 - Periods with quotation marks: see \$\ 247, 252, 253, 257, 258.
 - Three spaced periods (ellipsis marks): see \$274-280, 291.
 - Typewriter spacing with periods: see \$299.

The Question Mark

To Indicate Direct Questions

Use a question mark at the end of a direct question. (See **104, 115, 116 110 for the punctuation of indirect questions.)

Where are the records for Frasier Inc.? Why not see your dealer today? NOTE: Be sure to place the question mark at the end of the question.

How do you account for this entry: "Paid to E. M. Johnson, \$300"? (NOT: How do you account for this entry? "Paid to E. M. Johnson, \$300.")

Use a question mark at the end of an elliptical (condensed) question, that 111 is, a word or phrase that represents a complete question.

(Continued on page 6.)

Jean has told me that you are still opposed to the plan. Why? (The complete question is, "Why are you still opposed to the plan?")

NOTE: Punctuate complete and elliptical questions separately, according to your meaning.

When will the job be finished? In a week or two? (Nor: When will the job be finished in a week or two?)

Where shall we meet? At the airport? (As punctuated, the writer allows for the possibility of meeting elsewhere.)

Where shall we meet at the airport? (As punctuated, the writer simply wants to pinpoint a more precise location within the airport.)

112 Use a question mark at the end of a sentence that is phrased like a statement but spoken with the rising intonation of a question.

They still doubt his ability? These figures are correct?

113 A request, suggestion, or command phrased as a question out of politeness may not require a question mark. (See ¶103.)

To Indicate Questions Within Sentences

114 When a short direct question falls within a sentence, set the question off with commas and put a question mark at the end of the sentence.

You have the authority, do you not, to make this decision yourself?

When a short direct question falls at the end of a sentence, use a comma before it and a question mark after.

I can count on your support, can't I?

115 When a direct question comes at the end of a larger sentence, it starts with a capital letter and is preceded by a comma or a colon. The question mark that ends the question also serves to mark the end of the sentence.

The important question is, What profit can we expect?

This is the important question: What profit can we expect? (Use a colon if the introductory matter is an independent clause.)

Bur: We now come to the important question of what profit we can expect. (Indirect question: no special punctuation or capitalization is needed.)

When a direct question comes at the beginning of a larger sentence, it should be followed by a question mark (for emphasis) or simply a comma.

How can we achieve these goals? is the next question. (Leave one space after a question mark within a sentence.)

or: How can we achieve these goals, is the next question.

BUT: How we can achieve these goals is the next question. (Indirect question; no special punctuation is needed.)

NOTE: See how a simple shift in word order above converts a direct question to an indirect question. When the verb precedes the subject (as in *How <u>can we</u>*), the question is direct, When the verb follows the subject (as in *How <u>we can</u>*), the question is indirect.

117 A series of brief questions at the end of a sentence may be separated by commas or (for emphasis) by question marks. Do not capitalize the individual questions.

> Can you estimate the cost of the roofing, the tile work, and the painting? or. Can you estimate the cost of the roofing? the tile work? the painting?

NOTE: Do not confuse these brief questions (which are all related to a common subject and verb) with a series of independent questions. Each independent question must start with a capital and end with a question mark.

Consider the following points: Is the plan adequate? Is it financially feasible? Is it acceptable to management?

Independent questions in a series are often elliptical (condensed) expressions, (See ¶111.)

Has Walter's loan been approved? When? By whom? For whot amount? (In other words: When was the loan approved? By whom was the loan approved? For what amount was the loan approved?)

(NOT: Has Walter's loan been approved, when, by whom, and for what amount?)

To Express Doubt

118 A question mark enclosed in parentheses may be used to express doubt or uncertainty about a word or phrase within a sentence.

She was graduated from Oberlin in 1974(?).

NOTE: When dates are already enclosed within parentheses, question marks may be inserted as necessary to indicate doubt.

the explorer Verrazzano (1485?-1528?)

- Question marks with dashes: see \$\frac{1}{214}, 215a.
- Question marks with parentheses: see \$\frac{1}{224d}, 225a, 225d, 226c.
- Question marks with quotation marks: see \$\frac{1}{2}49, 252, 254, 257, 258.
- Typewriter spacing with question marks: see \$299.

The Exclamation Point

The exclamation point is most often found in advertising copy and sales correspondence. However, it should be avoided wherever possible.

NOTE: If your typewriter does not carry the exclamation point as a standard character, you can construct it by typing the apostrophe, backspacing once, and then typing the period. On manual machines it is not necessary to backspace if the space bar is held down while both characters are typed.

To Express Strong Feeling

119 Use an exclamation point at the end of a sentence (or an elliptical expression that stands for a sentence) to indicate enthusiasm, surprise, disbelief, urgency, or strong feeling.

Yes! Dresses, jackets, and coats are selling at 50 percent off!

No! It can't be true! How could it have happened! Fantastic

NOTE: The exclamation point may be enclosed in parentheses and placed directly after a word that the writer wants to emphasize.

Did you know that Erskine's is selling genuine(!) mink coats for \$500?

120 a. A single word may be followed by an exclamation point to express intense feeling. The sentence that follows it is punctuated as usual.

Congratulations! We were delighted to read about your promotion.

b. When such words are repeated for emphasis, an exclamation point follows each repetition.

Hurry! Hurry! Our sale ends this week.

c. When exclamations are mild, a comma or a period is sufficient.

Well, well, don't let it get you down. No. There's no use in vain regrets.

With Oh and O

The exclamation oh may be followed by either an exclamation point or a comma, depending on the emphasis desired. It is capitalized only when it starts a sentence. The capitalized O, the sign of direct address, is not usually followed by any punctuation.

Oh! I didn't expect that! O Lord, help me!

Oh what's the use? O America, where are you headed?

- Exclamation point with dashes: see ¶214, 215a.
- Exclamation point with parentheses: see ¶¶224d, 225a, 225d, 226c.
- Exclamation point with quotation marks: see ¶¶249, 252, 254, 257, 258.

The Comma

The comma has two primary functions: it sets off nonessential expressions that interrupt the flow of thought from subject to verb to object or complement, and it separates elements within a sentence to clarify their relationship to one another. It takes only a single comma to "separate," but it typically requires two commas to "set off."

¶¶122-125 present an overview of the rules governing the use of the comma. For a more detailed treatment of the specific rules, see ¶¶126-175.

Basic Rules for Commas That Set Off

122 Use commas to set off nonessential expressions—words, phrases, and clauses that are not necessary for the meaning or the structural completeness of the sentence.

IMPORTANT NOTE: In many sentences you can tell whether an expression is nonessential or essential by trying to omit the expression. If you can leave

it out without affecting the meaning or the structural completeness of the sentence, the expression is nonessential and should be set off by commas.

NONESSENTIAL: I would like to hire Frances Klein, who has already had two years' experience as a management consultant.

ESSENTIAL: I would like to hire someone who has already had two years' experience as a management consultant. (Without the who clause, the meaning of the sentence would be incomplete.)

NONESSENTIAL: There is, no doubt, a reasonable explanation for his behavior at the board meeting.

ESSENTIAL: There is no doubt about her honesty. (Without no doubt the structure of the sentence would be incomplete.)

However, in other sentences the only way you can tell whether an expression is nonessential or essential is by the way you would say it aloud. If your voice tends to drop as you utter the expression, it is nonessential; if your voice tends to rise, the expression is essential.

NONESSENTIAL: We have decided, therefore, to proceed with the construction of the new building.

ESSENTIAL: We have therefore decided to proceed with the construction of the new building.

- For additional examples see ¶141, note.
- a. Interrupting words, phrases, and clauses are set off by commas when they break the flow of a sentence from subject to verb to object or complement. (See also ¶¶144-147.)

We will hold the package for your arrival or, if you prefer, forward it to your office. (When this is read aloud, note how the voice drops on the nonessential expression if you prefer.)

It is true, isn't it, that you offered to buy the property?

I could use, say, eight cases if you have them.

Franklin Hardware, rather than Flynn & Son, has been given the contract.

BUT: Franklin Hardware has been given the contract rather than Flynn & Son. (The phrase is not set off when it does not interrupt.)

b. Afterthoughts-words, phrases, or clauses loosely added onto the end of a sentence-are set off by a comma. (See also ¶144.)

Send us your check as soon as you can, please.

Grant promised to share expenses with us, if I remember correctly.

It is not too late to place an order, is it?

c. Transitional expressions (like however, therefore, on the other hand) and independent comments (like obviously, in my opinion, of course) are set off with commas when they interrupt the flow of the sentence. They are not set off, however, when they are used to emphasize the meaning (the voice goes up in such cases). In the following examples, consider how the voice drops when the expression is nonessential and how it rises when the expression is essential.

NONESSENTIAL: I must report, nevertheless, that his work is unsatisfactory. ESSENTIAL: I must nevertheless report that his work is unsatisfactory.

(Continued on page 10.)

NONESSENTIAL: It is, of course, your prerogative to change your mind. (Here the voice rises on is and drops on of course.)

ESSENTIAL: It is of course your prerogative to change your mind. (Here the voice rises on of course.)

- See also ¶¶138-143.
- **d.** Descriptive expressions that *follow* the words they refer to are set off when they provide additional but nonessential information. (See also ¶¶148-153.)

NONESSENTIAL: Her latest book, Management Case Studies, was published last month. (Her latest indicates which book is meant; the title gives additional but nonessential information.)

ESSENTIAL: The book Management Case Studies was published last month. (Here the title is essential to indicate which book.)

NONESSENTIAL: We have all read your letter of June 4, in which you propose a different schedule of payments. (The date indicates which letter; the in which clause gives additional information. See also \$152.)

ESSENTIAL: We have all read the letter in which you propose a different schedule of payments. (Here the in which clause is needed to indicate which letter is being referred to.)

e. Use commas to set off the year in complete dates (July 21, 1977, ...), abbreviations that follow a person's name (Ethel Harris, Ph.D., will speak ...), and names of states or countries following city names (Orem, Utah, ...). In personal names and company names the trend is not to set off elements like Jr., Sr., III, Inc., or Ltd. (for example, Roy Daly Jr. and Ibex Inc.); however, individual preferences should be respected when known. (See also ¶¶154-161.)

Basic Rules for Commas That Separate

123 Use a single comma:

\$1,000,000.

a. To separate the two main clauses in a compound sentence when they are joined by and, but, or, or nor. (See also ¶126-129.)

The reorganization has not been formally announced, but the details are widely known.

b. To separate three or more items in a series—unless all the items are joined by and or or. (See also ¶162-167.)

It takes time, effort, and a good deal of money.

BUT: It takes time and effort and a good deal of money.

c. To separate two or more adjectives that both modify the same noun. (See also $\P168-171$.)

We need to mount an exciting, hard-hitting ad campaign.

- d. To separate the digits of numbers into groups of thousands. (See ¶461.) Sales projections for the Southern Region next year range between \$900,000 and
- e. To indicate the omission of key words or to clarify meaning when the word order is unusual. (See also ¶¶172-175.)

Half the purchase price is due on delivery of the goods; the balance, in three months. (The comma here signifies the omission of is due.)

What will happen, we don't know. (The comma separates the object. What will happen, from the subject, we, which follows.)

124 Use a single comma after introductory elements—items that begin a sentence and come before the subject and verb of the main clause.

When I return to the office, I will get back in touch with you. (Introductory dependent clause.)

Established in 1936, the firm grew from a small manufacturer of plastics to a multinational corporation. (Introductory participial phrase.)

To find the answer, divide by 36. (Introductory infinitive phrase.)

Yes, we can have the typewriter repaired by Monday. (Introductory word.)

a. Use a comma after an introductory request or command.

Look, we've been through tougher situations before.

You see, the previous campaigns never did pan out.

Please remember, all expense accounts must be on my desk by Friday.

BUT: Please remember that all . . . (With the addition of that, please remember becomes the main verb and is no longer an introductory element.)

b. Commas are not needed after ordinary introductory adverbs or short introductory phrases that answer such questions as:

WHEN: tomorrow, yesterday, recently, early next week, in the morning.

soon, in five years, in 1978

HOW OFTEN: occasionally, often, frequently, once in a while

WHERE: here, in this case, at the meeting

WHY: for that reason, because of this situation

However, commas are used after introductory adverbs and phrases:

- (1) When they function as transitional expressions (such as well, therefore, however, for example, in the first place), which provide a transition in meaning from the previous sentence.
- (2) When they function as independent comments (such as in my opinion, by all means, obviously, of course), which express the writer's attitude toward the meaning of the sentence. (See also ¶138-143.)

In the morning things may look better. (Short prepositional phrase telling when; no comma needed.)

In the first place, they don't have sufficient capital. (Transitional expression; followed by comma.)

In my opinion, we ought to look for another candidate. (Independent comment; followed by comma.)

Recently we had a request for school enrollment trends. (Introductory adverbtelling when; no comma needed.)

Consequently, we will have to cancel the agreement. (Transitional expression; followed by comma.)

Obviously, the request will have to be referred elsewhere. (Independent comment; followed by comma.)

NOTE: Many writers use commas after all introductory elements to avoid having to analyze each situation.

- 125 Separating commas are often improperly used in sentences. In the following examples the diagonal marks indicate points at which single commas should not be used.
 - a. Do not separate a subject and its verb.

Her coouthor on the book/is Mr. Schatzkin.

BUT: Her coauthor on the book, I believe, is Mr. Schatzkin. (Use two commas to set off an interrupting expression.)

Whether further price increases are necessary/remains to be seen. (Noun clause as subject.)

BUT: Whatever was done, was done in good faith. (In special cases like this, a comma may be required for clarity. See also \$174.)

b. Do not separate a verb and its object or complement.

Our research staff will undertake/a comprehensive study of the problem. (Verb and object.)

Frank Bednar said/that her promotion would be approved. (Noun clause as

BUT: Frank Bednar said, "Her promotion will be approved." (A comma ordinarily follows a verb when the object is a direct quotation. See also \$256.)

OR: The question before us is, What alternatives are there to further tax increases? (A comma also follows a verb when the object or complement is a direct question. See also ¶115.)

He has been/controller for the last twelve years. (Verb and complement.) She is/honest, hard-working, and extremely capable. (Verb and complement.)

c. Do not separate an adjective and a noun.

We need a person who is willing to put in long, hard/hours, (Adjective and noun.)

d. Do not separate a noun and a prepositional phrase that follows.

The board of directors/of the Fastex Corporation will announce its decision this Friday.

But: The board of directors, of necessity, must turn down the merger at this time. (Use two commas to set off an interrupting expression.)

e. Do not separate a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, or nor) and the following word.

You can read it now or/when you get home tonight.

BUT: You can read it now or, if you prefer, when you get home tonight. (Use two commas to set off an interrupting expression.)

f. Do not separate two items joined by a coordinating conjunction.

The letters on the Gray case/and those concerning Mr. Pendleton should be shown to Mrs. Almquist. (Two subjects.)

I have read the report/and find it well done. (Two predicates. See also \$127.) We hope that you will visit our store soon/and that you will find the styles you like. (Two objects of the verb hope.)

He may go on to graduate school at Stanford/or Harvard. (Two objects of the preposition at.)

BUT: Frank Albano will handle the tickets, and Edna Hoehn will be responsible for publicity. (A comma separates two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction. See ¶126.)

The following rules (¶¶126–137) deal with the punctuation of clauses and phrases in sentences.

With Clauses in Compound Sentences

a. When a compound sentence consists of two independent clauses 126 joined by a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, or nor), place a separating comma before the conjunction. (See also ¶129.)

> Mr. Arakelian spoke for twenty minutes, and then he answered questions. BUT: Mr. Arakelian spoke for twenty minutes and then answered questions. (See ¶127a, b.)

> Take this message to Mrs. Lavigne, and please wait for her answer. (See \$127c.) Either our costs have to be reduced, or our prices have to be raised.

> Not only can we take on the project at once, but we can also quote you a competitive price.

b. When a compound sentence consists of three or more independent clauses, punctuate this series of clauses like any other series. (See also ¶162.)

Ted can do the typing, Pam can handle the art, and Sue and I can do the rest.

- Do not confuse a compound sentence with a simple sentence containing a compound predicate.
 - a. A compound sentence contains at least two independent clauses, and each clause contains a subject and a predicate.

Ella was graduated in May, and she began working for a bank in June.

b. A sentence may contain one subject with a compound predicate, that is, two predicates connected by a coordinating conjunction. In such sentences no comma separates the two predicates.

Ella was graduated in May and began working for a bank in June. (When she is omitted from the example in a above, the sentence is no longer a compound sentence. It is now a simple sentence with a compound predicate.)

Mr. Fong not only criticized the report but also recommended that it be revised. (Compound predicate; no comma before but.)

Mr. Fong not only criticized the report, but he also recommended that it be revised. (Compound sentence; comma before but.)

c. When one or both verbs are in the imperative and the subject is not expressed, treat the sentence as a compound sentence and use a comma between the clauses. (See ¶129.)

Send this letter to Mrs. Tyminski, and please attach a copy of Invoice 43011. Please sign both copies of the contract, and return the original copy to us.

You may take as much time as you need to reach a decision, but don't overlook the advantages of acting promptly.

d. When nonessential elements precede the second part of a compound predicate, they are treated as interrupting expressions and are set off by two commas. When these same expressions precede the second clause of a compound sentence, they are treated as introductory expressions and are followed by one comma.

I can meet with you on Wednesday or, if that is not a good day for you, on Thursday. (Interrupting expression.)

I can meet with you on Wednesday, or if that is not a good day for you, I can make some time on Thursday, (Introductory expression,)

Ms. Holtz strode to the platform and, speaking in a loud voice, called the meeting to order, (Interrupting expression.)

Ms. Holtz strode to the platform, and speaking in a loud voice, she called the meeting to order. (Introductory expression.)

- See also ¶¶131c, 136a, 142.
- 128 Do not use a comma between two independent clauses that are not joined by a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, or nor). This error of punctuation is known as a comma splice and produces a run-on sentence. Use a semicolon, a colon, or a dash (whichever is appropriate), or start a new sentence.

Mark top-priority letters "Rush"; transcribe them first. OR: Mark top-priority letters "Rush." Transcribe them first.

129 If the two clauses of a compound sentence are short, the comma may be omitted before the conjunction.

> Their prices are low and their service is very efficient. Please initial these forms and return them by Monday.

With Clauses in Complex Sentences

A complex sentence contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. After, although, as, because, before, if, since, unless, when, and while are among the words most frequently used to introduce dependent clauses. (See ¶132 for a longer list.)

Introductory Dependent Clauses 130

a. When a dependent clause precedes the independent clause, separate the clauses with a comma.

Before we can make a decision, we must have all the facts.

When a child is tired and pale, the cause is often lack of nutritious food.

After we have studied all aspects of the complaint, we will make a recommendation.

BUT: Only after we have studied all aspects of the complaint will we make a recommendation. (No comma follows the introductory clause when the word order in the main clause is abnormal. Compare the abnormal will we make here with the normal we will make in the example above.)

If, however, they had watched their investments more closely, do you think they could have avoided bankruptcy?

When you read the Weissberg study, look at Appendix 2 first.

b. Be sure to recognize an introductory dependent clause, even if some of the essential words are omitted from the clause. (Such constructions are known as elliptical clauses.)

Whenever possible, he leaves his office by six. (Whenever it is possible, . . .) If so, I will call you tomorrow. (If that is so, . . .)

Should you be late, just call to let me know. (If you should be late, . . .)

c. Use a comma after an introductory clause when it serves as the object of a sentence (but not when it serves as the subject).

Whomever you nominate, I will support. (Introductory clause as object.)

Whomever you nominate will have my support. (Introductory clause as subject.)

That the department must be reorganized, I no longer question, (Introductory clause as object.)

That the department must be reorganized is no longer questioned. (Introductory clause as subject.)

d. Sentences like those illustrated above are often introduced by an expression such as he said that, she believes that, or they know that. In such cases use the same punctuation as prescribed in \$130a, b, and c.

Doctors will tell you that when a child is tired and pale, the cause is often lack of nutritious food.

Harry says that whenever possible, he leaves his office by six.

Everyone knows that whomever you nomingte will have my support.

Liz believes that before we can make a decision, we must have all the facts. (A separating comma follows the dependent clause, just as if the sentence began with the word Before. No comma precedes the dependent clause because it is considered introductory, not interrupting.)

Bur: He said that, as you may already know, he was planning to take early retirement. (Two commas are needed to set off an interrupting dependent clause. See also ¶131c.)

131 Dependent Clauses Elsewhere in the Sentence

When a dependent clause follows the main clause or falls within the main clause, commas are used or omitted depending on whether the dependent clause is essential (restrictive) or nonessential (nonrestrictive).

a. An essential clause is necessary to the meaning of the sentence. Because it cannot be omitted, it should not be set off by commas.

Political leaders who are responsive to the wishes of their constituents will support the bill. (Tells which political leaders.)

This ruling applies to everyone who works in the plant. (Tells which persons.) The airport limousine arrived before I was ready to leave. (Tells when.)

The fact that he arrived on time today is some sign of improvement. (Tells which fact.)

Greg said that he would wait. (Tells what was said.)

Give this letter to whoever is at the front desk. (Tells which person.)

b. A nonessential clause provides additional descriptive or explanatory detail. Because it can be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence, it should be set off by commas.

He stopped off in Chicago to see his mother, who is a prominent lawyer. (Simply adds information about his mother.)

Green's first book, which sold a million copies, is now out of print. (Gives additional information about Green's book but is not needed to establish which book is meant; this is Green's first book.)

The airport limousine arrived at ten, before I was ready to leave. (Gives additional information but is not essential to establish when the limousine arrived.)

lim's last suggestion, that we send Torres to the meeting in Miami next month, is a good one. (Gives additional information but is not essential to establish which suggestion.)

c. A dependent clause occurring within a sentence must always be set off by commas when it interrupts the flow of the sentence.

I can set up the meeting for tomorrow or, if that is inconvenient, for Friday. Please include each customer's full address and, whenever possible, the account number. (The complete dependent clause is whenever it is possible.)

Mr. Gifford, when asked about his alleged participation in the price-rigging scheme, refused to comment.

She is the kind of person who, if you understand her, will be a devoted employee.

If, when you have tried our product, you are not satisfied with it, please return it for a full refund of the purchase price.

BUT: He said that when he had the time, he would help us with the report. (See ¶130d for dependent clauses following he said that, she knows that, and similar expressions.)

132 The following list presents the words and phrases most commonly used to introduce dependent clauses. For most of these expressions two sentences are given: one containing an essential clause and one a nonessential clause. In a few cases only one type of clause is possible. If you cannot decide whether a clause is essential or nonessential (and therefore whether commas are required or not), compare it with the related sentences below.

> After. ESSENTIAL: The telegram came after you left last evening. (Tells when.) NONESSENTIAL: The telegram came this morning, after the decision had been made. (The phrase this morning clearly tells when; the after clause provides additional but nonessential information.)

> All of which. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: The rumors, all of which were unfounded, brought about the defeat of the candidate.

> Although, even though, and though. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: She has typed her letter of resignation, although I do not believe she will submit it. (Clause of concession.)

> As. ESSENTIAL: The results of the mailing are as you predicted they would be. NONESSENTIAL: The results of the mailing are disappointing, as you predicted they would be. (See page 213 for a usage note on as.)

> As . . . as. ALWAYS ESSENTIAL: He talked as persuasively at the meeting as he did over the telephone.

> As if and as though, ESSENTIAL: The man walked as if (or as though) he were pursued by bees. (Tells how he walked.)

> NONESSENTIAL: The man walked fast, as if (or as though) he were pursued by bees. (The adverb fast tells how he walked; the as if clause provides additional but nonessential information.)

> As soon as. ESSENTIAL: We will fill your order as soon as we receive new stock. NONESSENTIAL: We will fill your order next week, as soon as we receive new stock.

> At, by, for, in, and to which. ESSENTIAL: I went to the floor to which I had been directed.

NONESSENTIAL: I went to the tenth floor, to which I had been directed.

Because. Essential or nonessential, depending on closeness of relation. ESSENTIAL: She left because she had another appointment. (Here the reason expressed by the because clause is essential to complete the meaning.) NONESSENTIAL: I need to have two copies of the final report by 5:30 tomorrow, because I am leaving for Chicago on a 7:30 flight. (Here the meaning of the main clause is complete; the reason expressed in the because clause offers additional but nonessential information.)

Before. ESSENTIAL: The shipment was sent before your letter was received. NONESSENTIAL: The shipment was sent on Tuesday, before your letter was received. (Tuesday tells when; the before clause provides additional but nonessential information.)

Even though. See Although.

For. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: He read the book, for he was interested in psychology. (A comma should always precede for as a conjunction to prevent misreading for as a preposition.)

If. ESSENTIAL: Let us hear from you if you are interested.

NONESSENTIAL: She promised to write from Toronto, if I remember correctly. (Clause added loosely.)

In order that. Essential or nonessential, depending on closeness of relation. ESSENTIAL: Please notify your instructor promptly in order that a makeup examination may be scheduled.

NONESSENTIAL: Please notify your instructor promptly if you will be unable to attend the examination on Friday, in order that a makeup examination may be scheduled.

No matter what (why, how, etc.). ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: The order cannot be ready by Monday, no matter what the manager says.

None of which. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: We received five boxes of samples, none of which have been opened.

None of whom. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: We have interviewed ten applicants, none of whom were satisfactory.

Since. ESSENTIAL: We have taken no applications since we received your instructions.

NONESSENTIAL: We are taking no more applications, since our lists are now closed. (Clause of reason.)

So . . . as. ALWAYS ESSENTIAL: The second copy was not so clear as the first one.

So that. Essential or nonessential, depending on closeness of relation.

ESSENTIAL: Examine all shipments so that any damage may be detected promptly.

NONESSENTIAL: Examine all shipments as soon as they arrive, so that any damage may be detected promptly.

So ... that. ALWAYS ESSENTIAL: The costs ran so high that we could not make a profit on the job.

Some of whom. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: The agency has sent us five applicants, some of whom seem promising.

Than. ALWAYS ESSENTIAL: The employees seem to be more disturbed by the rumor than they care to admit.

That. Used in referring to things; also to persons when a class or type is meant. ALWAYS ESSENTIAL: This is the house that he owns today. She is the kind of candidate that I prefer. (See also \$1062.)

Though. See Although.

Unless. ESSENTIAL: The item will be discontinued unless customers begin to show an interest in it.

NONESSENTIAL: I plan to reorganize the files, unless you have other work for me. (Clause added loosely as an afterthought.)

(Continued on page 18.)

Until. ALWAYS ESSENTIAL: I will continue to work until my children are out of school.

When, ESSENTIAL: The changeover will be made when Mr. Ruiz returns from

NONESSENTIAL: The changeover will be made next Monday, when Mr. Ruiz returns from his vacation. (Monday tells when; the when clause provides additional but nonessential information.)

Where. ESSENTIAL: I plan to visit the town where I used to live. NONESSENTIAL: I plan to stop off in Detroit, where I used to live.

Whereas. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: The figures for last year include large cities only, whereas those for this year include rural areas as well. (Clause of contrast.)

Which. Used in referring to animals, things, and ideas. Always use which (instead of that) to introduce nonessential clauses: The bay, which was full of small sailing craft, was very rough. Which may also be used to introduce essential clauses. (See ¶1062b, note.)

While. ESSENTIAL: The union decided not to strike while negotiations were still going on. (While meaning "during the time that.")

NONESSENTIAL: The workers at the Apex Company struck, while those at the Powers Company remained at work. (While meaning "whereas.")

Who. ESSENTIAL: All students who are members of the Backpackers Club will be excused at two o'clock today.

NONESSENTIAL: John Behnke, who is a member of the Backpackers Club, will be excused at two o'clock today.

Whom. ESSENTIAL: This package is for the friend whom I am visiting. NONESSENTIAL: This package is for my cousin Amy, whom I am visiting.

Whose. ESSENTIAL: The prize will be awarded to the employee whose suggestion yields the greatest cost savings.

NONESSENTIAL: The prize was awarded to Joyce Bruno, whose suggestion produced the greatest cost savings.

With Clauses in Compound-Complex Sentences

133 A compound-complex sentence typically consists of two independent clauses (joined by and, but, or, or nor) and one or more dependent clauses. To punctuate a sentence of this kind, first place a separating comma before the conjunction that joins the two main parts. Then consider each half of the sentence alone and provide additional punctuation as necessary.

Peter Conboy, Eastwood's treasurer, promised to call me as soon as he arrived in town, but I have not yet heard from him.

On May 8, 1976, the merger was first proposed, but Roy Fox, who was then Allied's chief executive officer, refused to make a firm commitment.

I thought their offices were in Canton, Ohio, but when my letter come back undelivered, I realized they must be in Canton, Massachusetts. (No comma precedes when because the when clause is considered an introductory expression, not an interrupting expression. See also ¶127d.)

NOTE: If a misreading is likely or a stronger break is desired, use a semicolon rather than a comma to separate the two main clauses. (See ¶177.)

134 When a sentence starts with a dependent clause that applies to both independent clauses that follow, no comma separates the independent

clauses. (A comma would make the introductory dependent clause seem to apply only to the first independent clause.)

If you want to become an executive, you must understand accounting and you must know your product. (The *if* clause applies equally to the two independent clauses; hence no comma before and.)

BUT: If you want to become an executive, you must understand accounting, but don't think your preparation ends there.

With Participial, Infinitive, and Prepositional Phrases

135 Introductory Phrases

a. Use a comma after an introductory participial phrase.

Speaking in a loud voice, Ms. Califano called the meeting to order.

Pleased by the unusual service, the woman has become a steady customer. Having made the correction, I now feel sure the total is correct.

NOTE: Watch out for phrases that look like introductory participial phrases but actually represent the subject of the sentence or part of the predicate. Do not put a comma after these elements.

Looking for examples of good acknowledgment letters in our files has taken me longer than I had hoped. (Gerund phrase as subject.)

But: Looking for examples of good acknowledgment letters in our files. I found four you can use. (Participial phrase used as an introductory element.)

Following Mrs. Fahnstock's speech was a presentation by Ms. Paley. (With normal word order, the sentence would read, "A presentation by Ms. Paley was following Mrs. Fahnstock's speech." The introductory phrase is actually part of the predicate.)

BUT: Following Mrs. Fahnstock's speech, Ms. Paley made her presentation. (Participial phrase used as an introductory element.)

b. Use a comma after an introductory infinitive phrase unless the phrase is the subject of the sentence. (Infinitive phrases are introduced by the word to.)

To get the best results from your dishwasher, follow these directions.

To have displayed the goods more effectively, he should have consulted a lighting specialist.

BUT: To have displayed the goods more effectively would have been an expensive project. (Infinitive phrase used as subject.)

c. In general, use a comma after all introductory prepositional phrases. A comma may be omitted after a short prepositional phrase if (1) the phrase does not contain a verb form, (2) the phrase is not a transitional expression or an independent comment, or (3) there is no sacrifice in clarity or desired emphasis. (Many writers use a comma after all introductory prepositional phrases to avoid having to analyze each situation.)

In response to the mony requests of our customers, we are opening a suburban branch. (Comma required after a long phrase.)

On Monday morning the mail is always late. (No comma required after a short phrase.)

In 1976 our entire inventory was destroyed by fire. (No comma required after a short phrase.)

BUT: In 1976, 384 cases of potential lung infections were reported. (Comma required to separate two numbers. See ¶456.)

At the time you called, I was tied up in a meeting. (Comma required after a short phrase containing a verb form.)

In preparing your report, be sure to include last year's figures. (Comma required after a short phrase containing a verb form.)

In addition, a 3 percent city sales tax must be imposed on these orders. (Comma required after short phrase used as a transitional expression. See ¶¶138a, 139.) In my opinion, your ads are misleading as they now appear. (Comma required after short phrase used as an independent comment. See ¶¶138b, 139.)

CONFUSING: After all you have gone through a great deal.

CLEAR: After all, you have gone through a great deal. (Comma required after a short phrase to prevent misreading.)

In legal documents, amounts of money are often expressed both in words and figures. (Comma used to give desired emphasis to the introductory phrase.)

NOTE: Omit the comma after an introductory prepositional phrase if the word order in the rest of the sentence is abnormal.

From these modest beginnings grew a multinational industrial empire. (Normal word order: A multinational industrial empire grew from these modest begin-

In the office where I last worked were two supervisors who constantly gave me contradictory instructions. (Omit the comma after the introductory phrase when the verb in the main clause immediately follows.)

BUT: In the office where I last worked, there were two supervisors who constantly gave me contradictory instructions.

136 Phrases at the Beginning of a Clause

a. When a participial, infinitive, or prepositional phrase occurs at the beginning of a clause within the sentence, insert or omit the comma following, just as if the phrase were an introductory element at the beginning of the sentence. (See ¶135.)

I was invited to attend the monthly planning meeting last week, and seizing the opportunity, I presented an overview of our medium-range plans. (A separating comma follows the participial phrase just as if the sentence began with the word Seizing. No comma precedes the phrase because the phrase is considered introductory, not interrupting. See also ¶127d.)

The salesclerk explained that to get the best results from your dishwasher, you should follow the directions.

We would like to announce that in response to the many requests of our customers, we are opening a suburban branch.

Last year we had a number of thefts, and in 1976 our entire inventory was destroyed by fire. (No comma is needed after a short introductory prepositional phrase.)

b. If the phrase interrupts the flow of the sentence, set it off with two commas.

He was a man who, in the best tradition of the company, did what the job demanded.

If, in the interest of time, you decide to fly to Detroit, I'll be glad to help you make your plane reservations.

137 Phrases Elsewhere in the Sentence

When a participial, infinitive, or prepositional phrase occurs at some point other than the beginning of a sentence or the beginning of a clause, commas are omitted or used depending on whether the phrase is essential or nonessential.

a. An essential participial, infinitive, or prepositional phrase is necessary to the meaning of the sentence and cannot be omitted. Therefore, do not use commas to set it off.

The instructions printed in italics are the most important. (Participial.)

The time to place your order is now! (Infinitive.)

The copy with the signatures should be retained. (Prepositional.)

b. A nonessential participial, infinitive, or prepositional phrase provides additional information but is not needed to complete the meaning of the sentence. Set off such phrases with commas.

Our entire collection of dining room furniture, created by one of Denmark's outstanding designers, will be on sale throughout this month. (Participial.)

I found worn brake linings, to mention only one defect. (Infinitive.)

She has extraordinary talents, in my opinion. (Prepositional.)

c. A phrase occurring within a sentence must always be set off by commas when it interrupts the flow of the sentence.

The commission, after hearing arguments on the proposed new tax rate structure, will consider amendments to the tax law.

The company, in its attempt to place more women in high-level management positions, is undertaking a special recruitment program.

The following rules (¶138-161) deal with the various uses of commas to set off nonessential expressions. See also $\P201-202$ and $\P218-219$ for the use of dashes and parentheses to set off these expressions.

With Transitional Expressions and Independent Comments

138 a. Use commas to set off transitional expressions. These nonessential words and phrases are called transitional because they help the reader mentally relate the preceding thought with the idea now being introduced. They express the notion of:

also, besides, furthermore, in addition, moreover, too (see \$143),

what is more

consequence: accordingly, as a result, consequently, hence (see ¶139b), otherwise, so (see ¶179), then (see ¶139b), therefore, thus (see ¶139b)

SUMMARIZING: after all, all in all, all things considered, briefly, by and large, in any case (event), in brief, in conclusion, in short, in summary, in the final analysis, in the long run, on balance, on the whole, to

sum up, ultimately

GENERALIZING: as a rule, as usual, for the most part, generally (speaking), in

general, ordinarily, usually

RESTATEMENT: in essence, in other words, namely, that is, that is to say

(Continued on page 22.)

CONTRAST AND by contrast, by the same token, conversely, instead, likewise, on

COMPARISON: one hand, on the contrary, on the other hand, rather, similarly, yet (see ¶179)

concession: anyway, at any rate, be that as it may, even so, however, in any

case (event). nevertheless, still, this fact notwithstanding sequence: afterward, at first, at the same time, finally, first, first of all, for

now, for the time being, in conclusion, in the first place, in time, in turn, later on, meanwhile, next, second, then (see ¶139b), to

begin with

DIVERSION: by the by, by the way, incidentally ILLUSTRATION: for example, for instance, for one thing

b. Use commas to set off independent comments, that is, nonessential words or phrases that express the writer's attitude toward the meaning of the sentence. By means of these independent comments, the writer indicates that what he is about to say carries his wholehearted endorsement (indeed, by all means) or deserves only his lukewarm support (apparently, presumably) or hardly requires saying (as you already know, clearly, obviously) or represents only his personal views (in my opinion, personally) or arouses some emotion in him (unfortunately, happily) or presents his honest position (frankly, actually, to tell the truth). Such terms modify the meaning of the sentence as a whole (rather than a particular word within the sentence).

AFFIRMATION: by all means, indeed, of course, yes

DENIAL! BO

REGRET: alas, unfortunately
PLEASURE: fortunately, happily

QUALIFICATION: ideally, if necessary, if possible, literally, strictly speak-

ing, theoretically

PERSONAL VIEWPOINT: according to her, as I see it, in my opinion, personally assertion of candor: actually, frankly, in reality, to be honest, to say the least.

to tell the truth

ASSERTION OF FACT: as a matter of fact, as it happens, as you know, believe it

or not, certainly, clearly, doubtless, in fact, naturally, needless to say, obviously, without doubt

WEAK ASSERTION: apparently, perhaps, presumably

139 At the Beginning of a Sentence

a. When the words and phrases listed in $\P 138a$ and b appear at the beginning of a sentence, they should be followed by a comma unless they are used as essential elements.

NONESSENTIAL: After all, you have done more for him than he had any right to expect.

ESSENTIAL: After all you have done for him, he has no right to expect more.

NONESSENTIAL: However, you look at the letter yourself and see whether you interpret it as I do.

ESSENTIAL: However you look at the letter, there is only one possible interpreta-

NONESSENTIAL: Obviously, the guest of honor was quite moved by the welcome he received.

ESSENTIAL: Obviously moved by the welcome he received, the guest of honor spoke with an emotion-choked voice. (Here obviously modifies moved. In the preceding sentence, obviously modifies the meaning of the sentence as a whole.)

b. When hence, then, or thus occurs at the beginning of a sentence, the comma following is omitted unless the connective requires special emphasis or a nonessential element occurs at that point.

Thus we have decided to move our plant to South Carolina.

Then you can draw up the contract.

BUT: Then, when the terms are agreed on, you can draw up the contract.

See also ¶142a, note.

c. When an introductory transitional expression or independent comment is incorporated into the flow of the sentence without any intervening pause, the comma may be omitted.

Of course we can do it. Perhaps she will write.

No doubt they will call. Indeed I will.

140 At the End of a Sentence

Use one comma to set off a transitional expression or an independent comment at the end of a sentence. However, be sure to distinguish between nonessential and essential elements.

NONESSENTIAL: We shall take all appropriate measures. of course.

ESSENTIAL: We shall take all appropriate measures as a matter of course.

141 Within the Sentence

Use two commas to set off a transitional expression or an independent comment when it occurs as a nonessential element within the sentence.

It is generally understood, however, that she will accept the position.

You, too, will be pleased with the materials used in our products.

If, however, the expression is used as an essential element, omit the commas.

NONESSENTIAL: Let me say, to begin with, that I have always thought highly of him.

ESSENTIAL: If you want to improve your English, you ought to begin with a good review of grammar.

NOTE: In many sentences the only way you can tell whether an expression is nonessential or essential is by the way you say it. If your voice tends to drop as you utter the expression, it is nonessential and should be set off by commas.

It is understood, nevertheless, that she will accept the position.

He is willing, certainly, to do the job over.

It is important, therefore, that we check the files at once.

If your voice tends to rise as you utter the expression, it is essential and should not be set off by commas.

It is nevertheless understood that she will accept the position.

He is certainly willing to do the job over.

It is therefore important that we check the files at once.

If commas are inserted in the previous example, the entire reading of the sentence will be changed. The voice will rise on the word is and drop on therefore. (If this is the inflection intended, then commas around therefore are appropriate.)

It is, therefore, important that we check the files at once.

142 At the Beginning of a Clause

a. When a transitional expression or independent comment occurs at the beginning of the second independent clause in a compound sentence and is preceded by a semicolon, use one comma following the expression.

I never met her formally; however, I know her by sight.

My schedule on Friday has eased up considerably; therefore, I can see you any time after two.

NOTE: When hence, then, or thus appears at the beginning of an independent clause, the comma following is omitted unless the connective requires special emphasis or a nonessential element occurs at that point.

Melt the butter over high heat; then add the egg.

BUT: Melt the butter over high heat; then, when the foam has subsided, add the egg.

b. When the expression occurs at the beginning of the second independent clause in a compound sentence and is preceded by a comma and a coordinating conjunction, use one comma following the expression. (See also ¶127d.)

The job seemed to have no future, and to tell the truth, the salary was pretty

In the first place, I think the budget for the project is unrealistic, and in the second place, the deadlines are almost impossible to meet.

NOTE: If the expression is a simple adverb like therefore or consequently, the comma following the expression is usually omitted.

The matter must be resolved by Friday, and therefore our preliminary conference must be held no later than Thursday.

c. If the expression occurs at the beginning of a dependent clause, either treat the expression as nonessential (and set it off with two commas) or treat it as essential (and omit the commas).

If, moreover, they do not meet the next interim deadline, we have the right to cancel the contract.

If indeed they are interested in settling the dispute, why don't they agree to submit the issues to arbitration?

He is a man who, in my opinion, will make a fine marketing director.

She is a woman who no doubt knows how to run a department smoothly and effectively.

The situation is so serious that, strictly speaking, bankruptcy is the only solution.

The situation is so serious that perhaps bankruptcy may be the only solution.

143 With the Adverb Too

a. When the adverb too (in the sense of "also") occurs at the end of a clause or a sentence, the comma preceding is omitted.

If you want to bring your wife along too, I'll make the necessary arrangements. You should try to improve your math too.

b. When too (in the sense of "also") occurs elsewhere in the sentence, particularly between subject and verb, set it off with two commas.

You, too, can save by shopping at Feder's.

c. When too is used as an adverb meaning "excessively," it is never set off with commas.

I will be too busy to participate in the session.

The package arrived too late to be delivered.

With Interruptions and Afterthoughts

144 Use commas to set off words, phrases, or clauses that interrupt the flow of a sentence or that are loosely added at the end as an afterthought.

She has received, so I was told, a letter of commendation from the mayor.

The exhibit contained only modern art, if I remember correctly.

Our lighting equipment, you must admit, is most inadequate.

His record is outstanding, particularly in the field of electronics.

This book is as well written as, though less exciting than, her other books This course of action is the wisest, if not the most expedient, one under the circumstances.

See also ¶¶131c, 136b, 137c.

CAUTION: When enclosing an interrupting expression with two commas, be sure the commas are inserted accurately.

WRONG: That is the best, though not the cheopest method, of rebuilding your garage.

 ${f Ruchtr.}$ That is the best, though not the cheapest, method of rebuilding your garage.

WBONC: Clen has a deep interest in, as well as a great fondness, for oriental art. RICHT: Glen has a deep interest in, as well as a great fondness for, oriental art.

With Direct Address

145 Names and titles used in direct address must be set off by commas.

You cannot deny, Ms. Monroe, that you made that statement.

No, sir, I did not see him.

I look forward to your visit, Jane.

146 | 150 Punctuation: Major Marks 26

With Additional Considerations

146 A phrase introduced by as well as, in addition to, besides, accompanied by, together with, plus, or a similar expression should be set off by commas when it falls between the subject and the verb.

Our executives, as well as our staff, acclaimed the decision.

When the phrase occurs elsewhere in the sentence, commas may be omitted if the phrase is closely related to the preceding words.

The decision was acclaimed by our executives as well as our staff.

BUT: She is leaving for Atlanta on Friday morning, together with her assistant and two marketing consultants.

With Contrasting Expressions

147 Contrasting expressions should be set off by commas. (Such expressions often begin with but or not.)

The Sanchezes are willing to sell, but only on their terms.

He had changed his methods, not his objectives, we noticed.

The more money we invested in the business, the worse the situation became.

BUT: The sooner the better. (The comma may be omitted when the contrasting expressions are short.)

Paula, rather than Al, has been chosen for the job.

NOTE: When such phrases fit smoothly into the flow of the sentence, no commas are required.

They have chosen Paula rather than Al.

It was a busy but enjoyable trip.

The following rules (¶148-153) deal with descriptive expressions that immediately follow the words to which they refer. When nonessential, these expressions are set off by commas; when essential, they remain unpunctuated.

With Identifying, Appositive, or Explanatory Expressions

148 Use commas to set off expressions that provide additional but nonessential information about a noun or pronoun immediately preceding. (Such expressions serve to further identify or explain the word they refer to.)

 $\rm Mr.$ De Groot, our president, is retiring on Monday, June 30. (Phrases such as our president and June 30 are appositives.)

Etymology, that is, the study of the history of words, is her latest interest. (See also ¶181-183 for other punctuation with that is, namely, and for example.) His first book, written while he was still in graduate school, launched a successful writing career.

Our first thought, to run to the nearest exit, would have resulted in panic. Ms. Ballantine, who has been a senior copywriter for three years, will be the new head of our advertising department.

Everyone in our family likes outdoor sports, such as tennis and skiing.

NOTE: In some cases, other marks of punctuation may be preferable in place of commas.

confusing: Mr. Newcombe, my boss, and I will discuss this problem next week. (Does my boss refer to Mr. Newcombe, or are there three people involved?) CLEAR: Mr. Newcombe (my boss) and I will be discussing this problem next week. (Use parentheses or dashes instead of commas when an appositive expression could be misread as an item in a series.)

There are two factors to be considered, sales and collections. (A colon or a dash could be used in place of the comma. See \$189, 201.)

BUT: There are three factors to be considered: sales, collections, and inventories. (When the explanatory expression consists of a series of three or more items and comes at the end of the sentence, use a colon or dash. See ¶189, 201.)

or: These three factors—sales, collections, and inventories—should be considered. (When the explanatory series comes within the sentence, set it off with dashes or parentheses. See \$\frac{4}{183}, 202, 219.)

149 When the expression is essential to the completeness of the sentence, do not set it off. (In the following examples, the expression is needed to identify which particular item is meant. If the expression were omitted, the sentence would be incomplete.)

The year 1976 marked the two hundredth anniversary of this country.

The word accommodate is often misspelled.

The poet Richard Wilbur will give a reading at the college tomorrow night.

The statement "I don't remember" was frequently heard in court yesterday.

The impulse to get away from it all is very common.

The notes in green ink were made by Mrs. Long.

The person who takes over as general manager will need everyone's support. Everyone in our family likes such outdoor sports as tennis and skiing.

NOTE: Compare the following set of examples.

Her article "Color and Design" was published in June. (The title is essential; it identifies which article.)

Her latest article, "Color and Design," was published in June. (Nonessential; the word latest already indicates which article.)

Her latest article on color and design was published in June. (Without commas, this means she has earlier articles on the same subject.)

Her latest article, on color and design, was published in June. (With commas, this means her earlier articles were on other subjects.)

A number of expressions are treated as essential simply because of a very close relationship with the preceding words. (If read aloud, the combined phrase sounds like one unit, without any intervening pause.)

Mary herself made all the arrangements for the conference.

We managers need better lines of communication with our employees.

My husband John will accompany me to the national conference. (Strictly speaking, John should be set off by commas since the name is not needed to indicate which husband. However, commas are omitted in expressions like these because they are read as a unit.)

My brother Paul may join us as well.

BUT: My brother, Paul Engstrom, may join us.

The composer Stephen Sondheim has many Broadway hits to his credit.

BUT: My favorite composer, Stephen Sondheim, has many Broadway hits . . .

151 When or introduces a word or a phrase that identifies or explains the preceding word, set off the explanatory expression with commas.

First, determine whether the clauses are coordinate, or of equal rank.

However, if or introduces an alternative thought, the expression is essential and should not be set off by commas.

First, determine whether the clauses are coordinate or noncoordinate.

152 When a business letter is referred to by date, any related phrases or clauses that follow are usually nonessential.

Thank you for your letter of May 8, in which you reported receiving damaged shipments. (The date is sufficient to identify which letter is meant; the in which clause simply provides additional but nonessential information.)

However, no comma is needed after the date if the following phrase is short and closely related.

Thank you for your letter of May 8 about the damaged shipment.

With Residence and Business Connections

153 Use commas to set off a long phrase denoting a person's residence or business connections.

Miss Lee, of the Hansford Company in Clarksville, Tennessee, will be in town next Thursday.

Miss Lee of Clarksville, Tennessee, will be in town next Thursday. (Omit the comma before of to avoid too many breaks in a short phrase. The state name must always be set off by commas when it follows a city name.)

Miss Lee of the Hansford Compony will be in town next Thursday. (Short phrase; no commas.)

Miss Lee of Clarksville will be in town next Thursday. (Short phrase; no commas.)

The following rules (¶154-161) deal with the "nonessential" treatment of certain elements in dates, personal names, company names, and addresses. Because these elements cannot truly be called nonessential, the established tradition of setting them off with commas has in many cases begun to change.

In Dates

154 Use two commas to set off the year when it follows the month and day.

Since May 1, 1977, I have been working for an architectural firm.

The July 21, 1978, issue of Newsweek was the source of that quotation.

NOTE: Some writers omit the comma following the year.

155 The growing trend is to omit the commas when only the month and year are given.

In September 1977 the first signs of mismanagement were detected.

(OLDER STYLE: In September, 1977, the first signs of mismanagement were de-

The article first appeared in the April 1976 issue of Esquire. (To avoid the fragmented look of "the April, 1976, issue," do not set off the year in commas when the month-year phrase serves as an adjective.)

See \$410 for additional examples involving dates.

With Jr., Sr., Etc.

156 In personal names ending with Jr., Sr., or roman or arabic numerals, the growing trend is to omit commas with these elements. However, always respect an individual's preference when you know what it is.

> Henry Ford II Lawrence B. Kelly Jr. David Weild 3d Frederick Vargas Sr.

Harold Van Voorhis Jr.'s promotion will be announced tomorrow.

NOTE: When a person prefers to use commas in his name, observe the following style:

John Di Angelo, Jr. (Use one comma when the name is displayed on a line by

John Di Angelo, Jr., vice president of . . . (Use two commas when other copy

John Di Angelo, Jr.'s resignation (Drop the second comma when a possessive ending is attached.)

157 Abbreviations like Esq. and those that stand for academic degrees or religious orders are set off by two commas.

> Address the letter to Helen E. Parsekian, Esq., in New York, Roger Farrier, LL.D., will address the Elizabethan Club on Wednesday. The Reverend James Hanley, S.J., will serve as moderator of the panel.

158 When a personal name is given in inverted order, set off the inverted portion with commas.

McCaughan, James W., Jr.

With Inc. and Ltd.

159 The growing trend is to omit the commas with Inc., Ltd., and similar expressions in company names. However, always follow a company's preference when you know what it is. (See also ¶1328.)

> Field Hats, Ltd. Time Inc.

Time Inc. has expanded its operations beyond magazine publishing. Field Hats, Ltd., should be notified about this mistake.

(Continued on page 30.)

NOTE: When commas are to be used in a company name, follow this style:

McGraw-Hill, Inc. (Use one comma when the name is displayed on a line by itself.)

 $Mc{\rm Graw\mbox{-}Hill,\mbox{ Inc.,}}$ announces the publication of . . . (Use two commas when other copy follows.)

 $\mbox{McGraw-Hill, Inc.'s}$ annual statement (Drop the second comma after a possessive ending.)

See ¶163 for the use of commos with other parts of a company name.

In Geographical References and Addresses

160 Use two commas to set off the name of a state, country, county, or the equivalent when it directly follows the name of a city.

You can fly from Miami, Florida, to Bogotá, Colombia, in under four hours. Show your address as Verona, Essex County, New Jersey, on the application. I attended the Carbondale, Pennsylvania, public schools.

On: I attended the Carbondale (Pennsylvania) public schools. (Parentheses are

clearer than commas when a city-state expression serves as an adjective.)
Washington, D.C.'s reputation for good restaurants is not exaggerated. (Omit the second comma after a possessive ending.)

161 When expressing complete addresses, follow this style:

INSENTENCES: During the month of August you can send material directly to me at 402 Woodbury Road, Pasadena, CA 91104, or you can ask my secretary to forward it. (Note that a comma follows the ZIP Code but does not precede it.)

IN DISPLAYED BLOCKS: 402 Woodbury Road

Pasadena, CA 91104

The following rules (¶162–175) deal with various uses of separating commas: to separate items in a series, to separate adjectives that precede a noun, and to clarify meaning in sentences with unusual word order or omitted words.

In a Series

When three or more items are listed in a series and the last item is preceded by and, or, or nor, place a comma before the conjunction as well as between the other items. (See also \$126b.)

Study the rules for the use of the comma, the semicolon, and the colon.

The consensus is that your report is well written, that your facts are accurate, and that your conclusions are sound.

The show will appeal equally to women and men, adults and children, and sophisticates and innocents. (See the entry for ond in Section 11.)

163 For a series in a company name, always follow the style preferred by the particular firm.

Merrill Lynch, Pierce, Fenner & Smith Incorporated Hart Schaffner & Marx If you do not have the company's letterhead or some other reliable resource at hand, follow the standard rule on commas in a series (*162).

Our prime supplier is Ames, Koslow, Milke, and Company.

164 When an expression such as and so on or etc. closes a series, use a comma before and after the expression (unless, of course, the expression falls at the end of a sentence).

Our sale of suits, coats, hats, and so on, starts tomorrow.

Tomorrow morning we will start our sale of suits, coats, hats, etc.

- See page 216 for a usage note on etc.
- 165 Do not insert a comma after the last item in a series unless the sentence structure demands a comma at that point.

January 15, Maron 3, and May 20 are the dates of the three letters.

January 15. March 3, and May 20. 1976, are the dates of the three letters. (The comma following the year is one of the pair that sets off the year. See \$154.)

166 When and, or, or nor is used to connect all the items in a series, do not separate the items by commas.

Invitations are being sent to parents and faculty and former students.

167 If a series consists of only two items, do not separate the items with a comma. (See also ¶125f.)

You can get in from the airport either by limousine or by taxi.

NOTE: Use a comma, however, to separate two independent clauses joined by and, but, or, or nor. (See \$126a.)

See \$\\$184-185 for the use of the semicolon in a series.

With Adjectives

When two consecutive adjectives modify the same noun, separate the 168 adjectives with a comma.

> Most people think of her as a generous, outgoing person. (A person who is generous and outgoing.)

NOTE: Do not use a comma between the adjectives if they are connected by and, or, or nor.

Most people think of her as a generous and outgoing person.

169 When two adjectives precede a noun, the first adjective may modify the combined idea of the second adjective plus the noun. In such cases do not separate the adjectives by a comma.

The estate is surrounded by an old stone wall. (A stone wall that is old.) Ms. Klaussen is working on the annual financial statement. (A financial statement that is annual.)

TEST: To decide whether consecutive adjectives should be separated by a comma or not, try using them in a relative clause after the noun, with and inserted between them. If they read smoothly and sensibly in that position, they should be separated by a comma in their actual position.

We need an intelligent, enterprising person for the job. (One can speak of "a person who is intelligent and enterprising," so a comma is correct in the original wording.)

Throw out your old winter coat, (One cannot speak of "a coat that is old and winter," so no comma should be used in the actual sentence.)

170 When more than two adjectives precede a noun, insert a comma only between those adjectives where and could have been used.

> an easy, relaxed, unruffled manner (an easy and relaxed and unruffled manner) a competent, efficient legal secretary (a competent and efficient legal secretary) the established American political system (and cannot be inserted between these adjectives)

171 Do not use a comma between the final adjective in a series and the following noun.

> I put in a long, hard, demonding day on Monday. (NOT: I put in a long, hard, demanding, day on Monday.)

To Indicate Omitted Verbs

Use a comma to indicate the omission of a verb in a compound sentence. 172 (This use of the comma usually occurs when clauses are separated by semicolons.)

> The English test was given to all students; the history test, to seniors only; and the math test, to juniors only. (See ¶1048.)

NOTE: If the omitted word is clearly understood from the context, simpler punctuation may be used.

The English test was given to all students, the history test to seniors only, and the math test to juniors only.

For Clarity

173 Note how the use of the comma prevents misreading.

> As you know, nothing came of the meeting. (NOT: As you know nothing came of the meeting.)

To a liberal like Bill, Buckley seems hard to take.

Soon after, the committee disbanded without accomplishing its goal.

174 Sometimes, for clarity, it is necessary to separate even a subject and a verb.

All any insurance policy is, is a contract for services.

175 Use a comma to separate repeated words.

It was a long, long time ago.

That was a very, very old argument.

Well, well, we'll find a way.

Now, now, you don't expect me to believe that!

- Commas with dashes: see ¶213, 215b.
- Commas with numbers: see 9461.
- Commas with questions within sentences: see \$114-117.
- Commas with parentheses: see \$224a.
- Commas inside closing quotation marks: see \$247.
- Commas at the end of a quotation: see ¶¶253-255.
- Commas preceding a quotation: see ¶256.
- Commas with quotations within a sentence: see \$\\259-261.
- Commos to set off interruptions in quoted matter: see \$\frac{1}{262-263}\$.

The Semicolon

Between Independent Clauses-And, But, Or, or Nor Omitted

176 When a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, or nor) is omitted between two independent clauses, use a semicolon-not a comma-to separate the clauses. (See ¶187.)

> The union was willing to compromise; the management was not. (NOT: The union was willing to compromise, the management was not.)

If the clauses are not closely related, treat them as separate sentences.

WEAK: Thank you for your letter of March 16; we are sorry about the error in the shipment and are rushing the correct items to you.

BETTER: Thank you for your letter of March 16. We are sorry about the error in the shipment and are rushing the correct items to you.

Between Independent Clauses-And, But, Or, or Nor Included

- A comma is normally used to separate two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction. However, under certain circumstances, a semicolon is appropriate.
 - a. Use a semicolon in order to achieve a stronger break between clauses than a comma provides.

NORMAL BREAK: Many people are convinced that they could personally solve the problem if given the authority to do so, but no one will come forward with a clear-cut plan that we can evaluate in advance.

STRONG BREAK: Many people are convinced that they could personally solve the problem if given the authority to do so; but no one will come forward with a clear-cut plan that we can evaluate in advance.

b. Use a semicolon when one or both clauses have internal commas and a misreading might occur if a comma were also used to separate the clauses.

confusing: I sent you an order for bond letterheads, onionskin paper, carbons, and envelopes, and shipping tags, cardboard cartons, stapler wire, and binding tape were sent to me instead.

CLEAR: I sent you an order for bond letterheads, onionskin paper, carbons, and envelopes; and shipping tags, cardboard cartons, stapler wire, and binding tape were sent to me instead.

(Continued on page 34.)

On May 19, 1978, I wrote to Ms. Harriet McGee, your sales manager, but I have not yet had an answer to my letter.

On the whole, his progress has been good, and considering his medical history, I think he will make a complete recovery.

NOTE: If a stronger break is desired between clauses in the two examples above, use a semicolon.

With Transitional Expressions

178 When independent clauses are linked by transitional expressions (see a partial list below), use a semicolon between the clauses. (If the second clause is long or requires special emphasis, treat it as a separate sentence.)

accordingly however so (see ¶179) besides that is (see ¶181) moreover consequently namely (see ¶181) then (see ¶139b) for example (see ¶181) nevertheless therefore furthermore on the contrary thus hence otherwise vet (see ¶179)

The motion was voted down; moreover, it was voted down by a large majority.

Our costs have increased; our prices, however, have not.

Let's plan to work till one; then we can break for lunch.

NOTE: Use a comma after the transitional expression when it occurs at the start of the second clause. (See the first example above.) However, no comma is needed after hence, then, thus, so, and yet unless a strong pause is wanted at that point. (See the third example above.)

See ¶¶138-142 for the use of commas with transitional expressions.

179 An independent clause introduced by so (in the sense of "therefore") or yet may be preceded by a comma or a semicolon. Use a comma if the two clauses are closely related and there is a smooth flow from the first clause to the second. Use a semicolon if the clauses are long and complicated or if the transition between clauses calls for a long pause or a strong break.

Sales have been good, yet profits are low.

This report explains why production has slowed down; yet it does not indicate how to avoid future delays.

These sale-priced toasters are going fast, so don't delay if you want one.

We have been getting an excessive number of complaints during the last few months about our service; so I would like each of you to review the operations in your department and indicate what corrective measures you think ought to be taken

180 If both the coordinating conjunction and the transitional expression occur at the start of the second clause, use a comma before the conjunction.

The site has a number of disadvantages, and furthermore the asking price is quite high. (See 142b and note.)

REMEMBER: A semicolon is needed to separate independent clauses, not so much because a transitional expression is present but because a coordinating conjunction is absent.

With For Example, That Is, Namely, Etc.

Before an Independent Clause

a. In general, when two independent clauses are linked by a transitional expression such as for example (e.g.), namely, or that is (i.e.), use a semicolon before the expression and a comma afterward.

She is highly qualified for the job; for example, she has had ten years' experience as a research chemist.

b. If the first independent clause serves to anticipate the second clause and the full emphasis is to fall on the second clause, use a colon before the transitional expression.

Your proposal covers all but one point: namely, who is going to foot the bill?

c. For a stronger but less formal break between clauses, the semicolon or the colon may be replaced by a dash.

Hampton says he will help-that is, he will help if you ask him to.

182 At the End of a Sentence

When for example, namely, or that is introduces words, phrases, or a series of clauses at the end of a sentence, the punctuation preceding the expression may vary as follows:

a. If the first part of the sentence expresses the complete thought and the explanation is added on almost as an afterthought, use a semicolon before the transitional expression.

Always use figures with abbreviations; for example, 6 ft, 9 sq in, 4 p.m. (Here the examples are not anticipated by the earlier part of the sentence.)

b. If the first part of the sentence suggests that an explanation or an illustration will follow, use a colon before the transitional expression to throw emphasis on what follows.

My assistant has three important duties: namely, attending all meetings, writing the minutes, and sending out notices. (The word three anticipates the enumeration following namely.)

NOTE: Use a comma before the transitional expression to throw emphasis on the words that precede.

I checked these figures with three people, namely, Alix, Andy, and Jim. (This punctuation emphasizes three people rather than the specific names.)

c. If the expression introduces an appositive that explains a word or phrase immediately preceding, a comma should precede the transitional expression.

Do not use quotation marks to enclose an indirect quotation, that is, a restatement of a person's exact words. (Here again, a comma is used because what precedes the transitional expression is more important than what follows.)

(Continued on page 36.)

d. The semicolon, the colon, and the comma in the examples above may be replaced by a dash or by parentheses. The dash provides a stronger but less formal break; the parentheses serve to subordinate the explanatory element.

183 Within a Sentence

When for example, namely, or that is introduces words, phrases, or clauses within a sentence, treat the entire construction as nonessential and set it off with commas, dashes, or parentheses. Dashes will give emphasis to the interrupting construction; parentheses will make the construction appear less important than the rest of the words in the sentence.

Many of the components, for example, the motor, are manufactured by outside suppliers.

Many of the components—for example, the motor—are manufactured by . . . Many of the components (for example, the motor) are manufactured by . . .

NOTE: Commas can be used to set off the nonessential element so long as it contains no internal punctuation (other than the comma after the introductory expression). If the nonessential element is internally punctuated with several commas, set it off with either dashes or parentheses.

Many of the components—for example, the motor, the batteries, and the cooling unit—are manufactured by outside suppliers. (Use dashes for emphasis.)

 $\mathbf{or.}$ Many of the components (for example, the motor, the batteries, and the cooling unit) are manufactured by outside suppliers. (Use parentheses for subordination.)

In a Series

184 Use a semicolon to separate items in a series if any of the items already contain commas.

Attending the conference in Washington were John McDaniels, executive vice president; Donna Cohen, marketing director; Charles Lindstrom, advertising manager; and Pat Hingle, sales promotion manager.

185 Avoid starting a sentence with a series punctuated with semicolons. Try to recast the sentence so that the series comes at the end.

AWKWARD: Our sales managers in Portland, Oregon; Flagstaff, Arizona; Lincoln, Nebraska; and Monroe, Louisiana, have been sent invitations.

IMPROVED: Invitations have been sent to our sales managers in Portland, Oregon; Flagstaff, Arizona; Lincoln, Nebraska; and Monroe, Louisiana.

With Dependent Clauses

186 Use semicolons to separate a series of parallel dependent clauses if they are long or contain internal commas. (However, a simple series of dependent clauses requires only commas, just like any other kind of series.)

They promised that they would review the existing specifications, costs, and sales estimates for the project; that they would analyze Merkle's alternative figures; and that they would prepare a detailed comparison of the two proposals.

If you have tried special clearance sales but have not raised the necessary cash: if you have tried to borrow the money and have not been able to find a lender; if you have offered to sell part of the business but have not been able to find a partner, then your only course of action is to go out of business.

- Semicolons with dashes: see ¶213, 215c.
- Semicolons with parentheses: see ¶224a.
- Semicolons with quotation marks; see \$248.

The Colon

Between Independent Clauses

187 Use a colon between two independent clauses when the second clause explains or illustrates the first clause and there is no coordinating conjunction or transitional expression linking the two clauses.

The job you have described sounds very attractive: the salary is good and the opportunities for advancement seem excellent.

BUT: The job you have described sounds very attractive; for example, the salary is good and the opportunities for advancement seem excellent. (Use a semicolon when a transitional expression links the clauses.)

The job you have described sounds very attractive; it is the kind of job I have been looking for. (Use a semicolon when the second clause does not explain the first clause.)

Before Lists and Enumerations

- 188 Place a colon before such expressions as for example, namely, and that is when they introduce words, phrases, or a series of clauses anticipated earlier in the sentence. (See ¶182b for examples.)
- 189 When a clause contains an anticipatory expression (such as the following, as follows, thus, and these) and directs attention to a series of explanatory words, phrases, or clauses, use a colon between the clause and the series.

These are the job requirements: a college degree, three years' experience in the field, and freedom to travel abroad.

The following rules should be observed in writing checks:

- 1. Write them in ink.
- 2. Leave no empty spaces on lines that are to be filled in.
- 3. Make no changes or erasures in an amount of money.
- 190 Use a colon even if the anticipatory expression is only implied and not stated.

The house has attractive features: cross ventilation in every room, a two-story living room, and two terraces.

- 191 Do not use a colon in the following cases:
 - a. If the sentence in which the anticipatory expression occurs is a long sentence and if the expression occurs near the beginning of that sentence.

We have set the following restrictions on the return of merchandise, because many customers have abused the privilege. Goods cannot be returned after five days, and price tags must not be removed.

BUT: We have set the following restrictions on the return of merchandise: goods cannot be returned . . .

b. If the sentence containing the anticipatory expression is followed by another sentence.

Campers will find that the following small items will add much to their enjoyment of the summer. These articles may be purchased from a store near the

Flashlight Hot-cold food bag Camera Fishing gear

c. If an explanatory series follows a preposition or a verb.

The panel consists of Ms. Seidel, Mrs. Kitay, and Mr. Haddad. (NOT: The panel consists of: Ms. Seidel, Mrs. Kitay, and Mr. Haddad.)

This set of china includes 12 dinner plates, 12 salad plates, and 12 cups and

(NOT: This set of china includes: 12 dinner plates, 12 salad plates, and 12 cups and saucers.)

NOTE: Retain the colon if the items in the series are listed on separate lines.

This set of china includes:

12 dinner plates

12 salad plates

12 cups and saucers

In Expressions of Time and Proportions

- 192 When hours and minutes are expressed in figures, separate them with a colon, as in the expression 8:25. (No space precedes or follows this colon.)
- A colon is used to represent the word to in proportions, as in the ratio 2:1. (No space precedes or follows this colon.)

After Salutations

In business letters, use a colon after the salutation (see also ¶1346). In social letters, use a comma or no punctuation at all (see also \$1398b).

In References to Books or Publications

- 195 Use a colon to separate:
 - a. The title and the subtitle of a book.

Tanzi is the author of The Individual Income Tax and Economic Growth: An International Comparison.

b. The volume number from the page numbers in a footnote or an entry in a bibliography.

See the Journal of Public Health, 5:681-684. (Meaning "Volume 5, pages 681-684.")

See also ¶1418b, e, k, l.

Capitalizing After a Colon

Do not capitalize after a colon if the material cannot stand alone as a 196 sentence.

> All cash advances must be countersigned by me, with one exception: when the amount is less than \$50. (Dependent clause following a colon.)

Two courses are required: typing and English. (Words following a colon.)

EXCEPTION: Capitalize the first word after the colon if it is a proper noun, a proper adjective, or the pronoun I.

Two courses are required: English and typing.

Do not capitalize the first word of an independent clause after a colon if the clause explains, illustrates, or amplifies the thought expressed in the first part of the sentence. (See ¶196, exception.)

> Essential and nonessential elements require altogether different punctuation: the latter should be set off by commas, whereas the former should not.

Capitalize the first word of an independent clause after a colon if it 198 requires special emphasis or is presented as a formal rule. (In such cases the independent clause expresses the main thought; the first part of the sentence usually functions only as an introduction.)

> Let me say this: If the company is to recover from its present difficulties, we must immediately devise an entirely new marketing strategy.

> Here is the key principle: Nonessential elements must be set off by commas; essential elements should not be set off.

- 199 Also capitalize the first word after a colon under these circumstances:
 - a. When the material following the colon consists of two or more sentences.

There are several drawbacks to this proposal: First, it will tie up a good deal of capital for the next five years. Second, the likelihood of a significant return on the investment has not been shown.

b. When the material following the colon is a quoted sentence.

Mr. Korman had this to say: "No single person can take full credit for the success of the show." (See ¶256 for the use of a colon before a quoted sentence.)

c. When the material following the colon starts on a new line (for example, the body of a letter following the salutation or the individual items displayed on separate lines in a list).

Dear Barbara:

Capitalize the first word of:

Thank you for your letter of May 3, 1 have talked to Hal . . .

a. Every sentence. b. Direct quotations.

d. When the material preceding the colon is a short introductory word such as Note, Caution, or Wanted.

Note: All expense reports must be submitted no later than Friday.

- Colons with dashes: see ¶213, 215c.
- Colons with parentheses: see \$224a.
- Colons with quotation marks: see ¶248, 256.



PUNCTUATION: OTHER MARKS

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201 | **211** Punctuation: Other Marks 42

Section 2 covers the following punctuation marks: the dash, parentheses, quotation marks, the underscore, the apostrophe, ellipsis marks, the asterisk, the diagonal, and brackets. In addition, it indicates the proper typewriter spacing to be used with all punctuation marks.

The Dash

Although the dash has a few specific functions of its own, it most often serves in place of the comma, the semicolon, the colon, or parentheses. When used as an alternative to these other marks, it creates a much more emphatic separation of words within a sentence. Because of its versatility, careless writers are tempted to use a dash to punctuate almost any break within a sentence. However, the indiscriminate use of dashes is inappropriate; moreover, it serves to destroy the special forcefulness of this mark. Use the dash sparingly—and then only for deliberate effect.

In Place of Commas

201 Use dashes in place of commas to set off a nonessential element that requires special emphasis.

We intend to see to it that our agents—as well as the transportation companies and the public—receive a fair decision in the matter.

There is a typographical error in one of the paragraphs—the second one.

202 If a nonessential element already contains internal commas, use dashes in place of commas to set the element off. (If dashes provide too emphatic a break, use parentheses instead. See ¶¶183, 219.)

All large appliances—refrigerators, stoves, washing machines, and dryers—will be on sale throughout the first week of March.

The storm extended the entire length of the Eastern Seaboard—from Eastport, Maine, to Key West, Florida—in hurricane force.

203 To give special emphasis to the second independent clause in a compound sentence, use a dash rather than a comma before the coordinating conjunction.

