GREGG REGG REFERENCE MANUAL

NINTH EDITION

William A. Sabin

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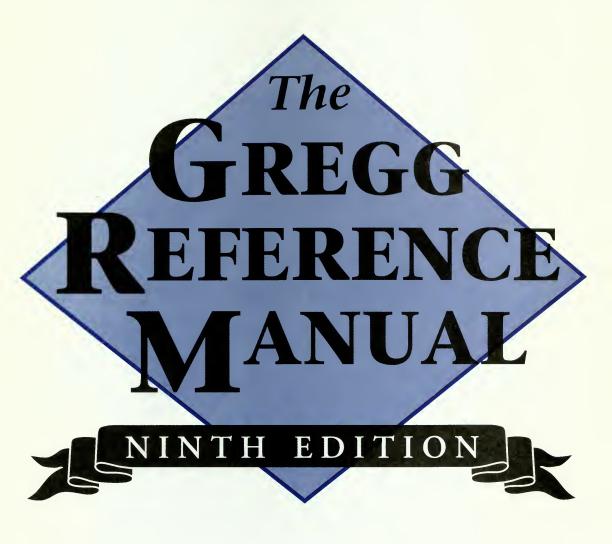
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DEDICATION

The ninth edition of The Gregg Reference Manual is dedicated to my dear friend, Helen Green, a teacher and an author who has touched the lives of many people.

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PREFACE

The Gregg Reference Manual is intended for anyone who writes, edits, or prepares material for distribution or publication. It addresses the concerns of experienced professionals, especially those who no longer enjoy the help of trained assistants to ensure the quality of the documents that these professionals must produce. Moreover, the manual serves the needs of students who are preparing to become experienced professionals in their chosen field of work.

To accommodate this wide range of readers, *The Gregg Reference Manual* presents the *basic rules* that apply in virtually every piece of writing, as well as the *fine points* that occur less often but cause no less trouble when they do. This manual offers an abundance of examples and computer-generated illustrations so that you can quickly find models on which to pattern a solution to the various problems you encounter in your communications—from e-mail messages to formal reports. 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 ninth edition of *The Gregg Reference Manual* has been revised and enhanced in many ways to span the stylistic demands of business and academic writing.

- 1. The most significant changes in the ninth edition reflect the enormous impact that computer technology has had on the way written communications are created and produced.
 - The easy access to word processing templates has greatly simplified the way in which letters, memos, reports, and other documents can be prepared. Yet the formats provided by these templates may, for a variety of reasons, not be suitable for your purposes. To help you cope with this situation, Section 13 (dealing with letters and memos) and Section 14 (dealing with reports) illustrate sample templates provided by Microsoft Word for Windows and then provide guidelines showing you how to modify these templates or create your own for more effective results.
 - The ninth edition discusses the *special features of word processing software* that make it easier for you to create and format various elements in business documents—for example, footnotes, endnotes, and tables (including a table of contents for a formal report). The manual also discusses the problems that may be created by these timesaving features. Thus Section 16 (on tables) provides an all-new 8-page sequence of illustrations that shows how a table created with the table feature of Microsoft Word for Windows can be progressively modified to achieve more readable and more attractive results. Similarly, Section 15 (on notes) shows how you can enhance the formats created by the footnote and endnote features of Microsoft Word for Windows.
 - Paragraphs ¶¶1532-1546 provide completely new coverage on dealing with *online source material*. These paragraphs will not only show you how to construct footnotes, endnotes, and bibliographic entries based on online sources; they will suggest sensible precautions to observe when you are citing electronic material, which—as we all know—can rapidly change, move to a new location, or completely disappear.
 - For those new to the Internet, ¶¶1532-1533 will show how to decode Web site addresses (URLs) and e-mail addresses. Moreover, ¶¶1538-1539 will show how to divide these addresses (if necessary) at the end of a line.
 - Anyone looking for a job these days needs to be aware of the impact of computer technology on the way job applicants are now being screened. Paragraphs ¶¶1714–1717 provide all-new format guidelines for preparing a scannable résumé (scannable by an optical character reader) that will help you survive the initial winnowing process.

- The glossary of computer terms in Appendix B has been expanded to 20 pages to accommodate the rapidly evolving vocabulary of this new technology. If you are puzzled by terms like bandwidth, cybrarian, dot, firewall, intranet, mouse potato, spider, and userid, turn to pages 562–581.
- Is it e-mail, E-mail, or email? Is it Web site, Website, or website? Consult ¶847 for help in resolving the confusion caused by the various ways in which computer terms are being spelled and styled.
- As the standards of desktop publishing increasingly supplant the older standards reflected in typewritten documents, new stylistic issues have to be addressed. Thus ¶102 confronts the surprisingly vigorous debate over 1 versus 2 spaces following punctuation at the end of a sentence. Section 2 deals with different styles of dashes (¶¶216–217), different styles of quotation marks (page 59), and different guidelines for the use of italics and underlining (¶290).
- 2. Questions and suggestions from readers of the previous edition have also had a major impact on what has been added to the ninth edition.* For example:
 - How do you pronounce words like *affluent*, *chaise longue*, and *forte?* And how about place names like *Cairo* (in Illinois), *Mackinac* (in Michigan), and *Natchitoches* (in Louisiana)? See pages 582–591 for an all-new, 10-page appendix that will offer some reassuring guidance on pronunciation problems like these.
 - How do you refer to a resident of Arkansas? For that matter, what do you call the residents of the other 49 states? See ¶336.
 - What is the proper way to refer to the class of 2000 and the first decade of the twenty-first century? See ¶¶412c, 439b.
 - What does a plus sign mean when it precedes a phone number? See ¶454f.
 - Why do dictionaries treat similar compound words differently (for example, payoff/play-off, skydiving/skin diving)? Is there some sensible way to resolve these inconsistencies in style? See ¶801b-c.
 - Do you use a or an before a phrase like NBC poll? NATO strategy? See pages 281–282.
 - How do you format a news release? See ¶1707 and page 512.
 - How do you format a one-page résumé if you're just out of school and don't have much work experience to cite? See ¶1713 and pages 526-527.
 - For once and for all, is it okay to end a sentence with a preposition? See ¶1080.
- 3. The text and illustrations have been changed throughout the ninth edition to reflect the new words, phrases, acronyms, and initialisms that are continually entering the language. If you don't know the meaning of PONA, WOMBAT, or PEBCAK, turn at once to ¶522a. If you are unfamiliar with Parkinson's Law of Data or a proverb called Hanlon's Razor, consult ¶346c.
- **4.** The use of a larger page size and a new design gives the ninth edition a more open look and makes the text and the illustrations easier to read. Also note that certain rule numbers in Sections 1–11 appear in white within a blue panel. This graphic device serves to call attention to the *basic rules* of grammar, usage, and style—those dealing with problems

^{*}Because of the immense value that readers' comments have in ensuring that each new edition is truly responsive to users' needs, I invite you to submit your questions and suggestions to "Ask the Author" on *The Gregg Reference Manual* Web site: http://www.glencoe.com/ps/grm.

that will frequently arise in your work. If you want to reduce the number of things you need to look up, these highlighted rules are the ones you need to master.

An Overview of the Organization of the Ninth Edition. This edition of *The Gregg Reference Manual* consists of 18 sections and 3 appendixes, organized in three parts:

Part 1 (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 2 (Sections 12–18) deals with the techniques and procedures for creating and formatting all kinds of written communications—letters, memos, reports, manuscripts, tables, agendas, minutes, itineraries, fax cover sheets, news releases, e-mail, outlines, and résumés and other employment communications. It also provides detailed guidelines on forms of address.

Part 3 (Appendixes A, B, and C) provides a glossary of grammatical terms, a glossary of computer terms, and a new appendix dealing with troublesome pronunciation problems.

Other Components of the Ninth Edition. A number of supplementary components are also available:

Basic Worksheets on Grammar, Usage, and Style. This set of worksheets focuses on the basic rules presented in Sections 1–11. These worksheets have been designed to build three critical skills. First, they will familiarize you with the potential problems that frequently occur in any material that you create or produce. Second, these worksheets will direct you to the appropriate rules in Sections 1–11 so that later on, when you encounter similar problems in your own work, you will know where to look. Third, they will sharpen your ability to apply the rules correctly under many different circumstances.

This set of worksheets begins with a diagnostic survey of your editing skills at the outset. Then, after you complete a series of 21 worksheets, you will encounter a parallel survey at the end that will show you how much your editing skills have improved. In most of the intervening worksheets, rule numbers are provided alongside the answer blanks so that you can quickly locate the answer you need to solve the problem at hand. At the end of each of these worksheets is an editing exercise that requires you to identify and correct the implanted errors on your own, without the help of rule numbers alongside. Interspersed within this sequence of worksheets are three editing surveys that will help you integrate all the things you have been learning in the preceding worksheets.

Comprehensive Worksheets. This set of worksheets has been designed to build the same three skills as the worksheets described above. However, this comprehensive set draws on material from the entire manual and not simply from Sections 1–11. Moreover, these worksheets deal with problems of formatting letters, memos, and other business documents. This program begins with a diagnostic survey and then, after a series of 31 worksheets, concludes with a parallel survey that allows you to demonstrate how much your editing skills have increased. Interspersed within this sequence of worksheets are four editing surveys that will help you integrate all the things you have been learning up to that point.

Instructor's Resource Manual. The Instructor's Resource Manual provides strategies showing how to make the best use of the two sets of worksheets. This guide also provides full-size keys to the Basic Worksheets and the Comprehensive Worksheets.

Classroom Presentations. This new component provides a series of visuals showing models of significant documents and displaying other important information. Formatted both as transparency masters and as PowerPoint slides on a CD-ROM, these visuals are designed to support classroom presentations and discussions. This booklet replaces the *Transparency Masters* booklet, which was available in previous editions.

As you make your own survey of the ninth edition of *The Gregg Reference Manual*, you will want to give special attention to the basic rules that deserve further study; these are the rules that you will encounter in everyday situations, the rules you need to have at your command. You will 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 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.

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A book of this type cannot be put together without the help and support of many people. To my colleagues in Glencoe/McGraw-Hill, to my many good friends in business and office education, and to the teachers and professional business training consultants who allowed me to observe their classes and their training programs, I want to express a deep feeling of gratitude. I also need to thank the countless teachers, administrators, students, and professionals who all helped me—by their questions and suggestions—to see how things could be made better in this new edition.

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And to my family—to my mother, who gave me my first sense of what language could accomplish (and a good deal more); to Margaret, John, Kate, Chris, and Jim, from whom I have gained much wisdom; and ultimately to my wife Marie, who has made the journey worth the struggle—my thanks and my love.

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.

Use the Index. The surest approach, perhaps, is to check the detailed index at the back of the manual (19 pages, with over 2500 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, 103, 113, 124a

at end of requests, 103

at end of requests, 103, 113

In each entry a **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 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/among) them.

The index will show the following entries:

among (see between, 287) OR between-among, 287

The entry on page 287 indicates that between is correct in this situation.

Use 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 prefer this approach, you will find several features of this manual especially helpful.

- The brief topical index on the inside front cover indicates the key paragraphs for each major topic.
- At the start of each section except the appendixes, 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. 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 ¶¶301–366 deal with the topic of capitalization. A fast skim of the outline preceding ¶301 (on page 86) 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.

• Extensive cross-references have also been provided throughout the manual so that you can quickly locate related rules that could prove helpful. Some cross-references take this form: See ¶324; others may read See also ¶324. The form See ¶324 indicates that ¶324 contains significant information that adds to or qualifies the rule you are currently reading; the word See suggests that you really ought to pursue the cross-reference

before making a decision. The form *See also ¶324* carries a good deal less urgency. It indicates that you will find some additional examples in ¶324 and perhaps a restatement of the rule you are currently reading but nothing altogether new. In effect, *See also* suggests that you don't have to pursue the cross-reference if you don't want to—but it couldn't hurt.

Play 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 366; Section 4 (on number style) has a "400" series—from 401 to 470; 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, by using the section number tabs. 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 pages tabbed for Section 4, 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 write 5 lb or 5 lbs on a purchase order, you might encounter the following entry in the index:

Weights, 429-431, 535-538, 620

If you know that Section 6 deals with plurals, you will try ¶620 first.

Look 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, 124b, 138-142, 178

A reading of the rules in ¶141 will indicate that no commas should be used in this sentence. If you ask the same question about another specific word and do not find it listed as a separate entry in the index, your best approach will 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—*gibe* and *jibe* or *affect* and *effect*—turn directly to ¶719. For other troublesome words, consult Section 11.

PART

Grammar, Usage, and Style

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SECTION 1

Punctuation: Major Marks

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

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In References to Books or Publications (¶195)

Capitalizing After a Colon (¶¶196-199)

> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

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 make these relationships clear.

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

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

A nanosecond is one-billionth of a second.

An ohnosecond is an equally brief moment in which you realize that you goofed in a big way. John W. Hirsch, president of Seglin Controls Inc., has announced the company's plan to acquire Parker Associates before the end of this year.

I question the need to cut advertising and promotion expenses at this time.

All monthly expense reports must be in by the 10th of the following month.

Make sure that Kate gets to the airport by 10 a.m. (The period that marks the end of the abbreviation also serves to mark the end of the sentence.)

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

Yes. No. Of course. Indeed. Been there. Done that. Enough on that subject. Now, to proceed to your next point.

c. 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 it ought to be incorporated with adjacent words to make up a complete sentence.

Great news! The laser printer arrived yesterday. After we had waited for six weeks. (*Great news* is an elliptical expression; it represents a complete sentence, *I have great news*. The clause *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 laser printer arrived yesterday, after we had waited for six weeks.

The following guidelines will help you decide whether to use one or two spaces following a period at the end of a sentence.

NOTE: These spacing guidelines also apply to any other element that comes at the end of a sentence—for example, a question mark, an exclamation point, a dash, a closing parenthesis, a closing quotation mark, or a superscript (a raised figure or symbol) keyed to a footnote.

- a. As a general rule, use one space after the period at the end of a sentence, but switch to two spaces whenever you feel a stronger visual break between sentences is needed. In all cases, the deciding factor should be the appearance of the breaks between sentences in a given document.
- **b.** When monospace fonts (in which all the characters have exactly the same width) were in wide use, it was traditional to leave two spaces between the period and the start of the next sentence.

This example is set in 10-point Courier, a monospace font. Note the use of *two* spaces after the period at the end of the previous sentence.

Now that the standards of desktop publishing predominate, the use of only one space after the period is quite acceptable with monospace fonts.

This example is also set in 10-point Courier, a monospace font. Note the use of only *one* space after the period at the end of the previous sentence.

- **c.** Proportional fonts (in which the width of the characters varies) are now much more commonly used. The standard here has always been the same: use only one space between the period and the start of the next sentence.
- **d.** With some proportional fonts—such as 10-point Times New Roman (the default font for Microsoft Word)—the use of only one space after the period may not always provide a clear visual break between sentences. Consider these examples:

This example is set in 10-point Times New Roman with proportional spacing. Note that the use of only *one* space does not create much of a visual break between sentences.

This example is also set in 10-point Times New Roman, but it uses *two* spaces after the period. Note the improvement in the visual break.

e. When an abbreviation ends one sentence and begins the next, the use of one space after the period that ends the sentence may also be inadequate. (The following examples are set in 10-point Garamond.)

Let's plan to meet at 10 a.m. Mr. F. J. Calabrese will serve as the moderator. (Only *one* space follows *a.m.* at the end of the first sentence.)

Let's plan to meet at 10 a.m. Mr. F. J. Calabrese will serve as the moderator. (Note the improvement in the visual break when *two* spaces follow the period at the end of the first sentence.)

f. If you prepare a document with a justified right margin (so that every line ends at the same point), the width of a single space between sentences can vary from line to line. (The following examples are set in 10-point Arial.)

We need to start lining up speakers right away. Please consider Patricia Cunningham for the keynote address. Frederick Haley could be approached if she is not available. (The single space after the first sentence is less than the single space after the second sentence.)

We need to start lining up speakers right away. Please consider Patricia Cunningham for the keynote address. Frederick Haley could be approached if she is not available. (Although *two* spaces have been inserted at the end of each sentence, the break after the second sentence looks excessive.)

> For a summary of guidelines for spacing with punctuation marks, see ¶299.

At the End of a Polite Request or Command

103 a. 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.

Will you please call us at once if we can be of further help.

Would you please send all bills to my bank for payment while I'm out of the country.

May I suggest that you refer to computer criminals who break into other people's computers as crackers, not hackers. (Hackers are actually dedicated computer programmers.)

If you can't attend the meeting, could you please send someone else in your place.

NOTE: Use a period only when you are sure that your reader is not likely to consider your request presumptuous.

b. If you are asking a favor or making a request that your reader may be unable or unwilling to grant, use a question mark at the end of the sentence. The question mark offers your reader a chance to say no to your request and helps to preserve the politeness of the situation.

May I ask a favor of you? Could you spare fifteen minutes to tell my son about career opportunities in your company?

Will you be able to have someone in your department help me on the Woonsocket project? Will you please handle the production reports for me while I'm away?

c. 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.

d. When you are addressing a request to someone who reports to you, you expect that person to comply. Therefore, a period can properly be used to punctuate such requests. However, since most people prefer to be *asked* to do something rather than be *told* to do it, a question mark establishes a nicer tone and often gets

better results. Consider using a question mark when your request to a subordinate involves something beyond the routine aspects of the job.

Will you please let me know what your vacation plans are for the month of August. (Routine request to a subordinate.)

May I ask that you avoid scheduling any vacation time during August this year? I will need your help in preparing next year's forecasts and budgets. (Special request to a subordinate. The question mark suggests that the writer is sensitive to the problems this request could cause.)

NOTE: If you are unwilling to give your subordinate the impression that your request allows for a yes-or-no answer, simply drop the attempt at politeness and issue a straightforward command.

I must ask that you not schedule any vacation time during August this year. I will need your help in preparing next year's forecasts and budgets.

At the End of an Indirect Question

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

Frank Wilcox has asked whether an exception can be made to our leave-of-absence policy.

The only question she asked was when the report had to be on your desk.

Why Janet Murray left the company so quickly has never been explained.

We know what needs to be done; the question is how to pay for 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

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. Set a tab one or two spaces after these periods in order to achieve an adequate visual break between the numbers or letters and the items that follow on the same line. If you use the automatic numbering feature in Microsoft Word, the program will position the numbers or letters at the left margin and start the text of each item and any turnover lines 0.25 inch from the left margin. (See ¶¶107, 199c, 222, 223, 1357d, 1424f, 1724–1726; for illustrations, see pages 539 and 541.)

NOTE: Do not use periods after bullets that introduce items in a displayed list. (See ¶¶1357e, 1424g.)

OR

107 a. Use periods after independent clauses, dependent clauses, or long phrases that are displayed on separate lines in a list. Also use periods after short phrases that are essential to the grammatical completeness of the statement introducing the list. (In the following example the three listed items are all objects of the preposition *on* in the introductory statement.)

Please get me year-end figures on:

- Domestic sales revenues.
- b. Total operating costs.
- Net operating income.

Please get me year-end figures on:

- · Domestic sales revenues.
- Total operating costs.
- Net operating income.

Part 1 • Grammar, Usage, and Style

¶108

NOTE: Avoid the following treatment of displayed lists:

You'll profit from inquiries through:

- 1. Your 800 number;
- 2. A reader service card; and
- A fax-on-demand service.

Please get me year-end figues on:

- Domestic sales revenues
- Total operating costs; anNet operating income.
- **b.** No periods are needed after short phrases in a list if the introductor statement is grammatically complete (as in the first example below) or if the isted items are like those on an inventory sheet or a shopping list.

The notebook computers in this price range offer the following features:

- · 366-MHz Pentium II processor
- 14.1" active-matrix color display
- 128 MB of RAM

When you next order office supplies, please include these items:

Copier toner

Fax paper

File folder labels for laser printers

Vith Headings

80

a. Use a period after a *run-in* heading (one that begins a paragraph ad is immediately followed by text matter on the same line) unless some other tark of punctuation, such as a question mark, is required.

Insuring Your Car. Automobile insurance is actually a package of six derent types of coverage. . . .

How Much Will It Cost? How much automobile insurance will cost you epends on your driving record, your age, and how much shopping . . .

b. Omit the period if the heading is *freestanding* (displayed on a lie by itself). However, retain a question mark or an exclamation point with afreestanding head if the wording requires it.

TAX-SAVING TECHNIQUES

Create Nontaxable Income

One of the easiest ways to reduce your tax bill is to invest in municipal onds. Since the interest payable on these bonds is nontaxable, investing in municipals has brome one of the most popular ways to avoid . . .

Is It Legal?

Investing your money so as to avoid taxes is perfectly legal. It is quite ferent from tax evasion, which is a deliberate attempt to . . .

NOTE: A period follows a run-in expression like *Table 6*, even thoug the heading as a whole is freestanding.

Table 6. SALARY RANGES Figure 2-4. Departmental Staff Needs

- c. When using a period or some other mark of punctuation after a runn heading or a run-in expression (like those illustrated in a and b above), leave one or two spaces after the punctuation mark as needed to achieve an adequativisual break at that point. (See ¶102.)
- > For the treatment of headings in reports and manuscripts, see ¶1425; fr the treatment of headings in tables, see ¶¶1617–1620.