Mrs. Gagne's proposal will double our taxes—and I can prove it!

In Place of a Semicolon

204 For a stronger but less formal break, use a dash in place of a semicolon between closely related independent clauses.

I do the work—he gets the credit!

The job needs to be done—moreover, it needs to be done well.

Wilson is totally unprepared for a promotion—for example, he still does not grasp the basic principles of good management.

In Place of a Colon

205 For a stronger but less formal break, use a dash in place of a colon to introduce explanatory words, phrases, or clauses. I need only a few items for my meeting with Kaster—namely, a copy of his letter of May 18, a copy of the contract under dispute, and a bottle of aspirin. My arrangement with Gina is a simple one—she handles sales and promotion, and I take care of production.

In Place of Parentheses

206 Use dashes instead of parentheses when the nonessential element requires strong emphasis. (See \$\frac{1}{183}, 219.)

Call Mike Habib—he's with Jax Electronics—and get his opinion.

To Indicate an Abrupt Break or an Afterthought

Use a dash to show an abrupt break in thought or to set off an after-207 thought.

Here's gourmet food in a jiffy-economical too!

I believe she said the convention would be held in Portland, Oregon—or was it Portland, Maine?

208 If a question or an exclamation is broken off abruptly before it has been completed, use a dash followed by a question mark or an exclamation point as appropriate. If the sentence is a statement, however, use a dash alone, followed by two spaces.

> Do you want to tell him or-? Suppose I wait to hear from you. If only— Yet there's no point in talking about what might have been. (NOT: If only—. Yet there's no point in talking about what might have been.)

• See \$291b for the use of ellipsis marks to indicate a break in thought.

To Show Hesitation

209 Use a dash to indicate hesitation, faltering speech, or stammering.

The work on the Patterson dam was begun-oh, I should say-well, about May 1-certainly no later than May 15.

To Emphasize Single Words

210 Use dashes to set off single words that require special emphasis.

Money—that is all he thinks about.

She cares about only one thing-success.

With Repetitions and Restatements

211 Use dashes to set off and emphasize words that repeat or restate a previous thought.

> Right now—at this very moment—our showrooms are crammed with bargains. Sometime next week-say, Wednesday-let's plan to meet for lunch. He himself had the folder—the folder he said I had lost.

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Before Summarizing Words

212 Use a dash before such words as these, they, and all when these words stand as subjects summarizing a preceding list of details.

A lawn mower, a rake, and a spade—these are the only tools you will need.

Juniors, seniors, and graduate students—all are invited to the Symington lecture on Tuesday.

 $\mbox{\it but:}$ Juniors, seniors, and graduate students are all invited . . . (No dash is used when the summarizing word is not the subject.)

Punctuation Preceding an Opening Dash

213 An opening dash should not be preceded by a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a period (except a period following an abbreviation).

We do a good job—and we do it fast!
(NOT: We do a good job,—and we do it fast!)
The shipment was sent c.o.d.—as you requested.

Punctuation Preceding a Closing Dash

214 When a statement or a command is set off by dashes within a sentence, do not use a period before the closing dash (except a period following an abbreviation).

John Ippolito—he used to head up the sales force at Marker's—now has his own consulting firm.

(Nor: John Ippolito—He used to head up the sales force at Marker's.—now has his own consulting firm.)

When a question or an exclamation is set off by dashes within a sentence, use a question mark or an exclamation point before the closing dash.

The representative of the Hitchcock Company—do you know her?—has called again for an appointment.

The new sketches—I can't wait to show them to you!—should be ready by Monday.

NOTE: When a complete sentence is set off in dashes, do not capitalize the first word unless it is a proper noun, a proper adjective, the pronoun *I*, or the first word of a quoted sentence.

Punctuation Following a Closing Dash

- 215 When the sentence construction requires some mark of punctuation following a closing dash, either retain the dash or use the sentence punctuation—but do not use both marks together.
 - a. When a closing dash falls at the end of a sentence, it should be replaced by the punctuation needed to end the sentence—a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point. (See ¶208 for exceptions.)

Wheeler's Transport delivers the goods-on time!

b. When a closing dash occurs at a point where the sentence requires a comma, retain the closing dash and omit the comma.

The situation has become critical—indeed dangerous—but no one seems to care. (Here the closing dash is retained, and the comma before the coordinating conjunction is omitted.)

If you feel you are qualified for the job—and you may very well be—you ought to take the employment test. (Here the closing dash is retained, and the comma that separates a dependent clause from an independent clause is omitted.)

Brophy said—and you can check with him yourself—"This office must be vacated by Friday." (Here the closing dash is retained, and the comma before the quotation is omitted.)

c. If a closing dash occurs at a point where the sentence requires a semicolon, a colon, or a closing parenthesis, drop the closing dash and use the required sentence punctuation.

Please try to get your sales projections to us by Wednesday—certainly by Friday at the latest; otherwise, they will be of no use to us in planning the budget. Here is what Marsha had to say—or at least the gist of it: look for new opportunities for advancement and prepare yourself for them.

You need a volunteer (someone like Louis Morales, for example—he's always cooperative) to play the part of the customer.

Typing Dashes

216 The dash is constructed by striking the hyphen key *twice*, with no space before, between, or after the hyphens.

Improve your English—today! (NOT: Improve your English — today!)
BUT: If he would only try— (Two spaces follow a dash when a statement breaks off abruptly. See ¶208.)

217 Type a dash at the end of a line (rather than start a new line).

Let's set the date for June 30 a Wednesday, I believe. (NOT: Let's set the date for June 30 a Wednesday, I believe.)

Parentheses

Parentheses and dashes serve many of the same functions, but they differ in one significant respect: parentheses can set off only nonessential elements, whereas dashes can set off essential and nonessential elements. In setting off elements, dashes emphasize; parentheses de-emphasize.

With Explanatory Matter

218 Use parentheses to enclose explanatory material that is independent of the main thought of the sentence. The material within parentheses may be a single word, a phrase, or even an entire sentence.

We are disappointed at the very small number of people (five) who have accepted our invitation. (A single word.)

Bids are requested for repaying Sutton Avenue (formerly Lombard Street) in the town of Chester. (A phrase.)

We regret that from now until the end of the year (our fiscal year starts January 1) we can make no further loans. (A sentence.)

(Continued on page 46.)

NOTE: Be sure that the parentheses enclose only what is truly parenthetical and not words essential to the construction of the sentence.

WRONG: I merely said I was averse (not violently opposed to) your suggestion. RICHT: I merely said I was averse (not violently opposed) to your suggestion.

Use parentheses to set off a nonessential element when dashes would be 219 too emphatic and commas would be inappropriate or might prove confusing.

Alma has been named manager of our Portland (Oregon) branch.

BETTER THAN: Alma has been named manager of our Portland, Oregon, branch. (Parentheses are clearer than commas when a city-state expression occurs as an adjective.)

All the classes on this list meet three days a week (Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays). (Parentheses are clearer than commas when the nonessential element already contains commas within it.)

With References

Use parentheses to set off references and directions. 220

> Because of unusually heavy expenses to date (see the financial report attached), we are not in a position to make further changes this year.

When a reference falls at the end of a sentence, it may be treated as part of the sentence or as a separate sentence.

The statistics are given in Appendix 4 (see pages 314-316). OR: The statistics are given in Appendix 4. (See pages 314-316.)

See also the note following ¶225d.

With Dates

Dates that accompany a person's name or an event are enclosed in 221 parentheses.

> Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826) was the third President of the United States. At the time of the merger (1948), both parties agreed to establish new headquarters in St. Louis.

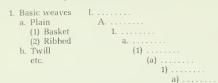
With Enumerated Items

Use parentheses to enclose numbers or letters that accompany enumer-222 ated items within a sentence.

> We need the following information to complete our record of Ms. Pavlick's experience: (1) the number of years she worked for your company, (2) a description of her duties, and (3) the number of promotions she received.

> 3. Please include these items on your expense account; (a) the cost of your hotel room; (b) the cost of meals, including tips; and (c) the amount spent on transportation. (Letters are used to enumerate items within a sentence when the sentence itself is part of a numbered sequence.)

NOTE: If the enumerated items appear on separate lines, the letters or numbers are usually followed only by periods. (See ¶223.)



Parenthetical Items Within Sentences

- **224** If the item in parentheses falls within a sentence:
 - a. Make sure that any punctuation that comes after the item (such as a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a dash) falls outside the closing parenthesis.

If you will call me tomorrow (Thursday), 1 can give you more precise data. I wrote to him promptly (as I said I would); however, he has not answered. There is only one thing he cares about (and he admits it); himself!

Your boss's name is mentioned in this week's issue of Time (see page 43)—and won't she be delighted!

NOTE: Never insert a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a dash before an opening parenthesis.

- **b.** Do not capitalize the first word of the item in parentheses, even if the item is a complete sentence. **EXCEPTIONS:** Proper nouns, proper adjectives, the pronoun *I*, and the first word of a quoted sentence. (See examples in *c* and *d* below.)
- c. Do not use a period before the closing parenthesis except with an abbreviation.

Mrs. Andrews' letter (please be sure to answer it promptly) makes me question the effectiveness of our order fulfillment procedures.

Helen Cohen (our public relations representative in Washington, D.C.) could give you that information.

I want you to meet Ed Pollack (he's our new sales manager) when you come to Omaha.

NOT: I want you to meet Ed Pollack (He's our new sales manager.) when you come to Omaha.

d. Do not use a question mark or an exclamation point before the closing parenthesis unless it applies solely to the parenthetical item and the sentence ends with a different mark of punctuation.

At the coming meeting (will you be able to make it on the 19th?), let's plan to discuss next year's budget. (Question mark used in parentheses because sentence ends with a period.)

May I still get tickets to the exhibition (and may I bring a friend), or is it now too late? (Question mark omitted in parentheses because sentence ends with a question mark.)

NOT: May I still get tickets to the exhibition (and may I bring a friend?), or is it now too late?

Parenthetical Items at the End of Sentences

- **225** If the item in parentheses is to be incorporated at the end of a sentence:
 - a. Place the punctuation needed to end the sentence outside the closing parenthesis.

The meeting will be held on March 31 (Friday).
Have you met John Duff (he's with the Peabody Company)?
Delivery has been put off again (till next Friday)!

- **b.** Do not capitalize the first word of the item in parentheses, even if the item is a complete sentence. **EXCEPTIONS:** Proper nouns, proper adjectives, the pronoun I, and the first word of a quoted sentence. (See examples in c and d below.)
- c. Do not use a period before the closing parenthesis except with an abbreviation.

I waited at the airport for hours (until 3 a.m.).
I waited at the airport for hours (I was there until three).
NOT: I waited at the airport for hours (I was there until three.).

d. Do not use a question mark or an exclamation point before the closing parenthesis unless it applies solely to the parenthetical element and the sentence ends with a different mark of punctuation.

My new assistant is Bill Romero (didn't you meet him once before?). Be sure to send the letter to Portland, Oregon (not Portland, Maine!). Then he walked out and slammed the door (can you believe it?)! Do you know Ellen Smyth (or is it Smythe)?

NOT: Do you know Ellen Smyth (or is it Smythe?)?

I'm through with the job (and I mean it)!

NOT: I'm through with the job (and I mean it!)!

NOTE: When a complete sentence occurs within parentheses at the end of another sentence, it may be incorporated into the sentence (as in the examples above) so long as it is fairly short and closely related. If the sentence in parentheses is long or requires special emphasis, it should be treated as a separate sentence (see ¶226).

Parenthetical Items as Separate Sentences

- 226 If the item in parentheses is to be treated as a separate sentence:
 - a. The preceding sentence should close with its own punctuation mark.
 - **b.** The item in parentheses should begin with a capital.
 - **c.** A period, a question mark, or an exclamation point (whichever is appropriate) should be placed before the closing parenthesis.
 - d. No other punctuation mark should follow the closing parenthesis.

Many property owners charge that the proposed bond issue will raise the tax rate. (They present no proof of this, however.) Moreover, they claim that new industry will be discouraged.

She spoke at length on her favorite topic. (How could I stop her?) At the end of an hour, a number of people began to walk out.

- Parentheses around question marks: see ¶118.
- Parentheses around exclamation points; see ¶119, note.
- Parentheses around confirming figures: see ¶420.
- Parentheses within parentheses: see ¶297.

Quotation Marks

Ouotation marks have three main functions: to indicate the use of someone else's exact words (see ¶¶227-234), to set off words and phrases for special emphasis (see \$\frac{9}{235-241}\), and to display the titles of literary and artistic works (see ¶¶242-244).

For guidance on how to position punctuation marks in relation to the closing quotation mark—that is, inside or outside—see ¶247-251.

For more specific guidance on when to use punctuation with quoted matter and which punctuation to use, refer to the following paragraphs:

- Quotations standing alone: see \$252.
- Quotations at the beginning of a sentence: see ¶253-255.
- Quotations at the end of a sentence; see ¶¶256-258.
- Quotations within a sentence: see ¶¶259-261.
- Quotations with interrupting expressions: see ¶¶262-263.
- Quotations within quotations: see ¶¶245-246.
- Long auotations; see ¶¶264-265.
- Quoted letters: see ¶266.
- Quoted poetry: see ¶¶267-268.
- Quoted dialogues and conversations: see ¶¶269-270.

With Direct Quotations

227 Use quotation marks to enclose a direct quotation, that is, the exact words of a speaker or a writer.

> "I don't like the last paragraph in that letter," said Mr. DeLuca. When asked if she planned to attend, Ms. Grunwald simply said "No." (See

¶¶233, 256a.)

228 a. Do not use quotation marks for an indirect quotation, that is, a restatement or a rearrangement of a person's exact words. (An indirect quotation is often introduced by that or whether and usually differs from a direct quotation in person, verb tense, or word order.)

> DIRECT QUOTATION: Mrs. Knudsen asked her boss, "Am I still being considered for the transfer?'

> INDIRECT QUOTATION: Mrs. Knudsen asked her boss whether she was still being considered for the transfer.

NOTE: Sometimes direct quotations are introduced by that. See ¶256f.

b. In some cases a person's exact words may be treated as either a direct or an indirect quotation, depending on the kind of emphasis desired.

(Continued on page 50.)

Baylis said, "Gutowski should be notified at once." (The use of quotation marks emphasizes that these are Baylis's exact words.)

Baylis said Gutowski should be notified at once. (Without quotation marks, the emphasis falls on the message itself. The fact that Baylis used these exact words is not important.)

229 Do not use quotation marks to set off a direct question at the end of a sentence unless it is also a direct quotation of someone's exact words.

> **DIRECT QUESTION:** The question is, How will the tax proposal affect the consumer? DIRECT QUOTATION: Mr. Rincon then asked, "How will the tax proposal affect the consumer?"

> DIRECT QUOTATION: Mr. Rincon then said, "The question is, How will the tax proposal affect the consumer?"

230 When only a word or phrase is quoted from another source, be sure to place the quotation marks around only the words extracted from the original source and not around any rearrangement of those words.

> Bryant said he would decide when he had "all the facts." (Bryant's exact words were, "I will decide when all the facts are in.")

(NOT: Bryant said he would decide "when he had all the facts.")

NOTE: When a quoted word or phrase comes at the end of a sentence, the period goes inside the closing quotation mark. See \$247, particularly examples 2-4.

231 Be particularly sure not to include such words as a and the at the beginning or etc. at the end of the quotation unless these words were actually part of the original material.

> Joe said you turned in a "first-rate" report. (Joe's exact words were, "The report you turned in was first-rate.")

Then end the letter with "I hope to hear from you soon," and so on.

232 When quoting a series of words or phrases in the exact sequence in which they originally appeared, use quotation marks before and after the complete series. However, if the series of quoted words or phrases did not appear in this sequence in the original, use quotation marks around each word or phrase.

> According to Selma, the latest issue of the magazine looked "fresh, crisp, and appealing." (Selma's actual words were, "I think the new issue looks fresh, crisp, and appealing.")

BUT: Selma thinks the magazine looks "fresh" and "crisp."

233 Do not quote the words yes and no unless you wish to emphasize that these were the exact words spoken.

Please answer the question yes or no.

Don't say no until you have heard all the terms of the proposal.

Once the firm's board of directors says yes, we can draft the contract.

When asked if he would accept a reassignment, Nick thought for a moment; then, without any trace of emotion, he said "Yes." (The quotation marks imply that Nick said precisely this much and no more. See ¶256a, note, for the use or omission of a comma in constructions like this.)

NOTE: When quoting these words, capitalize them if they represent a complete sentence.

All she said was "No."

I would have to answer that question by saying "Yes and no." BUT: That question requires something more than a yes-or-no answer.

234 Do not use quotation marks with well-known proverbs and sayings. They are not direct quotations.

After this experience she surely knows that all that glitters is not gold.

For Special Emphasis

235 In nontechnical material, technical or trade terms should be enclosed in quotation marks when they are first introduced.

The use of "bleed" illustrations gives the book a handsome graphic effect.

236 Words used humorously or ironically are enclosed in quotation marks.

They serve "fresh" vegetables all right-fresh out of the can!

237 Slang or poor grammar is enclosed in quotation marks to indicate that such usage is not part of the writer's normal way of speaking.

Whatever the true facts are, Jeff "ain't sayin'."

NOTE: Quotation marks are not needed for colloquial expressions.

I thought you were putting me on.

238 Words and phrases introduced by such expressions as so-called, marked, signed, and entitled are enclosed in quotation marks.

The carton was marked "Fragile."

He received a message signed "A Friend."

The article entitled "Write Your Senator" was in that issue.

NOTE: Titles of complete published works following the expression entitled require underscoring rather than quotation marks. (See ¶289 for titles to be underscored; \$\quad \quad 242 - 244 \text{ for titles to be quoted.}

- 239 A word referred to as a word may be enclosed in quotation marks but is now more commonly underscored. (See ¶285.)
- 240 When a word or an expression is formally defined, the word to be defined is usually underscored (italicized in print) and the definition is usually quoted so that the two elements may be easily distinguished. (See ¶286.)
- 241 The translation of a foreign expression is enclosed in quotation marks; the foreign word itself is underscored. (See ¶287.)

With Titles of Literary and Artistic Works

Use quotation marks around titles that represent only part of a complete published work-for example, chapters, lessons, topics, sections, and parts within a book; articles and feature columns in newspapers and magazines; and essays, short poems, lectures, and sermons. (Underscore titles of complete published works. See ¶289.)

When you read Chapter 5, "The Effective Business Letter," give particular attention to the section headed "The Objectives of All Letter Writing."

His most recent article, "Who Speaks for You?" appeared last month. (See ¶¶260-261 for the use of commas with quoted titles.)

Could you recite the poem "The Boy Stood on the Burning Deck" if you were asked to?

NOTE: The titles Preface, Contents, Appendix, and Index are not quoted, even though they represent parts within a book. They are often capitalized, however, for special emphasis.

All the supporting data is given in the Appendix. (Often capitalized when referring to another section within the same work.)

BUT: You'll find that the most interesting part of his book is contained in the appendix. (Capitalization is not required when reference is made to a section within another work.)

243 Use quotation marks around the titles of complete but unpublished works, such as manuscripts, dissertations, and reports.

> I would like to get a copy of Sandor's special study, "Criteria for Evaluating Staff Efficiency.

244 Use quotation marks around titles of songs and other short musical compositions and around titles of television and radio series and programs.

> Everyone sang "Happy Birthday" to Mr. Schildkraut. She will appear on "Face the Nation" next Sunday.

Quotations Within Quotations

245 A quotation within another quotation is enclosed in single quotation marks. On a typewriter, use the apostrophe key for a single quotation mark.

"Tanned skin was a fashionable 'must' about thirty years ago."

246 If a quotation appears within the single-quoted matter, revert to double quotation marks for the inner portion.

> Mrs. DeVries then remarked, "I thought it a bit strange when Mr. Fowler said, "Put these checks in an envelope marked "Personal Funds," and set them aside for me." (When single and double quotation marks occur together, do not insert any extra space between them in typewritten material.)

NOTE: For the positioning of punctuation in relation to a single quotation mark, see:

- ¶247, note, for placement of periods and commas.
- ¶248, note, for placement of semicolons and colons.
- ¶249, note, for placement of question marks and exclamation points.
- ¶250b for placement of dashes.

The following rules (\$\frac{1}{247-251}\) indicate how to position punctuation marks in relation to the closing quotation mark—inside or outside.

With Periods and Commas

247 Periods and commos always go inside the closing quotation mark. This is the preferred American style. (Some writers in this country follow the British style: Place the period outside when it punctuates the whole sentence, inside when it punctuates only the quoted matter. Place the comma outside, since it always punctuates the sentence, not the quoted matter.)

> As I was leaving his office, Mr. Rossi said, "Mr. Ward, we will need five copies of that agreement."

We agreed that the draft would be payable "six months after date."

The bill had been stamped "Paid."

Retain all copies marked "A."

"I will call you tomorrow," he said.

"Please try to arrive by 9:30 a.m.," she announced.

His latest article, "Systems Management and Education," appeared in May. "Witty," "clever," "vastly amusing," and "hilarious" are only a few of the adjectives that are being applied to her new book.

The package was clearly labeled "Fragile," but apparently labels mean nothing to your delivery crew.

NOTE: Periods and commas also go inside the single closing quotation mark.

Mr. Poston said, "Please let me see all the orders marked 'Rush."

"All he would say was 'I don't remember," answered the witness.

With Semicolons and Colons

248 Semicolons and colons always go outside the closing quotation mark.

Last Tuesday you said, "I will mail a check today"; however, it has not yet arrived.

When the announcement of the changeover was made, my reaction was "Why?"; John's only reaction was "When?"

Please get these supplies from the shelf marked "Editorial": 20 blue file folders, 12 No. 2 pencils, and 3 boxes of correction tape.

NOTE: Semicolons and colons also go outside the single quotation mark.

Ms. Fennel said, "Please get these supplies from the shelf marked 'Editorial': 20 blue file folders, 12 No. 2 pencils, and 3 boxes of correction tape."

With Question Marks and Exclamation Points

a. A question mark or an exclamation point goes inside the closing quotation mark when it applies only to the quoted material.

> He asked, "Did you enjoy that book?" (Quoted question at the end of a statement.)

> My boss's favorite remark is, "This is a rush job!" (Quoted exclamation at the end of a statement.)

(Continued on page 54.)

b. A question mark or an exclamation point goes outside the closing quotation mark when it applies to the entire sentence.

Why did Sally say, "Don't expect to see me tomorrow"? (Quoted statement at the end of a question.)

Don't keep saying, "Take it easy"! (Quoted statement at the end of an exclamation.)

c. If the quoted material and the entire sentence each require the same mark of punctuation, use only one mark—the one that comes first. (See also $\P257-258$.)

Have you seen the advertisement that starts, "Why pay more?" (Quoted question at the end of a question.)

Let's not panic and yell "Fire!" (Quoted exclamation at the end of an exclamation.)

NOTE: These same principles govern the placement of a question mark or an exclamation point in relation to a single quotation mark.

What prompted her to say, "Be careful in handling documents marked 'Confidential'"? (Quoted phrase within a quoted statement within a question.)

Dr. Marks asked, "Was the check marked 'Insufficient Funds'?" (Quoted phrase within a quoted question within a statement.)

Miss Parsons then said, "How did you answer him when he asked you, 'How do you know?'" (Quoted question within a quoted question within a statement.)

With Dashes

250 a. A dash goes inside the closing quotation mark to indicate that the speaker's or writer's words have broken off abruptly.

Eileen said, "When I see Mary—" We could all guess what she would say to Mary.

b. A dash goes outside the closing quotation mark when the sentence breaks off abruptly after the quotation.

If one more person speaks to me about "innovation"-

вит: Mr. Ballard said, "If one more person speaks to me about 'innovation'—"

c. A closing dash goes outside the closing quotation mark when the quotation itself is part of a nonessential element being set off by a pair of dashes.

Get the latest draft—it's the one with the notation "Let's go with this"—and take it to Miss Pomeroy for her approval.

With Parentheses

251 a. The closing parenthesis goes inside the closing quotation mark when the parenthetical element is part of the quotation.

The meeting was to be held "no later than Wednesday (May 15)" because of the need for a decision by the end of that week.

b. The closing parenthesis goes outside the closing quotation mark when the quotation is part of the parenthetical element.

Joe Elliott (the one everyone calls "Harper's fair-haired boy") will probably get

The following rules (\$\frac{1}{252}-270\) indicate what punctuation to use with

Punctuating Quotations That Stand Alone

252 When a quoted sentence stands alone, put the appropriate mark of terminal punctuation—a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point—inside the closing quotation mark.

"I can recommend Ruth Vilas without any reservation."

"May I see you for about a half hour tomorrow?"

"This transcript is worse than the one before!"

Punctuating Quotations at the Beginning of a Sentence

253 When a quoted statement occurs at the beginning of a sentence, omit the period before the closing quotation mark and use a comma instead.

> "I can recommend Ruth Vilas without any reservation," he said. (NOT: . . . reservation.," he said.)

EXCEPTION: Retain the period if it accompanies an abbreviation.

"By next May I expect to have my Ph.D.," she said.

254 When a quoted question or exclamation occurs at the beginning of a sentence, retain the question mark or the exclamation point before the closing quotation mark and do not insert a comma.

"May I see you for about a half hour tomorrow?" he asked.

(NOT: . . . tomorrow?," he asked.)

"This transcript is worse than the one before!" she said.

(NOT: . . . before!," she said.)

255 When a quoted word or phrase occurs at the beginning of a sentence, no punctuation should accompany the closing quotation mark unless required by the overall construction of the sentence.

"A smash hit" was the phrase used by more than one critic.

"How to Get a Job," the last chapter in the manuscript, does not read as well as the rest of the material you have submitted. (The comma that follows the chapter title is the first of a pair needed to set off a nonessential expression.)

Punctuating Quotations at the End of a Sentence

a. When a quoted statement, question, or exclamation comes at the end 256 of a sentence and is introduced by an expression such as he said or she said, a comma usually precedes the opening quotation mark.

Mr. Kelley said, "We'll close early on Friday."

In her letter Diana said, "I plan to arrive on Thursday at 6 p.m."

(Continued on page 56.)

NOTE: If the quotation is quite short or is woven into the flow of the sentence, omit the comma.

All she said was "No." or: All she said was, "No." (The comma creates a slight pause and throws greater emphasis on the quotation.)

Why does he keep saying "It won't work"?

b. Use a colon in place of a comma if the introductory expression is an independent clause.

Gordon did tell me this: "I'm willing to sign the contract with Harry."

This is what she said in her letter: "I plan to arrive on Thursday at 6 p.m."

c. Use a colon in place of a comma if the quotation contains more than one sentence.

Ms. Frost said: "In this case there is not much point in trying to fix the blame for what happened. The important thing is to establish procedures and safeguards to ensure that there are no recurrences."

d. Use a colon in place of a comma if the quotation is set off on separate lines as an extract. (See also ¶265.)

Sheila's letter said in part:

I have always valued your assistance on our various projects. You have always acted as if you were actually part of our staff, with our best interests in mind

e. Do not use either a comma or a colon before an indirect quotation.

Sheila said that she had always valued Bob's assistance on various projects.

f. Do not use either a comma or a colon when a direct quotation is introduced by that or is otherwise woven into the flow of the sentence.

In a previous letter to you, I noted that "you have always acted as if you were actually part of our staff, with our best interests in mind."

NOTE: The first word of the quotation is not capitalized in this case, even though it was capitalized in the original. Compare you here with You in the example in d above. (See ¶272 for the rule on capitalization.)

257 When a quoted sentence (a statement, a question, or an exclamation) falls at the end of a larger sentence, do not use double punctuation—that is, one mark to end the quotation and another to end the sentence. Choose the stronger mark. (remember: A question mark is stronger than a period; an exclamation point is stronger than a period or a question mark.) If the same mark of punctuation is required for both the quotation and the sentence as a whole, use the first mark that occurs—the one within quotation marks.

Quoted Sentences at the End of a Statement

Fred said, "Let's make the best of the situation." (Not .".)
Miss Harris asked, "Shall I put through that call now?" (Not ?".)
Mr. Vogt exclaimed, "These rumors must stop!" (Not !".)

Quoted Sentences at the End of a Question

Did you say, "I'll help out"? (Not ."?)
Why did Mary ask, "Will Joe be there?" (Not ?"?)
Who velled "Watch out!" (Not !"?)

Quoted Sentences at the End of an Exclamation

How could you forget to follow up when you were specifically told, "Give this order special attention"! (Not ."!)

Stop saying "How should I know"! (Not ?"!)

How I'd like to walk into his office and say, "I quit!" (Not !"!)

NOTE: When a quoted sentence ends with an abbreviation, retain the abbreviation period, even though a question mark or an exclamation point follows as the terminal mark of punctuation.

The interviewer asked, "How long did you work for Pierson Inc.?" Didn't Sue say, "I am now working for an LL.B."?

However, if a period is required as the terminal mark of punctuation, use only one period to mark the end of the abbreviation and the end of the sentence.

Edna said, "The conference will begin at 9:30 a.m." (Not .".)

- See *247 for placement of periods: *249 for placement of question marks and exclamation points.
- 258 When a quoted word or phrase occurs at the end of a sentence, punctuate according to the appropriate pattern shown below. (NOTE: If the quoted word or phrase represents a complete sentence, follow the patterns shown in ¶257.)

Quoted Words and Phrases at the End of a Statement

He says he is willing to meet "at your convenience." (Not ".) I thought her letter said she would arrive "at 10 p.m." (Not .".) I've been meaning to read "Who Pays the Bill?" (Not ?".) Critics have praised his latest article, "Freedom Now!" (Not!".)

Quoted Words and Phrases at the End of a Question

Why is he so concerned about my "convenience"?
Didn't she clearly state she would arrive "at 10 p.m."?
Have you had a chance to read "Who Pays the Bill?" (Not ?"?)
What did you think of the article "Freedom Now!"?

Quoted Words and Phrases at the End of an Exclamation

He couldn't care less about my "convenience"!
You're quite mistaken—she clearly said "at 10 a.m."!
Don't waste your time reading "Who Pays the Bill?"!
What a reaction he got with his article "Freedom Now!" (Not!"!)

Punctuating Quotations Within a Sentence

259 Do not use a comma before or after a quotation when it is woven into the flow of the sentence.

Don't say "I can't do it" without trying.

No considerate person would say "Why should I care?" under those circumstances.

The audience shouted "Bravo!" and "Encore!" at the end of the concerto.

(Continued on page 58.)

NOTE: In such cases do not use a period at the end of a quoted statement, but retain the question mark or the exclamation point at the end of a quoted question or exclamation (as illustrated on the preceding page).

260 Do not set off a quotation that occurs within a sentence as an essential expression. (See ¶149.)

> The famous words "Don't give up the ship" have been attributed to several people.

> The chapter entitled "Factors of Production" should help you answer that question.

261 When a quotation occurs within a sentence as a nonessential expression, use a comma before the opening quotation mark and before the closing quotation mark.

> His parting words, "I hardly know how to thank you," were sufficient. The next chapter, "The Role of Government," further clarifies the answer.

However, if the quoted matter requires a question mark or an exclamation point before the closing quotation mark, omit the comma at that point.

The final chapter, "Where Do We Go From Here?" shows how much remains to be accomplished.

Your last question, "How can we improve communications between departments?" can best be answered by you.

NOTE: As an alternative, use a pair of dashes or parentheses to set off the quoted matter.

Your last question—"How can we improve communications between departments?"-can best be answered by you.

Punctuating Quoted Sentences With Interrupting Expressions

262 When a quoted sentence is interrupted by an expression such as he said or she said, use a comma and a closing quotation mark before the interrupting expression and another comma after it. Then resume the quotation with an opening quotation mark and put the first word in small letters.

> "For the fifth successive week," the report began, "we have chalked up increased sales in our New England territory."

263 If the interrupting expression ends the sentence and the quotation continues in a new sentence, put a period after the interrupting expression and start the new sentence with an opening quotation mark and a capital letter.

> "We'll be late for the ceremonies," she said, "However, late or not, we have to attend."

Punctuating Long Quotations

If a quotation consists of more than one sentence without any interrupting elements, use quotation marks only at the beginning and at the end of the quotation. Do not put quotation marks around each sentence within the quotation.

> Here is what he wrote in his letter: "I hereby tender my resignation. I have reached what is considered a good age to retire. It is time for someone younger to take over."

- 265 A long quotation that will make four or more typewritten lines may be handled in one of the following ways:
 - a. Display the quoted matter by typing it single-spaced on a shorter line length than is used for the remainder of the material. (Indent all lines five spaces from each side margin.) Do not enclose the quoted matter in quotation marks; the indentation replaces the quotes. This style is preferred. (See page 235.)

NOTE: Ordinarily, start typing the quoted matter flush left on the shorter line length; however, if a paragraph indention was called for in the original, indent the first line five spaces. Indent the first line of any additional paragraphs five spaces also.

b. Type the quoted matter using the same line length and spacing as for the remainder of the material.

(1) If the quoted matter consists of one paragraph only, place quotation marks at the beginning and end of the paragraph. Use the normal paragraph indention of five spaces.

(2) If the quoted matter consists of two or more paragraphs, place a quotation mark at the start of each paragraph but at the end of only one paragraph—the last one.

(3) Change double quotation marks within the quoted matter to single quotation marks, and vice versa. (See \$\frac{4245-246}{245-246})

"When writing a letter that grants a request, you can follow this pattern:

"First, express appreciation for the writer's interest in the company's product or service.

"Next, give the exact information requested and, if possible, additional information that may be of interest.

"Finally, express willingness to 'be of further help.""

Quoting Letters

- 266 Letters and other business documents that are to be copied word for word may be handled in one of the following ways:
 - a. Type the material on a separate sheet of paper headed COPY. In this case no quotation marks are used.
 - b. Make a photocopy of the material. In this case neither the heading COPY nor quotation marks are used.
 - c. The material, if short, may be treated like a long quotation (see \$265). If it is typed on a shorter line length, omit the quotation marks. If it is typed on the same line length as other material on the page, then type the

267 | 274 Punctuation: Other Marks 60

opening quotation mark before the first word (in a letter, the date line); type the closing quotation mark after the last word (in a letter, the last word in the signature block).

Quoting Poetry

- When quoting a complete poem (or an extended portion of one) in a letter or a report, type it line for line, single-spaced (except for stanza breaks). If the line length is shorter than that of the normal text above and below the poem, no quotation marks are needed; the poem will stand out sufficiently as an extract. If, however, quotation marks are needed to indicate the special nature of the material, place a quotation mark at the beginning of each stanza and at the end of only the last stanza. (See also \$284b.)
- 268 A short extract from a poem is sometimes woven right into a sentence or a paragraph. In such cases use quotation marks at the beginning and end of the extract and a diagonal line to indicate where each line would break in the original arrangement of the poem.

As Alexander Pope put it, "A little learning is a dang'rous thing; / Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring " (Note that one space precedes and follows the diagonal.)

Quoting Dialogues and Conversations

269 When quoting dialogues and conversations, start the remarks of each speaker as a new paragraph, no matter how brief.

"Are those the only styles you can show me?" the customer inquired.
"I'm afraid so," replied the sales manager, "but I can order anything shown

"How long would it take to get the items?"

in this catalog for you.'
"How long would
"Two weeks."

270 In plays and court testimony, where the name of the speaker is indicated, quotation marks are not needed.

George: What you say is impossible!

Henry: I tell you it's true!

George: I must have more proof than your word before I'll believe it.

The following rules (¶271-284) cover a number of stylistic matters, such as how to capitalize in quoted matter (¶272-273), how to handle omissions in quoted matter (¶274-280), and how to handle insertions in quoted matter (¶281-283).

Style in Quoted Matter

271 In copying quoted matter, follow the style of the extract exactly in punctuation, spelling, hyphenation, and number style. (See ¶282 for the use of [sic] to indicate errors in the original.)

Capitalization in Quoted Matter

272 Ordinarily, capitalize the first word of every complete sentence in quotation marks.

I heard Maria say, "Anyone could do that job."

My lawyer gave me this advice: "Try to settle this claim out of court."

NOTE: If the quoted sentence is preceded by that or is otherwise incorporated into the flow of a larger sentence, do not capitalize the first word (unless it is a proper noun, a proper adjective, or the pronoun I).

Maria is reported to have said that "anyone could do that job." My lawyer advised me "to settle this claim out of court."

- 273 When quoting a word or phrase, do not capitalize the first word unless it meets one of these conditions:
 - a. It is a proper noun, a proper adjective, or the pronoun I. Mr. Sewara paid tribute to "American know-how."
 - b. It was capitalized in its original use.

He wrote "Paid" across the face of the bill.

- c. The quoted word or phrase occurs at the beginning of a sentence.
 - "Electrifying" was the word one critic applied to Caliano's new play. (Even if the expression was not capitalized in the original material, it must be capitalized here to mark the start of the sentence.)
- d. It represents a complete sentence.

Pete flatly said "No"; Phil said "Maybe."

BUT: Ella said she would not pay the bill "until certain adjustments are made." (Ella's exact words were, "I won't pay until certain adjustments are made.")

See ¶277-278 on capitalizing the first word of a quoted sentence fragment.

Omissions in Quoted Matter

274 If one or more words are omitted within a quoted sentence, use ellipsis marks (three spaced periods, with one typewriter space before and after each period) to indicate the omission.

> "During the past twenty years . . . we have been witnessing a change in buying habits, particularly with respect to food."

NOTE: Omit any marks of internal punctuation (a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a dash) on either side of the ellipsis marks unless they are required for the sake of clarity.

ORIGINAL VERSION: "The objectives of the proposed bill are admirable, I will cheerfully concede; the tactics being used to gain support for the bill are not." CONDENSED VERSION: "The objectives of the proposed bill are admirable . . . ; the tactics being used to gain support for the bill are not." (The comma preceding the omitted phrase is not needed; however, the semicolon following the omitted phrase must be retained for clarity.)

If one or more words are omitted at the end of a quoted sentence, use three spaced periods followed by the necessary terminal punctuation for the sentence as a whole.

> "Can anyone explain why . . . ?" (The original question read, "Can anyone explain why this was so?")

> "During the past twenty years, starting in the late 1950s, we have been witnessing a change in buying habits Consumers have become more concerned with what's in the package rather than with the package itself," (The first three periods represent the omitted words "particularly with respect to food"; the fourth period marks the end of the sentence. Two typewriter spaces follow before the next sentence.)

NOTE: If the quotation is intended to trail off, use only three spaced periods at the end of the sentence. (See also \$291b.)

His reaction was, "If I had only known . . ."

If one or more sentences are omitted between other sentences within a long quotation, use three spaced periods after the terminal punctuation of the preceding sentence.

> "During the past twenty years, starting in the late 1950s, we have been witnessing a change in buying habits, particularly with respect to food, . . . How far this pattern of change will extend cannot be estimated."

NOTE: There is no space between food and the first period because that period marks the end of a sentence. The remaining three periods signify the omission of one or more complete sentences. Two spaces follow before the next sentence

277 If only a fragment of a sentence is quoted within another sentence, it is not necessary to signify the omission of words before or after the fragment.

> According to Robertson's report, there has been "a change in buying habits" during the past twenty years.

Moreover, if the fragment as given can be read as a complete sentence, capitalize the first word in the quoted fragment, even though this word was not capitalized in the original. (Compare We in the following example with we in the example in \$276.)

According to Robertson's report, "We have been witnessing a change in buying habits, particularly with respect to food."

If a displayed quotation starts in the middle of a sentence, use three 278 spaced periods at the beginning of the quotation.

According to Robertson's report, there has been

... a change in buying habits, particularly with respect to food. . . . How far this pattern of change will extend cannot be estimated.

If the fragment, however, can be read as a complete sentence, capitalize the first word of the fragment and omit the ellipsis marks. (Compare Starting in the following example with starting in the example in ¶276.)

According to Robertson's report:

Starting in the late 1950s, we have been witnessing a change in buying habits, particularly with respect to food.

- 279 When a long quotation starts with a complete sentence and ends with a complete sentence, do not use three spaced periods at the beginning or the end of the quotation unless there is a need to emphasize that the quotation has been extracted from a larger body of material.
- 280 If one or more paragraphs are omitted within a long quotation, indicate the omission by adding three spaced periods after the terminal punctuation that concludes the preceding paragraph.

Insertions in Quoted Matter

For clarity it is sometimes necessary to insert explanatory words or 281 phrases within quoted matter. Enclose such insertions in brackets. (See also ¶296-298.)

> Miss Rawlings added, "At the time of the first lawsuit [1976], there was clear-cut evidence of an intent to defraud."

282 When the original wording contains a misspelling, a grammatical error, or a confusing expression of thought, insert the term sic (meaning "so" or "this is the way it was") in brackets to indicate that the error existed in the original material.

> As he wrote in his letter, "I would sooner go to jail then [sic] have to pay your bill." (The word sic is not underscored in typed material.)

283 For emphasis, it is sometimes necessary to underscore words that were not so treated in the original. In such cases, an expression like emphasis added should be typed in brackets at the end of the quotation.

> Upon cross-examination, she replied. "I never met Mr. Norman in my life, to the best of my recollection. [Emphasis added.]"

See \$\frac{4262-263}{262-263}\$ for simple interruptions such as he said or she said.

Typing Quotation Marks

a. In a typed list, any opening quotation mark should align with the first letter of the other items.

I need the following stationery items:

Paper clips Rubber bands "Fragile" labels White cord

b. In poems, the opening quotation mark at the beginning of each stanza should clear the left margin so that the first letter of each line will be in alignment. (See also \$267.)

"I think that I shall never see A billboard lovely as a tree. Perhaps, unless the billboards fall. I'll never see a tree at all."

The Underscore

Underscoring in typewritten material is the counterpart of using italics in printed material.

For Special Emphasis

285 A word referred to as a word is usually underscored, but it may be enclosed in quotation marks instead. A word referred to as a word is often introduced by the expression the term or the word.

> The words carton and cartoon have quite different meanings. (ALSO: The words "carton" and "cartoon" have quite different meanings.)

> If you used fewer compound sentences, you wouldn't have so many ands in your writing. (Only the root word is underscored, not the s.)

> BUT: She refused to sign the contract because she said it had too many ands, ifs. and buts. (No underscores are required for the phrase ands, ifs, and buts because the writer is not referring literally to these words as words. The phrase means "too many conditions and qualifications.")

286 In a formal definition the word to be defined is usually underscored and the definition is usually quoted. In this way the two elements may be easily distinguished.

> The term psychosomatic has an interesting derivation: the prefix psycho means "of the mind"; the root word soma refers to the body.

NOTE: An informal definition does not require any special punctuation.

A chandler is a person who makes candles.

Underscore foreign expressions that are not considered part of the 287 English language. (Use quotation marks to set off translations of foreign expressions.)

It's true, n'est-ce pas? (Meaning "isn't that so?")

NOTE: Once an expression of foreign origin has become established as part of the English language, underscoring is no longer necessary. (Most dictionaries offer guidance on this point.) Here are some frequently used expressions that no longer require underscoring or any other special display:

a la carte	bona fide	laissez faire	pro tem
a la mode	carte blanche	non sequitur	quid pro quo
a priori	et al.	op. cit.	rendezvous
ad hoc	etc.	per annum	repertoire
ad infinitum	ex officio	per se	résumé
alma mater	habeas corpus	prima facie	status quo
alter ego	ibid.	pro rata	vice versa

288 The individual names of ships, trains, airplanes, and spacecraft may be underscored for special display or written simply with initial caps.

The S.S. Ballou will dock at Pier 34. or: The S.S. Ballou . . .

BUT: I flew to Miami on an Electra and came back on a DC-10. (No special display is needed for the names Electra or DC-10 because they identify classes of aircraft but are not the individual names of planes.)

With Titles of Literary and Artistic Works

289 Underscore titles of complete works that are published as separate items-for example, books, pamphlets, long poems, magazines, and newspapers. Also underscore titles of movies, plays, musicals, operas, long musical compositions, paintings, and pieces of sculpture.

> Every office worker will find Etiquette in Business helpful. We find it beneficial to advertise occasionally in The New York Times. Next Saturday they are going to hear the opera La Traviata.

a. Titles of complete works may be typed in all capitals as an alternative to underscoring.

Every office worker will find ETIQUETTE IN BUSINESS helpful.

NOTE: The use of all capitals is acceptable (1) in business correspondence where titles occur frequently (as in the correspondence of a publishing house) and (2) in advertising and sales promotion copy where the use of all capitals is intended to have an eye-catching effect. In other circumstances, use underscoring,

b. In typewritten material that is to be set in type, titles of complete works must be underscored. The underscoring indicates to the printer that the title should be set in italics.

Every secretary will find Etiquette in Business helpful.

c. In titles of magazines, do not underscore or capitalize the word magazine unless it is part of the actual title.

Time magazine BUT: The New York Times Magazine

d. In some cases the name of the publishing company is the same as the name of the publication. Underscore the name when it refers to the publication but not when it refers to the company.

I saw her column in Newsweek.

BUT: I wrote to Newsweek about a job.

• See ¶242-244 for the use of quotation marks with titles of literary and artistic works.

Typing Underscores

- 290 Underscore as a unit whatever should be stressed as a unit—individual words, titles, phrases, or even whole sentences.
 - a. When underscoring a unit consisting of two or more words, be sure to underscore the space between words.

I plan to read War and Peace next summer.

BUT: Do you understand the meaning of such terms as quasi, ergo, and ipso facto? (Only the individual units are underscored, not the series as a whole.)

b. Do not underscore a mark of sentence punctuation that comes directly after the underscored matter. (However, underscore all punctuation marks that are an integral part of the underscored matter.)

(Continued on page 66.)

This week the Summertime Playhouse is presenting Oklahoma!, next week Where's Charley?, and the following week My Fair Lady.

c. Do not underscore a possessive or plural ending that is added on to an underscored word.

the Times's editorial too many ands

Other Marks of Punctuation

The Apostrophe (')

The use of the apostrophe is covered in the following paragraphs:

- As a single quotation mark, see ¶245-246.
- To indicate the omission of figures in dates, see ¶412.
- As a symbol for feet, see ¶432.
- To form contractions, see ¶505.
- To form plurals of figures, letters, etc., see ¶623-626.
- To form possessives, see ¶¶627-650.

Ellipsis Marks (...)

a. Ellipsis marks (three spaced periods, with one typewriter space before 291 and after each period) are often used, especially in advertising, to display individual items or to connect a series of loosely related phrases.

> The Inn at the End of the Road . . . where you may enjoy the epicure's choicest offerings . . . by reservation only . . . closed Tuesdays.

Where can you match these services-

- . . . Free ticket delivery
- . . . Flight insurance
- . . . On-time departures
- b. Ellipsis marks are also used to indicate that a sentence trails off before the end. The three spaced periods create an effect of uncertainty or suggest an abrupt suspension of thought. (No terminal punctuation is used with ellipsis marks in this kind of construction.)

He could easily have saved the situation by . . . But why talk about it?

See ¶1274-280 for the use of ellipsis marks to indicate omissions in quoted matter.

The Asterisk (*)

The asterisk is used to refer the reader to a footnote placed at the bottom 292 of a page.

"Because they won't let you wear it unless it fits." *

^{*}Reg. U.S. Pat. Off.

- a. When the asterisk and some other mark of punctuation occur together within a sentence, the asterisk follows the punctuation mark, with no intervening space. (See also ¶1414c.)
- b. In the footnote itself, leave no space after the asterisk.
- 293 Asterisks are used to replace words that are considered unprintable.

We were shocked to hear Mr. Scott refer to Mr. Frost as a ***.

NOTE: If your typewriter does not have an asterisk key, a fair substitute can be made by typing a capital A over a small v.

The Diagonal (/)

294 The diagonal occurs (without space before or after) in certain abbreviations and expressions of time.

> km/h kilometers per hour c/o care of B/L bill of lading Check the figures for fiscal year 1978/79.

- **295** The diagonal is also used in writing fractions (for example, 4/5) and in some code and serial numbers (for example, 2S/394756).
 - See \$268 for the use of the diagonal when quoting poetry; also see the entry for and/or in ¶1101.

Brackets ([])

296 A correction or an insertion in a quoted extract should be enclosed in brackets. (See also ¶281-283.)

> "During the height of the storm, winds exceeded 55 miles an hour [the local weather station recorded 60 miles an hour], with gusts up to 65 miles an hour." "We cannot allow this situation to continue. [Extended applause.] The time for action is now."

297 When a parenthetical element falls within another parenthetical element, enclose the smaller element in brackets and the larger element in parentheses

> Scalzo said on television yesterday that prices would begin to fall sharply. (However, in an article published in the Times [May 12, 19-], he was quoted as saying that prices would remain at their current levels for the foreseeable future.)

298 If brackets do not appear on the typewriter keyboard, you may either construct them (as shown in the illustration below) or leave a space at the point where each mark should appear and insert the marks in pen after the paper has been removed from the typewriter.

"We returned to Salem /Massachusetts/ the following year."

299 Punctuation: Other Marks 68

Typewriter Spacing With Punctuation Marks

299 Period

Two spaces ofter the end of a sentence.

One space ofter an abbreviation within a sentence. (See also ¶511.)

No space after a decimal point.

No space ofter when another mark of punctuation immediately follows the period (for example, a closing quotation mark, a closing parenthesis, or a comma following an "abbreviation" period).

Two spaces after a number or letter that indicates an enumeration. (See

¶106, note, for an exception.)

Question Mark or Exclamation Point

Two spaces after the end of a sentence.

No space ofter when another mark of punctuation immediately follows (for example, a closing quotation mark, a closing parenthesis, or a closing dash).

Comma

No space before—ever.

One space after, unless a closing quotation mark immediately follows the

No space after commas within a number.

Semicolon

No space before; one space after.

Colon

No space before.

Two spaces after within a sentence.

No space before or after in expressions of time (8:20 p.m.) or proportions (2:1).

Dash

No space before, between, or after two hyphens used to represent a dash. Two spaces after a dash at the end of a statement that breaks off abruptly. (See \$208.)

Opening Parenthesis or Bracket

One space before when parenthetic matter is within a sentence.

Two spaces before when parenthetic matter follows a sentence. In this case the parenthetic matter starts with a capital and closes with its own sentence punctuation. (See ¶226, 296.)

No space after.

Closing Parenthesis or Bracket

No space before.

One space after when parenthetic matter is within a sentence.

Two spaces after when parenthetic matter is itself a complete sentence and another sentence follows. (See ¶226, 296.)

No space after if another mark of punctuation immediately follows.

Opening Quotation Mark

Two spaces before when quoted matter starts a new sentence or follows a colon

No space before when a dash or an opening parenthesis precedes. One space before in all other cases.

No space after.

Closing Quotation Mark

No space before.

Two spaces after when quoted matter ends the sentence.

No space after when another mark of punctuation immediately follows (for example, a semicolon or a colon).

One space after in all other cases.

Single Quotation Mark

No space between single and double quotation marks. (See ¶246.)

Apostrophe (')

No space before, either within a word or at the end of a word. One space after only if it is at the end of a word within a sentence.

Ellipsis Marks (. . .)

One space before and after each of the three periods within a sentence. (See ¶274-275.)

No space before when an opening quotation mark precedes the ellipsis marks.

No space after when a closing quotation mark follows the ellipsis marks. (See last example in \$275.)

Two spaces after ellipsis marks that follow a period, question mark, or exclamation point at the end of a sentence. (See example in \$276.)

Asterisk (*)

No space before an asterisk following a word or punctuation mark within a sentence or at the end of a sentence.

Two spaces after an asterisk at the end of a sentence.

One space after an asterisk following a word or punctuation mark within a sentence.

No space after an asterisk in a footnote. (See \$292.)

Diagonal (/)

No space before or after a diagonal line. (See ¶268 for an exception in poetry.)



CAPITALIZATION

BASIC RULES

First Words (¶¶301–302) Proper Nouns (¶¶303–306) Common Nouns (¶¶307–310)

SPECIAL RULES

Personal Names (¶311)

Titles With Personal Names (¶¶312-317)

Family Titles (¶¶318-319)

Names of Organizations (¶¶320-324)

Names of Government Bodies (¶¶325-330)

Names of Places (¶¶331-337)

Points of the Compass (¶¶338–341)

Days of the Week, Months, Holidays, Seasons, Events, Periods (¶¶342-345)

Acts, Laws, Bills, Treaties (¶346)

Programs, Movements, Concepts (¶347)

Races, Peoples, Languages, Religions (¶348)

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Heavenly Bodies (¶351)

Course Titles, Subjects, Academic Degrees (¶¶352-354)

Commercial Products (¶¶355-356)

Advertising Material (¶357)

Legal Correspondence (¶358)

Nouns With Numbers or Letters (¶359)

Titles of Literary and Artistic Works; Headings (¶360–361)

Hyphenated Words (§362)

The function of capitalization is to give distinction, importance, and emphasis to words. Thus the first word of a sentence is capitalized to indicate distinctively and emphatically that a new sentence has begun. Moreover, proper nouns like George, Chicago, Dun & Bradstreet, the Parthenon, January, and Friday are capitalized to signify the special importance of these words as the official names of particular persons. places, and things. A number of words, however, may function either as proper nouns or as common nouns—for example, terms like the board of directors or the company. For words like these, capitalization practices vary widely, but the variation merely reflects the relative importance each writer assigns to the word in question.

Despite disagreements among authorities on specific rules, there is a growing consensus against overusing capitalization in business writing. When too many words stand out, none stand out. The current trend, then, is to use capitalization more sparingly—to give importance, distinction, or emphasis only when and where it is warranted.

The following rules of capitalization are written with the ordinary business office in mind. If you work in a specialized situation, such as a government office or an advertising agency, you might be asked to capitalize some of those terms that would not be capitalized ordinarily. Whenever your office has a particular preference, follow that style.

Basic Rules

First Words

301 Capitalize the first word of:

a. Every sentence. (See ¶302 for exceptions.)

Up-to-date sales reports will be released tomorrow. Will the computations be ready by then?

The news is unbelievable!

b. An expression used as a sentence, (See also \$\frac{102}{111}, 119-120.)

So much for that. Really?

c. A quoted sentence. (See also \$\frac{9}{272-273.})

Mr. Jarvis said, "The estimates will be submitted on Monday."

d. An independent question within a sentence. (See also "115-117.)

The question is. Will this policy reduce staff turnover?

- e. Each item displayed in a list or an outline. (See also ¶107.)
- f. Each line in a poem. (Always follow the style of the poem itself. however.)

When to the sessions of sweet silent thought I summon up remembrance of things past. I sigh the lack of many a thing I sought, And with old woes new wail my dear time's waste. -William Shakespeare g. The first word in the salutation and the complimentary closing of a letter.

Sincerely yours, Dear Mrs. Barbetta: My dear Mrs. Barbetta: Yours very truly,

302 Do not capitalize the first word of a sentence when it is set off by dashes or parentheses within another sentence. (See ¶214, 224-225 for examples.) Moreover, do not capitalize the first word of a sentence following a colon except under certain circumstances. (See ¶¶196-199.)

Proper Nouns

303 Capitalize every proper noun, that is, the official name of a particular person, place, or thing. Also capitalize the pronoun I.

> Iames E. Carter Friday, June 2 Eau Claire, Wisconsin the New Deal Ford Motor Company the Atomic Energy Act the United Fund the Chinese the National Security Council Venus and Mercury Temple University History 308 the Department of Labor (see ¶320, note) Frigidaire

War and Peace (see ¶360) the Washington Monument

304 Capitalize adjectives derived from proper nouns.

Elizabeth (n.), Elizabethan (adj.) America (n.), American (adj.) EXCEPTIONS: Congress, congressional; the Constitution (U.S.), constitutional. (See also ¶306.)

305 Capitalize imaginative names and nicknames that designate particular persons, places, or things. (See ¶¶333-335 for imaginative place names; ¶344 for imaginative names of historical periods.)

> the First Lady the Establishment Down Under (for Australia) the Big Ten the Granite State (for New Hampshire) Tommy the Stars and Stripes Crazy Louie the White House the Oval Office

306 Some words that were originally proper nouns or adjectives are now considered common nouns and should not be capitalized.

> venetian blind roman numeral plaster of paris ampere manila envelope morocco leather watt (BUT: Roman history)

NOTE: Check an up-to-date dictionary to determine capitalization for words of this type.

Common Nouns

307 A common noun names a class of things (for example, books), or it may refer indefinitely to one or more things within that class (a book, several

books). Nouns used in this way are considered general terms of classification and are often modified by indefinite words such as a, any, every, or some. Do not capitalize nouns used as general terms of classification.

a company any corporation every board of directors some senators

A common noun may also be used to name a particular person, place, or thing. Nouns used in this way are often modified by the, this, these, that, or those, or by possessive words such as my, your, his, our, or theirs. Do not capitalize a general term of classification, even though it refers to a particular person, place, or thing,

> COMMON NOUN: OUR doctor PROPER NOUN: Dr. Halliday

the hotel Hotel Plaza the river the Hudson River

309 Capitalize a common noun when it is part of a proper name but not when it is used alone in place of the full name. (See ¶310 for exceptions.)

> Professor Hildebrandt the Chase Corporation the Easton Municipal Court Elston Avenue the Clayton Antitrust Act

BUT: the professor the corporation the court the avenue

the act

NOTE: Also capitalize the plural form of a common noun in expressions such as the Republican and the Democratic Parties, Main and Tenth Streets, the Hudson and Ohio Rivers, and the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

310 Some short forms (common-noun elements replacing the complete proper name) are capitalized when they are intended to carry the full significance of the complete proper name. It is in this area, however, that the danger of overcapitalizing most often occurs. Therefore, do not capitalize a short form unless it clearly warrants the importance, distinction, or emphasis that capitalization conveys. The following kinds of short forms are commonly capitalized:

PERSONAL TITLES: Capitalize titles replacing names of high-ranking national, state, and international officials (but not ordinarily local officials or company officers). (See ¶313.)

ORGANIZATIONAL NAMES: Do not capitalize short forms of company names except in formal or legal writing, (See ¶321.)

COVERNMENTAL NAMES: Capitalize short forms of names of national and international bodies (but not ordinarily state or local bodies). (See ¶¶326-327, 334-335.)

PLACE NAMES: Capitalize only well-established short forms. (See ¶¶332. 335.)

NOTE: Do not use a short form to replace a full name unless the full name has been mentioned earlier or will be clearly understood from the context

Special Rules

Personal Names

311 Treat a person's name—in terms of capitalization, spelling, and spacing-exactly as the person does.

> Ellen Rodriguez A. Wilson Krieger Henry Lang Underhill C. M. Pastore Esther T. Gregorowicz IFK (see ¶516)

a. Respect individual preferences in the spelling of personal names.

Ann Marie, Anne Marie, Anna Marie, Annemarie, Annamarie, Anne-Marie, AnneMarie

Macmillan, MacMillan, Mac Millan, Macmillen, MacMillen, MacMillin McMillan, McMillan, McMillen, McMillin

b. In names containing the prefix O', always capitalize the O and the letter following the apostrophe; for example, O'Brian or O'Brien.

c. Watch for differences in capitalization and spacing in names containing prefixes like d', da, de, del, della, di, du, l', la, le, van, and von.

D'Amelio, d'Amelio, Damelio deLaCruz, DelaCruz, DelaCruz, DelaCruz LaCoste, Lacoste, La Coste VanDeVelde, Van DeVelde, vandeVelde, van deVelde

d. When a surname with an uncapitalized prefix stands alone (that is, without a first name, a title, or initials preceding it), capitalize the prefix to prevent a misreading.

Anthony de Luca Mr. de Luca A. R. de Luca BUT: I hear that De Luco is leaving the company.

e. When names that contain prefixes are to be typed in all-capital letters, follow these principles: If there is no space after the prefix, capitalize only the initial letter of the prefix. If space follows the prefix, capitalize the entire prefix.

All-Capital Form Normal Form MacDONALD MacDonald BUT: Mac Donald MAC DONALD

See ¶¶615-616 for plurals of personal names; ¶¶630-633 for possessives of personal names.

Titles With Personal Names

312 Capitalize all official titles of honor and respect when they precede personal names.

PERSONAL TITLES:

Mrs. Della Rogers (see ¶517) Mr. Clampitt

EXECUTIVE TITLES:

President Sarah Orwell Vice President Degnan

PROFESSIONAL TITLES:

Professor Floyd Bergquist Dr. Chang (see ¶517) CIVIC TITLES:

Governor Ella T. Grasso

Mayor-elect Hector Diaz (see §317)

Ambassador Berenson ex-Senator Ball (see ¶317)

MILITARY TITLES:

General Martin O. Johnson

Commander Wilkinson

RELIGIOUS TITLES:

the Reverend John S. Czarnecki

Rabbi Silverman

a. Do not capitalize such titles when the personal name that follows is in apposition and is set off by commas.

The president, Sarah Orwell, will address the faculty tomorrow afternoon.

BUT: President Sarah Orwell will address the faculty tomorrow afternoon.

b. Do not capitalize occupational titles (such as author, surgeon, *publisher*, and *lawyer*) preceding a name.

Among those attending the opening was the banker John Hamstra (**sor:** Banker John Hamstra).

NOTE: Occupational titles can be distinguished from official titles in that only official titles can be used with a last name alone. Since one would not address a person as "Author Mailer" or "Publisher Johnson," these are not official titles and should not be capitalized.

313 In general, do not capitalize titles of honor and respect when they follow a personal name or are used in place of a personal name.

Dr. Sarah Orwell, president of Cromwell University, will speak tomorrow night at eight. The president's topic is . . .

However, exceptions are made for important officials and dignitaries, as indicated in the following paragraphs.

a. Retain the capitalization in titles of high-ranking national, state, and international officials when they follow or replace a specific personal name. Below are examples of titles that remain capitalized.

NATIONAL OFFICIALS: the President, the Vice President, Cabinet members (such as the Secretory of State and the Attorney General), the heads of government agencies and bureaus (such as the Director or the Commissioner), the Chief Justice, the Ambassador, the Senator, the Representative.

STATE OFFICIALS: the Governor, the Lieutenant Governor. (BUT: the attorney general, the senator.)

FOREIGN DIGNITARIES: the Queen of England, the King, the Prime Minister, the Premier.

INTERNATIONAL FIGURES: the Pope, the Secretary General of the United Nations.

b. Titles of local governmental officials and those of lesser federal and state officials are not usually capitalized when they follow or replace a personal name. However, these titles are sometimes capitalized in writing intended for a limited readership (for example, in a local newspaper, in internal communications within an organization, or in correspondence coming from or directed to the official's office), where the person in question would be considered to have high rank by the intended reader.

(Continued on page 76.)

The Mayor announced today that the strike had been settled. (Item in a local newspaper.)

вит: John Nowicki, mayor of Waterville, Pennsylvania, was interviewed in New York today before leaving for Europe. The mayor indicated . . . (From a national news service release.)

I would like to request an appointment with the Attorney General. (In a letter sent to the state attorney general's office.)

BUT: I have written for an appointment with the attorney general and expect to hear from his office soon.

c. Titles of company officials (for example, the president, the general manager) should not be capitalized when they follow or replace a personal name. Exceptions are made in formal minutes of meetings and in rules and bylaws.

The president will visit thirteen countries in a tour of company installations abroad. (Normal style.)

The Secretary's minutes were read and approved. (In formal minutes.)

NOTE: Some companies choose to capitalize these titles in all their communications because of the great respect the officials command within the company. However, this practice confers excessive importance on people who are neither public officials nor eminent dignitaries, and it should be avoided.

d. In general, do not capitalize job titles when they stand alone, (NOTE: In procedures manuals and company memos and announcements, job titles are sometimes capitalized for special distinction and emphasis.)

Marion Conroy has been promoted to the position of senior accountant (or Senior Accountant).

- e. Titles following a personal name or standing alone are sometimes capitalized in formal citations and acknowledgments.
- 314 Do not capitalize titles used as general terms of classification. (See ¶307.)

a United States senator a state governor

every king any ambassador

EXCEPTION: Because of the special regard for the office of the President of the United States, this title is capitalized even when used as a general term of classification (for example, a President, every President).

315 Capitalize any title (even if not of high rank) when it is used in direct address (that is, quoted or unquoted speech made directly to another person).

> DIRECT ADDRESS: Tell me, Professor, what you think of Allen's work. INDIRECT ADDRESS: I asked the professor to tell me what he thought of Allen's work.

NOTE: In direct address, do not capitalize a term like madam or sir if it stands alone without a proper name following.

Please tell me, sir, how we can help you.

- 316 In the inside address of a letter, in the writer's identification block, and on an envelope, capitalize all titles whether they precede or follow the name. (See \$1322-1325, 1362-1368, and the illustrations on page 263.)
- 317 Do not capitalize former, late, ex-, or -elect when used with titles. (See \$362 for the style in headings.)

the late President Roosevelt ex-President Ford Governor-elect Ott

Family Titles

318 Capitalize words such as mother, father, aunt, and uncle when they stand alone or are followed by a personal name.

t spoke to Mother and Dad on the phone last night.

Let's invite Uncle Bob and Aunt Eleanor.

I know that Grandmother Morrison will help us if we ask her.

319 Do not capitalize family titles when they are preceded by possessives (such as my, your, his, our, and their) and simply describe a family relationship.

I spoke to both my mother and my uncle on the phone last night.

We have often heard Edith speak of her sister Kate.

NOTE: If the words uncle, aunt, or cousin form a unit when used together with a first name, capitalize these titles, even when they are preceded by a possessive.

Frank wants us to meet his Uncle John. (Here Uncle John is a unit.)

BUT: Frank wants us to meet his uncle, John Cunningham. (Here uncle simply describes a family relationship.)

I hope you can meet my Cousin May. (The writer thinks of her as Cousin May.) BUT: I hope you can meet my cousin May. (Here the writer thinks of her as May: the word cousin merely indicates relationship.)

Names of Organizations

Capitalize the names of companies, associations, societies, independent committees and boards, schools, political parties, conventions, fraternities, clubs, and religious bodies. (Follow the style established by the organization itself, as shown in the letterhead or some other written communication from the organization.)

> the Andersen Hardware Company the Young Women's Christian Association

the Committee for Economic

Development the Board of Realtors of Morris

County Inc. the League of Women Voters the Farmington Chamber of Commerce

the University of Montana the Democratic and Liberal Parties

the Republican National Convention the Glen Ridge Country Club

the American Red Cross

St. Luke's Episcopal Church

NOTE: Prepositions (like for and of) and conjunctions (like and) are not capitalized unless they have four or more letters. (See also \$360.) The articles a and an are not capitalized; the article the is capitalized only under special circumstances (see ¶324).

See also ¶520–522 for the capitalization of abbreviations and acronyms used as organizational names.

321 When the common-noun element is used in place of the full name (for example, the company in place of the Andersen Hardware Company), do not capitalize the short form unless special emphasis or distinction is required (as in legal documents, minutes of meetings, bylaws, and other formal communications, where the short form is intended to invoke the full authority of the organization). In most cases, however, capitalization is unnecessary because the short form is used only as a general term of classification (see ¶¶307-308).

> The company, in my opinion, has always made a conscientious effort to involve itself in community affairs. (As used here, company is a general term of classification.)

> BUT: On behalf of the Company, I am authorized to accept your bid. (Here the full authority of the company is implied; hence the capital C.)

> Mr. Weinstock has just returned from a visit to Haverford College. He reports that the college is planning a new fund-raising campaign.

> BUT: The College hopes to raise an additional \$10,000,000 this year to finance the construction of the new instructional resource center. (Announcement in the alumni bulletin.)

NOTE: Do not capitalize the short form if it is modified by a word other than the. In constructions such as our company, this company, and every company, the noun is clearly a general term of classification. (See also 9308.

322 Common organizational terms such as advertising department, manufacturing division, finance committee, and board of directors are ordinarily capitalized when they are the actual names of units within the writer's own organization. These terms are not capitalized when they refer to some other organization unless the writer has reason to give these terms special importance or distinction.

> The Board of Directors will meet next Thursday at 2:30. (From a company memorandum.)

> BUT: Julia Perez has been elected to the board of directors of the Kensington Trade Corporation. (From a news release intended for a general audience.)

> The Finance Committee will meet all week to review next year's budget. (Style used by insiders.)

> BUT: Gilligan says his company can give us no encouragement until its finance committee has reviewed our proposal. (Style normally used by outsiders.)

NOTE: These terms should not be capitalized when modified by a word other than the; for example, this credit department, their credit department. (See also ¶321, note.) When our or your is used as a modifier, the preferred form is our credit department or your credit department. However, the form our Credit Department or your Credit Department may be used for special emphasis.

I would like to learn more about the position you have open in your Advertising Department. (Outsiders may capitalize the name of the department to indicate the special importance they assign to it.)

323 Capitalize such nouns as marketing, advertising, or promotion when they are used alone to designate a department within an organization.

Ann Heller of Customer Relations is the person to see.

I want to get a reaction from our people in Marketing first.

BUT: I want to talk to our marketing people first, (Here marketing is simply a descriptive adjective.)

324 Capitalize the word the preceding the name of an organization only when it is part of the legal name of the organization.

> The Associated Press The New York Times (see \$289d)

- a. Even when part of the organizational name, the is often uncapitalized except in legal or formal contexts where it is important to give the full legal name.
- b. Do not capitalize the when the name is used as a modifier or is abbreviated.

the Associated Press report the AP works for the Times

Names of Government Bodies

325 Capitalize the names of countries and international organizations as well as national, state, county, and city bodies and their subdivisions.

> the Republic of Panama the Ninety-fourth Congress

(see \$362) the United Nations the Carter Administration the Cabinet

the Ohio Legislature

the Court of Appeals of the State of Wisconsin (see ¶320, note)

the New York State Board of Education the Fairfax County Shade Tree Commission the Boston City Council

- See \$\frac{1}{3}34-335\$ for city and state names.
- 326 Capitalize short forms of names of national and international bodies and their major divisions.

the House (referring to the House of Representatives)

the Department (referring to the Department of Defense, the State Department, the Department of Labor, etc.)

the Bureau (referring to the Bureau of the Budget, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, etc.)

the Court (referring to the United States Supreme Court, the International Court of Justice, etc.)

As a rule, do not capitalize short forms of names of state or local governmental groups, except when special circumstances warrant emphasis or distinction. (See ¶327.)

327 Common terms such as police department, board of education, and county court need not be capitalized (even when referring to a specific body) since they are terms of general classification. However, such terms should be capitalized when the writer intends to refer to the organization in all of its official dignity.

The Police Department has announced the promotion of Robert Boyarsky to the rank of sergeant. (The short form is capitalized here because it is intended to have the full force of the complete name, the Cranfield Police Department.) вит: The Cranfield police department sponsors a youth athletic program that we could well copy. (No capitalization is used here because the writer is referring to the department in general terms and not by its official name.)

NOTE: Do not capitalize the short form if it is not actually derived from the complete name. For example, do not capitalize the short form police department if the full name is Department of Public Safety.

Capitalize federal only when it is part of the official name of a federal 328 agency, a federal act, or some other proper noun.

> the Federal Reserve Board the Federal Insurance Contributions Act BUT: . . . subject to federal, state, and local laws.

- 329 The terms federal government and government (referring specifically to the United States government) are now commonly written in small letters because they are considered terms of general classification. In government documents and correspondence, and in other communications where these terms are intended to have the force of an official name, they are capitalized.
- 330 Capitalize the words union and commonwealth only when they refer to a specific government.

Wilkins has lectured on the topic in almost every state in the Union.

Names of Places

Capitalize the names of places, such as streets, buildings, parks, monu-331 ments, rivers, oceans, and mountains. Do not capitalize short forms used in place of the full name.

Fulton Street	BUT: the street	the Rocky	BUT: the mountains
the Empire State	the building	Mountains	
Building		the Statue of	the statue
Central Park	the park	Liberty	
the Ohio River	the river	Death Valley	the valley
Lake Superior	the lake	O'Hare Airport	the airport
Hotel Pierre	the hotel	Union Station	the station

- For plural expressions like the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, see \$309, note, For the treatment of prepositions and conjunctions in proper names, see \$130, note.
- 332 A few short forms are capitalized because of clear association with one place.

the Coast (the West Coast) the Hill (Capitol Hill) the Continent (Europe) the Canal (the Panama Canal)

333 Capitalize imaginative names that designate specific places.

the Bay Area (San Francisco) the Eternal City (Rome) the Loop (in Chicago) the Twin Cities (Minneapolis and St. Paul) the Great White Way the Garden State (New Jersey) (in New York) the City of Brotherly Love (Philadelphia)

334 Capitalize the word city only when it is part of the corporate name of the city or part of an imaginative name.

Kansas City the Windy City (Chicago) But: the city of San Francisco

335 Capitalize state only when it follows the name of a state or is part of an imaginative name.

New York State is also called the Empire State.

The state of Alaska is the largest in the Union.

After a two-year assignment overseas, we returned to the States. (Meaning the United States.)

NOTE: Do not capitalize state even when used in place of the actual state name.

He is an employee of the state. (People working for the state government, however, might write State.)

336 Capitalize the only when it is a part of the official name of a place.

The Dalles The Hague But: the Bronx the Netherlands

337 Capitalize the words upper and lower only when they are part of an actual place name or a well-established imaginative name.

Upper Peninsula Lower California Upper West Side Lower East Side

Points of the Compass

338 Capitalize north, south, east, west, and derivative words when they designate definite regions or are an integral part of a proper name.

in the North the Far North North Dakota
back East the Near East the Eastern Seaboard
down South the Deep South the South Side
out West the Middle West the West Coast

Do not capitalize these words when they merely indicate direction or general location.

Many textile plants have moved from the Northeast and relocated in the South. (Region.)

They maintain a villa in the south of France. (General location.)

Go west on Route 517 and then south on 195. (Direction.)

John is coming back East after three years on the West Coast. (Region.)

BUT: The west coast of the United States borders on the Pacific. (Referring only to the shoreline, not the region.)

Most of our customers live on the East Side. (Definite locality.)

BUT: Most of our customers live on the east side of town. (General location.)

- 339 Capitalize such words as Northerner, Southerner, and Midwesterner.
- 340 Capitalize such words as northern, southern, eastern, and western when these words pertain to the people in a region and to their political, social, or cultural activities. Do not capitalize these words, however, when they

merely indicate general location or refer to the geography or climate of the region.

Eastern bankers
Southern hospitality
Western civilization
the Northern vote

But: the eastern half of Pennsylvania southern temperatures
westerly winds
a northern winter

The Northern states did not vote as they were expected to. (Political activities.)

BUT: The drought is expected to continue in the northern states. (Climate.)

My sales territory takes in most of the southeastern states. (General location.)

NOTE: When terms like western region and southern district are used to name organizational units within a company, capitalize them.

The Western Region (referring to a part of the national sales staff) reports that sales are 12 percent over budget for the first six months this year.

341 When words like northern, southern, eastern, and western precede a place name, they are not capitalized because they merely indicate general location within a region. In a few cases, where these words are actually part of the place name, they must be capitalized. (Check an atlas or the geographical listings in a dictionary when in doubt.)

Preceding a Place Name northern New Jersey western Massachusetts Part of a Place Name

вит: Northern Ireland Western Australia

Days of the Week, Months, Holidays, Seasons, Events, Periods

342 Capitalize names of days, months, holidays, and religious days.

Wednesday Good Friday
February Passover
New Year's Eve the Fourth of July
Veterans Day (no apostrophe) Mother's Day

343 Capitalize the names of the seasons only when they are personified.

Come, gentle Spring, with your blessed showers.

But: Our order for spring merchandise was mailed today.

344 Capitalize the names of historical events and imaginative names given to historical periods.

the American Revolution the Middle Ages
World War II Prohibition
Fire Prevention Week the Great Depression

NOTE: Terms like space age, atomic age, and nuclear age are usually not capitalized.

345 Do not capitalize the names of decades and centuries.

during the thirties in the nineteen-seventies in the twentieth century during the eighteen hundreds NOTE: Decades are capitalized, however, in special expressions.

the Gay Nineties the Roaring Twenties

Acts, Laws, Bills, Treaties

346 Capitalize formal titles of acts, laws, bills, and treaties, but do not capitalize common-noun elements that stand alone in place of the full name.

the Social Security Act the act
Public Law 85-1 the law
the Treaty of Versailles the treaty
the Constitution of the United States

BUT the Constitution

Programs, Movements, Concepts

347 Do not capitalize the names of programs, movements, or concepts when used as general terms.

social security benefits (BUT: the Social Security Administration) medicare payments (BUT: the Medicare Act) socialism (BUT: the Socialist Labor Party) the civil rights movement women's lib

NOTE: Imaginative names like the New Deal are capitalized.

Races, Peoples, Languages, Religions

348 Capitalize the names of races, peoples, tribes, religions, and languages.

Chinese Afro-American Chicanos Bur: the blacks Judaism Sanskrit Negroes the whites

Supreme Being

349 Capitalize all references to a supreme being.

God the Supreme Being the Almighty the Lord the Messiah the Holy Spirit

350 Capitalize personal pronouns referring to a supreme being when they stand alone, without an antecedent nearby.

Offer thanks unto Him. But: Ask the Lord for his blessing.

Heavenly Bodies

351 Capitalize the names of planets (Jupiter, Mors), stars (Polaris, the North Star), and constellations (the Big Dipper, the Milky Woy). However, do not capitalize the words sun, moon, or earth unless they are used in connection with the capitalized names of other planets or stars.

The sun was hidden behind the cloud.

The earth revolves on its axis.

Compare the orbits of Mars, Venus, and Earth.

Course Titles, Subjects, Academic Degrees

Capitalize the names of specific course titles. However, do not capitalize names of subjects or areas of study except for any proper nouns or adjectives in such names.

> American History 201 meets on Tuesdays and Thursdays. (Course title.) Harriet has decided to major in American history. (Area of study.)

- 353 Do not capitalize academic degrees used as general terms of classification (for example, a bachelor of arts degree, working on her master's). However, capitalize a degree used after a person's name (Claire Hurwitz, Doctor of Philosophy).
- Do not capitalize the words freshman, sophomore, junior, or senior in references to academic years.

She plans to spend her junior year abroad. All seniors must return library books by May 15.

Commercial Products

Capitalize trademarks, brand names, proprietary names, names of commercial products, and market grades. The common noun following the name of a product should not ordinarily be capitalized; however, manufacturers and advertisers often capitalize such words in the names of their own products for special emphasis.

Ivory soap

Hotpoint dishwasher

Choice lamb (market grade)

356 Capitalize all trademarks except those that have become clearly established as common nouns. To be safe, check an up-to-date dictionary or consult the United States Trademark Association (6 East 45 Street, New York, New York 10017).

> Coca-Cola, Coke Teflon Dacron Dictaphone TelePrompTer Teletype Pvrex Frigidaire Photostat Xerox Scotch tape Kleenex Band-Aid Levi's Realtor Jeep

BUT: nylon, cellophane, mimeograph, dry ice, aspirin

Advertising Material

Words ordinarily written in small letters may be capitalized in advertising copy for special emphasis. (This style is inappropriate in all other kinds of written communication.)

Save money now during our Year-End Clearance Sale.

It's the event Luxury Lovers have been waiting for . . . from Whitehall's!

Legal Correspondence

In legal documents many words that ordinarily would be written in small letters are written with initial capitals or all capitals—for example, references to parties, the name of the document, special provisions, and sometimes spelled-out amounts of money (see ¶420).

Whereupon I, the said Notary, at the request of the aforesaid, did PROTEST, and by these presents do publicly and solemnly PROTEST, as well against Maker and Indorser of said note . . .

THIS AGREEMENT, made this 31st day of January, 1977...

. . . hereinafter called the SELLER . . .

WHEREAS the Seller has this day agreed . . .

WITNESS the signatures . . .

Nouns With Numbers or Letters

359 Capitalize a noun followed by a number or a letter that indicates sequence. EXCEPTIONS: Do not capitalize the nouns line, note, page, paragraph, size, and verse.

Act I	Class 4 Column 1 Diagram 4 Exercise 8 Exhibit A Figure 9 Flight 626 Illustration 19	Lesson 20	Policy 394857
Appendix A		line 4	Room 501
Article 2		Model B671-4	Section 1
Book III		note 1	size 10
Bulletin T-119		page 158	Table 7
Car 8171		paragraph 2a	Track 2
Chapter V		Part Three	Unit 2
Chart 3		Plate XV	verse 3
Check 181	Invoice 270487	Platform 3	Volume II

NOTE: It is often unnecessary to use No. before the number. (See ¶455.)

Purchase Order 4713 (RATHER THAN: Purchase Order No. 4713)

Titles of Literary and Artistic Works; Headings

360 In titles of literary and artistic works and in displayed headings, capitalize all words with four or more letters. Also capitalize words with fewer than four letters except:

ARTICLES: the, a, an

short conjunctions: and, as, but, if, or, nor

SHORT PREPOSITIONS: at, by, for, in, of, off, on, out, to, up

How to Succeed in Business Without Really Trying

"Redevelopment Proposal Is Not Expected to Be Approved"

NOTE: Even articles, short conjunctions, and short prepositions should be capitalized under the following circumstances:

a. Capitalize the first and last word of a title.

"A Home to Be Proud Of"

CAUTION: Do not capitalize the at the beginning of a title unless it is actually part of the title.

For further details check the Encyclopaedia Britannica.

This clipping is from The New York Times.

b. Capitalize the first word following a dash or colon in a title.

Abraham Lincoln-The Early Years

The Treaty of Versailles: A Reexamination

c. Capitalize short words like in, out, off, and up in titles when they serve as adverbs rather than as prepositions. (These words may occur in verb phrases or in hyphenated compounds derived from verb phrases.)

"IBM Chalks Up Record Earnings for the Year"

"LeClaire Is Runner-Up in Election" (see also ¶362)

вит: "Sailing up the Mississippi"

d. Capitalize short prepositions like *in* and *up* when used together with prepositions having four or more letters.

"Sailing Up and Down the Mississippi"

"Happenings In and Around Town"

- See ¶242, note, for the capitalization of Preface, Contents, Appendix, and Index.
- See ¶289a for the use of all capitals with titles.
- **361** Do not capitalize a book title when it is incorporated into a sentence as a descriptive phrase.

In his book on economics Samuelson points out that . . . But: In his book Economics Samuelson points out that . . .

Hyphenated Words

362 Within a sentence, capitalize only those elements of a hyphenated word that are proper nouns or proper adjectives. At the beginning of a sentence, capitalize the first element in the hyphenated word but not other elements unless they are proper nouns or adjectives. In a heading or title, capitalize all the elements except articles, short prepositions, and short conjunctions (see §360).

Within Sentences	Beginning Sentences	In Headings
up-to-date	Up-to-date	Up-to-Date
Spanish-American	Spanish-American	Spanish-American
English-speaking	English-speaking	English-Speaking
mid-September	Mid-September	Mid-September
ex-President Ford	Ex-President Ford	Ex-President Ford
Senator-elect Murray	Senator-elect Murray	Senator-Elect Murray
self-confidence	Self-confidence	Self-Confidence
de-emphasize	De-emphasize	De-Emphasize
follow-up	Follow-up	Follow-Up (see ¶360c)
Ninety-fifth Congress	Ninety-fifth Congress	Ninety-Fifth Congress
one-sixth	One-sixth	One-Sixth
post-World War II	Post-World War II	Post-World War II

- Capitalization of questions within sentences: see ¶¶115, 117.
- Capitalization after a colon: see ¶¶196-199.
- Capitalization after an opening dash; see ¶214, note.
- Capitalization after an opening parenthesis: see ¶¶224-226.
- Capitalization after an opening quotation mark; see ¶272-273.
- Capitalization of abbreviations: see ¶514.



NUMBERS

BASIC RULES

Figure Style (¶401–403) Word Style (¶404–406)

SPECIAL RULES

Dates (\$\frac{407-412}{}

Money (¶¶413-420)

At the Beginning of a Sentence (99421-422)

Indefinite Numbers and Amounts (¶423)

Ordinal Numbers (¶¶424-426)

Fractions (¶¶427-428)

Fractions Standing Alone ($\P 427$)

Fractions in Mixed Numbers (¶428)

Measurements (¶¶429-432)

Ages and Anniversaries (99433-435)

Periods of Time (¶436-439)

Clock Time (¶440-442)

With a.m., p.m., Noon, and Midnight (§440)

With O'Clock (§441)

Without a.m., p.m., or O'Clock ($\P 442$)

Decimals (¶443-446)

Percentages (¶¶447-449)

Ratios and Proportions (¶450)

Scores and Voting Results (¶451)

Numbers Referred to as Numbers (¶452)

Figures With Abbreviations and Symbols (¶9453-454)

No. or # With Figures (¶455)

Adjacent Numbers (¶¶456-457)

Numbers in a Sequence (¶458-460)

Expressing Numbers in Figures (¶¶461–464) Expressing Numbers in Words (¶¶465–467)

Expressing Numbers in Roman Numerals (¶468)

There is a significant difference between using figures and using words to express numbers. Figures are big (like capital letters) and compact and informal (like abbreviations); when used in a sentence, they stand out clearly from the surrounding words. By contrast, numbers expressed in words are unemphatic and formal; they do not stand out in a sentence. It is this functional difference between figures and words that underlies all aspects of number style.

Basic Bules

The rules for expressing numbers would be quite simple if writers would all agree to express numbers entirely in figures or entirely in words. But in actual practice the exclusive use of figures is considered appropriate only in tables and statistical matter, whereas the exclusive use of words to express numbers is found only in ultraformal documents (such as proclamations and social invitations). In writing that is neither ultraformal nor ultratechnical, most style manuals call for the use of both figures and words in varying proportions. Although authorities do not agree on details, there are two sets of basic rules in wide use: the figure style (which uses figures for most numbers above 10) and the word style (which uses figures for most numbers above 100). Unless you deal with a very limited type of business correspondence, you should be familiar with both styles and be prepared to use each appropriately as the situation demands

Figure Style

The figure style is most commonly used in ordinary business correspondence (dealing with sales, production, advertising, and other routine commercial matters). It is also used in journalistic and technical material. In writing of this kind most numbers represent significant quantities or measurements that should stand out for emphasis or quick comprehension.

401 Spell out numbers from 1 through 10; use figures for numbers above 10. This rule applies to both exact and approximate numbers.

We need ten samples, but they can give us only four or five.

Please send us 35 copies of your latest bulletin. About 60 to 70 contracts are missing from the files.

I have received some 30-odd letters about Tuesday's column.

Our group has already sold over 1,200 (or 1200) tickets. (See ¶461 on commas in four-digit figures.)

This stadium can seat more than 80,000 people.

a. Use all figures—even for the numbers 1 through 10 (as in this sentence)—when they have technical significance or need to be emphasized for quick comprehension.

NOTE: This style is used in tables, statistical matter, and in expressions of dates (May 3), money (\$6), clock time (4 p.m.), proportions, ratios, percentages (8 percent), and scores (3 to 1). This style is also used with abbreviations and symbols (12 cm, 8°F), with numbers referred to as numbers (any number from 1 to 10), and with technical or emphatic references to age (a clinical study of 5-year-olds), periods of time (a 6-month logn), and measurements (parcels over 3 pounds).

b. In isolated cases spell out a number above 10 in order to de-emphasize the number or make it seem indefinite. (See ¶¶465–467 for rules on how to express numbers in words.)

He could give you a thousand and one reasons for his decision.

I have σ hundred things to do today. (In this context 100 things would seem too precise, too exact.)

NOTE: Also use words for numbers at the beginning of a sentence, for most ordinals (our twenty-fifth anniversary), for fractions (one-third of our sales), and for nontechnical or nonemphatic references to age (my son just turned twelve), periods of time (twenty years ago), and measurements (I'd like to lose another three pounds).

402 Use the same style to express related numbers above and below 10. (If any of the numbers are above 10, put them all in figures.)

Smoke damaged five dresses and eight suits.

But: Smoke damaged 5 dresses, 8 suits, and 11 coats.

I have requisitioned 16 reams of bond paper, 120 scratch pads, and 8 boxes of envelopes for the four secretaries. (Figures are used for related items of stationery; the number of secretaries is not related.)

403 For fast comprehension, numbers in the millions or higher may be expressed as follows:

> 21 million (in place of 21,000,000) 3 billion (in place of 3,000,000,000)

14½ million (in place of 14,500,000) 2.4 billion (in place of 2,400,000,000)

- a. This style may be used only when the amount consists of a whole number with nothing more than a simple fraction or decimal following. A number such as 4.832.067 must be written all in figures.
- b. Treat related numbers alike.

Last year we sold 21,557,000 items; this year, nearly 23,000,000. (NOT: 23 million.)

See ¶416 for examples involving money.

Word Style

The word style of numbers is used in high-level executive correspondence and in nontechnical material, where the writing is of a more formal or literary nature and the use of figures would give numbers an undesired emphasis and obtrusiveness. Here are the basic rules for the word style.

404 Spell out all numbers, whether exact or approximate, that can be expressed in one or two words. (A hyphenated compound number like twenty-one or ninety-nine counts as one word.) In effect, spell out all numbers from 1 through 100 and all round numbers above 100 that require no more than two words (such as sixty-two thousand or forty-five million).

Mr. Ryan received twenty-three letters praising his talk at the Rotary Club. Last year more than twelve million people attended the art exhibition our company sponsored.

Some sixty-odd people have called to volunteer their services.

Over two hundred people attended the reception for Helen and Frank Russo. But: Over 250 people attended the reception. (Use figures when more than two words are required.)

NOTE: In writing of an ultraformal nature—proclamations, social invitations, and many legal documents—even a number that requires more than two words is spelled out. However, as a matter of practicality the word style ordinarily uses figures when more than two words are required.

- See ¶¶465-467 for rules on how to express numbers in words.
- **405** Express related numbers the same way, even though some are above 100 and some below. If any are in figures, put all in figures.

We sent out three hundred invitations and have already received over one hundred acceptances.

BUT: We sent out 300 invitations and have already received 125 acceptances. (NOT: three hundred . . . 125 . . .)

406 Numbers in the millions or higher that require more than two words when spelled out may be expressed as follows:

231 million (in place of 231,000,000)

9% billion (in place of 9,750,000,000)

671.4 million (in place of 671,400,000)

Even a two-word number such as sixty-two million should be expressed as 62 million when it is related to a number such as 231 million (which cannot be spelled in two words). Moreover, it should be expressed as 62,000,000 when it is related to a number such as 231.163.520.

Special Rules

The preceding rules on figure style (¶¶401-403) and word style (¶¶404-406) are basic guidelines that govern in the absence of more specific principles. The following rules cover those situations which require special handling (for example, expressions of dates and money). In a number of cases where either figures or words are acceptable, your choice will depend on whether you are striving for emphasis or formality.

Dates

These rules apply to dates in sentences. See $\P 1314$ for date lines in correspondence.

407 When the day precedes the month or stands alone, express it either in ordinal figures (1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, etc.) or in ordinal words (the first, the twelfth, the twenty-eighth).

Our meeting starts on the 21st of July and runs through the 23d. (For emphasis.) I arrive on the ninth of March and leave on the thirty-first. (For formality.)

408 When the day follows the month, always express it in cardinal figures (1, 2, 3, etc.).

on March 6 (xor: March 6th or March sixth)

409 a. Express complete dates in month-day-year sequence.

March 6, 1979

NOTE: In United States military correspondence and in letters from foreign countries, the complete date is expressed in day-month-year sequence.

6 March 1979

- b. The form 3/6/79 (representing a month-day-year sequence) is acceptable on business forms and in informal letters and memos. Avoid this form, however, if there is any chance your reader could misinterpret it as a day-month-year sequence.
- c. Avoid the following forms: March 6th, 1979; Mar. 6, 1979; the 6th of March, 1979: the sixth of March, 1979.
- 410 Note the current use of commas and other punctuation with expressions of dates.

On March 12, 1975, construction began on our present headquarters. (Two commas set off the year following the month and day.)

The corporation was founded on May 1, 1930; it filed for bankruptcy on July 12, 1977 (the same day merger plans failed). (Omit the second comma when other punctuation is required at that point.)

The records for June 1973 (or June, 1973.) have been charged out to Ms. Gerson. (The current trend is to omit commas around the year when it follows the month alone.)

The March 1975 issue of Harper's carried the article. (No commas are used when the month and year serve as an adjective.)

BUT: The March 15, 1975, issue of Time . . . (Use two commas to set off the year when a complete date serves as an adjective. See §154.)

In 1975 Mr. Richardson and Mrs. Fein were elected to the board. (No comma follows the year in a short introductory phrase.)

On January 15 we met to review your proposal. (No comma follows the month and day in a short introductory phrase.)

- BUT: On January 15, 22 new employees will be added to the staff. (Insert a comma when another figure immediately follows. See ¶456.)
- See §152 for the use or omission of a commu when a date is followed by a related phrase or clause.
- 411 In formal legal documents, formal invitations, and proclamations, spell out the day and the year. A number of styles may be used:

May twenty-first the twenty-first of May this twenty-first day of May nineteen hundred and seventy-nine one thousand nine hundred and seventy-nine in the year of Our Lord one thousand nine hundred and seventy-nine

92

the class of '74 the blizzard of '88

 See ¶¶438-439 for the expression of centuries and decades; ¶¶458-460 for dates in a sequence.

Money

413 Use figures to express exact or approximate amounts of money.

\$5	about \$200	over \$1,000,000	a \$20 bill
\$9.75	nearly \$1,000	a \$20,000-a-year job	\$2,000 worth

NOTE: An isolated, nonemphatic reference to money may be spelled out.

five hundred dollars
nearly a thousand dollars
a half-dollar
a half-dollar
a half-dollar
a twenty-dollar bill
two thousand dollars' worth (note the
apostrophe with dollars')

414 Spell out indefinite amounts of money.

```
a few million dollars many thousands of dollars
```

415 Do not add a decimal point or ciphers to a whole dollar amount when it occurs in a sentence.

I am enclosing a check for \$125 as payment in full. This model costs \$12.50; that one costs \$10.

\$183.55

416 Money in round amounts of a million or more may be expressed partially in words. (The style given in the first column is preferred.)

```
$12 million
                           12 million dollars
                   OB
$10½ million
                   OR
                           101/2 million dollars
$10.5 million
                   OR
                           10.5 million dollars
$64 billion
                          614 billion dollars
                                                    OR
                                                             $6,250 million
                   OR
$6.25 hillion
                          6.25 billion dollars
                                                             6.250 million dollars
                   OR
                                                     OR
```

- **a.** This style may be used only when the amount consists of a whole number with nothing more than a simple fraction or decimal following. Write an amount like \$10,235,000 entirely in figures.
- b. Express related amounts the same way.

```
from $500,000 to $1,000,000 (NOT: from $500,000 to $1 million)
```

c. Repeat the word million (billion, etc.) with each figure to avoid misunderstanding.

```
$5 million to $10 million (NOT: $5 to $10 million)
```

417 Fractional expressions of large amounts of money should be either completely spelled out or converted to an all-figure style. one-quarter of a million dollars on \$250,000 (BUT NOT: 1/4 of a million dollars on \$1/4 million) a half-billion dollars on \$500,000,000 (BUT NOT: 1/2 billion dollars or \$1/2 billion)

For amounts under a dollar, use figures and the word cents. 418

I am sure that customers will not pay more than 50 cents for this item.

This machine can be fixed with 80 cents' worth of parts. (Note the apostrophe with cents'.)

NOTE: An isolated, nonemphatic reference to cents may be spelled out.

I wouldn't give two cents for that car.

a. Do not use the style \$.75 in sentences except when related amounts require a dollar sign.

It will cost you \$2.42 a copy to do the company manual: \$.43 for the paper, \$.77 for the printing, and \$1.22 for the special binder.

b. The symbol c may be used in technical and statistical matter containing many price quotations.

Yesterday's wholesale prices for food commodities were as follows: coffee, 73¢; cocoa, 83¢; sugar, 11¢; butter, 87¢.

When using the dollar sign or the cent sign with a price range or a series of amounts, use the sign with each amount.

> \$5,000 to \$10,000 10€ to 20€

\$10 million to \$20 million (NOT: \$10 to \$20 million)

These three properties are valued at \$32,900, \$54,500, and \$87,000, respectively. If the term dollars or cents is to be spelled out, use it only with the final

10 to 20 cents

amount.

10 million to 20 million dollars (see ¶416c)

420 In legal documents, amounts of money are often expressed first in words and then, within parentheses, in figures. (See also ¶¶465-467.)

> One Hundred Dollars (\$100) OR One Hundred (100) Dollars BUT NOT: One Hundred (\$100) Dollars

> Three Thousand One Hundred and 50/100 Dollars (\$3,100.50)

a. When spelling out amounts of money, omit the and between hundreds and tens of dollars if and is used before the fraction representing "cents."

Six Hundred Thirty-two and 75/100 Dollars

NOTE: In whole dollar amounts, the use of and between hundreds and tens of dollars is optional.

Six Hundred Thirty-two Dollars OR Six Hundred and Thirty-two Dollars

b. The capitalization of spelled-out amounts may vary. Sometimes the first letter of each main word is capitalized (as in the examples above); sometimes only the first letter of the first word is capitalized (as on checks); sometimes the entire amount is given all in capitals.

¶421–428 cover situations in which numbers are usually spelled out: at the beginning of sentences and in expressions using indefinite numbers. ordinal numbers, and fractions.

At the Beginning of a Sentence

421 Spell out a number that begins a sentence, as well as any related numbers.

Forty-six glasses were broken in the last shipment you sent us.

Five hundred people attended the reception for Mr. and Mrs. Santangelo.

Twenty to thirty percent of the castings proved to be defective. (NOT: Twenty to 30 percent of the castings proved to be defective.)

422 If the number requires more than two words when spelled out or if figures are preferable for emphasis or quick reference, reword the sentence.

> The company sent out 298 copies of its consumer guidelines last month. (Not: Two hundred and ninety-eight of its consumer guidelines were sent out by the company last month.)

We had a good year in 1977.

(NOT: Nineteen hundred seventy-seven or 1977 was a good year for us.)

Our mining operations provide 60 to 70 percent of our revenues.

(INSTEAD OF: Sixty to seventy percent of our revenues come from our mining operations.)

Indefinite Numbers and Amounts

423 Spell out indefinite numbers and amounts.

a few hundred votes several thousand orders

a multimillion-dollar program

a woman in her fifties

hundreds of customers. thousands of questionnaires many millions of dollars a stack of twenties

• For the treatment of approximate numbers, see ¶401 (figure style) and ¶404 (word style).

Ordinal Numbers

424 In general, spell out all ordinal numbers (first, second, third, etc.) that can be expressed in one or two words. (A hyphenated number like twentyfirst counts as one word.)

> in the twentieth century on your thirty-fifth birthday

the Ninety-fourth Congress (in text)

the Ninety-Fourth Congress (in headings and titles)

the Twenty-third Assembly District the ten millionth visitor to the United Nations

the store's one hundredth anniversary BUT: the store's 125th anniversary

- See ¶465 for the rule on how to express ordinal numbers in words; ¶427d for the distinction between ordinals and fractions.
- 425 Use figures for ordinals in certain expressions of dates (see ¶¶407-409), in numbered street names above 10 (see ¶1333b), and for special emphasis.

In Advertising Copy

Come to our 25th Anniversary Sale! (Figures for emphasis.)

Come to our Twenty-fifth Anniversary Sale! (Words for formality.)

In Ordinary Correspondence

Watkins & Glenn is having a twenty-fifth anniversary sale.

NOTE: Ordinal figures are expressed as follows: 1st, 2d or 2nd, 3d or 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, etc. Do not use an "abbreviation" period following an ordinal figure.

- See \$504 for the use of 2d in preference to 2nd.
- **426** Use figures or roman numerals for ordinals that follow a name.

James A. Wilson 3d on James A. Wilson III

Fractions

427 Fractions Standing Alone

a. Ordinarily spell out a fraction that stands alone (i.e., without a whole number preceding). Use figures, however, if the spelled-out form is long and awkward or if the fraction is used in a technical measurement or a computation.

one-half the vote (see \$427c)

three-fourths of the voters

a two-thirds majority half an hour later (or; a half hour later)

3/4-yard lengths (BETTER THAN: three-quarter-yard lengths)

5 32 inch (BETTER THAN: five thirty-seconds of an inch)

multiply by 2 5

b. When a fraction is spelled out, the numerator and the denominator should be connected by a hyphen unless either element already contains a hyphen.

seven-twelfths

five thirty-seconds

nine-sixteenths twenty-five thirty-seconds

c. Do not hyphenate one half in constructions like the following:

One half of the shipment was damaged beyond use; the other half was partially salvageable.

d. Distinguish between large spelled-out fractions (which are hyphenated) and large spelled-out ordinals (which are not).

The difference is less than one-hundredth of 1 percent, (Hyphenated fraction referring to 1 100.)

BUT: This year the company will be celebrating the one hundredth anniversary of its founding. (Unhyphenated ordinal referring to 100th.)

e. Fractions expressed in figures should not be followed by endings like sts, ds, nds, or ths or by an of phrase.

3/200 (NOT: 3/200ths)

9/64 inch (Not: 9/64ths of an inch)

If a sentence requires the use of an of phrase following the fraction, spell the fraction out.

three-quarters of an hour (Not: 3/4 of an hour)

428 | **437** Numbers 96

428 Fractions in Mixed Numbers

a. A mixed number (a whole number plus a fraction) is written in figures except at the beginning of a sentence.

This year's sales are 3¼ times as great as they were five years ago. Five and one-quarter (or Five and a quarter) inches of snow fell last night. (Note the use of and between the whole number and the fraction.)

b. When constructing fractions that do not appear on the typewriter, use the diagonal (/). Separate a whole number from a fraction by a space (not by a hyphen).

The rate of interest was 3 7/8 percent. (Not: 3-7/8 percent.)

c. In the same sentence, do not mix constructed fractions (7/8, 5/16) with those that appear on the typewriter $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4})$.

The interest rate rose from 7 1/2 to 7 5/8 percent. (NOT: 7½ to 7 5/8 percent.)

¶¶429-442 deal with measurements and with expressions of age and time (elements that often function as measurements). When these elements have technical or statistical significance, they are expressed in figures; otherwise, they are expressed in words.

Measurements

429 Most measurements have a technical significance and should be expressed in figures (even from 1 through 10) for emphasis or quick comprehension. However, spell out an isolated measurement that lacks technical significance.

A higher rate is charged on parcels over 2 kilograms.

BUT: I'm afraid I've gained another two kilograms this week.

Add 1 quart of sugar for each 4 quarts of strawberries.

BUT: Last weekend we picked four quarts of strawberries from our own patch.

There is no charge for delivery within a 30-mile radius of Chicago.

BUT: It's only an eighty-mile drive up to our summer place.

 ${\tt NOTE:}$ Dimensions, sizes, and temperature readings are always expressed in figures.

The dimensions of my new office are 4 by 5 meters. (See also $\P 432$.)

Your order for one pair of tennis shoes, size 6, has been delayed.

The thermometer now stands at 28, a rise of three degrees in the last hour.

When a measurement consists of several words, do not use commas to separate the words. The measurement is considered a single unit.

The parcel weighed 6 pounds 14 ounces. I am 6 feet 2 inches tall. The punch bowl holds 4 quarts 1 pint. He has 20/20 vision.

431 The unit of measure may be abbreviated or expressed as a symbol in technical matter or in tables. (See ¶535-538 for the style of abbreviations for units of measure; ¶454 for the repetition of abbreviations and symbols in a range of numbers.)

432 Dimensions may be expressed as follows:

a room 15 by 30 feet a 15- by 30-foot room GENERAL USAGE:

(a room 15 x 30 ft a 15- x 30-ft room TECHNICAL USAGE: a 15' x 30' room la room 15' x 30'

a room 5 by 10 meters a 5- by 10-meter room GENERAL USAGE:

a room 5 x 10 m a 5- x 10-m room TECHNICAL USAGE:

15 feet 6 inches by 30 feet 9 inches GENERAL USAGE: TECHNICAL USAGE: 15 ft 6 in x 30 ft 9 in or 15' 6" x 30' 9"

Ages and Anniversaries

433 Express ages in figures (even from 1 through 10) when they are used as significant statistics or as technical measurements.

Ralph Martinez, 43, has been promoted to professor of law.

At the age of 50, a policyholder may collect disability benefits. (Avoid the abrupt construction at age 50.)

We are making a citywide study of the reading skills of all 9-year-olds.

You cannot disregard the job application of a person aged 58. (Not: age 58.)

NOTE: When age is expressed in years, months, and days, do not use commas to separate the elements; they make up a single unit.

On January 1 she will be 19 years 4 months and 17 days old. (The and linking months and days is often omitted.)

434 Spell out ages in nontechnical references and in formal writing.

My daughter will be five years old tomorrow.

The woman is in her early thirties; her husband is in his mid-fifties.

435 Spell out ordinals in references to birthdays and anniversaries except where special emphasis or more than two words are required. (See also ¶¶424-425.)

> on her twenty-first birthday their fortieth anniversary the company's 125th anniversary

Periods of Time

436 Use figures (even from 1 through 10) to express periods of time when they are used as technical measurements or significant statistics (as in discounts, interest rates, and credit terms).

> a 5-minute warmup a note due in 6 months payable in 30 days a 30-vear mortgage

437 Spell out nontechnical references to periods of time unless the number requires more than two words.

> a twenty-minute wait eight hours later twelve days from now in twenty-four months

in the last thirty years forty-odd years ago three hundred years ago BUT: 350 years ago

438 Centuries may be expressed as follows:

the 1900s or the nineteen hundreds the twentieth century nineteenth-century business customs

439 Decades may be expressed as follows:

the 1970s on the nineteen-seventies on the seventies on the '70s the mid-1960s on the mid-sixties on the mid-60s during the years 1960–1970 on from 1960 to 1970 (see ¶459) on between 1960 and 1970

NOTE: Decades are not capitalized except in special expressions such as the Gay Nineties, the Roaring Twenties.

Clock Time

440 With A.M., P.M., Noon, and Midnight

a. Always use figures with a.m. or p.m.

The boat sails at 11:30 a.m. The train leaves at 2 p.m. By 8 p.m., CST, the first election returns should be in. or. By 8 p.m. (CST) the first election returns should be in.

b. the abbreviations a.m. and p.m. are typed in small letters without spaces. (In printed matter they usually appear in small capitals: A.M., P.M.)

c. For time "on the hour," ciphers are not needed to denote minutes.

Our store is open from 9:30 a.m. to 6 p.m. (Nor: 6:00 p.m.) We always close from 12 noon to 1:30 p.m.

You can buy your tickets between 9 and 10 o.m.

In tables, however, when some entries are given in	ARR	DEP
hours and minutes, add a colon and two ciphers to	8:45	9:10
exact hours to maintain a uniform appearance. (See	9:00	9:25
also ¶442 for the use of ciphers.)	9:50	10:00

d. Do not use a.m. or p.m. unless figures are used.

this morning (Not: this a.m.) tomorrow afternoon (Not: tomorrow p.m.)

e. Do not use a.m. or p.m. with o'clock.

6 o'clock or 6 p.m. ten o'clock or 10 a.m. (NOT: 6 p.m. o'clock) (NOT: 10 a.m. o'clock)

NOTE: The expression o'clock is more formal than a.m. or p.m.

f. Do not use a.m. or p.m. with the expressions in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening, or at night. The abbreviations themselves already convey one of these meanings.

at 9 p.m. or at nine in the evening (Not: at 9 p.m. in the evening)

g. Use a colon (without space before or after) to separate hours from minutes (as in 3:22).

h. The times noon and midnight may be expressed in words alone. However, use the forms 12 noon and 12 midnight when these times are given with other times expressed in figures.

The second shift ends at midnight.

BUT: The second shift runs from 4 p.m. to 12 midnight.

441 With O'Clock

a. With o'clock use figures for emphasis or words for formality.

3 o'clock (for emphasis) three o'clock (for formality)

b. To express hours and minutes with o'clock, use this style; half past four o'clock or half after four o'clock (but not four-thirty o'clock).

c. Expressions of time containing o'clock may be reinforced by such phrases as in the morning, in the afternoon, and the like.

10 o'clock at night seven o'clock in the morning

For quick comprehension, the forms 10 p.m. and 7 a.m. are preferable.

442 Without A.M., P.M., or O'Clock

When expressing time without a.m., p.m., or o'clock, either spell the time out or—for quick comprehension—convert the expression to an all-figure style.

arrive at eight on arrive at 8:00 five after six OR 6:05 a quarter past ten or 10:15 twenty of four or 3:40 a quarter to five or 4:45 half past nine or nine-thirty or 9:30 nine forty-two or 9:42

NOTE: A hyphen is used between hours and minutes (seven-thirty) but not if the minutes must be hyphenated (seven thirty-five).

The following paragraphs, ¶¶443-455, deal with situations in which numbers are always expressed in figures.

Decimals

443 Always write decimals in figures. Never insert commas in the decimal part of a number.

> 665.3184368 (no comma in decimal part of the number) 8,919.23785 (comma used in whole part of the number)

- See ¶461b for the metric style of writing decimals.
- 444 When a decimal stands alone (without a whole number preceding the decimal point), insert a cipher before the decimal point, (Reason; The cipher keeps the reader from overlooking the decimal point.)

EXCEPTIONS: a Colt .45; a .36 caliber revolver 0.55 inch 0.08 gram

- 445 Ordinarily, drop the cipher at the end of a decimal (for example, write 2.787 rather than 2.7870). However, retain the cipher (a) if you wish to emphasize that the decimal is an exact number or (b) if the decimal has been rounded off from a longer figure. In a column of numbers add ciphers to the end of a decimal in order to make the number as long as other numbers in the column.
- 446 Do not begin a sentence with a decimal figure.

The temperature reading at 8 a.m. was 63.7. (NOT: 63.7 was the temperature reading at 8 a.m.)

Percentages

447 Express percentages in figures, and spell out the word percent. (See \$\\$421-422\$ for percentages at the beginning of a sentence.)

They are willing to give us a discount of 15 percent.

We have had an 8 percent increase in sales this year. (NOT: 8-percent.)

Our terms are 2 percent 10 days, net 30 days. (These credit terms may be abbreviated as 2/10, n/30 on invoices and other business forms.)

NOTE: The % symbol may be used in tables, on business forms, and in statistical or technical matter.

448 a. Fractional percentages under 1 percent may be expressed as follows: one-half of 1 percent on 0.5 percent

NOTE: The cipher before the decimal point in 0.5 percent prevents misreading the amount as 5 percent.

b. Fractional percentages over 1 percent should be expressed in figures.

7½ percent or 7.5 percent 9¼ percent or 9.25 percent

449 In a range or series of percentages, the word percent follows the last figure only. The symbol %, if used, must follow each figure (see ¶447, note).

Price reductions range from 20 to 50 percent. (But: from 20% to 50%.) We give discounts of 10, 20, and 30 percent. (But: 10%, 20%, and 30%.)

• See ¶1506 for the use of % in a column of figures.

Ratios and Proportions

450 Always write ratios and proportions in figures.

a proportion of 5 to 1 or a 5-to-1 ratio or a 5:1 ratio the odds are 100 to 1 or a 100-to-1 shot 7 parts benzene to 3 parts water a 50-50 chance to recover

Scores and Voting Results

451 Use figures (even for 1 through 10) to express scores and voting results.

Numbers Referred to as Numbers

452 Always use figures to express numbers referred to as numbers.

pick a number from 1 to 10 divide by 3 the number 7 is considered lucky multiply by 1/4

Figures With Abbreviations and Symbols

453 Always use figures with abbreviations and symbols.

```
$25 90¢ 50% 9 a.m. 6:30 p.m. No. 985 6 in or 6" 50 km (see $537)
```

454 If a symbol is used in a range of numbers, it should be repeated with each number. A full word or an abbreviation used in place of the symbol is given only with the last number.

```
20°-30°C
                      BUT: 20 to 30 degrees Celsius (see ¶537, note)
5½" x 8"
                           5½ by 8 inches or 5½ x 8 in
9' x 12'
                           9 by 12 feet or 9 x 12 ft
30%-40%
                           30 to 40 percent
50€-60€
                          50 to 60 cents
$70-$80
                           seventy to eighty dollars
```

NOTE: A symbol should also be repeated when used with a series of numbers.

discounts of 5%, 10%, and 15% BUT: discounts of 5, 10, and 15 percent

No. or # With Figures

455 If the term number precedes a figure, express it as an abbreviation (singular: No.; plural: Nos.). At the beginning of a sentence, however, spell out Number to prevent misreading.

> Our check covers the following invoices: Nos. 8592, 8653, and 8654. Number 82175 has been assigned to your new policy.

a. If an identifying noun precedes the figure (such as Invoice, Check, Room, Box, or the like), the abbreviation No. is usually unnecessary.

Our check covers Invoices 8592, 8653, and 8654. EXCEPTIONS: License No. HLM 744; Social Security No. 169-35-8142; Patent No. 953.461

- **b.** The symbol # may be used on business forms (such as invoices) and in technical matter.
- See \$359 for the capitalization of nouns preceding figures.

^{\$\}frac{456-468}{456-468} deal with two technical aspects of style: treating numbers that

Adjacent Numbers

456 When two numbers come together in a sentence and both are in figures or both are in words, separate them with a comma.

In 1975, 440 employees received bonuses.

Out of ten, two were defective.

On page 31, 90 cents is incorrectly given as the price.

On Account 4613, \$18.60 is the amount still due.

NOTE: No comma is necessary when one number is in figures and the other is in words.

On March 3 eight cases of measles were reported.

457 When two numbers come together and one is part of a compound modifier (see §817), express one of the numbers in figures and the other in words. As a rule, spell the first number unless the second number would make a significantly shorter word.

> two 8-room houses sixty \$5 bills

вит: 500 four-page leaflets 150 five-dollar bills

Numbers in a Sequence

458 Use commas to separate numbers that do not represent a continuous sequence.

on pages 18, 20, and 28

data for the years 1972, 1976, and 1978

A hyphen may be used in place of the word to to link two figures that represent a continuous sequence. (Do not leave any space before or after the hyphen.)

on pages 18-28

in Articles I-III during the week of May 15-21 during the years 1975-1980

Do not use the hyphen if the sequence is introduced by the word from or between.

from 1975 to 1980 (NOT: from 1975-1980)

between 1977 and 1982 (Not: between 1977-1982)

460 In a continuous sequence of figures connected by hyphens, the second figure may be expressed in abbreviated form. This style is used for sequences of page numbers or years only when they occur quite frequently. (In isolated cases, do not abbreviate.)

> 1970-75 (or 1970-1975) 1901-2 (or 1901-1902)

pages 110-12 (or pages 110-112) pages 101-2 (or pages 101-102)

a. Do not abbreviate the second number when the first number ends in two zeros.

1900-1975

pages 100-101

b. Do not abbreviate the second number when it starts with different digits.

c. Do not abbreviate the second number when it is under 100.

46-48 A.D.

pages 46-48

Expressing Numbers in Figures

461 a. When numbers run to four or more figures, use commas to separate thousands, hundreds of thousands, millions, etc., in whole numbers.

147 300

\$11,275,478

4.300.000.000

вит: 70.650.37248

NOTE: A growing trend is to omit the comma in four-digit numbers unless these numbers occur together with larger numbers that require commas.

3 500 ов 3500

\$2,000 OR \$2000

b. In metric quantities use a space (not a comma) to separate digits into groups of three. Separate whole numbers and decimal fractions, counting from the decimal point.

12 945 181 (RATHER THAN 12,945,181)

0.594 31 (RATHER THAN 0.59431)

NOTE: When a four-digit number is used as a metric quantity, do not leave a space unless the number is used in a column with larger numbers.

5181 OR 5 181

0.3725 ов 0.372 5

Do not use commas in year numbers, page numbers, house or building numbers, room numbers, ZIP Code numbers, telephone numbers, heat units, and decimal parts of numbers.

> 8760 Sunset Drive page 1246 Room 1804

New York, New York 10021 (212) 997-2174

1500°C 13.664.9999

463 Serial numbers (for example, invoice, style, model, or lot numbers) are usually written without commas. However, some serial numbers are written with hyphens, spaces, or other devices. In all cases follow the style of the source.

> Invoice 38162 Model G-43348 Lot 75 23512

BUT: Social Security No. 152-22-8285 License No. SO14 785 053 Patent No. 222,341

- See ¶359 for the capitalization of nouns before numbers; see ¶455 for the use of No.
- **464** To form the plurals of figures, add s.

in the 1970s

temperatures in the 80s

Expressing Numbers in Words

465 When expressing numbers in words, hyphenate all compound numbers between 21 and 99 (or 21st and 99th), whether they stand alone or are part of a number over 100.

> twenty-one twenty-first

twenty-one hundred twenty-one hundredth

(Continued on page 104.)

Do not hyphenate other words in a spelled-out number over 100.

one hundred nineteen hundred two thousand three hundred thousand four million six hundred million twenty-three billion fifty-eight trillion

• See ¶362 for capitalization of hyphenated numbers.

- When spelling out round numbers, use the form twelve hundred rather than one thousand two hundred. (The longer form is rarely used except in formal expressions of dates; see ¶411 for examples.)
- **467** To form the plurals of spelled-out numbers, add s or es. (For numbers ending in *y*, change the *y* to *i* before es.)

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{ones} & \text{twos} & \text{threes} & \text{sixes} & \text{twenty-fives} \\ \text{thirds} & \text{sixths} & \text{eighths} & \text{twenties} & \text{thirty-seconds} \end{array}$

 For spelled-out dates, see ¶411; for spelled-out amounts of money, see ¶420; for spelled-out fractions, see ¶427.

Expressing Numbers in Roman Numerals

468 Roman numerals are used chiefly for the important divisions of literary and legislative material, for main topics in outlines, and in dates on public buildings. (For methods of forming roman numerals, consult the table below.)

> Chapter X Part It Volume I MCMLXXVII (1977)

NOTE: Pages in the front section of a book (such as the preface and table of contents) are usually numbered in small roman numerals; iii. iv. v. etc. Other pages are numbered in arabic numerals: 1, 2, 3, etc.

1	I	13	XIII	60	LX	900	CM
2	II	14	XIV	70	LXX	1000	M
3	III	15	XV	80	LXXX	1100	MC
4	lV	19	XIX	90	XC	1200	MCC
5	V	20	XX	100	C	1300	MCCC
6	VI	21	XXI	200	CC	1400	MCD
7	VII	24	XXtV	300	CCC	1500	MD
8	VIII	25	XXV	400	CD	1600	MDC
9	IX	29	XXtX	500	D	1700	MDCC
10	X	30	XXX	600	DC	1800	MDCCC
11	Xl	40	XL	700	DCC	1900	MCM
12	XII	50	L	800	DCCC	2000	MM

- Division at the end of a line; see ¶915.
- House, street, and ZIP Code numbers: see ¶¶1332-1333, 1339, 1341b.



ABBREVIATIONS

BASIC RULES

When to Use Abbreviations (¶¶501-505)
Punctuation and Spacing With Abbreviations (¶¶506-513)
Capitalization and Hyphenation (¶514)

SPECIAL RULES

Personal Names and Initials (¶¶515-516)

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Customary Measurements (¶535-536)

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Business Expressions (¶541-542)

Foreign Expressions (¶543)

Miscellaneous Expressions (¶¶544-547)

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Abbreviations 106

Basic Rules

When to Use Abbreviations

- An abbreviation is a shortened form of a word or phrase used primarily to save space. Abbreviations occur most frequently in technical writing, statistical matter, tables, and footnotes.
- 502 In business writing, abbreviations are appropriate in "expedient" documents (such as business forms, catalogs, and routine memos and letters between business offices), where the emphasis is on communicating data in the briefest form. In other kinds of business writing, where a more formal style is appropriate, use abbreviations sparingly. When in doubt, spell it out.
 - a. Some abbreviations are always acceptable, even in the most formal contexts: those that precede or follow personal names (such as Mr., Ms., Mrs., Ir., Sr., Esq., Ph.D., S.I.); those that are part of an organization's legal name (such as Co., Inc., Ltd.); those used in expressions of time (such as a.m., p.m., CST, EDT); and a few miscellaneous expressions (such as A.D., B.C., R.S.V.P.).
 - b. Organizations with long names are now commonly identified by their initials in all but the most formal writing (for example, IBM, AT&T, AFL-CIO, UNESCO, FBI, CBS).
 - c. Days of the week, names of the months, geographical names, and units of measure should be abbreviated only on business forms, in "expedient" correspondence, and in tables and lists where space is tight.
- **503** Be consistent within the same material; do not abbreviate a term in some sentences and spell it out in other sentences.

NOTE: When using an abbreviation that may not be familiar to the reader, spell out the full term along with the abbreviation when it is first used.

504 Consult a dictionary or an authoritative reference work for the acceptable forms of abbreviations. When a term may be abbreviated in several ways, choose the form that is shortest without sacrifice of clarity.

> Use cont, rather than contd. Use 2 lb rather than 2 lbs (see ¶621). 2 pounds: Enclosures 2: Use Enc. 2 rather than Encs. 2 or Encl. 2. second, third: Use 2d, 3d rather than 2nd, 3rd (see also \$425, note).

NOTE: Having selected one form of an abbreviation (say, a.m.), do not use a different style (A.M.) elsewhere in the same material.

Given a choice between an abbreviation or a contraction, choose the 505 abbreviation. It not only looks better but is easier to type.

> cont. (RATHER THAN; cont'd) govt. (RATHER THAN: gov't) dept. (RATHER THAN: dep't) mfg. (rather than: m'f'g)

NOTE: When a word or phrase is shortened by contraction, an apostrophe is inserted at the exact point where letters are omitted and no period follows the contraction except at the end of a sentence. (EXAMPLES: nat'l for national; doesn't for does not.) As a rule, contractions are used only in informal writing or in tabular matter where space is limited. However, contractions of verb phrases (such as can't and shouldn't) are commonly used in business letters where the writer is striving for an easy, colloquial tone. In formal writing, contractions are not used (except for o'clock, which is a more formal way to express time than a.m. or p.m.).

Punctuation and Spacing With Abbreviations

506 The abbreviation of a single word requires a period at the end.

Mr. Jr. Dr. cont. Nos. Mon. tnc. Co. mfg. pp.

NOTE: Units of measurement are now commonly written without periods. (See ¶535a, 538a.)

507 Small-letter abbreviations made up of single initials require a period after each initial but no space after each internal period.

a.m. e.g. f.o.b. a.k.a. But: rpm. ips (see \$535a)

508 All-capital abbreviations made up of single initials normally require no periods and no internal space.

> RCA ASME FTC NBC IQ UAW BPOE HEW WEEL FM

EXCEPTIONS: Retain the periods in abbreviations of geographical names (such as *U.S.A.*, *U.S.S.R.*), academic degrees (such as *B.A.*, *M.S.*), and a few miscellaneous expressions (such as *A.D.*, *B.C.*, *P.O.*, *R.S.V.P.*, and *V.P.*).

509 If an abbreviation stands for two or more words and consists of more than single initials, insert a period and a space after each element in the abbreviation.

N. Dak. Maj. Gen. Lt. Gov. op. cit. nol. pros.

EXCEPTIONS: Academic abbreviations such as *Ph.D.*, *Ed.D.*, *LL.B.*, and *Litt.D.*, are written with periods but no spaces. Units of measurement such as *sq ft* and *cu cm* are written with spaces but no periods.

510 A number of shortened forms of words are not abbreviations and should not be followed by periods.

memo ad photo info before the 3d stereo auto co-op math on the 14th

511 One space should follow an abbreviation within a sentence unless another mark of punctuation follows immediately.

Dr. Wilkins works in Washington, D.C., but his home is in Bethesda.

Please call tomorrow afternoon (before 5:30 p.m.).

Get PRV's approval before you send the letter. (See \$1638-639 for possessive forms of abbreviations.)

512 Two spaces should follow an abbreviation at the end of a statement.

The vase dates back to 400 B.C. (The period that marks the end of the abbreviation also marks the end of the sentence.)

513 No space should follow an abbreviation at the end of a question or an exclamation.

Can you see me tomorrow at 10:30 a.m.?

Capitalization and Hyphenation

514 Abbreviations usually follow the capitalization and hyphenation of the full words for which they stand.

Mon. Monday a.m. ante meridiem ft-lb foot-pound D.C. District of Columbia

EXCEPTIONS: PTA Parent-Teacher's Association A.D. anno Domini

NOTE: For abbreviations with two forms (COD or c.o.d.), see ¶542.

The following rules (¶515-547) offer guidance on specific types of abbreviations.

Special Rules

Personal Names and Initials

515 Use periods with abbreviations of first or middle names but not with nicknames.

Thos. las. Wm. Robt. Saml. Edw los. Beni. Tom Jim Bill Bob Sam Ben Ed loe

Note: Do not abbreviate first or middle names except (1) in a list where space is tight or (2) in a context where it is necessary to give a person's name exactly as he or she signs it. (See also ¶1322, note.)

516 a. Initials in a person's name should each be followed by a period and one space.

> John T. Noonan Mr. L. Bradford Anders J. T. Noonan & Co. L. B. Anders Inc. (see also ¶159)

b. When personal initials stand alone, type them preferably without periods or space. If periods are used, omit the internal space.

JTN OR J.T.N.

c. For names with prefixes, initials are formed as follows:

JDM (for John D. MacDonald) FGO (for Frances G. O'Brien)

d. Do not use a period when the initial is only a letter used in place of a real name. (See also ¶109a.)

I have selected three case studies involving a Ms. A, a Mr. B, and a Miss C. (Letters used in place of real names.)

BUT: Call Mrs. G. when you get a chance. (Here G. is an initial representing an actual name like Galanos.)

Abbreviations With Personal Names

517 a. Always abbreviate the following titles when they are used with personal names: Dr., Mr., Messrs. (plural of Mr. and pronounced messers), Mrs., Mme. (short for Madame), Ms. (pronounced mizz), and Mses. or Mss. (plural form of Ms.). The plural of Mme. may either be spelled out (Mesdames, pronounced may-dáhm) or abbreviated (Mmes.). The titles Miss and Misses are not abbreviations and should not be followed with periods.

Ms. Thelma Sandford has been promoted to senior programmer.

Dr. Galloway will be staying with Mr. and Mrs. Sachs. (See ¶519b for the use of Dr. with degrees.)

NOTE: The abbreviation Ms. is used (1) when a woman has indicated that she prefers this title, (2) when a woman's marital status is unknown, or (3) when a woman's marital status is considered not relevant to the situation. (See also \$\frac{1}{6}18\$, 1322b, 13666a.)

b. In general, spell out all other titles used with personal names.

Professor Joan Pulaski President William McGill Governor Byrne Senator Fong

c. Long military, religious, and honorable titles are spelled out in formal correspondence but may be abbreviated in informal correspondence.

Formal Informal

Major General George O. Young Lieutenant Commander Sylvia Heller Maj. Gen. George O. Young Lt. Comdr. Sylvia Heller

NOTE: Spell out Rev. and Hon. when preceded by the.

Formal

Informal

the Reverend Henry B. Niles the Honorable Bella Abzug Rev. Henry B. Niles Hon. Bella Abzug

- See ¶¶1322-1323 for the treatment of titles in addresses; ¶¶1347-1350 for the treatment of titles in salutations.
- 518 Always abbreviate Jr., Sr., and Esq. when they follow personal names. The terms 2d or II and 3d or III are not abbreviations and should not be used with periods.
 - a. The forms Jr. and Sr. should be used only with a full name, not with a surname alone. A title like Mr. or Dr. may precede the name.

Mr. Warren B. Kelly Jr.

NOT: Mr. Kelly Jr.

- See ¶156 for the use or omission of commas with Jr. and Sr.
- **b.** The form Esq. should also be used only with a full name, but no title should precede the name.

George W. LaBarr, Esq.

NOT: Mr. George W. LaBarr, Esq.

Academic Degrees and Religious Orders

519 Abbreviations of academic degrees and religious orders require a period after each element in the abbreviation but no internal space.

B.A.	Ph.D.	LL.B.	B.Ch.E.	M.D.	S.J.
M.S.	Ed.D.	Litt.D.	B.Arch.	D.D.S.	O.S.B.

a. Write CPA without periods when it is used alone but with periods when it is used together with other academic degrees.

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Joseph Fortunato, CPA
                              BUT: Joseph Fortunato, B.S., M.B.A., C.P.A.
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b. When academic degrees follow a person's name, do not use such titles as Dr., Mr., Ms., Miss, or Mrs, before the name.

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Dr. Helen Garcia OR Helen Garcia, M.D. (BUT NOT: Dr. Helen Garcia, M.D.)
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However, other titles may precede the name as long as they do not convey the same meaning as the degree that follows.

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Professor George Perrier, Ph.D.
                                the Reverend John Day, D.D.
President Grace Dillard, L.H.D.
                                or: the Reverend Dr. John Day
Dean Marion Konopka, J.S.D.
                                (BUT NOT: the Reverend Dr. John Day, D.D.)
```

- See also ¶¶1324c, 1324d, 1364a.
- c. Academic degrees standing alone may be abbreviated except in very formal writing.

```
I am now completing my Ph.D. thesis.
She received her M.A. degree last year.
or . . . her moster of arts degree last year. (See also ¶353.)
```

Names of Organizations

520 Names of well-known business organizations, labor unions, societies, and associations (trade, professional, charitable, and fraternal) are often abbreviated (except in the most formal writing). When these abbreviations consist of all-capital initials, they are typed without periods or spaces.

International Business Machines
American Telephone & Telegraph
American Federation of Labor and Congress of
Industrial Organizations
International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union
National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
Administrative Management Society
American Society of Composers, Authors, and Publishers
National Association of Manufacturers
Committee for Economic Development
Young Men's Christian Association
Independent Order of Odd Fellows

The following terms are often abbreviated in the names of business 521 organizations. However, follow the individual company's preference for abbreviating or spelling out.

Mfg. Manufacturing
Mfrs. Manufacturers

Co. Company
Corporation

Inc. Incorporated
Ltd. Limited

Bro. Brother

Cie Company (from the French Compagnie)

Bros. Brothers N.V. Limited (from the Dutch Naamloze Vennootschap)

Acronyms

522 An acronym—for example, COBOL—is a shortened form derived from the initial letters of the words that make up the complete form. Thus COBOL is derived from <u>CO</u>mmon <u>Business-Oriented Language</u>. Like all-capital abbreviations such as IBM and NAM, acronyms are usually written in all capitals and without periods; however, unlike those abbreviations, which are pronounced letter by letter, acronyms are pronounced like words. Because they have been deliberately coined to replace the longer expressions they represent, acronyms are appropriate for use on all occasions.

NOW National Organization for Women

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

PERT program evaluation and review technique

ZIP (Code) Zone Improvement Plan

PUSH People United to Save Humanity SALT strategic arms limitation talks

NOTE: Some coined names use more than the first letters of the words they represent. Such names are usually written with only the first letter capitalized.

Nabisco Aramco Amtrak

Names of Broadcasting Stations and Systems

523 The names of radio and television broadcasting stations and the abbreviated names of broadcasting systems are written in capitals without periods and without spaces.

Station KFRC Station WPIX-Channel 11
Station WQXR-FM Station WCBS-TV
ABC reporters NBC officials

Names of Government and International Agencies

524 The names of well-known government and international agencies are often abbreviated. They are written without periods or spaces.

FCC Federal Communications SEC Securities and Exchange Commission Commission
UN United Nations ITO International Trade Organization

The name United States is usually abbreviated when it is part of the name of a government agency. When used as an adjective, the name is often abbreviated, though not in formal usage. When used as a noun, the name is always spelled out.

OR USOE U.S. Office of Education USDA U.S. Department of Agriculture USAF U.S. Air Force

the U.S. government the United States government U.S. foreign policy United States foreign policy

throughout the United States (NOT: throughout the U.S.)

Geographical Names

- 526 Do not abbreviate geographical names except in tables, business forms, and "expedient" correspondence (see ¶502). EXCEPTION: U.S.S.R. is often used in place of the full name, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.
- 527 When abbreviating state names in addresses, use the two-letter abbreviations (without periods) shown in ¶1341. In all other situations, use the following abbreviations (with periods and spacing as shown).

Mo. Missouri Alabama Ala. Montana Mont. Alaska Nebr. Nebraska Ariz. Arizona Nev. Nevada Ark. Arkansas New Hampshire N.H. Calif. California C.Z. New Jersey Canal Zone N. Mex. New Mexico Colo. Colorado N.Y. New York Connecticut Conn. North Carolina N.C. Del. Delaware N. Dak. North Dakota District of D.C. Ohio Columbia Okla. Oklahoma Fla. Florida Oreg. Oregon Ga. Georgia Pennsylvania Pa. Guam P.R. Puerto Rico Hawaii Rhode Island R.I. Idaho South Carolina S.C. 111. Illinois S. Dak. South Dakota Indiana Ind. Tennessee Tenn. Iowa Texas Tex. Kans. Kansas Utah Kentucky Kv. Vt. Vermont La. Louisiana V.I. Virgin Islands Maine Va. Virginia Maryland Md. Wash. Washington Massachusetts Mass. W. Va. West Virginia Mich. Michigan Wis. Wisconsin Minn. Minnesota Wyo. Wyoming Miss. Mississippi

NOTE: Alaska, Guam, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Maine, Ohio, and Utah are not abbreviated.

- See ¶1334-1337, 1340-1341, 1343-1344 for the abbreviation or the spelling out of names of streets, cities, states, and countries.
- 528 Geographical abbreviations made up of single initials require a period after each initial but no space after each internal period.

B.W.I. S.A. H.A.R. H.S.S.R. ILS.A.

If the geographical abbreviation contains more than single initials, space once after each internal period.

N. Dak. W. Va. W. Aust. N. Mex.

Compass Points

529 Spell out compass points included in street names; for example, East 123

The company has large landholdings in the Southwest.

We purchased a lot at the southwest corner of Green and Union Streets.

- See ¶¶338-341 for the capitalization of compass points.
- 530 Spell out compass points included in street names; for example, East 123 Street. (See also \$1334.) However, abbreviate compass points (with periods but no internal space) when they are used following a street name to indicate the section of the city.

1895 North 179 Street, N.W.

531 In technical material (real estate, legal, nautical), abbreviate compass points but omit the periods.

> S south SW southwest SSW south-southwest

Days and Months

532 Do not abbreviate names of days of the week and months of the year except in tables or lists where space is limited. In such cases the following abbreviations may be used:

Sun.	Thurs., Thu.	Jan.	May	Sept., Sep.
Mon.	Fri.	Feb.	June, Jun.	Oct.
Tues., Tue.	Sat.	Mar.	July, Jul.	Nov.
Wed.		Apr.	Aug.	Dec.

NOTE: When space is extremely tight, the following one- and two-letter abbreviations may be used.

Su M Tu W Th F Sa Ja F Mr Ap My Je Il Au S O N D

Time and Time Zones

- 533 Use the abbreviations a.m. and p.m. in expressions of time (see ¶440). Small letters are preferred for these abbreviations. For more formal expressions of time, use o'clock (see ¶441).
- 534 The standard time zones are abbreviated as follows: EST, CST, MST, and PST. When daylight saving prevails, the following forms are used:

DST (daylight saving time) or EDT (Eastern daylight time) CDT (Central daylight time) MDT (Mountain daylight time) PDT (Pacific daylight time)

See ¶440a for examples.

Customary Measurements

- Abbreviate units of measure when they occur frequently, as in technical and scientific work, on invoices and other business forms, and in tables.
 - a. Units of measure are now commonly abbreviated without periods.

rpm (revolutions per minute) yd (yard, yards) oz (ounce, ounces) ips (inches per second) gal (gallon, gallons) mpg (miles per gallon) lb (pound, pounds) mph (miles per hour)

NOTE: Even the abbreviation in (for inch or inches) may be written without a period so long as it is not likely to be confused with the preposition in.

8 ft 2 in 8 in or 8 in. BUT: 8 sq in

b. In a range of numbers, an abbreviation is given only with the last number: a symbol is repeated with each number. (See also ¶454.)

a room 10 ft 6 in x 19 ft 10 in 35° to 45°F or; a room 10' 6" x 19' 10" (see ¶432) or: 35°-45°F

536 In nontechnical writing, spell out units of measure.

a 20-gallon container a 20-degree drop in temperature 8½ by 11 inches a 150-acre estate

an 8½- by 11-inch book (see ¶817) 14 vards of cotton

Metric Measurements

The following rules of style are based on the Metric Editorial Guide, published in January 1978 by the American National Metric Council (Washington, D.C.). For a full listing of metric terms and for the proper pronunciation of these terms, consult a dictionary.

The most common metric measurements are derived from three basic 537 units and several prefixes indicating multiples or fractions of a unit, as shown below. The abbreviations for these terms are given in parentheses.

Basic Units

meter (m) One meter is 10 percent longer than a yard (39.37 inches).

A thousand grams (a kilogram) is 10 percent heavier than 2 pounds gram (g) (2.2 pounds).

A liter is about 5 percent bigger than a quart (1.057 quarts). liter (L)

Prefixes Indicating Fractions*

deci (d) A decimeter (dm) equals 1/10 meter. 1/10 centi (c) 1/100 A centigram (cg) equals 1/100 gram. 1/1000 A milliliter (mL) equals 1/1000 liter. milli (m)

Prefixes Indicating Multiples*

deka (da) 10 A dekameter (dam) equals 10 meters (about 11 yards). A hectogram (hg) equals 100 grams (about 3½ ounces). hecto (h) 100 kilo (k) 1000 A kilometer (km) equals 1000 meters (about 5/8 mile).

^{*}Accent the first syllable of every prefix. For example, kilometer is pronounced kill-oh-meter (NOT kil-lom-eter).

NOTE: Temperatures are expressed in terms of degrees on the Celsius scale (abbreviated C).

Water freezes at 0°C (32°F) and boils at 100°C (212°F).

With a temperature of 37°C (98.6°F), you can't be very sick.

The temperature here on the island stays between 20° and 30°C (68° and 86°F). (See also \$535a, note.)

- See '461b for the use of spaces in figures expressing metric quantities.
- 538 Metric units of measurement, like the customary units of measurement described in \$535, are abbreviated in technical and scientific work, on business forms, and in tables. In nontechnical writing, metric units are ordinarily spelled out, but some expressions are abbreviated (for example, 35-mm film).
 - a. Abbreviations of metric units of measurement are written without periods except at the end of a sentence.

100-mm cigarettes (10 centimeters or about 4 inches)

a 30-cm width (about 12 inches or 1 foot)

a 1000-km trip (620 miles)

weighs 100 kg (about 220 pounds)

50 to 75 kg (about 110 to 165 pounds) feels like 10°C weather (50°F weather)

NOTE: In abbreviations of expressions like kilometers per hour, a diagonal is used to express per.

an 80 km h speed limit (50 miles per hour)

b. Metric abbreviations are the same for the singular and the plural.

```
5 kg (5 kilograms)
1 kg (1 kilogram)
```

c. When expressing temperatures, leave no space between the number and the degree symbol or between the degree symbol and the abbreviation for Celsius.

```
14°C (NOT: 14°C)
```

d. In printed material, metric measurements for area and volume are usually expressed with raised numbers.

```
m<sup>2</sup> square meter
                           cm3 cubic centimeter
```

In typewritten material, these measurements may be expressed as shown above or in another form (to avoid typing raised numbers).

```
cu cm cubic centimeter
sq m square meter
```

NOTE: The forms sq m and cu cm are also recommended in typewritten material which uses raised numbers for footnote references.

Chemical and Mathematical Expressions

539 Do not use a period after the symbols that represent chemical elements and formulas.

```
NaCl (sodium chloride—table salt)
K (potassium)
                     H<sub>o</sub>O (water)
```

540 Do not use a period after such mathematical abbreviations as log (for logarithm) and tan (for tangent).

Business Expressions

A number of terms are commonly abbreviated on business forms, in tables, and in routine business correspondence. 541

(a)	at	ft.	foot, feet
acct.	account	ft-tn	foot-ton(s)
addl.	additional	fwd.	forward
a.k.a.	also known as	FYI	for your information
amt.	amount	g	gram(s)
ASAP	as soon as possible	gal	gallon(s)
astd.	assorted	gr.	gross
Attn.	Attention	gr. wt.	gross weight
avg.	average	hdlg.	handling
bal.	balance	hdqrs.	headquarters
bbl	barrel(s)	hr.	hour(s)
bl	bale(s)	in or in.	inch(es) (see ¶535a, note)
B/L .	bill of lading	Inc.	Incorporated
bldg.	building	ins.	insurance
B/S	bill of sale	inv.	invoice
bu	bushel(s)	ips	inches per second
C	100; Celsius (temperature)	kg	kilogram(s)
cg.	centigram(s)	km	kilometer(s)
chg.	charge	km/h	kilometers per hour
C.i.f. or	cost, insurance, and	L	liter(s) (see ¶538c)
CIF	freight (see ¶542)	l., II.	line, lines
cm	centimeter(s)	lb	pound(s)
Co.	Company	l.c.l. or	less-than-carload lot
c/o	care of	LCL	(see ¶542)
c.o.d. or		Ltd.	Limited
COD	cash (or collect) on delivery (see ¶542)	m	meter(s)
cont.	continued .	M	1,000
		max.	maximum
Corp.	Corporation	mdse.	merchandise
cr.	credit		
ctg. ctn.	cartage	mfg.	manufacturing
	carton	mg	milligram(s)
cwt.	hundredweight	mgr.	manager
dept.	department	min	minute(s)
dis.	discount	min.	minimum
distr.	distributor, distribution,	misc.	miscellaneous
45	distributed	mL	milliliter(s)
div.	division	mm	millimeter(s)
doz	dozen	mo	month(s)
dr.	debit	MO	mail order, money order
dstn.	destination	mph	miles per hour
dtd.	dated	n/30	net in 30 days
ea.	each	NA	not applicable, not available
e.o.m. or	end of month (see ¶542)	No.	number (see ¶455)
EOM		nt. wt.	net weight
Esq.	Esquire	opt.	optional
ETA	estimated time of arrival	OS	out of stock
F	Fahrenheit (temperature)	oz	ounce(s)
f.a.s. or	free alongside ship	p., pp.	page, pages
FAS	(see ¶542)	pd.	paid
f.o.b. or	free on board (see ¶542)	pkg.	package(s)
FOB		PO	purchase order

P.O. p.o.e. or POE	post office port of entry (see ¶542)	reg. req. rm	registered requisition ream(s)
PP ppd.	parcel post postpaid, prepaid (post- age paid in advance)	rpm 'S,	revolutions per minute signed (before a copied signature)
pr. PS, PS. pstg. pt pt.	pair(s) postscript postage pint(s) part, point(s).	shtg. SO std. stge. stmt. V.P.	shortage shipping order standard storage statement vice president
qr qt qtr. qty. recd.	port quire(s) quart(s) quarter(ly) quantity received	v.P. wt. yd yr #	weight yard(s) year(s) number (before a figure); pounds (after a figure)

542 A few common business abbreviations listed in \$541 above are often typed in small letters (with periods) when they occur within sentences but are typed in all-capital letters (without periods) when they appear on invoices or other business forms.

> l.c.l. OR LCL eom. or EOM c.i.f. OR CIF f.o.b. or FOB p.o.e. or POE c.o.d. OR COD

Foreign Expressions

ad hoc

543 Many foreign expressions contain short words, some of which are abbreviations and some of which are not. Use periods only with abbreviations.

(meaning "for a particular purpose")

```
(ad valorem, meaning "according to the value")
ad val.
                (circa, meaning "approximately")
c. or ca.
cf
                (confer, meaning "compare")
                (exempli gratia, meaning "for example")
e.g.
                (et alii, meaning "and other people")
et al.
                 (et cetera, meaning "and other things," "and so forth")
etc.
                 (ibidem, meaning "in the same place")
ibid
                 (meaning "the same")
idem
                 (id est, meaning "that is")
i e
infra
                 (meaning "below")
                 (loco citato, meaning "in the place cited")
loc. cit.
                 (note bene, meaning "note well")
N.B.
                 (nolle prosequi, meaning "to be unwilling to prosecute")
nol. pros.
                 (non sequitur, meaning "it does not follow")
(opere citato, meaning "in the work cited")
non seq.
op. cit.
                 (pro tempore, meaning "for the time being")
pro tem.
                 (proximo, meaning "in the next month")
ргох.
                 (quod erat demonstrandum, meaning "which was to be dem-
Q.E.D.
                   onstrated")
                 (quod vide, meaning "which see")
q.v.
                 (meaning "in the matter of," "concerning")
re or in re
                 (Répondez s'il vous plaît, meaning "please reply")
R.S.V.P.
                 (meaning "above")
supra
                 (ultimo, meaning "in the last month")
ult.
                 (videlicet, meaning "namely")
viz.
```

Miscellaneous Expressions

The following list of expressions presents common abbreviations acceptable in general (but not formal) usage.

AV audiovisual a list of AV materials ESP extrasensory perception their sales manager must have ESP FIFO first in, first out the FIFO system of cost accounting GNP gross national product the GNP for the fourth quarter ID identification data show your ID card IO intelligence quotient take an IQ test use the LIFO method for costs LIFO last in, first out PA public address a problem with our PA system PERT program evaluation draw up a PERT chart and review technique P.O. post office send it to P.O. Box 315 public relations PR need to work on your PR campaign R&D research and development need a bigger R&D budget SRO standing room only an SRO audience at our presentation TLC tender, loving care give this customer some TLC TV television watch for it on TV UFO unidentified flying took off like a UFO object VIP very important person treat these dealers like VIPs

545 Do not use periods with capitalized letters that are not abbreviations.

IOH Brand X SOS T-shirt I beam X rav

- The abbreviation OK is written without periods. In sentences, the forms 546 okay, okayed, and okaying look better than OK, OK'd, and OK'ing, but the latter forms can be used.
 - The dictionary recognizes x as a verb; however, cross out, crossed out, and crossing out look better than x out, x-ed out, and x-ing out.
 - Plurals of abbreviations: see ¶620-624.
 - Possessives of abbreviations: see \$\\$638-649.

PLURALS AND POSSESSIVES

FORMING PLURALS

Basic Rule (9601)

Nouns Ending in S, X, CH, SH, or Z (\$\infty\$602-603)

Nouns Ending in Y (¶604-605)

Nouns Ending in O (99606-607)

Nouns Ending in F, FE, or FF (9608)

Nouns With Irregular Plurals (¶¶609-610)

Compound Nouns (¶611-613)

Foreign Nouns (9614)

Proper Names (¶615-617)

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Forming Plurals

When you are uncertain about the plural form of a word, consult the dictionary. If no plural is shown, form the plural according to the rules in ¶¶601-605.

Basic Rule

601 Plurals are regularly formed by adding s to the singular form.

park	parks	employee	employees
price	prices	taxi	taxis
area	areas	menu	menus

Nouns Ending in S, X, CH, SH, or Z

602 When the singular form ends in s, x, ch, sh, or z, the plural is formed by adding es to the singular.

lens	lenses	church	churches
business	businesses	crash	crashes
annex	annexes	quartz	quartzes

603 Singular nouns ending in silent s do not change their forms in the plural.

one chassis two chassis one corps two corps

Nouns Ending in Y

604 When a singular noun ends in y preceded by a consonant, the plural is formed by changing the y to i and adding es to the singular.