A Few Don'ts

109 Don't use a period:

- a. After letters used to designate persons or things (for example, Client A, Class B, Grade C, Brand X). **EXCEPTION:** Use a period when the letter is the 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, David Weild III*). **EXCEPTION:** Periods follow roman numerals in an outline. (See ¶¶223, 1725–1726.)

> Periods with abbreviations: see ¶¶506-513, 515.

Periods with brackets: see ¶296.

Periods with dashes: see ¶¶213, 214a, 215a.

Periods with parentheses: see ¶¶224c, 225a, 225c, 226c.

Periods with quotation marks: see ¶¶247, 252, 253a, 257, 258, 259. Three spaced periods (ellipsis marks): see ¶¶274–280, 291, 299.

Spacing with periods: see ¶¶299, 1433e.

The Question Mark

To Indicate Direct Questions

a. Use a question mark at the end of a direct question. Leave one or two spaces between the question mark and the start of the next sentence. (See ¶102. For a summary of guidelines on spacing, see ¶299.)

Will you be able to meet with us after 5 p.m.?

Either way, how can we lose?

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.")

- \succ For the punctuation of indirect questions, see ¶¶104, 115–116.
- **b.** Use a question mark (or, for special emphasis, an exclamation point) after a *rhetorical question*, a question to which no reply is expected.

Who came up with the idea of replacing the term e-mail with e-pistle?

Who wouldn't snap up an opportunity like that? (See also ¶119b.)

Wouldn't you rather be stuck in the sands of Florida this winter than in the snowdrifts of New England?

Isn't it incredible that people could fall for a scheme like that?

OR: Isn't it incredible that people could fall for a scheme like that!

NOTE: If the first clause of a compound sentence is a rhetorical question and the second clause is a statement, use a period to end the sentence.

Why don't you look at the attached list of tasks, and then let's discuss which ones you would like to take on.

1111 a. Use a question mark at the end of an *elliptical* (condensed) *question*, that is, a word or phrase that represents a complete question.

Marion tells me that you are coming to the Bay Area. When? (The complete question is, "When are you coming?")

NOTE: When a single word like *how*, *when*, or *why* is woven into the flow of a sentence, capitalization and special punctuation are not usually required.

The questions we need to address at our next board meeting are not why or whether but how and when.

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

When will the job be finished? In a week or two?

(NOT: When will the job be finished in a week or two?)

Where shall we meet? At the airport? (With this punctuation, the writer allows for the possibility of meeting elsewhere.)

Where shall we meet at the airport? (With this punctuation, 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.

You expect me to believe this story? He still intends to proceed?

I'm correct in assuming you'll finish the job on schedule, aren't !? (The idiomatic expression aren't *I*—which uses a third person plural verb, are, with a first person singular pronoun, *I*—is acceptable in informal writing and speech. In formal situations use am *I* not.)

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

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

I can alter the terms of my will, can't I, whenever I wish?

We aren't obligated to attend the meeting, are we?

NOTE: Short questions falling within a sentence may also be set off with dashes or parentheses in place of commas. (See ¶¶214b, 224d.)

When a longer direct question comes at the end of a 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.

NOTE: In the following examples and in ¶116, notice how a simple shift in word order converts a direct question to an indirect question. When the verb precedes the subject (shall we, can we), the question is direct. When the verb follows the subject (we shall, we can), the question is indirect.

The key question is, Whom shall we nominate for next year's election?

This is the key question: Whom *shall we* nominate for next year's election? (Use a colon if the introductory material is an independent clause.)

BUT: We now come to the key question of whom we shall nominate for next year's election. (An indirect question requires no special punctuation or capitalization.)

OR: We now come to the key question of whom to nominate for next year's election.

When a longer direct question comes at the beginning of a sentence, it is 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. See §115, note.)

117 a. 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.

Who will be responsible for drafting the proposal, obtaining comments from all the interested parties, preparing the final version, and coordinating the distribution of copies? (As punctuated, this sentence implies that one person may be asked to perform all these tasks.)

ox: Who will be responsible for drafting the proposal? obtaining comments from all the interested parties? preparing the final version? coordinating the distribution of copies? (As punctuated, this sentence implies that different people may be asked to perform each of these tasks.)

NOTE: Leave one space after a question mark within a sentence and one or two spaces after a question mark at the end of a sentence. (See ¶102. For complete guidelines on spacing, see ¶299.)

b. The brief questions in *a* above are all related to the same subject and predicate *(Who will be responsible for)*. Do not confuse this type of sentence pattern with a series of independent questions. Each independent question starts with a capital letter and ends with a question mark.

Before you accept the job offer, think about the following: Will this job give you experience relevant to your real career goal? Will it permit you to keep abreast of the latest technology? Will it pay what you need?

NOTE: Leave one or two spaces after a question mark that marks the end of an independent question. (See ¶102. For complete guidelines on spacing, see ¶299.)

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

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

A question mark enclosed in parentheses may be used to express doubt or uncertainty about a word or phrase within a sentence. Do not insert any space before the opening parenthesis; leave one space after the closing parenthesis unless another mark of punctuation is required at that point.

He joined the firm after his graduation from Columbia Law School in 1999(?).

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

the explorer Verrazano (1485?-1528?)

➤ Question marks with dashes: see ¶¶214b, 215a.

Question marks with parentheses: see ¶¶224d, 225a, 225d, 226c.

Question marks with quotation marks: see ¶¶249, 252, 254, 257–259, 261.

Spacing with question marks: see ¶¶299, 1433e.

The Exclamation Point

The exclamation point is an emotional mark of punctuation that is most often found in sales and advertising copy. Like the word *very*, it loses its force when overused, so avoid using it wherever possible.

To Express Strong Feeling

a. 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. Leave one or two spaces between the exclamation point and the start of the next sentence. (See ¶102. For complete guidelines on spacing, see ¶299.)

Yes! We're selling our entire inventory below cost! Doors open at 9 a.m.!

No! I don't believe it! Hang in there! Incredible! Yesss!

b. An exclamation point may be used in place of a question mark to express strong feeling. (See also ¶110b.)

How could you do it! What made you think I'd welcome a call at 2:30 a.m.!

c. The exclamation point may be enclosed in parentheses and placed directly after a word that the writer wants to emphasize. Do not insert any space before the opening parenthesis, and leave one space after the closing parenthesis unless another mark of punctuation is required at that point.

We won exclusive(!) distribution rights in the Western Hemisphere.

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! Your summation at the trial was superb.

b. When a word is repeated for emphasis, an exclamation point should follow each repetition.

Going! Our bargains are almost gone!

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

Well, well, things could be worse.

No. I won't accept those conditions.

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 capital *O*, the sign of direct address, is not usually followed by any punctuation.

Oh! I didn't expect that!

Oh, what's the use?

O Lord, help me!

O America, where are you headed?

> Exclamation point with dashes: see ¶¶214b, 215a.

Exclamation point with parentheses: see ¶¶224d, 225a, 225d, 226c.

Exclamation point with quotation marks: see ¶¶249, 252, 254, 257–259, 261.

Spacing with exclamation points: see ¶¶299, 1433e.

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. Two commas are typically needed to set off, but only a single comma is needed to separate.

The following paragraphs (¶¶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: Let's get the advice of Harry Stern, who has in-depth experience with all types of personal computers. (When a specific person is named, the who clause provides welcome but nonessential information.)

ESSENTIAL: Let's get the advice of someone who has in-depth experience with all types of personal computers. (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

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: Finch and Helwig would prefer, therefore, to limit the term of the agreement to two years.

ESSENTIAL: Finch and Helwig would therefore prefer to limit the term of the agreement to two

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

We can deliver the car on the day of your husband's birthday or, if you wish, on the Saturday before then. (When this sentence is read aloud, notice how the voice drops on the nonessential expression if you wish.)

They have sufficient assets, don't they, to cover these losses?

Let's take advantage of the special price and order, say, 200 reams this quarter instead of our usual quantity of 75.

Mary Cabrera, rather than George Spengler, has been appointed head of the New Albany office. BUT: Mary Cabrera has been appointed head of the New Albany office rather than George Spengler. (The phrase is not set off when it does not interrupt.)

Continued on page 14

b. Afterthoughts. Use commas to set off words, phrases, or clauses loosely added onto the end of a sentence. (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 and Independent Comments. Use commas to set off transitional expressions (like however, therefore, on the other hand) and independent comments (like obviously, in my opinion, of course) when they interrupt the flow of the sentence. Do not set these elements off, however, when they are used to emphasize the meaning; the voice goes up in such cases. In the examples that follow, consider how the voice drops when the expression is nonessential and how it rises when the expression is essential. (See also ¶¶138–143.)

NONESSENTIAL: We are determined, nevertheless, to finish on schedule.

ESSENTIAL: We are nevertheless determined to finish on schedule.

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*.)

d. Descriptive Expressions. When descriptive expressions *follow* the words they refer to and provide additional but nonessential information, use commas to set them off. (See also ¶¶148–153.)

NONESSENTIAL: His most recent article, "How to Make a Profit With High-Tech Investments," appeared in the June 1 issue of Forbes. (His most recent indicates which article is meant; the title gives additional but nonessential information.)

ESSENTIAL: The article "How to Make a Profit With High-Tech Investments" appeared in the June 1 issue of Forbes. (Here the title is needed to indicate which article is meant.)

NONESSENTIAL: Thank you for your letter of April 12, in which you questioned our discount terms. (The date indicates which letter; the in which clause gives additional information. See also §152.)

ESSENTIAL: Thank you for your letter *in which you questioned our discount terms.* (Here the *in which* clause is needed to indicate which letter is meant.)

- e. Dates. Use commas to set off the year in complete dates (for example, Sunday, June 1, 2003, . . .). (See also ¶¶154-155.)
- f. Names. Use commas to set off abbreviations that follow a person's name (Julie Merkin, Ph.D., announces the opening...) and to set off names of states or countries following city names (Rye, New York, will host...). In personal names and company names, the trend is not to set off elements like Jr., Sr., III, Inc., or Ltd. (for example, Guy Tracy Jr. and Redd Inc.); however, individual preferences should be respected when known. (See also ¶156-160.)

Basic Rules for Commas That Separate

123 Use a single comma:

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.)

We can't accept the marketing restrictions you proposed, but we think there is some basis for a mutually acceptable understanding.

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 modify the same noun. (See also ¶¶168-171.)

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

d. To separate the digits of numbers into groups of thousands.

Sales projections for the Southern Region next year range between \$900,000 and \$1,000,000.

NOTE: The comma is now commonly omitted in four-digit whole numbers (1000 through 9999) except in columns with larger numbers that require commas. (See also ¶461.)

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 here helps the reader cope with the unusual word order; it separates the object, *What will happen*, from the subject, *we*, which follows.)

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

Yes, we can. Well, that depends. (Introductory words.)

Taking all the arguments into consideration, we have decided to modernize these facilities rather than close them down. (Introductory participial phrase.)

To determine the proper mix of ingredients for a particular situation, see the table on page 141. (Introductory infinitive phrase.)

Before we can make a final decision, we will need to run another cost-profit analysis. (Introductory dependent clause.)

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 reports must be on my desk by Friday.

BUT: Please remember that all . . . (When that is added, 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 2004

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.

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(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 adverb telling when; no comma needed.)

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

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

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

- 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.

The person she plans to hire for the job/ is Peter Crotty.

BUT: The person she plans to hire for the job, *I believe*, is Peter Crotty. (Use *two* commas to set off an interrupting expression.)

Whether profits can be improved this year/ depends on several key variables. (Noun clause as subject.)

BUT: Anyone who contributes, contributes to a most worthy cause. (In special cases like this, a comma may be required for clarity. See also §175b.)

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

The test mailing has not produced/ the results we were hoping for. (Verb and object.)

Mrs. Paterra will be the company's new director of marketing. (Verb and complement.)

The equipment is/ easy to operate, inexpensive to maintain, and built to give reliable service for many years. (Verb and complement.)

Rebecca Hingham said/ that the research data would be on your desk by Monday morning. (Noun clause as object.)

BUT: Rebecca Hingham said, "The research data will be on your desk by Monday morning." (A comma ordinarily follows a verb when the object is a direct quotation. See also ¶256.)

The question we really need to address is, *Do we have a better solution to propose?* (A comma also follows a verb when the object or complement is a direct question. See also ¶115.)

c. Do not separate an adjective from a noun that follows it.

The project requires a highly motivated, research-oriented, cost-conscious/ manager.

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 the draft of the division's medium-range plan now or/ when you get home tonight. **BUT:** You can read the draft of the division's medium-range plan now or, if you prefer, when you get home tonight. (Use two commas to set off an interrupting expression.)

f. Do not separate *two* words or phrases that are joined by a coordinating conjunction.

These letters/ and those from Mr. Day should be shown to Ann Poe. (Two subjects.) I have read Ms. Berkowitz's proposal/ 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 noun clauses serving as objects of the verb hope.)

The CEO plans to visit the Western Region/ and call personally on the large accounts that have stopped doing business with us. (Two infinitive phrases serving as objects of the verb plans.) 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

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

> Mrs. Fenster noticed a small discrepancy in the figures, and on that basis she decided to reanalyze the data.

> BUT: Mrs. Fenster noticed a small discrepancy in the figures and on that basis decided to reanalyze the data. (See ¶127a-b.)

Show this proposal to Mr. Florio, and ask him for his reaction. (See ¶127c.)

Either we step up our promotion efforts, or we must be content with our share of the market. Not only were we the developers of this process, but we were the first to apply it successfully.

b. For special effect, the comma before the coordinating conjunction can be replaced by a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point. The coordinating conjunction is then capitalized, and the second independent clause is treated as a separate sentence. However, this treatment, if overused, can lose its effectiveness very quickly. (See page 284 for a usage note on and.)

Is it self-confidence that makes you successful? Or is it success that makes you self-confident? I told Callahan that we would not reorder unless he cut his prices by 20 percent. And he did.

NOTE: Do not insert a comma directly after the coordinating conjunction unless a parenthetical element begins at that point.

I told Callahan that we would not reorder unless he cut his prices by 20 percent. And, to my total amazement, he did.

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

Bob can deal with the caterer, Nora can handle publicity, and I can take care of the rest.

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

Barbara just got her master's, and she is now looking for a job in sales.

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.

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Barbara just got her master's and is now looking for a job in sales. (When she is omitted from the previous example, the sentence becomes a simple sentence with a compound predicate.) Ogleby not only wants a higher discount but also demands faster turnarounds on his orders. (Compound predicate: no comma before but.)

BUT: Ogleby not only wants a higher discount, but he also demands faster turnarounds on his orders. (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.

 $Please\ look$ at the brochure I have enclosed, and then get back to me if you have additional questions.

You may not be able to get away right now, but do plan to stay with us whenever you find the time.

Call Ellen Chen sometime next week, and ask her whether she will speak at our conference next fall.

BUT: Call Ellen Chen and ask her whether she will speak at our conference next fall. (Omit the comma if either clause is short. See ¶129.)

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.

We can bill you on our customary terms or, *if you prefer*, can offer you our new deferred payment plan. (Interrupting expression requires two commas.)

We can bill you on our customary terms, or *if you prefer,* we can offer you our new deferred payment plan. (Introductory expression requires one comma.)

Frank Bruchman <u>went into the boardroom</u> and, *without consulting his notes*, <u>proceeded to give</u> the directors precise details about our financial situation. (Interrupting expression.)

Frank Bruchman went into the boardroom, and without consulting his notes, he proceeded to give the directors precise details about our financial situation. (Introductory expression.)

➤ See also ¶¶131c, 136a, 142.

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. (See ¶¶176, 187, 204–205.)

wrong: Please review these spreadsheets quickly, I need them back tomorrow.

RIGHT: Please review these spreadsheets quickly; I need them back tomorrow.

on: Please review these spreadsheets quickly. I need them back tomorrow.

129 If either clause of a compound sentence is short, the comma may be omitted before the conjunction.

Their prices are low and their service is efficient.

Please initial these forms and return them by Monday.

 $\underline{\text{Consider leasing}}$ and see whether it costs less in the long run than buying.

Consider whether leasing costs more than buying and then decide.

NOTE: Make sure that the omission of a comma does not lead to confusion.

CLEAR: Please don't litter, and recycle whenever possible.

CONFUSING: Please don't litter and recycle whenever possible. (Without a comma after *litter*, the sentence could seem to be saying, "... and please don't recycle whenever possible.")

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.)

130 Introductory Dependent Clauses

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

If they had invested more carefully, they could have avoided bankruptcy.

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 preceding example.)

b. Be sure you can 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. Do not use a comma after an introductory clause when it serves as the *subject* of a sentence.

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

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

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

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

Whatever Helen decides to do is no concern of mine. (Introductory clause as subject.)

BUT: Whatever Helen decides to do, she needs some professional advice. (Introductory clause as adverb.)

d. Sentences like those shown in a-c 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 a-c.

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.)

I think that when you read the Weissberg study, you will gain a new perspective on the situation. Harry says that whenever possible, he leaves his office by six.

Everyone knows that whomever you nominate will have my support in the next election.

BUT: 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.

The person who used to be Englund's operations manager is now doing the same job for Jenniman Brothers. (Tells which person.)

The Pennington bid arrived after we had made our decision. (Tells when.)

Damato's suggestion that we submit the issue to arbitration may be the only sensible alternative. (Tells which of Damato's suggestions is meant.)

Mrs. Foy said that she would send us an advance program. (Tells what was said.)

Compare these examples with those in b below.

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.

George Pedersen, who used to be Englund's operations manager, is now doing the same job for Jenniman Brothers. (The name indicates which person; the who clause simply gives additional information.)

The Pennington bid arrived on Tuesday, after we had made our decision. (Tuesday tells when; the after clause simply adds information.)

Damato's latest suggestion, that we submit the issue to arbitration, may be the only sensible alternative. (Latest tells which suggestion is meant; the that clause is not essential.)

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

We can review the wording of the announcement over lunch or, if your time is short, over the phone.

Please tell us when you plan to be in town and, if possible, where you will be staying. (The complete dependent clause is if it is possible.)

Senator Hemphill, when offered the chance to refute his opponent's charges, said he would respond at a time of his own choosing.

Ann Kourakis is the type of person who, when you need help badly, will be the first to volunteer. If, when you have weighed the alternatives, you choose one of the models that cost over \$500, we can arrange special credit terms for you.

BUT: He said that *if we choose one of the models that cost over \$500*, his firm can arrange special credit terms for us. (See ¶130d for dependent clauses following *he said that, she knows that,* and similar expressions.)

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 that follow.

After. ESSENTIAL: His faxed response came after you left last evening. (Tells when.)

NONESSENTIAL: His faxed response 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 his defeat in the last election.
- **Although, even though, and though. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL:** She has typed her letter of resignation, *although I do not believe she will submit it.*
- 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 285 for a usage note on as.)

- As . . . as. ALWAYS ESSENTIAL: He talked as persuasively at the meeting as he did over the telephone. (See page 285 for a usage note on as . . . as.)
- As if and as though. ESSENTIAL: She drove as if (or as though) the road were a minefield. (The as if clause tells how she drove.)

NONESSENTIAL: She drove cautiously, as if (or as though) the road were a minefield. (The adverb cautiously tells how she drove; 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.)

NOTE: See how the use or omission of a comma in the following sentences affects the meaning: I'm not taking that course of action, because I distrust Harry's recommendations. **BUT:** I'm not taking that course of action because I distrust Harry's recommendations. (I based my decision on another reason altogether.)

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 shipment was sent; the *before* clause provides additional but nonessential information.)

Even though. See Although.

For. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: Jim needs to raise money quickly, for his tuition bill has to be paid by next Friday. (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 *in order that a makeup examination may be scheduled.* **NONESSENTIAL:** Please notify your instructor 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 store manager says.

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- None of which. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL: We received five boxes of samples, none of which are in good condition.
- **None of whom. ALWAYS NONESSENTIAL:** We have interviewed ten applicants, *none of whom were satisfactory.*
- **Not so . . . as. ALWAYS ESSENTIAL:** The second copy was *not so* clear *as* the first one. (See page 285 for a usage note on *as . . . as—not so . . . as.*)
- Since. ESSENTIAL: We have taken no applications since we received your memo.

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

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.

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. When used as a relative pronoun, *that* refers to things; it also refers to persons when a class or type is meant.

ALWAYS ESSENTIAL: Here is a picture of the plane that I own. She is the candidate that I prefer. (See also §1062.)

When used as a subordinating conjunction, that links the dependent clause it introduces with the main clause.

ALWAYS ESSENTIAL: We know that we will have to make cuts in the budget. (See page 306 for a usage note on that.)

Though. See Although.

Unless. ESSENTIAL: This product line will be discontinued *unless customers begin to show an interest in it.*

NONESSENTIAL: I plan to work on the Aspen proposal all through the weekend, *unless Cindy comes into town.* (Clause added loosely as an afterthought.)

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 his vacation.

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 cover urban areas only, whereas those for this year include rural areas as well. (Clause of contrast.)
- **Which.** Use *which* (rather than *who*) when referring to animals, things, and ideas. Always use *which* (instead of *that*) to introduce nonessential clauses.

The revised report, which was done by Mark, is very impressive.

NOTE: Which may also be used to introduce essential clauses. (See ¶1062b, note.)

While. ESSENTIAL: The union has decided not to strike while negotiations are still going on. (Here while means "during the time that.")

NONESSENTIAL: The workers at the Apex Company have struck, while those at the Powers Company are still at work. (Here while means "whereas.")

Who. ESSENTIAL: All students who are members of the Backpackers Club will be leaving for Maine on Friday.

NONESSENTIAL: John Behnke, who is a member of the Backpackers Club, will be leading a group on a weekend trip to Maine.

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 was awarded to the employee *whose suggestion yielded the greatest cost savings.*

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

With Clauses in Compound-Complex Sentences

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.

The computer terminals were not delivered until June 12, five weeks after the promised delivery date, and *when I wrote to complain to your sales manager*, it took another three weeks simply for him to acknowledge my letter. (No comma precedes *when* because the *when* clause is considered an introductory expression, not an interrupting expression. See ¶127d.)

Jeff Adler, the CEO of Marshfield & Duxbury, is eager to discuss a joint venture with my boss, who is off on a six-week trip to the Far East, but the earliest date I see open for such a meeting is Wednesday, October 20.

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.)

When a sentence starts with a dependent clause that applies to both independent clauses that follow, do not use a comma to separate the independent clauses. (A comma would make the introductory dependent clause seem to apply only to the first independent clause.)

Before you start to look for venture capital, you need to prepare an analysis of the market *and* you must make a detailed set of financial projections. (The *before* clause applies equally to the two independent clauses that follow; hence no comma before *and*.)

BUT: Before you start to look for venture capital, you need to prepare an analysis of the market, *but* don't think that's all there is to it. (The *before* clause applies only to the first independent clause; hence a comma is used before *but*.)

With Participial, Infinitive, and Prepositional Phrases 135 Introductory Phrases

a. Use a comma after an introductory participial phrase.

Seizing the opportunity, I presented an overview of our medium-range plans.

Established in 1905, our company takes great pride in its reputation for high-quality products.

Having checked the statements myself, I feel confident that they are accurate.

NOTE: Watch out for phrases that look like introductory participial phrases but actually serve as 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 that you can use. (Participial phrase used as an introductory element; the subject is *I*.)

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 part of the predicate; the subject is a presentation by Ms. Paley.)

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

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

To get the best results from your dishwasher, follow the printed directions. (The subject you is understood.)

To have displayed the goods more effectively, he should have consulted a lighting specialist. (The subject is he.)

BUT: To have displayed the goods more effectively would have required a lighting specialist. (Infinitive phrase used as subject.)

c. As a general rule, 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 analyzing each situation.)

In response to the many requests of our customers, we are opening a branch in Kenmore Square. (Comma required after a long phrase.)

In 1999 our entire inventory was destroyed by fire. (No comma required after a short phrase.)

BUT: In 1999, 384 cases of pneumonia were reported. (Comma required to separate two numbers. See $\P456$.)

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 6 percent city sales tax must be imposed. (Comma required after a short phrase used as a transitional expression. See $\|\|138a, 139.\|$

In my opinion, your ads are misleading as they now appear. (Comma required after a short phrase used as an independent comment. See $\|\|138b, 139.\|$

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

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.)

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

Out of an initial investment of \$5000 came a stake that is currently worth over \$2,500,000. (Normal word order: A stake that is currently worth over \$2,500,000 came out of an initial investment of \$5000.)

In an article I read in <u>Time</u> was an account of his trip. (Omit the comma after the introductory phrase when the verb in the main clause immediately follows.)

BUT: In an article I read in Time, there was an account . . .

d. When a compound sentence starts with a phrase that applies to both independent clauses, do not use a comma to separate the two clauses if doing so would make the introductory phrase seem to apply only to the first clause. (See also ¶134.)

In response to the many requests of our customers, we are opening a branch in Kenmore Square and we are extending our evening hours in all our stores.

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 ¶127d.)

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

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

Last year we had a number of thefts, and *in 1999* 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.

Pamela is the type of person who, in the midst of disaster, always finds something to laugh about. If, in the attempt to push matters to a resolution, you offer that gang new terms, they will simply dig in their heels and refuse to bargain.

137 Phrases Elsewhere in the Sentence

When a participial, infinitive, or prepositional phrase occurs at some point other than the beginning of a sentence (see $\P135$) or the beginning of a clause (see $\P136$), 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. Do not use commas to set it off.
 - The catalog scheduled for release in November will have to be delayed until January. (Participial.) The decision to expand our export activities has led to a significant increase in profits. (Infinitive.) The search for a new general manager is still going on. (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.

This new collection of essays, written in the last two years before his death, represents his most distinguished work. (Participial.)

I'd rather not attend her reception, to be frank about it. (Infinitive.)

Morale appears to be much better, on the whole. (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 ($\P\P138-161$) deal with the various uses of commas to set off nonessential expressions. See also $\P\P201-202$ and $\P\P218-219$ for the use of dashes and parentheses to set off these expressions.

With Transitional Expressions and Independent Comments

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 to the idea now being introduced. They express such notions as:

ADDITION: additionally (see page 282), 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, in any 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

GENERALIZING: as a rule, as usual, for the most part, generally, generally

speaking, in general, ordinarily, usually

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

CONTRAST AND COMPARISON: by contrast, by the same token, conversely, instead, likewise,

on one hand, on the contrary, on the other hand, rather, simi-

larly, yet (see ¶¶139b, 179)

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

any case, in any event, nevertheless, still, this fact notwith-

standing

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, respectively, second.

then (see ¶139b), to begin with

DIVERSION: by the by, by the way, incidentally

ILLUSTRATION: for example, for instance, for one thing

NOTE: The coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but*, *or*, and *nor* are sometimes used as transitional expressions at the beginning of a sentence. (See ¶126b.)

- > For the punctuation of transitional expressions depending on where they occur in a sentence, see ¶¶139–142.
- b. Use commas to set off independent comments, nonessential words or phrases that express the writer's attitude toward the meaning of the sentence. By means of these independent comments, writers indicate that what they are about to say carries their wholehearted endorsement (indeed, by all means) or deserves only their lukewarm support (apparently, presumably) or hardly requires saying (as you already know, clearly, obviously) or represents only their personal views (in my opinion, personally) or arouses some emotion in them (unfortunately, happily) or presents their 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.

III

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

DENIAL: NO

REGRET: alas, unfortunately, regrettably

PLEASURE: fortunately, happily

QUALIFICATION: ideally, if necessary, if possible, literally, strictly speaking,

theoretically, hopefully (see page 295)

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, well

> For the punctuation of independent comments depending on where they occur in a sentence, see ¶¶139–142.

139 At the Beginning of a Sentence

a. When the words and phrases listed in ¶138a-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 to see whether you interpret it as I do.

ESSENTIAL: However you look at the letter, there is only one interpretation.

NONESSENTIAL: Obviously, the guest of honor was quite moved by the welcome she received. (Here obviously modifies the meaning of the sentence as a whole.)

ESSENTIAL: Obviously moved by the welcome she received, the guest of honor spoke with an emotion-choked voice. (Here obviously modifies moved.)

b. When *hence*, *then*, *thus*, *so*, or *yet* 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 they thought it wise to get an outside consultant's opinion.

Then they decided to go back to their original plan.

BUT: Then, after they rejected the consultant's recommendation, they decided to go back to their original plan.

- ➤ Sée 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 I can handle it.

No doubt he meant well.

Perhaps she was joking. Indeed she was not.

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: Philip goes to every employee reception, of course.

ESSENTIAL: Philip goes to every employee reception as a matter *of course*.

NONESSENTIAL: The deal is going to fall through, in my opinion.

ESSENTIAL: She doesn't rank very high in my opinion.

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.

I, too, was not expecting a six-month convalescence.

The doctors tell me, however, that I will regain full use of my left leg.

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

NONESSENTIAL: Let me say, to begin with, that I think very 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.

We concluded, nevertheless, that their offer was not serious.

Millie understands, certainly, that the reassignment is only temporary.

It is critical, therefore, that we rework all these cost estimates.

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

We nevertheless concluded that their offer was not serious.

Millie *certainly* understands that the reassignment is only temporary.

It is therefore critical that we rework all these cost estimates.

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 way you want the sentence to be read, then commas around *therefore* are correct.)

It is, therefore, critical that we rework all these cost estimates.

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 would love to work in a side trip to Vail; however, I don't think I can pull it off.

My boss just approved the purchase; therefore, let's confirm a delivery date.

In sentences like the two above, a period may be used in place of a semicolon. The words *however* and *therefore* would then be capitalized to mark the start of a new sentence, and they would be followed by a comma.

NOTE: When hence, then, thus, or so 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. (See also ¶139b.)

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

BUT: Melt the butter over high heat; then, when the foam begins to subside, add the egg.

> For the use of a semicolon before a transitional expression, see ¶¶178–180.

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 location of the plant was not easy to reach, and to be honest about it, I wasn't very taken with the people who interviewed me.

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

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*, the comma following the expression is usually omitted. (See also ¶180.)

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

All the general managers have been summoned to a three-day meeting at the home office, and consequently I have had to reschedule all my meetings.

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 deadline, we have the right to cancel the contract.

If indeed they want to settle the dispute, why don't we suggest that they submit 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 feel that way too, why don't we just drop all further negotiation?

They are after a bigger share of the market 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, could be in the Caribbean right now.

Then, too, there are the additional taxes to be considered.

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

The news is almost too good to be believed.

With Interruptions and Afterthoughts

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.

Pam is being pursued, so I've been told, by three headhunters.

Bob spoke on state-of-the-art financial software, if I remember correctly.

Our order processing service, you must admit, leaves much to be desired.

His research work has been outstanding, particularly in the field of ergonomics.

➤ 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 cheapest way, to proceed.

RIGHT: That is the best, though not the cheapest, way to proceed.

WRONG: This book is better written, *though less exciting than*, her last book. **RIGHT:** This book is better written, *though less exciting*, than her last book.

wrong: Glen has a deep interest in, as well as a great fondness, for jazz.

RIGHT: Glen has a deep interest in, as well as a great fondness for, jazz.

WRONG: Her work is as good, if not better than, that of the man she replaced.

RIGHT: Her work is as good as, *if not better than*, that of the man she replaced. (Note that the second *as* is needed to preserve the meaning of the basic sentence.)

With Direct Address

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

No, sir, that is privileged information. I count on your support, Bob.

We agree, Mrs. Connolly, that your order was badly handled.

With Additional Considerations

a. When a phrase introduced by as well as, in addition to, besides, along with, including, accompanied by, together with, plus, or a similar expression falls between the subject and the verb, it is ordinarily set off by commas. Commas may be omitted, however, if the phrase fits smoothly into the flow of the sentence or is essential to the meaning.

Everyone, including the top corporate managers, will be required to attend the in-house seminars on the ethical dimensions of business.

The business plan *including strategies for the new market segments we hope to enter* is better than the other plans I have reviewed. (The *including* phrase is needed to distinguish this plan from the others; hence no commas.)

One *plus one* doesn't always equal two, as we have seen in the Parker-Jackel merger. (The *plus* phrase is essential to the meaning; hence no commas.)

Jo as well as Nina should be invited to participate. (The as well as phrase fits smoothly in this sentence.)

- > For the effect these phrases have on the choice of a singular or a plural verb, see \$\pi 1007\$; for a usage note on as well as, see page 286.
- **b.** When the phrase occurs elsewhere in the sentence, commas may be omitted if the phrase is closely related to the preceding words.

The refinancing terms have been approved by the trustees as well as the creditors.

BUT: I attended the international monetary conference in Bermuda, together with five associates from our Washington office.

With Contrasting Expressions

Use commas to set off contrasting expressions. (Such expressions often begin with but, not, or rather than.)

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

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

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.

It was a busy *but enjoyable* trip. They have chosen Paula *rather than Al.* The unit managers *and not the CEO* have to make those decisions. (See §1006b.)

> For the punctuation of balancing expressions, see ¶172d.

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.

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.

Harriet McManus, an independent real estate broker for the past ten years, will be joining our agency on Tuesday, October 1. (Phrases such as those following Harriet McManus and Tuesday are appositives.)

Acrophobia, that is, the fear of great heights, can now be successfully treated. (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 copywriter for six years, will be our new copy chief.

Everyone in our family likes outdoor sports, such as tennis and swimming. (See ¶149, note.)

NOTE: In some cases other 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 a separate 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 ¶¶183, 202, 219.)

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 2003 marks the one hundredth anniversary of our company.

The word liaison is often misspelled.

The novelist Anne Tyler gave a reading last week from a work in progress.

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.

NOTE: Compare the following sets 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 had 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.)

Everyone in our family likes such outdoor sports as tennis and swimming. (The phrase as tennis and swimming is essential; without it, the reader would not know which outdoor sports were meant.)

Everyone in our family likes outdoor sports, such as tennis and swimming. (The main clause, Everyone in our family likes outdoor sports, expresses a complete thought; the phrase such as tennis and swimming gives additional but nonessential information. Hence a comma is needed before such as.)

Words *such as peak, peek, and pique* can be readily confused. (The *such as* phrase is essential; it indicates which words are meant.)

A number of Fortune 500 companies, *such as GE, TRW, and DuPont*, have introduced new programs to motivate their middle managers. (The *such as* phrase provides additional but nonessential information.)

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.)

After a while Gladys herself became disenchanted with the Washington scene.

We legislators must provide funds for retraining displaced workers.

My wife Eve has begun her own consulting business. (Strictly speaking, Eve should be set off by commas, since the name is not needed to indicate which wife. However, commas are omitted in expressions like these because they are read as a unit.)

BUT: Eve, *my wife*, has begun her own consulting business. (When the word order is changed, the phrase *Eve, my wife* is no longer read as a unit. Hence commas are needed to set off *my wife*.)

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 . . .

If you want some solid advice, 101 Ways to Power Up Your Job Search by J. Thomas Buck, William R. Matthews, and Robert N. Leech could be just the book for you. (Unless there is another book with the same title, the by phrase identifying the authors is not essential and, strictly speaking, should be set off by commas. However, since a book title and a by phrase are typically read as a unit, commas are usually omitted.)

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

Determine whether the clauses are coordinate, *or of equal rank*. (The nonessential *or* phrase may also be set off by parentheses.)

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

Determine whether the clauses are coordinate or noncoordinate.

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

Thank you for your letter of February 27, in which you questioned the balance on your account. (The date is sufficient to identify which letter is meant; the in which clause simply provides additional but nonessential information. Of course, if one received more than one letter with the same date from the same person, the in which clause would be essential and the comma would be omitted.)

No comma is needed after the date if the following phrase is short and closely related.

Thank you for your letter of February 27 about the balance on your account.

NOTE: Under certain circumstances—for example, around the end of the year—it is better to provide the full date rather than the month and day alone.

Thank you for your letter of December 27, 2000, in which . . .

> For a full discussion of this issue, see ¶409.

With Residence and Business Connections

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

Gary Kendall, of the Van Houten Corporation in Provo, Utah, will be visiting us next week.

Gary Kendall *of Provo, Utah,* will be visiting us next week. (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. See also ¶160.)

Gary Kendall of the Van Houten Corporation will be visiting us next week. (Short phrase; no commas.)

Gary Kendall of Provo will be visiting us next week. (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. These elements cannot truly be called nonessential, but the traditional style is to set them off with commas.

In Dates

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

On October 31, 2002, I plan to retire and open a bookshop in Maine.

The July 5, 1999, issue of *Business Week* predicted that e-commerce, the source of \$301 billion in revenues the previous year, would continue to produce fundamental changes in the U.S. economy and generate much of its future growth.

b. When the month, day, and year are used as a nonessential expression, be sure to set the entire phrase off with commas.

The conference scheduled to begin on Monday, November 26, 2001, has now been rescheduled to start on February 6, 2002.

Payment of estimated income taxes for the fourth quarter of 2002 will be due no later than Wednesday, *January 15, 2003*.

155 Omit the commas when only the month and year are given.

In *August 2000* Glen and I dissolved our partnership and went our independent ways. Isn't it about time for *Consumer Reports* to update the evaluation of printers that appeared in the *March 1999* issue?

> For additional examples involving dates, see ¶410.

With Jr., Sr., Etc.

Do not use commas to set off Jr, Sr, or roman or arabic numerals following a person's name unless you know that the person in question prefers to do so.

Kelsey R. Patterson Jr.

Christopher M. Gorman Sr.

Benjamin Hart 2d

Anthony Jung III

John Bond Jr.'s resignation will be announced tomorrow.

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

Peter Passaro, Jr. (Use one comma when the name is displayed on a line by itself.)

Peter Passaro, Jr., director of . . . (Use two commas when other copy follows.)

Peter Passaro, Jr.'s promotion... (Drop the second comma when a possessive ending is attached.)

Abbreviations like *Esq.* and those that stand for academic degrees or religious orders are set off by two commas when they follow a person's name.

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.

Do not use commas to set off *Inc.*, *Ltd.*, and similar expressions in a company name unless you know that a particular company prefers to do so. (See also ¶¶1328–1329.)

Time Inc. Field Hats, Ltd.

Time Inc. has expanded its operations beyond magazine publishing.

Field Hats, Ltd., should be notified about this mistake.

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

Alwyn & Hyde, Inc. (Use one comma when the name is displayed on a line by itself.)

Alwyn & Hyde, Inc., announces the publication of . . . (Use two commas when other copy follows.)

Alwyn & Hyde, Inc.'s annual statement . . . (Drop the second comma when a possessive ending is attached.)

> For the use of commas with other parts of a company name, see ¶163.

In Geographic References and Addresses

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

Four years ago I was transferred from Bartlesville, Oklahoma, to Bern, Switzerland.

The MIT Press is located in Cambridge, Massachusetts, not Cambridge, England.

Could Pickaway County, Ohio, become a haven for retired editors?

Our Pierre, South Dakota, office is the one nearest to you.

OR: Our Pierre (South Dakota) office is the one nearest to you. (Parentheses are clearer than commas when a city-state expression serves as an adjective.)

Washington, D.C.'s transportation system has improved greatly since I was last there. (Omit the second comma after a possessive ending.)

NOTE: In sentences that mention one or more cities, omit the state or country names if the cities are well known and are clearly linked with only one state or country.

We'll be holding meetings in Atlanta, Baltimore, and Chicago.

My agent has arranged for me to address groups of business executives in Oslo, Stockholm, and Copenhagen later this year.

161 When expressing complete addresses, follow this style:

IN SENTENCES: During the month of September you can send all documents directly to me at 402 Woodbury Road, Pasadena, CA 91104, or you can ask my assistant to forward it. (Note that a comma does not precede the ZIP Code but follows it in this sentence to indicate the end of the first independent clause.)

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

162 a. 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 ¶126c.)

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 page 284 for a usage note on and.)

Only this software lets you fax, transfer files, exchange e-mail, access the Internet, and manage phone calls—all from one window on your computer.

NOTE: Some writers prefer to omit the comma before *and*, *or*, or *nor* in a series, but the customary practice in business is to retain the comma before the conjunction.

b. If a nonessential element follows the conjunction (and, or, or nor) in a series, omit the comma before the conjunction to avoid excessive punctuation.

We invited Ben's business associates, his friends and, of course, his parents.

(RATHER THAN: ... his friends, and, of course, his parents.)

For a series in an organization's name, always follow the style preferred by that organization.

Merrill Lynch, Pierce, Fenner & Smith Inc.

Morgan Stanley Dean Witter & Co.

Legg Mason Wood Walker, Inc.

If you do not have the organization's letterhead or some other reliable resource at hand, follow the standard rule on commas in a series (see ¶162).

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

NOTE: Do not use a comma before an ampersand (&) in an organization's name unless you know that a particular organization prefers to do so.

Aspinwall, Bromley, Carruthers & Dalgleish

When an expression such as *and so on* or *etc.* closes a series, use a comma before and after the expression (except 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.

> For a usage note on etc., see page 291.

Do not insert a comma after the last item in a series unless the sentence structure demands a comma at that point.

May 8, June 11, and July 14 are the dates for the next three hearings.

May 8, June 11, and July 14, 2003, are the dates for the next three hearings. (The comma after 2003 is one of the pair that sets off the year. See ¶154.)

When and, or, or nor is used to connect all the items in a series, do not separate the items by commas. (See also ¶123b.)

Send copies to our employees and stockholders and major customers.

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

We can send the samples to you by regular mail or by one of the express services.

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

> For the use of semicolons in a series, see ¶¶184–185.

With Adjectives

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

Jean is 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.

Jean is a generous and outgoing person.

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.)

Here is 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.)

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

You can purchase any of these printers with a *low down* payment. (In this case the adjective *low* modifies a compound noun, *down payment*.)

To put it gently but plainly, I think Jason is a *low-down* scoundrel. (In this case *low-down* is a compound adjective and requires a hyphen to connect *low* and *down*. See ¶¶813–832 for a discussion of compound adjectives.)

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

a relaxed, unruffled, confident manner (a relaxed and unruffled and confident manner) an experienced, efficient legal assistant (an experienced and efficient legal assistant) the established American political system (and cannot be inserted between these three adjectives)

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

I put in a long, hard, demanding day on Monday.