```
company
           companies
                               category
                                           categories
vacancy
            vacancies
                              authority
                                           authorities
```

605 When a singular noun ends in y preceded by a vowel, the plural is formed by adding s to the singular.

> attorney attorneys EXCEPTION: soliloquiv soliloquies

Nouns Ending in O

606 Singular nouns ending in o preceded by a vowel form their plurals by adding s to the singular.

```
studio
         studios
                              duo
                                       duos
cameo
        cameos
                              tattoo
                                      tattoos
```

- 607 Singular nouns ending in o preceded by a consonant form their plurals differently.
 - a. Some nouns in this category simply add s.

pianos memos piano memo

b. Some add es.

hero potato potatoes heroes c. Some have two plural forms. (The preferred form is given first.)

```
cargo cargoes, cargos
                              zero
                                      zeros, zeroes
```

See \$614 for foreign nouns ending in o.

Nouns Ending in F. FE, or FF

a. Most singular nouns that end in f, fe, or ff form their plurals by adding 608 s to the singular form.

```
brief
          briefs
          proofs
                                     tariff
                                                tariffs
proof
```

b. Some commonly used nouns in this category form their plurals by changing the f or fe to ve and adding s.

half	halves	shelf	shelves
wife	wives	knife	knives
leaf	leaves	life	lives

c. A few of these nouns have two plural forms. (The preferred form is given first.)

```
scarf
      scarves scarfs
                             dwarf
                                      dwarfs, dwarves
```

Nouns With Irregular Plurals

609 The plurals of some nouns are formed by a change of letters within.

woman	women	foot	feet
mouse	mice	goose	geese

610 A few plurals end in en.

```
child
                                        children
brother
           brethren (an alternative plural to brothers)
```

Compound Nouns

When a compound noun is a solid word, pluralize the final element in the compound as if it stood alone.

courthouse	courthouses	stepchild	stepchildren
hatbox	hatboxes	forefoot	forefeet
strawberry	strawberries	toothbrush	toothbrushes
bookshelf	bookshelves	mousetran	

```
exception: passerby passersby
```

612 The plurals of hyphenated or spaced compounds are formed by pluralizing the chief element of the compound.

_		-	
brother-in-law sengtor-elect	brothers-in-law senators-elect	bill of lading editor in chief	bills of lading editors in chief
looker-on	lookers-on	runner-up	runners-up

account receivable accounts receivable deputy chiefs of staff deputy chief of staff brigadier generals brigadier general

a. When a hyphenated compound does not contain a noun as one of its elements, simply pluralize the final element.

go-between go-betweens tie-in tie-ins write-up write-ups hand-me-down hand-me-downs also-ron also-rons gel-together gel-togethers

b. Some of these compounds have two recognized plural forms. (The first plural form shown below is preferred because it adds the plural sign to the chief element of the compound.)

court-martial courts-martial, court-martials
notary public notaries public, notary publics
attorney general attorney general, attorney generals

613 The plurals of compounds ending in ful are formed by adding s.

armful armfuls handful handfuls cupful cupfuls teaspoonful teaspoonfuls

Compare the difference in meaning in these phrases:

six cupfuls of sugar (a quantity of sugar that would fill one cup six times) six cups full of sugar (six separate cups, each filled with sugar)

Foreign Nouns

* Preferred form.

- 614 Many nouns of foreign origin retain their foreign plurals, others have been given English plurals, and still others have two plurals—an English and a foreign one. When two plural forms exist, one may be preferred to the other or there may be differences in meaning that govern the use of each. Consult your dictionary to be sure of the plural forms and the meanings attached to them.
 - See ¶1018 for agreement of foreign-plural subjects with verbs.

	WORDS ENDING IN US	S
Singular alumnus	English Plural	Foreign Plural alumni
campus	campuses	
census	censuses	
nucleus	nucleuses	nuclei*
prospectus	prospectuses	
radius	radiuses	radii*
status	statuses	
stimulus		stimuli
stylus	styluses	styli*
syllabus	syllabuses	syllabi*
	WORDS ENDING IN A	1
Singular agenda	English Plural agendas	Foreign Plural
alumna	agonado	alumnae
antenna	antennas (of radios)	antennae (of insects)
formula	formulas*	formulae
minutia	TOTHIGIGO	minutiae
minutia		***************************************

WORDS ENDING IN UM

Singular English Plural Foreign Plural addendum hacterium bacteria

curriculum curriculums curricula* datum datums data* (see \$1018)

erratum errata medium mediums

media (for advertising and communication) memorandum memorandums* memoranda

WORDS ENDING IN IX OR EX

Singular English Plural Foreign Plural appendix appendixes* appendices index indexes (of books) indices (math symbols)

matrix matrixes matrices*

WORDS ENDING IN IS

Singular **English Plural** Foreign Plural analysis analyses axis basis bases

crisis crises diagnosis diagnoses hypothesis hypotheses parenthesis parentheses synopsis synopses synthesis syntheses thesis theses

WORDS ENDING IN O

Singular English Plural Foreign Plural graffito graffiti libretto librettos* libretti

virtuoso virtuosos* virtuosi

WORDS ENDING IN ON

Singular English Plural Foreign Plural criterion criterions criteria* phenomenon phenomenons phenomena*

WORDS ENDING IN EAU

Singular English Plural Foreign Plural bureau bureaus* bureaux plateau plateaus* plateaux trousseau trousseaus trousseaux*

NOTE: The x ending for these foreign plurals is pronounced like z.

Proper Names

615 a. Most surnames are pluralized by the addition of s.

> Mr. and Mrs. Brinton the Brintons Mr. and Mrs. Romano the Romanos

^{*} Preferred form.

b. When a surname ends in s, x, ch, sh, or z, add es to form the plural.

Mr. and Mrs. Banks the Bankses Mr. and Mrs. Van Ness the Van Nesses Mr. and Mrs. Maddox the Maddoxes Mr. and Mrs. March the Marches Mr. and Mrs. Welsh the Welshes Mr. and Mrs. Katz the Katzes Mr. and Mrs. Jones the Ioneses Mr. and Mrs. James the Jameses Mr. and Mrs. Barnes the Barneses

NOTE: If the addition of es would make the plural surname awkward to pronounce, omit the es.

the Hodges (NOT: Hodgeses) the Hastings (Not: Hastingses)

c. Never change the original spelling of a surname when forming the plural. Simply add s or es, according to a and b above.

Mr. and Mrs. McCarthy the McCarthys (Not: McCarthies) Mr. and Mrs. Wolf the Wolfs (Nor: Wolves) Mr. and Mrs. Martino the Martinos (Not: Martinoes) Mr. and Mrs. Goodman the Goodmans (Not: Goodmen)

d. When a surname is followed by Jr., Sr., or a number like 2d or II, the plural can be formed two ways:

ORDINARY USAGE: the Roy Van Allen Irs. the Ellsworth Hadley 3ds FORMAL USAGE: the Roy Van Allens Jr. the Ellsworth Hadleys 3d

616 To form the plurals of first names, add s or es but do not change the original spellings.

> Marie Maries Mary Marys Thomas Thomases Max Maxes Charles Charleses Otto Ottos

617 To form the plural of other proper names, add s or es but do not change the original spelling.

> the Russians the Dakotas

Marches the two Kansas Citys (NOT: Cities)

EXCEPTIONS:

the Alleghenies (for Allegheny Mountains)

the Rockies (for Rocky Mountains)

Personal Titles

618 The plural of Mr. is Messrs.; the plural of Ms. is Mses. or Mss.; the plural of Mrs. or Mme. is Mmes.; the plural of Miss is Misses (no period follows).

Messrs. Strehle and Vlasek have been appointed to the Finance Committee. Mmes. DeGrasse and Hansen will handle all the arrangements for the luncheon. Misses Eleanor Rustin and Frances Mendoza will arrange for transportation.

NOTE: If the use of plural titles seems too formal or stilted for the situation, simply retain the singular form and repeat it with each name.

Ms. Jane Covello and Ms. Angela Byrd will handle publicity.

619 When personal titles apply to two or more people with the same surname. the plural may be formed in two ways: (a) pluralize only the title (formal usage); (b) pluralize only the surname (ordinary usage).

Formal Usage

the Messrs. Thomas

the Mmes. (on Mesdames) Bergeret

the Misses Corby

the Mses. (or Mss.) Hathaway

Ordinary Usage

the Mr. Thomases the Mrs. Bergerets

the Miss Corbys

the Ms. Hathaways

Abbreviations, Letters, Numbers, and Words

620 The plurals of most abbreviations are formed by adding s to the singular.

dept. depts. vols. vol. engr. engrs. No. Nos Dr. Drs.

Bro. Bros.

a. The abbreviations of many customary units of weight and measure, 621 however, are the same in both the singular and plural.

> oz (ounce or ounces) deg (degree on degrees) bbl (barrel or barrels)

ft (foot or feet) in (inch or inches) mi (mile on miles)

NOTE: For a number of these abbreviations, two plural forms have been widely used: for example, lb or lbs (meaning "pounds"), yd or yds (meaning "yards"), qt or qts (meaning "quarts"). However, the trend is toward using lb, yd, and qt to signify the plural.

b. The abbreviations of metric units of weight and measure are the same in both the singular and plural. (See also ¶537-538.)

km (kilometer or kilometers) mL (milliliter or milliliters)

cg (centigram or centigrams) dam (dekameter on dekameters)

622 The plurals of a few single-letter abbreviations (such as p. for page and f. for the following page) consist of the same letter doubled.

p. 39 (page 39)

pp. 39-43 (pages 39 through 43)

pp. 12 f. (page 12 and the following page) pp. 12 ff. (page 12 and the following pages)

623 Capital letters and abbreviations ending with capital letters are pluralized by adding s alone.

four Cs

IOs **PTAs** M.D.s

three Rs

YWCAs

Ph.D.s

NOTE: Some authorities still sanction the use of an apostrophe before the s (for example, four C's, PTA's). However, the apostrophe is functionally unnecessary except where confusion might otherwise result.

three A's

too many I's

two U's on his report card

624 For the sake of clarity, uncapitalized letters and uncapitalized abbreviations with internal periods are pluralized by adding an apostrophe plus s.

dotting the i's

counting the c.o.d.'s

p's and q's

(See, however, ¶623, note.) temperature in the 40s sort these 1040s and W-2s.

in the 1980s

Numbers expressed in words are pluralized by the addition of s or es.

twenties ones twos sixes twenty-fives

626 a. When words taken from other parts of speech are used as nouns, they are usually pluralized by the addition of s or es.

> ands, ifs, and buts pros and cons dos and don'ts whys and wherefores veses and noes veas and navs the haves and the have-nots the ins and outs

b. If the pluralized form is unfamiliar or is likely to be misread, use an apostrophe plus s to form the plural.

which's and that's or's and nor's

If the singular form already contains an apostrophe, simply adds to form the plural.

doesn'ts don'ts ain'ts

See \$285 for the underscoring of words referred to as words.

Forming Possessives

Possession Versus Description

627 An s-ending noun is usually in the possessive form if it is followed immediately by another noun.

the employee's record (meaning the record of the employee)

Saunders' merchandise (meaning the merchandise of the Saunders store)

Thackeray's novels (meaning novels written by Thackeray)

To be sure that the possessive form should be used, try substituting an of phrase or a by phrase as in the examples above. If the substitution works, the possessive form is correct.

628 Do not mistake a descriptive form ending in s for a possessive form.

sales effort (sales describes the kind of effort) savings account (savings describes the kind of account)

- See ¶640 for descriptive and possessive forms in organizational names.
- 629 In a number of cases, only a slight difference in wording distinguishes a descriptive phrase from a possessive phrase.

Descriptive

a two-week vacation the New Iersev sales tax the Hess estate

the Wilson house

Possessive

a two weeks' vacation

New Jersey's sales tax Hess's estate the Wilsons' house

OR Mr. and Mrs. Wilson's house

Singular Nouns

- To form the possessive of a singular noun not ending in an s sound, add 630 an apostrophe plus s to the noun.
 - Mr. and Mrs. Fenton's claim a person's self-respect

Sylvia's promotion a master's degree Arkansas's tourist industry

the corps's morale

- To form the possessive of a singular noun that ends in an s sound, be 631 guided by the way the word is pronounced.
 - a. If a new syllable is formed in the pronunciation of the possessive, add an apostrophe plus s.

my boss's calendar Mr. and Mrs. Harris's apartment

the witness's testimony Ms. Hertz's book Miss Marx's memo an actress's entrance

b. If the addition of an extra syllable would make an s-ending word hard to pronounce, add the apostrophe only.

for goodness' sake Miss Hastings' order lesus' teachings Mr. Phillips' pen Moses' journey Simmons' factory

CAUTION: In forming the possessive of any noun ending in s, always place the apostrophe at the end of the original word, never within it.

Mr. Hodges' message (Not: Mr. Hodge's message)

Plural Nouns

632 For a regular plural noun (one that ends in s), add only an apostrophe to form the plural possessive. (See \$\frac{9}{639} - 640 for the use of the apostrophe in organizational names.)

> students' marks attorneys' offices

the witnesses' testimonies the companies' joint assets the United States' concern the Ioneses' contributions

NOTE: Since the singular and plural possessives for the same word usually sound exactly alike, pay particularly close attention to the meaning in order to determine whether the noun in question is singular or plural.

A student's marks should be considered along with other factors.

BUT: Students' marks must be submitted by Friday.

We have been invited to Mr. and Mrs. Jones's home.

BUT: We have been invited to the Ioneses' home.

For an irregular plural noun (one that does not end in s), add an apostro-633 phe plus s to form the plural possessive.

> men's suits children's shoes

IMPORTANT NOTE: To avoid mistakes in forming the possessive of plural nouns, form the plural first; then apply the rule in \$632 or \$633, whichever fits.

Singular Plural Plural Possessive boy boys (regular) boys' boss bosses (regular) bosses' Mr. and Mrs. Fox the Foxes (regular) the Foxes' child children (irregular) children's alumnus alumni (irregular) alumni's son-in-law sons-in-law (irregular) sons-in-law's

Compound Nouns

634 To form the singular possessive of a compound noun (whether solid, spaced, or hyphenated), add an apostrophe plus s to the last element of the compound.

my mother-in-law's will my stockbroker's advice the secretary-treasurer's report the attorney general's power

635 To form the plural possessive of a compound noun, first form the plural.

a. If the plural form ends in s, add only an apostrophe.

 Singular
 Plural
 Plural Possessive

 stockholder
 stockholders
 stockholders'

 vice president
 vice presidents
 vice presidents'

 clerk-typist
 clerk-typists
 clerk-typists'

b. If the plural form does not end in s, add an apostrophe plus s.

Singular salesclerks salesclerks' salesclerks' editor in chief brother-in-law brothers-in-law brothers-in-law's

NOTE: To avoid the awkwardness of a plural possessive such as editors in chief's or brothers-in-law's, rephrase the sentence.

AWKWARD: Mr. Ahmed's statement agrees with both attorneys general's views.
BETTER: Mr. Ahmed's statement agrees with the views of both attorneys general.

Pronouns

636 The possessive forms of personal pronouns and of the relative pronoun who do not require the apostrophe. These pronouns have their own special possessive forms.

I: my, mine she: her, hers they: their, theirs you: your, yours it: its who: whose

he: his we: our, ours

My copy of the letter arrived last week, so she should have received hers by now. (NOT: her's.)

Each unit comes carefully packed in its own carton. (NOT: it's.)

CAUTION: Do not confuse personal possessive pronouns with similarly spelled contractions. (See ¶1056d for examples.)

637 Some indefinite pronouns have regular possessive forms.

one's choice the other's claim the others' claim one another's time each other's claim

anybody's guess no one's responsibility someone's chance For those indefinite pronouns that do not have possessive forms, use an of phrase.

Although children in this group seem very much alike, the needs of each are different. (Nor: each's needs.)

Abbreviations

638 To form the singular possessive of an abbreviation, add an apostrophe plus s. To form the plural possessive, add an s plus an apostrophe to the singular form. (See also \$639.)

Mr. C.'s opinion the M.D.s' diagnoses the CPA's audit the FCC's ruling the Ph.D.s' theses the CPAs' meeting

Personal and Organizational Names

639 To form the possessive of a personal or organizational name that ends with an abbreviation, a number, or a prepositional phrase, add an apostrophe plus s at the end of the complete name.

the A. & V. Co.'s ad Henry Ford II's announcement George Thompson Inc.'s stationery Mr. John Smith Jr.'s new house the Knights of Columbus's drive BUT: the George Herrick Irs.' estate

- See ¶156 and 159 for the treatment of possessive forms when terms like Inc. and Ir. are set off by commas.
- 640 Many organizational names contain words that could be construed as either possessive or descriptive terms.
 - a. As a rule, use an apostrophe if the term is a singular possessive noun or an irregular plural noun.

McCall's Children's Hospital Harper's Bazaar Women's Wear Daily

b. Do not use an apostrophe if the term is a regular plural.

American Bankers Association Chemical Workers Union Government Employees Insurance Company Investors Trust Company

c. In all cases follow the organization's preference when known.

Ladies' Home Journal Investor's Management Services, Inc. Reader's Digest International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union Barron's

Boys' Clubs of America

Nouns in Apposition

641 Sometimes a noun that ordinarily would be in the possessive is followed by an appositive, a closely linked explanatory word or phrase. In such cases add the sign of the possessive to the appositive only.

> Portland, Oregon's mayor spoke at our convention. (Note that the comma that would normally follow an appositive is omitted when the possessive ending is added.)

You will need to get Mr. Bartel, the executor's signature.

(Continued on page 130.)

NOTE: This kind of construction is usually awkward; whenever possible, use an of phrase instead.

You will need to get the signature of Mr. Bartel, the executor.

Separate and Joint Possession

642 To indicate separate possession, add the sign of the possessive to the name of each individual.

the buyer's and the seller's signatures the Joneses' and the Browns' houses NOTE: The repetition of the with each name further indicates that separate ownership is intended.

To indicate joint (or common) ownership, add the sign of the possessive to the final name alone. However, if one of the owners is identified by a pronoun, make each name possessive.

> Helen and Jean's boat вит: Helen's and vour boat

Possessives Standing Alone

644 Sometimes the noun that the possessive modifies is merely understood.

Ask for it at your grocer's (store).

Wear your oldest shirt and Levi's (jeans). (The trademark Levi's is a singular possessive form.)

We have been invited to a party at the Pavlicks' (house).

BUT: We went to see the Pavlicks. (The people themselves are referred to; hence no possessive.)

NOTE: The possessive form must be used in the following construction in order to keep the comparison parallel.

This month's sales figures are better than last month's (sales figures).

NOT: This month's sales figures are better than last month. (Incorrectly compares soles figures with month.)

Inanimate Possessives

As a rule, nouns referring to inanimate things should not be in the 645 possessive. Use an of phrase instead.

the hood of the car (NOT: the car's hood)

the terms of the contract (Not: the contract's terms)

the format of the letter (Nor: the letter's format)

In many common expressions that refer to time and measurements, 646 however, and in phrases implying personification, the possessive form has come to be accepted usage. (See also \$817b.)

> one day's notice an hour's work two years' progress the company's assets the sun's rays

a dollar's worth several dollars' worth at arm's length New Year's resolutions this morning's news

a stone's throw for heaven's sake for conscience' sake (see ¶631b) the earth's atmosphere

Possessives Preceding Verbal Nouns

647 When a noun or a pronoun modifies a gerund (the ing form of a verb used as a noun), the noun or pronoun should be in the possessive form.

I am concerned about your taking the job.

Was there any record of the customer's being notified?

Possessives in Of Phrases

The object of the preposition of should not ordinarily be in the possessive form, since the of phrase as a whole expresses possession. However, possessives are used in a few idiomatic expressions.

> He is a friend of Tom's, (Not: of Tom.) She is a neighbor of mine. (NOT: of me.)

Possessives Modifying Possessives

649 Avoid attaching a possessive form to another possessive. Change the wording if possible.

> AWKWARD: I have not yet seen the utility company's lawyer's petition. BETTER: I have not yet seen the petition of the utility company's lawyer.

Possessives in Holidays

650 Possessives in names of holidays are usually singular.

Mother's Day New Year's Eve Lincoln's Birthday Valentine's Day

вит: Veterans Day April Fools' Day



SPELLING

SPELLING GUIDES

When a Final Consonant Is Doubled (¶¶701-702)
When a Final Consonant Is Not Doubled (¶¶703-706)
Final Silent E (¶¶707-709)
When Final Y Is Changed to I (¶¶710-711)
EI and IE Words (¶712)
Words Ending in ABLE and IBLE (¶713)
Words Ending in ANT/ANCE and ENT/ENCE (¶714)
Words Ending in IZE, ISE, and YZE (¶715)
Words Ending in CEDE, CEED, and SEDE (¶716)

WORDS THAT SOUND ALIKE OR LOOK ALIKE (9717)

TROUBLESOME WORDS (¶718)

In matters of spelling, the most important rule is this: When in doubt, consult the dictionary. The next most important rule: Try to master the principles of spelling so as to avoid frequent trips to the dictionary.

Section 7 offers three kinds of assistance: ¶¶701-716 present the basic guidelines for correct spelling. ¶717 provides a 12-page list of look-alike and sound-alike words for review and fast reference. ¶718 presents a list of troublesome words—those that are frequently misspelled or that frequently send writers to their dictionaries.

NOTE: The 1976 printing of Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary and Webster's Third New International Dictionary (both published by the G. & C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Massachusetts) serve as the authority for the spelling in this manual. Whenever two spellings are allowable, only the first form is usually given here.

Spelling Guides

When a Final Consonant Is Doubled

When a word of one syllable ends in a single consonant (bag) preceded by 701 a single vowel (bag), double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel (baggage) or before the suffix v (baggy).

drop slip clan	drop <u>p</u> ed slip <u>p</u> age clan <u>n</u> ish	swim glad skin	swim <u>m</u> ing glad <u>d</u> en skin <u>n</u> y	ship bet chum	shipper bettor chummy
EXCEF	PTIONS:				
gas	gaseous	saw	sawing	fix	fixed
bus	buses	tow	towed	tax	taxing

Compare ¶703.

When a word of more than one syllable ends in a single consonant (refer) 702 preceded by a single yowel (refer) and the accent falls on the last syllable of the root word (refer), double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel (referred).

> regret regrettable concur concurrent begin beginning occur occurring control controller transfer transferred (BUT: transferable)

NOTE: If the accent shifts to the first syllable of a word when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added, the final consonant is not doubled.

refer referred BUT: reference prefer preferred But: preferable

Compare ¶704.

When a Final Consonant Is Not Doubled

When a word of one syllable ends in a single consonant (bad) preceded 703 by a single vowel (bad), do not double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a consonant (badly).

> ship shipment glad gladness drop droplet

When a word of more than one syllable ends in a single consonant 704 (benefit) preceded by a single vowel (benefit) and the accent does not fall on the last syllable of the root word (benefit), do not double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel (benefited).

differ	differed, differing	total	totaled, totaling
credit	credited, creditor	travel	traveled, traveler
profit	profited, profiting	cancel	canceled, canceling
benefit	benefited, benefiting		(BUT: cancellation)
diagram	diagramed, diagraming	worship	worshiped, worshiper

EXCEPTIONS:

kidnapped, kidnapping program programmed, programming kidnap

When a word of one or more syllables ends in a single consonant (clou \underline{d} , 705 repeat) preceded by more than one yowel (cloud, repeat), do not double the final consonant before any suffix, whether it begins with a consonant (cloud<u>less</u>) or a vowel (repeating).

eat eaten deceit deceitful look looking chief chiefly

bias biased wool woolen but: woolly

exception: equip equipped equipping

706 When a word of one or more syllables ends with more than one consonant (work, detach), do not double the final consonant before any suffix (workday, detached).

confirm confirming hand handful return returned warm warmly

NOTE: Words ending in *II* usually retain both consonants before a suffix. However, when adding the suffix *Iy*, drop one *I* from the root word. When adding the suffixes *less* or *like*, insert a hyphen between the root and the suffix to avoid three *I's* in a row.

skill skillful full fully hull hull-less install installment dull dully shell shell-like

Final Silent E

707 Words ending in silent e usually drop the e before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

use usage true truism sale salable argue arguing desire desirous arrive arrival

EXCEPTIONS:

agree agreeing mile mileage hoe hoeing dye dyeing

NOTE: Words ending in ce or ge usually retain the e before suffixes beginning with a, o, or u.

enforceable, noticeable, serviceable manageable, changeable, knowledgeable advantageous, courageous, outrageous BUT: forcible managing, changing, aging, judging

708 Words ending in silent e usually retain the e before a suffix beginning with a consonant.

trouble troublesome hope hopeful manage management sincere sincerely like likeness nine ninety

EXCEPTIONS:

acknowledge acknowledgment judge judgment argument whole wholly argue ninth true nine truly duly gentle gently due wise wisdom awe awful

709 Words ending in ie change the ie to y before adding ing.

die dying lie lying (but: liar) tie tying vie vying (but: viable)

When Final Y Is Changed to I

Words ending in y preceded by a consonant change the y to i before any 710 suffix except one beginning with i.

ordinary	ordinarily	heavy	heaviest	вит: try	trying
happy	happiness	defy	defiant	thirty	thirtyish
likely	likelihood	hurry	hurried	copy	copyist

Words ending in y preceded by a vowel usually retain the y before any 711

			J	buy employ	buyer y employable
EXCEPTION	s:				
pay paid	d d	lay dai	ily		gaily
lay laid	S	ay sai	d	slay s	slain

EI and IE Words

weight heir

712	Put i before e	Or when sounded like a
	Except after c	As in neighbor and weigh.

I Before believe relieve belief relief	brief chief	field wield yield view	niece piece anxiety variety	вит:	either neither seize weird	height leisure foreign forfeit
After C deceive deceit	receive receipt	conceive conceit	perceive ceiling	BUT:	ancient science	species financier
	d Like A	eight	vein			

skein

Words Ending in ABLE and IBLE

sleigh

a. The ending able is more commonly used. 713

advisable	dependable	likable	probable	salable
changeable	knowledgeable	payable	receivable	valuable
Changeable	Kilowicageable	payable	1000114010	

- See \$707 on dropping or retaining silent e before the ending.
- b. However, a number of frequently used words end in ible.

Words Ending in ANT/ANCE and ENT/ENCE

Words ending in ant, ance, ent, and ence follow no clear-cut pattern. 714 Therefore, consult a dictionary when in doubt.

existent	persistent	defendant	descendant	occurrence
insistent	resistant	dependent	transcendent	recurrence
assistance	maintenance	relevance	surveillance	intelligence

Words Ending in IZE, ISE, and YZE

715 a. Most words end in ize.

1 0	characterize	economize	prize	summarize
	criticize	emphasize	realize	vandalize

b. A number of common words end in ise.

advertise	compromise	enterprise	improvise	supervise
advise	devise	exercise	merchandise	surprise
arise	disguise	franchise	revise	televise

c. Only a few words end with yze.

analyze paralyze catalyze

Words Ending in CEDE, CEED, and SEDE

716 a. Only one word ends in sede: supersede.

b. Only three words end in ceed: exceed, proceed, succeed. (Note, however, that derivatives of these three words are spelled with only one e: excess, procedure, success.)

c. All other words ending with the syllable pronounced "seed" are spelled cede: precede, secede, recede, concede, accede, intercede.

Words That Sound Alike or Look Alike

717 The following list contains two types of words: (a) words that are pronounced exactly alike, though spelled differently (and for which the shorthand outlines are therefore identical); and (b) words that look and sound somewhat alike (and for which the shorthand outlines may be very nearly the same).

NOTE: A small triangle (▶) marks the start of each group of similar words.

			-
►accede exceed ►accent	to comply with to surpass stress in speech or	►addition edition	something added one version of a printed work
ascent	writing act of rising	►adherence adherents	attachment followers
assent •accept	to take; to receive	▶adverse	hostile, unfavora- ble
except	(v.) to exclude;	averse	disinclined
►access excess	(prep.) excluding admittance surplus	▶advice advise	(n.) information;recommendation(v.) to recommend;
▶ad	short for adver-		to give counsel
add	tisement to join	▶affect	to influence; to change; to assume
►adapt adept adopt	to adjust proficient to choose	effect	(see ¶1101) (n.) result; impression; (v.) to bring
▶addenda	(see agenda)		about

▶ agenda	list of things to be	▶ area	surface; extent
addenda	done additional items	aria arrears	a melody that which is due
		atteats	but unpaid
▶ air heir	atmosphere one who inherits	▶ arrange	to put in order
> aisle		arraign	to call into court
	(see isle)	▶ ascent	(see accent)
▶ allowed aloud	permitted	▶ assay	to test, as an ore
	audibly	-	or a chemical
▶ allusion	an indirect refer- ence	essay	(n.) a treatise; (v.) to attempt
illusion	an unreal vision	▶ assent	(see occent)
delusion	a false belief	• assistance	help
elusion	adroit escape	assistants	those who help
▶ almost	nearly (see ¶1101)	▶ assure	(see ensure)
all most	all very much	▶attain	to gain, to achieve
▶ already	previously (see	attend	to be present at
all ready	¶1101) all prepared	▶ attendance	presence
an ready ▶ altar		attendants	escorts; followers; companions; asso-
alter	part of a church to change		ciates
▶ alternate	(n.) substitute;	> aught	anything (incorrect
	(v.) to take turns		for naught, mean-
alternative	(n.) one of several	ought	ing ''cipher'') should
	things from which to choose	▶ averse	(see adverse)
		▶ awhile	(adv.) for a short
altogetherall together	entirely (see ¶1101) everyone in a	awinie	time (see ¶1101)
un together	group	a while	(phrase) a short
▶ always	at all times (see		period of time
	¶1101)	▶ bail	(n.) security; the
all ways	all means or meth-		handle of a pail; (v.) to dip water
	ods	bale	a bundle
▶ annual	yearly	▶ bare	(adj.) naked; empty
annul	to cancel		(v.) to expose
▶ ante-	a prefix meaning "before"	bear	(n.) an animal;
anti-	a prefix meaning		(v.) to carry; to endure; to produce
	"against"	▶ base	(n.) foundation;
▶ antecedence	priority	. 5450	(adj.) mean
antecedents	preceding things;	bass	lower notes in
	ancestors		music; a fish
► anyone	anybody (see ¶1010)	▶ bases	plural of base and of basis
any one	any one person in	basis	foundation
•	a group	▶ beat	(n.) throb; tempo;
anyway	in any case (see	. 5541	(v.) to strike
omu 1115	¶1101)	beet	a vegetable
any way	any method	▶ berry	a fruit
► apportion	(see portion)	bury	to submerge; to cover over
appraise	to set a value on	, ho-th	
apprise	(see ¶1101) to inform	▶ berth birth	a bed being born
apprise		onth	

ries

▶beside	by the side of; sep- arate from (see	bullion	uncoined gold or silver
	¶1101)	bouillon	broth
besides	in addition to; also	▶bury	(see berry)
▶ biannual biennial	occurring twice a year	► calendar calender	a record of time a machine used in
	occurring once in two years		finishing paper and cloth
bibliography	list of writings	colander	a strainer
	pertaining to a given subject or author	▶callous callus	(adj.) hardened (n.) a hardened surface
biography	written history of a person's life	can not	usual form two words in the
▶billed build	charged to construct		phrase can not only
⊳birth	(see berth)	▶canvas	(n.) a coarse cloth
▶board	a piece of wood;	canvass	(v.) to solicit
	an organized	▶capital	(n.) city serving
bored	group; meals penetrated; wea- ried		as the seat of government; a principal sum of
▶boarder	one who pays for meals and often lodging as well		money; a large- sized letter; (adj.) chief; fore-
border	edge		most
⊳bolder boulder	more daring a large rock	capitol	the building in which a state leg- islative body meet
⊳born borne	brought into life carried; endured	Capitol	the building in which the U.S.
▶boy buoy	a male child a float	▶carton	Congress meets a pasteboard box
⊳brake	(n.) a retarding de-	cartoon	a caricature
horal.	vice; (v.) to retard	▶casual	incidental
break	(n.) an opening; a fracture; (v.) to shatter: to divide	causal	pertaining to a cause
▶ bread	food	cease	to stop
bred	brought up	seize	to grasp
▶ breath	respiration	▶cede seed	to grant; to give up that from which
breathe	(v.) to inhale and	Secu	anything is grown
	exhale	ceiling	top of a room; any
breadth	width		overhanging area
▶bridal	concerning the	sealing	closing
	bride or the wedding	▶cell	(see sell)
bridle	(n.) means of	▶cellar	(see seller)
2	controlling a	▶ census	statistics of popula
	horse; (v.) to		tion
	take offense	senses	mental faculties
▶ broach	to open; to intro- duce	►cent	(see scent)
brooch	ornamental clasp	►cereal serial	any grain food arranged in a se-

▶build (see billed)

> cession session	a yielding up the sitting of a	conservation conversation	preservation a talk
	court or other body	▶ continual	occurring steadily but with occa-
choose	to select		sional breaks
chose	did choose (past tense of choose)	continuous	uninterrupted; un- broken
chews	masticates	▶ cooperation	the art of working
▶ chord	combination of		together
cord	musical tones string or rope	corporation	a form of business organization
▶ chute	(see shoot)	▶ cord	(see chord)
▶ cite	(v.) to quote; to	correspondence	letters
	summon	correspondents	those who write
sight site	a view; vision a place	andonto	letters; journalists parties in divorce
▶ clothes	garments	corespondents	suits
cloths	fabrics	costume	dress
close	(n.) the end;	custom	habit
▶ coarse	(v.) to shut rough; common	▶ council	an assembly
course	direction; action; a	counsel	(n.) an attorney; advice; (v.) to give
	way; part of a meal		advice, (v.) to give
▶ colander	(see calendar)	consul	a foreign repre-
collision collusion	a clashing a scheme to de-		sentative
	fraud	▶ councillor	a member of a council
▶ coma	an unconscious state	counselor consular	one who advises (adj.) of a consul
comma	a mark of		` ' '
	punctuation	course	(see coarse)
► command	(n.) an order: (v.) to order	curtesy	a favor; politeness a husband's life
commend	to praise; to	Curtosy	interest in the
	entrust		lands of his de-
▶ commence	(v.) to begin	curtsy	ceased wife a gesture of re-
comments	(n.) remarks	curry	spect
► complement	something that completes	▶ credible	believable
compliment	(n.) a flattering	creditable	meritorious, de-
	speech; (v.) to praise	credulous	serving of praise ready to believe
comprehensible	understandable	►cue	a hint
comprehensive	extensive	queue	a line of people
▶ confidant	a friend; an ad-	currant	a berry
	viser (feminine form: confidante)	current	(adj.) belonging to the present; (n.) a
confident	sure; positive		flow of water or
► confidently	certainly; posi-		electricity
v	tively	custom	(see costume)
confidentially	privately	▶ dairy	source of milk products
▶ conscience	(n.) the sense of right and wrong	diary	daily record
conscious	(adj.) cognizant;	▶ deceased	dead
	sensible; aware	diseased	sick

decent	proper; right	disinterested	unbiased; impartial
descent	going down	uninterested	bored; unconcerned
dissent	disagreement	▶dissent	(see decent)
decree	a law	▶divers	various or sundry;
degree	a grade; a step		plural of diver
► deduce deduct	to infer to subtract	diverse	different
• defer		►do	to perform
differ	to put off to disagree	due dew	owing moisture
deference	respect, regard for	• done	finished
deterence	another's wishes	dun	a demand for pay-
difference	dissimilarity; con-		ment
	troversy	▶dose	a measured quan-
delusion	(see allusion)		tity
deposition	a formal written	doze	to sleep lightly
	statement	▶dual	double
disposition	temper; disposal	duel	a combat
depraved	morally debased	▶due	(see do)
deprived	taken away from	dying	near death
deprecate	to disapprove	dyeing	changing the color
depreciate	to lessen in esti- mated value	. 1141	of
▶desert	(n.) barren land; a	edition	(see addition)
uesert	deserved reward;	effect	(see affect)
	(v.) to abandon	elapse	(see lapse)
dessert	the last course of	▶elicit illicit	to draw forth unlawful
	a meal		
desolate	lonely; sad	▶eligible illegible	fitted; qualified unreadable
dissolute	loose in morals	elusion	(see allusion)
detract	to take away from	elusive	baffling; hard to
distract	to divert the atten- tion of	elusive	catch
.		illusive	misleading: unreal
► device devise	(n.) a contrivance (v.) to plan; to	▶emerge	to rise out of
uevise	convey real estate	immerge	to plunge into
	by will	emigrate	to go away from a
▶dew	(see do)		country
►die	(n.) mold; (v.) to	immigrate	to come into a
4.0	cease living		country
dye	(n.) that which	eminent	well-known; prom- inent
	changes the color	imminent	threatening; im-
	of; (v.) to change	***************************************	pending
	the color of	emanate	to originate from;
▶ disapprove	to withhold ap- proval		to come out of
disprove	to prove the falsity	en route	(see root)
	of	ensure	to make certain
disassemble	to take apart	insure	to protect against
dissemble	to disguise; to	assure	loss to give confidence
	feign	assuit	to give confidence
▶disburse	to pay out	▶envelop	(v.) to cover; to
disperse	to scatter		wrap
discreet	prudent	envelope	(n.) a wrapper for
discrete	distinct; separate		a letter

botany or zoology

• equable equitable	even; tranquil just; right	▶ faze phase	to disturb a stage in develop-
▶ erasable	capable of being		ment
	erased	▶ feet	plural of foot
irascible	quick-tempered	feat	an act of skill or strength
► especially	to an exceptional degree		o .
specially	particularly, as op-	▶ fictitious	(see facetious)
-1	posed to generally	▶ finale finally	the end at the end
▶ essay	(see assay)	finely	in a fine manner
everyday every day	daily (see ¶1101) each day	▶ fineness finesse	delicacy tact
▶ everyone	each one (see	hinesse • fir	a tree
0.013.0110	¶1010)	fur	skin of an animal
every one	each one in a group	▶ fiscal	(see physical)
▶ exceed	(see accede)	▶ flair	aptitude
▶ except	(see accept)	flare	a light; a signal
▶ excess	(see access)	▶ flew	did fly
▶ expand	to increase in size	flue flu	a chimney
expend	to spend		short for influenza
▶ expansive	capable of being	▶ flour flower	ground meal blossom
	extended	▶ for	a preposition
expensive	costly	fore	first; preceding; the
expatiate expiate	to enlarge on to atone for		front
▶ explicit	easily understood	four	numeral
implicit	unquestioning	▶ forbear	to bear with
▶ extant	still existing	forebear	an ancestor
extent	measure	▶ forgo	to relinquish; to let
▶ facet	aspect	forego	to go before
faucet	a tap	▶ formally	in a formal man-
► facetious factitious	witty artificial		ner
fictitious	imaginary	formerly	before
► facilitate	to make easy	▶ fort forte	a fortified place (n.) area where one
felicitate	to congratulate	Torre	excels
▶ facility felicity	ease joy	forte	(adj.) loud (musical direction)
▶ fair	(adj.) favorable;	▶ forth	awav; forward
	just; (n.) an exhibit	fourth	next after third
fare	(n.) cost of travel; food; (v.) to go	▶ forward	ahead
	forth	foreword	preface
▶ farther	at a greater dis-	▶ foul	unfavorable; un-
	tance, referring to	fowl	clean a bird
	actual distance (see ¶1101)	▶ fur	(see fir)
further	to a greater extent	• further	(see farther)
	or degree, referring		
	to figurative dis- tance; moreover; in	▶ genius genus	talent a classification in
	addition	genus	hotany or zoology

addition

▶gibe	(n.) a sarcastic re-	▶immerge	(see emerge)
Ö	mark; (v.) to scoff	▶immigrate	(see emigrate)
!!bo	at to agree	▶imminent	(see eminent)
jibe	to agree	▶implicit	(see explicit)
►grate	(n.) a frame of bars (as in a fire-	▶imply	to suggest (see
	place); (v.) to		¶1101)
	scrape; to irritate	infer	to deduce
great	large; magnificent	▶inane insane	senseless of unsound mind
▶guessed guest	past tense of guess visitor	incidence	range of occur-
▶hall	a corridor	Incidence	rence
haul	to drag	incidents	accidental happen-
▶heal	to cure		ings
heel	part of the foot or a shoe	▶incinerate insinuate	to burn to imply
▶healthful	promoting health	▶incite	(v.) to arouse
Healthiui	(e.g., a healthful	insight	(n.) understanding
	food)	▶indict	to charge with a
healthy	being in good health (e.g., a		crime
	healthy person)	indite	to compose and write
▶hear	to perceive by ear	▶indifferent	without interest
here	in this place	in different	in other (see ¶1101
►heard herd	past tense of hear	▶indigenous	native
nera	a group of ani- mals	indigent	needy
▶heir	(see air)	indignant •indirect	angry not direct
▶holy	sacred	in direct	in (preposition) +
holey	full of holes		direct (adjective)
wholly holly	entirely a tree		(see ¶1101)
▶human	pertaining to hu-	▶ingenious ingenuous	clever naive
numun	manity	▶insoluble	incapable of being
humane	kindly	Institution	dissolved
hypercritical hypocritical	overcritical pretending virtue	insolvable	not explainable
ideal	a standard of per-	insolvent	pertaining to a person unable to
idoui	fection		pay his debts
idle	unoccupied;	▶instants	short periods of
idol	without worth object of worship	instance	time an example
idyll	a description of	insure	(see ensure)
	rural life	▶intelligent	possessed of un-
▶illegible	(see eligible)	intenigent	derstanding
▶illicit ▶illusion	(see elicit) (see allusion)	intelligible	understandable
illusive	(see elusive)	▶intense intents	acute; strong aims
▶imitate	to resemble; to	intents	between states
	mimic	intrastate	within one state
intimate	(adj.) innermost;	▶intimate	(see imitate)
	familiar; (v.) to hint; to make	▶into, in to	(see ¶1101)
	known	▶irascible	(see erasable)

mien

imals

riage

military (n.) an official;

perhaps

a way of acting an estate

(v.) to arrange

two words (see ¶1101) (adj.) unpleasant;

(n.) the midpoint: (v.) to intend

appearance

pertaining to mar-

ment

▶isle aisle	island passage between	▶levee
	rows	levy
▶its	possessive form of it	
it's	contraction of it is (see ¶1056d)	▶liable libel
▶jibe	(see gibe)	
▶lapse elapse relapse	to become void to pass to slip back into a	►lie ►lien ►lightening
▶last	former condition final (see *1101)	lightning lighting
latest	most recent	▶loan, lone
►later	more recent; after a time	▶loath
latter	second in a series of two	loathe ▶local
▶lath lathe	a strip of wood a wood-turning machine	locale ▶loose
▶lay lie	to place (see ¶1101) (n.) a falsehood; (v.) to recline; to tell an untruth	lose
lye	a strong alkaline solution	loss
▶lead	(n.) heavy metal;	▶lye
led	(v.) to guide guided (past tense of to lead)	► made maid
▶lean	(adj.) thin; (v.) to	►magnificent munificent
	incline	▶mail
lien •leased	a legal claim rented	male ▶main
least	smallest	
▶legislator legislature	a lawmaker a body of lawmak- ers	mane
▶lend	to allow the use of	►manner manor
,	temporarily	▶marital
loan	(n.) something lent; (v.) to lend	martial
lone	solitary	marshal
lessee lesser	a tenant smaller	►maybe
lessor	one who gives a lease	may be
▶lessen	(v.) to make smaller	▶mean
lesson	(n.) an exercise as-	mion

signed for study

► meat meet mete	flesh of animals to join to measure	▶ pail pale	a bucket (adj.) light-colored; (n.) an enclosure
▶ medal	a badge of honor	▶ pain	suffering
meddle	to interfere	pane	window glass
metal mettle	a mineral courage; spirit	▶ pair pare	two of a kind to peel
▶ miner	a worker in a mine	pear	a fruit
minor	(adj.) lesser, as in size, extent, or im- portance; (n.) a person who is	▶ parameter perimeter	a quantity with an assigned value; a constant the outer boundary
▶ mist	under legal age haze	partition petition	division prayer; a formal
missed	failed to do	petition	written request
▶ mite	a tiny particle	▶ partly	in part
might	(n.) force; (v.) past	partially	to some degree
. 1	tense of may	▶ past	(n.) time gone by; (adj., adv., or
► mood mode	disposition fashion; method		prep.) gone by
▶ moral	virtuous	passed	moved along; transferred (past
morale	spirit		tense of pass)
► morality	virtue	▶ patience	composure; endur-
mortality	death rate before noon	patients	ance sick persons
► morning mourning	grief	▶ peace	calmness
. • munificent	(see magnificent)	piece	a portion
▶ nobody	no one	▶ peak peek	the top to look slyly at
no body	no group (see	pique	(n.) resentment;
▶none	¶1101) not one		(v.) to offend; to
no one	nobody (see ¶1013)	piqué	arouse cotton fabric
▶ oculist	an ophthalmologist	▶ peal	to ring out
	or an optometrist	peel	to strip off
opthalmologist	a doctor who treats eyes	▶ pear	(see pair)
optician	one who makes or	▶ pedal	(adj.) pertaining to the foot; (n.) a
optometrist	sells eyeglasses one who measures		treadle
optometrist	vision	peddle	to hawk; to sell
▶ official	authorized	▶ peer	(n.) one of equal rank; a nobleman;
officious	overbold in offer- ing services		(v.) to look stead-
▶ one	a single thing	pier	ily a wharf
won	did win	▶ perfect	without fault
▶ ordinance	a local law	prefect	an official
ordnance	arms; munitions	▶ perpetrate perpetuate	to be guilty of to make perpetual
▶ ought	(see aught)	▶ perquisite	privilege
▶ overdo overdue	to do too much past due	prerequisite	a preliminary re-
▶ packed	crowded	▶ persecute	quirement to oppress
packed	an agreement	prosecute	to oppress .
•		•	

S		preposition	a part of speech
personal personnel	private the staff	proposition	an offer
perspective	a view in correct	prescribe	to designate
1 1	proportion	proscribe	to outlaw
prospective	anticipated	▶ presence	bearing; being
peruse	to read		present
pursue	to chase	presents	gifts
petition	(see partition)	presentiment presentment	a foreboding a proposal
phase	(see faze) a medicine		to make believe
▶physic physique	bodily structure	pretend portend	to foreshadow
psychic	pertaining to the	principal	(adj.) chief; lead-
	mind or spirit	principal	ing; (n.) a capital
▶physical	relating to the		sum of money that
fiscal	body pertaining to		draws interest; chief official of a
listai	finances		school
psychical	mental	principle	a general truth; a
▶piece	(see peace)		rule
▶pique, piqué	(see peak)	▶profit	gain
▶plain	(adj.) undecorated;	prophet	one who forecasts
	(n.) prairie land	prophecy	a prediction
plane	(n.) a level surface; (v.) to make level	prophesy	to foretell
▶plaintiff	party in a lawsuit	propose	to suggest intention
plaintive	mournful	purpose	
▶pleas	plural of plea	prosecute	(see persecute)
please	to be agreeable	prospective	(see perspective)
▶pole	a long, slender	psychic	(see physic)
	piece of wood or metal	psychical	(see physical)
poll	(n.) the casting of	purpose	(see propose)
	votes for a body	▶pursue	(see peruse)
	of persons; (v.) to	queue	(see cue)
	register the votes of	▶ quiet	calm; not noisy
poor	(adj.) inadequate;	quite	entirely; wholly
pore	(n.) needy to study; to gaze	quit	to stop
	intently	rain rein	falling water part of a bridle; a
pour	to flow	1CIII	curb
▶populace	the common peo-	reign	(n.) the term of a
populous	ple; the masses thickly settled		ruler's power;
populous	a part		(v.) to rule
proportion	a ratio of parts	raise raze	to lift something to destroy
apportion	to allot	rays	beams
▶ practicable	workable; feasible	rap	to knock
practical	useful	wrap	(n.) a garment;
▶pray	to beseech		(v.) to enclose
prey	a captured victim	▶read	to perform the act
precede	to go before		of reading
proceed	to advance	reed	a plant; a musical instrument
precedence precedents	priority established rules	red	a color
precedents	Cottabilition raiso		

▶ real reel	actual (n.) a spool: a	scene	a setting; an exhi- bition of strong
	dance; (v.) to whirl		feeling
reality realty	actuality real estate	seen	past participle of to see
· ·		▶scent	odor
▶ receipt	an acknowledg-	sent	did send
	ment of a thing re-	cent	penny
	a formula for mix-	sense	meaning
recipe	ing ingredients	▶ sealing	(see ceiling)
▶ recent	late	▶seam	a line of junction
resent	(v.) to be indignant	seem	to appear
▶ reference	that which refers	▶seed	(see cede)
reference	to something	▶seize	(see cease)
reverence	profound respect	▶sell	to transfer for a
▶ relapse	(see lapse)	.,	price
residence	a house	cell	a small compart- ment
residents	persons who reside	▶seller	one who sells
	in a place	cellar	an underground
h noonootobly	in a manner wor-	Contai	room
respectably	thy of respect	▶senses	(see census)
respectfully	in a courteous	▶serge	a kind of cloth
	manner	surge	(n.) a billow; (v.) to
respectively	in the order indi-	6	rise in surges
	cated	▶serial	(see cereal)
▶ right	(adj.) correct; (n.) a	▶ serve	to help (see ¶1101)
	privilege	service	to keep in good re-
rite wright	a ceremony a worker, a maker		pair
wiigiit	(used as a com-	session	(see cession)
	bining form, as	▶shear	to cut; to trim
	in playwright)	sheer	transparent; un-
write	to inscribe	Silect	qualified
▶role	a part in a play	▶shoot	to fire
roll	(n.) a list; a type of	chute	a slide
	bread; (v.) to re-	▶shown	displayed; re-
	volve	Snown	vealed; past parti-
▶root	(n.) underground		ciple of show
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	part of a plant; (v.)	shone	gave off light; did
	to implant firmly		shine
route	(n.) an established	▶ sight, site	(see cite)
	course of travel;	simple	plain, uncompli-
	(v.) to send by a certain route	Simple	cated
en route	on or along the	simplistic	oversimplified
en route	way	▶sleight	dexterity, as in
rout	(n.) confused flight;	alcigitt	"sleight of hand"
	(v.) to defeat	slight	(adj.) slender;
▶rote	repetition		scanty; (v.) to
wrote	did write		make light of
		▶so	therefore
►sail	(n.) part of a ship's	sew	to stitch
	rigging; (v.) to	sow	to scatter seed
sale	travel by water the act of selling	▶soar	(see sore)
sale	the det of sening		,

▶soared	did fly	▶sum	(see some)
sword	weapon	▶sun	(see son)
►sole soul	one and only the immortal spirit	superintendence superintendents	management supervisors
▶some	a part of	▶surge	(see serge)
sum	a total	▶sword	(see soured)
▶someone	somebody (see ¶1010)	▶tare	allowance for weight
some one	some person in a group	tear	(n.) a rent; (v.) to
▶sometime	at some unspeci- fied time (see	tear	a drop of secretion from the eye
some time	¶1101) a period of time	tier	a row or layer
sometimes	now and then	▶taught	did teach
⊳son	male child	taut	tight; tense
sun	the earth's source	▶team	a group
	of light and heat	teem	to abound
▶sore	painful	▶tenant	one who rents
soar	to fly		property
▶spacious	having ample room	tenet	a principle
specious	outwardly correct but inwardly false	▶than	conjunction of
▶ specially	(see especially)	41	comparison
specially	grave; sedate	then	(adv.) at that time
staved	past tense and	▶their	belonging to them (see ¶1056d)
5	past participle of	there	in that place
	to stay	they're	contraction of they
▶stair	a step		are
stare	to look at	▶ theirs	possessive form of
▶stake	(n.) a pointed stick; the prize in a con-		they, used without
	test; (v.) to wager		a following noun
steak	a slice of meat or	there's	(see ¶1056d) contraction of
	fish	theres	there is or there
▶ stationary	fixed		has
stationery	writing materials	▶therefor	for that thing
►statue	a carved or	therefore	consequently
stature	molded figure height	▶through	by means of; from
statute	a law		beginning to end;
▶steal	to take unlawfully	threw	because of did throw
steel	a form of iron	thorough	carried through to
▶straight	not crooked; di-	morougn	completion
	rectly	▶to	(prep.) toward
strait	a water passage- way; (plural) a dis-	too	(adv.) more than
	tressing situation		enough; also
▶suit	(n.) a legal action;	two	one plus one
Suit	clothing; (v.) to	▶track	a trail
	please	tract	a treatise
suite	a group of things	▶trial	examination; an
	forming a unit		experiment; hard- ship
sweet	having an agree- able taste; pleasing	trail	a path
	ame taste, pieasing		

ore

▶ undo	to open; to render ineffective	▶ waiver	the giving up of a claim
undue	improper; exces- sive	waver • want	to hesitate (n.) a need; (v.) to
uninterested	(see disinterested) pertaining to the	wont	lack; to desire a custom
urbane	city polished; suave	won't ▶ ware	contraction of will not goods
▶ vain vane	proud; conceited a weathercock	wear were	to have on form of to be
vein	a blood vessel; a bed of mineral ma-	where	at the place in which
▶ vendee vendor	terials purchaser seller	▶ way	direction; distance; manner to find the weight
vendor • veracious	truthful	weigh	of
voracious	greedy	▶ weight	(see wait)
▶ veracity voracity	truthfulness ravenousness; greediness	▶ weak week	not strong period of seven days
▶ vice	wickedness; a prefix used with nouns to designate	▶ weather	(n.) state of the at mosphere; (v.) to come through safely
vise	titles of office a clamp	whether	if (see ¶1101)
▶ waist	part of the body; a garment	▶ whoever who ever	anyone who two words (see ¶1101)
waste	(n.) needless de- struction: useless	▶ wholly	(see holy)
	consumption; (v.) to expend use- lessly	▶ whose who's	possessive of who contraction of wh is (see ¶1063)
▶ wait	to stay	▶ won	(see one)
weight	quantity of heavi-	▶ wrap	(see rap) (see right)
	ness	▶ wright, write ▶ wrote	(see right)
▶ waive wave	(v.) to give up (n.) a billow; a gesture; (v.) to	▶ your	pronoun (see ¶1056d)
	swing back and	you're	contraction of you

Troublesome Words

forth

The following list presents a selection of those words that business writers often misspell or stop and puzzle over. In some cases, the difficulty results from the inability to apply an established rule; for such words, references to the rules are given. In many other instances, however, errors result from the peculiar spelling of the words themselves; in such cases, the only remedy is to master the correct spelling of such words on an individual basis.

NOTE: For troublesome words that sound alike or look alike, see ¶717. For troublesome compound words, see Section 8.

absence coincidence accidentally (see ¶1101) collateral accommodate colonel accompanying colossal achievement column acknowledgment (see ¶708) commitment acquaintance committee acquiesce comparison acquisition concede (see \$716) across conscience adiacent conscientious advantageous (see ¶707) conscious aging (see ¶707) consensus aisle continuous Albuquerque controversy all right (see ¶1101) criticism alleged debt amortize (see ¶715) debtor defendant (see ¶714) analysis analyze (see ¶715) defense deficit answer apparently definite appreciable dependent (see ¶714) approximate Des Moines arbitrary descendant (see ¶714) architect describe argument (see ¶708) detrimental assistance (see ¶714) develop attorney development autumn dilemma auxiliarv disappoint bachelor dissatisfied bankruptcy dissimilar basically double beginning (see ¶702) ecstasy believe (see ¶712) eighth beneficiary eligible benefited (see ¶704) eliminate Berkeley (California) embarrass biased (see ¶705) emphasize boundary empty breakfast enumerate buses (see ¶701) environment busy exaggerate calendar exceed (see ¶716) campaign exercise canceled (see ¶704) exhaustible carriage exhibition catalog existence (see ¶714) category exorbitant cemetery experience chaise longue extension extraordinary changeable (see ¶707) chronological facsimile

familiar

Cincinnati

718 fascinating February forbade foreign (see ¶712) foresee forfeit forty fourteen fourth fulfill gauge government grammar grateful grievous guarantee guardian harass height (see ¶712) hemorrhage hors d'oeuvre hygiene hypocrisy inasmuch as incidentally innocuous innovation inoculate insistence (see ¶714) irrelevant (see ¶714) itinerary judgment (see ¶708) labeled (see ¶704) laboratory leisure liable liaison library license lieutenant lightning likable (see ¶707) liquefy lose maintenance maneuver marriage mileage (see ¶707) miniature minutiae (see ¶614) misapprehension miscellaneous mischievous misspell mortgage necessary

negotiate

nickel

neither (see ¶712)

ninety ninth noticeable (see ¶707) occasionally occurrence (see ¶702) offense offered (see ¶704) omelet omission oneself opinion pamphlet panicky parallel partially pastime patience permissible (see ¶713) perseverance persuade phase phenomenal physician picnicking Pittsburgh plausible (see ¶713) possessions practically preceding (see ¶716) preferable (see ¶702) prerogative presumptuous pretense privilege procedure (see ¶716) proceed (see ¶716) programmed (see ¶704) prohibition pronunciation psychiatric psychological pursue quantity questionnaire queue receipt receive (see ¶712) recipient recommend recruit reference (see ¶702) relevant (see ¶714) renowned rescind resistance (see ¶714) restaurant résumé

rhvthm

salable (see ¶707) schedule seize (see ¶712) separate sergeant siege (see ¶712) similar simultaneous sincerely (see ¶708) sizable (see \$707) skillful specimen sponsor strength subpoena subtlety subtly suing San Francisco summary superintendent

supersede (see *716)

surveillance (see ¶714)

surgeon

surprise

susceptible

whether whiskey wholly yield (see ¶712)

technique temperature tempt theater their (see ¶712) thoroughly threshold through totaled (see ¶704) tragedy transferred (see ¶702) traveler (see ¶704) unforgettable (see ¶702) unmanageable (see \$707) unwieldy (see ¶712) usage (see \$707) victim warehouse Wednesday weird (see ¶712) wield (see ¶712) woolly (see ¶705)



COMPOUND NOUNS (¶¶801-809)

COMPOUND VERBS (¶¶810-812)

COMPOUND ADJECTIVES

Basic Rules (¶¶813-815)

Adjective + Noun (¶¶816)

Number + Noun (¶817)

Compound Noun (¶818)

Proper Name (¶819)

Noun + Adjective (¶820)

Noun + Participle (¶821)

Adjective + Participle (¶822)

Adjective + Noun + ed (¶823)

Adverb + Participle (¶824)

Adverb + Adjective (¶825) Participle + Adverb (¶826)

Adjective + Adjective (¶827)

Phrasal Compound (¶828)

Suspending Hyphen (¶829)

PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES (¶¶830-837)

SOMETIMES ONE WORD, SOMETIMES TWO WORDS (¶838)

Some compound words are written as solid words, some are written as separate words, and some are hyphenated. As in other areas of style, authorities do not agree on the rules. Moreover, style is continually changing: many words that used to be hyphenated are now written solid or as separate words. The only complete guide is an up-to-date dictionary. However, a careful reading of the following rules will save you many a trip to the dictionary.

NOTE: The spellings in this section agree with those in the 1976 printing of Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary and Webster's Third New International Dictionary (published by the G. & C. Merriam Company, Springfield. Massachusetts) unless otherwise indicated.

Compound Nouns

Compound nouns follow no regular pattern. Some are written solid, some are spaced, and some are hyphenated.

checkbook	check mark	check-in	airfreight	air force
courtroom	court reporter	court-martial	bankbook	bank draft
crossroad	cross section	cross-reference	bookshelf	book club
eyewitness	eye shadow	eye-opener	bylaw	by-product
footstep	foot brake	foot-pound	daylight	day school
goodwill	good sense	good-bye	handshake	hand truck
halfback	half hour	half-truth	homeowner	home rule
lifetime	life cycle	life-style	masterpiece	master plan
lighthouse	light meter	light-year	paperweight	paper clip
nightclub	night owl	night-light	salesclerk	sales slip
timetable	time zone	time-saver	schoolteacher	school board
trademark	trade name	trade-in	standby	stand-in

NOTE: To be sure of the spelling of a compound noun, check a dictionary. If the noun is not listed, treat the components as separate words. For the spelling of compounds in company names, check letterheads for possible variations. (Compare, for example, American Airlines with United Air Lines.)

Some solid and hyphenated compound nouns closely resemble verb 802 phrases. Be sure, however, to treat the elements in a verb phrase as separate words.

Nouns

a breakdown in communications a thorough follow-up of the report operate a drive-in a high school dropout at the time of takeoff when they give us a go-ahead come to a standstill let's have a run-through plan a get-together they have the know-how

Verb Phrases

when communications break down to follow up the report thoroughly drive in to your dealer's don't drop out of high school planes cannot take off or land we can go ghead with the plan we can't stand still let's run through the plan plan to get together they know how to handle it

803 a. Many compound nouns ending in up are solid, especially if the first part of the compound is one syllable. For example:

> backup, breakup, brushup, buildup, checkup, cleanup, letup, lineup, lockup, makeup, markup, setup, slipup; Bur: follow-up, hang-up, shake-up, tie-up, write-up.

- **b.** Most compound nouns ending in in are hyphenated. For example: break-in, cave-in, check-in, drive-in, lead-in, shoo-in, shut-in, stand-in, tie-in, write-in.
- c. Most compound nouns ending in out are solid. For example:

blackout, breakout, checkout, cookout, cutout, dropout, handout, hangout, knockout, layout, lockout, printout, shakeout, shutout; but: fade-out, time-out.

d. Many compound nouns ending in off are now spelled solid, but some still retain the hyphen. For example:

castoff, checkoff, cutoff, layoff, leadoff, payoff, runoff, standoff, takeoff. BUT: brush-off, drop-off, lift-off, play-off, rip-off, send-off, show-off, write-off.

804 Hyphenate a compound noun when it does not include a noun as one of its elements.

> a know-it-all the well-to-do the higher-ups a good-for-nothing the also-rans the have-nots go-betweens hand-me-downs do-it-vourselfers

805 Treat compound nouns like problem solving as two words, especially when the first word has two or more syllables. (Most words of this pattern are not shown in the dictionary; when they are, follow the dictionary listing.)

> profit sharing child rearing problem solving decision making tape recording stamp collecting skill building word processing truck driving

BUT: brainstorming, homeowning, flag-waving, spring-cleaning (as shown in the 1976 printing of Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary).

- See \$812 for words like air conditioning, which are derived from hyphenated infinitives like air-condition.
- 806 Always hyphenate two nouns when they signify that one person or one thing has two functions.

secretary-treasurer dinner-dance

clerk-typist receptionist-switchboard operator

807 Do not hyphenate civil, military, and naval titles of two or more words.

Chief of Police Potenza Attorney General Leibowitz General Manager Werner Rear Admiral Byrd

a. Hyphenate compound titles containing ex and elect.

ex-President Ford Vice President-elect Jordan

 See ¶¶317 and 362 for the capitalization of titles with ex and elect; see the entry for Ex-former in \$1101 for the correct usage of ex.

NOTE: Also use a hyphen when ex is attached to a noun (for example, ex-wife, ex-convict), but omit the hyphen in Latin phrases (for example, ex officio, ex cathedra).

b. The hyphen is being dropped from titles containing vice. It is still customary in vice-chancellor, but it is rapidly disappearing from vice president and it is gone from vice admiral.

Vice-Chancellor Hernandez Vice President Rockefeller Vice Admiral Keogh

NOTE: Merriam-Webster dictionaries still show the hyphen in vice president, but the hyphen is no longer used by the federal government or by many businesses.

808 Compound nouns containing man or men as an element have traditionally been used generically to refer to males and females alike.

> not for the average layman of concern to all businessmen write vour congressman

the history of mankind reduce the number of man-hours a new supply of manpower

a. The generic use of such terms is coming under increasing criticism on the grounds that the masculine bias of these terms makes them unsuitable for reference to women as well as men. The following list suggests appropriate alternatives:

In Place of the Generic Term

Use

businessmen

business owners, business executives,

business managers, business people

salesmen

sales representatives, salespersons, salesclerks,

sales staff, sales force

foremen policemen mailmen

supervisors police officers mail carriers

members of Congress, representatives congressmen

people, humanity, the human race, human beings mankind

worker-hours man-hours

work force, human energy manpower

b. When naming a job or role, avoid the use of compound terms ending in man or woman unless the term refers to a specific person whose gender is known.

There are ten candidates seeking election to the City Council. (Not: . . . seeking election as city councilmen.)

BUT: Councilwoman Walters and Councilman Holtz will study the proposal.

Write to your representative in Congress. (Not: Write to your congressman.) BUT: I was very much impressed by Congresswoman Barbara Jordan of Texas.

Who will be appointed as head of the committee? or Who will be appointed to chair the committee? (Nor: . . . appointed chairman of the committee?)

BUT: Robert Haas has been appointed chairman of the committee.

NOTE: Words like chairperson and spokesperson have recently been coined as a means of avoiding the generic use of masculine compound nouns. Personal taste will dictate whether to use these terms or not. It should be noted, however, that since such terms often generate as much strong feeling as the words they were intended to replace, alternative constructions (like those shown above) may be the best solution.

809 Terms like doctor, lawyer, or nurse are generic—that is, they apply equally to women and men. Therefore, do not use compound nouns like woman lawyer or male nurse unless there is a legitimate reason for making a distinction according to sex.

> Next Wednesday there will be a seminar on the problems facing women lowyers in the courtroom.

- Capitalization of hyphenated compound nouns: see ¶362.
- Plurals of compound nouns: see ¶611-613.
- Possessives of compound nouns: see ¶634-635.

Compound Verbs

810 Compound verbs are usually hyphenated or solid.

to air-condition	to dry-clean	to backstop	to pinpoint
to blue-pencil	to quick-freeze	to downgrade	to proofread
to cross-examine	to spot-check	to handpick	to sidetrack
to double-space	to tape-record	to highlight	to waterproof

NOTE: Do not hyphenate verb-adverb combinations such as make up, slow down, tie in. (See also ¶802.)

If the infinitive form of a compound verb contains a hyphen, retain the hyphen in the other forms of the verb. (See \$812 for one exception.)

Would you like to air-condition your entire house?

The theater was not air-conditioned.

We need an air-conditioning expert to advise us.

Please double-space this letter.

This material should not be double-spaced.

BUT: Leave a double space between paragraphs. (No hyphen in double space as a compound noun.)

812 The gerund derived from a hyphenated compound verb requires no hyphen unless it is followed by an object.

Dry cleaning is the best way to clean this garment.

BUT: Dry-cleaning this sweater will not remove the spot.

Air conditioning is no longer as expensive as it used to be.

BUT: In gir-conditioning an office, you must take more than space into account.

Spot checking is all we have time for.

BUT: In spot-checking the data, I found some disturbing errors.

Compound Adjectives

No aspect of style causes greater difficulty than compound adjectives. When a compound adjective is shown hyphenated in the dictionary, you can safely assume only that the expression is hyphenated when it occurs directly before a noun. When the same combination of words falls elsewhere in the sentence, the use or omission of hyphens depends on how the words are used.

For the basic rules, see ¶813-815. For detailed comments, see the following paragraphs:

- Adjective + noun (as in short-term note): see \$816.
- Number + noun (as in 40-hour week): see \$817.
- Compound noun (as in high school graduate); see \$818.
- Proper name (as in Madison Avenue agencies): see ¶819.
- Noun + adjective (as in tax-free imports): see \$820.
- Noun + participle (as in time-consuming details): see \$821.
- Adjective + participle (as in nice-looking receptionist): see ¶822.
 - Adjective + noun + ed (as in quick-witted girl): see §823.
 - Adverb + participle (as in privately owned stock): see \$824a.
- Adverb + participle (as in well-known facts): see \$824b.
- Adverb + adjective (as in very exciting job): see \$825.
- Participle + adverb (as in warmed-over ideas): see \$826.
- Adjective + adjective (as in black leather notebook); see \$827.
- Phrasal compound (as in up-to-date accounts): see \$28.

Basic Rules

A compound adjective consists of two or more words that function as a unit and express a single thought. These one-thought modifiers are derived from (and take the place of) adjective phrases and clauses. In the following examples the left column shows the original phrase or clause; the right column shows the compound adjective.

> Adjective Phrase or Clause imports that are free of duty a woman who speaks quietly an actor who is well known a conference held at a high level a building ten stories high a report that is up to date

Compound Adjective duty-free imports a quiet-spoken woman a well-known actor

a high-level conference a ten-story building

an up-to-date report

NOTE: In the process of becoming compound adjectives, the adjective phrases and clauses are usually reduced to a few essential words. In addition, these words frequently undergo a change in form (for example, ten stories high becomes ten-story); sometimes they are put in inverted order (for example, free of duty becomes duty-free); sometimes they are simply extracted from the phrase or clause without any change in form (for example, well-known, high-level).

814 Hyphenate the elements of a compound adjective that occurs before a noun. (Reason: The words that make up the compound adjective are not in their normal order or a normal form and require hyphens to hold them together.)

> an old-fashioned dress (a dress of an old fashion) a \$10,000-a-year salary (a salary of \$10,000 a year) long-range plans (plans projected over a long range of time)

(Continued on page 158.)

EXCEPTIONS: A number of compounds like real estate and high school do not need hyphens when used as adjectives before a noun. (See \$818.)

815 a. When these expressions occur elsewhere in the sentence, drop the hyphen if the individual words occur in a normal order and in a normal form. (In such cases the expression no longer functions as a compound adjective.)

Before the Noun	Elsewhere in Sentence
an X-ray treatment	It can be treated by X ray. (Object of preposition.)
an up-to-date report	Please bring the report up to date. (Prepositional phrase.)
a high-level decision	The decision must be made at a high level. (Object of preposition.)
a never-to-be-forgotten book	That book is never to be forgotten. (Adverb + infinitive phrase.)
an off-the-record comment	This comment is off the record. (Prepositional phrase.)

b. When these expressions occur elsewhere in the sentence but are in an inverted word order or an altered form, retain the hyphen.

Before the Noun	Elsewhere in Sentence
a tax-exempt purchase	The purchase was tax-exempt.
	вит: The purchase was exempt from taxes.
government-owned lands	These lands are government-owned. But: These lands are owned by the government.
a friendly-looking salesclerk	That salesclerk is friendly-looking. But: That salesclerk looks friendly.
high-priced goods	These goods are high-priced. BUT: These goods carry a high price.

NOTE: The following kinds of compound adjectives are always hyphenated:

- Noun + adjective (for example, tax-exempt): see ¶820.
- Noun + participle (for example, government-owned): see ¶821.
- Adjective + participle (for example, friendly-looking): see ¶822.
- Adjective + noun + ed (for example, high-priced); see \$823.

Adjective + Noun (see also ¶817-819)

a. Hyphenate this combination of elements before a noun. Do not hyphenate these elements when they play a normal function elsewhere in the sentence (for example, as the object of a preposition or of a verb). However, if the expression continues to function as a compound adjective, retain the hyphen.

Before the Noun a short-term loan	Elsewhere in Sentence This loan runs only for a short term. (Object of preposition.)
low-risk investments	These investments carry a low risk. (Object of verb.)
high-grade ore	This ore is of a high grade. (Object of preposition.) BUT: This ore is high-grade. (Compound adjective.)
part-time job	This job is part-time. (Compound adjective.)

b. Combinations involving comparative or superlative adjectives plus nouns follow the same pattern.

Before the Noun Elsewhere in Sentence

a larger-size shirt He wears a larger size. (Object of verb.)

the finest-quality goods These goods are of the finest quality, (Object of

preposition.)

Number + Noun

a. When a number and a noun form a one-thought modifier before a noun (as in four-story building), make the noun singular and hyphenate the expression. When the expression has a normal form and a normal function elsewhere in the sentence, do not hyphenate it.

Before the Noun

a 50-cent fee

a two-year contract

twentieth-century painting

an 8-foot ceiling

a 55-mile-an-hour speed limit

an 81/2- by 11-inch book (see \$829)

a 5-liter bottle

a 100-meter sprint

a 35-kilogram limit

Elsewhere in Sentence a fee of 50 cents

a contract for two years

painting of the twentieth century

a ceiling 8 feet high

a speed limit of 55 miles an hour

a book 81/2 by 11 inches a bottle holding 5 liters

a sprint of 100 meters

a limit of 35 kilograms

EXCEPTIONS: a 20 percent increase, a \$12 million profit

b. A hyphenated compound adjective and an unhyphenated possessive expression often provide alternative ways of expressing the same thought. Do not use both styles together.

a two-week trip or a two weeks' trip (but not: a two-weeks' trip)

Compound Noun

818 A number of adjective-noun combinations (such as life insurance and real estate) are actually well-established compound nouns serving as adjectives. Unlike short-term, low-risk, and the other examples in \$816. these expressions refer to well-known concepts or institutions. Because they are easily grasped as a unit, they do not require a hyphen.

> civil service examination data processing procedures mass production techniques

income tax return life insurance policy high school diploma

real estate agent safe deposit box social security tax

NOTE: When dictionaries and style manuals do not provide guidance on a specific adjective-noun combination, consider whether the expression resembles a well-known compound like social security or whether it is more like short-term. Then space the combination or hyphenate it accordingly.

Proper Name

- **819** a. Do not hyphenate the elements in a proper name used as an adjective.
 - a Supreme Court decision
- a Western Union telegram a Park Avenue address
- a South American industrialist

(Continued on page 160.)

b. When two or more distinct proper names are combined to form a one-thought modifier, use a hyphen to connect the elements.

a German-American restaurant the New York-Chicago-Los Angeles flight (no hyphens within New York or Los Angeles)

the cuisine is German-American BUT: the flight to New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles

Noun + Adjective

a. When a compound adjective consists of a noun plus an adjective, 820 hyphenate this combination whether it appears before or after the noun. (See ¶815b.)

> duty-free cost-effective tax-exempt accident-prone month-long fire-resistant labor-intensive water-repellent

The income from these bonds is tax-exempt.

We import these water-repellent fabrics duty-free.

b. Through usage a few compound adjectives in this category are now written solid (for example, carefree, praiseworthy, waterproof). Moreover, compound adjectives ending in wide are now usually written solid (worldwide, nationwide, statewide, storewide, citywide, countywide, countrywide, industrywide).

Noun + Participle

a. When a compound adjective consists of a noun plus a participle, 821 hyphenate this combination whether it appears before or after the noun. (See ¶815b.)

> air-cooled interest-bearing time-consuming law-abiding tongue-tied awe-inspiring factory-installed power-driven wage-earning weather-beaten government-owned tailor-made

The old procedures were all too time-consuming.

A number of city-owned properties will be auctioned off next week.

b. A few words in this category are now written solid—for example, handmade, handwoven, handwritten, timesaving, timeworn.

Adjective + Participle

a. When a compound adjective consists of an adjective plus a participle, hyphenate this combination whether it appears before or after the noun. (See ¶815b.)

> smooth-talking odd-sounding high-ranking sweet-smelling friendly-looking (see ¶824a) soft-spoken

He is a smooth-talking operator, who never delivers what he promises.

Betty was anything but soft-spoken in arguing against the new procedures.

b. Retain the hyphen even when a comparative or superlative adjective is combined with a participle-for example, nicer-looking, oddest-sounding, better-tasting, best-looking,

As the highest-ranking official present, Mrs. Egan took charge of the meeting. This year's brochure is better-looking than last year's.

Adjective + Noun + ED

823 a. When a compound adjective consists of an adjective plus a noun plus ed, hyphenate this combination whether it appears before or after the noun. (See §815b.)

Our success was short-lived: the business folded after six months. These symptoms commonly occur in *middle-aged* executives.

b. Retain the hyphen when a comparative or superlative adjective is combined with a noun plus ed—for example, smaller-sized, highest-priced, best-natured.

Our higher-priced articles sold well this year.

These goods are higher-priced than the samples you showed me.

c. A few compound adjectives in this category are now written solid—for example, hardheaded, lighthearted, shortsighted.

Adverb + Participle (see also ¶825)

824 a. Do not hyphenate an adverb-participle combination if the adverb ends in *ly*.

а	poorly constructed house	a	privately owned corporation
a	highly valued employee	a	newly created staff

NOTE: Hyphenate adjectives ending in *ly* when they are used with participles. (See ¶822.)

a friendly-sounding voice a motherly-looking woman

To distinguish between adjectives and adverbs ending in ly, see \$\$1069-1070.

b. Other adverb-participle compounds are hyphenated *before* the noun. When these same combinations occur in the predicate, drop the hyphen if the participle is part of the verb.

a well-known consultant much-needed reforms the above-mentioned facts the ever-changing tides a long-remembered tribute

Elsewhere in Sentence

This consultant <u>is</u> well <u>known</u>.

These reforms <u>were</u> much <u>needed</u>.

These facts <u>were mentioned</u> above.

The tides <u>are</u> ever <u>changing</u>.

Today's tribute <u>will be long remembered</u>.

However, if the participle does not become part of the verb and continues to function with the adverb as a one-thought modifier in the predicate, retain the hyphen.

Before the Noun

- a well-behaved child
- a decision with for-reaching implications
- a clear-cut position

Elsewhere in Sentence

- The child is well-behaved.
- The implications are far-reaching.
- Their position was clear-cut.

NOTE: You couldn't say, "The child is behaved" or "The implications are reaching" or "Their position was cut." Since the participle is not part of the verb, it must be treated as part of a compound adjective. Compare the use of fast-moving in the following examples.

Before the Noun

a fast-moving narrative

Elsewhere in Sentence

- The narrative is fast-moving.
 - BUT: The narrative is fast moving
- toward a climax.
- c. Hyphenated adverb-participle combinations like those in b retain the hyphen even when the adverb is in the comparative or superlative.
 - a better-known brand the best-behaved child
- the hardest-working secretary a faster-moving stock clerk

Adverb + Adjective

- 825 a. A number of adverb-adjective combinations closely resemble the adverb-participle combinations described in \$824. However, since an adverb normally modifies an adjective, do not use a hyphen to connect these words.
 - a not too interesting report a rather irritating delay
- a very moving story feeling quite tired
- b. Do not hyphenate comparative or superlative forms where the adverbs more, most, less, or least are combined with an adjective.
 - a more determined person the most exciting event
- a less complicated transaction the least interesting lecture

Participle + Adverb

826 Hyphenate a participle-adverb combination before the noun but not when it occurs elsewhere in the sentence.

Before the Noun

filled-in forms

- worn-out equipment
- a tuned-up engine
- a scaled-down proposal
- a turned-on look
- unheord-of savings

- Elsewhere in Sentence These forms should be filled in.
- The equipment was worn out.
- The engine has been tuned up.
- The proposal must be scaled down.
- The customers are turned on.
- These savings are unheard of.

Adjective + Adjective

- **827** a. Do not hyphenate independent adjectives preceding a noun.
 - a distinguished public orator (public modifies orator; distinguished modifies public orator)
 - a long and tiring trip (long and tiring each modify trip)

- a warm, enthusiastic reception (warm and enthusiastic each modify reception; a comma marks the omission of and)
- See *168-171 for the use of commas with adjectives.
- b. In a few special cases, two adjectives joined by and are hyphenated because they function as one-thought modifiers. These, however, are rare exceptions to the rule stated in a.
 - a hard-and-fast rule a cut-and-dried proposal a yes-or-no answer

Henry views the matter in black-and-white terms. (A one-thought modifier.) Bur: Sue wore a black and white dress to the party, (Two independent adjectives.)

c. Hyphenate expressions such as blue-black, green-gray, and red-hot before and after a noun. However, do not hyphenate expressions such as bluish green, dark gray, or bright red (where the first word clearly modifies the second).

Always use blue-black ink in this office.

Her dress was bluish green.

Phrasal Compound

828 a. Hyphenate phrases used as compound adjectives before a noun. Do not hyphenate such phrases when they occur normally elsewhere in the sentence.

Before the Noun

an up-to-date report

a change-of-address notice

an out-of-town visitor

a guestion-and-answer period

a life-and-death matter

a hit-and-miss approach

a twelve-year-old girl

a \$100-a-week job

a straight-from-the-shoulder talk

a would-be authority

a pay-as-you-go plan

a well-thought-out plan

a much-talked-about party

Elsewhere in Sentence

The report is up to date.

This notice shows his change of address.

The visitor is from out of town.

Leave time for questions and answers.

It is a matter of life and death.

His approach hits and misses the mark.

BUT: His approach is hit-and-miss.

The girl is only twelve years old.

The job pays \$100 a week.

I spoke straight from the shoulder.

He thought he would be an authority.

This plan lets you pay as you go.

The plan was well thought out.

The party was much talked about.

BUT: in the not too distant future (see \$825a)

b. Do not hyphenate foreign phrases used as adjectives before a noun. (See also \$287.)

an ad hoc ruling a bong fide offer an a la carte menu a prima facie case

Suspending Hyphen

a. When a series of hyphenated adjectives has a common basic element and this element is shown only with the last term, a "suspending" hyphen follows each adjective.

(Continued on page 164.)

long- and short-term securities 81/2- by 11-inch paper

10- and 20-year bonds hard- and soft-coal dealers

b. Space once after each suspending hyphen unless a comma is required at that point.

a six- to eight-week delay

3-, 5-, and 8-gallon buckets

Prefixes and Suffixes

In general, do not use a hyphen to set off a prefix at the beginning of a 830 word or a suffix at the end of a word. (See \$807a for two exceptions: exand -elect.)

> afterthought minibike. kingdom ambidextrous misspell threefold antedate monosyllable thoughtful anticlimax multimedia neighborhood audiovisual nonessential accounting biannual overconfident fortvish bylaws (But: by-product) postscript heartless* centimeter prerequisite childlike* carefully counterproductive reorganize decentralize retroactive excitement semiannual uppermost extralegal foremost stepmother costliness subdivision fireproof hypercritical leadership superabundant illegal tronsaction lonesome immaterial independent ultracritical backward interoffice undercurrent nationwide (see ¶820b) kilogram unrelated edgewise milliliter trustworthy uptake

When the prefix ends with a or i and the base word begins with the same 831 letter, use a hyphen after the prefix to prevent misreading.

> ultra-active semi-independent anti-intellectual intra-abdominal semi-indirect anti-inflationary

When the prefix ends with e or o and the base word begins with the same 832 letter, the hyphen is almost always omitted.

> coordinate reeducate reelect preempt reemphasize preexisting cooperative reemploy вит: co-op, co-owner, co-worker, de-emphasize, de-escalate

Use a hyphen after self when it serves as a prefix. 833

> self-addressed self-confidence self-evident

Omit the hyphen when self serves as the base word and is followed by a suffix.

selfish selfsame selfless

^{*}If, in the addition of these suffixes, three I's occur in succession, use a hyphen; for example bell-like, shell-less.

834 As a rule, the prefix re (meaning "again") should not be followed by a hyphen. A few words require the hyphen so that they can be distinguished from other words with the same spelling but a different meaning.

> to re-form the class to re-cover a chair

to re-collect the slips she re-marked the ticket to reform a sinner to recover from an illness to recollect the mistake as he remarked to me

835 When a prefix is added to a word that begins with a capital, use a hyphen after the prefix.

> anti-American non-Asiatic

mid-Ianuary trans-Canadian pre-Revolutionary War days post-World War II period

BUT: transatlantic, transpacific, the Midwest

836 Always hyphenate family terms involving the prefix great- or the suffix -in-law, but treat terms involving step- and grand- solid.

> her great-grandfather their great-aunt

my grandmother his grandchild

your brother-in-law my stepdaughter

837 Avoid feminine suffixes like -ess, -ette, and -trix.

She has an established reputation as an author and a poet. (Not: authoress and poetess.)

If you have any questions, ask your flight attendant. (NOT: steward or stewardess.)

Sometimes One Word. Sometimes Two Words

838 A number of common words may be written either as one solid word or as two separate words, depending on the meaning. See individual entries listed alphabetically in ¶1101 (unless otherwise indicated) for the following words:

Almost-all most

Already-all ready Altogether-all together

Always-all ways

Anyone-any one (see ¶1010, note)

Anyway-any way Awhile-a while

Everyday-every day

Everyone-every one (see ¶1010, note)

Indifferent-in different

Indirect-in direct

Into-in to (see In) Maybe-may be Nobody-no body

None-no one (see ¶1013)

Onto-on to (see On) Someone-some one (see

¶1010, note)

Sometime-sometimes-

some time

Upon-up on (see On) Whoever-who ever

- Hyphens in spelled-out numbers: see ¶465.
- Hyphens in spelled-out dates; see ¶411.
- Hyphens in spelled-out amounts of money: see ¶420.
- Hyphens in spelled-out fractions: see ¶427.
- Hyphens in numbers representing a continuous sequence: see ¶459.



WORD DIVISION

Basic Rules (¶1901-906) Preferred Practices (¶1907-918) Breaks Within Word Groups (¶1919-920) Guides to Correct Syllabication (¶1921-922)

Whenever possible, avoid dividing a word at the end of a line. Word divisions are unattractive, and they may slow down or even confuse the reader. When word division is unavoidable, try to divide at a point that will least disrupt the reader's grasp of the word.

The rules that follow are intended for typists. (Printers may take greater liberties.) The rules fall into two categories: (1) those that a typist must never violate (see \$\$901-906) and (2) those that a typist should follow whenever space permits a choice (see \$\$907-920).

NOTE: The 1976 printing of Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (published by the G. & C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Massachusetts) is the authority for the word divisions shown in this manual.

Basic Rules

901 Divide words only between syllables. Whenever you are unsure of the syllabication of a word, consult a dictionary. (See also ¶¶921-922 for some guides to correct syllabication.)

NOTE: Some syllable breaks shown in the dictionary are not acceptable in typewritten material as points of word division. See ¶903-904.

902 Do not divide one-syllable words. Even when ed is added to some words, they still remain one-syllable words and cannot be divided.

weight thought strength scheme passed trimmed weighed shipped

903 Do not set off a one-letter syllable at the beginning or the end of a word.

amount (NOT: a- mount) bacteria (NOT: bacteria a) ideal (NOT: i- deal) piano (NOT: pian- o)

NOTE: So as to discourage word division at the beginning or end of a word, some dictionaries no longer mark one-letter syllables at these points.

ad-joining de-tract un-important im-possible bluff-ing bet-ter check-up. there-of.

NOTE: Whenever possible, avoid dividing any word with fewer than six letters.

905 Do not divide abbreviations.

ILGWU UNESCO SUNFED ASCAP Ph.D. admin. f.o.b. unasgd.

NOTE: An abbreviation like AFL-CIO may be divided after the hyphen.

906 Do not divide contractions.

doesn't couldn't can't o'clock

Preferred Practices

While it is acceptable to divide a word at any syllable break shown in the dictionary, it is often better to divide at some points than at others in order to obtain a more intelligible grouping of syllables. The following rules indicate preferred practices whenever you have sufficient space left in the typed line to permit a choice.

907 Divide a solid compound word between the elements of the compound.

paper- weight time- table home- owner school- teacher

908 Divide a hyphenated compound word at the point of the hyphen.

self- control brother- in-law get- together baby- sitter

909 Divide a word after a prefix (rather than within the prefix).

Preferred Acceptable introduce . international supersonic circumstances . ambidextrous Acceptable . . introduce . introduce . introduce . introduce . international . supersonic . circumstances . ambidiextrous

However, avoid divisions like the following, which can easily confuse a reader

Confusing		Better	
pret fluous ference tious	super- circum-	terpret perfluous cumference . bitious	su- cir-

regu- late

910 Divide a word before a suffix (rather than within the suffix).

```
practi- cable (rather than: practica- ble) permis- sible (rather than: permissi- ble)
```

911 When a word has both a prefix and a suffix, choose the division point that groups the syllables more intelligibly.

```
consign- ment (RATHER THAN: con- signment)
```

The same principle applies when a word contains a suffix added on to a suffix. Choose the division point that produces the better grouping.

```
careless- ness (BATHER THAN: Care- lessness)
```

912 Whenever you have a choice, divide after a prefix or before a suffix (rather than within the root word).

pre- mature (rather than: prema- ture) legal- ize (rather than: le- galize)

Note: Avoid divisions that could confuse a reader.

```
re- arrangement (RATHER THAN: rear- rangement) re- adjust (RATHER THAN: read- just)
```

913 When a one-letter syllable occurs within the root of a word, divide after it (rather than before it).

```
criti- cal sepg- rate simi- lar
```

914 When two separately sounded vowels come together in a word, divide between them.

```
radi- ator valu- able cre- ative retro- active gradu- ation propri- etary flu- orescent physi- ological
```

- **915** When necessary, an extremely long number can be divided after a comma; for example, 10,649,- 376,000.
- 916 Do not allow more than two consecutive lines to end in hyphens.
- 917 Try not to divide at the end of the first line or the last full line in a paragraph.
- 918 Do not divide the last word on a page.

Breaks Within Word Groups

919 Try to keep together certain kinds of word groups that need to be read together—for example, page and number, month and day, month and year, title and surname, surname and abbreviation (or number), number and abbreviation, or number and unit of measure.

page 63	March 1980	Helen Conti, M.D.	6:05 p.m.
January 16	Mr. Harris	Joseph Finley II	12 feet

920 When necessary, longer word groups may be broken according to the following rules.

	a. Dates may be broken between the	day and year.
	September 21,	NOT:
	b. Street addresses may be broken be Street, Avenue, or the like. If the stre words, the break may come between	eet name consists of two or more
	Avenue	Not:
	Mountain Road	Not:
	c. Names of places may be broken between the state and the ZIP Code. I two or more words, the break may comname.	f the city or state name consists of
	Oregon 97229, Portland,	or: Portland, Oregon 97229, Portland, Oregon
		OR:
	d. Names of persons may be broken middle initial if given) and surname.	between the given name (including
	Roberts Doris E.	NOT: Doris E. Roberts
	e. Names preceded by long titles may name (preferably) or between words	be broken between the title and the in the title.
	Henry S. Brewster	OR:
	f. A numbered or lettered list may be	broken before any number or letter.
	(1) All cards should	NOT: these points: (1) All cards should
	g. A sentence with a dash in it may	be broken after the dash.
	say, in March—let's	Not: Early next year —say, in March—let's
	Guides to Correct Syllabica	tion
921	Syllabication is generally based on pand derivations. Careful pronunciation the correct syllabication of a word.	pronunciation rather than on roots
	knowl- edge (NOT: know- ledge) chil- dren (NOT: child- ren)	prod- uct (nor: pro- duct) ser- vice (nor: serv- ice)
	Note how syllabication changes as p	pronunciation changes.
	Verbs	Nouns
	pre- sent (to make a gift) re- cord (to make an official copy) pro- ject (to throw forward)	pres- ent (a gift) rec- ord (an official copy) proj- ect (an undertaking)

- **922** The following paragraphs offer some guides to syllabication. You are not obliged to divide a word at the points named, but you can safely do so without checking a dictionary.
 - a. If a word ends in double consonants before a suffix is added, you can safely divide after the double consonants (so long as the suffix creates an extra syllable).

sell- ers

bless- ing

staff- ing

buzz- ers

BUT: filled, distressed

b. If a final consonant is doubled *because* a suffix is added, you can safely divide *between* the double consonants (so long as the suffix creates an extra syllable).

ship- ping

omit- ted

begin- ner

refer- ral

вит: shipped, referred

c. When double consonants appear elsewhere within the base word (but not as the final consonants), you can safely divide between them.

neces- sary con- nect ter- rible suc- cess

mil- lion dif- fer recom- mend sup- pose



GRAMMAR

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Subjects and Verbs

Basic Rule of Agreement

1001 A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

She is ready to start work on Monday. (Third person singular subject she with third person singular verb is.)

They are about to move to Utah. (Third person plural subject they with third person plural verb are.)

I am interested in applying for the job, (First person singular subject I with first person singular verb am.)

The invoice was paid by Check 4712. (Third person singular subject invoice with third person singular verb was paid.)

Your chairs were shipped on the 11th. (Third person plural subject chairs with third person plural verb were shipped.)

a. A plural verb is always required after you, even when you is singular, referring to only one person.

You were very kind to me during my illness.

b. Although s or es added to a noun indicates the plural form, s or es added to a verb indicates the third person singular. (See ¶1035.)

The tax applies to everyone. The price seems reasonable. The taxes apply to everyone. The prices seem reasonable.

Subjects Joined by And

1002 If the subject consists of two or more words connected by and or by both . . . and, the subject is plural and requires a plural verb.

Ms. Rizzo and Mr. Bruce have received promotions.

Both the collection and the delivery of mail are to be curtailed. (The repetition of the with the second subject emphasizes that two different items are meant.)

EXCEPTIONS:

a. Use a singular verb when two or more subjects connected by and refer to the same person or thing. (See also ¶1028, third example.)

Our secretary and treasurer is Frances Eisenberg. (One person.) Corned beef and cabbage was his favorite dish. (One dish.)

b. Use a singular verb when two or more subjects connected by and are preceded by each, every, many a, or many an. (See also ¶1009b.)

Every jacket, suit, and topcoat is marked for reduction.

Mony a woman and man has responded to our plea for funds.

Subjects Joined by Or or Similar Connectives

1003 If the subject consists of two or more singular words connected by or, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, or not only . . . but also, the subject is singular and requires a singular verb.

(Continued on page 174.)

Either July or August is a good time for the sales conference.

Neither the Credit Department nor the Accounting Department has the file. Not only a typewriter but also a stand has been requisitioned.

1004 If the subject consists of two or more plural words connected by or, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, or not only . . . but also, the subject is plural and requires a plural verb.

Neither the regional managers nor the salesclerks have the data you want.

1005 If the subject is made up of both singular and plural words connected by or, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, or not only . . . but also, the verb agrees with the nearer part of the subject. Since sentences with singular and plural subjects usually sound better with plural verbs, try to locate the plural subject closer to the verb whenever this can be done without sacrificing the emphasis desired.

> Either Miss Hertig or her assistants have the data. (The verb have agrees with the nearer subject, assistants.)

> Neither the buyers nor the sales manager is in favor of the system. (The verb is agrees with the nearer subject, sales manager.)

> BETTER: Neither the sales manager nor the buyers are in favor of the system. (The sentence reads better with the plural verb are, The subjects sales manager and buyers have been rearranged without changing the emphasis.)

> Not only the teachers but also the superintendent is in favor of the plan. (The verb is agrees with the nearer subject, superintendent. With the use of not only ... but also, the emphasis falls on the subject following but also.)

> Not only the superintendent but also the teachers are in favor of the plan. (When the sentence is rearranged, the nearer subject teachers requires the plural verb are. However, the emphasis has now changed.)

> Not only my colleagues but I am in favor of the plan. (The first person verb am agrees with the nearer subject I. Rearranging this sentence will change the emphasis.)

• See the last four examples in ¶1028 for neither . . . nor constructions following there is or there are; see also ¶1049c for examples of subject-verb-pronoun agreement in these constructions.

Intervening Phrases and Clauses

1006 When establishing agreement between subject and verb, disregard intervening phrases and clauses. (See ¶¶1013, 1025 for exceptions.)

> The purchase order for new supplies has not been found. (Disregard for new supplies. Purchase order is the subject and takes the singular verb has.)

The prices shown in our catalog do not include sales tax.

Only one of the items that I ordered has been delivered. (See also \$1008.)

Her experience with banks and brokerage houses gives her excellent qualifications for the position.

The color of the container, not the contents, determines the consumer's initial reaction

1007 The insertion of phrases introduced by with, together with, along with, as well as, plus, in addition to, besides, including, accompanied by, followed by, rather than, etc., between subject and verb does not affect the number of the verb. If the subject is singular, use a singular verb; if the subject is plural, use a plural verb.

Mrs. Swenson, together with her husband and daughter, is going to Arizona. This study, as well as many earlier reports, shows that the disease can be arrested if detected in time.

The sales reports, including the summary, were sent to you last week. No one, not even the company officers, hos been told. (See ¶1010.)

One of . . .

1008 a. Use a singular verb after a phrase beginning with one of or one of the: the singular verb agrees with the subject one. (Disregard any plural that follows of or of the.)

One of the sales journals has been lost.

One of the reasons for so many absences is poor health.

One of us has to take the responsibility.

One of you is to be nominated for the office.

b. The phrases one of those who and one of the things that are followed by plural verbs because the verbs refer to those or things (rather than to one).

She is one of those who favor increasing the staff. (In other words, of those who favor increasing the staff, she is one. Favor is plural to agree with those.)

He is one of our employees who are never late. (Of our employees who are never late, he is one.)

I ordered one of the calculators that were advertised. (Of the calculators that were advertised, I ordered one.)

John is only one of the staff members who are going to be transferred. (Of the staff members who are going to be transferred. John is only one.)

EXCEPTION: When the words the only precede such phrases, the meaning is singular and a singular verb is required. Note that both words, the and only, are required to produce a singular meaning.

John is the only one of the staff members who is going to be transferred. (Of the staff members, John is the only one who is going to be transferred. Here the singular verb is is required to agree with one.)

Indefinite Pronouns Always Singular

1009 a. The words each, every, either, neither, one, another, and much are always singular. When they are used as subjects or as adjectives modifying subjects, a singular verb is required.

Each has a clear-cut set of responsibilities.

Each employee is responsible for maintaining an orderly work station.

Either of the women is eligible. or: Either woman is eligible. (See *1003-1005 for the use of either . . . or and neither . . . nor.)

One shipment has already gone out; another is to leave the warehouse tomorrow

Much remains to be done, or: Much work remains to be done.

(Continued on page 176.)

b. When each, every, many a, or many an precedes two or more subjects joined by and, the verb should be singular.

Every teacher and student has been notified. (See ¶1002b for other examples.)

EXCEPTION: When each follows a plural subject, keep the verb plural. In that position, each has no effect on the number of the verb. To test the correctness of such sentences, mentally omit each.

The members each feel their responsibility.

They each have high expectations.

Twelve each of these items are required.

1010 The following compound pronouns are always singular and require a singular verb:

anybody anything	everybody everything	nobody nothing	somebody something
anytting	everydning	no one	someone
or any one	or every one		or some one

Everyone is required to register in order to vote.

Something tells me I'm wrong.

NOTE: Spell anyone, everyone, and someone as two words when these pronouns are followed by an of phrase or are used to mean "one of a number of things."

Every one of us (each person in the group) likes to be appreciated. BUT: Everyone (everybody) likes to be appreciated.

1011 Use a singular verb when two compound pronouns joined by and are used as subjects.

Anyone and everyone is entitled to a fair hearing.

Indefinite Pronouns Always Plural

1012 The words both, few, many, others, and several are always plural. When they are used as subjects or as adjectives modifying subjects, a plural verb is required.

Several members were invited; the others were overlooked.

Both books are out of print.

Many were asked, but few were able to answer.

Indefinite Pronouns Singular or Plural

1013 All, none, any, some, more, and most may be singular or plural, depending on the noun they refer to. (The noun often occurs in an of phrase immediately following.)

All the manuscript has been finished.

All the reports have been handed in.

Some was acceptable. (Meaning some of the manuscript.)

Some were acceptable. (Meaning some of the reports.)

Is there any (money) left? Are there any (bills) to be paid?

Do ony of you know John Ferguson well? (Any is plural because it refers to the plural you; hence the plural verb do know.)

Does any one of you know John Ferguson well? (Any is singular because it refers to the singular one; hence the singular verb does know.)

More than one customer has complained about that item. (More refers to the singular noun customer; hence the singular verb has complained.)

More than five customers have complained . . . (More refers to the plural noun customers; hence the plural verb have complained.)

Most of the stock has been sold, but more of these suits are due.

Some of the food seems too high-priced.

Some of the items seem too high-priced.

None of the merchandise was stolen.

None of the packages were properly wrapped.

None were injured. (Meaning none of the passengers.)

NOTE: In formal usage, none is still considered a singular pronoun. In general usage, however, none is considered singular or plural, depending on the number of the noun to which it refers. No one or not one is often used in place of none to stress the singular idea.

Nouns Ending in S

1014 Some nouns appear to be plural but are actually singular. When used as subjects, these nouns require singular verbs.

news (no plural) summons (plural: summonses)
measles (no plural) lens (plural: lenses)

The news from overseas is very discouraging.

The lens has to be reground.

1015 A number of nouns are always considered plural, even though they each refer to a single thing. As subjects, they require plural verbs.

> credentials goods premises riches thanks earnings grounds proceeds savings winnings

The premises are now available for inspection.

My earnings this year are not what I had counted on.

NOTE: The following nouns are considered plural unless preceded by the term a pair of.

glasses scissors pliers pants trousers

The scissors need sharpening. BUT: A pair of scissors has been taken.

1016 Some nouns have the same form in the plural as in the singular. When used as subjects, these nouns take singular or plural verbs according to the meaning.

series means deer sheep moose

The series of concerts planned for the spring looks very enticing. (One series.)

Three series of tickets are going to be issued. (Three series.)

One means of breaking the impasse is to offer more money. Other means of solving the problem have not come to mind.

Nouns Ending in ICS

1017 Many nouns ending in ics (such as economics, ethics, politics, and statistics) take singular or plural verbs, depending on how they are used. When they refer to a body of knowledge or a course of study, they are singular. When they refer to qualities or activities, they are plural.

Economics (a course of study) is a prerequisite for advanced business courses. The economics (the economic aspects) of his plan are not very sound.

Nouns With Foreign Plurals

1018 Watch for nouns with foreign-plural endings (see ¶614). Such plural nouns, when used as subjects, require plural verbs.

No criteria have been established. (But: No criterion has been established.) Parentheses are required around such references. (But: The closing parenthesis was omitted.)

The media through which we reach our clients are quality magazines and radio broadcasts. (BUT: The medium we find most effective is television.)

NOTE: The noun data (which is plural in form) is now commonly followed by a singular verb.

The data obtained after two months of experimentation is now being analyzed. **BUT:** The data assembled by six researchers are now being compared. (When the term data implies several distinct sets of information, use a plural verb.)

Collective Nouns

- 1019 The following rules govern the form of verb to be used when a collective noun is the subject. (A collective noun is a word that is singular in form but represents a group of persons, animals, or things; for example, army, audience, board, cabinet, class, committee, company, corporation, council, department, firm, faculty, group, jury, majority, minority, public, society, school.)
 - a. If the group is thought of as acting as a unit, the verb should be singular.

The Board of Directors meets Friday.

The committee has agreed to submit its report on Monday. (The pronoun its is also singular to agree with committee.)

The firm is one of the oldest in the field.

b. If the members of the group are thought of as acting separately, the verb should be plural.

The committee are not in agreement on the action they should take. (The verb are and the pronoun they are plural to agree with the plural committee.)

NOTE: The use of a collective noun with a plural verb often produces an awkward sentence. Whenever possible, recast the sentence by inserting a phrase like the members of before the collective noun.

The members of the committee are not in agreement on the action they should take.

c. In a number of constructions, the choice of a singular or plural verb often depends on whether you wish to emphasize the group as a unit or as a collection of individuals. However, once the choice has been made, treat the collective noun consistently within the same context.

I hope your family is well. (Emphasizes the family as a whole.) or: I hope your family are all well, (Emphasizes the individuals in the family,)

The couple was married (on were married) vesterday.

BUT: The couple have moved into their new house. (More idiomatic than "The couple has moved into its new house.")

NOTE: The expression a couple of is plural in meaning.

A couple of customers have already reported the error in our ad.

Company Names

1020 Company names may be treated as either singular or plural. Ordinarily, treat the name as singular unless you wish to emphasize the individuals who make up the firm; in that case, use the plural. Once a choice has been made, treat the term consistently within the same context. NOTE: If the company is referred to as they or who, use a plural verb with the company name. If the company is referred to as it or which, use a singular verb.

> Brooks & Rice has lost its lease. It is now looking for a new location. OR: Brooks & Rice have lost their lease. They are now looking for . . . (BUT NOT: Brooks & Rice has lost its lease. They are now looking for . . .)

Geographical Names

1021 Geographical names that are plural in form are treated as singular if they refer to only one thing.

The Netherlands is the first stop on my itinerary.

The United States has undertaken a new foreign aid program.

BUT: These United States are bound together by a common heritage of political and religious liberty.

Titles of Publications

1022 The title of a book or magazine is considered singular, even though it is plural in form.

Changing Times is published every month by Kiplinger.

U.S. News & World Report comes out once a week.

The Number: A Number

1023 The expression the number has a singular meaning and requires a singular verb; a number has a plural meaning and requires a plural verb.

The number of back orders is nearly a hundred.

A number of our staff are going on vacation next week.

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Expressions of Time, Money, and Quantities

1024 When subjects expressing periods of time, amounts of money, or quantities represent a total amount, singular verbs are used. When these subjects represent a number of individual units, plural verbs are used.

Three months is too long a time to wait.

BUT: Three months have passed since our last exchange of letters.

That \$10,000 was an inheritance from my uncle.

BUT: Thousands of dollars have already been spent on the project.

Ten acres is considered a small piece of property in this area.

BUT: Ten acres were plowed last spring.

Fractional Expressions

- **1025** When the subject is an expression such as one-half of, two-thirds of, a part of, a majority of, or a percentage of:
 - a. Use a singular verb if a singular noun follows of or is implied.

Three-fourths of the mailing list has been checked.

Part of our Norfolk operation is being closed down.

A majority of 2,000 signifies a landslide in this town. (The noun 2,000 is considered singular because it is a total amount. See ¶1024.)

b. Use a plural verb when a plural noun follows of or is implied.

Two-thirds of our customers live in the suburbs.

Part of the walls are to be papered.

A large percentage of our students live at home.

Over half the staff have signed up for the additional benefits. (A collective noun, though singular in form, takes a plural verb when it is plural in meaning.)

Phrases and Clauses as Subjects

1026 When a phrase or clause serves as the subject, the verb should be singular.

Analyzing financial reports takes all my time these days.

Whether the decision was right or not is no longer important.

That they will accept the offer is far from certain.

Whomever you support is likely to be elected.

EXCEPTION: Clauses beginning with what may be singular or plural according to the meaning.

What we need is a new statement of policy.

What we need are some guidelines.

Subjects in Inverted Sentences

1027 In sentences in which the verb precedes the subject, make sure that the subject and verb agree.

On the results of this survey depend the extent and the type of campaign we shall wage.

Attached are two carbon copies.

What were your reasons for resigning?

What is the likelihood of our persuading you to stay?

Where are the reviews of the Carter book?

NOT: Where is (OR Where's) the reviews of the Carter book?

1028 In a sentence beginning with there is, there are, here is, or here are, the real subject follows the verb. Use is when the real subject is singular, are when it is plural.

There is a vast difference between the two plans. (Subject is difference.)

There are a great many angles to this problem. (Subject is angles.)

Here is an old friend and former partner of mine. (The subject, friend and partner, is singular because only one person is referred to. See $\P1002a$.)

Here are a catalog and an order blank. (The subject is catalog and order blank.)

There is more than one way to solve the problem. (See also ¶1013.)

There are more than five candidates running for mayor.

There are a number of problems to be resolved. (See also ¶1023.)

Here is the number of orders received since Monday.

Here is ten dollars as a contribution. (See also ¶1024.)

Here are ten silver dollars for your collection.

There is neither a student nor a teacher who has solved that problem. (See ¶1003 for two singular subjects joined by neither . . . nor.)

There are neither staples nor paper clips in the supplies cabinet. (See ¶1004 for two plural subjects joined by neither . . . nor.)

There are neither carbon ribbons nor cleaning fluid left in stock. (Are agrees with the nearer subject. See also \$1005 for singular and plural subjects joined by neither . . . nor.)

There is neither ink eradicator nor ink erosers on hand. (Is agrees with the nearer subject, ink eradicator. See also ¶1005.)

Subjects and Predicate Complements

1029 Sentences containing a linking verb (such as become or some form of to be) sometimes have a plural subject and a singular complement or a singular subject and a plural complement. In such cases make sure that the verb agrees with the subject (and not with the complement).

Bicycles are the only product we make.

One of the things we have to keep track of is entertainment expenses. (Use is to agree with one, the subject.)

It is they who are at fault. (Use is to agree with it, the subject.)

NOTE: Do not confuse the last two examples with the inverted sentences shown in ¶1028. In a sentence beginning with here is or there is, the subject follows the linking verb. In a sentence beginning with it is or one . . . is, the subject precedes the linking verb.

Verbs

This section deals with the correct use of verb tenses and other verb forms. For the rules on agreement of verbs with subjects, see \$\frac{1}{1001}-1029.

Principal Parts

- **1030** The principal parts of a verb are the four simple forms upon which all tenses and other modifications of the verb are based.
 - a. In most verbs, the past and the past participle are formed simply by adding *d* or *ed* to the present form; the present participle is formed by adding ing to the present.

Present	Past	Past Participle	Present Participle
fill	filled	filled	filling
need	needed	needed	needing
taxi	taxied	taxied	taxiing
drop	dropped	dropped	dropping (see ¶701)
occur	occurred	occurred	occurring (see ¶702)
offer	offered	offered	offering (see ¶704)
argue	argued	argued	arguing (see ¶707)
die	died	died	dying (see ¶709)
try	tried	tried	trying (see ¶710)
obey	obeyed	obeyed	obeying (see ¶711)

 $\ensuremath{\mathbf{b}}.$ Many frequently used verbs, however, have principal parts that are irregularly formed.

Present	Past	Past Participle	Present Participle
choose	chose	chosen	choosing
do	did	done	doing
forget	forgot	forgotten or forgot	forgetting
see	saw	seen	seeing
write	wrote	written	writing
lay (see ¶1101)	laid	laid	laying
lie (see ¶1101)	lay	lain	lying

NOTE: The dictionary shows the principal parts for all irregular verbs. If you are in doubt about any form, consult the dictionary. If the principal parts are not shown, the verb is regular (see \$1030a above).

c. The past participle and the present participle, if used as a part of a verb phrase, must *always* be used with one or more auxiliary verbs. The most common auxiliary verbs are:

is	was	can	do	has	have	might	shall	will
are	Mere	could	did	had	may	must	hluada	would

Verb Tenses

- **1031** The first principal part of the verb (the present tense) is used:
 - a. To express present time.

We fill all orders promptly. They do what is expected of them.

b. To make a statement that is true at all times.

Water seeks its own level.

c. With shall or will to express future time.

We will order (on shall order) new stock next week. (For the use of these auxiliary verbs in the future tense, see the entry for Shall-will in ¶1101.)

See ¶1035 for the third person singular form of the present tense.

1032 The second principal part of the verb (the past tense) is used to express past time. (No auxiliary verb is used with this form.)

We filled the order yesterday. They did what was expected of them.

NOTE: Do not use a past participle form to express the past tense.

He drank his coffee. (NOT: He drunk it.)

I saw it. (NOT: I seen it.)

They began it together. (NOT: They begun it.)

He was the one who did it. (NOT: He was the one who done it.)

- 1033 The third principal part of the verb (the past participle) is used:
 - a. To form the present perfect tense. This tense indicates action that was started in the past and has recently been completed or is continuing up to the present time. It consists of the verb have or has plus the past participle.

We have filled the orders. (NOT: We have filled the orders yesterday.)

She has done what was expected of her.

The consumer movement has become an articulate force in today's business world.

b. To form the past perfect tense. This tense indicates action that was completed before another past action. It consists of the verb had plus the past participle.

We had filled the orders before we saw your letter.

They had done the job before we arrived.

c. To form the future perfect tense. This tense indicates action that will be completed before a certain time in the future. It consists of the verb shall have or will have plus the past participle.

We will have filled the orders by that time. (See ¶1101 for the use of shall and will.)

They will have finished the job by next Friday.

NOTE: Be careful not to use a past tense form (the second principal part) in place of a past participle.

I have broken the racket. (NOT: I have broke the racket.)

The dress has shrunk. (NOT: The dress has shrunk.)

Prices have risen again. (NOT: Prices have rose again.)

He has worn his shoes out. (NOT: He has wore his shoes out.)

- 1034 The fourth principal part of the verb (the present participle) is used:
- a. To form the present progressive tense. This tense indicates action still in progress. It consists of the verb am, is, or are plus the present participle.

We are filling all orders as fast as we can.

They are doing all that can be expected of them.

b. To form the past progressive tense. This tense indicates action in progress sometime in the past. It consists of the verb was or were plus the present participle.

We were waiting for new stock at the time your order came in. They were doing a good job when I last checked on them.

c. To form the future progressive tense. This tense indicates action that will be in progress in the future. It consists of the verb *shall* be or *will* be plus the present participle.

We will be working overtime for the next two weeks. (See $\P 1101$ for the use of shall and will.)

They will be receiving additional stock throughout the next two weeks.

d. To form the present perfect progressive, the past perfect progressive, and the future perfect progressive tenses. These tenses are exactly like the simple perfect tenses (see ¶1033) except that the progressive element suggests continuous action. These tenses consist of the verbs has been, have been, had been, shall have been, and will have been plus the present participle. Compare the following examples with those in ¶1033.

We have been filling these orders with Model 212A instead of 212. (Present perfect progressive.)

We had been filling these orders with Model 212A until we saw your directive. (Past perfect progressive.)

By next Friday we will have been working overtime for two straight weeks. (Future perfect progressive.)

- 1035 The first principal part of the verb undergoes a change in form to express the third person singular in the present tense.
 - a. Most verbs simply add s in the third person singular.

he feels
she thinks
it looks

BUT: I feel, you feel, we feel, they feel
I think, you think, we think, they think
I look, you look, we look, they look

b. Verbs ending in s, x, z, sh, ch, or o add es.

he misses he wishes she fixes she catches it buzzes it goes

c. Verbs ending in a vowel plus y add s; those ending in a consonant plus y change y to i and add es; those already ending in i simply add s.

say: he says try: it tries taxi: he taxis convey: she conveys apply: she applies ski: she skis

d. The verb *to be* is irregular since *be*, the first principal part, is not used in the present tense.

I am we are you are he, she, it is they are

e. A few verbs remain unchanged in the third person singular.

he may she can it will he might she could it would

• See the entry for Don't in ¶1101.

Passive Forms

1036 The passive forms of a verb consist of some part of the auxiliary verb to be plus the past participle of the main verb.

it is intended (present passive of intend)
we were expected (past passive of expect)
they will be audited (future passive of oudit)
she has been notified (present perfect passive of notify)
you had been told (past perfect passive of tell)
he will have been given (future perfect passive of give)

1037 A passive verb directs the action toward the subject. An active verb directs the action toward an object.

ACTIVE: Melanie (subject) will lead (verb) the discussion (object).
PASSIVE: The discussion (subject) will be led (verb) by Melanie.

- For additional examples see the entry for Voice in the Glossary, page 311.
- a. The passive form of a verb is appropriate (1) when you want to emphasize the receiver of the action (by making it the subject) or (2) when the doer of the action is not important or is not mentioned.

I was seriously injured as a result of your negligence. (Emphasizes I, the receiver of the action. RATHER THAN: Your negligence seriously injured me.)
This proposal is based on a careful analysis of all available research studies. (The doer of the action is not mentioned.)

b. In all other cases, use active verb forms to achieve a simpler and more vigorous style. Except in those circumstances cited in a above, passive verb forms typically produce awkward or stilted sentences.

WEAK PASSIVES: It has been decided by the Personnel Committee that full pay should be given to you for the period of your hospitalization.

STRONG ACTIVES: The Personnel Committee has decided that you should receive full pay for the period of your hospitalization.

Verbs Following Clauses of Necessity, Demand, Etc.

- 1038 Sentences that express necessity, demond, strong request, urging, or resolution in the main clause require a subjunctive verb in the dependent clause that follows.
 - · See the entry for Mood. subjunctive in the Glossary, pages 305-306.
 - a. If the verb in the dependent clause requires the use of the verb to be, use the form be with all three persons (not am. is. or are).

NECESSITY: It is necessary (or important or essential) that these questions be answered at once. (Not: are answered.)

DEMAND: I demand that I be given a hearing on this matter. (NOT: am given.)
REQUEST: They have asked that you be notified at once. (NOT: are notified.)

URGING: We urge (or suggest) that he be given a second chance. (NOT: is given.)
RESOLUTION: The committee has resolved (or decided or ruled) that the decision
be deferred until the next meeting. (NOT: is deferred.)

b. If the verb in the dependent clause is a verb other than be, use the ordinary *present tense* form for all three persons. However, do not add s for the third person singular.

NECESSITY: It is essential that he arrive on time. (NOT: arrives.)

DEMAND: They insist that he do the work over. (NOT: does.)

REQUEST: They have asked that she remain on the committee. (Not: remains.)

URGING: I suggest that she type the material triple-spaced. (NOT: types.)

RESOLUTION: They have resolved that Fred represent them. (NOT: represents.)

Verbs Following Wish Clauses

- **1039** Sentences that start with *I* wish, he wishes, and so on, require a subjunctive verb in the dependent clause that follows.
 - a. To express present time in the dependent clause, put the verb in the past tense.

I wish I knew how to proceed.

I wish I could attend.

NOTE: If the verb is to be, use were (not was) for all persons.

I wish I were going to the reception.

I wish he were going with me.

 ${\bf b}.$ To express post time in the dependent clause, put the verb in the post perfect tense.

I wish that she had invited me.

I wish that I had been there.

I wish that I could have attended.

c. To express future time in the dependent clause, use the auxiliary verb would instead of will.

I wish he would arrive on time.

Verbs in If Clauses

- 1040 When an if clause states a condition that is highly improbable, doubtful, or contrary to fact, the verb in the if clause requires special treatment, like that described in ¶1039: to express present time, use the past tense; to express past time, use the past perfect tense. (In the following examples note the relationship of tenses between the dependent clause and the main clause.)
 - If I knew the answer (but I don't), I would not ask you.
 - If I had known the answer (but I didn't), I would not have asked you.
 - If I were you (but I am not), I would take the job.
 - If I had been in your shoes (but I wasn't), I would have taken the job.

If he were invited (but he isn't), he would be glad to go.

If he had been invited (but he wasn't), he would have been glad to go.

(NOTE: Do not use would have for had in an if clause. See the entry for Would have in ¶1101.)

1041 When an if clause states a condition that is possible or likely, the verb in the if clause requires no special Ireatment. To express present time, use the present tense; to express past time, use the past tense. Compare the following pairs of examples. Those labeled "Probable" reflect the verb forms described here in ¶1041. Those labeled "Improbable" reflect the verb forms described in ¶1040.

PROBABLE: If I leave this job (and I may do so), I will take a teaching position.

IMPROBABLE: If I left this job (but I probably won't), I would take a teaching position.

PROBABLE: If I go to San Francisco (and I may), I will want you to go with me.

IMPROBABLE: If I were going to San Francisco (but I probably won't), I would want you to go with me.

PROBABLE: If she was in the office yesterday (and she may have been), I did not see her.

IMPROBABLE: If she had been in the office yesterday (but she wasn't), I would have seen her.

Verbs in As If or As Though Clauses

1042 When an as if or as though clause expresses a condition contrary to fact, the verb in the clause requires special treatment, like that described in \$1040.

She acts as if she were the only person who mattered. (But she isn't.) He talks as if he knew the facts of the situation. (But he doesn't.) You act as if you hadn't a care in the world. (But you have.)

1043 As if or as though clauses are now often used to express a condition that is highly probable. In such cases do not give the verb special treatment. Use the present tense to express present time, the future tense to express future time, and the past tense to express past time.

It looks as if it will rain. (or. It looks as if it is going to rain.) She acted as if she planned to look for another job.

Infinitives

1044 An infinitive is the form of the verb preceded by to (for example, to write, to do, to be). When two or more infinitives are used in a parallel construction, the word to may be omitted after the first infinitive unless special emphasis is desired.

Ask Ruth Gonzales to sign both copies of the contract, return the original to us, and keep the carbon copy for her own files. (Return and keep are infinitives without to.)

I would like you to explain the job to Harry, to give him help if he needs it, and to see that the job is done properly. (For emphasis, to is used with all three infinitives—explain, give, and see.)

NOTE: The word to is usually dropped when the infinitive follows such verbs as see, hear, feel, let, help, and need.

Will you please help me prepare the report? (RATHER THAN: help me to prepare the report?)

You need not return the clipping. (or: You do not need to return the clipping.)

- 1045 Infinitives have two main tense forms: the present infinitive and the perfect infinitive.
 - a. The perfect infinitive is used to express action that has been completed before the time of the main verb

I am sorry to have caused you so much trouble last week. (The act of causing trouble was completed before the act of expressing regret; therefore, the perfect infinitive is used.)

b. The present infinitive is used in all other cases.

I planned to leave early. (NOT: to have left. The act of leaving could not have been completed before the act of planning; therefore, the present infinitive is used.)

1046 Splitting an infinitive (that is, inserting an adverb between to and the verb) should be avoided because (a) it typically produces an awkward construction and (b) the adverb usually functions more effectively in another location

WEAK: It was impossible to even see a foot ahead.

BETTER: It was impossible to see even a foot ahead.

WEAK: He always tries to carefully do the work.

BETTER: He always tries to do the work carefully.

However, split the infinitive when alternative locations of the adverb produce an awkward or weakly constructed sentence.

a. Before splitting an infinitive, first try to place the adverb after the object of the infinitive. In many instances the adverb functions most effectively in that location.

You ought to review these plans thoroughly. (BETTER THAN: You ought to thoroughly review these plans.)

I need to make the decision quickly. (BETTER THAN: I need to quickly make the decision.)

b. If step a does not produce an effective sentence, try to locate the adverb directly before or directly after the infinitive. In some cases the adverb functions effectively in this position; in other cases the resulting sentence is awkward.

CONFUSINC: I want you to supervise the work that is to be done personally. (When the object of the infinitive is long or involved, it is difficult to place the adverb after the object without creating confusion. Here personally seems to modify to be done when in fact it should modify to supervise.)

AWKWARD: I want you to supervise personally the work that is to be done. COOD: I want you personally to supervise the work that is to be done.

c. If steps a and b fail to produce an effective sentence, try splitting the infinitive. If a good sentence results, keep it; if not, try rewording the sentence.

CONFUSING: I want you to consider Jenkins' proposal to handle all our deliveries carefully. (When carefully is located after the complete object, it no longer clearly refers to to consider.)

AWKWARD: I want you carefully to consider Jenkins' proposal to handle all our deliveries.

AWKWARD: I want you to consider carefully Jenkins' proposal to handle all our deliveries.

coop: I want you to carefully consider Jenkins' proposal to handle all our deliveries.

d. When an infinitive consists of to be plus a past participle of another verb, inserting an adverb before the past participle is not considered splitting an infinitive.

These plans need to be thoroughly reviewed.

Time appears to be fast running out.

NOTE: Nevertheless, in many such sentences the adverb may be located to better advantage elsewhere in the sentence.

See also \$1082b for dangling infinitive phrases.

Sequence of Tenses

1047 When the verb in the main clause is in the past tense, the verb in a subordinate that clause should also express past time. Compare the following pairs of examples:

She says (present) that she is now working (present) for CBS.

She said (past) that she was now working (past) for CBS.

He says (present) that he has seen (present perfect) your résumé.

He said (past) that he had seen (past perfect) your résumé.

I think (present) that he will see (future) you tomorrow.

I thought (past) that he would see (past form of will see) you tomorrow.

EXCEPTION: The verb in the subordinate clause should remain in the present tense if it expresses a general truth.

Our legal adviser pointed out (past) that all persons under 18 are (present) legally considered minors. (General truth.)

Omitting Parts of Verbs

1048 When compound verbs in the same sentence share a common element, that element does not need to be repeated.

We have received your letter and forwarded it to our St. Louis office. (The auxiliary verb have is shared by the two main verbs, received and forwarded.) We can and will ochieve these goals. (The main verb achieve is shared by the two auxiliary verbs, can and will.)

However, do not omit any element when different parts of the main verb are required.

WRONG: I never have and I never will forget what you have done for me.

WRONG: We have and still are asking for an accounting of the assets.

RIGHT: We have asked and still are asking for . . .

Troublesome Verbs

• See individual entries listed alphabetically in ¶1101 for the following verbs:

Affect-effect Graduated-was graduated Of-have Appraise-apprise Imply-infer Raise-rise Bring-take Lay-lie Serve-service Come-go Learn-teach Set-sit Done Leave-let Shall-will Don't May-can Should-would Enthused over Maybe-may be Would have

Pronouns

Agreement With Antecedents: Basic Rules

1049 a. A pronoun must agree with its *antecedent* (the word for which the pronoun stands) in number, gender, and person.

I must stand by my client, just as you must stand by yours.

Frank said that he could do the job alone.

Alice wants to know whether her proposal has been approved.

The company has not decided whether to change its policy on vacations. (See ¶¶1019–1020.)

The company's auditors will issue their report tomorrow.

The Vanderveers are giving a party at their house.

The grand jury has completed its investigation. (See ¶1019 for collective nouns.) Why not have each witness write his or her version of the accident? (See ¶1053

for indefinite pronouns as antecedents.)

It is I who am at fault. (Who agrees in person and number with the antecedent I; the verb am also agrees with I.)

It is they who are behind schedule.

It is you who are to blame. (Who refers to you; hence the verb are also agrees with you.) $\,$

вит: You are the person who is to blame. (Who refers to person; hence the verb is also agrees with person.)

b. Use a plural pronoun when the antecedent consists of two nouns joined by *and*.

Harry and I think we can handle the assignment.

Can Mary and you give us your decision by Monday?

Sonia and Dave say they will attend.

The Montaignes and the Reillys have sent their regrets.

c. Use a singular pronoun when the antecedent consists of two singular nouns joined by or or nor. Use a plural pronoun when the antecedent consists of two plural nouns joined by or or nor. (See also ¶1003-1005.)

Either Will or Ed will have to give up his office. (NOT: their.)

Neither Joan nor Helen wants to do her share. (NOT: their.)

Either the Kopecks or the Henleys will bring their phonograph.

NOTE: When or or nor joins a singular noun and a plural noun, a pronoun that refers to this construction should agree in number with the nearer

noun. However, a strict application of this rule can lead to problems in sentence structure and meaning. Therefore, always try to make this kind of construction plural.

Neither Mr. Wing nor his employees have reached their goal. (The plural pronoun their is used to agree with the nearer noun, employees; the verb have is also in the plural.)

NOT: Neither the employees nor Mr. Wing has reached his goal. (The sentence follows the rule-his agrees with Mr. Wing, the nearer noun, and the verb has is singular; however, the meaning of the sentence has been distorted.)

Agreement With Common-Gender Antecedents

1050 Nouns that apply both to males and females have a common gender.

parent	manager	professor	boss	writer
child	doctor	instructor	supervisor	speaker
customer	lawver	student	employee	listener

When a singular noun of common gender serves as a definite antecedent (one that names a specific person whose gender is known), use he or she as appropriate.

My boss (previously identified as Robert Hecht) prefers to open his own mail. Ask your doctor (known to be a woman) to sign her name on the attached forms.

1051 When a singular noun of common gender serves as an indefinite antecedent (a doctor, any doctor, every doctor) or as a generic antecedent (the doctor, meaning "doctors in general"), the traditional practice has been to use he as a generic pronoun applying equally to males and females.

The writer should include a table of contents with his manuscript.

When an indefinite or generic antecedent names an occupation or a role in which women predominate (for example, the teacher, the secretary, the nurse), the traditional practice has been to use she as a generic pronoun.

A secretary needs to organize her work and set priorities each day.

- 1052 The traditional use of he and she as generic pronouns (described in \$1051 above) has been coming under increasing attack. Critics feel that the masculine bias in the word he makes it unsuitable as a pronoun that applies equally to women and men. Moreover, they feel that the generic use of she serves to reinforce stereotyped notions about women's occupations or roles. The ideal solution would be a new generic pronoun without masculine or feminine connotations. However, until such a pronoun has been devised and accepted into common usage, here are a number of alternatives to the generic he or she.
 - a. Use he or she, his or her, or him or her. (This solution works well in isolated cases but can become cumbersome if repeated frequently in the same context.)

An instructor should offer his or her students challenging projects. (RATHER THAN: An instructor should offer his students . . .)

b. Change the wording from singular to plural.

Parents of teenage children often wonder where they went wrong.

(RATHER THAN: The parent of a teenage child often wonders where he or she went wrong.)

c. Reword to avoid the generic pronoun.

When a customer calls, be sure to ask for a phone number.

(RATHER THAN: . . . ask him or her to leave his or her phone number.)

A secretary tries to anticipate the needs of the boss.

(RATHER THAN: . . . the needs of his or her boss.)

NOTE: If the application of these various alternatives produces wordiness or an unacceptable shift in meaning or emphasis, use the generic he or the generic she as described in ¶1051. The generic use of these pronouns continues to be acceptable. However, sensitive writers will try, whenever possible, to avoid it.

Agreement With Indefinite-Pronoun Antecedents

1053 a. Use a singular pronoun when the antecedent is a singular indefinite pronoun. The following indefinite pronouns are always singular:

anyone	everyone	someone	no one
anybody	everybody	somebody	nobody
anything	everything	something	nothing
each	everv	either	one
each one	many a	neither	another

Every company has its own vacation policy. (NOT: their.)

NOTE: These singular indefinite pronouns often call for the generic use of he or she (see ¶¶1051-1052). In the following sentences he and she are correctly used as generic pronouns. However, alternative wording is shown, wherever possible, to suggest how the generic he or she can be avoided.

Everyone should submit his expense account by Friday.

BETTER: All staff members should submit their expense accounts by Friday.

OR: Everyone should submit his or her expense account by Friday.

If onyone should ask for me, tell him that I won't return until Monday.

BETTER: If anyone should ask for me, say that I won't return...

While the conference is in session, does every secretary know how she is to handle her boss's correspondence?

BETTER: . . . do all the secretaries know how they are to handle their bosses' correspondence?

Nobody could have helped himself in a situation like that.

See also ¶¶1009-1011 for agreement of these indefinite pronouns with verbs; ¶637 for possessive forms of these pronouns.

b. Use a plural pronoun when the antecedent is a plural indefinite pronoun. The following indefinite pronouns are always plural:

many few several others both

Many customers prefer to help themselves; others like to have someone to wait on them.

A few of the secretaries have not yet taken their vacations.

Several sales representatives made their annual goals in nine months.

Both managers have said that they want to be considered for Mr. Hall's job when he retires next year.

- See also \$1012 for agreement of these indefinite pronouns with verbs.
- c. The following indefinite pronouns may be singular or plural, depending on the noun they refer to.

all none any some more most

When these words are used as antecedents, carefully determine whether they are singular or plural. Then make the pronouns that refer to these antecedents agree in number.

Some employees have not yet had their annual physical checkup, (Some refers to employees and is plural; some is the antecedent of their.)

Some of the manuscript has been typed, but it has not been proofread. (Some refers to manuscript and is singular; some is the antecedent of it in the second clause.)

- See also ¶1013 for agreement of these indefinite pronouns with verbs.
- **d.** Since indefinite pronouns express the third person, pronouns referring to these antecedents should also be in the third person (he, she, it, they).

If anyone wants a salary advance, he or she should apply for it in writing. (NOT: If anyone wants a salary advance, you should apply for it in writing.)

If the indefinite pronoun is modified so that it strongly expresses the first or second person, the personal pronoun must also agree in number. Compare the following examples:

Most parents want their children to go to college. (Third person.) Most of us want our children to go to college. (First person.)

A few have missed their deadlines. (Third person.)

A few of you have missed your deadlines. (Second person.)

Each employee knows how much he or she ought to contribute. (Third person.) Bur: Each of us knows how much he or she ought to contribute. (Third person. In this sentence, of us does not shift the meaning to the first person; the emphasis is on what the individual contributes, not on what we contribute.)

IMPORTANT NOTE: Pronouns take different forms, not only to indicate a difference in person (I. you, he), number (he, they), and gender (he, she) but also to indicate a difference in case (nominative, possessive, objective). Although a pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender, it does not necessarily agree with its antecedent in case. The case of a pronoun depends on its own relation to the other words in the sentence. The rules in \$\frac{4}{3}\$1054-1064 indicate how to choose the right case for pronouns.

Personal Pronouns

- 1054 Use the nominative forms of personal pronouns (I, we, you, he, she, it, they):
 - a. When the pronoun is the subject of a verb.

I wrote to Eileen McIntyre, but she hasn't answered.

Are they planning to follow up?

Debbie and I can handle the job ourselves. (NOT: Debbie and me.)

Either he or I can work late tonight. (NOT: him or me.)

NOTE: In sentences like the last two above, try each subject alone with the verb. You would not say "Me can handle the job" or "Him can work late tonight." Therefore, I and he must be used.

b. When the pronoun appears in the predicate after some form of the verb to be (am, is, are, was, were) or after a verb phrase containing some form of to be (see the list below). Pronouns that follow these verb forms should be in the nominative.

shall (or will) be should (or would) be shall (or will) have been should (or would) have been can (or could) be could have been

It might have been *I*.

It could have been they.

It is I.

have (or has) been
had been
may (or might) be
may (or might) have been
must (or ought to) be
must have (or ought to have) been

Was it he or she who phoned? The "culprit" was she.

This is she.

This is her" are acceptable in

NOTE: Sentences like "It is me" and "This is her" are acceptable in colloquial speech but should not be used in writing. Moreover, a sentence like "It could have been they," while grammatically correct, would be better if reworded into idiomatic English: "They could have been the ones."

- See ¶1064 for special rules governing pronouns with the infinitive to be.
- 1055 Use the objective forms of personal pronouns (me, us, you, him, her, it, them):
 - a. When the pronoun is the direct or indirect object of a verb.

Larry gave Maris and us tickets for the opening.

They invited my husband and me for the weekend.

 ${\tt NOTE:}$ When my husband and is mentally omitted, the objective form me is clearly the correct pronoun.

They invited me for the weekend.

b. When the pronoun is the object of a preposition.

This is for you and her.

No one knows except you and me. (NOT: except you and I.)

Between you and me, that decision is unfair, (Not: between you and I.)

EXCEPTION: He is a friend of mine (yours, his, hers, ours, theirs). (See also ¶648).

c. When the pronoun is the subject or the object of an infinitive. (See also ¶1064.)

The department head asked him to resign. (Him is the subject of to resign.) Did you ask lanet to call me? (Me is the object of to call.)

- 1056 Most personal pronouns have two possessive forms.
 - a. Use my, your, his, her, its, our, or their when the possessive pronoun immediately precedes the noun it modifies.

That is my book.

It was their choice.

b. Use mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, or theirs when the possessive pronoun stands apart from the noun it refers to.

That book is mine. The choice was theirs. George is a neighbor of hers. She is a client of ours.

c. A pronoun that modifies a gerund (a verbal noun ending in ing) should be in the possessive. (See also ¶647.)

I appreciated your shipping the order so promptly.

d. Do not confuse certain possessive pronouns with contractions that sound like the possessive pronouns.

it's (it is on it has) its (possessive) they're (they are) their (possessive)

there's (there is on there has) theirs (possessive)

vou're (vou are) your (possessive)

As a test for the correct form, try to substitute it is (or it has, they are, there are, there is, there has, or you are, whichever is appropriate). If the substitution does not make sense, use the corresponding possessive form.

The firm must protect its assets. ("Protect it is assets" makes no sense.)

BUT: It's time to take stock of our achievements.

Their investing in high-risk stocks was a bad idea.

BUT: They're investing in high-risk stocks.

Theirs no longer works; that's why they borrow ours.

BUT: There's no use expecting him to change.

Your thinking is sound, but we lack the funds to underwrite your proposal. BUT: You're thinking of applying for a transfer, I understand.

- See also ¶¶636-637 for other possessive pronouns.
- 1057 When a pronoun follows than or as in a comparison, determine the correct form of the pronoun by mentally supplying any missing words.

She types better than I. (Than I do.)

l like you better than him. (Than I like him.)

You are not as healthy as she. (As healthy as she is.)

1058 When a pronoun is used to identify a noun or another pronoun, it is either nominative or objective, depending on whether the antecedent is nominative or objective.

The committee has asked us, Ruth and me, to present the report. (Since us is objective, the identifying pronoun me is also objective.)

The explanation was for the newcomers, Marie and me. (Was for me.)

The exceptions were the newcomers, Marie and I. (Exception was I.)

Let's you and me go to the convention. (Let's is a contraction for let us. Since us is the objective form, the explanatory pronouns you and me are also objective.)

The company wants us employees to work on Saturdays.

We employees need to confer.

NOTE: In sentences like the last two above, mentally omit the noun (employees) to determine the correct form.

The company wants us to work on Saturdays.

We need to confer.

1059 Some writers consistently use we instead of I to avoid a seeming overemphasis on themselves. However, it is preferable to use we only when you are speaking on behalf of an organization you represent and to use I when speaking for yourself alone.

We shall prepare the necessary forms as soon as you send us a signed release. (This writer is speaking on behalf of his firm.)

It is my opinion that this patient may be discharged at once. (This writer is speaking only for himself. Under these circumstances it would sound pompous to say, "It is our opinion.")

Compound Personal Pronouns

- 1060 The self- or selves-ending pronouns (myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves) should be used:
 - a. To direct the action expressed by the verb back to the subject.

She found herself the only one in favor of the move.

We have satisfied ourselves as to the wisdom of the action.

We think that they have insured themselves against a possible loss.

b. To emphasize or to intensify a noun or pronoun already expressed.

The trainees themselves arranged the program.

I myself am bewildered.

I will write her myself.

NOTE: Do not use a compound personal pronoun unless the noun or pronoun to which it refers is expressed in the same sentence.

The tickets are for the Wrights and me. (NOT: myself.)

Henry and I can distribute all the mail. (NOT: Henry and myself.)

Interrogative and Relative Pronouns

1061 Who and Whom; Whoever and Whomever

a. These pronouns are both interrogative pronouns (used in asking questions) and relative pronouns (used to refer to a noun in the main clause of a sentence).

Who is going? (Interrogative.)

Mr. Sears is the one who is going. (Relative, referring to one.)

To whom shall I deliver the message? (Interrogative.)

Ms. DeAngelis, whom I have never met, is in charge. (Relative, referring to Ms. DeAngelis.)

b. These pronouns may be either singular or plural in meaning.

Who is talking? (Singular.)

Who are to be selected? (Plural.)

Whom do you prefer for this job? (Singular.)

Whom do you prefer for these jobs? (Plural.)

c. Who (or whoever) is the nominative form. Use who whenever he, she, they, I, or we could be substituted in the who clause. (If in doubt, mentally rearrange the clause as is done in parentheses after each of the following examples.) (See also \$1054b.)

Who is at the door? (She is at the door.)

Who sang the duet with you? (He sang.)

Who shall we say referred us? (We shall say he referred us.)

Who did they say was chosen? (They did say she was chosen.)

Who could it have been? (It could have been he.)

The matter of who should pay was not decided. (He should pay.)

We want to know who you think should be appointed. (You think she should be appointed.)

Whoever wins the primary will win the election. (She wins the primary.)

I will hire whoever meets our minimum qualifications. (He meets our minimum qualifications.)

I will speak to whoever answers the phone. (He answers the phone.)

Please write at once to whoever you think can supply the information desired. (You think she can supply the information desired.)

Gloria is the one who can best do the job. (She can best do the job.)

James is the one who we expect will win. (We expect he will win.)

Please vote for the member who you believe has done the most for the class. (You believe he has done the most for the class.)

We have referred your claim to our attorney, who we are sure will reply soon. (We are sure she will reply soon.)

We have sent this order blank to all who we have reason to believe are interested in our book. (We have reason to believe they are interested in our book.)

d. Whom (or whomever) is the objective form. Use whom whenever him. her, them, me, or us could be substituted as the object of the verb or as the object of a preposition in the whom clause.

Whom did you see today? (You did see her today.)

To whom were you talking? (You were talking to him.)

Whom were you talking about? (You were talking about him.)

Whom did you say you wanted to see? (You did say you wanted to see her.) It depends on whom they mean. (They mean him.)

The question of whom we should charge is at issue. (We should charge her.) Whomever you designate will get the promotion. (You designate him.)

(Continued on page 198.)

I will hire whomever I can find. (I can find her.)

I will speak to whomever you suggest. (You suggest her.)

I will give the job to whomever you think you can safely recommend. (You think you can safely recommend him.)

 ${\tt BUT:}\ 1$ will give the job to whoever you think can be safely recommended. (You think he can be safely recommended.)

I need a cashier whom I can trust. (I can trust her.)

The man to whom I was referring is Ed Meissen. (I was referring to him.)

The person whom I was thinking of doesn't have all those qualifications. (I was thinking of her.)

The person whom we invited to address the committee cannot attend. (We invited him to address the committee.)

Jo Olsen is the nominee <u>whom</u> they plan to support. (They plan to support her.) Steve Koval is the person <u>whom</u> we all thought the committee would nominate. (We all thought the committee would nominate him.)

Elaine Gerrity, whom I considered to be their most promising representative, resigned this month. (I considered her to be their most promising representative.)

1062 Who, Which, and That

a. Who and that are used when referring to persons. Select who when the individual person or the individuality of a group is meant and that when a class, species, or type is meant.

She is the only one of my students who can speak French fluently. He is the kind of student that should take advanced math.

b. Which and that are used when referring to places, objects, and animals. Which is always used to introduce nonessential clauses, and that is ordinarily used to introduce essential clauses.

Laura's report on personnel benefits, which I sent you last week, should be of some help. (Which introducing a nonessential clause.)

The report that I sent you last week should be of some help. (That introducing an essential clause.)

NOTE: Many writers now use either which or that to introduce an essential clause. Indeed, which is to be preferred to that (1) when there are two or more parallel essential clauses in the same sentence, (2) when that has already been used in the sentence, or (3) when the essential clause is introduced by such expressions as this . . . which, that . . . which, these . . . which, or those . . . which.

Vivian is taking courses which will earn her a higher salary rating in her current job and which will qualify her for a number of higher-level jobs.

That is a movie which you must not miss.

We need to reinforce those ideas which were presented in earlier units.

1063 Whose and Who's

Do not confuse whose (the possessive form of who) with who's (a contraction meaning who is or who has).

Whose house is it? (It is his.)

Who's the owner of that house? (She is.)

Pronouns With To Be

1064 a. If a pronoun is the subject of to be, use the objective form.

I want her to be successful.

I expected them to be late.

Whom do you consider to be the more expert driver? (You do consider whom to be the more expert driver?)

b. If to be has a subject and is followed by a pronoun, put that pronoun in the objective case.

They mistook the visitors to be us. (Visitors, the subject of to be, is in the objective; therefore, the predicate pronoun following to be is objective, us.) They took her to be me.

Whom do you take him to be? (You do take him to be whom?)

c. If to be has no subject and is followed by a pronoun, put that pronoun in the nominative case.

The caller was thought to be I. (I agrees with the subject of the sentence, caller.) They were thought to be we.

Who was he thought to be? (He was thought to be who?)

Troublesome Pronouns

 See the paragraphs indicated for each of the following pronouns. Entries listed in ¶1101 ore in alphabetical order.

Each other-one another

All of (see ¶1101) Anyone-any one (see ¶1010, note) Between you and me (see \$1055b) Both-each (see ¶1101) Both alike (see ¶1101)

(see \$1101) Everyone-every one (see ¶1010, note) Most (see ¶1101) Nobody-no body (see ¶1101) None-no one

(see ¶1010, note) That-which-who (see ¶1062) These sort-these kind (see ¶1101) Who-whom (see ¶1061) Whoever-who ever (see ¶1101)

Someone-some one

Adjectives and Adverbs

For definitions of the terms adjective and adverb, see the appropriate entries in ¶1701, pages 301-302.

(see ¶1013)

1065 Only an adverb can modify an adjective.

Packard's will give you a really good buy. (Not: real good.)

1066 When the word following a verb describes the subject of the sentence, make sure the word is an adjective (not an adverb). Verbs of the senses (feel, look, sound, taste, smell) and linking verbs (the various forms of be, seem, appear, become) in most cases are followed by adjectives. A few other verbs (such as grow, prove, get, keep, remain, and turn) are sometimes followed by adjectives. (See, however, ¶1067, note.)

I feel bad (NOT badly). He has grown tall.
She looked happy. The work proved hard.

Your voice sounded strong. I got lucky.

He seemed (or appeared) shy.

They became famous.

Let's all keep (or remain) calm.

The weather has turned cold.

TEST: If is, are, was, were, or some other form of be can be substituted for the verb, choose the adjective.

He looks happy. He is happy.

1067 When the word following a verb refers to the action of the verb, use an adverb.

He reads slowly but he talks rapidly.

She entered the room briskly.

We guarantee to ship the goods promptly.

They were injured badly in the accident.

TEST: If in a... manner can be substituted for the *ly*-ending word, choose the adverb.

Read the directions carefully (in a careful manner).

NOTE: In the following group of examples, verbs of the senses and linking verbs (¶1066) are used as verbs of action. Since the modifier refers to the action of the verb (and does not describe the subject), the modifier must be an adverb.

She looked suspiciously at the visitor in the reception room.

He felt carefully along the ledge for the key.

That tree has grown quickly.

He appeared quietly in the doorway.

1068 Several of the most frequently used adverbs have two forms.

close, closely fair, fairly loud, loudly short, shortly deep, deeply hard, hardly quick, quickly slow, slowly direct, directly late, lately right, rightly wide, widely

a. In a number of cases the two forms have different meanings.

Ship the goods direct. (Meaning "straight," "without detour.")

They were directly responsible. (Meaning "without any intervention.")

They arrived late. The truck stopped short.

I haven't seen her lately. You will hear from us shortly.

You've been working too hard. Turn right at the first traffic light.

I could hardly hear him. I don't rightly remember.

b. In some cases the choice is largely a matter of idiom. Some verbs take the *ly* form; others take the short form.

dig deep go slow open wide come close play fair wound deeply proceed slowly travel widely watch closely treat fairly

c. In still other cases the choice is simply one of formality. The ly forms are more formal.

sell cheap or sell cheaply talk loud on talk loudly

1069 Although the ly ending usually signifies an adverb, a few adjectives also end in ly-for example, costly, orderly, timely, motherly, fatherly, friendly, neighborly.

Let's look for a less costly solution.

Her offer to help you was intended as a friendly gesture.

1070 A few common ly-ending words are used both as adjectives and adverbs—for example, early, only, daily, weekly, monthly,

> I always go to bed at an early hour. (Adjective.) The explosion occurred early in the day, (Adverb.)

1071 Problems of Comparison

a. The comparative degree of one-syllable adjectives and adverbs is formed by adding er to the positive form; the superlative degree, by adding est. (See e below for a few exceptions.)

thin: thinner, thinnest soon: sooner, soonest

b. The comparative degree of two-syllable adjectives and adverbs may be formed either by adding er to the positive form or by inserting either more or less before the positive form; the superlative degree, by adding est in some cases or by inserting most or least before the positive form.

happy: happier, more happy often: oftener, less often likely: likeliest, most (least) likely highly: highest, most (least) highly

c. The comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs containing three or more syllables is always formed by inserting more or less before the positive form; the superlative degree, by inserting most or least before the positive form.

competent: more competent adventurous: less adventurous acceptable: most acceptable carefully: least carefully

d. Avoid double comparisons.

cheaper (Not: more cheaper) unkindest (NoT: most unkindest)

e. A few adjectives have irregular comparisons

•	The state of the s					
	Positive	Comparative	Superlative			
	good or well (see \$1101)	better	best			
	bad or ill	worse	worst			
	far	farther, further (see ¶717)	farthest, furthest			
	late	later, latter (see ¶717)	latest, last			
	little	littler, less, lesser	littlest, least			
	many, much	more	most			
		inner	innermost, inmost			
		outer	outermost, outmost			

f. Some adjectives and adverbs, from their very meanings, do not logically admit comparison. (Examples: square, round, unique, completely, universally, correct, perfect, always, never, dead.) Nevertheless, a number of these words may be modified by more, less, nearly, hardly, and similar adverbs to suggest an approach to the absolute.

Next year we hope to do a more complete study.

He is looking for a more universally acceptable solution.

Craftsmanship of this caliber is virtually unique these days.

g. When referring to two persons, places, or things, use the comparative form; when referring to more than two, use the superlative form.

That is the *finer* piece of linen. (Only two pieces are involved; hence the comparative form.)

This is the finest piece of linen I could find. (Many pieces are involved; hence the superlative form.)

Of the two positions open, you have chosen the more promising.

Of the three positions open, you have chosen the most promising.

That is the more efficient of the two methods.

This is the most efficient method that could be devised.

I like Evelyn's plan better than Joe's or Betty's. (Although three things are involved in this comparison, they are being compared two at a time. Therefore, the comparative is used.)

h. When comparing a person or a thing within the group to which it belongs, use the superlative. When comparing a person or a thing with individual members of the group, use the comparative and the words other or else.

Susan is the most conscientious employee on the staff.

Susan is more conscientious than any other employee on the staff. (Without the word other, the sentence would imply that Susan is not on the staff.)

Los Angeles is the largest city in California.