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

To Indicate Omitted Words

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

Employees aged 55 and over are eligible for a complete physical examination every year; those between 50 and 54, every two years; and those under 50, every three years.

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

Employees aged 55 and over are eligible for a complete physical examination every year, those between 50 and 54 every two years, and those under 50 every three years.

b. Omission of *That*. In some sentences the omission of the conjunction *that* creates a definite break in the flow of the sentence. In such cases insert a comma to mark the break.

Remember, this offer is good only through May 31.

The problem is, not all of these assumptions may be correct.

The fact is, things are not working out as we had hoped.

Chances are, the deal will never come off.

NOTE: In sentences that are introduced by expressions such as *he said*, *she thinks*, we feel, or they know, the conjunction that is often omitted following the introductory expression. In such cases no comma is necessary because there is no break in the flow of the sentence.

We know you can do it.

They think our price is too high.

She said she would handle everything.

We believe we offer the best service.

c. Omission of Some Other Connective. In some sentences the omission of a preposition or some other connective creates a break in the flow of the sentence. In such cases insert a comma to mark the break.

NOT: Our store is open from 9:30 a.m. to 6 p.m. Monday through Friday. (The omission of a connective before *Monday* creates a break.)

BUT: Our store is open from 9:30 a.m. to 6 p.m., Monday through Friday.

As an alternative, reword the sentence to eliminate the break and the need for a comma.

Our store is open Monday through Friday from 9:30 a.m. to 6 p.m.

Our store is open between 9:30 a.m. and 6 p.m. from Monday through Friday.

d. Balancing Expressions. Use a comma to separate the two parts of a balancing expression from which many words have been omitted.

First come, first served.

First in, last out.

Here today, gone tomorrow.

The more we give, the more they take.

GIGO: garbage in, garbage out.

The less I see of him, the better I like it.

NOTE: The phrase the sooner the better usually appears without a separating comma.

To Indicate Unusual Word Order

173 In some colloquial sentences, clauses or phrases occur out of normal order and connective words may be omitted. Use a comma to mark the resulting break in the flow of the sentence.

You must not miss the play, it was that good.

(NORMAL ORDER: The play was so good that you must not miss it.)

Why he took the money, I'll never understand.

That the shipment would be late, we were prepared to accept; that you would ship the wrong goods, we did not expect.

NOTE: In formal writing, these sentences should be recast in normal word order.

> See also ¶135c, note.

For Special Emphasis

174 Individual words may be set off by commas for special emphasis.

I have tried, sincerely, to understand your problems.

They contend, *unrealistically*, that we can cut back on staff and still generate the same amount of output.

NOTE: The use of commas in the examples above forces the reader to dwell momentarily on the word that has been set off in each case. Without this treatment *sincerely* and *unrealistically* would not receive this emphasis.

For Clarity

175 a. Use a comma to prevent 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.

At our outdoor party last Saturday night, I watched my brother as he stepped backward into our swimming pool, and burst out laughing. (Believe me, it wasn't my brother who was laughing.)

b. Sometimes, for clarity, it is necessary to separate two verbs.

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

BUT: I can prove that that conversation never took place.

c. Use a comma to separate repeated words.

It was a long, long time ago. Well, well, we'll find a way.

That was a very, very old argument. Now, now, you don't expect me to believe that!

> Commas with dashes: see ¶¶213, 215b.

Commas in numbers: see ¶¶461-463.

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 quotations: see ¶¶253-255.

Commas preceding quotations: see ¶256.

Commas with quotations within a sentence: see ¶¶259–262.

Commas to set off interruptions in quoted material: see ¶262.

Spacing with commas: see ¶299.

The Semicolon

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

a. 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.) If you prefer, you can treat the second clause as a separate sentence.

Most of the stockholders favored the sale; the management did not.

OR: Most of the stockholders favored the sale. The management did not.

(NOT: Most of the stockholders favored the sale, the management did not.)

Bob is going for his M.B.A.; Janet already has hers.

Subnotebooks aren't just smaller; they're cheaper.

(NOT: Subnotebooks aren't just smaller, they're cheaper.)

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

WEAK: Thank you for your letter of September 8; your question has already been passed on to the manager of mail-order sales, and you should be hearing from Mrs. Livonia within three days.

BETTER: Thank you for your letter of September 8. Your question has already been passed on to the manager of mail-order sales, and you should be . . .

c. The omission of *but* between two independent clauses requires, strictly speaking, the use of a semicolon between the two clauses. However, when the clauses are short, a comma is commonly used to preserve the flow of the sentence.

Not only was the food bad, the portions were minuscule.

NOTE: As a general rule, a semicolon is used only to separate independent clauses. For one exception, see ¶182a.

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 may be used.

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.

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

CONFUSING: I sent you an order for copier paper, computer paper, and No. 10 envelopes, and shipping tags, cardboard cartons, stapler wire, and binding tape were sent to me instead.

CLEAR: I sent you an order for copier paper, computer paper, and No. 10 envelopes; and shipping tags, cardboard cartons, stapler wire, and binding tape were sent to me instead.

NOTE: To prevent misreading, you will usually find it better to reword the sentence than rely on stronger punctuation.

BETTER: I sent you an order for copier paper, computer paper, and No. 10 envelopes, and you sent me shipping tags, cardboard cartons, stapler wire, and binding tape instead. (The shift in the verb from passive to active eliminates any confusion and produces a stronger sentence as well.)

c. If no misreading is likely, a comma is sufficient to separate the clauses, even though commas are also used within the clauses.

On June 8, 2001, I discussed this problem with your customer service manager, Betty Dugan, but your company has taken no further action.

All in all, we're satisfied with the job Bergquist Associates did, and in view of the tight deadlines they had to meet, we're pleased that they came through as well as they did.

> For additional examples, see ¶133.

NOTE: Some writers still insist on using a semicolon in sentences like those in c above simply because of the presence of internal commas in the clauses, even though no misreading is possible. Yet no one appears to be troubled by the use of a comma to separate clauses in a complex sentence when commas also appear within the clauses.

Although I discussed this problem with your customer service manager, Fay Dugan, on June 8, 2001, your company has taken no further action.

In summary, do not use a semicolon in sentences like those in c above except to prevent misreading or to deliberately create a stronger break between clauses.

With Transitional Expressions

When independent clauses are linked by transitional expressions (see a partial list below), use a semicolon between the clauses. (You can also treat the second independent clause as a separate sentence.)

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

hence otherwise yet (see ¶179)

They have given us an oral okay to proceed; *however*, we're still waiting for written confirmation. (**or**: . . . okay to proceed. *However*, we're still . . .)

Our costs have started to level off; our sales, moreover, have continued to grow.

Let's give them another month; then we can pin them down on their progress.

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 pause is wanted at that point. (See the third example at the bottom of page 40.)

> For the use of commas with transitional expressions, see III 138-143.

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 or a period 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 glitches.

These sale-priced attaché cases 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. (ok: ... about our service. So I would like ...)

180 If both a coordinating conjunction and a 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, Namely, That Is, Etc.

181 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.

NOTE: You can also replace the semicolon with a period and treat the second clause as a separate sentence.

She is highly qualified for the job. For example, she has had . . .

b. If the first 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.

NOTE: Use the abbreviated forms *e.g.* and *i.e.* only in informal, technical, or "expedient" documents (such as business forms, catalogs, and routine memos and letters between business offices).

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 that follows seems to be added as an afterthought, use a semicolon before the transitional expression.

Always use figures with abbreviations; for example, 6 m, 9 sq in, 4 p.m. (Here the earlier part of the sentence carries the main thought; the examples are a welcome but nonessential addition.)

NOTE: The use of a semicolon before for example with a series of phrases is an exception to the general rule that a semicolon is always followed by an independent clause.

b. If the first part of the sentence suggests that an important explanation or 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*. The colon suggests that what follows is the main thought of the sentence.)

NOTE: Use a comma before the transitional expression to throw emphasis on what *precedes*.

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

- **c.** If for example, namely, or that is 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.)
- d. The semicolon, the colon, and the comma in the examples in ¶182a-c 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. (See also ¶¶201-205, 219.)

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

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 . . . (Use dashes for emphasis. See ¶201.)

OR: Many of the components *(for example, the motor, the batteries, and the cooling unit)* are manufactured . . . (Use parentheses for subordination. See ¶219b.)

In a Series

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

The company will be represented on the Longwood Environmental Council by Martha Janowski, director of public affairs; Harris Mendel, vice president of manufacturing; and Daniel Santoya, director of environmental systems.

NOTE: As an alternative use parentheses to enclose the title following each name. Then use commas to separate the items in the series.

The company will be represented on the Longwood Environmental Council by Martha Janowski (director of public affairs), Harris Mendel (vice president of manufacturing), and Daniel Santoya (director of environmental systems).

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

AWKWARD: New offices in Framingham, Massachusetts; Rochester, Minnesota; Metairie, Louisiana; and Bath, Maine, will be opened next year.

IMPROVED: Next year we will open new offices in Framingham, Massachusetts; Rochester, Minnesota; Metairie, Louisiana; and Bath, Maine.

NOTE: In sentences that mention one or more cities, omit the state names if the cities are well known and are clearly linked with only one state. (See also ¶160, note.)

Next year we will open new offices in St. Louis, Denver, and Fort Worth.

With Dependent Clauses

186 Use semicolons to separate a series of parallel dependent clauses if they are long or contain internal commas.

If you have tried special clearance sales but have not been able to raise 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 it seems to me that your only course of action is to go out of business. (See §185.)

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 comparison of the two proposals and submit their recommendations.

NOTE: A simple series of dependent clauses requires only commas, just like any other kind of series. (See also ¶162.)

Mrs. Bienstock said that all the budgets had to be redone by Monday, that she could not provide us with any extra help, and that we'd better cancel any weekend plans.

> Semicolons with dashes: see ¶¶213, 215c.

Semicolons with parentheses: see ¶224a.

Semicolons with quotation marks: see ¶248.

Spacing with semicolons: see ¶299.

The Colon

Between Independent Clauses

187 a. 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.

> I have a special fondness for the Maine coast: it reminds me of the many happy summers we spent there before our children went off to college.

> I have two major hurdles to clear before I get my Ph.D.: I need to pass the oral exam and write a dissertation.

The second clause that explains or illustrates the first clause may itself consist of more than one independent clause.

It has been said that a successful project goes through three stages: it won't work, it costs too much, and I always knew it was a good idea.

NOTE: It has been traditional to leave two spaces after a colon. Now that the standards of desktop publishing predominate, the use of only one space is appropriate. Unlike the spacing between sentences, where two spaces may be needed to improve the visual break, the use of only one space after a colon within a sentence normally provides an adequate visual break (just as it does for a semicolon or a comma).

b. Compare the use of the colon and the semicolon in the following sentences.

The job you have described sounds very attractive: the salary, the benefits, and the opportunities for training and advancement seem excellent. (Use a colon when the second clause explains the first.)

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.)

The job you have described sounds very attractive; for example, the salary and the benefits are good, and the opportunities for advancement seem excellent. (Ordinarily, use a semicolon when a transitional expression links the clauses. However, see ¶188.)

c. If you aren't sure whether to use a semicolon or a colon between two independent clauses, you can treat each clause as a separate sentence and use a period at the end of each.

The job you have described sounds very attractive. For example, the salary and the benefits are good, and the opportunities for advancement seem excellent.

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 ¶¶181–182.)

> The company provides a number of benefits not commonly offered in this area: for example, free dental insurance, low-cost term insurance, and personal financial counseling services.

- > For spacing after a colon when it is used with a list or an enumeration within a sentence, see ¶187a, note.
- 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 some of the new features in this year's models: a fuel economy indicator, a new rear suspension, and a three-year limited warranty.

The following staff members have been selected to attend the national sales conference in Honolulu:

Frances Berkowitz

Thomas Gomez

Thomas Miscina

NOTE: Use as follows (not as follow), even though this phrase refers to a plural noun. The restrictions on the use of this property are as follows:...

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.

Scientists have devised a most appropriate name for a physical property opposed to gravity: levity. (The colon may be used even when what follows is only a single word. See also ¶210.)

- **191** Do not use a colon in the following cases:
 - a. If the anticipatory expression occurs near the beginning of a long sentence.

We have set *the following* restrictions on the return of merchandise, so please be aware of this new policy when dealing with customers. 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 that contains the anticipatory expression is followed by another sentence.

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

Lightweight backpack

Unbreakable vacuum bottle

Insulated sleeping bag

Polarized sunglasses

c. If an explanatory series follows an introductory clause that does not express a complete thought. (In such cases the introductory element often ends with a verb or a preposition.)

WRONG: Some of the questions that this book answers are: How can you reduce your insurance expenses without sacrificing protection? How can you avoid being over- or underinsured? How can you file a claim correctly the first time around? (Here the introductory clause is incomplete. It has a subject, *Some*, and a verb, *are*, but it lacks a complement.)

RIGHT: Some of the questions that this book answers are these: How can you...? (Here the introductory clause is complete; hence a colon is acceptable.)

RIGHT: Here are some of the questions that this book answers: How can you . . . ? (Here again the introductory clause is complete; hence a colon is acceptable.)

WRONG: The panel consists of: Ms. Seidel, Mrs. Kitay, and Mr. Haddad.

RIGHT: The panel consists of Ms. Seidel, Mrs. Kitay, and Mr. Haddad.

RIGHT: The panel consists of the following people: Ms. Seidel, Mrs. Kitay, and Mr. Haddad.

WRONG: This set of china includes: 12 dinner plates, 12 salad plates, and 12 cups and saucers.

RIGHT: This set of china includes 12 dinner plates, 12 salad plates, and 12 cups and saucers.

RIGHT: This set of china includes the following pieces: 12 dinner plates, 12 salad plates, and 12 cups and saucers.

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NOTE: A colon may be used after an incomplete introductory clause if the items in the series are listed on separate lines.

This set of china includes: The panel consists of:

12 dinner plates Ms. Seidel
12 salad plates Mrs. Kitay
12 cups and saucers Mr. Haddad

In Expressions of Time and Proportions

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. See also ¶299.)

A colon is used to represent the word *to* in proportions, as in the ratio 2:1. (No space precedes or follows this colon. See also $\P 299$.)

In Business Documents

a. In business letters, use a colon after the salutation (see also ¶1346). In social-business letters, use a comma (see also ¶1395b).

b. In business letters, a colon is often used with elements displayed on separate lines. (In some cases another type of punctuation is also acceptable.)

REFERENCE NOTATIONS: When replying, refer to: Policy 356 627 894 (see ¶1316)

ATTENTION LINE: Attention: Ms. Jane Palmer (see ¶1344)

SUBJECT LINE: Subject: Amendments to Berkowitz Contract (see ¶1353)

REFERENCE INITIALS: DMD:SBC **or** dmd/sbs **or** sbc (see ¶1370c)

ENCLOSURE NOTATION: Enclosures: **OR** Under separate cover: (see ¶¶1373–1374)

copy notation: cc: P. Malone or c: P. Malone

or Copies to: P. Malone (see ¶1376d-f)

POSTSCRIPT: PS: Please call on Monday or PS. Please call . . . (see ¶1381)

NOTE: Leave one or two spaces after the colon as needed to achieve an adequate visual break. You may also use the first preset tab after the colon to establish the starting point for what follows. (A colon used in reference initials should not be followed or preceded by any space.)

c. In memos and other business documents, use a colon after displayed guide words.

TO: FROM: DATE: SHIP TO: BILL TO: Distribution:

NOTE: Leave a minimum of two spaces after displayed guide words like these. If a number of displayed guide words are arranged in a column (as in the heading of a memo), set a tab a minimum of two spaces after the longest guide word in the column so that the entries following the guide words will all align at the same point. You may be able to use a preset tab instead of setting a new tab. (See ¶1393f.)

In References to Books or Publications

195 a. Use a colon (followed by one space) to separate the title and the subtitle of a book.

Be sure to read The New Positioning: The Latest on the World's No. 1 Business Strategy.

b. A colon may be used to separate volume number and page number in footnotes and similar references. (Leave no space before or after this colon. See also ¶299.)
 8:763-766 (meaning Volume 8, pages 763-766; see also ¶1512, note)

NOTE: A reference to chapter and verse in the Bible is handled the same way: Is. 55:10 (meaning *Chapter 55, verse 10* in the Book of Isaiah)

Capitalizing After a Colon

196 Do not capitalize after a colon if the material that follows cannot stand alone as a 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: algebra 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 algebra.

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; the former should not.

198 Capitalize the first word of an independent clause after a colon only if it 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.

Although index investing derives from the theory that the markets operate efficiently, its intellectual foundation is based on a simple truth: It is impossible for all stock investors *together* to outperform the overall stock market.

NOTE: Some writers like to capitalize *every* independent clause that follows a colon, even though they would not be tempted to capitalize independent clauses that follow a semicolon or a dash. The best policy is *not* to capitalize independent clauses after a colon except as specifically noted in ¶¶197–199.

- 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.

Frederick Fontina responded in this way: "We expect to win our case once all the facts are brought out in the trial." (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 John:

I have read your latest draft, and I find it much improved. However, on page 4 I wish you would redo . . .

Capitalize the first word of:

- a. Every sentence.
- b. Direct quotations.
- c. Salutations in letters.
- **d.** When the material *preceding* the colon is a short introductory word such as *Note*, *Caution*, *Remember*, or *Wanted*.

Note: All expense reports must be submitted no later than Friday. Remember: All equipment must be turned off before you leave.

e. When the material *preceding* the colon is the name of a speaker in the transcription of court testimony or in a script for a play. (See also ¶270.)

SPELLMAN: According to Mrs. Genovese's testimony, you called Mr. Mellon "a person of hidden depths."

RISKIN: What I actually said was that I found Mr. Mellon to be a person of hidden shallows.

➤ Colons with dashes: see ¶¶213, 215c.

Colons with parentheses: see ¶224a.

Colons with quotation marks: see ¶¶248, 256.

Spacing with colons: see ¶187a, note, and ¶¶299, 1433e.

SECTION 2

Punctuation: Other Marks

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Guidelines for Italics and Underlining (¶290)

Other Marks of Punctuation (¶¶291–298)

Ellipsis Marks (. . .) (¶291)

The Asterisk (*) (¶¶292-293)

The Diagonal (/) (¶¶294–295)

Brackets ([]) (¶¶296-297)

The Apostrophe (') (¶298)

Spacing With Punctuation Marks (¶299)

> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

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, some writers are tempted to use a dash to punctuate almost any break within a sentence. Indeed, some writers mistakenly think it is fashionable to use dashes in place of periods at the end of sentences. However, this indiscriminate use of dashes destroys the special forcefulness that a dash can convey. So please use the dash sparingly—and then only for deliberate effect.

IMPORTANT NOTE: Dashes come in different lengths—one em, two ems, three ems, and one en. (An em has the same width as a capital M; an en is one-half the width of an em.)

The term dash—as used in ¶¶201-215—refers in all cases to a one-em dash; ¶¶216-217 deal in part with the use of two-em, three-em, and en dashes. (In the preceding sentence the

dash used in the phrase ¶¶201-215 is an illustration of an *en dash*. The dashes used to set off the phrase *as used in* ¶¶201-215 as a whole are illustrations of an *em dash*, the simpler way of referring to a one-em dash.)

In Place of Commas

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

At this year's annual banquet, the speakers—and the food—were superb.

Of all the color samples you sent me, there was only one I liked-taupe.

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.)

Our entire inventory of Oriental rugs—including a fine selection of Sarouks, Kashans, and Bokharas—will be offered for sale at a 40 percent discount.

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

The information I sent you is true-and you know it!

In Place of a Semicolon

For a stronger but less formal break, use a dash in place of a semicolon between closely related independent clauses. (See ¶¶176, 178.)

I do the work-he gets the credit!

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

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

In Place of a Colon

For a stronger but less formal break, use a dash in place of a colon to introduce explanatory words, phrases, or clauses. (See ¶¶187–189.)

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 simple—she handles sales and I take care of promotion.

In Place of Parentheses

206 Use dashes instead of parentheses when you want to give the nonessential element strong emphasis. (See ¶¶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 separate an afterthought from the main part of a sentence. When a sentence breaks off after a dash, leave one or two spaces before the next sentence. (See ¶102.)

I wish you would— Is there any point in telling you what I wish for you?

We offer the best service in town-and the fastest!

According to Bertrand Russell, "Many people would sooner die than think-and usually do."

If a question or an exclamation breaks 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. Leave one or two spaces before the next sentence. (See ¶102.)

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.)

> For the use of ellipsis marks to indicate a break in thought, see ¶291b.

To Show Hesitation

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

The work on the Patterson project 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.

Jogging-that's what he lives for.

There is, of course, a secret ingredient in my pasta sauce-fennel.

With Repetitions, Restatements, and Summarizing Words

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

Next week—on Thursday at 10 a.m.—we will be making an important announcement at a press conference.

Don't miss this opportunity-the opportunity of a lifetime!

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

Network television, magazines, and newspapers—these will be the big losers in advertising revenues next year.

India, Korea, and Australia-all are important new markets for us.

BUT: India, Korea, and Australia are all important new markets for us. (No dash is used when the summarizing word is not the subject.)

Before Attributions

When providing an attribution for a displayed quotation—that is, when identifying the author or the source of the quotation—use a dash before the name of the author or the title of the work.

Never put off till tomorrow that which you can do today.

—Benjamin Franklin

Never do today what you can put off till tomorrow.

-Aaron Burr

Never put off until tomorrow what you can do the day after tomorrow.

—Mark Twain

NOTE: The attribution typically appears on a separate line, aligned at the right with the longest line in the displayed quotation above. For additional examples, see \$\mathbb{\text{284b}}\$.

Punctuation Preceding an Opening Dash

213 Do not use a comma, a semicolon, or a colon before an opening dash. Moreover, do not use a period before an opening dash (except a period following an abbreviation).

Quality circles boost productivity-and they pay off in higher profits too.

(NOT: Quality circles boost productivity,—and they pay off in higher profits too.)

The catalog proofs arrived before 11 a.m.-just as you promised.

Punctuation Preceding a Closing Dash

214 a. 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).

Ernie Krauthoff-he used to have his own consulting firm-has gone back to his old job at Marker's.

(Not: Ernie Krauthoff-He used to have his own consulting firm.—has gone back to his old job at Marker's.)

Your proposal was not delivered until 6:15 p.m.-more than two hours after the deadline.

b. 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 or Tuesday at the latest.

NOTE: When a complete sentence is set off by 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

- 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! (Not: 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 and go for an interview. (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.)

NOTE: Do not put a phrase in dashes if the closing dash occurs at a point where a comma is needed after an item in a series. Put the phrase in parentheses instead.

CONFUSING: I plan to ask Spalding, Crawford—Betty, not Harold—Higgins, and Martin to investigate why sales have fallen off so sharply.

CLEAR: I plan to ask Spalding, Crawford (Betty, not Harold), Higgins, and Martin to investigate why sales have fallen off so sharply.

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 next year's budget.

Here is what Marsha had to say—or at least the gist of it: look for new opportunities in niche marketing, and move quickly to capitalize on them.

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

Typing Dashes

216 a. If you are using word processing software, you will very likely have access to a special character called an *em dash*—so called because it is as wide as a capital M. (This is the dash that appears in all the examples in ¶¶201-215.) If you do not have access to this special character, you can construct a dash by striking the hyphen key *twice* with no space between the hyphens. Whether you use an em dash or two hyphens, leave no space before or after the dash.

Don't believe him—ever! (NOT: Don't believe him — ever!)

OR: Don't believe him—ever! (NOT: Don't believe him — ever!)

BUT: If only I had realized— But now it's too late. (When a statement breaks off abruptly, leave one or two spaces between the dash and the start of the next sentence. See ¶208 and an important spacing guideline in ¶102.)

b. Never use a single hyphen to represent a dash.

There's only one person who can do this job--you! (**NOT**: There's only one person who can do this job-you! **OR**: . . . this job - you!)

c. A two-em dash is used to indicate that letters are missing from a word. If you do not have access to a two-em dash, type four consecutive hyphens (with no space between). If the letters are missing from within a word, leave no space before or after the two-em dash. If the letters are missing at the end of a word, leave no space before; leave one space after unless a mark of punctuation is required at that point.

Mr. T—n was the one who tipped off the police. **or:** Mr. T----n was the one . . . Mrs. J— asked not to be identified. **or:** Mrs. J— asked not to be identified.

d. A three-em dash is used to indicate that an entire word has been left out or needs to be provided. If you do not have access to a three-em dash, type six consecutive hyphens (with no space between hyphens). Since the three-em dash represents a complete word, leave one space before and after the three-em dash unless a mark of punctuation is required after the missing word.

We expect our sales will reach — by the end of the year. or: ... reach ----- by the ...

NOTE: A three-em dash is also used in bibliographies to represent an author's name in subsequent entries, after the first entry in which the author's name is

given in full. See ¶1550 and the illustration on page 465.

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

He lives in Hawaiion Maui. I believe. **NOT:** He lives in Hawaii –on Maui, I believe.

217 a. Use an *en* dash—half the length of an em dash but longer than a hyphen—to connect numbers in a range. The en dash means "up to and including" in expressions like these:

open 10 a.m.-6 p.m., Monday-Friday planned for the week of March 2-8 during the years 1999-2003 a seminar scheduled for May-June 2002

see Chapters 2-3, pages 86–124 a loan of \$50,000-\$60,000 for 10–15 years retirement plans for employees aged 55–62 new offices located on Floors 16–17

- > For the use of an en dash in certain compound adjectives, see ¶819b, note, and ¶821b, note. For other examples showing the use of an en dash, see ¶¶459–460.
- **b.** If the equipment you are using does not offer access to an en dash, use a hyphen in expressions like those in *a* above.
- c. In manuscript being prepared for publication, it is often necessary to use special proofreaders' marks to distinguish en dashes from em dashes and hyphens, especially when hyphens have been used throughout the manuscript to represent dashes of varying length.

The proper way to code the length of dashes is as follows:

 $\frac{1}{N}$ $\frac{1}{M}$ $\frac{2}{M}$ $\frac{3}{M}$

The proper way to indicate which hyphens are to be treated as hyphens is to double the hyphen to look like an equal sign. For example:

first_rate first_rate

A two-day conference will take place early this spring $\frac{1}{N}$ -sometime during the week of April $4\frac{1}{N}$ 10, I believe. The registration fee of \$250 $\frac{1}{N}$ \$300 will be reduced for those who sign up for the first day program.

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. **REMEMBER**: In setting off elements, dashes emphasize; parentheses de-emphasize.

With Explanatory Material

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, an entire sentence, a number, or an abbreviation.

We called him Mr. B. for so long that when I ran into him last week, I couldn't remember his last name (Bertolucci). (A single word.)

Continued on page 56

By Friday (and sooner if possible) I will have an answer for you. (A phrase.)

Our competitors (we consistently underprice them) can't understand how we are able to do it. (A sentence.)

This note for Five Thousand Dollars (\$5000) is payable within ninety (90) days. (Numbers. See ¶¶420, 436, note.)

Many corporations have created a new top-level job: chief information officer (CIO). (Abbreviation. See ¶504, note.)

NOTE: Be sure the parentheses enclose only what is truly parenthetical.

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

- Use parentheses to set off a nonessential element when dashes would be too emphatic and commas might create confusion.
 - **a.** Parentheses are clearer than commas when a city-state expression occurs as an adjective.

Sales are down in our Middletown (Connecticut) office.

BETTER THAN: Sales are down in our Middletown, Connecticut, office.

b. Parentheses are clearer than commas when the nonessential element already contains commas. (See ¶¶183, 202.)

In three of our factories (Gary, Detroit, and Milwaukee) output is up.

With References

220 Use parentheses to set off references and directions.

When I last wrote to you (see my letter of July 8 attached), I enclosed photocopies of checks that you had endorsed and deposited.

When a reference falls at the end of a sentence, it may be treated as part of the sentence or as a separate sentence. (See also 1225, note.)

This point is discussed at greater length in Chapter 7 (see pages 90-101).

or: This point is discussed at greater length in Chapter 7. (See pages 90-101.)

> For the use of parentheses in footnotes, endnotes, and textnotes, see Section 15.

With Dates

Use parentheses to enclose dates that accompany a person's name, a publication, or an event.

He claims that he can trace his family back to Charlemagne (742-814).

The "Sin On" Bible (1716) got its name from an extraordinary typographical error: instead of counseling readers to "sin no more," it urged them to "sin on more."

With Enumerated Items

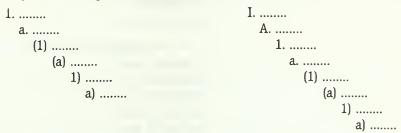
a. Within a Sentence. Use parentheses to enclose numbers or letters that accompany enumerated items within a sentence.

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.

NOT: . . . 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. (The only acceptable use of a single closing parenthesis is in an outline. See ¶223.)

NOTE: Use letters to enumerate items within a sentence when the sentence itself is part of a numbered sequence.

- 3. Please include these items on your expense report: (a) the cost of your hotel room, (b) the cost of meals, and (c) the amount spent on travel.
- b. In a Displayed List. If the enumerated items appear on separate lines, the letters or numbers are usually followed only by periods. (See ¶107.)
- Subdivisions in outlines are often enclosed in parentheses. It is sometimes neces-223 sary to use a single closing parenthesis to provide another level of subdivision.



NOTE: At every level of an outline there should be at least two items. If an item is labeled A, there must be at least one more item (labeled B) at the same level.

> For guidelines on formatting outlines, see II1722-1727.

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.

Unless I hear from you within five working days (by May 3), I will turn this matter over to my attorney.

I tried to reach you last Monday (I called just before noon); however, no one in your office knew where you were.

For Jane there is only one goal right now (and you know it): getting that M.B.A.

I saw your picture in a magazine last week (in People, I think)-and how I laughed when I saw who was standing next to you!

NOTE: Do not 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.)
- **c.** Do not use a period before the closing parenthesis except with an abbreviation.

Plan to stay with us (we're only fifteen minutes from the airport) whenever you come to New

NOT: Plan to stay with us (We're only fifteen minutes from the airport.) whenever you come to New Orleans.

Paul Melnick (he's Boyd's new sales manager) wants to take you to lunch.

At last week's hearing (I had to leave at 4 p.m.), was the relocation proposal presented?

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. (A question mark is used in parentheses because the sentence ends with a period.)

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

NOT: May I still get tickets to the show (and may I bring a friend?), or is it 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. Please return the payroll review sheets by Monday (October 8).

Is it true that there is a special term for gossip spread by e-mail (word of mouse)? What a prima donna I work with (you know the one I mean)!

- **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.

Our office is open late on Thursdays (until 9 p.m.).

Our office is open late on Thursdays (we're here until nine).

NOT: Our office is open late on Thursdays (We're here until nine.).

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 a punctuation mark of its own.
- **b.** The item in parentheses should begin with a capital letter.
- **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. Leave one or two spaces before the start of the next sentence. (See ¶102.)

Then Steven Pelletier made a motion to replace the board of directors. (He does this at every stockholders' meeting.) However, this year . . .

I was most impressed with the speech given by Helena Verdi. (Didn't you used to work with her?) She knew her subject and she knew her audience.

> Parentheses around question marks: see ¶118.

Parentheses around exclamation points: see ¶119c.

Parentheses around confirming figures: see ¶420a.

Parentheses around area codes in telephone numbers: see ¶454c. Parenthetical elements within parenthetical elements: see ¶297.

Plural endings in parentheses: see ¶626.

Quotation Marks

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

IMPORTANT NOTE: There are three styles of quotation marks: curly (""), slanted (""), and straight ("). (Curly quotation marks are often referred to as smart quotes.)

In the following examples, note that curly and slanted quotation marks require a different symbol to mark the opening and closing of the quoted material; straight quotation marks are the same, whether they open or close the quoted material. (Note also that the style of the apostrophe in *won't* matches the style of the quotation marks.)

CURLY: Paul simply said, "It won't work."

SLANTED: Paul simply said, "It won't work."

STRAIGHT: Paul simply said, "It won't work."

The font you select will determine the style of quotation marks to be used. If you wish, you can switch from the default style to an alternative style by accessing an extended character set.

Quotation marks usually appear as a doubled set of symbols, but in certain circumstances single quotation marks are called for. (See ¶¶245–246, 247b, 248b, 249d, 250b, 265b, 298a.)

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

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

> Quotations standing alone: see ¶252.

Quotations at the beginning of a sentence: see III253-255.

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 quotations: see ¶¶264-265.

Ouoted letters: see ¶266.

Quoted poetry: see ¶¶267-268.

Quoted dialogues and conversations: see ¶¶269–270. Quotation marks as a symbol for inches: see ¶432.

N

With Direct Quotations

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

According to F. P. Jones, "Experience is that marvelous thing that enables you to recognize a mistake when you make it again."

I overheard a senior economist on our staff say this to a young colleague: "Your idea may be fine in practice, but it will never work in theory."

Casey Stengel once said, "The secret of managing is to keep the guys who hate you from the guys who are undecided."

When I asked Diana whether she liked the new format of the magazine, all she said was "No." (See 11233, 256a, note.)

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 supervisor, "Am_I still being considered for the transfer?"

INDIRECT QUOTATION: Mrs. Knudsen asked her supervisor whether she was still being considered for the transfer.

DIRECT QUOTATION: Her supervisor said, "You're still in the running, but don't expect a quick decision."

INDIRECT QUOTATION: Her supervisor said <u>that she was</u> still in the running but <u>should not</u> expect a quick decision.

NOTE: Sometimes direct quotations are introduced by that. See ¶¶256f and 272, note.

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.

The chairman himself said, "The staff should be told at once that the rumors about a new building have no foundation." (The use of quotation marks emphasizes that these are the chairman's exact words.)

The chairman himself said the staff should be told at once that the rumors about a new building have no foundation. (Without quotation marks, the emphasis falls on the message itself. The fact that the chairman used these exact words is not important.)

Do not use quotation marks to set off a *direct question* at the end of a sentence unless it is also a *direct quotation* (one that uses someone's exact words.)

DIRECT QUESTION: The question is, Who will pay for restoring the landmark?

DIRECT QUOTATION: Mrs. Burchall then asked, "Who will pay for restoring the landmark?" **DIRECT QUOTATION:** Mrs. Burchall then replied, "The question is, Who will pay for restoring the landmark?" (See also ¶115.)

Quotation marks are not needed to set off interior thoughts or imagined dialogue. Treat this kind of material like a *direct question* (as shown in ¶229 above).

After I left Joe's office, I thought, He has no business telling me what to do.

I should have said, I can handle this situation—thank you very much!—without any of your help. **NOTE**: In special cases quotation marks may help to preserve clarity or maintain stylistic consistency (for example, when imaginary dialogue is interspersed with actual dialogue).

a. When only a word or phrase is quoted from another source, be sure to place the quotation marks only around the words extracted from the original source and not around any rearrangement of those words.

Tanya said she would need "more help" in order to finish your report by this Friday. (Tanya's exact words were, "How can he expect me to finish his report by this Friday without more help?")

- **b.** When a quoted word or phrase comes at the end of a statement, the period goes *inside* the closing quotation mark.
 - G. K. Chesterton explained that angels can fly "because they take themselves lightly."

NOTE: When a quoted word or phrase comes at the end of a question or an exclamation, the placement of punctuation with respect to the quotation marks will vary. (See ¶258 for guidelines. See also ¶247a, particularly examples 2–4.)

c. Be particularly sure not to include such words as *a* and *the* at the beginning of the quotation or *etc.* at the end unless these words were actually part of the original material.

Ben thought you did a "super" job on the packaging design. (Ben's exact words were, "Tell Bonnie I thought the job she did on the packaging design was super.")

Explain the decision any way you want, but tell George I said, "I'm truly sorry about the way things turned out," etc., etc.

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 especially fresh, crisp, and appealing.")

BUT: Selma thinks the magazine looks "fresh" and "crisp." (**NOT:** 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 (or will be) 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.

You need to start saying no to cookies and yes to laps around the block.

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 after he said.)

NOTE: When quoting the words *yes* and *no*, 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.

Do not use quotation marks with well-known proverbs and sayings. They are not direct quotations.

When I was young, I was taught that the person who laughs last laughs best.

When I was older, I learned that the person who laughs last thinks slowest.

Now that I'm old, I know that people who laugh last.

For Special Emphasis

When using technical terms, business jargon, or coined words or phrases not likely to be familiar to your reader, enclose them in quotation marks when they are first used.

One computer support center reports that some software users become confused when they are directed to press any key. They call to complain that they cannot find the "any" key.

It takes Joe a long time to get himself "booted up" in the morning. (The quoted phrase refers to the technique whereby a computer gets itself up and running. The quotation marks are unnecessary if you are writing to someone familiar with computer terms.)

236 a. Words used humorously or ironically may be enclosed in quotation marks. However, unless you are convinced your reader will otherwise miss the humor or the irony, omit the quotation marks.

I was totally underwhelmed by Joe's proposal to centralize all purchasing.

(RATHER THAN: I was totally "underwhelmed" by Joe's proposal . . .)

HDL cholesterol is the good kind; it's LDL that's the bad kind.

(RATHER THAN: . . . the "good" kind . . . the "bad" kind . . .)

Nothing would please me more than looking at the slides of Mike's tour of Egypt. (One might reasonably conclude that the writer takes unalloyed pleasure at the prospect.)

BUT: "Nothing" would please me more than looking at the slides of Mike's tour of Egypt. (When *Nothing* is enclosed in quotation marks, the writer makes it clear that doing nothing would be preferable to looking at Mike's slides.)

b. A slang expression, the use of poor grammar, or a deliberate misspelling is enclosed in quotation marks to indicate that such usage is not part of the writer's normal way of speaking or writing.

Now that his kids have run off to Europe with the college tuition money, Bob has stopped boasting about his close-knit "nucular" family. (The writer is mimicking Bob's habitual mispronunciation of *nuclear*.)

As far as I'm concerned, Polly Harrington's version of what happened "ain't necessarily so."

c. Quotation marks are not needed for colloquial expressions.

She cares less about the salary than she does about the perks—you know, chauffeured limousine, stock options, and all the rest of it. (*Perks* is short for *perquisites*, meaning "special privileges.")

Pam is planning to temp until she's sure about staying in Los Angeles. (*To temp* means "to do temporary work.")

a. Use quotation marks to enclose words and phrases that have been made to play an abnormal role in a sentence—for example, verb phrases made to function as adjectives.

We were all impressed by her "can do" attitude. (Can do is a verb phrase used here as an adjective modifying attitude.)

OR: We were all impressed by her can-do attitude. (A hyphen may also be used to hold together a phrase used as an adjective before a noun. See ¶828.)

BUT NOT: We were all impressed by her "can-do" attitude. (Do not use both quotation marks and a hyphen for the same purpose.)

I'm selling my car on an "as is" (or as-is) basis.

"Backspace and overstrike" is a hacker's way of saying that you ought to take back something you just said or undo something you just did.

NOTE: When a verb like *must* or a preposition-adverb like *in* becomes established as a noun or an adjective (as indicated in the dictionary), use quotation marks only in those constructions where confusion could otherwise result.

You have to read that book; it's a must.

BUT: You have to get that book; it's "must" reading.

Frank must have an in with their purchasing department.

BUT: I guess she thinks it's still the "in" thing to do.

This has been an off year for real estate sales and housing starts.

- **b.** Do not use quotation marks to enclose phrases taken from other parts of speech and now well established as nouns; for example, haves and have-nots, pros and cons, ins and outs. (See also ¶625.)
 - a helpful list of dos and don'ts
 - all the whys and wherefores
 - a lot of ifs, ands, or buts (see also ¶285a)
- 238 When a word or an expression is formally defined, the word to be defined is usually italicized or underlined and the definition is usually quoted so that the two elements may be easily distinguished. (See ¶286.)
 - > For guidelines on italics and underlining, see ¶290.
- 239 A word referred to as a word may be enclosed in quotation marks but is now more commonly italicized or underlined. (See ¶285a.)
- **240** a. Words and phrases introduced by such expressions as marked, labeled, signed, entitled, or titled 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. (See ¶260.)

NOTE: Titles of complete published works following the expression entitled or titled require italics or underlining rather than quotation marks. (See ¶289 for titles to be italicized or underlined; ¶¶242–244 for titles to be quoted.)

- > For a usage note on entitled and titled, see Section 11, page 291.
- **b.** Words and phrases introduced by so-called do not require quotation marks, italics, or underlining. The expression so-called is sufficient to give special emphasis to the term that follows.

The so-called orientation session struck me as an exercise in brainwashing.

241 The translation of a foreign expression is enclosed in quotation marks; the foreign word itself is italicized or underlined. (See ¶287.)

With Titles of Literary and Artistic Works

Use quotation marks around the titles that represent only part of a complete published work—for example, the titles of chapters, lessons, topics, sections, and parts within a book; the titles of articles and feature columns in newspapers and magazines; and the titles of essays, short poems, lectures, sermons, and conference themes. (Italicize or underline titles of *complete* published works. See ¶289.)

> The heart of her argument can be found in Chapter 3, "The Failure of Traditional Therapy." You'll especially want to read the section entitled "Does Father Know Best?"

> An exciting article—"Can Cancer Now Be Cured?"—appears in the magazine I'm enclosing. (See ¶260-261 for the use of commas, dashes, and parentheses with quoted titles.)

The theme of next month's workshop is "Imperatives for the New Millennium—From the Ragged Edge to the Cutting Edge."

The title of my speech for next month's luncheon will be "Reforming Our Local Tax Policy."

BUT: At next month's luncheon I will be talking about reforming our local tax policy. (Do not enclose the words with quotation marks when they describe the topic rather than signify the exact title.)

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 study, "Criteria for Evaluating Staff Efficiency."

Thank you for giving us the chance to review "Working out of Your Home." I have given your manuscript to an editor with a good deal of personal experience in this field.

Use quotation marks around the titles of songs and other short musical compositions and around the titles of individual segments or programs that are part of a larger television or radio series. (Series titles are italicized or underlined. See ¶289.)