Los Angeles is larger than any other city in California. (Without other, the sentence would imply that Los Angeles is not in California.)

Bert's proposal was the best of all that were presented to the committee.

Bert's proposal was better than anyone else's. (Not: anyone's.)

i. Be sure to compare like things. (See also ¶644, note.)

This year's output is lower than last year's. (In other words, "This year's output is lower than last year's output.")

 ${\tt NOT:}$ This year's output is lower than last year. (Incorrectly compares this year's output with last year.)

1072 The adverbs only, nearly, almost, ever, scarcely, merely, too, and also should be placed as close to the word modified—usually before—as possible. Putting the adverb in the wrong position may change the entire meaning of the sentence.

Our list of depositors now numbers almost 50,000. (Not: almost numbers.)

Only the Board of Directors can nominate the three new officers. (Cannot be nominated by anyone else.)

The Board of Directors can only nominate the three officers. (They cannot elect.) The Board of Directors can nominate only the three officers. (They cannot nominate anyone else.)

Only Robert liked her. (No one else liked her.) Robert only liked her. (Robert did not love her.) Robert liked only her. (Robert liked no one else.)

1073 Do not use an adverb to express a meaning already contained in the verb.

return (Not: return back) cooperate (NOT: cooperate together) repeat (Not: repeat again)

cancel (Not: cancel out) continue (Not: continue on) finish (NOT: finish up)

Troublesome Adjectives and Adverbs

 See individual entries listed alphabetically in \$1101 for the following adjectives and adverbs:

All right Almost-all most Already-all ready Altogether-all together Always-all ways Anxious-eager Anyway-any way Awhile-a while Bad-badly Different-differently

A-an

Accidentally

Everyday-every day

Ex-former Farther-further Fewer-less First-firstly, etc. Former-first Good-well Hardly Healthy-healthful Incidentally Indifferent-in different Indirect-in direct Last-latest

Real-really Said Same Scarcely Sometimesometimes-some time This here

Only

Sure-surely Unique Up Verv

More important-

more importantly

Negatives

1074 To express a negative idea in a simple sentence, use only one negative expression in the sentence. (A double negative—two negative expressions in the same sentence—gives a positive meaning.)

Latter-last

Maybe-may be

We can sit by and do nothing.

We cannot sit by and do nothing. (The not and nothing create a double negative; the sentence now has a positive meaning: "We ought to do something.")

Jim is unaware of the facts. (Here the negative element is the prefix un.)

Jim is not unaware of the facts. (With the double negative, the sentence means "Iim is aware of the facts.")

NOTE: A double negative is not wrong in itself. As the examples above indicate, a double negative may offer a more effective way of expressing a positive thought than a straightforward positive construction would. However, a double negative is wrong if the sentence is intended to have a negative meaning. (REMEMBER: Two negatives make a positive.)

1075 A negative expression gives a negative meaning to the clause in which it appears. In a simple sentence, where there is only one clause, the negative expression affects the entire sentence (see \$1074). In a sentence where there are two or more clauses, a negative expression affects only the clause in which it appears. Therefore, each clause may safely contain one

negative expression. A double negative results when there are two negative expressions within the same clause.

If Mr. Bogosian cannot lower his price, there is no point in continuing the negotiations. (The *if* clause contains the negative not; the main clause contains the negative no. Each clause has its own negative meaning.)

I have not met Halliday, and I have no desire to meet him.

or: I have not met Halliday, nor do I have any desire to meet him. (When the negative conjunction nor replaces and, the adjective no changes to any to avoid a double negative.)

We have never permitted, nor will we permit, any lowering of our standards. (Here the second clause interrupts the first clause. If written out in full, the sentence would read, "We have never permitted any lowering of our standards, nor will we permit any lowering of our standards.")

NOTE: A second negative expression may be used in a clause simply to repeat or intensify the first negative expression. This construction is not a double negative.

No, I did not make that statement.

I never, never said a thing like that.

- 1076 To preserve the negative meaning of a clause, follow these basic principles:
 - a. If the clause has a negative verb (a verb modified by not or never), do not use any additional negative expressions, such as nor, neither . . . nor, no, none, no one, or nothing. Instead, use corresponding positive expressions such as or, either . . . or, any, anyone, or anything.

I have not invited anyone. (wronc: I have not invited no one.)

She does not want any. (wronc: She does not want none.)

Mary did not have anything to do yesterday. (wronc: Mary did not have nothing to do yesterday.)

 ${\bf l}$ cannot find either the letter or the envelope, (wronc: I cannot find neither the letter nor the envelope.)

He did not say whether he would mail the money to us or whether he would bring it himself. (WRONC: He did not say whether he would mail the money to us nor whether he would bring it himself.)

b. If a clause contains any one of the following expressions—no, no one, none, nothing, or neither . . . nor (this counts as one expression)—make sure that the verb and all other words are positive.

1 see nothing wrong with either proposal. (Not: neither proposal.)

Neither Paul nor Yvonne can handle the meeting for me next Thursday. (NOT cannot.)

c. The word *nor* may be used alone as a conjunction (see the third and fourth examples at the top of this page) or together with *neither*. Do not use *nor* in the same clause with any other negative; use *or* instead.

There are neither pens nor pencils in the stockroom.

BUT: There are no pens or pencils in the stockroom. (WRONG: no pens nor pencils.)

There are no clear-cut rights or wrongs in the situation. (wronc: no . . . rights nor wrongs.)

Francine has not called or written us for some time, (wrong: not called nor written.)

Never try to argue or debate with Larry. (wrong: Never . . . argue nor debate.)

See individual entries in \$1101 for Hardly, Only, and Scarcely, which have a negative meaning.

Prepositions

Words Requiring Certain Prepositions

1077 Usage requires that certain words be followed by certain prepositions. Some of the most frequently used combinations are listed below.

> account for something or someone: I find it hard to account for his behavior. account to someone: You will have to account to Anne Cuneo for the loss of the kev.

> agree on or upon (reach an understanding): We cannot agree on the price. agree to (accept another person's plan): Will you agree to their terms? agree with (concur with a person or an idea): I agree with your objectives.

> angry at or about something: He was angry about the total disorder of the office. angry with someone: You have every right to be angry with me.

> apply for a position: You ought to apply for Harry's job, now that he has left. apply to someone or something: You must apply yourself to the job in order to master it. I am thinking of applying to the Field Engineering Company.

argue about something: We argued about the terms of the contract. argue with a person: It doesn't pay to argue with Bremer.

compare to (assert a likeness): She compared my writing to E. B. White's, (She said I wrote like E. B. White.)

compare with (analyze for similarities and differences): When she compared my writing with E. B. White's, she said that I had a similar kind of humor but that my sentences lacked the clean and easy flow of White's material.

conform to (preferred to with): These blueprints do not conform to the original plans.

consists in (exists in): Happiness largely consists in knowing what it is that will make you happy.

consists of (is made up of): Their new formula for a wage settlement consists of the same old terms expressed in different language.

convenient for (suitable): What time will be most convenient for you? convenient to (near at hand): Our plant is convenient to all major transportation facilities.

correspond to (agree with): The shipment does not correspond to the sample. correspond with (exchange letters): It may be better to see him in person than to correspond with him.

differ about (something): We differed about means but not about objectives. differ from (something else): This job differs very little from the one that I used to

differ with (someone): I differ with you over the consequences of our plan.

(Continued on page 206.)

different from: This product is different from the one I normally use.

different than: I view the matter in a different way thon you do. (Although from is normally preferred, than is acceptable in order to avoid sentences like "I view the matter in a different way from the way in which you do.")

identical with (not to): This \$80 suit is identical with one advertised for \$135 at other stores.

independent of (not from): He wants to be independent of his family's money.

interested in: We are interested in discussing the matter further with you at the conference in July.

retroactive to (not from): This salary adjustment is retroactive to May 1.

speak to (tell something to): You must speak to them about their frequent absences.

speak with (discuss with): It was good to speak with you yesterday.

Superfluous Prepositions

1078 Omit prepositions that add nothing to the meaning—as in the following examples. (See also the entry for *All* of in ¶1101.)

Where is she (at)?

Where did that paper go (to)?

The new applicant seems to be (of) about sixteen years of age.

She could not help (from) laughing.

His house is opposite (to) hers.

The chair is too near (to) the desk.

Why don't we meet at about one o'clock? (Omit either at or about.)

The carton fell off (of) the truck.

Necessary Prepositions

1079 Conversely, do not omit essential prepositions.

I bought a couple of books. (Nor: I bought a couple books.)

Of what use is this gadget? (Not: What use is this gadget?)

We don't sell that type of filter. (Not: that type filter.)

You seem to have a great interest in, as well as a deep respect for, fine antiques. (NOT: You seem to have a great interest, as well as a deep respect for, fine antiques.)

She frequently appears in movies, in plays, and on television. (NOT: in movies, plays, and on television.)

NOTE: The preposition of is understood in expressions such as what color cloth and what size shoes.

Prepositions at the End of Sentences

1080 Whether or not a sentence should end with a preposition depends on the emphasis and effect desired.

INFORMAL: I wish I knew which magazine her article appeared in.

FORMAL: I wish I knew the magazine in which her article appeared.

STILTED: It is difficult to know about what you are thinking. NATURAL: It is difficult to know what you are thinking about.

Short questions frequently end with prepositions.

How many can I count on? What is this good for?

Troublesome Prepositions

 See individual entries listed alphabetically in ¶1101 for the following prepositions:

At about	From-off	On-onto-on to
Beside-besides	ln-into-in to	On-upon-up on
Between-among	In regards to	Opposite
Due to-because of-	Like-as, as if	Per-a
on account of	Of-have	Toward-towards
Except	Off	

Sentence Structure

Parallel Structure

1081 Express parallel ideas in parallel form.

a. Adjectives should be paralleled by adjectives, nouns by nouns, infinitives by infinitives, subordinate clauses by subordinate clauses, etc.

WRONG: Our new course is challenging and an inspiration. (Adjective and noun.) RICHT: Our new course is challenging and inspiring. (Two adjectives.)

WRONG: This machine is inexpensive, efficient, and it is easily operated. (Two adjectives and a clause.)

RIGHT: This machine is inexpensive, efficient, and easily operated (Three adjectives.)

WRONG: The seniors have already started reviewing and to cram. (Participle and infinitive.)

RICHT: The seniors have already started reviewing and cramming. (Two partici-

RIGHT: The seniors have already started to review and cram. (Two infinitives.)

NOTE: Parallelism is especially important in displayed enumerations.

WRONG: The duties of the hospitality committee are:

- 1. To greet guests.
- 2. Ordering refreshments.
- 3. Arrangement of flowers.

RICHT: The duties of the hospitality committee are:

- To greet guests.
- To order refreshments.
- 3. To arrange flowers.

b. Correlative conjunctions (both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, not only . . . but also, whether . . . or, etc.) should be followed by elements in parallel form.

(Continued on page 208.)

WRONG: I am not only proficient in shorthand but also in typing. RICHT: I am proficient not only in shorthand but also in typing.

WRONG: We are flying both to Chicago and San Francisco. RICHT: We are flying to both Chicago and San Francisco. RICHT: We are flying both to Chicago and to San Francisco.

WRONG: He would neither apologize nor would he promise to reform.

RICHT: He would neither apologize nor promise to reform.

RICHT: He would not apologize, nor would be promise to reform.

Dangling Constructions

1082 When a sentence begins with a participial phrase, an infinitive phrase, a gerund phrase, or an elliptical clause (one in which essential words are missing), make sure that the phrase or clause logically agrees with the subject of the sentence; otherwise, the construction will "dangle." To correct a dangling construction, make the subject of the sentence the doer of the action expressed by the opening phrase or clause. If that is not feasible, use an entirely different construction.

a. Participial phrases

WRONG: Having studied your cost estimates, a few questions-occur to me. RICHT: Having studied your cost estimates, I would like to ask you a few questions.

WRONG: Putting the matter of costs aside, the matter of production delays remains to be discussed.

RIGHT: Putting the matter of costs aside, we must still discuss the matter of production delays.

b. Infinitive phrases

WBONG: To produce satisfactory carbon copies, unwrinkled carbon paper must be used.

RIGHT: To produce satisfactory carbon copies, the typist must use unwrinkled carbon paper.

WRONG: To obtain the free booklet, this coupon should be mailed at once. RICHT: To obtain the free booklet, mail this coupon at once.

c. Prepositional-gerund phrases

WRONG: In passing your store windows, many handsome displays caught my eye. RIGHT: In passing your store windows, I noticed many handsome displays.

WRONG: In analyzing these specifications, several errors have been found. RICHT: In analyzing these specifications, I have found several errors.

d. Elliptical clauses

WRONG: If ordered before May 1, a 5 percent discount will be allowed. RICHT: If ordered before May 1, these goods will be sold at a 5 percent discount.

WRONG: When four years old, my family moved to Omaha.

RICHT: When I was four years old, my family moved to Omaha.

NOTE: Absolute phrases (typically involving passive participles) are not considered to "dangle," even though they come at the beginning of a sentence and do not refer to the subject. Such constructions, though grammatically correct, are usually awkward and should be avoided.

WEAK: The speeches having been concluded, we proceeded to take a vote. BETTER: After the speeches were concluded, we proceeded to take a vote.

1083 When verbal phrases and elliptical clauses fall elsewhere in the sentence, be alert for illogical or confusing relationships. Adjust the wording as necessary.

> WRONG: I caught a glimpse of the President, running to the window. кисит: Running to the window, I caught a glimpse of the President. WRONG: Your desk should be cleared of papers before going out to lunch.

RICHT: You should clear your desk of papers before going out to lunch.

1084 A prepositional phrase will dangle at the beginning of a sentence if it leads the reader to expect a certain word as the subject and then another word is used instead.

> WRONG: As head of the program committee, we think you should make immediate arrangements for another speaker. (The head of the committee is you, not we.)

> RICHT: We think that as head of the program committee you should make immediate arrangements for another speaker.



USAGE

A-An

Accidentally

A.D.-B.C.

Affect-Effect

Age-Aged-At the Age of

All of

All Right

Almost-All Most

Already-All Ready

Altogether-All Together

Always-All Ways

Amount-Number

And

And Etc.

And/Or

Anxious-Eager

Anyone-Any One Anyway-Any Way

Appraise-Apprise

As

As . . . as-Not so . . . as

At About

Awhile-A While

Bad-Badly

Being That

Beside-Besides

Between-Among
Between You and Me

Both-Each

Both Alike

Bring-Take

But . . . However

But What

Cannot Help But

Class

Come-Go

Come and

Data

Different-Differently

Different From-Different Than

Done

Don't (Do Not)

Doubt That-Doubt Whether

Due to-Because of-On Account of

Each Other-One Another

Enthused Over

Equally as Good

Etc.

Everyday-Every Day

Everyone-Every One

Ex-Former

Except

Farther-Further

Fewer-Less

First-Firstly, etc.

Former-First

From-Off

Good-Well

Graduated-Was Graduated

Hardly

Healthy-Healthful

Help

If-Whether

Imply-Infer

In-Into-In to In Regards to

Incidentally

Indifferent-In Different Indirect-In Direct

Irregardless

Its-It's

Kind

Kind of-Sort of

Kind of a

Latter-Last

Lay-Lie

Learn-Teach Leave-Let

Like-As. As if

May-Can (Might-Could)

Maybe-May Be

Media

More Important-More Importantly

Most

Nobody-No Body

None-No One Of-Have

Off

On-Onto-On to On-Upon-Up on

Only Opposite

Party Per-A

Raise-Rise

Real-Really

Reason Is Because

Retroactive to

Said Same

Scarcely

Serve-Service

Set-Sit

Shall-Will Should-Would

So-So That

Someone-Some One

Sometime-Sometimes-Some Time

Sort

Such as . . . etc.

Sure-Surely

Sure and

Than-Then

That-Which-Who

These Sort-These Kind

This Here

Toward-Towards

Try and

Type Unique

Up

Verv

Ways

Who-Which-That

Who-Whom

Whoever-Who Ever

Would Have

1101 The following words and phrases are often used incorrectly.

A-an. In choosing a or an, consider the sound (not the spelling) of the following word. Use the article a before all consonant sounds, including sounded h, long u, and o with the sound of w (as in one); for example, a day, a week, a home, a hotel, a house, a unit, a union, a uniform, a one-week seminar, a CPA, a 60-day note.

Use an before all vowel sounds except long u and before words beginning with silent h; for example, an army, an evening, an invoice, an outlet, an umbrella, an heir, an hour, an honor, an R (pronounced "ar"), an f.o.b. order (pronounced "ef oh bee"), an 8-hour day.

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NOTE: In speech, both a historic occasion and an historic occasion are correct, depending on whether the h is sounded or left silent. In writing, a historic occasion is the form more commonly used.

A-per. See Per-a.

Accidentally. Note that this word ends in ally. Never spell this word accidently.

A.D.-B.C. A.D. (abbreviation of anno Domini, Latin for "in the year of our Lord") and B.C. ("before Christ") are written in all capitals, with a period following each letter.

150 B.C. 465 A.D. (ordinary usage) or A.D. 465 (formal usage)

NOTE: Do not use a comma to separate B.C. or A.D. from the year.

Affect-effect. Affect is a verb meaning "to influence, change, assume." Effect can be either a verb meaning "to bring about" or a noun meaning "result, impression."

The court's decision in this case will not affect (influence or change) the established precedent.

She affects (assumes) an unsophisticated manner.

It is essential that we effect (bring about) an immediate turnaround in our sales performance.

It will be months before we can assess the full effect (result) of the new law.

Age-aged-at the age of

I interviewed a man aged 52 for the job. (Not: a man age 52.)

You can collect these benefits at the age of 62. (Not: at age 62.)

All of. Of is not necessary after all unless the following word is a pronoun.

All the staff belong to the softball team. (also: All of the staff . . .)

All of us belong to the softball team.

All right. Like all wrong, the expression all right should be spelled as two words. (While some dictionaries acknowledge the existence of alright, this spelling is not generally accepted as correct.)

Almost-all most. See also Most.

The plane was almost (nearly) three hours late.

We are all most pleased (all very much pleased) with the new schedule.

Already-all ready

The order had already (previously) been shipped.

The order is all ready (all prepared) to be shipped.

Altogether-all together

He is altogether (entirely) too lazy to be a success.

The papers are all together (all in a group) on your secretary's desk.

Always-all ways

She has always (at all times) done good work.

We have tried in all ways (by all methods) to keep our employees satisfied.

Among. See Between-among.

Amount-number. Use amount for things in bulk, as in "a large amount of lumber." Use number for individual items, as in "a large number of students."

And. Retain and before the last item in a series, even though that last item consists of two words joined by and.

We need to increase our budgets for advertising, staff training, and research and development.

(NOT: We need to increase our budgets for advertising, staff training, research and development.)

And etc. Never use and before etc. (See Etc.)

And/or. This is a legalistic term and should be avoided in ordinary writing.

Anxious-eager. Both anxious and eager mean "desirous," but anxious also implies fear or concern.

I'm anxious to hear whether we won the bid or not.

I'm eager (NOT anxious) to hear about your new house.

Anyone-any one. See ¶1010, note.

Anyway-any way

Anyway (in any case), we can't spare him now.

If we can help in any way (by any method), please phone.

Appraise-apprise

We would like to appraise (set a value on) Mrs. Ellsworth's estate. I will apprise (inform) you of any new developments.

As. Do not use for that or whether; for example, "I do not know whether (not as) I can go." Use because, since, or for rather than as in clauses of reason; for example, "I cannot attend the meeting in Omaha, because (not as) I will be out on the Coast that day."

As . . . as-not so . . . as. The terms as . . . as are now commonly used in both positive and negative comparisons. Some writers, however, prefer to use not so . . . as for negative comparisons.

Bob is every bit as bright as his older sister. (Positive comparison.)

It is not as important as you think. or: . . . not so important as you think. (Negative comparison.)

At about. Use either at or about, but not both words together. For example, "Plan to arrive at ten" or "Plan to arrive about ten." (BUT NOT: Plan to arrive at about ten.) (See also \$1078.)

Awhile-a while. One word as an adverb; two words as a noun.

You may have to wait awhile. (Adverb.)

You may have to wait for a while. (Noun; object of for.)

I ran into him a while back.

 ${\bf Bad\text{-}badly}.$ Use the adjective bad (not the adverb badly) after the verb feel or look. (See §1066.)

I feel bad (not badly) about the mistake.

BUT: He was hurt badly in the accident.

Because. See Reason is because.

Because of. See Due to-because of-on account of.

Being that. Do not use for since or because. For example, "Because (NOT being that) I was late, I could not get a seat."

Beside-besides

I sat beside (next to) Mr. Parrish's father at the meeting.

Resides (in addition), we need your support of the measure.

Between-among. Ordinarily, use between when referring to two persons or things and among when referring to more than two persons or things.

The territory is divided evenly between the two sales representatives.

The profits are to be evenly divided among the three partners.

Use between with more than two persons or things when they are being considered in pairs as well as in a group.

There are distinct differences between New York, Chicago, and Dallas. In packing china, be sure to place paper between the plates. (NOT: between each of the plates.)

Between you and me (not 1). (See ¶1055b.)

Both-each. Both means "the two considered together." Each refers to the individual members of a group considered separately.

Both designs are acceptable. The designs are each acceptable.

Both alike. Both is unnecessary. For example, "The typewriters are alike." (NOT: both alike.)

Bring-take. Bring indicates motion toward the speaker. (HINT: Connect the i in bring with I, the speaker.) Take indicates motion away from the speaker. (HINT: Connect the a's in take and in away.)

Please bring the research data with you when you next come to the office. Please take the enclosed letter to Farley when you go to see him.

You may take my copy with you if you will bring it back by Friday.

See note under Come-go.

But . . . however. Use one or the other.

We had hoped to see the show, but we couldn't get tickets.

OR: We had hoped to see the show; however, we couldn't get tickets.

(BUT NOT: . . . but we couldn't get tickets, however.)

But what. Use that. For example, "I do not doubt that (NOT but what) he will be elected."

Cannot help but. This expression is a confusion of two others, namely, can but and cannot help.

I can but try.

I cannot help feeling sorry for her. (NOT: cannot help but feel.)

Class. See Kind.

Come-go. The choice between verbs depends on the location of the speaker. *Come* indicates motion *toward*; go, motion *away from*. (See also *Bring-take*.)

When Bellotti comes back, I will go to the airport to meet him.

A secretary speaking over the phone to a customer: Will it be convenient for you to come to our office tomorrow?

Anyone outside the office speaking: Will it be convenient for you to go to their office tomorrow?

NOTE: When writing about your travel plans to a person at your destination, adopt that person's point of view and use come.

Midwesterner to Californian: I am coming to California during the week of the 11th. t will bring the plans with me if they are ready.

However, if you are telling your travel plans to someone who is not at your destination, observe the regular distinction between come and go.

Midwesterner to Midwesterner: I am going to California during the week of the 11th. I will take the plans with me if they are ready.

Come and. In formal writing use come to instead of the colloquial come and. For example, "Come to (nor and) see me."

Data. See ¶1018, note.

Different-differently. When the meaning is "in a different manner," use the adverb differently.

I wish we had done it differently.

It came out differently than we expected.

After linking verbs and verbs of the senses, the adjective different is correct. (See ¶1066.)

That music sounds completely different.

He seems (appears) different since his promotion.

Don't believe anything different. (Meaning "anything that is different.")

Different from-different than, See \$1077.

Done. Do not say "I done it." Say "I did it." (See also \$1032, note.)

Don't (do not). Do not use don't with he, she, or it; use doesn't.

He doesn't talk easily. She doesn't need any help. It doesn't seem right to penalize them. BUT: I don't think so.

They don't want any help.

We don't understand.

Doubt that-doubt whether. Use doubt that in negative statements and in questions. Use doubt whether in all other cases. (See also If-whether.)

We do not doubt that she is capable. (Negative statement.)

Does anyone doubt that the check was mailed? (Question.)

I doubt whether I can go.

Due to-because of-on account of. Due to introduces an adjectival phrase and should modify nouns. It is normally used only after some form of the verb to be (is, are, was, were, etc.)

Her success is due to talent and hard work. (Due modifies success.)

Because of and on account of introduce adverbial phrases and should modify verbs.

He resigned because of ill health. (Because of modifies resigned.) (NOT: He resigned due to ill health.)

Each-both, See Both-each,

Each other-one another. Use each other to refer to two persons or things; one another for more than two.

The two partners had great respect for each other's abilities.

The four winners congratulated one another.

Eager-anxious. See Anxious-eager.

Enthused over. Use was or were enthusiastic about instead.

The sales staff was enthusiastic about (not enthused over) next year's styles.

Equally as good. Use either equally good or just as good.

This model is newer, but that one is equally good. (Nor: equally as good.)
Those are just as good as these, (Nor: equally as good.)

Etc. This abbreviation of et cetera means "and other things." Therefore, do not use and before it. A comma both precedes and follows etc. (see ¶164). In formal writing, avoid the use of etc.; use a phrase such as and the like or and so on instead.

NOTE: Do not use etc. or equivalent expressions at the end of a series introduced by such as. The term such as implies that only a few selected examples will be given; therefore, it is unnecessary to add etc. or and so on, which suggests that further examples could be given.

As part of its employee educational program, the company offers courses in report writing, business correspondence, grammar and style, and so on.

 $o\kappa$. . . the company offers courses such as report writing, business correspondence, and grammar and style.

(BUT NOT: . . . the company offers courses such as report writing, business correspondence, grammar and style, and so on.)

Everyday-every day

You'll soon master the everyday (ordinary or daily) routine of the job. He has called every day (each day) this week.

Everyone-every one. See ¶1010, note.

Ex-former. Use ex- with a title to designate the person who *immediately* preceded the current titleholder in that position; use *former* with a title to designate an earlier titleholder.

Charles Feldman is the ex-president of the Harrisburg Chamber of Commerce. (Held office immediately before the current president.)

BUT: . . . is a former president of the Harrisburg Chamber of Commerce. (Held office sometime before the current president and that person's immediate predecessor.)

Except. When except is a preposition, be sure to use the objective form of a pronoun that follows. For example, "Everyone has been transferred except Jean and me." (xor: except Jean and I.) (See also \$1055b.)

Farther-further. Farther refers to actual distance; further refers to figurative distance and means "to a greater degree" or "to a greater extent."

The drive from the airport to Boone was further (in actual distance) than we expected.

Let's plan to discuss the proposal further (to a greater extent).

Fewer-less. Fewer refers to a number and is used with plural nouns. Less refers to degree or amount and is used with singular nouns.

Fewer accidents (a smaller number) were reported than was expected.

Less effort (a smaller degree) was put forth by the organizers, and thus fewer people (a smaller number) attended.

NOTE: The expression less than (rather than fewer than) precedes plural nouns referring to periods of time, amounts of money, and quantities.

less than ten years ago But: fewer than 60 people

Less than five years ago our sales were under \$1 million a year.

First-firstly, etc. In enumerations use the forms first, second, third (NOT firstly, secondly, thirdly).

Former-ex. See Ex-former.

Former-first. Former refers to the first of two persons or things. When more than two are mentioned, use first. (See also Latter-last.)

This style is made in wool and in Dacron, but I prefer the former.

This style is made in wool, in Dacron, and in Orlon, but I prefer the first.

From-off. Use from (NOT off) with persons.

I got the answer I needed from Margaret. (Not: off Margaret.)

Good-well. Good is an adjective. Well may be used as an adverb or (with reference to health) as an adjective.

Marie got good grades in school. (Adjective.)

I will do the job as well as I can. (Adverb.)

He admits he does not feel well today. (Adjective.)

The security guards look good in their new uniforms. (Adjective.)

NOTE: To feel well means "to be in good health." To feel good means "to be in good spirits."

Graduated-was graduated. Both forms are acceptable.

Hardly. Since hardly is negative in meaning, do not use another negative with it.

You could hardly (Nor couldn't hardly) expect him to agree.

Healthy-healthful. People are healthy; a climate or food is healthful.

You ought to move to a more healthful (NOT healthier) climate.

Help. Do not use from after the verb help. For example, "I couldn't help (NOT help from) telling her she was wrong."

However. See But . . . however.

If-whether. If is often used colloquially for whether in such sentences as "He doesn't know whether he will be able to leave tomorrow." In written material, use whether, particularly in such expressions as see whether, learn whether, know whether, and doubt whether. Also use whether when the expression or not follows or is implied.

Find out whether (NOT if) this format is acceptable or not.

Imply-infer. Imply means "to suggest"; you imply something by your own words or actions.

Verna implied that we would not be invited.

Infer means "to deduce" or "to arrive at a conclusion"; you infer something from another person's words or actions.

I inferred from Verna's remarks that we would not be invited,

In-into-in to

The correspondence is in the file. (In implies position within.)

He walked into the outer office. (Into implies entry or change of form.)

All sales reports are to be sent in to the sales manager. (In is an adverb in the verb phrase are to be sent in; to is a simple preposition.)

Mr. Boehme came in to see me. (In is part of the verb phrase come in; to is part of the infinitive to see.)

In regards to. Substitute in regard to, with regard to, or as regards.

Incidentally. Note that this word ends in ally. Never spell the word incidently.

Indifferent-in different

She was indifferent (not caring one way or the other) to the offer,

He liked our idea, but he wanted it expressed in different (in other) words.

Indirect-in direct

Indirect (not direct) lighting will enhance the appearance of this room.

This order is in direct (the preposition in plus the adjective direct) conflict with the policy of this company.

Irregardless. Use regardless.

Its-it's, See ¶1056d.

Kind. Kind is singular; therefore, write this kind, that kind, these kinds, those kinds (but not these kind, those kind). The same distinctions hold for class, type, and sort.

Kind of-sort of. In formal writing use somewhat or rather instead of the colloquial expression *kind of* or sort of.

I was somewhat (not kind of, sort of) surprised.

She seemed rather (NOT kind of, sort of) tired.

Kind of a. The a is unnecessary. For example, "That kind of (not kind of a) material is very expensive."

Last-latest. Last means "after all others"; latest, "most recent."

Mr. Lin's *last* act before leaving was to recommend Ms. Roth's promotion.

Attached is the *latest* bulletin from the Weather Service.

Latter-last. Latter refers to the second of two persons or things mentioned. When more than two are mentioned, use *last.* (See also Former-first.)

July and August are good vacation months, but the latter is more popular. July, and August are good vacation months, but the last is the most popular.

Lay-lie. Lay (principal parts: lay, laid, laid, laying) means "to put" or "to place." It signifies that someone is placing something in a reclining position. This verb requires an object to complete its meaning.

Please lay the extra file folders on the bottom shelf.

I laid the message right on your desk.

I had laid two other notes there vesterday.

He is always laying the blame on his assistants. (Puts the blame.)

The dress was laid in the box. (A passive construction implying that someone laid the dress in the box.)

Lie (principal parts: lie, lay, lain, lying) means "to recline, rest, or stay" or "to take a position of rest." It refers to a person or thing as either assuming or being in a reclining position. This verb cannot take an object.

Now he lies in bed most of the day.

The mountains lay before us as we proceeded west.

This letter has lain unanswered for two weeks.

Today's mail is lying on the receptionist's desk.

TEST: In deciding whether to use *lie* or *lay* in a sentence, substitute the word place, placed, or placing (as appropriate) for the word in question. If the substitute fits, the corresponding form of *lay* is correct. If it doesn't, use the appropriate form of *lie*.

I will (lie or lay?) down now. (You could not say, "I will place down now." Therefore, write "I will lie down now.")

I (laid or lay?) the pad on his desk. ("I placed the pad on his desk" works. Therefore, write "I laid the pad.")

I (laid or lay?) awake many nights. ("I placed awake" doesn't work. Write "I lay awake.")

These files have (laid or lain?) untouched for some time. ("These files have placed untouched" doesn't work. Write "These files have lain untouched.") He has been (laying or lying?) down on the job. ("He has been placing down on the job" doesn't work. Write "He has been lying down.")

NOTE: When the verb lie means "to tell a falsehood," it has regularly formed principal parts (lie, lied, lied, lying) and is seldom confused with the verbs just described.

Learn-teach. Learn (principal parts: learn, learned, learned, learning) means "to acquire knowledge." Teach (principal parts: teach, taught, taught, teaching) means "to impart knowledge to others."

I learned from a master teacher.

A first-rate instructor taught me how.

I was taught by a first-rate instructor.

Leave-let. Leave (principal parts: leave, left, left, leaving) means "to move away, abandon, or depart." Let (principal parts: let, let, let, let, letting) means "to permit or allow." TEST: In deciding whether to use let or leave, try substituting the appropriate form of permit. If permit fits, use let; if not, use leave.

I now leave you to your own devices. (Abandon you.)

Mr. Morales left on the morning train. (Departed.)

Let me see the last page. (Permit me to see.)

Leave me alone. or: Let me alone. (Either is acceptable.)

Like-as, as if. Like is correctly used as a preposition. Although like is also widely used as a conjunction in colloquial speech, use as or as if in written material

We need to hire another person like you.

Kate, like her predecessor, will have to cope with the problem.

Mary looks like her mother.

Mary looks as (Not like) her mother did at the same age.

It looks like snow.

It looks as if (NOT like) it will snow.

As (NOT Like) I told you earlier, we will not reorder for six months.

May-can (might-could). May and might imply permission or possibility; can and could, ability or power.

You may send them a dozen cans of paint on trial. (Permission.)

The report may be true. (Possibility.)

Can he present a workable plan? (Has he the ability?)

Miss Kovacs said I might (permission) have the time off if I could (power) finish my work in time.

Maybe-may be. Maybe is an adverb; may be is a verb.

If we don't receive a letter from them today, maybe (an adverb meaning "perhaps") we should call.

Mr. Boston may be (a verb) out of town next week.

Media. Media, referring to various channels of communication and advertising, is a plural noun. Medium is the singular. (See $\P1018$.)

More important-more importantly. More important is often used as a short form for "what is more important," especially at the beginning of a sentence. More importantly means "in a more important manner."

More important, we need to establish a line of credit very quickly. (What is more important.)

The incident was treated more importantly than it deserved. (In a more important manner.)

Most. Do not use for almost. For example, "Almost all the money is gone" or "Most of the money is gone." (BUT NOT: Most all of the money is gone.)

Nobody-no body

There was nobody (no person) at the information desk when I arrived. No body (no group) of employees is more cooperative than yours.

NOTE: Spell no body as two words when it is followed by of.

None-no one. See ¶1013.

Not so . . . as. See As . . . as-not so . . . as.

Number. See Amount-number.

Of-have. Do not use of instead of have in verb forms. The correct forms are could have, would have, should have, might have, may have, must have, ought to have, etc.

What could have happened? (NOT: What could of happened?)

Off. Do not use off of or off from in place of off. (See also ¶1078.)

The papers fell off the desk. (Not: off of the desk.)

On-onto-on to

It's dangerous to drive on the highway shoulder. (On implies position or movement over.)

He lost control of the car and drove onto the sidewalk. (Onto implies movement toward and then over.)

Let's go on to the next problem. (On is an adverb in the verb phrase go on; to is a preposition.)

She then went on to tell about her experiences in Asia. (On is part of the verb phrase went on; to is part of the infinitive to tell.)

On-upon-up on

His statements were based on (or upon) experimental data. (On and upon are interchangeable.)

Please follow up on the Updegraff case. (Up is part of the verb phrase follow up: on is a preposition.)

One another. See Each other-one another.

Only. The adverb only is negative in meaning. Therefore, do not use another negative with it unless you want a positive meaning. (See \$1072 for the placement of only in a sentence.)

I use this letterhead only for foreign correspondence. (I do not use this letterhead for anything else.)

BUT: I do not use this letterhead only for foreign correspondence. (I use it for a number of other things as well.)

Opposite. When used as a noun, opposite is followed by of.

Her opinion is the opposite of mine.

In other uses, opposite is followed by to or from or by neither.

Her opinion is opposite to (or from) mine.

She lives opposite the school.

Party. Do not use for person except in legal work.

Per-a. Per, a Latin word, is often used to mean "by the," as in \$5 per hundredweight or 80 kilometers (50 miles) per hour. Whenever possible, substitute a or an; for example, at the rate of 75 cents an hour, 60 cents a liter. Do not use per in the sense of "according to" or "in accordance with"

We are sending you samples as you requested. (Not: per your request.)

Raise-rise. Raise (principal parts: raise, raised, raised, raising) means "to cause to lift" or "to lift something." This verb requires an object to complete its meaning.

Mr. Pinelli raises a good question.

Most growers have raised the price of coffee.

We are raising money for the United Fund.

Our rent has been raised. (A passive construction implying that someone has raised the rent.)

Rise (principal parts: rise, rose, risen, rising) means "to ascend," "to move upward by itself," or "to get up." This verb cannot be used with an object.

We will have to rise to the demands of the occasion.

The sun rose at 6:25 this morning.

The river has risen to flood level.

The temperature has been rising all day.

TEST: Remember, you cannot "rise" anything.

Real-really. Real is an adjective; really, an adverb. Do not use real to modify another adjective; use very or really.

The ring is set with real diamonds. (Adjective.)

I was really ashamed of myself. (Adverb.)

It was very nice of you to call. (Not: real nice.)

Reason is because. Substitute reason is that. For example, "The reason for such low sales is that (NOT because) prices are too high."

Retroactive to (Nor from). For example, "Salaries of all secretaries will be increased \$5 a week retroactive to January 1." (See also \$1077.)

Said. The use of said in a phrase like "the said document" is appropriate only in legal writing. In normal usage write "the document referred to above." (In many cases the document being referred to will be clear to the reader without the additional explanation.)

Same. Do not use for it. For example, "We are now processing your order and will have it (Not same) ready for you by Saturday."

Scarcely. The adverb scarcely is negative in meaning. Therefore, do not use another negative with it. (See $\P1072$ for the placement of scarcely.)

I scarcely recognized (NOT didn't scarcely recognize) you.

Serve-service. Things can be serviced, but people are served.

We take great pride in the way we serve (not service) our clients.

For a small additional charge we will service the equipment for a full year.

Set-sit. Set (principal parts; set, set, set, setting) means "to place something somewhere." In this sense, set requires an object to complete its meaning. **REMEMBER:** You cannot "sit" anything.

It's important to set down your recollections while they are still fresh.

I must have lost it when I set my suitcuse down.

I have set my alarm for six in the morning.

The crew was setting the stage for the evening performance.

The date was set some time ago. (A passive construction implying that someone set the date.)

NOTE: Set has a few other meanings in which the verb does not require an object, but these meanings are seldom confused with sit.

They set out on the trip in high spirits.

The sun set at 5:34 p.m. Wednesday.

Do not disturb the gelatin dessert until it has set.

Sit (principal parts: sit, sat, sat, satisting) means "to be in a position of rest" or "to be seated." This verb cannot be used with an object.

So here we sit, waiting for a decision from top management.

I sat next to Ebbetsen at the board meeting.

They had sat on the plane a full hour before the flight was canceled.

They will be sitting in the orchestra.

Shall-will. The auxiliary verb shall has largely given way to the verb will in all but the most formal writing and speech. Some business firms, however, still prefer a formal style and require that the distinction between shall and will be observed. The following rules reflect both ordinary and formal usage:

- a. To express simple future time:
 - (1) In ordinary circumstances, use will with all three persons.

I (or we) will be glad to help you plan the program.

You will want to study these recommendations before the meeting.

He (or she, it, they) will arrive tomorrow morning.

(2) In formal circumstances, use shall with the first person (I, we) and will with the second and third persons (you, he, she, it, they).

I (or we) shall be glad to answer all inquiries promptly.

You will meet the McGinnesses at the reception this evening.

They (on he, she) will not find the trip too tiring.

- b. To indicate determination, promise, desire, choice, or threat:
 - (1) In ordinary circumstances, use will with all three persons.
 - (2) In formal circumstances, use will for the first person (I, we) and shall for the second and third persons (you, he, she, it, they).

In spite of the risk, I will go where I please. (Determination.)

We will not be coerced. (Determination.)

They shall not interfere with my department. (Determination.)

I will send my check by the end of the week. (Promise.)

We will report you to the authorities if this is true. (Threat.)

You shall regret your answer. (Threat.)

He shall study, or he shall leave college. (Threat.)

c. To indicate willingness (to be willing, to be agreeable to) in both ordinary and formal circumstances, use will with all persons.

Yes, I will meet you at six o'clock.

Should-would. Should and would follow the same rules as shall and will (see entry above) in expressions of future time, determination, and willingness. The distinctions concerning ordinary and formal usage also apply here.

ORDINARY: I would like to hear from you. **FORMAL:** I should like to hear from you.

ORDINARY: We would be glad to see her.

FORMAL: We should be glad to see her.

ORDINARY: I would be pleased to serve on that committee.

a. Always use should in all persons to indicate "ought to."

I should study tonight.

You should report his dishonesty to the manager.

He should pay his debts.

b. Always use would in all persons to indicate customary action.

Every day I would swim half a mile.

They would only say, "No comment."

She would practice day after day.

c. Use should in all three persons to express a condition in an if clause.

If I should win the prize, I will share it with you.

If you should miss the train, please call me collect.

 ${f d}.$ Use would in all three persons to express willingness in an if clause.

If he would apply himself, he could win top honors easily.

If you would consider delaying your decision, I am sure I could offer you a more attractive set of terms.

So-so that. So as a conjunction means "therefore"; so that means "in order that."

The work is now finished, so you can all go home. (See also $\P 179$.)

Please finish what you are doing so that we can all go home.

Someone-some one. See ¶1010, note.

Sometime-sometimes-some time

The order will be shipped sometime (at some unspecified time) next week.

Sometimes (now and then) reports are misleading.

It took me some time (a period of time) to complete the job.

I saw him some time ago.

Sort. See Kind.

Sort of. See Kind of-sort of.

Such as . . . etc. See Etc.

Sure-surely. Sure is an adjective; surely, an adverb.

I am sure that I did not make that mistake. (Adjective.)

You can surely count on our help. (Adverb.)

Do not use sure as an adverb; use surely or very.

I was very glad to be of help (NOT: sure glad.)

Sure and. In formal writing use sure to in place of the colloquial sure and. For example, "Be sure to turn left at the corner."

Than-then. Than is a conjunction introducing a subordinate clause of comparison. Then is an adverb meaning "at that time" or "next."

The compulsory retirement age is considerably lower now than it was then. They then asserted that they could handle the account better than we. (See \$1057 for the case of pronouns following than.)

NOTE: Remember that then (like when) refers to time.

That-which-who. See ¶1062.

These sort-these kind. Incorrect; the correct forms are this sort, this kind. (See also Kind.)

This here. Do not use for this. For example, "This (not this here) type-writer is out of order."

Toward-towards. Both forms are correct.

 $Try\ and.$ In written material use try to rather than the colloquial try and. For example, "Please try to be here on time." (nor: try and be here.)

Type. See Kind.

Unique. Do not use in the sense of "unusual." A unique thing is one of a kind (see ¶1071f).

Up. Many verbs (for example, end, rest, lift, connect, join, hurry, settle, burn, drink, eat) contain the idea of "up"; therefore, the adverb up is unnecessary. In the following sentences, up should be omitted.

The electrician will connect (up) the fan.

Let's divide (up) the sandwiches.

Can you help me lift (up) this case?

I will call him (up) tomorrow.

Upon-up on. See On-upon-up on.

Very. This adverb can be used to modify an adjective, another adverb, a present participle, or a "descriptive" past participle.

We are very happy with the outcome. (Modifying an adjective.)

This finish dries very quickly. (Modifying an adverb.)

It is a very disappointing showing. (Modifying a present participle.)

I was very pleased with the pictures. (Modifying a descriptive past participle.)
(Continued on page 226.)

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When the past participle expresses action rather than description, insert an adverb like much after very.

They are very much opposed to your plan. (Opposed is part of the complete verb are opposed and expresses action rather than description.)

Ways. Do not use for way in referring to distance. For example, "I live a short way (\mathbf{xor} ways) from here."

Whether. See If-whether.

Who-which-that. See ¶1062.

Who-whom, See ¶1061.

Whoever-who ever

Whoever (anyone who) is elected secretary should write that letter at once. Who ever made such a statement? (Ever is an adverb.)

Would have. Do not use for had in a clause beginning with *if.* For example, "If you had (not would have) come early, you could have seen him."



DICTATION, TRANSCRIPTION, AND TYPING TECHNIQUES

Taking Dictation (¶1201-1214)
Transcribing (¶1215-1224)
Preparing Carbon Copies (¶1225-1229)
Submitting Your Work (¶1230-1231)

Taking Dictation

- 1201 Start each day's dictation on a new notebook page.
- 1202 Write the date in longhand in the lower left corner of each notebook page that you use during the day; for example, Jan. 11, 1979.
- 1203 Use a ball-point pen with the type of point that allows you the greatest writing fluency. Have several pens at hand for emergency use, and keep a red-ink pen handy for making special notations.
- 1204 Number the notes for each letter, starting with 1 each day. If your employer hands you a letter or other material related to the dictation, number it to correspond with your notes. This will speed the identification of background material as you transcribe.
- **1206** Write the following in longhand:
 - a. The addressee's name, unless you are familiar with the correct spelling or can easily confirm it; for example, ec welford.
 - b. Street names, unless you know or can easily confirm the spelling.
 - c. Any unusual words or trade names.
- 1207 Underscore in your notes as follows:
 - **a.** Draw one line under words that are to be underscored in typewritten material or italicized in printed material.
 - b. Draw two lines under words that are to be typed or printed in allcapital letters.

- 1208 Use a distinctive mark, such as a double line, to indicate the end of the notes for each dictated item.
- 1209 Leave a few blank lines between items of dictation so that you will have space to write any special instructions the dictator may give you—for example, Transcribe first.
- 1210 Mark the notes for top-priority items "Rush" (using a colored pen if one is available).
- **1211** Flag rush dictation by folding back the corner of the notebook page so that it projects beyond the edge of the cover.
- **1212** Be efficient in turning notebook pages. One method is to keep both hands on the notebook, using your left hand to keep the book steady and your left thumb to move the page gradually upward as you approach the bottom of the page. (If you are left-handed, you naturally will use your right hand and right thumb.)
- 1213 Watch for subdivisions of thought as you are taking dictation and paragraph accordingly.
- **1214** Do not interrupt unless the dictator is so far ahead of you that you are losing the meaning of the dictation. Check doubtful words or sentences immediately after the dictator has finished the individual item of dictation. Read back the sentence containing the questioned word. If you are uncertain about an entire sentence, read back the sentence immediately preceding the one in question and as much of the one in question as you can.

NOTE: If you are getting too far behind, call out the last three words you are on. This simple procedure alerts the dictator that you are behind, and it also indicates exactly where you are in your note taking. The dictator will pick up your cue, go back to the words you repeated, and begin dictating again from that point.

Transcribing

- 1215 Check to see which items, if any, are to receive priority treatment. (See ¶¶1210-1211.)
- **1216** Check for special instructions from the dictator before you begin to transcribe (see ¶1209). Always make at least one copy of the correspondence (see also ¶¶1225-1229, 1376-1380).
- 1217 Confirm spellings, numbers, and similar details before you start transcribing.
- 1218 Transcribe directly from your notes. Develop the ability to read ahead as you transcribe in order to foresee such special problems as errors in grammar, incomplete sentences, and changes in the dictation (see \$1205).

- 1219 If possible, do not make a paragraph more than eight to ten lines long.

 Also avoid dividing the letter into a great many very short (two- or three-line) paragraphs.
- **1220** Consider the advantages of displaying numbered or lettered items instead of running them together in a paragraph.
- 1221 Proofread the letter before removing it from the machine. Check carefully for typing accuracy as well as for correct meaning. If you merely scan the copy, you are likely to miss word substitutions (such as than for that or now for not) or word repetitions (such as erroneously typing the same word at the end of one line and again at the beginning of the next). You may also miss the accidental omission of a word or a letter (such as you instead of your). Be sure that you have incorporated all the changes requested by the dictator (see ¶1205).
- 1222 Cancel the transcribed notes with a diagonal line.
- 1223 Check your notebook at the end of each day to be sure that you have transcribed all your notes. If any are left, then the next day give them priority over all new dictation except for rush dictation (which should always be transcribed first).
- 1224 Keep a rubber band around the notebook at the last page transcribed so that you will know immediately where to resume transcribing or writing during the day or at the beginning of the next day.

Preparing Carbon Copies

- 1225 a. For carbon copies use manifold (an inexpensive, lightweight paper available with either a glazed or an unglazed finish), onionskin (a stronger, more expensive paper available with either a smooth or a ripple finish), or copy letterhead (lightweight paper with the letterhead and the word COPY printed on it).
 - **b.** Use carbon paper of the weight and finish most appropriate for the number of copies you must make.

Copies	Weight	Finish
1-4	Standard (8 lb)	Hard
5-8	Medium (6 lb)	Medium*
9+	Light (4 lb)	Soft*

- *On electric typewriters, use a hard finish in place of medium and a medium finish in place of soft.
- c. Many companies provide preassembled "snap-out" carbon packs in which sheets of carbon paper are interleaved between sheets of copy paper. The sheets of copy paper are often of different colors in order to facilitate the routing of copies.
- 1226 When assembling a carbon pack:
 - a. Use carbon paper that has the upper left and lower right corners cut off diagonally. (Reason: It is easier to remove the carbons later on. To do so, grasp the upper left corner of the sheets with one hand and either

shake out the carbons or, if the carbons extend below the typed sheets. pull out the carbons from the bottom with your other hand.)

- b. Place the glossy side of the carbon against the paper on which the copy is to be made.
- c. Make sure that a sheet of carbon paper is interleaved between each two sheets of typing paper.
- d. Pick up the pack and, holding it loosely, tap the left and top edges against your desk until the sheets are even.
- 1227 When inserting a carbon pack into the machine:
 - a. Hold the pack so that the glossy side of the carbons is toward you, and roll the pack into the machine. (If necessary, use the ratchet release to prevent slippage when you insert the pack into the machine or when you turn it back to make corrections.)
 - b. Use an envelope or a sheet of paper to guide a thick carbon pack into the machine. If you use an envelope, place the pack under the flap of a large envelope and then roll them both into the machine far enough to permit removing the envelope from the front of the cylinder. If you use a sheet of paper as a guide, insert the sheet about halfway into the machine. Place the pack between the guide sheet and the cylinder, and then roll them forward until the guide sheet can be removed from the front of the cvlinder.
- 1228 After the carbon pack has been inserted into the machine:
 - a. Check to be sure that the printed side of the letterhead and the dull side of the carbon sheets are facing you.
 - b. Be sure that the pack is straight in the machine.
 - c. Operate the paper release before you start typing in order to release the tension on the papers and to prevent the carbon sheets from making marks on the copies.
- **1229** When reusing carbon paper, rotate the sheets from the front to the back of carbon packs and turn them from the top to the bottom so that the carbons will wear more evenly.

Submitting Your Work

- 1230 Check to see that each transcript is clean (no smudges, fingerprints, or obvious erasures) before you submit it to the dictator.
- 1231 Follow this procedure when you submit transcripts for signature:
 - a. Place the unfolded letter together with any enclosures under the flap of the envelope. Have the address side of the envelope on top.
 - **b.** Assemble each carbon copy that is to be signed in the same way you arranged the original letter. Place the carbon copies under the original.
 - c. Staple the file copy on top of the letter or other correspondence, if any, to which it is related.
 - d. Put all the transcripts to be signed in a folder (labeled "For Your Signature"), and place the folder on the dictator's desk. If the dictator initials file copies, present them in a separate folder labeled "File Copies."



Parts of Letters (*1301-1302)

Stationery Sizes (§1303)

Letter Placement (¶1304-1308)

Top Margin (*1304)

Side Margins (§1305)

Bottom Margin (*1306)

Lengthening a Short Letter (*1307)

Shortening a Long Letter (*1308)

Punctuation Patterns (*1309)

Spacing (¶1310)

Letterhead or Return Address (§1311-1313)

Date Line (¶1314)

Personal or Confidential Notation (¶1315)

Reference Notations (¶1316-1317)

Inside Address (¶1318-1320)

Name of Person and Title (**1321-1325)

In Care of . . . (¶1326)

Name of Organization (**1327-1329)

Building Name (¶1330)

Street Address (¶1331-1337)

Box Number (*1338)

City, State, and ZIP Code (¶1339-1344)

Attention Line (¶1345)

Salutation (* 1346-1351)

Subject Line (¶1352-1353)

Message (**1354-1357)

Complimentary Closing (¶1358-1360)

Company Signature (¶1361)

Writer's Name and Title (*1362-1369)

Reference Initials (**1370–1372)

Enclosure Notation (**1373-1374)

Mailing Notation (*1375)

Carbon Copy Notation (¶1376-1380)

Postscript (¶1381) Continuation Pages (¶¶1382-1387) Addressing Envelopes (¶¶1388-1391) Folding and Inserting Letters (¶¶1392-1396) Memos (¶1397) Social-Business Correspondence (¶¶1398) Postcards (¶1399)

> Section 13 provides guidelines for setting up letters and memos. These guidelines are not intended as inflexible rules; they can—and should—be modified to fit specific occasions as good sense and good taste require.

Parts of Letters

1301 A business letter has the following parts:

Heading:	Standard Letterhead or return address (¶¶1311-1313) Date line (¶1314)	Optional Personal or confidential notation (¶1315) Reference notations (¶¶1316–1317)
Opening:	Inside address (¶¶1318– 1344) Salutation (¶¶1346–1351)	Attention line (¶1345)
Body:	Message (¶¶1354-1357)	Subject line (¶¶1352-1353)
Closing:	Complimentary closing (¶1358-1360) Writer's identification (¶1362-1369) Reference initials (¶1370- 1372)	Company signature line (¶1361) Enclosure notation (¶¶1373- 1374) Mailing notation (¶1375) Carbon copy notation (¶¶1376- 1380)

- Each of these parts is illustrated in the model letters on pages 233-236.
- 1302 A business letter is usually arranged in one of the following styles:
 - a. The Blocked Style. The date line, the complimentary closing, and the writer's identification all begin at center. All other lines begin at the left margin. (This is the style most commonly used.)

Postscript (¶1381)

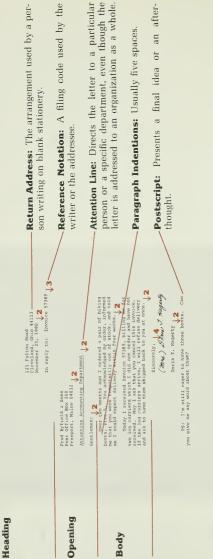
- b. The Semiblocked Style. This is exactly like the blocked style except for one additional feature: the first line of each paragraph is indented five spaces.
- c. The Full-Blocked Style. All lines typically begin at the left margin. Nothing is indented (except for displayed quotations, tables, and similar material).
- d. The Simplified Style. As in the full-blocked style, all lines begin at the left margin. However, the simplified style has these additional features: the salutation is replaced by an all-capital subject line; the complimentary closing is omitted; the writer's identification is typed in all-capital letters on one line; and open punctuation (see \$1309b) is always used.
- These four letter styles are illustrated on pages 233-236.

Blocked Style, Standard Punctuation

Inside Address: The name and address of the Message: The text of the letter: paragraphs are Complimentary Closing: A parting phrase like Writer's Identification: The signer's name or title Mailing Notation: Indicates that the letter has Carbon Copy Notation: The names of those who Date Line: The date (month, day, year) the letter is Company Signature: Emphasizes that the writer Enclosure Notation: A reminder that the letter typed; starts at center on line 15 or three lines below Salutation: An opening greeting like Dear Ms. Letterhead: The company's printed name and Reference Initials: The initials of the writer and typed single-spaced with no indentations. is acting on behalf of the company. etterhead (whichever is lower). person you are writing to. Sincerely; starts at center. been sent a special way. has an enclosure. or typist. Morales. or both. Capitol Products Corporation 250 Lexington Avenue New York, New York 10022 4 letter of application for a sales position with us. | 2 the state. If you would like to be considered for this opening, please fill in the enclosed application At present we do not have a vacancy near Fort Worth, but we do need a representative who is located in or near lubbock and can cover the northwestern part of I will be in Fort Worth near the end of the month to attend a convention. While I am there, I would be the position and are truly interested in joining our staff, we might be able to settle the matter at that National Sales Manager 1.2 If you are qualified for We have received and have noted with interest your Kenneth R Williamott Sincerely yours, 2 Kenneth R. Willmott point and work out the employment details. December 12, 1979 Ms. Susan N. Morales --2839 Clary Street Fort Worth, Texas 76111 [2 form and mail it back to us, oleased to talk with you. Enclosure Special delivery cc Miss A. Rossi Heading Opening Closing Body

will receive copies of this letter.

Semiblocked Style, Standard Punctuation



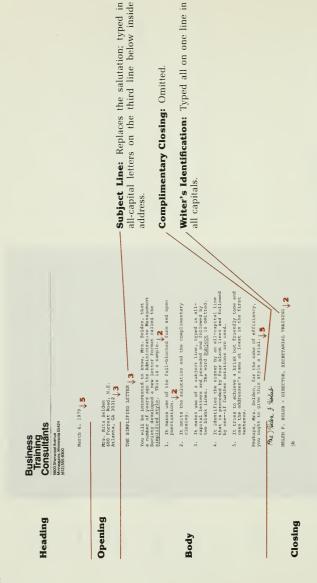
Closin

Full-Blocked Style, Open Punctuation

Heading	Satellite Traders Inc.	
	April 23, 1970/2 COMFIDENTIAL 3	
Opening	Mr. Philp Muritaes Jr. Esculure Vice President Agareach Arafas Inc. Regets, Dr. C.	Confidential Notation: Indicates that the lett should be read only by the person addressed.
	Dear Phil 2 Subject for Early Retirement 2	Foreign Address: The name of the country typed in all-capital letters on a line by itself.
	In presented your requires to the house of of discentish for the Friday. They work entirely, sympathetic to your remains for wanting to take early stratement, but firey expensed concern powe (her tank), at larmes, it has required to the concern power (her tank), at larmes,	Subject Line: Indicates what the letter is about
Body	numb to enture to colorly 1 2 years to the Reports AMK Phil to denta 57 people in the Reports of the New York Phil to denta 57 people in the Reports for his position. Prises each him to spell the their their position, but seem to spell the color than 100 to 100	Displayed Extract: Copy set off from the rest the letter for emphasis: indented five spaces fro left and right margins.
	If you and I can identify at least \$\infty\$ = \infty\$ malleted candidate acceptate to all and the other members of the board. I know they will move quickly not hoover your request; \$\infty\$\$	
Closing	Best resards A Thomas P. Caplard! President A TROOPS P. A. J. Barnes	

of

Simplified Style, Open Punctuation



Stationery Sizes

1303 The following table lists the sizes of stationery most commonly found in current use, as well as the related metric sizes of stationery likely to be introduced in the next few years.

Customary Sizes	Metric Sizes
Standard: 81,7" x 11"	A4: 210 x 297 mm (approx. 81, " x 113/")
Baronial: 51," x 81/2"	A5: 148 x 210 mm (approx. 5^{7}_{8} x 8^{1}_{4})
Monarch: 7 ¹ ₄ " x 10 ¹ ₂ "	(No metric equivalent)
Official: 8" x 101,"	(No metric equivalent)

Letter Placement

1304 Top Margin

a. Printed Letterheads. The date line is the first element to be typed. Follow this guideline: Position the date on the third line below the printed letterhead or in a predetermined position (see table below), whichever is lower.

Stationery	Date
Standard (8½" x 11") and A4 (210 x 297 mm):	Line 1
Monarch $(7\frac{1}{4}" \times 10\frac{1}{2}")$ and Official $(8" \times 10\frac{1}{2}")$:	Line 1
Baronial $(5\frac{1}{9})'' \times 8\frac{1}{9})''$ and A5 $(148 \times 210 \text{ mm})$:	Line 1:

b. Unprinted Stationery. The top margin on the first page of a letter depends on whether you type a letterhead address or a return address. (See ¶1312-1313 for positioning instructions.) The top margin on each continuation page of a letter is six lines (1 inch or 25 mm).

1305 Side Margins

a. The side margins will depend on the kind of stationery you are using and the size of type your typewriter has-pica or elite.

NOTE: To identify pica or elite type, type a series of periods and compare them with the ones below.

PICA:	 10 strokes to 1 inch (about 25 mm)
ELITE:	 12 strokes to 1 inch (about 25 mm)

b. The following table shows standard margin settings to be used when your stationery is centered at 50 on the carriage scale.

Stationery	Line Length	Margin Settings*
Standard, A4, Monarch, and Official	Pica: 50 spaces Elite: 60 spaces	25-80 20-85
Baronial and A5	Pica: 40 spaces Elite: 50 spaces	30-75 25-80

^{*}An additional five spaces has been added to the right margin setting in order to forestall the frequent use of the margin release key.

See \$1307g and \$1308e for nonstandard margin settings.

- c. To make sure your stationery is centered at 50, follow these tips:
- Position the carriage or carrier so that the printing-point indicator is at 50 on the carriage scale.
- Crease a sheet of paper in half lengthwise; then unfold the sheet and insert it into the typewriter.
- Using the paper release, loosen the paper and slide it right or left until the crease is at the center of the printing-point indicator. Then reset the paper release to its original position.
- Set the paper guide at the left edge of the paper.
- Make a note of the point at which the paper guide appears on the paper-guide scale. Then, when using this size of stationery in the future, simply set the paper guide at the established point and the paper will be automatically centered at 50.

1306 Bottom Margin

- a. Leave a bottom margin of at least six lines (1 inch or 25 mm).
- **b.** If the letter is continuing onto a second page, the bottom margin on the first page can be increased up to twelve lines (2 inches or 50 mm).
- See ¶¶1382-1387 on carrying a letter over from one page to the next.

1307 Lengthening a Short Letter

To spread a short letter (under 75 words) over one page, use any combination of the following techniques:

- a. Lower the date by as many as five lines.
- b. Allow five or six blank lines between the date and the inside address.
- c. Use 1½ blank lines before and after the salutation, between the paragraphs, between the message and the complimentary closing, and between the complimentary closing and the company name.
- d. Allow four to six blank lines for the signature.
- e. Place the signer's name and title on separate lines.
- f. Lower the reference initials one or two lines.
- g. On standard, A4, monarch, and official stationery, use a shorter line length. For pica type, set margins at 30-75; for elite, at 25-80.
- **h.** Type the inside address and the message double-spaced, but indent the first line of each paragraph.

1308 Shortening a Long Letter

To condense a long letter (over 225 words), use any combination of the following techniques:

- a. Raise the date.
- **b.** Allow only two or three blank lines between the date and the inside address.
- c. Allow only two blank lines for the signature.
- d. Raise the reference initials one or two lines.
- e. On standard, official, and A4 stationery, use a longer line length. For pica type, set margins at 20-85; for elite, at 15-90.

Punctuation Patterns

- 1309 The message in a business letter is always punctuated with normal punctuation (see Sections 1 and 2). The other parts may be punctuated according to one of the following patterns:
 - a. Standard (Mixed) Pattern. A colon is used after the salutation and a comma after the complimentary closing. (This is the style most commonly used.)
 - b. Open Pattern. No punctuation is used at the end of any line outside the body of the letter unless that line ends with an abbreviation.
 - c. Close (Full) Pattern. Each line outside the body of the letter ends with a comma or a period, as shown below. (This style is now rarely used.)
 - See page 240 for an illustration of all three patterns.

Spacing

1310 Ordinarily, type all letters single-spaced. (For the use of double spacing in very short letters, see \$1307h.)

*1311-1317 deal with the heading of a letter. The heading must always include two elements: a letterhead or a return address (**1311-1313) and a date line (*1314). It may also include a personal or confidential notation (*1315) and reference notations (**1316-1317). The model letters on

Letterhead or Return Address

- 1311 Ordinarily, business letters are written on stationery with a printed letterhead containing at least these elements; company name, street address, and city, state, and ZIP Code. Some printed letterheads also show area code and telephone number.
- 1312 If you are using plain paper and are writing on behalf of an organization. create a typewritten letterhead as shown below. Center the following information in four double-spaced lines, beginning on the sixth line from the top of the page: (1) the company name; (2) the street address; (3) the city, state, and ZIP Code; (4) the telephone area code and number. (The date then follows on line 15.)

TURPIN AND KELLY INC.	line 6
2550 Mulberry Street	line 8
New York, New York 10012	line 10
(212) 555-3600	line 12

September 28, 1979 line 15

1313 If you are using plain paper and are writing as an individual from your home, type a return address. Give the following information on three or

May 3, 1980

Purchasing Agent The Bergen Press Inc. 313 North Street San Jose, CA 95113 Mr. Bernard Kraus Jr.

Dear Mr. Kraus:

HUDSON COMPANY Sincerely,

Le Bower Lee Brower Sales Manager

> cc Ms. Loo Enclosure

cc Ms. Loo Enclosure

May 3, 1980

May 3, 1980.

Purchasing Agent The Bergen Press Inc. 313 North Street San Jose, CA 95113 Mr. Bernard Kraus Jr.

Mr. Bernard Kraus Jr., Purchasing Agent, The Bergen Press Inc., 313 North Street, San Jose, CA 95113. Dear Mr. Kraus:

Dear Mr. Kraus

HUDSON COMPANY Sincerely

Le Brown Sales Manager Lee Brower

Le Bower Lee Brower, Sales Manager.

HUDSON COMPANY,

Sincerely,

cc Ms. Loo. Enclosure.

more single-spaced lines aligned at the left: (1) the street address; (2) the city, state, and ZIP Code; (3) the date (see \$1314).