Just once I would like to get through a company party without having to hear Reggie sing "Danny Boy,"

I understand that our company was briefly mentioned on the *Frontline* program entitled "Pentagon, Inc.," which was shown last Tuesday night.

Quotations Within Quotations

245 A quotation within another quotation is enclosed in single quotation marks.

NOTE: If you do not have access to single quotation marks, you may use the apostrophe under certain circumstances. (See ¶298a.)

Dorothy Parker once said, "The most beautiful words in the English language are 'Check enclosed.'"

According to an unnamed twelve-year-old (quoted in a BellSouth ad), "The most dreaded words in the English language are 'Some assembly required.'"

246 If a quotation appears within the single-quoted material, 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, insert extra space between the two marks to keep them distinct.)

NOTE: For the positioning of punctuation in relation to a single quotation mark, see the following paragraphs:

> For placement of periods and commas, see ¶247b.

For placement of semicolons and colons, see ¶248b.

For placement of question marks and exclamation points, see ¶249d.

For placement of dashes, see ¶250b.

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The following rules (¶¶247-251) indicate how to position punctuation marks in relation to the closing quotation mark—inside or outside.

With Periods and Commas

a. Periods and commas always go *inside* the closing quotation mark. This is the preferred American style. (Some writers in the United States follow the British style: Place the period *outside* when it punctuates the whole sentence, *inside* when it punctuates only the quoted material. Place the comma *outside*, since it always punctuates the sentence, not the quoted material.)

Pablo Picasso is the person who said, "Computers are useless. They can only give you answers." He wants to change "on or about May 1" to read "no later than May 1."

When your mind suddenly goes blank, it's not the start of Alzheimer's; you may simply be having a "senior moment."

The price tag on the leather sofa was clearly marked "Sold."

Sign your name wherever you see an "X."

"Let's go over the details again," she said.

"The date stamp indicates that my copy arrived at 10:50 a.m.," he said.

Their latest article, "Scanning the Future of E-Commerce," will appear in next month's issue of *Inc.* magazine.

"Witty," "clever," "amusing," and "hilarious" are only a few of the adjectives that are being applied to her new book.

The package was labeled "Fragile," but that meant nothing to your delivery crew.

b. 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.

NOTE: Do not confuse a single quotation mark with an apostrophe used to show possession. When a sentence requires the use of a comma or a period at the same point as an apostrophe showing possession, the comma or period follows the apostrophe.

I recently took over the management of the Murrays', the Boyarskys', and the Cabots' investment portfolios.

With Semicolons and Colons

248 a. Semicolons and colons always go *outside* the closing quotation mark.

Last Tuesday you said, "I will mail a check today"; it has not yet arrived.

When the announcement of the changeover was made, my reaction was "Why?"; John's only reaction was "When?"

The memo I sent you yesterday said that the new workstations would cost "a nominal egg"; it should have said "an arm and a leg."

Please send me the following items from the file labeled "In Process": the latest draft of the Berryman agreement and FASB Statement 33.

b. Semicolons and colons also go outside the single closing quotation mark.

Alice Arroyo called in from Dallas to say, "Please send me the following items from the file labeled 'In Process': the latest draft of the Berryman agreement, the comments provided by our lawyer, and FASB Statement 33."

With Question Marks and Exclamation Points

249 a. At the end of a sentence, a question mark or an exclamation point goes *inside* the closing quotation mark when it applies only to the quoted material.

His first question was, "How long have you worked here?" (Quoted question at the end of a statement.)

Garland still ends every sales meeting by shouting, "Go get 'em!" (Quoted exclamation at the end of a statement.)

b. At the end of a sentence, a question mark or an exclamation point goes *outside* the closing quotation mark when it applies to the entire sentence.

When will she say, for a change, "You did a nice job on that"? (Quoted statement at the end of a question.)

Stop saying "Don't worry"! (Quoted statement at the end of an exclamation.)

c. If a sentence ends with quoted material and both the sentence and the quoted material require the same mark of punctuation, use only one mark—the one that comes first. (See also ¶¶257-258.)

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.)

d. 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.

It was tragic to hear Tom say, "If he had only listened-"

b. A dash goes *outside* the closing quotation mark when the sentence breaks off abruptly *after* the quotation.

If I hear one more word about "boosting productivity"-

BUT: Mrs. Halliday said, "If I hear one more word from the general manager about 'boosting productivity'—"

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 Gladys.

With Parentheses

a. The closing parenthesis goes *inside* the closing quotation mark when the parenthetical element is part of the quotation.

Fox agreed to settle his account "by Friday (July 28)" when he last wrote us.

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 gofer") will probably get the job.

The following rules (¶¶252-270) indicate what punctuation to use with various kinds of quoted material.

Punctuating Quotations That Stand Alone

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 think we should switch suppliers at once."

"Can you send us your comments within two weeks?"

"I won't accept that kind of response!"

Punctuating Quotations That Begin a Sentence

a. 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 think we should switch suppliers at once," he said.

(NOT: . . . at once.," he said.)

EXCEPTION: Retain the period if it accompanies an abbreviation.

"I'm still planning to go on for an LL.B.," she said.

b. Omit the comma after a quoted statement if it is smoothly woven into the flow of the sentence.

"I haven't a clue" is all Bert says when you ask what he plans to do next. (Not: "I haven't a clue," is all Bert says...)

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.

"Can you send us your comments within two weeks?" she asked.

(NOT: ... within two weeks?" she asked.)

"I won't accept that kind of response!" I told him.

(NOT: . . . that kind of response!," I told him.)

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.

"An utter bore" was the general reaction to yesterday's speaker.

"Managing Your Portfolio," the second chapter in the Klingenstein book, sets forth some guidelines I have never seen anywhere else. (The comma that follows the chapter title is the first of a pair needed to set off a nonessential expression.)

Punctuating Quotations That End a Sentence

a. When a quoted *statement*, *question*, or *exclamation* comes at the end 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."

Ulysses S. Grant explained his military success by saying, "The fact is, I think I am a verb instead of a personal pronoun."

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.

The artist Willem de Kooning had this to say about poverty: "The trouble with being poor is that it takes up all your time."

Miss Manners, as usual, makes her point simply but well: "If you can't be kind, at least be vague." When you can't make up your mind, remember Yogi Berra's sage advice: "If you come to a fork in the road, take it."

- **c.** Use a colon in place of a comma if the quotation contains more than one sentence.
 - Professor Robert Silensky then said: "We've all heard how 1,000,000 monkeys pounding on 1,000,000 typewriters will eventually reproduce Shakespeare's entire works. Well, now thanks to the Internet, we know that's not true."
- **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 greatly valued your assistance. 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 $\P272$ for the rule on capitalizing the first word of a quoted sentence.)

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 one within quotation marks.

Quoted Sentences at the End of a Statement

Bob said, "I can't wait to get back to work." (**NOT** .".)

Mrs. Fahey asked, "How long have you been away?" (**NOT** ?".)

Mr. Auden shouted, "We can't operate a business this way!" (**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 yelled "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 reporter asked, "When did you first hear about the board's decision to sell the company to Modem Inc.?"

Didn't Larry tell Meg, "I'll help you with the tuition for your M.D."?

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.

Gloria said, "You can call as early as 6:30 a.m." (NOT .".)

- > For the placement of periods, see ¶247; for the placement of question marks and exclamation points, see ¶249.
- When a quoted word or phrase occurs at the end of a sentence, punctuate according to the appropriate pattern in the following examples. (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 such desperate circumstances.

The audience shouted "Bravo!" and "Encore!" at the end of Emanuel Ax's recital last night.

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 in the examples above).

Do not use commas to set off a quotation that occurs within a sentence as an essential expression. (See ¶149.)

The luxurious practice of booking passage between England and India on the basis of "Port Outward, Starboard Homeward" (so as to get a cabin on the cooler side of the ship) is said to be the origin of the word *posh*.

The chapter entitled "Locating Sources of Venture Capital" will give you specific leads.

a. 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.

b. If the *nonessential* quoted matter requires a question mark or an exclamation point before the closing quotation mark, use a pair of dashes or parentheses (rather than commas) to set off the quoted matter.

Your last question—"How can we improve communications between departments?"—can best be answered by you.

RATHER THAN: Your last question, "How can we improve communications between departments?," can best be answered by you.

NOTE: When some or all of the quoted items in a series end with a question mark or an exclamation point, display them in a list to avoid the awkwardness of inserting commas before the quotation marks.

Next month's issue will feature the following articles:

"Will the Internet Replace Long-Distance Telephone Service?"

"Tax Law Changes-Again!"

"Are Business Cycles Obsolete?"

"Whither Wall Street?"

RATHER THAN: Next month's issue will feature the following articles: "Will the Internet Replace Long-Distance Telephone Service?," "Tax Law Changes—Again!," "Are Business Cycles Obsolete?," and "Whither Wall Street?"

c. If *essential* quoted material ends with a question mark or an exclamation point and occurs within a sentence where a comma would ordinarily follow (for example, at the end of an introductory clause or phrase), omit the comma.

Although we were all asked last week to read an article entitled "Can U.S. Manufacturers Prosper in Today's World Markets?" the topic was totally ignored in this week's seminar.

RATHER THAN: . . . an article entitled "Can U.S. Manufacturers Prosper in Today's World Markets?," the topic was . . .

NOTE: If the omission of a comma at this point could lead to confusion, reword the sentence to avoid the problem.

We were all asked last week to read an article entitled "Can U.S. Manufacturers Prosper in Today's World Markets?" Yet the topic was . . .

ox: We were all asked last week to read an article entitled "Can U.S. Manufacturers Prosper in Today's World Markets?"; yet the topic was . . .

Punctuating Quoted Sentences With Interrupting Expressions

When a quoted sentence is interrupted by an expression such as *he asked* 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,

but do not capitalize the first word unless it is a proper noun, a proper adjective, or the pronoun *I*.

"During the past month," the memo said in part, "we have received some welcome news from our overseas branches."

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 should decline the invitation," he said. "It would be better not to go than to arrive late."

Punctuating Long Quotations

264 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 the full text of the release he gave to the media: "I have decided to withdraw from the upcoming election. I wish to thank my supporters for their enormous help."

- A long quotation that will make four or more lines may be handled in one of the following ways:
 - a. The preferred style for displaying the quoted material is to treat it as a single-spaced extract. Indent the extract a half inch from each side margin, and leave a blank line above and below the extract. Do not enclose the quoted material in quotation marks; the indention replaces the quotation marks. If any quoted material appears within the extract, retain the quotation marks around this material. If the extract consists of more than one paragraph, leave a blank line between paragraphs. (See page 349 for an illustration of an extract in the body of a letter.)

 NOTE: Ordinarily, start the quoted material flush left on the shorter line length; however, if a paragraph indention was called for in the original, indent the first line a half inch. Indent the first line of any additional paragraphs a half inch also,
 - **b.** Use the same line length and spacing for the quoted material as for other text material on the page.

but do not leave a blank line between indented paragraphs.

- (1) If the quoted material consists of one paragraph only, place quotation marks at the beginning and end of the paragraph. Use the normal paragraph indention of a half inch.
- (2) If the quoted material 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 material to single quotation marks, and vice versa. (See ¶¶245-246.)

"When you are 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 quoted word for word may be handled in one of the following ways:
 - **a.** Make a printout, a photocopy, or a scanner copy of the material. In this case no quotation marks are used.
 - **b.** If no equipment is available, type the material on a separate sheet of paper headed *COPY*. In this case no quotation marks are used.
 - c. The material, if short, may be treated like a long quotation (see ¶265). If you use a shorter line length, omit the quotation marks. If you use the same line length as you do for other material on the page, then place the opening quotation mark before the first word and the closing quotation mark after the last word.

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.)

NOTE: As a rule, follow the poet's layout of the poem. If the poet uses an irregular pattern of indention (instead of the customary practice of aligning all lines at the left), try to reproduce this layout.

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 use a diagonal line (with one space before and after) to indicate where each line breaks in the actual poem.

In a poem about the death of an American poet, Richard Wilbur refers scathingly to the more prominent notices given to a "cut-rate druggist, a lover of Giving, / A lender, and various brokers: gone from this rotten / Taxable world to a higher standard of living."

Quoting Dialogues and Conversations

When quoting dialogues and conversations, start the remarks of each speaker as a new paragraph, no matter how brief.

"Waiter, what was in that glass?"

"Arsenic, sir."

"Arsenic. I asked you to bring me absinthe."

"I thought you said arsenic. I beg your pardon, sir."

"Do you realize what you've done, you clumsy fool? I'm dying."

"I am extremely sorry, sir."

"I DISTINCTLY SAID ABSINTHE."

"I realize that I owe you an apology, sir. I am extremely sorry."

270 In plays, court testimony, and transcripts of conversations where the name of the speaker is indicated, quotation marks are not needed. (The following example is taken from a transcript of an actual radio conversation released by the U.S. chief of naval operations.)

STATION 1: Please divert your course 15 degrees to the north to avoid a collision.

STATION 2: Recommend you divert YOUR course 15 degrees to the south to avoid a collision.

STATION 1: This is the captain of a U.S. Navy ship. I say again, divert YOUR course.

STATION 2: No, I say again, you divert YOUR course.

STATION 1: THIS IS THE AIRCRAFT CARRIER ENTERPRISE. WE ARE A LARGE WARSHIP OF THE U.S. NAVY. DIVERT YOUR COURSE NOW!

STATION 2: This is the Puget Sound lighthouse. It's your call.

The following rules (¶¶271-284) cover a number of stylistic matters, such as how to style quoted material (¶¶271), how to capitalize in quoted material (¶¶272-273), how to handle omissions in quoted material (¶¶274-280), how to handle insertions in quoted material (¶¶281-283), and how to align quotation marks (¶284).

Style in Quoted Material

In copying quoted material, follow the style of the extract exactly in punctuation, spelling, hyphenation, and number style. (See ¶283 for the use of [sic] to indicate errors in the original.)

Capitalization in Quoted Material

272 Ordinarily, capitalize the first word of every complete sentence in quotation marks.

I overheard Ellis mutter, "Only a fool would make such a claim."

Here is the key sentence in her memo: "Despite the understaffing in the department, everyone is expected to meet the goals established for the coming year."

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*).

I overheard Ellis mutter that "only a fool would make such a claim."

In essence, she says that "despite the understaffing in the department, everyone is expected to meet the goals established for the coming year."

- When quoting a word or phrase, do not capitalize the first word unless it meets *one* of these conditions:
 - **a.** The first word is a proper noun, a proper adjective, or the pronoun *I*. No one is terribly impressed by what Jim calls his "Irish temper."
 - **b.** The first word was capitalized in its original use.

I watched her scrawl "Approved" and sign her name at the bottom of the proposal.

- **c.** The quoted word or phrase occurs at the beginning of a sentence.
 - "Outrageous" was the publisher's reaction to Maxon's attempt to duck the questions of the reporters. (Even if the expression was not capitalized in the original material, it is capitalized here to mark the start of the sentence.)
- **d.** The first word represents a complete sentence.

The Crawleys said "Perhaps"; the Calnans said "No way."

> See ¶¶277-278 on capitalizing the first word of a quoted sentence fragment.

Omissions in Quoted Material

274 If one or more words are omitted *within a quoted sentence*, use ellipsis marks (three spaced periods, with one space before and after each period) to indicate the omission.

"During the past fifty 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.)

275 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 fifty 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. One or two spaces follow before the next sentence; see ¶102.)

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 . . . "

276 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 fifty 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. One or two spaces follow before the next sentence. (See ¶102.)

277 If only a fragment of a sentence is quoted within another sentence, it is not necessary to use ellipsis marks to signify that words before or after the fragment have been omitted.

According to Robertson's report, there has been "a change in buying habits" during the past fifty 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 $\P276$.)

According to Robertson's report, "We have been witnessing a change in buying habits, particularly with respect to food."

278 If a displayed quotation starts in the middle of a sentence, use three 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.

- 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 you 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 Material

For clarity, it is sometimes necessary to insert explanatory words or phrases within quoted material. Enclose such insertions in brackets. (See also ¶¶296–297.)

Miss Rawlings added, "At the time of the first lawsuit [1999], there was clear-cut evidence of an intent to defraud."

For special emphasis, you may wish to italicize words that were not so treated in the original. In such cases insert a phrase like *emphasis added* in brackets immediately after the italicized words or in parentheses immediately after the quotation.

In the course of testifying, she stated, "I never met Mr. Norman in my life, to the best of my recollection." (Emphasis added.)

OR: . . . met Mr. Norman in my life, to the best of my recollection [emphasis added]."

NOTE: If the equipment you are using does not provide *italic* type, underline the words to be emphasized. (See ¶290 for guidelines on italics and underlining.)

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."

NOTE: Italicize the word *sic* when it is used in this way. If you do not have access to an italic font, do not underline *sic*.

> For simple interruptions such as he said or she said, see ¶¶262-263.

Aligning Quotation Marks

284 a. In a list, any opening quotation mark should align with the first letter of the other items.

I urge you to read the following materials (which I am sending to you under separate cover):

The PC Is Not a Typewriter by Robin Williams

"How Do I Make Type More Readable?" by Daniel Will-Harris

b. In a poem, the opening quotation mark at the beginning of each stanza should clear the left margin so that the first letter of each line will align. (See ¶267.)

"So here I am, in the middle way, having had twenty years—
Twenty years largely wasted, the years of *l'entre deux guerres*—
Trying to learn to use words, and every attempt
Is a wholly new start, and a different kind of failure
Because one has only learnt to get the better of words
For the thing one no longer has to say, or the way in which
One is no longer disposed to say it. And so each venture
Is a new beginning, a raid on the inarticulate
With shabby equipment always deteriorating
In the general mess of imprecision of feeling . . ."

-T. S. Eliot

NOTE: When a quoted extract is displayed beneath the title of a chapter or some other work, quotation marks are not necessary.

For all that has been, thanks. For all that is yet to come, yes! —Dag Hammarskjöld

 \succ For other examples of displayed quotations, see ¶212.

Italics and Underlining

IMPORTANT NOTE: *Italic type* (the counterpart of underlining or underscoring) is now provided in word processing and desktop publishing software, and it is the preferred means of giving special emphasis to words and phrases and to the titles of literary and artistic works.

For Special Emphasis

285 a. A word referred to as a word is usually italicized or underlined. (Some writers prefer to enclose the word in quotation marks instead.) A word referred to as a word is often introduced by the expression *the term* or *the word*.

The term *muffin-choker* refers to a bizarre item in the morning newspaper that you read as you eat your breakfast.

A number of years ago a newspaper editor expressed his feelings about a certain word as follows: "If I see *upcoming* in the paper again, I will be downcoming and the person responsible will be outgoing."

If you used fewer compound sentences, you wouldn't have so many ands $(\mathbf{or} \ ands)$ in your writing. (Only the root word is italicized or underlined, not the s that forms the plural.)

BUT: She refused to sign the contract because she said it had too many ifs, ands, or buts. (Neither italics nor underlining is required for the phrase *ifs*, *ands*, *or buts* because the writer is not referring literally to these words as words. The phrase means "too many conditions and qualifications.")

b. Letters referred to as letters are usually italicized or underlined if they are not capitalized. In such cases underlining may be preferable since a single italic letter may not look sufficiently different to stand out.

dotting your <u>i</u>'s (**or** *i*'s) minding your <u>p</u>'s and <u>q</u>'s (**or** *p*'s and *q*'s) solving for <u>x</u> when $\underline{y} = 3$ (**or** for x when y)

the three Rs three Bs and one C **BUT:** to the nth degree

> For the plurals of letters such as i's and Rs, see ¶¶622-623.

c. As a rule, do not use all-capital letters to give a word or phrase special emphasis. The use of all-caps for that purpose is typically overpowering. Indeed, the use of all-caps in e-mail messages is considered "shouting." In special circumstances, however, the use of all-caps may be justified.

It IS as bad as you think, and they ARE out to get you. (For other examples, see \$\frac{1}{269}-270.)

In a formal definition, the word to be defined is usually italicized or underlined and the definition quoted. In this way the two elements may be easily distinguished.

The verb *prevaricate* (a polite way of saying "to lie") comes from the Latin word *praevaricari*, which means "to go zigzag, to walk crookedly."

NOTE: An informal definition does not require any special punctuation.

Fishing has been defined as a jerk at the end of one line waiting for a jerk on the other.

Thomas Hobson was an English stablekeeper who insisted that every customer take the horse nearest the door. Hence the term *Hobson's choice* means that you really have no choice at all. (Because the definition is informal, it does not have to be set off in quotation marks. However, *Hobson's choice* is italicized or underlined, as indicated in ¶285a, because the words are referred to as words.)

The word *blamestorming* refers to the process by which a group of people discuss why something went wrong and who's responsible.

287 Italicize or underline foreign expressions that are not considered part of the 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 a foreign expression has become established as part of the English language, italics or underlining is no longer necessary. (Most dictionaries offer guidance on this point.) Here are some frequently used expressions that do not need italics or any other special display:

à la carte	de jure	magnum opus	pro tem
à la mode	double entendre	maven	quid pro quo
a priori	en masse	modus operandi	raison d'être
ad hoc	en route	modus vivendi	rendezvous
ad infinitum	esprit de corps	non sequitur	repertoire
ad nauseam	et al.	ombudsman	résumé
alfresco	etc.	op. cit.	savoir faire
alma mater	ex officio	per annum	sic (see ¶283)
alter ego	fait accompli	per capita	sine qua non
bona fide	habeas corpus	per diem	status quo
carte blanche	ibid. (see ¶1530)	per se	summa cum laude
caveat emptor	in absentia	prima facie	tête-à-tête
chutzpah	in toto	prix fixe	tour de force
cul-de-sac	joie de vivre	pro forma	vice versa
de facto	laissez-faire	pro rata	vis-à-vis
		•	

> For the use of accents and other diacritical marks with foreign words, see ¶718.