```
238 West 22 Street, Apt. 2B
                              or Apartment 2B
New York. New York 10011
                                  238 West 22 Street
January 24, 1979
                                  New York, New York 10011
                                  January 24, 1979
```

- a. For the blocked and the semiblocked styles, start each line of the return address at the center of the page (preferred style), or position the return address so that the longest line ends at the right margin.
- b. For the full-blocked and the simplified styles, start each line at the left margin.
- c. Position the return address as a block so that the date line falls as follows:

Stationery	Date
Standard (81/2" x 11") and A4 (210 x 297 mm):	Line 15
Monarch $(7\frac{1}{4}'' \times 10\frac{1}{2}'')$ and Official $(8'' \times 10\frac{1}{2}'')$:	Line 14
Baronial $(5\frac{1}{2}'' \times 8\frac{1}{2}'')$ and A5 $(148 \times 210 \text{ mm})$:	Line 12

Date Line

1314 a. The date line consists of the name of the month (written in full—never abbreviated or represented by figures), the day (written in figures and followed by a comma), and the complete year.

December 28, 1979 (NOT Dec. 28, 1979 or December 28th, 1979)

NOTE: Do not use the styles 12/28/79 or '79 in the date line of a business letter.

b. Some writers prefer to present the date line in this order: day, month, year. This is the style typically used in military correspondence and letters from abroad.

```
28 December 1979
```

c. When using letterhead stationery (printed or typewritten), position the date line on the third line below the letterhead or in a predetermined position (see table below), whichever is lower.

Stationery	Date
Standard (81/2" x 11") and A4 (210 x 297 mm):	Line 15
Monarch $(7\frac{1}{4}" \times 10\frac{1}{2}")$ and Official $(8" \times 10\frac{1}{2}")$:	Line 14
Baronial $(5\frac{1}{2}" \times 8\frac{1}{2}")$ and A5 (148 x 210 mm):	Line 12

NOTE: For the blocked and the semiblocked styles, you may position the date line as follows: (1) start it at the center of the page (preferred style); (2) position it so that it ends at the right margin; or (3) type it in some other position that is attractive in relation to the letterhead design (so long as it still stands out). For the full-blocked and the simplified styles, always start the date at the left margin.

d. When using a return address, position the date as shown in \$1313.

Personal or Confidential Notation

1315 If a letter is of a personal or confidential nature, type the appropriate notation on the second line below the date, at the left margin. The notation may be typed in all-capital letters or typed with capital and small letters and underscored.

PERSONAL OR Personal

CONFIDENTIAL OR Confidential

Reference Notations

- 1316 a. Printed letterheads for large organizations sometimes contain a line reading When replying, refer to: in the upper right corner. When using this kind of letterhead, type the appropriate reference number or filing code two spaces after the colon. Align the number or code at the bottom with the printed words.
 - b. If the guide words When replying, refer to: are not printed on the stationery but are desired, type them on the second line below the date (or on the second line below any notation that follows the date). Start typing at the same point as the date.

When replying, refer to: ALG-341

1317 a. When you are replying to a letter that contains a reference number or when you want to emphasize the fact that your letter concerns an insurance policy, an order, or a similar document, type a reference notation on the second line below the date (or on the second line below any notation that follows the date). Start typing at the same point as the date.

In reply to: G241 782 935

Refer to: Policy 234844

b. When there are two reference notations to be given, type your own reference notation first (as indicated in ¶1316). Then type the addressee's reference notation on the second line below.

When replying, refer to: F-17865

Your reference: GAR-X-7

NOTE: Some writers prefer to give the addressee's reference notation in a subject line. (See ¶1353.)

¶¶1318-1351 deal with the opening of a letter. The opening typically includes two elements: the inside address (¶¶1318-1344) and the salutation (¶¶1346-1351). It may also include an attention line (¶1345).

Inside Address

1318 a. For letters going to an individual's home, the inside address should include the following information: (1) the name of the person to whom you are writing, (2) the street address, and (3) the city, state, and ZIP Code. If the person lives in an apartment building, the apartment number should be given after the street address or on the line above.

Dr. Margaret P. Vanden Heuvel 615 University Boulevard, N.E. Albuquerque, New Mexico 87106

Miss Susan H. Ellington Apartment 10G 3864 South Kettering Boulevard Dayton, Ohio 45439

Mr. Albert W. Clemons Jr. Meads Creek Road, R.D. 2 Painted Post, NY 14870

Mrs. Lorraine Martineau 181 Park Avenue, Apt. 4D West Springfield, MA 01089

NOTE: Sometimes the address for a person living in a small town consists only of (1) the name and (2) the city, state, and ZIP Code. In this case, type the address on two lines. (Do not separate the city from the state to make three lines.)

Mrs. Marie S. Allen Thompson, North Dakota 58278

b. For letters going to a business or an organization, the inside address should include the following information: (1) the name of the business or organization, (2) a street address or a post office box number, and (3) the city, state, and ZIP Code. Whenever possible, address the letter to a specific person in the organization and include that person's job title and department (if known). If you do not have the name of a specific person, use a title instead (for example, Director of Marketing or Advertising Manager).

Mr. Arthur L. Quintero National Sales Manager Paragon Industries 211 North Ervay Street Dallas, Texas 75201

Director of Research Stanton Chemical Company Post Office Box 21431 Chattanooga, TN 37421

NOTE: When a room number or a suite number is included in the inside address, the following arrangements are acceptable:

Ms. Alice G. Alvarez Woodruff Construction Company 416 12th Street. Room 12 Columbus, Georgia 31901

Mr. Raymond Kermian Contemporary Tours Inc. Room 304, Tower Building 2506 Willowbrook Parkway Indianapolis, IN 46205

James W. Chiverton, M.D. Suite 1200 1111 West Mockingbird Lane Dallas. Texas 75247

Miss Pauline Leggett 503 Hanna Building 1422 Euclid Avenue Cleveland, OH 44115

- c. The inside address should begin on the fifth line below the date. If a notation falls between the date and the inside address (see ¶¶1315-1317), start the inside address on the third line below the notation.
- d. Single-space the inside address, and align each line at the left. (If the message in a very short letter is to be double-spaced, treat the inside address the same way.)
- **1319** If a letter is addressed to two or more people at different addresses, the individual address blocks may be typed one under the other (with one blank line between) or attractively positioned side by side. If the inside address blocks take up too much space at the opening of the letter, they may be typed at the end of the letter, two lines below the final notation at the left or, if there are no notations, five lines below the signature block.

1320 If a letter is addressed to two or more people at the same address, list each name on a separate line. Do not show a position title for each person unless it is short and can go on the same line as the name. Moreover, omit the names of departments unless the persons are in the same department. In effect, type only those parts of the address that are common to the people named at the start. (On the respective envelopes for each individual, give the full address for that individual and omit all reference to others named in the inside address.)

Dr. Paul J. Rogers Mr. James A. Dawes Research Department Sloan and Hewitt Advertising 700 North Harding Avenue Chicago, Illinois 60624

 $\P 1321-1344$ provide additional details concerning the parts of inside addresses. See also Section 16 for special forms of address used for government officials, military personnel, religious dignitaries, and education officials.

Name of Person and Title

1321 When writing the name of a person in an inside address or elsewhere in the letter, be sure to follow that person's preferences in the spelling, capitalization, and spacing of the name. (See §311.) In order to verify the correctness of a name, you may need to consult original correspondence from that person, a mailing list, a card file, or a directory.

NOTE: Do not abbreviate or use initials unless the person to whom you are writing uses an abbreviation or initials; for example, do not write Wm. B. Sachs or W. B. Sachs if the person to whom you are writing used William B. Sachs

- 1322 In general, use a title before the name of a person in an inside address. (See ¶517 for appropriate abbreviations of such titles.)
 - a. If the person has no special title (such as Dr., Professor, or The Honorable), use the courtesy title Mr., Miss, Mrs., or Ms.
 - b. In selecting Miss, Mrs., or Ms., always respect the individual woman's preference. If her preference is unknown, use the title Ms. or omit the courtesy title altogether. (Follow the same practice in the salutation. See ¶1349.)
 - c. If you do not know whether the person addressed is a man or a woman, do not use any courtesy title. (Follow the same practice in the salutation. See ¶1349.)

NOTE: People who use initials in place of their first and middle names or who have ambiguous names (like Marion, Leslie, Hilory, and Lee) should always use a courtesy title when they sign their letters so that others may be spared the confusion over which title to use. (See also ¶1365-1366.)

1323 a. A letter to a husband and wife is customarily addressed in this form:

Mr. and Mrs. Harold D. Bennisch (Not: Mr. & Mrs.)

b. If the husband has a special title such as Dr. or Professor, the couple is addressed as follows:

Dr. and Mrs. Thomas P. Geiger

c. If both husband and wife or the wife alone has a special title, list the names on separate lines.

Dean Walter O. Goetz Dr. Eleanor V. McCormack Professor Helen F. Goetz Mr. Joseph L. McCormack

When these special titles are irrelevant to the occasion, use Mr. and Mrs.

Mr. and Mrs. Joseph L. McCormack

1324 a. When Ir., Sr., or a roman numeral such as III is typed after a name, omit the comma before Ir., Sr., or the roman numeral unless you know that the person addressed prefers the use of a comma. (See also ¶156.) b. Do not use a title before a name if the term Esa, follows the name. (See also ¶518b.)

Rita A. Henry, Esq. (Not: Ms. Rita A. Henry, Esq.)

NOTE: A comma separates the last name from the term Esq.

c. As a rule, do not use an academic degree with a person's name in an inside address. However, doctors of medicine and divinity often prefer the use of the degree after their names (rather than the title Dr. before).

NOTE: If an academic degree does follow the person's name, separate it from the last name with a comma. Also omit the titles Dr., Miss, Mr., Mrs., and Ms. before the name. Another title (for example, Professor, The Reverend, Captain, Dean) may be used before the name as long as it does not convey the same meaning as the degree that follows. (See \$519b.)

Reva C. Calhoun, M.D. The Reverend Ernest G. Wyzanski, D.D.

- d. Abbreviations of religious orders, such as S.I. and S.N.D., are typed after names and preceded by a comma. An appropriate title should precede the name, even though the abbreviation follows the name; for example, The Reverend John DeMaio, O.P.
- 1325 A title of position, such as Vice President or Sales Manager, should be included in an inside address whenever possible. Ordinarily, type it on the line following the name: if the title runs on to a second line, indent the turnover two spaces. Capitalize every word in the title except prepositions (like of) and conjunctions (like and) under four letters.

Mrs. Martha Hansen Executive Vice President

Mr. Ralph Nielsen Vice President and General Manager

NOTE: If the title is very short, it may be typed on the same line as the person's name in order to balance the length of the lines in the address; in this case the title should be preceded by a comma. As an alternative, a very short title may be typed on the same line as the name of the person's organization (or the name of the department or division within the organization); in this case the title should be followed by a comma.

Mr. J. C. Lee, President Merchants National Bank Dr. Antoinette H. Marcantonio President, Haines & Company

In Care of . . .

1326 Sometimes a letter cannot be sent to the addressee's home or place of business; it must be directed instead to a third person who will see that the letter reaches the addressee. In such cases, use an "in care of" notation as shown below.

Professor Eleanor Marschak
In care of Henry Wardwell, Esq.

OR Professor Eleanor Marschak
In care of Henry Wardwell, Esq.

Name of Organization

1327 Ordinarily, type the organization's name on a line by itself. If the name of a division or a department is needed in the address, it should precede the organization name on a line by itself.

Ms. Laura G. Kidd Assistant Vice President Department of Consumer Affairs Holstein, Brooks & Co.

NOTE: A very short title may be typed on the same line as the name of the organization. (See ¶1325, note.)

1328 When writing the name of an organization in an inside address, always follow the organization's style for spelling, punctuation, capitalization, spacing, and abbreviations. The letterhead on incoming correspondence is the best source for this information. Note the variations in style in these names:

Time Inc.
Newsweek, Inc.
AMF Incorporated
Parker Pen Co.
Bee Chemical Company
Johns-Manville Corp.
Technicon Corporation
Emersons, Ltd.
Fiberglas Canada Ltd.
BP Canada Limited

Goldman, Sachs & Co.
Bass & Company
Halpert, Oberst and Company
Halsey, Stuart & Co. Inc.
Shearson Hayden Stone Inc.
Paine. Webber, Jackson & Curtis
Hornblower & Weeks-Hemphill, Noyes
Legg Mason/Wood Walker
Post-Keyes-Gardner Inc.
Gulf + Western Industries

- 1329 If you do not have some way of determining the official form of a company name, follow these rules:
 - a. Spell out the word and. Do not use an ampersand (&).

Haber, Curtis, and Hall Inc.

Acme Lead and Tin Company

b. Write Inc. for Incorporated and Ltd. for Limited. Do not use a comma before the abbreviation.

- c. As a rule, spell out Company or Corporation; if the name is extremely long, however, use the abbreviation Co. or Corp.
- d. Do not use the word the at the beginning of a name unless you are reasonably sure it is part of the official name; for example. The Rand Corporation, The New York Times.
- See 640 for the use or omission of apostrophes in company names.

Building Name

1330 If the name of a building is included in the inside address, type it on a line by itself immediately above the street address. A room number or a suite number should accompany the building name.

```
Room 118, Acuff Building
                              1262-1264 Penobscot Building
904 Bob Wallace Avenue, S.W.
                              Griswold Avenue and Fort Street
                              Detroit, Michigan 48226
Huntsville, Alabama 35801
```

See ¶1318b, note, for additional examples.

Street Address

example, 144 65th Street.

- 1331 Always type the street address on a line by itself, immediately preceding the city, state, and ZIP Code. (See ¶1318 for examples.)
- 1332 Use figures for house and building numbers. Do not include the abbreviation No. or the symbol # before such numbers. exception: For clarity. use the word One instead of the figure 1 in a house or building number: for example, One Park Avenue.
- 1333 Numbers used as street names are written as follows:
 - a. Spell out the numbers 1 through 10; for example, 177 Second Avenue. b. Use figures for numbers over 10; for example, 27 East 22 Street or 27 East 22d Street. The ordinal sign st, d, or th may be omitted so long as a word such as East or West separates the street number from the building number. If no such word intervenes, use the ordinal sign for clarity; for
- 1334 Do not abbreviate North, South, East, West, Northeast, Southwest, or a similar word when it appears before the street name; for example, 330 West 42 Street.
- 1335 Type an abbreviation representing a section of a city after the street name and use a comma before it; for example, 2012 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
- 1336 Use the word and, not an ampersand (δ), in a street address; for example, Tenth and Market Streets.
- 1337 Avoid abbreviating such words as Street and Avenue in inside addresses. (It may be necessary, for reasons of space, to abbreviate in envelope addresses. See \$1390.)
 - For apartment and room numbers with street addresses, see **1318, 1330.

1338 a. A post office box number may be used in place of the street address.

Post Office Box 1518 or P.O. Box 1518 or Box 1518

b. A station name, if needed, should follow the post office box number (and a comma) on the same line. If very long, the station name may go on the line below.

Box 76984. Sanford Station Los Angeles, CA 90005

P.O. Box 11215 Linda Vista Station San Diego, CA 92111

c. Some companies show both a street address and a post office box number in their mailing address. Whatever information appears in the line preceding the city, state, and ZIP Code determines where the mail is delivered.

Henson Supply Corp. 315 South Water Street Post Office Box 181 \leftarrow The mail will be delivered to this address. Hartford, CT 06101

City, State, and ZIP Code

1339 The city, state, and ZIP Code must always be typed on one line, immediately following the street address. Type the name of the city, followed by a comma and one space; the state, followed by one space but no comma; and the ZIP Code.

Denver, Colorado 80217 on Denver, CO 80217

- 1340 When writing the name of a city in an inside address:
 - a. Never use an abbreviation (for example, Chic. for Chicago).
 - b. Never abbreviate the words Fort, Mount, Point, or Port. Write the name of the city in full. For example: Fort Dodge, Mount Vernon, Point Pleasant, Port Huron.
 - c. Abbreviate the word Saint in the names of American cities; for example, St. Louis, St. Paul, St. Petersburg.

NOTE: It may be necessary, for reasons of space, to abbreviate city names in envelope addresses. (See ¶1390.)

1341 In an address, spell out the name of the state or use a two-letter abbreviation of the state name (as shown in the chart on page 249).

NOTE: The two-letter abbreviations (for example, AL for Alabama) were created by the U.S. Postal Service and should be used only with ZIP Codes in addresses. The more traditional abbreviations of state names (for example, Ala. for Alabama) should be used in other situations where abbreviations are appropriate. (See ¶¶526-527.)

- a. When using the two-letter state abbreviations, type them in capital letters, with no periods after or space between the letters.
- b. When giving an address in a sentence, insert a comma after the street address and after the city. Leave one space between the state and the ZIP

Alabama	AL	Missouri	MO
Alaska	AK	Montana	MT
Arizona	AZ	Nebraska	NE
Arkansas	AR	Nevada	NV
California	CA	New Hampshire	NH
Canal Zone	CZ	New Jersey	NI
Colorado	CO	New Mexico	NM
Connecticut	CT	New York	NY
Delaware	DE	North Carolina	NC
District		North Dakota	ND
of Columbia	DC	Ohio	OH
Florida	FL	Oklahoma	OK
Georgia	GA	Oregon	OR
Guam	GU	Pennsylvania	PA
Hawaii	HI	Puerto Rico	PR
Idaho	ID	Rhode Island	RI
Illinois	IL	South Carolina	SC
Indiana	IN	South Dakota	SD
Iowa	IA	Tennessee	TN
Kansas	KS	Texas	TX
Kentucky	KY	Utah	UT
Louisiana	LA	Vermont	VT
Maine	ME	Virgin Islands	VI
Maryland	MD	Virginia	VA
Massachusetts	MA	Washington	WA
Michigan	MI	West Virginia	WV
Minnesota	MN	Wisconsin	WI.
Mississippi	MS	Wyoming	WY

Code. Insert a comma after the ZIP Code unless a stronger mark of punctuation is required at that point.

My address next month will be 501 South 71 Court, Miami, Florida 33144, but mail sent to my office will reach me just as easily.

- 1342 Omit the name of county or area (such as Long Island) in an address.
- **1343** In a Canadian address, spell out or abbreviate the name of the province or territory.

Alberta	AB	Nova Scotia	NS
British Columbia	BC	Ontario	ON
Labrador	LB	Prince Edward Island	PE
Manitoba	MB	Quebec	PQ
New Brunswick	NB	Saskatchewan	SK
Newfoundland	NF	Yukon Territory	ΥT
Northwest Territories	NT	*	

NOTE: The following formats are used for mail going to Canada. (The format on the left is preferred for envelopes.)

876 Wolfe Avenue Moose Jaw, Saskatchewan CANADA S6H 1J6 OR: 876 Wolfe Avenue Moose Jaw, Saskatchewan CANADA S6H 1J6 1344 In other foreign addresses, type the name of the country on a separate line in all-capital letters. Do not abbreviate the name of the country. **EXCEPTION:** U.S.S.R. (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics).

Graf-Adolf Strasse 100 Dusseldorf 4000 GERMANY Rua Tabapua, 1105 Caixa Postal 20689 Itaim—Bibi, Sao Paulo, S.P.

BRAZIL

Attention Line

1345 When a letter is addressed directly to a company, an attention line is often used to route the letter to a particular person (by name or title) or to a particular department. For example:

Shelton & Warren Industries 6710 Squibb Road Mission, Kansas 66202 Carrolton Labs 1970 Briarwood Court Atlanta, GA 30329

Attention Mr. John Ellery

ATTENTION SALES MANAGER

NOTE: This form of address emphasizes the fact that the letter deals with a business matter (rather than a personal matter) and may be handled by another person or department than the one named in the attention line. (However, it is simpler to type the name of the person or department above the company name and omit the attention line. Any letter that does not carry a personal or confidential notation will ordinarily be presumed to deal with company business and will be handled by others in the absence of the named addressee.)

- a. The attention line should be typed on the second line below the inside address, starting at the left margin.
- **b.** The attention line may be typed in all-capital letters, or it may be typed in capital and small letters, with the complete line underscored The word Attention should not be abbreviated; it need not be followed by the word of or a colon. (See the examples above.)
- See ¶1351 for the salutation to use with an attention line.

Salutation

1346 Type the salutation, beginning at the left margin, on the second line below the attention line (if used) or on the second line below the inside address. Follow the salutation with a colon unless you are using open punctuation (see ¶1309) or you are typing a social-business letter (see ¶1398b). Omit the salutation if you are using the simplified letter style, and replace it with a subject line (see ¶1352).

NOTE: Be sure that the spelling of the name in the salutation is the same as the spelling in the inside address.

- **1347** Abbreviate only the titles Mr., Ms., Mrs., Messrs., and Dr. All other titles, such as Professor and Father, should be written out. (See ¶1601 for titles used by officials, dignitaries, and military personnel.)
- 1348 Capitalize the first word as well as any nouns and titles in the salutation; for example, Dear Sir, My dear Mrs. Brand, Right Reverend and dear Sir.

1349 The following are commonly used forms of salutation:

TO ONE PERSON (NAME, GENDER, AND COURTESY TITLE PREFERENCE KNOWN)

Dear Mr. Smith:

Dear Ms. Simpson:

Dear Mrs. Grav:

Dear Miss Wells:

TO ONE PERSON (NAME KNOWN, GENDER UNKNOWN)

Dear Marion Parker:

Dear R. V. Moore:

TO ONE PERSON (NAME UNKNOWN, GENDER KNOWN)

Dear Madam: on Madam: (more formal)

Dear Sir: or Sir: (more formal)

TO ONE PERSON (NAME AND GENDER UNKNOWN)

Dear Sir or Madam: on Sir or Madam: (more formal)

OR Dear Madam or Sir: OR Madam or Sir: (more formal)

TO ONE WOMAN (COURTESY TITLE PREFERENCE UNKNOWN)

Dear Ms. Malloy: or Dear Ruth Malloy: (see ¶1322b)

TO TWO OR MORE MEN

Dear Mr. Gelb and Mr. Harris: on Gentlemen:

OR Dear Messrs, Gelb and Harris:

TO TWO OR MORE WOMEN

Dear Mrs. Allen, Ms. Ott, and Miss Day:

Dear Mrs. Jordan and Mrs. Kent:*

OR Dear Mesdames Jordan and Kent:

Dear Ms. Scott and Ms. Gomez:*

OR Dear Mses. (OR Mss.) Scott and Gomez:

Dear Miss Winger and Miss Rossi:*

OR Dear Misses Winger and Rossi:

TO A WOMAN AND A MAN

Dear Ms. Kent and Mr. Winston:

Dear Mr. Fong and Miss Landis:

Dear Mr. and Mrs. Green:

TO SEVERAL PERSONS

Dear Mr. Anderson, Mrs. Brodsky, Ms. Carmino, Mr. Dellums, and Miss Eustace: Dear Friends (Colleagues, Members, or some other suitable collective term):

TO AN ORGANIZATION COMPOSED ENTIRELY OF MEN

Gentlemen:

TO AN ORGANIZATION COMPOSED ENTIRELY OF WOMEN

Mesdames: or Ladies:

TO AN ORGANIZATION COMPOSED OF MEN AND WOMEN

See ¶1350

NOTE: For greater formality, some writers use My dear in place of Dear.

^{*} See ¶618, note.

1350 For an organization composed of both men and women, the salutation most commonly used is Gentlemen:

> United Services Corporation 100 Kendall Parkway Somerset, New Jersey 08873

Gentlemen:

However, this generic use of Gentlemen is coming under increasing attack, on the grounds that the masculine bias of the term makes it unsuitable for reference to a group that includes women as well as men.

- a. One alternative is to use Ladies and Gentlemen or Gentlemen and Ladies in place of Gentlemen alone.
- **b.** Another alternative is to address the letter, not to the organization as a whole, but to the head of the organization—by name and title if known, otherwise by title alone. Then the salutation would appear as shown below.

Mr. James V. Quillan President United Services Corporation 100 Kendall Parkway Somerset, New Jersey 08873 Dear Mr. Quillan:

President (or Chief Executive Officer) United Services Corporation 100 Kendall Parkway Somerset. New Jersev 08873

Dear Sir or Madam:

- c. Use the simplified letter style and omit the salutation.
- 1351 When an attention line is used (see ¶1345), the letter is considered to be addressed to the organization rather than to the person named in the attention line. Therefore, use one of the organizational salutations shown in ¶¶1349 and 1350 above. (Whenever possible, omit the attention line and address the letter directly to an individual in the organization—either by name or by title.)

¶¶1352–1357 deal with the body of a letter. The body contains the text of the letter—in other words, the message (see \$\frac{1}{354} - 1357). The body may also begin with a subject line (see \$\frac{1}{1}352-1353\), which briefly identifies the main idea in the message.

Subject Line

- 1352 In the simplified letter style, a subject line is used in place of the salutation. Start the subject line on the third line below the inside address. Begin at the left margin and type the subject line in all-capital letters. Do not use a term like Subject: to introduce the subject line. (See page 236.)
- 1353 a. In other letter styles, the subject line (if used) appears on the second line below the salutation. (See page 235.) Ordinarily, the subject line starts at the left margin, but for special emphasis it may be centered. In a semiblocked letter it may be indented the same as the paragraphs. Type it

either in all-capital letters or in capital and small letters that are underscored.

MORAN LEASE

Introductory Offer to New Subscribers and Renewal Offer to Present Subscribers

b. The term Subject: or (in legal correspondence) In re: or Re: often precedes the actual subject but is not necessary.

SUBJECT: MORAN LEASE

Subject: Introductory Offer to New Subscribers and Renewal Offer to Present Subscribers

In re: Moran Lease

c. When replying to a letter that carries a "refer to" notation, put the desired reference number or filing code in a subject line or below the date

line (see ¶1316-1317). Refer to: Policy 668485

Message

- 1354 Begin the message on the second line below the subject line, if used, or on the second line below the salutation. EXCEPTION: In the simplified letter style, the message starts on the third line. (See page 236.)
- 1355 In the semiblocked letter style (see page 234) indept the first line of each paragraph. (Although five spaces is the usual indention, some writers prefer to indent up to ten spaces.) In the other letter styles, start each paragraph at the left margin.
 - NOTE: Always indent the first line of each paragraph if the letter is double-spaced.
- 1356 Use single spacing and leave one blank line between paragraphs. (Very short letters may be double-spaced or lengthened by means of other techniques. See ¶1307.)
- 1357 a. When a quotation or similar material is to be displayed in the body of the letter, indent the material five spaces from each side margin and leave one blank line above and below the material. (See page 235 for an illustration).
 - See \$265 for different ways of handling a long quotation.
 - b. When a table occurs in the body of a letter, it should be centered between the left and right margins and indented a minimum of five spaces from each side margin. (If the table is very wide, reduce the normal six spaces between columns to as few as two spaces to preserve the indentation of the table on each side.) Leave one to three blank lines above and below the table to set it off from the rest of the text. (See Section 15 for details on setting up a table.)
 - c. When a list of numbered items appears in the body of a letter, type the list single-spaced with one blank line above and below the list as a whole. Either begin each item at the left margin, or for special display indent the list as a whole five spaces from each side margin. If any item in the list

requires more than one line, leave a blank line between all items in the list. Begin each item with a number followed by a period and two spaces. If any item continues onto a second line, indent it so that it begins under the first word in the line above. (See page 236 for an example.)

NOTE: If the list consists entirely of one-line items typed single-spaced. then for appearance' sake the number that begins each item may be followed by a period and only one space.

¶¶1358-1381 deal with the closing of a letter. The closing typically includes a complimentary-closing phrase (¶¶1358-1360), the writer's name and title (¶¶1362-1369), and reference initials (¶¶1370-1372). It may also include a company signature line (¶1361), an enclosure notation (¶1373-1374), a mailing notation (¶1375), a carbon copy notation (¶¶1376-1380), and a postscript (¶1381).

Complimentary Closing

- 1358 Type the complimentary closing on the second line below the last line of the body of the letter. In a blocked or semiblocked letter, start the closing at center. In a full-blocked letter, start the closing at the left margin. In a simplified letter, omit the closing.
- 1359 Capitalize only the first word of a complimentary closing. Place a comma at the end of the line (except when open punctuation is used).
- 1360 The following complimentary closings are commonly used:
 - a. Personal in tone: Sincerely, Cordially, Sincerely yours, Cordially vours.
 - b. More formal in tone: Yours truly, Yours very truly, Very truly yours, Very sincerely yours, Very cordially yours, Respectfully yours.
 - c. If an informal closing phrase, such as Best wishes, Warmest regards, or See you in *July*, is used instead of a regular complimentary closing, type the phrase in the complimentary-closing position and follow it by a comma. (Stronger punctuation, such as a question mark, an exclamation point, or a dash, may be used if appropriate.) If both a complimentary closing and an informal closing phrase are used, type the complimentary closing in its regular position, and type the informal phrase at the end of the last paragraph or as a separate paragraph with the appropriate terminal punctuation.

NOTE: Once a pattern of personal or informal closings is begun, it should not be discontinued without good reason. Otherwise, if a later letter returns to a more formal closing, the person addressed may wonder what has happened to the established relationship.

Company Signature

1361 A company signature may be used to emphasize the fact that a letter represents the views of the company as a whole (and not merely the individual who has written it). If included, the company signature should be typed in all capitals on the second line below the complimentary closing. Begin the company signature at the same point as the complimentary closing.

Very truly yours, HASKINS & COHEN INC.

Writer's Name and Title

1362 Ordinarily, type the writer's name on the fourth line below the company signature, if used, or on the fourth line below the complimentary closing.

NOTE: If the letter is running short, you can leave up to six blank lines for the signature. If the letter is running long, you can reduce the signature space to two blank lines. (See also ¶1307-1308.)

- a. Start typing at the same point as the company signature or the complimentary closing. EXCEPTION: In the simplified letter style, type the writer's name and title on the fifth line below the body, in all-capital letters starting at the left margin. (See \$1363.)
- b. Although some writers prefer to give only their title and department name in the signature block, a typewritten signature should also be included so that the carbons will clearly show who sent the letter. If the writer prefers to omit the name from the signature block, then it should be spelled out in the reference initials. (See \$1370b.)
- 1363 Arrange the writer's name, title, and department to achieve good visual halance. (See the five variations below.) If a title takes two or more lines. block all the lines at the left.

Janice Mahoney, Manager Data Processing Division

Charles Saunders Assistant Manager Credit Department

Ernest L. Welhoelter Head, Sales Department

Franklin Browning Vice President and General Manager

CHARLES SAUNDERS - ASSISTANT MANAGER, CREDIT DEPARTMENT (simplified style)

- 1364 A person who has a special title should observe the following style in the signature block.
 - a. A person who wants to be addressed as Dr. should use an appropriate academic degree after his or her name (not Dr. before it).

Jane Bishop, M.D.

Morris Finley, D.D.

Nancy Buckwalter, Ph.D.

b. A person who wishes to be addressed by a title of academic or military rank (Dean, Professor, Major) should type this title after the name or on the next line, not before it.

Edwin C. Powell Dean of Students Joseph F. Corev Major, USAF

(NOT Dean Edwin C. Powell)

(NOT Major Joseph F. Corey)

(Continued on page 256.)

name.

c. In cases where a title of address cannot be placed after a surname or suggested by the initials of an academic degree, then it may precede the

Rev. Joseph W. Dowd

Mother Ellen Marie O'Brien

1365 Ordinarily, a man should not include Mr. in his signature. However, if he has a name that could also be a woman's name (Kay, Adrign, Beverly, Lynn) or if he uses initials (I. G. Eberle), he should use Mr. in either his handwritten or typewritten signature when writing to people who do not know him. If given in the handwritten signature, Mr. should be enclosed in parentheses. If given in the typewritten signature, Mr. should appear without parentheses.

> Sincerely. (Mr) Lynn Treadway Lynn Treadway

Lynn Treadway

1366 A woman should include a courtesy title (Ms., Miss, or Mrs.) in her signature unless she is called by a special title (see ¶1364). If she gives her name without any title at all, the reader of the letter is put in the awkward position of having to decide which title to use in a letter of reply.

NOTE: In the following examples, note that the courtesy title is enclosed in parentheses when it appears in the handwritten signature but not when it appears in the typewritten signature.

a. A woman who does not want to indicate whether she is married or single should use Ms. in either her handwritten or her typewritten signature.

Sincerely yours.

Sincerely yours.

(Ms.) Constance H. Booth Constance H. Booth

Constance G. Booth

Ms. Constance G. Booth

b. A single woman who wants to indicate that she is a single woman should include Miss in either her handwritten or her typewritten signature.

Cordially.

(Miss) Margareth. Salloway Margareth. Salloway

Margaret L. Galloway

Miss Margaret L. Galloway

c. A married woman who wants to retain her unmarried name for career purposes may use either Ms. or Miss, as illustrated in a and b above.

d. A married woman or a widow who prefers to be addressed as Mrs. has many variations to choose from. The following examples show the possible styles for a woman whose maiden name was Nancy O. Ross and whose husband's name is John A. Wells.

Cordially yours,

(Mrs.) Mancy O. Wells

Nancy O. Wells

Cordially yours,

(Mrs.) nancy R. Wells

Nancy R. Wells

Cordially yours,

(Mes) nancy Ross Nelles

Nancy Ross Wells

Cordially yours,

(Mrs.) Nancy O. Ross-Wells

Nancy O. Ross-Wells

Cordially yours,

Mancy O. Wells

Mrs. Nancy O. Wells

Cordially yours,

nancy R. Wells

Mrs. Nancy R. Wells

Cordially yours,

nancy Ross Nells

Mrs. Nancy Ross Wells

Cordially yours,

Nancy O. Ross-Wells

Mrs. Nancy O. Ross-Wells

NOTE: Giving the husband's name in the typewritten signature (as in the example below) is a style often used for social purposes. It should not be used in business.

Cordially yours,

nancy O. Wells

Mrs. John A. Wells

e. A divorced woman who has resumed her maiden name may use Ms. or Miss in any of the styles shown in a and b on page 256. If she retains her ex-husband's surname, she may use Ms. or Mrs. in any of the styles shown in a and d above. (**EXCEPTION:** The style which uses the husband's name in the typewritten signature would be inappropriate for a divorcée.)

1367 A secretary who signs a letter at the boss's request may use either of the following styles, depending on the boss's preference and the circumstances involved.

Sincerely yours,

Dorothy Kozinski

Ms. Dorothy Kozinski Secretary to Mr. Benedict Sincerely yours,

Robert N. Benedict

Robert H. Benedict Production Manager

1368 If the person who signs for another is not actually the secretary, either of the following forms may be used:

Sincerely yours,

(Miss) Olice R. Brentono

For Robert H. Benedict Production Manager

Sincerely yours,

Robert H. Benedict

Robert H. Benedict Production Manager

- 1369 When two people have to sign a letter, arrange the two signature blocks side by side or one beneath the other.
 - a. If they are placed side by side, start the first signature block at the left margin and the second block at center. If this arrangement is used, the complimentary closing should also begin at the left margin. (This arrangement is appropriate for all letter styles.)
 - b. If the signature blocks are positioned one beneath the other, start typing the second block on the fourth line below the end of the first block. Align the signature blocks at the left. (In the blocked and semiblocked styles, start typing at center; in the full-blocked and simplified styles, start typing at the left margin.)

Reference Initials

1370 a. The initials of the typist (or those of the writer and the typist) are typed at the left margin, on the second line below the writer's name and title. When used, the initials of the writer precede those of the typist. The following are commonly used styles:

L:C lba t
APB/mm MFF:CCR STG:ebh

RBMJr:jb (use Jr. or Sr. only if both persons work for the same firm)

- See \$516c for initials with names like McFarland and O'Leary.
- **b.** If the writer's name is typed in the signature block, the writer's initials can be omitted. If the writer's name is not typed in the signature line, type the writer's initials and surname before the initials of the typist; for example, BSDixon/rp.
- 1371 When the letter is written by someone other than the person who signs it, this fact may be indicated by showing the writer's and the typist's initials (not the signer's and the typist's).

Sincerely yours.

Herbert Heymann
Herbert Heymann

President PBR/jb

1372 Do not include reference initials in a personal letter.

Enclosure Notation

1373 If one or more items are to be included in the envelope with the letter, indicate that fact by typing the word Enclosure (or an appropriate substitute) at the left margin, on the line below the reference initials.

NOTE: Be sure that the number of enclosures shown in the enclosure notation agrees with the number cited in the body of the letter and also with the number of items actually enclosed.

a. The styles illustrated below are commonly used.

Enclosure 2 Enclosures Enclosures:
Enc. 2 Enc. (see \$504) 1. Check for \$500
1 Enc. Enc. 2
1 Enclosure Enclosures 2
Check enclosed Enclosures (2)

b. Some writers use the term Attachment or Att.

1374 If material is to be sent separately instead of being enclosed with the letter, indicate this fact by typing Separate cover or Under separate cover on the line below the enclosure notation (if any) or on the line directly below the reference initials. The following styles may be used:

Separate cover 1 Under separate cover:

1. Annual report
2. Product catalog
3. Price list

Mailing Notation

1375 If a letter is to be delivered in a special way, type an appropriate notation on the line below the enclosure notation (if used) or on the line below the reference initials.

crj HWM/ldb tpg
Enc. 2 Special delivery Enclosures 4
Certified co Mr. Fry By messenger

Carbon Copy Notation

- 1376 A carbon copy (cc) notation lets the addressee know that one or more other persons will be sent a copy of the letter. The initials cc are used, even if the copy has been made by some other process (like photocopying).
 - a. Type cc at the left margin, on the line below the mailing notation, the enclosure notation, or the reference initials, whichever comes last. If several persons are to receive carbon copies, the names should be listed according to the rank of the persons or, if there is no difference in rank, alphabetically.

AMH:HT WFG/mf LBW:ncy
Enclosure Enc. 4 cc Contract File
Registered cc Mrs. A. C. Case
cc Ms. Hoey Mr. R. G. Flynn Sales Department

b. The initials cc may be typed in small letters or capitals, with or without a colon following. When there are two or more names to be listed, the initials cc may be typed only with the first name or repeated with each name.

cc Miss Fox or cc: Miss Fox cc Ms. Rae or cc Ms. Rae CC Miss Fox or CC: Miss Fox Mr. Poe cc Mr. Poe

1377 If the addressee is not intended to know that one or more other persons are being sent a copy of the letter, use a bcc (blind carbon copy) notation. First remove the original letter and any copies on which the bcc notation is not to appear. Then on each of the remaining copies, type a bcc notation in the upper left corner (starting at the left margin on the seventh line from the top). The file copy should show all the bcc notations, even though the individual copies do not.

NOTE: Any of the forms used for a regular cc notation may be used for a bcc notation

bcc: Ms. Ruiz bcc Mrs. Hope

- 1378 Courtesy titles may be omitted from cc notations if a first name is used with the surname: for example, cc George Glover.
- 1379 When a letter carries both an enclosure notation and a cc notation, it is assumed that the enclosures accompany only the original letter. If a copy of the enclosures is also to accompany a copy of the letter, this fact may be indicated as follows:

```
cc: Mr. D. R. Wellak
                           (received only the letter)
cc/enc: Mr. J. Baldwin
                           (received the letter and the enclosures)
         Mrs. G. Conger (received the letter and the enclosures)
```

1380 A copy is not usually signed unless the letter is addressed to several people and the copy is intended for one of the people named in the salutation. However, a check mark is usually made on each copy next to the name of the person or department for whom that copy is intended.

```
cc Ms. A. M. Starr Cc Ms. A. M. Starr
                         Mr. H. W. Fried
  Mr. H. W. Fried
```

NOTE: When an unsigned carbon copy is likely to strike the recipient as cold and impersonal, it is appropriate for the writer to add a brief handwritten note at the bottom of the copy and sign or initial it.

Postscript

- 1381 A postscript can be effectively used to express an idea that has been deliberately withheld from the body of a letter; stating this idea at the very end gives it strong emphasis. A postscript may also be used to express an afterthought; however, if the afterthought contains something central to the meaning of the letter, this usage of the postscript may suggest that the letter was badly organized. When a postscript is used:
 - a. Start the postscript on the second line below the cc notation (or whatever was typed last). If the paragraphs are indented, indent the first line of the postscript; otherwise, begin it at the left margin (see page 234).
 - b. Type PS: or PS. before the first word of the postscript, or omit the abbreviation altogether. (If PS is used, leave two spaces between the colon or period and the first word.)
 - c. Use PPS; or PPS, (or no abbreviation at all) at the beginning of an additional postscript, and treat the additional postscript as a separate paragraph.

Continuation Pages

- 1382 Use plain paper of the same quality as the letterhead (but never a letterhead) for the second and each succeeding page of a long letter.
- 1383 Use the same left and right margins that you used on the first page.
- 1384 On the seventh line from the top of the page, type a continuation-page heading consisting of the following: the name of the addressee, the page number, and the date. Either of the following styles is acceptable:

Mrs. Laura R. Austin OR: Mrs. Laura R. Austin Page 2 September 30, 1980

- September 30, 1980
- 1385 Space down three lines from the last line of the continuation-page heading, and resume typing the message.
 - a. Do not divide a paragraph that contains three or fewer lines.
 - b. For a paragraph of four or more lines, always leave at least two lines of the paragraph at the bottom of the previous page, and carry over at least two lines to the continuation page.
 - c. Never use a continuation page to type only the closing section of a business letter. (The complimentary closing should always be preceded by at least two lines of the message.)
- 1386 Leave a margin of 6 to 12 lines at the foot of each page of a letter (except the last page). Try to keep the bottom margin as uniform as possible on all pages except the last.
- 1387 Do not divide the last word on a page.

Addressing Envelopes

1388 The following table indicates which envelopes may be used, depending on the size of the stationery and the way in which it is folded.

Stationery	Fold*	Envelope
Standard $(8\frac{1}{2}" \times 11")$ and Official $(8" \times 10^{\frac{1}{2}"})$	In thirds	No. 10 (9 ¹ ₂ " x 4 ¹ ₈ ")
	In half, then in thirds	No. 6 ³ ₄ (6 ¹ ₂ " x 3 ⁵ ₈ ")
Monarch (7 ¹ / ₄ " x 10 ¹ / ₂ ")	In thirds	No. 7 $(7\frac{1}{2}'' \times 3\frac{7}{5}'')$
Baronial (5 ¹ ₂ " x 8 ¹ ₂ ")	In thirds	No. 6^{3}_{4} $(6^{1/2}_{2} \times 3^{5}_{8})$
	In half	No. 5 ³ / ₈ (5 ¹⁵ ₁₆ " x 4 ⁵ ₈ ")
A4 (210 x 297 mm)	In thirds	DL (220 x 110 mm)
(approx. $8^{1/1}_{4}$ x $11^{3/1}_{4}$)	In half, then in thirds	C7 6 (162 x 81 mm)
	In half, then in half	C6 (162 x 114 mm)
A5 (148 x 210 mm) (approx. 5 ⁷ / ₈ " x 8 ¹ / ₄ ")	In thirds	C7 6 (162 x 81 mm)
	In half	C6 (162 x 114 mm)

^{*}See \$1392-1396 for detailed instructions on folding.

1389 When typing an address on an envelope:

a. Always use single spacing and blocked style. Capitalize the first letter of every word except prepositions (like of and for) and conjunctions (like and) under four letters.

NOTE: See the examples on page 263. For specific details on the handling of elements within the address block, see ¶¶1318-1344.

- **b.** Always type the city, state, and ZIP Code on the last line. Leave one space between the state and the ZIP Code. The state name may be spelled out or given as a two-letter abbreviation. (See ¶1341.)
- c. The next-to-last line in the address block should contain a street address or post office box number. (See ¶1338c.)

Mr. Christopher Schreiber Director of Manufacturing Colby Electronics Inc. P.O. Box 6524 Raleigh, NC 27628 Elvera Agresta, M.D. 218 Oregon Pioneer's Building 320 Southwest Stark Street Portland, Oregon 97204

- **d.** When using a large envelope (No. 10 or DL), start the address on line 14 about 4 inches (100 millimeters) from the left edge. When using a small envelope (No. 7, $6\frac{3}{4}$, $5\frac{3}{8}$, C6, or C7/6) or a postcard, start the address on line 12 about 2 inches (50 millimeters) from the left edge.
- e. When the envelope contains a printed return address for a company or an organization, type the name of the writer on the line above the return address, aligned at the left. (See the second illustration on page 263.)
- f. If a printed return address does not appear on the envelope, type a return address in the upper left corner, beginning on line 3 about five spaces in from the left edge. The return address should contain the following information, arranged on separate lines: (1) the name of the writer: (2) the name of the company (if appropriate): (3) a street address or post office box number; and (4) the city, state, and ZIP Code. (See the first illustration on page 263.)
- g. A notation such as Personal, Confidential, Please Forward, or Hold for Arrival goes below the return address. It should begin on line 9 or on the third line below the return address, whichever is lower. Begin each main word with a capital letter, and use underscoring. The notation should align at the left with the return address.
- h. If an attention line was used within the letter itself, it should appear on the envelope as well. Treat the attention line exactly like a personal or confidential notation, as described in g above. (See the note to ¶1345 on avoiding the use of attention lines.)
- i. If a special mailing procedure is used, type the appropriate notation (such as SPECIAL DELIVERY or REGISTERED) in all-capital letters in the upper right corner of the envelope, beginning on line 9. The notation should end about five spaces from the right margin.
- j. Make sure that the spelling of the name and address on the envelope agrees with the spelling shown in the inside address (and with the spelling shown on the file card or the incoming document).
- See ¶1320 concerning letters being sent to two or more people at the same address.



No. 10 envelope with confidential notation.



- **1390** When preparing an address that will be imprinted by means of an address plate or computerized equipment:
 - a. Keep in mind the maximum number of strokes you can get in any one line (typically, 26 to 28 strokes).
 - b. Use the two-letter state abbreviations (see ¶1341). If necessary to save space, use other abbreviations freely and omit punctuation.

NOTE: To help keep the line length down, the U.S. Postal Service has provided three special sets of abbreviations: one for state names; another for long names of cities, towns, and places; a third for names of streets and roads and general terms like University or Institute. By means of these abbreviations (see Postal Service Publication 59), it is possible to limit the last line of any domestic address to 22 strokes; for example, Bloomfield Hills, Michigan 48013 can be written BLOOMFLD HLS MI 48013.

 ${\bf c.}$ Type the lines in all-capital letters, single-spaced and aligned at the left. Omit punctuation.

MR HENRY T POLING JR CAMPING ENTERPRISES INC 412 HIGH ST ROOM 980 WASHINGTON DC 20017

- d. When imprinting the address on an envelope, leave a bottom margin of at least 5/8 inch (15 millimeters) and a left margin of at least 1 inch (25 millimeters). Nothing should be written or printed below the address block or to the right of it.
- e. The last line in the address block should contain the city, state, and ZIP Code. Leave one space between the state and the ZIP Code.
- f. The next-to-last line in the address block should contain a street address or post office box number. (See ¶1338c.)
- g. If a room number or a suite number is part of the address, it should appear immediately after the street address on the same line. (See examples in c and h.) When it is impossible to fit this information on the same line as the street address, it may go on the line above but never on the line below.
- h. If special information is to be imprinted along with the address, it may appear on any line above the last two lines in the address block. A serial number, if used, typically appears a line or two above the addressee's name. An attention line, if used, comes directly below the name of the organization.

H 048469 1078 AT5

BROCK & WILSON CORP ATTN MRS M R TURKEVICH 79 WALL ST SUITE 1212 NEW YORK NY 10005

1391 To chain-feed envelopes:

- a. After addressing the first envelope, roll it back until only about \(\frac{5}{8} \) inch (15 millimeters) shows in front of the cylinder.
- b. Insert the next envelope from the front, placing its bottom edge between the first envelope and the cylinder.
- c. Turn the cylinder toward you to remove the first envelope and to bring the second one into typing position.

Chain-feeding envelopes. Each new envelope is inserted from the front, with its bottom edge placed between the previous envelope and the cylinder.

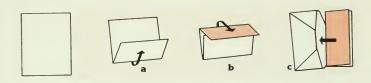


Courtesy International Business Machines Corporation

Folding and Inserting Letters

The following rules give several methods for folding and inserting letters into envelopes. See the table in ¶1388 to determine which method is appropriate for the stationery and envelope you are using.

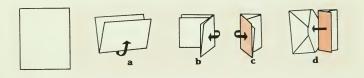
1392 To fold a letter in thirds:



- a. Bring the bottom third of the letter up and make a crease.
- b. Fold the top of the letter down to within \(^3\) inch (10 millimeters) of the crease you made in step a. Then make the second crease.
- c. The creased edge you made in step b should go into the envelope first.

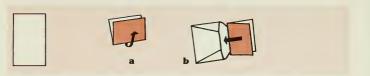
NOTE: Use this method for $8\frac{1}{2}$ " x 11" and 8" x $10\frac{1}{2}$ " stationery with a No. 10 envelope; $7\frac{1}{4}$ " x $10\frac{1}{2}$ " stationery with a No. 7 envelope; $5\frac{1}{2}$ " x $8\frac{1}{2}$ " stationery with a No. 63/4 envelope; A4 stationery with a DL envelope; A5 stationery with a C7/6 envelope. See also 1388.

1393 To fold a letter in half and then in thirds:



- a. Bring the bottom edge to within 3/4 inch (10 millimeters) of the top edge and make a crease.
- b. Fold from the right edge, making the fold a little less than one-third the width of the sheet before you crease it.
 - c. Fold from the left edge, bringing it to within $\frac{3}{8}$ inch (10 millimeters) of the crease you made in step b before you crease the sheet again.
 - d. Insert the left creased edge into the envelope first. This will leave the crease you made in step b near the flap of the envelope.

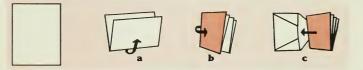
NOTE: Use this method for $8\frac{1}{2}$ " x 11" and 8" x $10\frac{1}{2}$ " stationery with a No. $6\frac{3}{4}$ envelope; also for A4 stationery with a C7/6 envelope. See also ¶1388. 1394 To fold a letter in half:



- a. Bring the bottom edge to within $\frac{3}{8}$ inch (10 millimeters) of the top edge and make a crease.
- b. Insert the creased edge into the envelope first.

NOTE: Use this method for $5\frac{1}{2}$ " \times $8\frac{1}{2}$ " stationery with a No. $5\frac{3}{8}$ envelope; also for A5 stationery with a C6 envelope. See also ¶1388.

1395 To fold a letter in half and then in half again:



- a. Bring the bottom edge to within $\frac{3}{8}$ inch (10 millimeters) of the top edge and make a crease.
- **b.** Bring the left edge to within $\frac{3}{8}$ inch (10 millimeters) of the right edge and make a crease.
- c. Insert the left creased edge into the envelope first.

NOTE: Use this method for A4 stationery with a C6 envelope. See also $\P 1388$.

1396 To fold a letter for insertion into a window envelope:



- a. Bring the bottom third of the letter up and make a crease.
- **b.** Fold the top of the letter back to the crease you made in step a. (The inside address should now be facing you.)

c. Insert the letter with the inside address toward the front of the envelope. The inside address should now be fully readable through the window of the envelope. There should be at least \(\frac{1}{4} \) inch (7 millimeters) between the address and the left, right, and bottom edges of the window. no matter how much the letter slides around in the envelope.

Memos

1397 When typing a memo on a printed form:

Interoffice Memorandum

cc Mr. Kendrick

a. Set the left margin stop at a point two or three spaces after the longest guide word in the left half of the printed heading (for example, after DEPARTMENT).

NOTE: Some writers prefer to set the left margin stop at the point where the printed guide words begin. In this case it is necessary to set a tab stop two or three spaces after the longest guide word in the left half of the printed heading.

Tab

RCN 12

Secretarial Staff Robert C. Nelson Department Office Training Department All Divisions January 17, 1979 13 Form for Memorandums Date Subject Here are our updated quidelines for setting up a typewritten interoffice memo. | 2 Set the left margin stop either at a point two or three spaces after the longest printed guide word in the left half of the heading or at the point where the printed guide words begin. The right margin should be the same width as the left margin. | 2 Set a tab stop two or three spaces after the longest printed guide word in the right half of the heading. | 2 Type the writer's name, initials, or title on the second line below the body of the memo. Begin typing at the tab stop that

has been set for the right half of the heading. | 2 Handle reference initials, enclosure notations, and carbon copy notations just as you would in a letter. 2

- b. Set a tab stop two or three spaces after the longest guide word in the right half of the printed heading (for example, after DEPARTMENT).
- c. Set the right margin stop to leave a right margin equal to the left margin.
- d. Type in the appropriate information after each printed guide word. Make sure that the typewritten fill-ins align at the left. They should also align at the bottom with the printed guide words.

(Continued on page 268.)

e. Begin typing the message on the third or fourth line below the last fill-in line in the heading.

NOTE: An interoffice memorandum ordinarily does not require a salutation, especially if the memo is an impersonal announcement being sent to a number of people or the staff at large. However, when a memo is directed to one person, many writers use a salutation—such as Dear Andy: or Andy: alone—to keep the memo from seeming cold or impersonal. (If a salutation is used, begin typing the body of the memo on the second line below.)

- f. Use single spacing, and either block or indent the paragraphs.
- g. Type the writer's name or initials on the second line below the last line of the message, beginning at the tab stop you set in step b. Add the writer's title (if desired) on the following line.

NOTE: Although memos do not require a signature, many writers prefer to sign or initial their memos. In such cases, type the writer's name or initials on the fourth line below the end of the message.

- h. Type the reference initials (see ¶1370) on the second line below the writer's name, initials, or title; block them at the left margin.
- i. Type an enclosure (or attachment) notation, if needed, on the line below the reference initials, beginning at the left margin.
- j. Type a carbon copy notation, if needed, on the line below the enclosure notation, if used, or on the line below the reference initials.
- k. If the memo continues beyond the first page, type a continuation heading on a fresh sheet of paper. (Use the same style as shown in ¶1384 for a letter.) Then continue typing the message on the third line below the last line of the continuation-page heading. (See ¶1385 for additional details on continuing the message from one page to another.)

Social-Business Correspondence

- 1398 Social-business correspondence usually differs from that of regular business correspondence in such details as these:
 - a. The inside address may be typed at the bottom of the letter, beginning at the left margin on the fifth line below the typewritten signature.
 - **b.** The salutation is usually very informal (for example, *Dear Betty* or *Dear Jack*) and is followed by a comma or with no punctuation at all.
 - c. Numbers are often written according to the "word style" (see ¶¶404-406).
 - ${\bf d.}$ The complimentary closing is usually very informal (for example, Best regards or Yours).
 - e. The writer's typewritten signature may be omitted if the writer knows the addressee well.
 - f. The reference initials are omitted, and even though an enclosure may be mentioned in the letter, the enclosure notation is usually omitted.
 - g. Carbon copy and other notations rarely appear in social-business letters.

NOTE: This social-business style is also used when writing formal letters to high officials and dignitaries.

Postcards

- 1399 When typing on a standard-size postcard ($5\frac{1}{2}$ by $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches):
 - a. Set margins five or six spaces in from the left and right sides. b. Type the date on the third line from the top of the card, beginning at
 - the center.
 - c. Omit the name and address of the person to whom the card is being
 - d. Type the salutation (for example, Dear Mrs. Davis:) on the second line below the date, beginning at the left margin. If it is necessary to conserve space, omit the salutation.
 - e. Begin typing the message, using single spacing, on the second line below the salutation.
 - f. Type the closing lines starting on the second line below the last line of the message; begin each line at the center. In order to leave a bottom margin of three lines, omit the following elements if necessary: the complimentary closing (for example, Sincerely), the handwritten signature, and reference initials.

NOTE: When typing on a stiff or smooth card, advance the card at the end of each typed line by using the cylinder knob instead of the carriagereturn lever or key. It may also be necessary to hold the card with one hand as you turn the cylinder knob in order to ensure even line spacing.

• See ¶¶1388-1390 for the procedure in addressing envelopes; ¶1391 for the procedure in chain-feeding envelopes. The same procedures are used for postcards.



REPORTS AND MANUSCRIPTS

TYPING THE MANUSCRIPT

Paper, Copies, and Ribbon (¶¶1401-1403) Margins (¶¶1404-1408)

Top Margin of First Page (¶1404)

Top Margin of Other Pages (¶1405)

Side Margins (¶1406)

Bottom Margin (¶1407)

Backing Sheet (¶1408)

Spacing and Indentions (¶1409)

Page Numbering (¶¶1410-1411)

Front Matter (¶1412)

FOOTNOTES

Functions of Footnotes (¶1413)

Footnote References in the Text (¶1414)

Placement of Footnotes (¶1415-1417)

Patterns for Reference Footnotes (¶1418)

Book Title: Basic Pattern

Book Title: With Subtitle

Book Title: With Edition Number

Book Title: With Volume Number and Volume Title

Book Title: With Volume Number Alone

Book Title: With Chapter Reference

Selection in Anthology

Selection From Collected Works of One Author

Article in Newspaper

Article in Magazine

Article in Technical or Scholarly Journal

Bulletin, Pamphlet, or Monograph

Unpublished Dissertation or Thesis

Elements of Footnotes (**1419-1424)

Footnote Number (\$1419)

Names of Authors (*1420)

Publisher's Name (*1421)

Place of Publication (*1422)

Date of Publication (*1423)

Page Numbers (*1424)

Subsequent Footnote References (¶1425-1426)

BIBLIOGRAPHIES (¶¶1427-1433)

Typing the Manuscript

Paper, Copies, and Ribbon

- 1401 Use a good-quality bond paper. Type on only one side of the paper.
- 1402 Always make one file copy (photocopy or carbon copy) in case the original is lost or mislaid. Prepare additional copies as necessary for distribution.
 - See \$\1225-1229 for details on preparing carbon copies.
- 1403 Use a black record ribbon so that the copy will be clear and permanent.

Margins

1404 Top Margin of First Page

- a. Leave twelve blank lines at the top.
- b. If the report or manuscript consists of only one major section or chapter, center the title of the work on line 13 and type it in all-capital letters. Center the author's name on the second line below the title. (If a subtitle is to be included in the heading, center it on the second line below the main title; then type the author's name on the second line below the subtitle.) On the third line below the author's name, begin typing the first line of the body of the manuscript.
- c. If the report or manuscript consists of several major sections or chapters, then the title of the overall work as well as the author's name should go on a special title page (see ¶1412a). Start each major section or chapter on a fresh page. Type the title of that section or chapter on line 13. centered and in all-capital letters. Then begin typing the first line of text on the third line below.

1405 Top Margin of Other Pages

- a. Leave six blank lines at the top.
- b. Type the page number on the seventh line from the top, and begin typing the text on the third line below the page number. (See ¶1410.)

1406 Side Margins

Insert the paper so that it is centered horizontally at 50. (See ¶1305c for this procedure.) Then set left and right margins as shown in the table below. NOTE: If the report is to remain unbound or will simply be stapled in the upper left corner, use the margin settings in the Unbound column. If the report is to be inserted in a binder or is to be stapled at several points along the left edge of the paper, use the margin settings in the Bound column.

	Spaces	Margins (Unbound)*	Margins (Bound)*
Pica:	60	20-85	23-88
Elite:	70	15-90	18-93

^{*} An additional five spaces has been added to the right margin setting in order to forestall the frequent use of the margin release key.

1407 Bottom Margin

- a. Leave six to nine blank lines at the bottom. When a report or a manuscript runs to several pages, try to maintain a consistent bottom
- **b.** To better control the bottom margin, draw a light pencil mark six lines above the point at which you want the last line to be typed. (Draw the line before inserting the paper into the machine; then erase the pencil mark later on.)
- c. Another way to control the bottom margin is to prepare a page line guide as follows: Simply type a column of numbers—from 66 to 1—down the right edge of a fresh sheet of paper. Insert this sheet behind the paper on which you type: position it so that the column of numbers appears beyond the right edge of the top sheet. Then as you type and advance the paper, the column of numbers at the right will tell you how many lines away you are from the bottom edge of the paper.

1408 Backing Sheet

To keep margins uniform on all pages, prepare a backing sheet as follows:

- a. Take a blank sheet of paper and draw a light pencil mark six lines above the point at which you want the last line to be typed. Then insert the paper in the typewriter and center it horizontally at 50. Set the left and right margins as shown in ¶1406.
- **b.** Space down to the seventh line from the top and type a full row of Xs—60 for pica, 70 for elite. (Do not type in the extra five spaces added to the right margin setting.)
- c. Space down to the light pencil mark and type another full row of Xs. (This will represent an early warning signal that the bottom of the page is
- d. Space down six lines and type another full row of Xs. (This will represent the last line on the page.)
- e. Draw a rectangle with heavy black lines to enclose the top and bottom rows of Xs and mark off the left and right margins. (The vertical line drawn for the right margin will represent the ideal line endings, even though the right margin setting permits an extra five spaces.)

f. Place this sheet between the original copy and the back of the first carbon sheet; the rulings will show through the original copy to serve as a guide.

NOTE: Backing sheets may be purchased ready-made at many stationery stores.

Spacing and Indentions

1409 Observe these rules of spacing and indention:

- a. Leave two blank lines between the last line in the title block and the first line of text. (See also $^{\circ}1404b,\ c.$)
- **b.** Ordinarily, double-space all text matter. However, single-space the text in business reports when the costs of paper, reproduction, file space, and mailing are important considerations. (When single-spacing the text, leave one blank line between text paragraphs.)

NOTE: Manuscripts or drafts to be submitted for editing or evaluation should be double-spaced.

- c. Indent text paragraphs five spaces.
- d. Quoted material that will make four or more typewritten lines should be typed as a single-spaced extract. Indent the extract five spaces from each side margin, and leave one blank line above and below the extract. If the quoted matter represents the start of a paragraph in the original, indent the first word an additional five spaces. (See ¶265a.)
- e. Items in a list are typed single-spaced with one blank line above and below the list as a whole. Indent the list five spaces from each side margin. If any item in the list requires more than one line, leave a blank line between all items in the list. If the item begins with a number or letter, a period and two spaces should follow. If the item continues onto a second line, indent it so that it begins under the first word in the line above.
 - Capitalize the first word of each item displayed in a list or an outline.
 - 10. Capitalize the first word of each line in a poem.

NOTE: If the list consists entirely of one-line items typed single-spaced, then for appearance' sake the number or letter that begins each item should be followed by a period and only one space.

- f. Table text is usually single-spaced but may be double-spaced if desired. (Establish one style of spacing for all tables within the same report or manuscript and follow it.) Leave one or more blank lines above and below the table. (See Section 15 for details on setting up tables.)
- g. A centered heading displayed on a line by itself should be preceded by two blank lines and followed by one blank line. Type the centered heading in capital and small letters, and underscore it. (See ¶1409h, note.)
- h. A side heading displayed on a line by itself should be preceded by two blank lines and followed by one blank line. When a side heading comes directly below a centered heading, leave only one blank line above the

side heading. Type the side heading in all-capital letters without underscoring.

NOTE: Many writers prefer to use a different style of capitalization for centered and side headings. They use all-capital letters (without underscoring) for centered headings and capital and small letters (with underscoring) for side headings. (See ¶108b for an example of this style.)

- i. A run-in heading (one that begins a paragraph and is immediately followed by text matter on the same line) should be indented five spaces from the left. Like all new paragraphs, a paragraph that begins with a run-in heading should be preceded by one blank line (whether the text is typed single-spaced or double-spaced). The run-in heading should be typed in capital and small letters, underscored, and followed by a period (unless some other mark of punctuation, such as a question mark, is required). The text then begins two spaces after the punctuation. (See also \$108a and the example in \$108b.)
- See page 275 for illustrations of these spacing and indention guidelines. See ¶¶1385a-b and 1387 on the breaking of paragraphs and the division of words between one page and the next. See ¶¶1413-1417 for the positioning of footnotes.

Page Numbering

- 1410 Number the pages as follows:
 - a. When the first page contains the title of the manuscript or the report, it is counted as page 1 but the number is not typed on the page.
 - b. Type all page numbers (except those on chapter-opening pages) on the seventh line from the top. Place the number at the right margin (ignore the five spaces added on to the right margin setting). The word Page may precede the number.
 - See ¶1411 for the positioning of page numbers on chapter-opening pages.
 - c. After typing the page number, begin the first line of text on the third line below (on line 10).
 - d. To save space, type the page number on line 4 (instead of line 7) and the first line of text on line 6.

NOTE: An acceptable variation is to type all page numbers at the bottom of the page. In this case, (1) begin the text on the seventh line from the top of the page, (2) type the last line of text on the ninth line from the bottom of the page, and (3) leaving two blank lines, type the page number (without the word Page) centered on the sixth line from the bottom.

1411 Start each chapter of a report or manuscript on a fresh page. When the chapter title appears at the top of a page, type the page number at the foot of the page. (See steps 2 and 3 in the note directly above.)

NOTE: As an alternative, type the page number in the upper right corner (as indicated in ¶1410b).

Many people learn to type so that they may use this skill in typing term papers and other reports that are assigned to them in high school and college. The purpose of this report is to review how such papers should be typed. 13

Investigation 12 SOURCES OF INFORMATION J 2

The information in this report was gathered from two

Interviews. The subject was discussed with a number of poople, including a free-lance typist, two college students,

typing textbooks, a magazine article, and a booklet published Readings. Ideas and details were also drawn from two by the English department of a college. 👃 🔞

The findings deal with four major topics: the use of a clear outline, the arrangement of pages, the arrangement of ORGANIZATION OF FINDINGS 12

tables, and the treatment of quotations and footnotes. The four topics are discussed in the following sections.

it is typed is shown in quotation marks, but a longer quote

Footnotes. The crodits in a report are numbered in last order in which they occur. Each is typically explained in a footnote at the bottom of the same page.

footnotes must be kept spart from the body of the report: 12 is indented. It is single-apaced. It is numbered. "3 The

2 winch line of undergores-that would be 20 pi; a pages long or 34 citte spaces long. Be sure, air chobble-space after typing the line, so that one blank space will be left between the typed line on the first footnote below the line. Separate a footnote from the test above it by

Summary 2.

The rules for typing a term paper may wary from to school, but in most respects the rules are standard. With propor margins, to set up tables with care, and ' sill full credat for borrowed thoughts and words, typing the tarm paper will be easy to manage.

Jalan C. Lloyd and Russell J. Hosler, Personal Dyping, 3d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1967, p. 115 12 4Ibid., p. 116. The top margin on the other pages of the manuscript is much narrower. Two properly typed quotations and two footnotes are also shown.

above and below the headings.

The first page of a properly typed manuscript will look like this. Notice the margins and the spacing

Front Matter

- **1412** When a report or manuscript consists of two or more major sections or chapters, it usually contains one or more pages of front matter, such as a title page, a table of contents, and a preface or foreword.
 - a. The title page should contain the title in all-capital letters and the subtitle, if any, in capital and small letters on the second line below the title. The author should be identified by name and also, if appropriate, by title or organizational affiliation. The title page may also show the date on which the report or manuscript was submitted and the person or group to which it was submitted. For an academic report, include the name of the course and the instructor.

NOTE: There is no one correct arrangement of these items. The title and the author identification (as well as other information such as the date) may be treated as one block of copy or broken into two or more blocks for display. However arranged, the copy on the title page as a whole should appear centered horizontally and vertically. (See the first illustration on page 277 for an example.)

b. The table of contents should be typed on a fresh page. Type *CONTENTS* (or *TABLE OF CONTENTS*) in all-capital letters and center it on line 13. On the third line below, begin typing the first line of the table. (See the second illustration on page 277.)

NOTE: As an alternative, center the table of contents vertically on the page.

- c. The preface should start on a fresh page. Use the same side margins as for the rest of the report or manuscript. (See ¶1406.) Type PREFACE, FOREWORD, or some other appropriate heading in all-capital letters, centered on line 13. Then begin typing the first line of the text on the third line below. If the preface or foreword continues beyond the first page, use a top margin of six blank lines on all continuation pages.
- **d.** On all pages of front matter except the title page, type a page number centered on the sixth line from the bottom of the page. Leave two blank lines above the page number, more if the text above runs short. Type the page number in small roman numerals (for example, *ii*, *iii*, *iv*, and so on). Count the title page as page i, even though no number is typed on that page.

Footnotes

Functions of Footnotes

- 1413 a. Footnotes serve two functions: (1) they convey subordinate ideas which the writer feels might be distracting if incorporated within the main text; (2) they serve as references, identifying the source of a statement quoted or cited in the text. (The second kind of footnote is often called a reference footnote. See also \$\frac{1}{1418}\$.)
 - **b.** Footnotes are ordinarily keyed by number to a word, phrase, or sentence in the text.
 - c. Footnotes have traditionally appeared at the foot of the same page as

MARKET TRENDS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION \$\sqrt{2}\$\$
An Analysis of Enrollment and Expenditure Projections From 1975 to 1985

Jonathan H. Stier Market Planning and Analysis Department Cummings and Hall Inc. Prepared by

January 12, 1980

the textual matter to which they refer. However, an alternative is to place all these notes in a section at the end of the manuscript or report. (This style is becoming increasingly popular because it is much easier to type than the foot-of-the-page style. See ¶1416.)

Footnote References in the Text

1414 a. To indicate the presence of a comment or reference at the bottom of the page or in a special section at the end, type a superior (raised) figure immediately following the appropriate word, phrase, or sentence in the text. Do not leave any space between the superior figure and the preceding word. If a punctuation mark follows the word, place the superior figure immediately after the punctuation mark. (EXCEPTION: The superior figure should precede, not follow, a dash.)

Her latest article, "Everyone Loses," was published about three months ago.

NOTE: To type a superior number, turn the cylinder back slightly with one hand and type the number with the other hand.

- b. The numbering of footnotes may (1) run consecutively throughout, (2) begin again with each new chapter, or (3) begin again with each new page. The third method should not be used for materials to be set in type, since the pagination will differ.
- c. Footnotes are sometimes keyed by symbol rather than by number, particularly in tables where there are only a few footnotes and the tabular matter itself consists of numbers. In such cases footnotes may be identified by the following sequence of symbols: *, **,

Placement of Footnotes

- 1415 When footnotes appear at the foot of the page:
 - a. Type a long underscore line (about 20 to 24 strokes) to separate footnotes from the text above. Type the underscore one line below the last line of text, starting at the left margin. (See illustration at the right on page 275.)
 - b. Start the first footnote on the second line below the underscore line.
 - c. Type each footnote single-spaced, and leave a blank line between footnotes
 - d. Indent the first line of each footnote five spaces. Additional lines within the same footnote should begin at the left margin.

NOTE: When typing a page on which footnotes are to appear, you will need to estimate—ahead of time or as you go along—the number of lines to be reserved at the bottom of the page. Allow three to four lines for each reference footnote; this estimate allows for space above and below each footnote.

- 1416 When footnotes are placed in a special section at the end of a report or
 - a. Type a centered heading NOTES on line 13 of a fresh page.

- b. On the third line below, begin typing the first note. Use the same side margins as on other pages.
- c. Indent the first line of each note five spaces. Additional lines within the same note should begin at the left margin.
- d. Type the identifying number on the line (not as a superior figure). See ¶1419h
- e. Type each note single-spaced, and leave one blank line between notes.
- f. For the placement of page numbers, follow the directions in \$1411.
- 1417 Footnotes to a table should go directly beneath the table. See the illustration on page 291.

Patterns for Reference Footnotes

- 1418 The following patterns (and examples) provide guidelines for constructing the kinds of reference footnotes that most commonly occur. These patterns can be modified as necessary to fit the varying needs of individual circumstances. For detailed information about specific elements within footnotes, see the following paragraphs:
 - Footnote number: see \$1419.
 - Names of authors: see ¶1420.
 - Underscoring titles of complete works: see \$289.
 - Quoting titles of parts of complete works: see \$242.
 - Ouoting titles of unpublished works: see \$243.
 - Capitalization in titles: see \$6360-361.
 - Publisher's name: see *1421.
 - Place of publication: see *1422.
 - Date of publication: see \$1423.
 - Page numbers: see \$1424.
 - Subsequent references in footnotes: see "1425–1426.

a. Book Title: Basic Pattern

Author, book title, publisher, place of publication, year of publication. page number [if reference is being made to a specific page].

1 John Kenneth Galbraith, The Affluent Society, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1958, p. 101.

NOTE: If any of these elements have already been identified in the text (for example, the author's name and the book title), they need not be repeated in the footnote. Moreover, if reference is made to the book as a whole rather than to a particular page, omit the page number.

According to Professor J. K. Galbraith, in his widely acclaimed book The Affluent Society, "It falls within the power of the modern large corporation to mitigate or eliminate (with one exception) every important risk to which business enterprises have anciently been subject."1

¹Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1958, p. 101.

b. Book Title: With Subtitle

¹Author, book title: subtitle, publisher, place, year, page number.

¹Arthur M. Okun, <u>Equality and Efficiency: The Big Tradeoff</u>, The Brookings Institution, Washington, 1975, pp. 32-64.

NOTE: Do not show the subtitle of a book unless it is significant in identifying the book or in explaining its basic nature. If a subtitle is shown, separate it from the main title with a colon and extend the underscore (without a break) to the end of the subtitle.

c. Book Title: With Edition Number

¹Author, <u>book title</u>, edition number [if not the first edition], publisher, place, year, page number.

¹Lois Irene Hutchinson, <u>Standard Handbook for Secretaries</u>, 8th ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1975, p. 440.

NOTE: Use an edition number only when the book is not in the first edition. If included, the edition number follows the main title and any related elements, such as the subtitle or the volume number and title. (For examples see ¶1418d below.) The following abbreviated forms are commonly used: 2d ed., 3d ed., 4th ed., or rev. ed. (for "revised edition").

d. Book Title: With Volume Number and Volume Title

¹Author, <u>book title</u>, volume number, <u>volume title</u>, edition number [if not the first edition], publisher, place, year, page number.

¹E. Lipson, <u>The Economic History of England</u>, Vol. 1, <u>The Middle Ages</u>, 12th ed., Adam & Charles Black, London, 1959, pp. 511-594.

NOTE: As a rule, do not show the volume title in a footnote unless it is significant in identifying the book. When the volume title is included, both the volume number and the volume title follow the book title (and subtitle, if any) but precede the edition number. The volume number is usually preceded by the abbreviation Vol. or by the word Book or Part (depending on the actual designation). The volume number may be arabic or roman, depending on the style used in the actual book.

See also ¶1418e.

e. Book Title: With Volume Number Alone

¹Author, <u>book title</u>, edition number [if not the first edition], publisher, place, year, volume number, page number.

¹Robert E. Spiller et al. (eds.), <u>Literary History of</u>
<u>the United States</u>, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1948,
Vol. II, pp. 639-651. or. . . . II, 639-651.

NOTE: When the volume number is shown without the volume title, it follows the date of publication. When the volume number and page number occur one after the other, they may be styled as follows:

Style for Roman Volume Number Vol. 111, p. 197 on III, 197 Style for Arabic Volume Number Vol. 5, pp. 681-684 or 5:681-684 Do not use the latter forms (with figures alone) if there is a chance your reader will not understand them.

f. Book Title: With Chapter Reference

Author, book title, publisher, place, year, chapter number, "chapter title" [if significant], page number.

1Will Durant and Ariel Durant, The Age of Napoleon, Simon and Schuster, New York, 1975, Chap. XII, "Napoleon and the Arts," pp. 278-285.

NOTE: When a footnote refers primarily to the title of a book, a chapter number and a chapter title are not usually included. If considered significant, however, these details can be inserted just before the page numbers. The word chapter is usually abbreviated as Chap, the chapter number is arabic or roman (depending on the original), and the chapter title is enclosed in quotation marks.

g. Selection in Anthology

¹Author of selection, "title of selection," in editor of anthology (ed.), book title, publisher, place, year, page number.

¹Lisa Getman, "From Conestoga to Career," in W. Todd Furniss and Patricia Albjerg Graham (eds.), Women in Higher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, 1974, pp. 63-66.

h. Selection From Collected Works of One Author.

¹Author, "title of selection," book title, publisher, place, year, page number

1Sylvia Plath, "The Courage of Shutting Up," Winter Trees, Harper & Row, New York, 1972, pp. 8-9.

i. Article in Newspaper

Author [if known], "article title," name of newspaper, date, page numher column number

¹Albert Karr and Richard Janssen, "SST's Destiny," The Wall Street Journal, October 16, 1975, p. 1, col. 6.

NOTE: If a particular issue of a newspaper is published in several sections and the page numbering begins anew with each section, include the section number before the page number.

2Tom Wicker, "On the Fifth of July," The New York Times, July 7, 1976, Sec. A, p. A27, cols. 1-3.

See ¶1422 on including the place of publication.

Article in Magazine

¹Author [if known], "article title," name of magazine, date, page number.

1"The Office of the Future," Business Week, June 30, 1975, pp. 48-84.

²Trudy Slaughter, "Vision Care for the Elderly," <u>Modern</u> Healthcare, November 1975, pp. 47-49.

(Continued on page 282.)

k. Article in Technical or Scholarly Journal

Author, "article title," title of journal [often abbreviated], series number [if given], volume number, issue number [if given], page number, date.

¹Glen G. Eye, "Many Researchers but Few Synthesizers," The Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 68, No. 8, p. 294, April 1975.

1Glen G. Eye, "Many Researchers but Few Synthesizers," OR: JER, 68(8):294, April 1975.

NOTE: Titles of journals are often abbreviated in footnotes whenever these abbreviations are likely to be familiar to the intended readership or are clearly identified in a bibliography at the end. Moreover, volume numbers and page numbers may be expressed in a short form so long as this style will be clearly understood by the reader. For example:

Style for Roman Volume Number

Vol. IX, pp. 217-243 (full form) or IX, 217-243 (short form)

Style for Arabic Volume Number

Vol. 3, pp. 381-392 (full form) or 3:381-392 (short form)

If a series number or an issue number is also included, use the following style:

Ser. 8, Vol. 5, pp. 213-219 OR (8)5:213-219 Vol. 59, No. 5, pp. 765-769 or 59(5):765-769

l. Bulletin, Pamphlet, or Monograph

¹Author [if given], "article title" [if appropriate], title of bulletin, series title and series number [if appropriate], sponsoring organization, place, date, page number.

1"The Pause That Won't Refresh," Monthly Economic Letter, First National City Bank, New York, September 1975, pp. 5-6.

¹Environmental Health Planning Guide, U.S. Public Health Service Publication No. 823, Washington, 1967, pp. 21-22. (Here the name of the sponsoring organization is incorporated in the series designation.)

²Author [if given], "article title" [if appropriate], title of bulletin, volume number and issue number, page number, sponsoring organization, place, date.

2"Economics for Young Americans," Washington Report, Vol. 14, No. 19, p. 3, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, September 22, 1975.

2"Economics for Young Americans," Washington Report, 14(19):3. Chamber of Commerce of the United States. Washington, September 22, 1975. (See note to ¶1418k above.)

NOTE: Because the pertinent data used to identify bulletins, pamphlets, and monographs varies widely, adapt either of the two patterns shown above as necessary to fit each particular situation.

m. Unpublished Dissertation or Thesis

Author, "title of thesis," doctoral dissertation or master's thesis [identifying phrase to be inserted), name of academic institution, place, date, page number.

¹David Harry Weaver, "An Experimental Study of the Relative Impact of Controllable Factors of Difficulty in Typewriting Practice Material," doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y., 1966, p. 121.

Elements of Footnotes

1419 Footnote Number

- a. Make sure that the number at the start of a footnote corresponds to the appropriate superior number in the text above.
- b. Indent the footnote number five spaces, and (1) type it as a superior figure without any space following it or (2) type it on the line (like an ordinary number) followed by a period and two spaces. The second style is gaining in popularity because it is easier to type.

1 Caroline Bird, The Case Against College, David McKay Company, Inc., New York, 1975, pp. 83 ff.

- 1. Caroline Bird, The Case Against College, David OB: McKay Company, Inc., New York, 1975, pp. 83 ff.
- See 1414b on numbering footnotes consecutively: 1414c on the use of symbols in place of numbers.

1420 Names of Authors

a. Type an author's name (first name first) exactly as it appears on the title page of a book or in the heading of an article. (See ¶1418a, note.)

1 Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., A Thousand Days, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1965, p. 31.

b. When two authors share a common surname, show the surname with each author's listing.

2John W. Wyatt and Madie B. Wyatt, Business Law, 5th ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1975, pp. 98 ff.

c. When there are three or more authors, list only the first author's name followed by et al. (meaning "and others"). Do not underscore et al.

3Horace R. Brock et al., Accounting: Principles and Applications, 3d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1974, p. 695.

NOTE: If desired, the names of all the authors may be given. This style, if adopted for a given manuscript, should be used consistently throughout.

d. When an organization (rather than an individual) is the author of the material, show the organization's name in the author's position.

(Continued on page 284.)

4Committee for Economic Development, <u>The Schools and the Challenge of Innovation</u>, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1969, p. 28.

However, if the organization is both the author and the publisher, show the organization's name only once—as the publisher.

⁵Patterson's American Education, 1979, Educational Directories Inc., Mount Prospect, Ill., 1978, Vol. LXXV.

e. When a work such as an anthology carries an editor's name rather than an author's name, list the editor's name in the author's position, followed by the abbreviation ed. in parentheses. (If the names of two or more editors are listed, use the abbreviation eds. in parentheses.)

6John A. Myers, Jr. (ed.), <u>Predicting Managerial Success</u>, Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, Ann Arbor, Mich., 1968, p. 13.

If a reference work carries the name of an editor rather than an author, the editor's name is usually omitted.

7Webster's Third New International Dictionary, G. & C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Mass., 1966, pp. 30a-31a.

1421 Publisher's Name

- a. List the publisher's name as it appears on the title page (McGraw-Hill Book Company) or in a shortened form (McGraw-Hill); use one form consistently throughout. If a division of the publishing company is also listed on the title page, it is not necessary to include this information in the footnote. Publishers, however, often do so in references to their own materials.
- **b.** Omit the publisher's name from footnote references to magazines, newspapers, and journals.

1422 Place of Publication

- a. As a rule, list only the city of publication (for example, New York, Cleveland, Washington, Toronto). If the city is not well known or is likely to be confused with another city of the same name, add the state or the country (for example, Cambridge, Mass.; Cambridge, England). If the title page lists several cities in which the publisher has offices, use only the first city named.
- **b.** Omit the place of publication from footnote references to magazines and journals.
- c. Incorporate the city name in the name of a newspaper that might otherwise be unrecognized. For example, *The Star-Ledger* (published in Newark, New Jersey) should be referred to in a footnote as *The Newark* (N.J.) Star-Ledger.

1423 Date of Publication

- a. For books, show the year of publication. (If this date does not appear on the title page, use the most recent year shown in the copyright notice.)
- b. For monthly periodicals, show both the month and the year. (See ¶1418j for an example.)

c. For weekly or daily periodicals, show the month, day, and year. (See ¶1418i, i, k for examples.)

1424 Page Numbers

- a. Page references in footnotes occur in the following forms:
 - pp. 301 f. (meaning "page 301 and the following page") pp. 301 ff. (meaning "page 301 and the following pages") pp. 3-4 pp. v-vi
- b. In a range of page numbers the second number is sometimes abbreviated; for example, pp. 981-983 may be expressed as pp. 981-83. (See ¶460.)

Subsequent Footnote References

- 1425 When a footnote refers to a work that was fully identified in the footnote immediately preceding, it may be shortened by use of the abbreviation ibid. (meaning "in the same place"). Ibid, replaces all those elements that would otherwise be carried over intact from the previous footnote.
 - Nancy J. Weiss, The National Urban League, 1910-1940. Oxford University Press. New York, 1974, pp. 47-60.
 - ²Ibid., p. 63. (*Ibid.* represents all of the elements in the previous footnote except the page number.)
 - ³Ibid. (Referring to page 63 in the same work. Here ibid. represents everything in the preceding footnote, including the page number.)

NOTE: Do not underscore ibid

- 1426 a. When a footnote refers to a work fully identified in an earlier footnote but not the one immediately preceding, it may be shortened as follows:
 - ¹Author's surname, page number.
 - 8Weiss, p. 79. (Referring to the work fully identified before; see footnote 1 in ¶1425 above.)
 - b. When previous reference has been made to different authors with the same surname, the use of a surname alone in a subsequent reference would be confusing. Therefore, the basic pattern in \$1426a must be modified as follows:
 - ¹Author's initial(s) plus surname, page number.
 - OR: ²Author's full name, page number.
 - 1Cecil Williams, The Foundations of Intelligence, Comet Press Books, New York, 1953, p. 86.
 - ²John K. Williams, The Wisdom of Your Subconscious Mind, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1964, pp. 137-139.
 - 3C. Williams, p. 88.
 - ⁴J. K. Williams, p. 145.

c. If previous reference has been made to different works by the same author, any subsequent reference should contain the title of the specific work now being referred to. When feasible, this title may be shortened to a key word or phrase; the word or phrase should be sufficiently clear, however, so that the full title can be readily identified in the bibliography or in an earlier footnote.

¹Author's surname, book title [shortened if feasible], page number.

¹Clinton Rossiter, <u>Seedtime of the Republic</u>, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1953, p. 70.

2_{Clinton Rossiter}, 1787: The Grand Convention, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1966, p. 163.

3Rossiter, Seedtime, p. 73.

If referring to an article in a periodical, refer to the periodical title rather than the article title.

Author's surname, periodical title [shortened if feasible], page number.

4Daniel P. Moynihan, "A Diplomat's Rhetoric," Harper's, January 1976, p. 40.

5v. S. Pritchett. . . .

6Moynihan, Harper's, p. 43. (Referring to the work identified in footnote 4 above.)

d. A more formal style in subsequent references uses the abbreviations loc, cit, ("in the place cited") and op. cit. ("in the work cited").

Author's surname, loc. cit. (This pattern is used when reference is made to the very same page in the work previously identified.)

²Author's surname, op. cit., page number. (This pattern is used when reference is made to a different page in the work previously identified.)

1 John Kenneth Galbraith, The Great Crash: 1929, 2d ed., Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1961, p. 65.

2Jan Tinbergen and J. J. Polak, The Dynamics of Business Cycles, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1950, p. 83.

3Galbraith, op. cit., p. 67. (Referring to a different page in The Great Crash.)

⁴Tinbergen and Polak, loc. cit. (Referring to the same page in The Dynamics of Business Cycles.)

⁵Ibid. (Referring to exactly the same page as shown in footnote 4. *Ibid.* may be used only to refer to the footnote immediately preceding. See \$1425.)

NOTE: Do not underscore loc. cit. or op. cit. in footnotes.

Bibliographies

1427 A bibliography at the end of a manuscript or a report typically lists all the works consulted in the preparation of the material as well as all the works that were previously cited in the footnotes. The format of a

BIBLIOGRAPHY 13

- Auerbach, Jerold S., Jr., Labor and Liberty, The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., Indianapolis, 1966. 12
- Brock, Horace R., et al., <u>Accounting: Principles and Appli-cations</u>, 3d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1974.
- Burchell, Robert W., and David Listokin (eds.), <u>Future Land</u>
 Use: <u>Emergy</u>, <u>Environmental</u>, and <u>Legal Constraints</u>,
 Center <u>for</u> <u>Urban</u> Policy Research, <u>Rutgers Univer-</u> sity, 1975.
- Committee for Economic Development, <u>The Schools and the Challenge of Innovation</u>, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1969.
- Galbraith, John Kenneth, <u>The Affluent Society</u>, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1958.
- ----, The Great Crash: 1929, 2d ed., Houghton Mifflin
- ----, "How to Control the Military," Harper's, June 1969, pp. 31-46.
- Mifflin Company, Boston, 1975.
- ----- and Molinder S. Randhawa, The New Industrial State, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1968.
- A Guide to Graduate Study: Programs Leading to the Ph.D. Degree, 3d ed., American Council on Education, Washington, 1965.

bibliography is also used for any list of titles, such as a list of recommended readings or a list of new publications.

- 1428 a. A bibliography should begin on a fresh sheet under the centered heading BIBLIOGRAPHY (or some other title, if appropriate).
 - b. Start with the heading on line 13, or center the bibliography vertically on the page.
 - c. Use the same left and right margins as on other pages in the manuscript. (See also ¶1406.)
 - d. For the placement of page numbers, follow the directions in \$1411.
- 1429 Each entry should be typed single-spaced. Leave two blank lines between the heading and the first entry. Leave one blank line between each of the other entries.
- 1430 Each entry within the bibliography should begin at the left margin. Use a uniform indentation of ten spaces for additional lines within each entry.

- 1431 Entries in bibliographies contain the same elements and follow the same style as footnotes except that:
 - Entries are not numbered.
 - b. The name of the author is listed in inverted order (last name first). When an entry includes two or more authors' names, only the first author's name is inverted. When an organization is listed as the author, do not invert the name. (For examples, see the first four entries in the illustration on page 287.)
 - c. Page numbers are included in bibliographic entries only when the material being cited is part of a larger work. In such cases show the range of pages (for example, pp. 215-232) on which the material appears. (For an example, see the seventh entry in the illustration on page 287.)
- 1432 a. Entries in a bibliography are listed alphabetically by author.
 - b. Entries lacking an author are alphabetized by title. Disregard the words The or A at the beginning of a title in determining alphabetical sequence. (For an example, see the last entry in the illustration on page 287. Note that this entry is alphabetized on the basis of Guide, following Galbraith.)
- 1433 When a bibliography contains more than one work by the same author, replace the author's name with a long dash (six hyphens) in all of the entries after the first. List the works alphabetically by title. (For examples, see the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth entries in the illustration on page 287. Note that these titles are alphabetized on the key words Affluent, Great, How, and Money. The ninth entry involves a coauthor and therefore follows the works written by the first author alone.)



TABLES

General Guidelines (**1501-1507) Vertical Placement (**1508-1509) Horizontal Placement (*1510) Column Heads (**1511-1513) Example of Table Placement (*1514)

General Guidelines

- 1501 Before typing any tabular material, plan the horizontal and vertical placement carefully.
 - a. If the table is to appear on the same page with straight copy, it should be centered horizontally within the established margins and should be set off by one to three blank lines from the straight text above or below, as follows:

Kind of Table	Spacing in Table Text	Blank Lines Above and Below Table
Without column heads or table title	Single	1
Without column heads or table title	Double	2
With column heads	Single or double	2
With table title	Single or double	3

b. If the table is to appear on a page by itself, it should be centered horizontally within the established margins and also centered vertically on the page. To determine vertical placement on a full page, see \$\frac{1}{1508}\$-1509. To determine horizontal placement, use the backspace method (see \$\frac{1}{1510}\$).

- 1502 The elements in a table should be styled as described below and as illustrated on page 291.
 - a. Title of Table. Type in all-capital letters and center.
 - b. Subtitle of Table. Type in capital and small letters and center.
 - c. Column Heads. Type in capital and small letters; center over the column text (see \P 1512-1513), or block left on the column text. Underscore each line of the column head in unruled tables. (See examples 1 and 2 on page 291.)

(Continued on page 290.)

e

- d. Spacing of Title, Subtitle, and Column Heads. If the title, subtitle, or column head requires more than one line, use single spacing for each additional line.
- e. Table Text. Use single or double spacing in the table text, but treat all tables in the same context consistently. Since the proportions of any table will vary depending on whether the table text is single- or double-spaced, use the spacing that will produce the more attractive appearance in the space available. If column heads are used, center the text in each column under the head or block the column head and the text at the left. As a rule, leave six spaces between columns.

NOTE: If any item in the table text requires more than one line, use single spacing and indent the extra line two spaces. (See example 6 on page 291.)

f. Table Footnote. Type a short line of underscores (10 to 12 strokes) one line below the last line of table text. Then leave a blank line before typing the footnote. (See example 5 on page 291.)

NOTE: Begin the table footnote flush left. Type an asterisk (*) and then the first word (with no space intervening). If the table footnote requires more than one line, use single spacing and indent the extra line one space to align with the first word above. If there are two or more footnotes in a table, use the following sequence of symbols: *, **, ***, and so on. In this case indent the first line of each footnote five spaces and align turnovers at the left margin.

- 1503 For the proper spacing between elements in a table, see page 291.
- 1504 If the table requires rules, any of these methods may be used:
 - a. Insert all rules on the typewriter, using the underscore. Place a horizontal rule above and below the column heads and at the bottom of the table; do not underscore the column heads. These rules should extent to the full width of the table. As shown in examples 3 and 4 on page 291, type each rule on the line immediately following the preceding copy. This creates the appearance of a blank line above the underscore. Leave one blank line between an internal rule and any table copy that follows; leave two or three blank lines between the bottom rule and any straight copy that follows. If vertical rules are to be used to separate the columns, insert the page sideways after you have finished typing the table text and type the vertical rules, using the underscore. Do not type rules at the left and right sides of the table; the sides should remain open.
 - **b.** Insert all rules with a ball-point pen and a ruler after the typing has been completed. Be sure to leave adequate space for these rules when typing the table.
 - c. Insert all horizontal rules on the typewriter, as described in a above. Insert all vertical rules by ball-point pen.
- **1505** a. In columns of dollar amounts, insert a dollar sign only before the first amount at the head of the column and before the total amount. The dollar signs should align in the first space to the left of the longest amount in the column (see illustration on page 295).
 - b. If all the amounts in a column are whole dollar amounts, omit the decimal and zeros; for example, type \$656 rather than \$656.00. However,

1

LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH 12

From 1930 to 1972 3

Year	Male	Female ↓ 2
1930	58.1	61.6
1940	60.8	65.2
1950	65.6	71.1
1960	66.6	73.1
1970	67.1	74.8
1972	67.4	75.2

3

LIFE INSURANCE IN FORCE \$\frac{1}{2}\$

(\$000,000 Omitted) 1

Year	Ordinary	√2 Group ↓1
		↓2
1910	11,783	
1940	79,346	14,938
1960	341,881	175,903
1973	928,192	708,322

5

MOTOR VEHICLE PRODUCTION, 1972*↓2

(In Thousands) _3

United States	11,270.7
Japan	6,300.0
West Germany	3,816.9
France	3,337.8

↓2

2

COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE LAWS FOR SELECTED STATES \ 3

State	Year Enacted	Age Limits \ 2
Idaho	1887	7-16
Iowa	1902	7-16
Maine	1875	7-16
Ohio	1877	6-18
Texas	1915	7-17
Utah	1890	6-18

4

MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME 1

-12 Median Family Annual Income Year Gain 1 **-**↓2 \$ 9,867 4.6% 1970 4.2% 1971 8.1% 11,116 1972 12,051 8.4% 1 1973

6

ESTIMATED ENROLLMENTS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, 1978 3

Stenographic and		
Secretarial		796,000
Typing		790,000
Filing		501,000
Accounting		497,000
Auto Mechanics .		497,000
Metalworking		449,000
Family Relations		331,000
Child Development		296,000

^{*}Source: Information Please Almanac, 1975, page 35.

if any amount in a column includes cents, use the decimal and zeros with all whole dollar amounts for consistent appearance (see ¶415).

- c. If the column of dollar amounts has a total line, type a line of underscores after the last amount as wide as the longest number in the column (including the dollar sign). Then type the dollar sign and total amount below. Leave one blank line (if desired) before typing the totals (see illustration on page 295), or type the totals on the line directly below the underscores.
- 1506 If all the numbers in a column represent percentages and the column heading clearly indicates this fact, do not use the percent sign with the numbers. However, if the column heading does not make this point clear, type a percent sign (%) after each number. (See example 4 on page 291.)
- 1507 Whenever the items in the first column of a table vary widely in length, you may use leaders (rows of periods that lead the eye across the page). The shortest line of leaders should have at least three periods. A line of leaders should be preceded and followed by one blank space. Leaders may be formed by typing periods in solid sequence, without spacing, or by alternately typing periods and spaces. The first method is faster, but the second is neater. If spaces are used, all the periods in the leader lines must align. Illustrations of closed and spaced leaders are shown in examples 5 and 6 on page 291.

Vertical Placement

- **1508** To center a table vertically on a full 8½- by 11-inch sheet:
 - a. Count the number of lines in the table. (Be sure to include the blank lines.)
 - b. Subtract the number of lines in the table from the total number of lines available on the page. (There are 6 standard typewriter lines to an inch; there are 66 lines on an $8\frac{1}{2}$ - by 11-inch sheet of paper.)
 - c. Divide the difference by 2 to find the number of the line on which to start typing the table; if there is a fraction in your answer, count the fraction as the next whole number (for example, if your answer is $12\frac{1}{2}$, start typing on line 13).

NOTE: The bottom margin will be one or two lines deeper than the top margin. However, the table will appear to be centered on the page.

- See ¶1514a for an example.
- 1509 To center a table vertically on a full sheet of A4 paper (210 by 297 mm). use the same procedure described in ¶1508. However, there are 70 lines on an A4 sheet (compared to 66 on an $8\frac{1}{2}$ - by 11-inch sheet).

Horizontal Placement

1510 a. Establish a key line as follows. First, select the key item (longest item) in each column, whether it occurs in the column head or in one of the items below the column head. Next, determine the number of spaces to be left between columns. (Normally leave six spaces; however, in financial

statements two blank spaces between adjacent columns of dollar amounts is sufficient.) This combination of letters and spaces makes up the key line.

- For an example of a key line, see *1514b and the illustration on page 295.
- b. Determine the centering point on the page. If the left and right margins have been established in advance, the centering point will fall halfway between these margins. If the left and right margins have not been established and are to be equal, use the exact center of the page as the centering point.
- c. Clear all tab stops and the margin stops on the typewriter.
- **d.** From the centering point, backspace once for each pair of strokes in the key line. Do not backspace for an odd stroke left over at the end. Set the left margin stop at the point to which you backspaced; this will be the left margin of the first column in the table.

NOTE: If the left margin is less than 1 inch (25 mm) wide, you may reduce the width of the table by leaving three, four, or five blank spaces between columns instead of the usual six blank spaces. If you decide to use fewer than six spaces between columns, repeat step d so that the table will appear centered within the new margins.

- e. From the left margin of the table, space forward once for each stroke in the first column plus once for each of the spaces between columns and set a tab stop at this point (the beginning of the second column).
- f. Repeat step e until the tab stops have been set for each of the remaining columns.

Column Heads

- **1511** A long column head should be broken into no more than two or three lines. Clear abbreviations are permissible in long column heads.
- 1512 To center a narrow column head (narrower than the column text):
 - a. Take the number of strokes in the longest line in the column head and subtract it from the number of strokes in the longest line in the body of the column.
 - **b.** Divide the difference by 2 (drop any fraction) to find the number of spaces to indent the longest line in the column head. Center the other lines in the column head in relation to the longest line.
 - For an example, see the head in the first column of the table on page 295; see also the analysis in \$1514d (1).

NOTE: If all the column heads are short, you may align each line in the column head at the left with the column text (instead of centering the column head over the column text).

- 1513 To center a wide column head (wider than the column text):
 - a. Type the longest line in the column head six spaces following the preceding column. Center any other lines in the column head in relation to the longest line.

1514 Tables 294

b. Take the number of strokes in the longest line of the column text, and subtract it from the number of strokes in the longest line in the column head.

- c. Divide the difference by 2 (drop any fraction) to find the number of spaces to indent the column text. Set a tab stop here so that you can begin all lines in the body of the column at this point.
- For an example, see the head in the last column of the table on page 295; see also the analysis in ¶1514d (3).

Example of Table Placement

1514 The table on page 295 has been used to illustrate how to plan the placement of a table on an $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 11-inch sheet of paper.

a. Vertical Placement

Number of lines available on sheet	66
Total number of lines in table (typed and blank)	18
Lines available for top and bottom margins $(66 - 18 = 48)$	48
Line on which to start typing $(48 \div 2 = 24)$	24*

b. Horizontal Placement

Establish the key line.

San Francisco123456Last Year123456This Year123456Increase in

c. Setting Margins and Tab Stops

- (1) Clear all tab stops and the margin stops on the typewriter.
- (2) Move the carriage or carrier to the centering point.
- (3) To find the left margin, backspace once for each two strokes in the key line. (Do not backspace for a single stroke left over at the end.) In this case you would backspace 30 times (there are exactly 60 letters and spaces in the key line) and then set the left margin stop.
- (4) To set the tab stop for the second column, space once from the margin stop for each stroke in the first column (13) plus 6 spaces for the area between the first and second columns, or 19 times (13 \pm 6); set the tab stop
- (5) To set the tab stop for the third column, space once from the second column tab stop for each stroke in the second column (9) plus 6 spaces for the area between the second and third columns, or 15 times (9+6); set the tab stop.
- (6) To set the tab stop for the fourth column, space once for each stroke in the third column (9) plus 6 spaces for the area between the third and fourth columns, or 15 times (9 + 6); set the tab stop.

d. Making Adjustments for Column Heads

(1) The head for the first column is 7 spaces narrower than the column text (13-6). Indent 3 spaces $(7 \div 2)$; drop the fraction from the left margin stop before typing the head.

^{*} If A4 paper is used, the calculations for vertical spacing will differ as follows: There are 70 lines on A4 paper. Therefore, the lines available for top and bottom margins will equal 52 (70-18). Typing should begin on line 26 (52+2).

ANALYSIS OF SALES QUOTAS

From January 1 Through March 31

Branch	Last Year	This Year	Increase in Sales
Chicago	\$ 78,000	\$ 84,000	\$ 6,000
Cincinnati	57,000	65,000	8,000
Los Angeles	83,000	91,000	8,000
Memphis	48,000	53,000	5,000
New Orleans	45,000	51,000	6,000
New York	89,000	96,000	7,000
Philadelphia	83,000	88,000	5,000
San Francisco	76,000	85,000	9,000
Seattle	62,000	69,000	7,000
TOTALS	\$621,000	\$682,000	\$61,000

- (2) Heads for the second and third columns are 1 space wider than the column text (9-8). In this case do not indent the column text since the amount of indention would be less than 1 space $(1 \div 2)$.
- (3) The fourth column has a two-line head. The first line is 6 spaces wider than the second line (11-5). First type the wider line of the column head. Then center the narrower line under it by indenting 3 spaces $(6 \div 2)$. Also, the first line in the column head is 4 spaces wider than the column text (11-7). To center the column text below the head, indent 2 spaces $(4 \div 2)$ to the right and reset the tab stop.



FORMS OF ADDRESS

1601 The following forms of address are correct for government officials; members of the armed services; Roman Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish dignitaries; and education officials. In the salutations that follow the forms of address, the most formal one is listed first.

NOTE: For the sake of simplicity, the masculine forms of address have been given throughout. When an office is held by a woman, make the following substitutions:

For Sir, use Madam.

For Mr. followed by a name (for example, Mr. Brandt), use Miss, Mrs., or Ms. as appropriate.

For Mr. followed by a title (for example, Mr. President, Mr. Secretary, Mr. Mayor), use Madam.

Government Officials

PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

The President The White House Washington, DC 20500

Mr. President: Dear Mr. President:

VICE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

The Vice President United States Senate Washington, DC 20510

or: The Honorable . . . (full name)
Vice President of the United States
Washington, DC 20501

Sir:

Dear Mr. Vice President:

CHIEF JUSTICE OF THE UNITED STATES

The Chief Justice of the United States Washington, DC 20543 OR: The Chief Justice

The Supreme Court Washington, DC 20543

Sir:

Dear Mr. Chief Justice:

CABINET MEMBER

The Honorable . . . (full name)
Secretary of . . . (department)
Washington, DC ZIP Code

OR: The Secretary of . . . (department)
Washington, DC ZIP Code

Sir.

Dear Mr. Secretary:

UNITED STATES SENATOR

The Honorable . . . (full name) United States Senate Washington, DC 20510

on: The Honorable . . . (full name)
United States Senator
(local address and ZIP Code)

Sir

Dear Senator . . . :

UNITED STATES REPRESENTATIVE

The Honorable . . . (full name) House of Representatives Washington, DC 20515

OR: The Honorable . . . (full name) Representative in Congress (local address and ZIP Code)

> Sir: Dear Mr. . . . :

GOVERNOR

In Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and by courtesy in some other states:

His Excellency the Governor of . . .

State Capital, State ZIP Code

In other states:

The Honorable . . . (full name) Governor of . . . State Capital, State ZIP Code

Sir:

Dear Governor . . . :

STATE SENATOR

The Honorable . . . (full name)
The State Senate
State Capital. State ZIP Code

Sir:

Dear Senator . . . :

STATE REPRESENTATIVE OR ASSEMBLY MEMBER

The Honorable . . . (full name) House of Representatives (or The State Assembly) State Capital. State ZIP Code

Sir:

Dear Mr. . . . :

MAYOR

The Honorable . . . (full name) Mayor of . . . (city) City, State ZIP Code

or: The Mayor of the City of . . . City. State ZIP Code

Sir

Dear Mr. Mayor: Dear Mayor . . . :

Members of the Armed Services

The addresses of both officers and enlisted men in the armed services should include title of rank, full name followed by a comma and the initials USA, USN, USAF, USMC, or USCG. Below are some specific examples together with the appropriate salutations.

ARMY, AIR FORCE, AND MARINE CORPS OFFICERS

Lieutenant General . . . (full name), USA Address

Sir-

Dear General . . . :

(NOT: Dear Lieutenant General . . . :)

For first and second lieutenants, use:

Dear Lieutenant . . . :

NAVY AND COAST GUARD OFFICERS

Rear Admiral . . . (full name), USN Address

Sir:

Dear Admiral . . . :

For officers below the rank of Commander, use:

Dear Mr. . . . :

ENLISTED MEN

Sergeant . . . (full name), USA Address

Seaman . . . (full name), USN Address

Dear Sergeant (or Seaman) . . . :

Roman Catholic Dignitaries

CARDINAL

His Eminence . . . (given name)
Cardinal . . . (surname)
Archbishop of . . . (place)
Address

Your Eminence: Dear Cardinal . . . :

(Continued on page 298.)

President, . . . (name of college)

Address

Right Reverend Sir:

Dear Bishop . . . :

ARCHBISHOP AND BISHOP PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL DEAN The Most Reverend . . . (full The Very Reverend . . . (full name) Dean of . . . name) Archbishop (on Bishop) of Address . . . (place) Very Reverend Sir: Address Dear Dean . . . : Your Excellency: Dear Archbishop (or Bishop) . . . : METHODIST BISHOP The Reverend . . . (full name) Bishop of . . . MONSIGNOR The Right Reverend Monsignor Address . . . (full name) Reverend Sir: Address Dear Bishop . . . : Right Reverend Monsignor: Dear Monsignor . . . : CLERCYMAN WITH DOCTOR'S DEGREE The Reverend Dr. . . . (full name) PRIEST Address The Reverend . . . (full name, OR: The Reverend . . . (full name), D.D. followed by comma and initials Address of order) Address Reverend Sir: Dear Dr. . . . : Reverend Father: Dear Father . . . : CLERGYMAN WITHOUT DOCTOR'S DEGREE The Reverend . . . (full name) MOTHER SUPERIOR Address The Reverend Mother Superior Reverend Sir: Address Dear Mr. . . . : or: Reverend Mother . . . (name, followed by comma and initials of order) Jewish Dignitaries Address Reverend Mother: RABBI WITH DOCTOR'S DEGREE Dear Reverend Mother: Rabbi . . . (full name), D.D. Dear Mother . . . : Address or: Dr. . . . (full name) SISTER Address Sister . . . (name, followed by Dear Rabbi (or Dr.) . . . : comma and initials of order) Address RABBI WITHOUT DOCTOR'S DEGREE Dear Sister: Rabbi . . . (full name) Dear Sister . . . : Address Dear Rabbi . . . : Protestant Dignitaries Education Officials PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL BISHOP The Right Reverend . . . (full name) PRESIDENT OF A COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY Bishop of . . . (place) . . . (full name, followed by comma Address and highest degree)

or: Dr. . . . (full name) President, . . . (name of college) Address

Dear President . . . : Dear Dr. . . . :

PROFESSOR

Professor . . . (full name) Department of (name of college) Address

or: . . . (full name, followed by comma and highest degree) Department of (name of college) Address

OR: Dr. . . . (full name) Professor of . . (subject) . . . (name of college) Address Dear Professor (or Dr.) . . . : Dear Mr. . . . :

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

Mr. (ов Dr.) . . . (full name) Superintendent of . . . Schools Address

Dear Mr. (or Dr.) . . . :

MEMBER OF BOARD OF EDUCATION

Mr. . . . (full name) Member, . . . (name of city) Board of Education Address

Dear Mr. . . . :

PRINCIPAL

Mr. (or Dr.) . . . (full name) Principal, . . . (name of school) Address

Dear Mr. (or Dr.) . . . :

TEACHER

Mr. (or Dr.) . . . (full name) . . . (name of school) Address

Dear Mr. (or Dr.) . . . :



GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

Adjective

Adverb

Adverbial Conjunctive (or

Connective)

Antecedent

Appositive

Article

Case

Nominative Case

Objective Case

Possessive Case

Clause

Adjective Clause

Adverbial Clause

Coordinate Clauses

Elliptical Clause

Essential (or Restrictive) Clause

Nonessential (or Nonrestrictive)

Clause

Noun Clause

Comparison

Positive

Comparative

Superlative Complement

Object

Predicate Noun

Predicate Adjective

Conjunction

Coordinating Conjunction

Correlative Conjunctions

Subordinating Conjunction

Connective

Consonants

Contraction

Dangling Modifier

Direct Address

Elliptical Expressions

Essential Elements

Gender

Gerund

Infinitive

Interjection

Modifier

Mood (Mode)

Indicative

Imperative

Subjunctive

Nonessential Elements

Noun

Abstract Noun

Collective Noun

Common Noun

Proper Noun

Number

Object

Direct Object

Indirect Object

Ordinal Number

Parallel Structure

Parenthetical Elements

Participle

Present Participle

Past Participle

Perfect Participle

Dangling Participle

Parts of Speech

Person

Phrase

Adjective Phrase

Adverbial Phrase

Essential (or Restrictive) Phrase

Gerund Phrase

Infinitive Phrase

Nonessential (or Nonrestrictive)

Phrase

Noun Phrase

Participial Phrase

Prepositional Phrase

Prepositional-Gerund Phrase

Verb Phrase

Predicate

Complete Predicate

Simple Predicate

Compound Predicate

Prefix

Preposition

Principal Parts

Pronoun

Punctuation

Terminal (or End) Punctuation

Internal Punctuation

Question

Direct Question

Indirect Question

Independent Ouestion

Ouotation

Direct Quotation

Indirect Quotation

Sentence

Simple Sentence

Compound Sentence

Complex Sentence

Compound-Complex Sentence

Declarative Sentence

Elliptical Sentence

Exclamatory Sentence

Imperative Sentence

Interrogative Sentence

Sentence Fragment

Statement

Subject

Suffix

Syllable

Tense

Transitional Expressions

Auxiliary (Helping) Verb

Intransitive Verb

Linking Verb

Transitive Verb

Verbal

Active Voice

Passive Voice

Vowels

1701 This glossary provides brief definitions of all the grammatical terms that have been used elsewhere in this manual.

Adjective. A word that answers the question what kind (excellent results), how many (four acres), or which one (the latest data). An adjective may be a single word (a wealthy man), a phrase (a man of great wealth), or a clause (a man who possesses great wealth). An adjective modifies the meaning of a noun (fresh fish) or a pronoun (unlucky me, I was wrong).

Adjective, predicate. See Complement.

Adjective clause, phrase. See Clause; Phrase.

Adjectives, comparison of. See Comparison.

Adverb. A word that answers the question when, where, why, in what manner, or to what extent. An adverb may be a single word (speak clearly), a phrase (speak in a clear voice), or a clause (speak as clearly as

you can). An adverb modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

He signed the note slowly. (Modifies the verb signed.)

We moved to a rapidly growing suburb. (Modifies the adjective growing.)

She agreed most reluctantly. (Modifies the adverb reluctantly.)

Adverbial clause, phrase. See Clause; Phrase.

Adverbial conjunctive (or connective). An adverb that connects the main clauses of a compound sentence; for example, however, therefore, nevertheless, hence, moreover, otherwise, consequently. (See also \$178.)

Adverbs, comparison of. See Comparison.

Antecedent. A noun or a noun phrase to which a pronoun refers.

She is the person who wrote the letter. (Person is the antecedent of who.)

Owning your own home has its advantages, (Owning your own home is the antecedent of its.)

Appositive. A noun or a noun phrase that identifies another noun or pronoun that immediately precedes it. (See ¶¶148-150.)

Mr. S. Mancuso, our purchasing agent, would like to meet you.

Article. Classed as an adjective. The definite article is the; the indefinite, a or an. (See ¶1101.)

Case. The form of a noun or of a pronoun that indicates its relation to other words in the sentence. There are three cases: nominative, objective, and possessive. Nouns have the same form in the nominative and objective cases but a special ending for the possessive. The forms for pronouns are:

Nominative	Objective	Possessive
I, we	me, us	my, mine, our, ours
you	you	your, yours
he, she, it	him, her, it	his, hers, its
they	them	their, theirs
who	whom	whose

Nominative case. Used for the subject or the complement of a verb.

It is I. (Complement.) She sings well. (Subject.)

Objective case. Used for (1) the object of a verb, (2) the object of a preposition, (3) the subject of an infinitive, (4) the object of an infinitive, or (5) the complement of the infinitive to be.

Tom hit him. (Object of the verb hit.)

Brenda has not written to me. (Object of the preposition to.)

The president encouraged her to run for office. (Subject of the infinitive to run.)

You ought to see him today. (Object of the infinitive to see.)

They believed me to be her. (Complement of the infinitive to be.)

Possessive case. Used to show ownership. See ¶627-650 for the formation of the possessives of nouns.

Clause. A group of related words that contains a subject and a predicate. An independent clause (also known as a main clause or principal clause) expresses a complete thought and can stand alone as a sentence. A

dependent clause (also known as a subordinate clause) does not express a complete thought and cannot stand alone as a sentence.

I will go (independent clause) if I am invited (dependent clause).

Adjective clause. A dependent clause that modifies a noun or a pronoun in the main clause. Adjective clauses are joined to the main clause by relative pronouns (which, that, who, whose, whom).

The charge, which includes painting, seems reasonable. (Modifies charge.)

Adverbial clause. A dependent clause that functions as an adverb in its relation to the main clause. Adverbial clauses indicate time, place, manner, cause, purpose, condition, result, reason, or contrast.

These orders can be filled as soon as stock is received. (Time.) I was advised to move to a locality where the climate is dry. (Place.) She worked as though her life depended on it. (Manner.)

Please write me at once if you have any suggestions. (Condition.) Because our plant is closed in August, we cannot accept your order, (Reason,) The first batch was too thin, whereas this batch is too thick. (Contrast.)

Coordinate clauses. Clauses of the same rank. They may be independent or dependent clauses.

Carl will oversee the day-to-day operations, and Sheila will be responsible for the finances. (Coordinate independent clauses.)

When you have read the chapter and you can answer all the questions correctly. you ought to try these special problems. (Coordinate dependent clauses.)

Elliptical clause. A clause from which key words have been omitted. (See \$102, 111, 130b, 1082d.)

Now, for the next topic. Really? If possible, arrive at one.

Essential (or restrictive) clause. A dependent clause that cannot be omitted without changing the meaning of the main clause. Essential clauses are not set off by commas.

The magazine that came yesterday contains some beautiful illustrations.

Nonessential (or nonrestrictive) clause. A dependent clause that adds descriptive information but could be omitted without changing the meaning of the main clause. Such clauses are separated from the main clause by commas.

Her latest book, which is set in the Far East, has sold quite well.

Noun clause. A dependent clause that functions as a noun in the main clause.

Whether the proposal will be accepted remains to be seen. (Noun clause as subject.)

They thought that the plan was a failure. (Noun clause as object.)

Comparison. The forms of an adjective or adverb that indicate degrees in quality, quantity, or manner. There are three degrees: positive, comparative, and superlative. (See \$1071.)

(Continued on page 304.)

Positive. The simple form: for example, old, beautiful (adjectives); soon, quietly (adverbs).

Comparative. Indicates a higher or lower degree of quality or manner than is expressed by the positive degree. It is used when two things are compared. It is regularly formed by adding er to the positive degree (older, sooner). In longer words, it is formed by adding more or less to the positive (more beautiful, less beautiful; more quietly, less quietly).

Superlative. Denotes the highest or lowest degree of quality or manner and is used when more than two things are compared. It is regularly formed by adding est to the positive degree (oldest, soonest). In longer words, it is formed by adding most or least (most beautiful, least beautiful; most quietly, least quietly).

Complement. A word or phrase that completes the sense of the verb. It may be an object, a predicate noun, or a predicate adjective.

Object. Follows a transitive verb. (See Verb.)

I have already mailed the letter.

Predicate noun. Follows a linking verb. It explains the subject and is identical with it. (Also called a predicate complement, subject complement, and predicate nominative.)

Miss Kwong is our accountant. (Accountant refers to Miss Kwong.)

Predicate adjective. Completes the sense of a linking verb. (Also called a predicate complement.)

The charge is excessive. (The adjective excessive refers to charge.)

NOTE: In this manual, complement is used to refer only to a predicate noun or adjective following a linking verb. The term object is used to denote the complement of a transitive verb.

Conjunction. A word or phrase that connects words, phrases, or clauses.

Coordinating conjunction. Connects words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank. The coordinating conjunctions are and, but, or, and nor.

Correlative conjunctions. Coordinating conjunctions used in pairs; for example, both ... and, not only ... but (also), either ... or, neither . . . nor. whether . . . or (not).

Subordinating conjunction. Used to join subordinate clauses to main clauses. A few common ones are when, where, after, before, if, whether, since, and though. (See also ¶132.)

Conjunctive adverb. See Adverbial conjunctive.

Connective. A word that joins words, phrases, or clauses. The chief connectives are conjunctions, adverbial conjunctives, prepositions, and relative pronouns.

Consonants. The letters b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z. The letters w and y sometimes serve as vowels (as in saw and rhyme).

Contraction. A shortened form of a word or phrase in which an apostrophe indicates the omitted letters or words; for example, don't for do not; o'clock for of the clock. (See ¶505.)

Dangling modifier. A modifier that is attached to no word in a sentence or to the wrong word. (See ¶1082.)

Direct address. A construction in which a speaker or a writer addresses another person directly. For example, "What do you think, Sylvia?"

Elliptical expressions. Condensed expressions from which key words have been omitted. (See also Clause; Sentence.)

Essential elements. Words, phrases, or clauses that are necessary to the completeness of the structure or the meaning of a sentence. (See also Clause; Phrase.)

Gender. The characteristic of nouns and pronouns that indicates whether the thing named is masculine (man, boy, stallion, he), feminine (woman, girl, mare, she), or neuter (book, concept, it). Nouns that refer to either males or females have common gender (person, child, horse).

Gerund. A verb form ending in ing and used as a noun.

Selling is fun. (Subject.)

I enjoy selling. (Direct object of enjoy.)

She is experienced in selling. (Object of preposition in.)

Dangling gerund. A prepositional-gerund phrase that is attached to no word in a sentence or to the wrong word. (See ¶1082c.)

Imperative. See Mood.

Indicative. See Mood.

Infinitive. The form of the verb usually introduced by to (see ¶¶1044-1046). An infinitive may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

NOUN: To do her a favor is a pleasure. (Subject.)
She asked to see the book. (Object.)

ADJECTIVE: 1 still have two more contracts to draft. (Modifies contracts.)

ADVERB: He resigned to take another position. (Modifies resigned.)

Interjection. A word that shows emotion; usually without grammatical connection to other parts of a sentence.

Oh, so that's what he meant. Hooroy! We win.

Modifier. A word, phrase, or clause that qualifies, limits, or restricts the meaning of a word. (See *Adjective*; *Adverb*; *Dangling modifier*.)

Mood (mode). The form of the verb that shows the manner of the action. There are three moods: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

Indicative. States a fact or asks a question.

The lease has expired. When does the lease expire?

Imperative. Expresses a command or makes a request.

Call me next week. Please send me a catalog.

Subjunctive. Used following clauses of necessity, demand, or wishing (see ¶1038-1039); also used in *if*, as *if*, and as though clauses that state conditions which are improbable, doubtful, or contrary to fact (see ¶1040-1043).

(Continued on page 306.)

I demand that we be heard. We urge that she be elected.

It is imperative that he be notified.
I wish I were going.

If he were appointed head of the department, I would quit.

Nonessential elements. Words, phrases, or clauses that are not necessary to the completeness of the structure or the meaning of a sentence. (See also Clause; Phrase.)

Noun. The name of a person, place, object, idea, quality, or activity.

Abstract noun. The name of a quality or a general idea; for example, courage, freedom.

Collective noun. A noun that represents a group of persons, animals, or things; for example, audience, company, flock. (See §1019.)

Common noun. The name of a class of persons or things; for example, child, house. (See \$\frac{4}{307}-310.)

Predicate noun. See Complement.

Proper noun. The official name of a particular person, place, or thing; for example, Ellen, San Diego, Wednesday. Proper nouns are capitalized. (See ¶303–306.)

Number. The characteristic of a noun, pronoun, or verb that indicates whether one person or thing (singular) or more than one (plural) is meant.

NOUN: girl, girls PRONOUN: she, they werk: he works, they work

Object. The person or thing that receives the action of the verb. An object may be a word, a phrase, or a clause.

I bought a calculator. (Word.)

She likes to sculpt. (Infinitive phrase.)

I did not realize that it was so late. (Clause.)

Direct object. The person or thing that is directly affected by the action of the verb. (The object in each of the three sentences above is a direct object.)

Indirect object. The person or thing indirectly affected by the action of the verb. The indirect object can usually be made the object of the preposition to or for.

He gave (to) me the book.

Ordinal number. The form of a number that indicates order or succession: for example. first, second, twelfth. (See *424-426.)

Parallel structure. See \$1081.

Parenthetical elements. Words, phrases, or clauses that are not necessary to the completeness of the structure or the meaning of a sentence.

Participle. A word that may stand alone as an adjective or may be combined with helping verbs to form different tenses (see **1033-1034). There are three forms: present, past, and perfect.

Present participle. Ends in ing; for example, making, advertising.

Past participle. Regularly ends in ed (as in asked or filed) but may be irregularly formed (as in lost, seen, and sung). (See ¶1030a,b.)

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Perfect participle. Consists of huving plus the past participle; for example huving usked, having lost.

When a participle functions as an outlective, it modifies a noun or a pronoun.

A leaving pipe raused all the truttle (Mod * as it tell

Harry retred last year I now to to the treer with Minister I

Because a participle has many of the characteristics of a verb, it may take an object and be modified by an adverb. The participle and its object and modifiers make up a participle phrase

Waving his hand, he drove quickly away (Q', err is hand). Speaking quickly, she described the project in detail (Q', su) monthes speaking.

Dangling participle. A participal phrase attached to no word in a sentence or to the wrong word. (See *10820.)

Parts of speech. The eight classes into which words are grouped according to their uses in a sentence; werb noun pronoun, adjective, adverb conjunction, prepusition, and interjection

Person. The characteristic of a word that indicates whether a person is speaking (first person), is spoken to (second person), or is spoken about (third person). Only personal pronouns and verbs change their forms to show person. All nouns are considered third person.

FIRST PERSON: I liked this book. We mad this book.
SECOND PERSON: You liked this book.
THERD PERSON: She liked this book. They liked this book.

Phrase. A group of two or more words not having a subject and a predicate used as a noun an adjective or an advert

Adjective phrase. A phrase that functions as an adjective (such as an infinitive phrase, a participal phrase, or a prepositional phrase).

Adverbial phrase. A phrase that functions as an adverb such as an infinitive phrase or a prepositional phrase.

Essential for restrictive phrase. A phrase that limits defines or identifies something cannot be omitted without changing the meaning of the main clause.

The chapter explining that low appears at the end of the book

Gerund phrase. A gerund plus its object and modifiers used as a noun

Running your own business is not as easy as to like

Infinitive phrase. An infinitive plus its subject, object, and modifiers may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. An infinitive phrase that is attached to no word in a sentence or to the wrong word is called a daughing infinitive [see \$1082b]

To pass this subject requires conscientious study. As a nound.)
We still have more checking to do. An adjective modifying checking (
He resigned to enlist (An adverb modifying resigned)

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Nonessential (or **nonrestrictive**) **phrase**. A phrase that can be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Joan, wishing to improve her typing skill, registered for a second course.

Noun phrase. A phrase that functions as a noun (such as a gerund phrase, an infinitive phrase, or a prepositional phrase).

Participial phrase. A participle and its object and modifiers; used as an adjective.

We heard the rain splashing on the window.

The old man, confused by the bright lights, stepped in the path of the car. I can now relax, having finished the assignment.

Prepositional phrase. A preposition and its object and modifiers; may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

From New York to Denver is a long way to drive. (Noun.)

The package on the large desk is ready to be sent. (Adjective.)

They have gone to Cleveland. (Adverb.)

Prepositional-gerund phrase. A phrase that begins with a preposition and has a gerund as the object. (See ¶1082c.)

By rechecking the material before it is set in type, you avoid expensive corrections later on. (By is the preposition; rechecking, a gerund, is the object of by.)

Verb phrase. A phrase that functions as a verb.

You should work together with Nora on the report. (The verb phrase consists of the verb form should work plus the adverb together.)

Positive degree. See Comparison.

Predicate. That part of a sentence that tells what the subject does or what is done to the subject or what state of being the subject is in.

Complete predicate. The complete predicate consists of a verb and its complement along with any modifiers.

Barbara has handled the job well.

Simple predicate. The simple predicate is the verb alone, without regard for any complement or modifiers that may accompany it.

Barbara has handled the job well.

Compound predicate. Two or more predicates in the same sentence.

Barbara has handled the job well and ought to be commended.

Predicate adjective, complement, nominative, noun, object. See Complement.

Prefix. A letter, syllable, or word added to the beginning of a word to change its meaning; for example, afloat, reupholster, undernourished.

Preposition. A connective that shows the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence. The noun or pronoun following a preposition is in the objective case. (See ¶¶1077–1080.)

He has left the sales figures with me.

Principal parts. The forms of a verb from which all other forms are derived: the present, the past, the past participle, and the present participle. (See §§1030-1035.)

Pronoun. A word used in place of a noun. (See ¶1049-1064.)

DEMONSTRATIVE: this, that, these, those

INDEFINITE: each, either, any, anyone, someone, everyone, few, all, etc.

INTENSIVE: myself, yourself, etc.

INTERROGATIVE: who, which, what, etc.

PERSONAL: I, you, he, she, it, we, they

RELATIVE: who, whose, whom, which, that, and compounds with ever (such as whoever)

Punctuation. Marks used to indicate relationships between words, phrases, and clauses.

Terminal (or end) punctuation. The period, the question mark, and the exclamation point—the three marks that may indicate the end of a sentence.

Internal punctuation. The comma, the semicolon, the colon, the dash, parentheses, quotation marks, the underscore, the apostrophe, ellipsis marks, the asterisk, the diagonal, and brackets.

Question, direct. A question in its original form, as spoken or written.

He then asked me, "What is your opinion?"

Indirect question. A statement of the substance of a question without the use of the exact words of the speaker.

He then asked me what my opinion was.

Independent question. A question that represents a complete sentence but is incorporated in a larger sentence.

The main question is, Who will translate this idea into a clear plan of action?

Quotation, direct. A quotation of words exactly as spoken or written.

Ruth said, "I plan to take a 10 o'clock flight."

Indirect quotation. A statement of the substance of a quotation without using the exact words.

Ruth said that she planned to take a 10 o'clock flight.

Sentence. A group of words representing a complete thought and containing a subject and a verb (predicate) along with any complements and modifiers.

Simple sentence. A sentence consisting of one independent clause.

I have no recollection of the meeting.

Compound sentence. A sentence consisting of two or more independent clauses.

Our Boston office will be closed, and our Dallas office will be relocated.

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Complex sentence. A sentence consisting of one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.

We will make an exception to the rule if circumstances warrant.

Compound-complex sentence. A sentence consisting of two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses.

I tried to handle the monthly report alone, but when I began to analyze the data, I realized that I needed your help.

Declarative sentence. A sentence that makes a statement.

All the newspapers were sold.

Elliptical sentence. A word or phrase that is treated as a complete sentence, even though the subject and the verb are only understood but not expressed.

Enough on that subject. Why not?

Exclamatory sentence. A sentence that expresses strong feeling.

Don't remove these files!

Imperative sentence. A sentence that expresses a command or a request. (The subject you is understood if it is not expressed.)

Send a check at once. Please close the door.

Interrogative sentence. A sentence that asks a question.

When does the conference begin?

Sentence fragment. A phrase or clause that is incorrectly treated as a sentence. (See ¶102, note.)

Statement. A sentence that asserts a fact. (See also the entry for Declarative sentence above.)

Subject. A word, phrase, or clause that names the person, place, or thing about which something is said.

The book was printed in Chicago.

That the work will be completed by the first of the month is doubtful.

Compound subject. A subject consisting of two or more simple subjects joined by conjunctions.

Glazer and Little are planning to establish a partnership.

Subjunctive. See Mood.

Suffix. A letter, syllable, or word added to the end of a word to modify its meaning; for example, friendly, countless, receivership, lonesome.

Superlative degree. See Comparison.

Syllable. A single letter or a group of letters that form one sound.

Tense. The property of a verb that expresses time. (See ¶¶1031-1035.)

The three primary tenses correspond to the three time divisions: present (they think), past (they thought), and future (they will think). There are three perfect tenses, corresponding to the primary tenses: present perfect (they have thought), past perfect (they had thought), and future perfect (they will have thought).

There are six progressive tenses, corresponding to each of the primary and perfect tenses: present progressive (they are thinking), past progressive (they were thinking), future progressive (they will be thinking), present perfect progressive (they have been thinking), past perfect progressive (they had been thinking), future perfect progressive (they will have been thinking).

There are two emphatic tenses: present emphatic (they do think) and past emphatic (they did think).

Transitional expressions. Expressions that link independent clauses or sentences; for example, as a result, therefore, on the other hand, nevertheless. (See also \$138a.)

Verb. A word used to express action or state of being. (See also Mood.)

The phone rang. (Action.)

The job is exciting. (State of being.)

Auxiliary (helping) verb. A verb that helps in the formation of the particular form of another verb. The chief auxiliaries are be, can, could, do, have, may, might, must, ought, shall, should, will, would.

Intransitive verb. A verb that does not require an object to complete its meaning.

My watch stopped.

Linking verb. A verb that connects a subject with a predicate adjective or noun. The various forms of to be are the most commonly used linking verbs. Become, look, seem, appear, and grow are often used as linking verbs. (See ¶1066.)

He became a mining engineer.

Principal parts of verbs. See Principal parts.

Transitive verb. A verb that requires an object to complete its meaning. (See also *Object.*)

I wrote that letter.

Verbal. A word that partakes of the nature of a verb but functions in some other way. (See Gerund; Infinitive; Participle.)

Voice. The property of a verb that indicates whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

Active voice. A verb is in the active voice when its subject is the doer of the act.

Norman wrote the report.

Passive voice. A verb is in the passive voice when its subject is acted upon.

The report was written by Norman.

Vowels. The letters a, e, i, o, and u. The letters w and y sometimes act like vowels (as in awl or in cry). (See also Consonants.)



REFERENCE BOOKS

1801 Certain basic reference books are a must in almost any business office.

These include a desk-sized dictionary, a secretarial handbook, and a telephone directory. In addition, each type of business has its own special reference sources. The public library also is a good source of information.

Almanacs

Information Please Almanac, Atlas and Yearbook, Simon and Schuster, New York. (Published annually.)

The Official Associated Press Almanac, Hammond Almanac, Inc., Maplewood, N.J. (Published annually.)

Reader's Digest Almanac and Yearbook, W. W. Norton & Company Inc., New York. (Published annually.)

The World Almanac & Book of Facts, Newspaper Enterprise Association, Inc., New York. (Published annually.)

Biographical Information

Webster's Biographical Dictionary, G. & C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Mass., 1974.

Who's Who, St. Martin's Press, New York. (A biographical dictionary of notable persons, mostly British; published annually.)

Who's Who in America, Marquis Who's Who, Inc., Chicago. (A biographical dictionary of notable living Americans; published biennially. Similar biographical dictionaries are Who's Who in American Politics, Who's Who in Finance and Industry, Who's Who in the Midwest. etc.)

Book and Periodical Directories

Ayer Directory of Publications, Ayer Press, Philadelphia. (Published annually.)

Books in Print, R. R. Bowker Company, New York. (An author-title-subject index to The Publishers' Trade List Annual; published annually.)

Cumulative Book Index, The H. W. Wilson Company, New York. (A listing of currently published books in the English language; published monthly.)

The New York Times Index, The New York Times Company, New York. (Published semimonthly.)

The Publishers' Trade List Annual, R. R. Bowker Company, New York. (Published annually.)

Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, The H. W. Wilson Company, New York. (Published semimonthly, September-June; monthly, July-August.)

Business and Government Directories

Encyclopedia of Associations, 9th ed., Gale Research Co., Detroit, 1975. (Updated by quarterly reports.)

The Martindale-Hubbell Law Directory, Martindale-Hubbell, Inc., Summit, N.I. (Published annually.)

Polk's World Bank Directory, North American Edition, R. L. Polk & Co., Nashville. (Published semiannually.)

Poor's Register of Corporations, Directors and Executives, Standard & Poor's Corporation, New York. (Published annually.)

Rand McNally International Bankers Directory, Rand McNally & Company, Chicago. (Published semiannually.)

Thomas Register of American Manufacturers, Thomas Publishing Company, New York. (Published annually.)

Also consult local telephone directories (both alphabetic and classified) as well as local city directories and lists of city officials.

Dictionaries and Wordbooks

The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, American Heritage Publishing Co., Inc., and Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1973.

Byers, Edward E., 10,000 Medical Words, Gregg Division, McGraw-Hill

Book Company, 1972.

Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary of the English Language. Funk & Wagnalls Publishing Company, New York, 1963. (Un-abridged.)

Funk & Wagnalls Standard College Dictionary, Funk & Wagnalls Publishing Company, New York, 1963. (Desk-sized.)

Kurtz, Margaret A., 10,000 Legal Words, Gregg Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971.

Leslie, Louis A., 20,000 Words, 7th ed., Gregg Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1977. (A pocket-sized book for checking spelling and word division.)

The Oxford English Dictionary, Oxford University Press, New York, 1933. The Random House Dictionary of the English Language, Random House,

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Mass., 1976.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, G. & C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Mass., 1976. (Eighth edition; desk-sized.)

Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, Second College Edition, William Collins + World Publishing Co., Inc., Cleveland, 1976.

Webster's Third New International Dictionary, G. & C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Mass. (Unabridged.)

Encyclopedias

The Encyclopedia Americana, Americana Corporation, New York, 1974. The New Columbia Encyclopedia, Columbia University Press, New York, 1975.

The New Encyclopaedia Britannica, Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., Chicago, 1974.

Etiquette and Personal Development

Amy Vanderbilt's New Complete Book of Etiquette, Doubleday & Company, Inc., Garden City, N.Y., 1967.

Post, Elizabeth L., The New Emily Post's Etiquette, Funk & Wagnalls, New York, 1975.

Whitcomb, Helen, and Laura S. Cochran, The Modern Ms., Gregg Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1975.

—— and Rosalind Lang, Today's Woman, 3d ed., Gregg Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1976.

Financial and Credit Information

Corporation Records, Standard & Poor's Corporation, New York. (Published semimonthly.)

Dun & Bradstreet Reference Book, Dun & Bradstreet, Inc., New York. (By subscription only: published bimonthly.)

Moody's manuals, Moody's Investors Service, Inc., New York. (There are six separate manuals: Moody's Bank & Finance Manual, Moody's Industrial Manual, Moody's Municipal & Government Manual, Moody's OTC Industrial Manual, Moody's Public Utility Manual, and Moody's Transportation Manual. Published annually; updated by news reports published twice a week.)

Geographical and Travel Information

Commercial Atlas & Marketing Guide, Rand McNally & Company, Chicago. (Published annually.)

Hotel & Motel Red Book, American Hotel Association Directory Corporation, New York. (Published annually.)

Travel information and road maps may be obtained from various automobile associations, oil companies, and map publishers.

Grammar and Style Books

Bernstein, Theodore M., The Careful Writer: A Modern Guide to English Usage, Atheneum, New York, 1965.

Follett, Wilson, Modern American Usage, Hill & Wang, New York, 1966. Fowler, H. W., A Dictionary of Modern English Usage, 2d ed., revised by Sir Ernest Gowers, Oxford University Press, New York, 1965.

Hutchinson, Lois Irene, Standard Handbook for Secretaries, 8th ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1973.

A Manual of Style, 12 ed., rev., The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1969. (A standard reference for anyone who prepares typewritten copy for the printer.)

Perrin, Porter G., Writer's Guide and Index to English. 4th ed., Scott, Foresman and Company, Chicago, 1965. (Consists of two parts: a writer's guide, which discusses general English topics, and an index to English, which gives details on grammar and usage arranged alphabetically.)

U.S. Government Printing Office Style Manual, rev. ed., U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1973.

Words Into Type. 3d ed., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974.

Postal and Shipping Information

Address Abbreviations, U.S. Postal Service Publication No. 59, Washing-

Bullinger's Postal and Shippers Guide for the United States and Canada. Bullinger's Guides, Inc., Westwood, N.J. (Published annually.)

Directory of Post Offices, U.S. Postal Service, Washington.

Dun & Bradstreet Exporters' Encyclopaedia, Dun & Bradstreet, Inc., New York. (Published annually.)

International Mail, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington.

National ZIP Code Directory, U.S. Postal Service, Washington. (Revised periodically.)

Postal Service Manual, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington.

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Bartlett's Familiar Quotations, 14th ed., Little, Brown and Company. Boston, 1968.

The Oxford Dictionary of Quotations, 2d ed., Oxford University Press, New York, 1953.

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Archer, Fred C., et al., General Office Procedures, 4th ed., Gregg Division. McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1975.

Bate, Marjorie Dunlap, and Mary C. Casey, Legal Office Procedures, Gregg Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1975.

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Dallas, Richard I., and James M. Thompson, Clerical and Secretarial Systems for the Office, Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1975.

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Hanna, J Marshall, et al., Secretarial Procedures and Administration, 6th ed., South-Western Publishing Co., Cincinnati, 1973.

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INDEX

This index contains many entries for individual words. If you are looking for a specific word that is not listed, refer to ¶717, which contains a 12-page guide to words that are frequently confused because they sound alike or look alike (for example, capital-capitol-Capitol or stationary-stationery).

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REVISION MARKS FOR ROUGH DRAFTS AND REVISES

^	Insert word	and, it	* Insert a space	andso it
-	Omit word	and oo it	f Insert a space	andso it
	No, don't omit	and eo it	Omit the space	10 a m
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	Make letter small	And so it	Move as shown	it is not
ĕ	Make a capital	if he is	_ Join to word	the port
-	Make all capitals	I hope so	Change word	and if he
	Move as indicated	and so-	 Make into period 	to him
_	Line up, even up	TO: John	On't abbreviate	Dr. Judd
1	Line up, even up	If he is	O Spell it out	①or②if
55 [Use single spacing	and so it	# New paragraph	#If he is
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-	Insert a hyphen	white-hot	-# Less space here	If she is
5]	Indent — spaces .	. 5 If he is	2# 2 line spaces here	It may be

ABBREVIATIONS OF STATES, TERRITORIES, AND POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

AL	Alabama	Ala.	l MO	Missouri	Mo.
AK	Alaska		MT	Montana	Mont.
AZ	Arizona	Ariz.	NE	Nebraska	Nebr.
AR	Arkansas	Ark.	NV	Nevada	Nev.
CA	California	Calif.	NH	New Hampshire	N.H.
CZ	Canal Zone	C.Z.	NJ	New Jersey	N.J.
CO	Colorado	Colo.	NM	New Mexico	N. Mex.
CT	Connecticut	Conn.	NY	New York	N.Y.
DE	Delaware	Del.	NC	North Carolina	N.C.
DC	District of	D.C.	ND	North Dakota	N. Dak.
	Columbia		OH	Ohio	
FL	Florida	Fla.	OK	Oklahoma	Okla.
GA	Georgia	Ga.	OR	Oregon	Oreg.
GU	Guam		PA	Pennsylvania	Pa.
HI	Hawaii		PR	Puerto Rico	P.R.
ID	Idaho		RI	Rhode Island	R.I.
IL	Illinois	Ill.	SC	South Carolina	S.C.
IN	Indiana	Ind.	SD	South Dakota	S. Dak.
IA	Iowa		TN	Tennessee	Tenn.
KS	Kansas	Kans.	TX	Texas	Tex.
KY	Kentucky	Ky.	UT	Utah	
LA	Louisiana	La.	VT	Vermont	Vt.
ME	Maine		VI	Virgin Islands	V.I.
MD	Maryland	Md.	VA	Virginia	Va.
MA	Massachusetts	Mass.	WA	Washington	Wash.
MI	Michigan	Mich.	WV	West Virginia	W. Va.
MN	Minnesota	Minn.	WI	Wisconsin	Wis.
MS	Mississippi	Miss.	WY	Wyoming	Wyo.

Use the two-letter abbreviations on the left when abbreviating state names in addresses. In any other situation that calls for abbreviations of state names, use the abbreviations on the right.