The names of *individual* ships, trains, airplanes, and spacecraft may be italicized or underlined for special display or written simply with initial caps.

The S.S. Parlin will sail on Thursday. **or:** The S.S. Parlin . . .

BUT: I flew to Paris on a Concorde and came back on a DC-10. (No special display is needed for the names *Concorde* and *DC-10* because they identify classes of aircraft but are not the names of individual planes.)

With Titles of Literary and Artistic Works

a. Italicize or underline titles of *complete* works that are published as separate items—for example, books, pamphlets, long poems, magazines, and newspapers. Also italicize or underline titles of movies, plays, musicals, operas, individual videocassettes, television and radio series, long musical pieces, paintings, and works of sculpture.

Our ads in The Wall Street Journal have produced excellent results.

OR: Our ads in The Wall Street Journal have produced excellent results.

Her letter appears in the latest issue of Sports Illustrated.

You will particularly enjoy a cookbook entitled The Supper of the Lamb.

Next Friday we will hear Der Rosenkavalier.

The painting that is popularly referred to as Whistler's Mother is actually entitled Arrangement in Gray and Black No. 1. (For a usage note on entitled and titled, see Section 11, page 291.)

NOTE: Do not italicize, underline, or quote the titles of musical pieces that are identified by form (for example, *symphony*, *concerto*, *sonata*) or by key (for example, *A major*, *B flat minor*). However, if a descriptive phrase accompanies this type of title, italicize or underline this phrase if the work is long; quote this phrase if the work is short.

Beethoven's Sonata No. 18 in E flat minor, Op. 31, No. 3

Tchaikovsky's Symphony No. 6 in B flat minor (the *Pathétique*)

Chopin's Étude No. 12 (the "Revolutionary" Étude)

b. Titles of complete works may be typed in all-capital letters as an alternative to italics or underlining.

Every executive will find RIGHT ON TIME! a valuable guide.

NOTE: The use of all-capital letters is acceptable when titles occur frequently (as in the correspondence of a publishing house) or when the use of all-capital letters is intended to have an eye-catching effect. In other circumstances use italics or underlining.

c. In material that is being prepared for publication, titles of complete works must be italicized or underlined. This special display indicates that the title must appear in italics in the final version.

Every executive will find Right on Time! a valuable guide.

d. In titles of magazines, do not italicize, underline, or capitalize the word *magazine* unless it is part of the actual title.

Time magazine BUT: Harper's Magazine

e. In some cases the name of the publishing company is the same as the name of the publication. Italicize or underline the name when it refers to the *publication* but not when it refers to the *company*.

I saw her column in *Business Week*. I wrote to Business Week about a job.

Joe used to be Fortune's management editor; now he works as a management consultant to half a dozen Fortune 500 companies.

f. Italicize or underline a subtitle (but not an edition number) that accompanies the main title of a book.

I think you'll find some good tips in *Outsmarting Wall Street: A Profit-Proven System for Picking Stocks and Timing the Market,* Third Edition.

g. Italicize or underline the titles of books, newspapers, and magazines that are published in electronic form.

Britannica Online (the electronic version of the Encyclopaedia Britannica)

@times (the electronic version of The New York Times)

Boston.com (the electronic version of The Boston Globe)

Wired Online (an electronic magazine based on Wired, a print magazine)

Slate, Word, Salon, and Feed (electronic magazines, also referred to as e-zines or Web zines)

> For the use of quotation marks with titles of literary and artistic works, see \$\pi\242-244\$; for the treatment of titles of sacred works, see \$\pi\350\$.

Guidelines for Italics and Underlining

- Italicize or underline as a unit whatever should be grasped as a unit—individual words, titles, phrases, or even whole sentences. For reasons of appearance or ease of execution, the guidelines for italicizing differ slightly from those of underlining.
 - a. When you want to give special emphasis to a unit consisting of two or more words, be sure to italicize or underline the entire unit, including the space between words.

I would not use the phrase *in a nutshell* in the sentence where you sum up your feelings about the place where you work.

OR: I would not use the phrase in a nutshell in the sentence . . .

b. When using *italics* to give special emphasis to words or phrases in a series, it is customary—for reasons of appearance—to italicize any accompanying marks of punctuation (such as colons, semicolons, question marks, and exclamation points) so that they slant the same way that the italic letters do. For simplicity of execution, it is also appropriate to italicize commas, periods, and other internal marks of punctuation.

Ipso facto, sine qua non, and pro forma: these are the kinds of expressions you must be able to define if you work for Mr. Lynch. (NOT: and pro forma:)

Have you ever read Moby Dick or War and Peace? (Not: War and Peace?)

- \succ For the use of italics with parentheses and brackets, see ¶290f and g.
- **c.** When using *underlining* to give special emphasis to words or phrases in a series, underline only the terms themselves and not any punctuation that intervenes or follows.

Ipso facto, sine qua non, and pro forma: these are the kinds of expressions . . .

Have you ever read Moby Dick or War and Peace?

EXCEPTION: This week the Summertime Playhouse is presenting <u>Oklahoma!</u>, next week <u>Where's Charley?</u>, and the following week <u>My Fair Lady</u>. (The exclamation point and the question mark are underlined in this sentence because they are an integral part of the material to be emphasized; however, the commas and the sentence-ending period are not.)

d. Do not italicize or underline a possessive or plural ending that is added on to a word being emphasized.

the *Times-Picayune* 's editorial

too many whereases

on the Times-Picayune's editorial

on too many whereases

Continued on page 80

e. When giving special emphasis to an element that has to be divided at the end of a line, italicize or underline the dividing hyphen as well.

For a Wall Street exposé with "the suspense of a first-rate thriller," read Barbarians at the Gate.

OR: For a Wall Street exposé with "the suspense of a first-rate thriller," read <u>Barbarians at the Gate</u>.

f. Parentheses are italicized when the words they enclose begin and end with italicized words. Do not italicize the parentheses, however, if the italicized words appear only at the beginning or the end of the parenthetical expression.

Use a comma to separate independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, or nor).

Use commas to set off transitional expressions (like however and therefore).

(What we need is the subject of that sentence.)

g. Brackets are not usually italicized, even when they enclosed italicized words; for example, [sic]. (See ¶¶271, 283.)

Other Marks of Punctuation

Ellipsis Marks (...)

- **291** Ellipsis marks are three spaced periods, with one space before and after each period.
 - **a.** As a general rule, do not use ellipsis marks in place of a period at the end of a sentence. However, ellipsis marks may be 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?

- > For the use of ellipsis marks to indicate omissions in quoted material, see ¶¶274–280.
- **b.** Ellipsis marks are often used in advertising to display individual items or to connect a series of loosely related phrases.

Where can you match these services?

- . . . Free ticket delivery
- ... Flight insurance
- ... On-time departures

The Inn at the End of the Road . . . where you may enjoy the epicure's choicest offerings . . . by reservation only . . . closed Tuesdays.

The Asterisk (*)

- The asterisk may be used to refer the reader to a footnote placed at the bottom of a page or a table. (See ¶¶1502f, 1636c.)
 - **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 ¶1502b.)
 - **b.** In the footnote itself, leave no space after the asterisk.

293 Asterisks are used to replace words that are considered unprintable.

If the TV cameras had been present when Finney called Schultz a ***** (and about 50 other names as well), tonight's newscast would have contained the longest bleep in television history.

The Diagonal (/)

294 The diagonal occurs (without space before or after) in certain abbreviations and expressions of time.

B/S bill of sale w/ with

c/o care of n/30 net amount due in 30 days

The copy deadline for the fall '01/winter '02 catalog is April 15.

Please check the figures for fiscal year 2002/03.

I'm concerned about their P/E ratio. (Referring to the price/earnings ratio of a company's stock.)

295 a. The diagonal is used to express alternatives.

read/write files an AM/FM tuner an on/off switch an either/or proposition

a go/no-go decision meet on Monday and/or Tuesday

input/output systems (see a usage note for and/or on page 284)

b. The diagonal may be used to indicate that a person has two functions or a thing has two components.

the owner/manager zoned for commercial/industrial activities our secretary/treasurer planning to hold a dinner/dance

a Time/CNN poll a client/server network

NOTE: A hyphen may also be used in such expressions. (See ¶806, 818b, 819b.)

- **c.** The diagonal is also used in writing fractions (for example, 4/5) and in some code and serial numbers (for example, 2S/394756).
- > For the use of the diagonal when quoting poetry, see ¶268; for the use of the diagonal in telephone numbers, see ¶454c.

Brackets ([])

A correction or an insertion in a quoted extract should be enclosed in brackets. (See also ¶¶281-283.)

His final request was this: "Please keep me appraised [sic] of any new developments." (See \P 283, note.)

The transcript of his testimony contains this incredible statement: "I did not approach Commissioner Zajac at any time [emphasis added] while my petition was being considered."

"If we all pull together, we can bring a new level of political leadership to this state. [Extended applause.] Please give me your support in this campaign." (Note the capitalization of Extended and the use of a period before the closing bracket when the bracketed element is treated as a separate sentence. See also ¶¶226, 282.)

When a parenthetical element falls within another parenthetical element, enclose the smaller element in brackets and enclose 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 15, 2002], he was quoted as saying that prices would remain steady for the foreseeable future.)

The Apostrophe (')

The apostrophe is a versatile mark of punctuation that comes in three styles: *curly* ('), *slanted* ('), and *straight* ('). The font you select will determine the style of apostrophe to be used. If you wish, you can switch from the default style to an alternative style by accessing an extended character set. (See the important note that precedes ¶227.)

The apostrophe may be used:

a. As a single *closing* quotation mark. (See ¶¶245–246, 247b, 248b, 249d, 250b, 265b.)

NOTE: The straight apostrophe (') may also be used as a single *opening* quotation mark. The curly and slanted styles use different symbols for a single opening quotation mark (' and ').

- **b.** To indicate the omission of figures in dates. (See ¶¶412, 624.)
- **c.** As a symbol for feet. (See ¶¶432, 543.) Use either the slanted or straight apostrophe for this function (but not the curly style).
- d. To form contractions. (See ¶505.)
- e. To form the plurals of figures, letters, and words in a few special cases. (See \$\pi\622-625.)
- **f.** To form possessives. (See ¶¶247b, note; 627–652.)
- g. To form expressions derived from all-capital abbreviations. (See ¶522d.)

Spacing With Punctuation Marks

The following guidelines provide a handy summary of the number of spaces to be left before and after marks of punctuation.

IMPORTANT NOTE: When you are offered a choice of one or two spaces following a mark of punctuation at the end of a sentence, choose one space as a rule unless two spaces are needed to create an adequate visual break between sentences. For a fuller discussion of this issue as well as a number of helpful illustrations, see ¶102.

Period (.)

No space before.

One or two spaces after the end of a sentence. (See ¶¶102, 1433e.)

One or two spaces *after* a period when it follows a number or letter that indicates an enumeration. (See ¶106.)

One space after an abbreviation within a sentence. (See also $\P511$.)

No space after a decimal point.

No space after when another mark of punctuation follows the period (for example, a closing quotation mark; a closing parenthesis; a closing dash, a comma, a semicolon, or a colon following an "abbreviation" period).

Question Mark (?) or Exclamation Point (!)

No space before.

One or two spaces *after* the end of a sentence. (See ¶102.)

One space after a question mark within a sentence. (See ¶¶116–117.)

No space after when another mark of punctuation follows (for example, a closing quotation mark, a closing parenthesis, or a closing dash).

Comma (,)

No space before.

One space after unless a closing quotation mark follows the comma.

No space after a comma within a number.

Semicolon (;)

No space *before*; one space *after*.

Colon (:)

No space before.

No space before or after in expressions of time (8:20 p.m.), in proportions (2:1), or in reference initials (EJN:GPL).

One or two spaces *after* within a sentence. (See ¶187a, note.)

One or two spaces after reference notations, attention and subject lines, enclosure and copy notations, and postscripts. (See ¶194b.)

Two or more spaces after displayed guide words in memos (TO:, FROM:, DATE:) and in other business documents (SHIP TO:, BILL TO:). (See ¶194c.)

Em Dash (—)

No space before or after an em dash. (See ¶216.)

No space before, between, or after hyphens used to represent an em dash.

One or two spaces after an em dash at the end of a statement that breaks off abruptly. (See ¶¶102, 207–208.)

Hyphen (-)

No space before; no space after except with a suspending hyphen or a line-ending hyphen. (See also ¶¶832, 833d.)

Opening Parenthesis (() or Bracket ([)

One space before when parenthetical material is within a sentence.

One or two spaces before when parenthetical material follows a sentence. In this case the parenthetical material starts with a capital letter and closes with its own sentence punctuation. (See ¶¶226, 296.)

No space after.

Closing Parenthesis ()) or Bracket (])

No space before.

One space *after* when parenthetical material is within a sentence.

One or two spaces *after* when parenthetical material is itself a complete sentence and another sentence follows. (See $\P\P102$, 226, 296.)

No space after if another mark of punctuation immediately follows.

Opening Quotation Mark (")

One or two spaces before when quoted material 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.

One or two spaces after when quoted material ends the sentence. (See ¶102.)

No space *after* when another mark of punctuation immediately follows (for example, a semicolon or colon).

One space after in all other cases.

Opening Single Quotation Mark (')

One space before when double quotation marks immediately precede.

One or two spaces *before* when the material within single quotation marks follows a colon *and* is not immediately preceded by double quotation marks.

One or two spaces *before* when the material within single quotation marks begins a new sentence and is not immediately preceded by double quotation marks.

No space after.

Closing Single Quotation Mark (')

No space before.

One space after when double quotation marks immediately follow.

No space after when some other mark of punctuation immediately follows. (See ¶¶245–246, 247b, 248b, 249d, 250b, 265b, 298a.)

One or two spaces *after* when the material within the single quotation marks ends a sentence and another sentence follows within the quotation. (See 102.)

One space after in all other cases.

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.

No space after when another mark of punctuation immediately follows (for example, a comma or a period).

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 ellipsis marks.

No space after when a closing quotation mark follows ellipsis marks. (See last example in ¶275.)

One or two spaces after ellipsis marks that follow a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point at the end of a sentence. (See ¶102 and the 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.

One or two spaces after an asterisk at the end of a sentence. (See ¶102.)

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. (See ¶268 for an exception.)

SECTION 3

Capitalization

Basic Rules (¶¶301-310)

First Words (¶¶301-302)

Proper Nouns (¶¶303-306)

Common Nouns (¶¶307-310)

Special Rules (¶¶311–366)

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 (99342-345)

Acts, Laws, Bills, Treaties (¶346)

Programs, Movements, Concepts (¶347)

Races, Peoples, Languages (¶348)

Religious References (¶¶349-350)

Celestial Bodies (¶351)

Course Titles, Subjects, Academic Degrees (¶¶352-354)

Commercial Products (¶¶355-356)

Advertising Material (¶357)

Legal Documents (¶358)

Nouns With Numbers or Letters (¶359)

Titles of Literary and Artistic Works; Headings (¶¶360-362)

Hyphenated Words (¶363)

Awards and Medals (¶364)

Computer Terminology (¶365)

Intercaps (¶366)

> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

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 emphasically that a new sentence has begun. 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 company* or *the board of directors*. 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 are emphasized, 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 ordinary situations in mind. If you work or study in a specialized field, you may find it necessary to follow a different style.

Basic Rules

First Words

301 Capitalize the first word of:

a. Every sentence. (See ¶302 for exceptions.)

Try to limit each of your e-mail messages to one screen.

Will you be able to pull everything together by then?

The deadline we have been given is absolutely impossible!

b. An expression used as a sentence. (See also ¶¶101b-c, 111, 119-120.)

So much for that.

Really?

No!

Enough said.

How come?

Congratulations!

c. A quoted sentence. (See also ¶¶272-273.)

Mrs. Eckstein herself said, "We surely have not heard the complete story."

d. An independent question within a sentence. (See also ¶¶115–117.)

The question is, Whose version of the argument shall we believe?

BUT: Have you approved the divisional sales forecasts? the expense projections? the requests for staff expansion? (See ¶117.)

e. Each item displayed in a list or an outline. (See also ¶¶107, 1357c, 1424e, 1725d.)

Here is a powerful problem-solving tool that will help you:

- · Become an effective leader.
- · Improve your relations with subordinates, peers, and superiors.
- Cope with stressful situations on the job.
- f. Each line in a poem. (Always follow the style of the poem, however.)

From wrong to wrong the exasperated spirit Proceeds, unless restored by that refining fire Where you must move in measure, like a dancer.

-T. S. Eliot

g. The salutation and the complimentary closing of a letter. (See also ¶¶1348, 1359.)

Dear Mrs. Pancetta: S

Sincerely yours,

- a. When a sentence is set off by dashes or parentheses within another sentence, do not capitalize the first word following the opening dash or parenthesis unless it is a proper noun, a proper adjective, the pronoun *I*, or the first word of a quoted sentence. (See ¶¶214, 224–225 for examples.)
 - **b.** Do not capitalize the first word of a sentence following a colon except under certain circumstances. (See ¶¶196–199.)

Proper Nouns

Capitalize every *proper noun*, that is, the official name of a particular person, place, or thing. Also capitalize the pronoun *I*.

William H. Gates III

Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Sun Microsystems Inc.

the Civil Rights Act of 1964

the Red Cross

the Internet (or the Net)

the University of Chicago

the World Trade Center

Wednesday, February 8

the Great Depression

the Civil Rights Act of 1964

the Japanese

Jupiter and Uranus

French Literature 212

a Xerox copy

the Statue of Liberty
Gone With the Wind
the Center for Science in
the Public Interest
United Farm Workers of America

a Pulitzer Prize Flight 403

Microsoft Word the House of Representatives

NOTE: Prepositions (like of, for, and in) are not capitalized unless they have four or more letters (like with and from). (See also ¶¶360–361.) The articles a and an are not capitalized; the article the is capitalized only under special circumstances. (See ¶324.) Conjunctions (like and and or) are also not capitalized. However, follow the capitalization style used by the owner of the name; for example, 3-In-One oil, One-A-Day vitamins, Microsoft At Work, Fruit of The Loom, Book-Of-The-Month Club, Diet Pepsi, diet Coke.

304 Capitalize adjectives derived from proper nouns.

America (n.), American (adj.)

Norway (n.), Norwegian (adj.)

EXCEPTIONS: Congress, congressional; the Senate, senatorial; the Constitution (U.S.),

constitutional (see also ¶306)

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 Founding Fathers Smokey Bear the First Lady Whoopi Goldberg the White House the Gray Panthers the Oval Office a Big Mac the Stars and Stripes the Establishment Air Force One the Lower 48 the Black Caucus Generation Xers the Gopher State (Minnesota) El Niño and La Niña

Mother Nature the Information Superhighway

government)

¶309

a Good Samaritan the Middle Ages BUT: the space age every state in the Union Big Brother (intrusive big Fannie Mae (from the initials FNMA, referring to the Federal National BUT: my big brother Mortgage Association)

306 Some expressions that originally contained or consisted of proper nouns or adjectives are now considered common nouns and should not be capitalized. (See ¶309b.)

> charley horse napoleon ampere texas leaguer plaster of paris boycott watt arabic numbers manila envelope diesel ioule roman numerals macadam kelvin BUT: Roman laws bone china

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 every board of directors any corporation some senators

308 A common noun may also be used to name a particular person, place, or thing. Nouns used in this way are often modified (a) by the, this, these, that, or those or (b) by possessive words such as my, your, his, her, our, or their. Do not capitalize a general term of classification, even though it refers to a particular person, place, or thing.

COMMON NOUN: our doctor the hotel the river PROPER NOUN: Dr. Tsai. Hotel Algonquin the Colorado River **NOTE:** Do not confuse a general term of classification with a formal name.

Logan Airport (serving Boston) the U.S. Postal Service BUT: the Boston airport BUT: the post office

309 a. 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. (For exceptions, see ¶310.)

Professor Perry BUT: the professor the Goodall Corporation the corporation the Easton Municipal Court the court Sunset Boulevard the boulevard the Clayton Antitrust Act 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 Missouri and Ohio Rivers, and the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

b. In a number of compound nouns, the first element is a proper noun or a proper adjective and the second element is a common noun. In such cases capitalize only the first element, since the compound as a whole is a common noun.

Brownie points a Dutch oven Danish pastry a Labrador retriever a Rhodes scholar a Ferris wheel French doors Tex-Mex cooking Botts dots (highway lane markers) Wedgwood blue

Canada geese (NOT: Canadian geese) BUT: Deep Blue (IBM's chess-playing computer)

NOTE: Check an up-to-date dictionary for words of this type. After extensive usage the proper noun or adjective may become a common noun and no longer require capitalization. (See ¶306.)

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.)

GOVERNMENTAL NAMES: Capitalize short forms of names of national and international bodies (but not ordinarily state or local bodies). (See $\P = 326-327$, 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 understood from the context.

Special Rules

Personal Names

311 a. Treat a person's name—in terms of capitalization, spelling, punctuation, and spacing—exactly as the person does.

Alice Mayer Charles Burden Wilson
Alyce Meagher L. Westcott Quinn
Steven J. Dougherty, Jr. R. W. Ferrari
Stephen J. Dockerty Jr. Peter B. J. Hallman

- > For the treatment of initials such as FDR, see ¶516b; for the use or omission of commas with terms such as Jr., see ¶156.
- b. Respect individual preferences in the spelling of personal names.

Ann Marie, Anne Marie, Anna Marie, Annemarie, Annamarie, Anne-Marie, Anne-Marie Macmillan, MacMillan, Mac Millan, Macmillen, MacMillen, MacMillan, McMillan, McMillan, McMillan, McMillon

- **c.** In names containing the prefix O', always capitalize the O and the letter following the apostrophe; for example, O'Brian or O'Brian.
- **d.** 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

e. 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.

Paul de Luca

Mr. de Luca

P. de Luca

BUT: Is De Luca leaving?

f. 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.

NORMAL FORM:

MacDonald

Mac Donald

ALL-CAPITAL FORM:

MacDONALD

MAC DONALD

g. When a nickname or a descriptive expression precedes or replaces a person's first name, simply capitalize it. However, if the nickname or descriptive expression falls between a person's first and last names, enclose it either in quotation marks or in parentheses.

Ol' Blue Eves

BUT: Frank "Ol' Blue Eyes" Sinatra

on: Frank (Ol' Blue Eyes) Sinatra

> For the plurals of personal names, see \$\mathbb{IM}615-616\$; for the possessives of personal names, see ¶¶630-633.

Titles With Personal Names

312 a. Capitalize all official titles of honor and respect when they precede personal names.

PERSONAL TITLES:

Mrs. Norma Washburn (see ¶517)

Miss Popkin

Ms. Terry Fiske

Mr. Benedict

EXECUTIVE TITLES:

President Julia McLeod

Vice President Saulnier

PROFESSIONAL TITLES:

Professor Henry Pelligrino

Dr. Khalil (see ¶517)

Professor Emerita Ann Marx (see page 290)

Dean Aboud

CIVIC TITLES:

Governor Samuel O. Bolling Mayor-elect Louis K. Uhl (see ¶317) Ambassadors Ross and Perez

ex-Senator Hausner (see ¶317)

MILITARY TITLES: Colonel Perry L. Forrester

Commander Comerford

RELIGIOUS TITLES:

the Reverend William F. Dowd

Rabbi Gelfand

b. Do not capitalize such titles when the personal name that follows is in apposition and is set off by commas. (Some titles, like that of the President of the United States, are always capitalized. See ¶313 for examples of such exceptions.)

Yesterday the president, Julia McLeod, revealed her plans to retire next June.

BUT: Yesterday President Julia McLeod revealed her plans to retire next June.

c. Do not capitalize occupational titles (such as *author, surgeon, publisher,* and *lawyer*) preceding a name.

The reviews of drama critic Simon Ritchey have lost their bite. (NOT: The reviews of *Drama Critic* Simon Ritchey have lost their bite.)

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.

d. Do not confuse a true title preceding a name (such as *Judge*) with a generic expression (such as *federal judge*).

Judge Ann Bly or federal judge Ann Bly (BUT NOT: federal Judge Ann Bly)

President Julia McLeod or company president Julia McLeod

(BUT NOT: company President Julia McLeod)

313 a. 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.

Julia McLeod, *president* of McLeod Inc., has revealed her plans to retire next June. During her sixteen years as *president*, the company grew . . .

Henry Fennel, *emeritus professor of English history*, will lead a tour of Great Britain this summer. (For a usage note on *emeritus*, see page 290.)

However, exceptions are made for important officials and dignitaries, as indicated in the following paragraphs.

b. Retain the capitalization in the 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 *Secretary of State* and the *Attorney General*), the heads of government agencies and bureaus (such as the *Director* or the *Commissioner*), the *Ambassador,* the *Speaker* (of the *House*), the *Representative,* the *Senator,* the *Chief Justice of the United States* (**NOT** of the Supreme Court)

STATE OFFICIALS: the Governor, the Lieutenant Governor (BUT: the attorney general, the senator)

FOREIGN DIGNITARIES: the Queen of England, the King, the Prime Minister

INTERNATIONAL FIGURES: the Pope, the Secretary-General of the United Nations

NOTE: Many authorities now recommend that even these titles not be capitalized when they follow or replace the names of high-ranking officials.

c. 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), when the intended reader would consider the official to be of high rank.

The *Mayor* promised only last fall to hold the city sales tax at its present level. (Excerpt from an editorial in a local newspaper.)

BUT: Francis Fahey, *mayor* of Coventry, Rhode Island, appeared before a House committee today. The *mayor* spoke forcefully about the need to maintain federal aid to . . . (Excerpt 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.

d. 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 (see page 508) 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.

e. In general, do not capitalize job titles when they stand alone. However, in procedures manuals and in company memos and announcements, job titles are sometimes capitalized for special emphasis.

Marion Conroy has been promoted to the position of senior accountant (or Senior Accountant).

- **f.** Titles *following* a personal name or *standing alone* are often capitalized in formal citations and acknowledgments.
- **314** Do not capitalize titles used as general terms of classification. (See ¶307.)

a United States senator

every king

a state governor

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, every *President, Presidential* campaigns).

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: Please tell me, Doctor, what risks are involved in this treatment.

INDIRECT ADDRESS: I asked the doctor what risks were involved in this treatment.

NOTE: In direct address, do not capitalize a term like *madam*, *miss*, or *sir* if it stands alone without a proper name following.

Isn't it true, sir, that the defendant offered you money for trade secrets?

- 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 389.)
- 317 Do not capitalize *former, late, ex-*, or *-elect* when used with titles. (See ¶363 for the style in headings.)

the late President Truman

ex-President Bush

Mayor-elect Bawley

Family Titles

318 Capitalize words such as *mother, father, aunt,* and *uncle* when they stand alone or are followed by a personal name.

Let me ask *Mother* and *Dad* whether that date is open for them.

We'll be glad to put up Aunt Peg and Uncle Fred when they come to visit.

I hear that Brother Bobby has gone off the deep end again.

Do you think *Grandmother Harvey* will be pleased when she hears the news?

Do not capitalize family titles when they are preceded by possessives (such as my, your, his, her, our, and their) and simply describe a family relationship.

Let me ask my mother and dad whether that date is open for them.

Do you think your brother Bobby would like to meet my sister Fern?

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

320 a. Capitalize the names of companies, unions, associations, societies, independent committees and boards, schools, political parties, conventions, foundations, fraternities, sororities, clubs, religious bodies, and teams.

DaimlerChrysler (see ¶366) the Transport Workers Union of

America

the American Society for Training

and Development

the Committee for Economic

Development

the Financial Accounting

Standards Board

the National Institutes of Health the B'nai B'rith

the Binai Birith

the Hopewell Chamber of Commerce

Johns (NOT John) Hopkins University

the Democratic and Liberal Parties (see ¶309a, note)

the Republican National Convention the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation

Sigma Chi Fraternity

the Overseas Press Club of America

St. Mark's United Methodist Church

Parents Anonymous

the Louisiana IceGators and the Macon Whoopee (hockey teams)

NOTE: Try to follow the style established by the organization itself, as shown in the letterhead or some other written communication from the organization.

Disney World **BUT:** Disneyland

Kmart Corporation
U-Haul International

BUT: Toys "R" Us, Inc. (don't try to replicate the backward *R*)

FULL NAME: E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company SHORT FORM: DuPont

> See also ¶1328.

b. Also capitalize imaginative names used to refer to specific organizations. (See also ¶333b.)

Big Blue (IBM)

the Big Board (the New York Stock Exchange)

Ma Bell (AT&T)

the Baby Bells (the U.S. regional phone companies)

After the last round of mergers, the large U.S. accounting firms—once known as the Big Eight—became the Big Four.

- > For the treatment of articles (like the), prepositions (like of or for), and conjunctions (like and), see ¶303, note; for the capitalization of abbreviations and acronyms used as organizational names, see ¶¶520, 522.
- 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, capitalization is unnecessary because the short form is used only as a general term of classification. (See ¶¶307–308.)

The *company* has always made a conscientious effort to involve itself in community affairs. However, our *company* policy specifically prohibits our underwriting any activity in support of a candidate for public office. (As used here, *company* is a term of general classification.)

BUT: On behalf of the *Company*, I am authorized to accept your bid. (Here the full authority of the company is implied; hence *Company* is spelled with a 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 to finance the construction of the new media center.

BUT: The *College* hopes to raise an additional \$10,000,000 this year to finance the construction of the new media 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 ¶308.)

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 memo.)

BUT: Julia Perez, senior vice president of the Mulholland Bancorp, 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 cannot discuss sponsorship of a new art center until its finance committee has reviewed our proposal. (Style normally used by outsiders.)

The Advertising Department will unveil the fall campaign this Friday. (Style used by insiders.) **BUT:** The advertising department of Black & London will unveil its fall campaign this Friday. (Style used by outsiders.)

NOTE: Do not capitalize these organizational terms when they are modified by a word other than *the*. Constructions such as *this credit department, their credit department, every credit department, your credit department,* and *our credit department* are terms of general classification and should not be capitalized. (See also ¶321, note.)

Black & London always seems to have a great deal of turnover in *its advertising department*. We don't have as much turnover in *our advertising department* as you may think. (Some insiders prefer to write *our Advertising Department* because of the special importance they attach to

I would like to apply for the position of copywriter that is currently open in *your advertising department*. (Some outsiders might write *your Advertising Department* if they wanted to flatter

department (Some outsiders might write your Advertising Department if they wanted to flatter the reader by giving special importance to the reader's organizational structure.)
 Capitalize such nouns as marketing, advertising, or promotion when they are used

alone to designate a department within an organization.

Paul Havlicek in Corporate Communications is the person to talk with.

I want to get a reaction from our people in Marketing first.

their own organizational structure.)

BUT: Talk to our *marketing* people first. (Here *marketing* is simply a descriptive adjective.)

324 a. 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)
The Vanguard Group

BUT: the Los Angeles Times

- **b.** Even when part of the organizational name, *the* is often not capitalized except in legal or formal contexts where it is important to give the full legal name.
- c. Do not capitalize the when the name is used as a modifier or is given in the form of an abbreviation.

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 United Nations the Utah Bureau of Air Quality

the Clinton Administration the Ohio Legislature

the Cabinet the Court of Appeals of the State of

the Ninety-ninth Congress Wisconsin (see ¶303, note)

(see $\P 363$) the New York State Board of Education the House of Representatives the Coe County Shade Tree Commission

BUT: the federal government the Boston City Council (see ¶¶328–329) the People's Republic of China

 \rightarrow For city and state names, see ¶¶334–335.

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 Justice, the State Department, the Department of the Treasury, etc.)

the Bureau (referring to the Bureau of the Budget, the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the Bureau of the Census, etc.)

the Court (referring to the United States Supreme Court, the International Court of Justice, etc.) the Fed **or** the Board (referring to the Federal Reserve Board)

BUT: the feds (referring to federal regulators)

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.

We are awaiting the release of next year's budget from City Hall. (City Hall is capitalized here because the term refers to the seat of municipal power in its full authority.)

You can't fight City Hall. (Here again, the term is intended to invoke the full authority of a particular city government.)

BUT: The public school teachers will be staging a rally in front of city hall. (In this case a particular building is being referred to in general terms.)

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*.)

BUT: 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*.

328 Capitalize *federal* only when it is part of the official name of a federal 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, however, and in other types of communications where these terms are intended to have the force of an official name, they are capitalized.

The *federal government* is still wrestling with the problem of corporate welfare—that is, *federal* subsidies to large corporations.

BUT: If you can't fight City Hall, what makes you think it's any easier to fight the *Federal Government?* (Here the writer wants to emphasize the full power of the national government as an adversary.)

330 a. Capitalize *union* only when it refers to a specific government.

Wilkins has lectured on the topic in almost every state in the Union.

b. Capitalize *commonwealth* only when it is part of an official name.

the Commonwealth of Independent States (formerly the U.S.S.R.)

the Commonwealth of Nations or the Commonwealth (formerly the British Commonwealth)

➤ See also ¶335c.

Names of Places

Capitalize the names of places, such as streets, buildings, parks, monuments, rivers, oceans, and mountains. Do not capitalize short forms used in place of the full name. (See ¶332 for a few exceptions.)

Montgomery Street	BUT:	the street
Empire State Building		the building
Stone Mountain Park		the park
Sacramento River		the river
Lake Pontchartrain		the lake
Colony Surf Hotel		the hotel
Rittenhouse Row		the row
Union Square		the square
Riverside Drive		the drive
Bighorn Mountain		the mountain
Shoshone Falls		the falls
the Washington Monument		the monument

Stapleton Airport BUT: the airport the Fogg Art Museum the museum Golden Gate Bridge the bridge Nicollet Mall the mall

> For plural expressions like the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, see ¶309a, note; for the treatment of prepositions and conjunctions in proper names, see ¶303, 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 Street (Wall Street)
the Channel (English Channel) the Village (Greenwich Village)

333 a. Capitalize imaginative names that designate specific places or areas.

the Bay Area (around San Francisco)

the Big D (Dallas)

Back Bay (in Boston)

Down East (coastal Maine)

the South Lawn of the White House

inside the Beltway (Washington, D.C.)

the Second City (Chicago)
La-La Land (Los Angeles)
the Magnificent Mile (in Chicago)
Tinseltown (Hollywood)

the Big Apple (New York) the Big Muddy (the Missouri River)

SoHo (in New York) the Beehive State (Utah)

Soho (in London) the French Quarter (in New Orleans)
the Pacific Rim Down Under (Australia and New Zealand)

NOTE: The terms Sunbelt and Frostbelt are now commonly spelled as one word; the terms Farm Belt, Bible Belt, and Rust Belt are still commonly spelled as two words. Within the same context treat these terms the same way—as two words; for example, in the Farm Belt and the Frost Belt.

b. Some place names are used imaginatively to refer to specific types of businesses or institutions.

Silicon Valley (the cluster of high-tech industries south of San Francisco)

Silicon Alley (the cluster of software development firms in Manhattan)

Siliwood (the collaboration between Silicon Valley and Hollywood)

Madison Avenue (the advertising industry)

Wall Street (the financial industry)

Off-Off-Broadway (experimental theater in New York City)

Foggy Bottom (the U.S. State Department)

Capitalize the word *city* only when it is part of the corporate name of the city or part of an imaginative name.

Kansas City **BUT:** the city of Dallas the Windy City (Chicago)

335 a. 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.

Washington State entered the Union in 1889, the forty-second state to do so.

Next year we plan to return to the States. (Meaning the United States.)

b. Do not capitalize state 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*.)

c. Kentucky, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Virginia are actually commonwealths. In ordinary usage, however, they are referred to as states.

the commonwealth of Kentucky or the state of Kentucky

- According to the U.S. Government Printing Office Style Manual, the terms used to refer to the residents of the fifty states are formed according to different patterns.
 - a. Sixteen states just add n.

Nevadan South Dakotan Alaskan lowan Arizonan Minnesotan North Dakotan Utahn Californian Montanan Oklahoman Virginian Nebraskan Pennsylvanian Georgian West Virginian

b. Eight states add an.

DelawareanIdahoanMassachusettsanMissourianHawaiianIllinoisanMississippianOhioan

c. Six states drop the final letter and add n or an.

Arkansa<u>n</u> Kansa<u>n</u> Tennesse<u>an</u>
Colorad<u>an</u> New Mexic<u>an</u> Texa<u>n</u>

d. Three states add ian.

Michiganian Oregonian Washingtonian

e. Seven states drop the final letter and add ian.

Alabam<u>ian</u> Indian<u>ian</u> Louisian<u>ian</u> South Carolin<u>ian</u>
Floridian Kentuckian North Carolinian

f. Only one state adds r.

Mainer or: Mainiac (the term favored by some residents)

g. Five states add er.

Connecticut<u>er</u> New York<u>er</u> Vermont<u>er</u>

Marylander Rhode Islander

h. Three states add ite.

New Jerseyite Wisconsinite Wyomingite

i. One state drops the final letter and adds ite.

New Hampshirite

337 a. Capitalize the only when it is part of the official name of a place.

The Dalles **BUT:** the Bronx The Hague the Netherlands

b. 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 East Side
Upper West Side Newton Lower Falls

Points of the Compass

338 a. 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 the North Pole down South the Deep South the South Side out West the Far West the West Coast back East the Middle East the Eastern Seaboard

b. Do not capitalize these words when they merely indicate direction or general location.

Many factories have relocated from the Northeast to the South. (Region.)

BUT: They maintain a villa in the south of France. (General location.)

on: Go west on Route 517 and then south on I-95. (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.

Capitalize such words as *northern*, *southern*, *eastern*, and *western* when they refer to the people in a region or to their political, social, or cultural activities. Do not capitalize these words 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.

When words like *northem*, *southern*, *eastern*, and *western* precede a place name, they are not ordinarily capitalized because they merely indicate general location within a region. However, when these words are actually part of the place name, they must be capitalized. (Check an atlas or the geographic listings in a dictionary when in doubt.)

Preceding a Place Name northern New Jersey Part of a Place Name Northern Ireland

western Massachusetts Western Australia

NOTE: Within certain regions it is not uncommon for many people who live there to capitalize the adjective because of the special importance they attach to the regional designation. Thus people who live in southern California may prefer to write Southern California.

Days of the Week, Months, Holidays, Seasons, Events, Periods

342 Capitalize names of days, months, holidays, and religious days.

Father's Day St. Patrick's Day Tuesday Juneteenth (June 19) Good Friday February New Year's Eve the Fourth of July All Saints' Day Kwanza or Kwanzaa Rosh Hashanah Presidents' Day April Fools' Day Martin Luther King Day Yom Kippur Ramadan Veterans Day Kamehameha Day

> For the use of apostrophes in names of holidays, see ¶650.

343 Do not capitalize the names of the seasons unless they are personified.

We hold our regional sales conferences during the fall and winter, but our national conference always takes place early in the spring.

We do not plan to announce our new line of software applications until our fall '00/winter '01 catalog.

> BUT: And this you can see is the bolt. The purpose of this Is to open the breech, as you see. We can slide it Rapidly backwards and forwards: we call this Easing the spring. And rapidly backwards and forwards The early bees are assaulting and fumbling the flowers: They call it easing the Spring.

> > -Henry Reed

344 a. Capitalize the names of historical events and imaginative names given to historical periods.

> the American Revolution the Renaissance

World War II the Counter-Reformation

the Holocaust Prohibition

Fire Prevention Week the Great Depression

b. References to cultural ages are usually capitalized. However, contemporary references are not usually capitalized unless they appear together with a capitalized reference.

the Bronze Age BUT: the space age the Dark Ages the atomic age the Middle Ages the digital age

The course spans the development of civilization from the Stone Age to the Space Age.

c. References to cultural *eras* are usually capitalized, but references to cultural *peri*ods are usually not.

the Christian Era BUT: the romantic period the Victorian Era the colonial period

d. Capitalize the names of sporting events.

the Super Bowl the World Series on the Series the Masters the Kentucky Derby on the Derby the U.S. Open the Olympic Games on the Games on the Olympics

345 Do not capitalize the names of decades and centuries. during the fifties in the twenty-first century

in the nineteen-nineties

during the nineteen hundreds

NOTE: Decades are capitalized, however, in special expressions.

the Gay Nineties the Roaring Twenties

> For a discussion on how to label the first decade of the twenty-first century, see ¶439b.

Acts, Laws, Bills, Treaties

346 a. 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 Americans With Disabilities Act the act
Public Law 480 the law
the Treaty of Versailles the treaty
the First Amendment the amendment

the Constitution of the United States **BUT:** the Constitution (see ¶304)

BUT: When Pelletier takes the stand next week, we think he is likely to take the *Fifth.* (Referring to the Fifth Amendment.)

b. Do not capitalize generic or informal references to existing or pending legislation except for proper nouns and adjectives.

environmental protection laws

the Brady gun control law

c. "Laws" that make humorous or satirical observations about human and organizational behavior are capitalized to suggest that they carry the same authority as an actual piece of legislation.

Parkinson's Law states that work expands to fill the time that has been allotted for its completion. *Parkinson's Law of Data* states that data expands to fill the space available.

Murphy's Law holds that if something can go wrong, it will.

The Peter Principle maintains that people in an organization tend to be promoted until they reach their level of incompetence.

According to Fudd's First Law of Opposition, if you push something hard enough, it will fall over. A relatively new proverb called Hanlon's Razor states, "Never attribute to malice that which can be adequately explained by stupidity."

d. In the names of authentic scientific laws, capitalize only proper nouns and adjectives.

Gresham's law Newton's first law of motion
Mendel's law the first law of thermodynamics

Programs, Movements, Concepts

347 a. Do not capitalize the names of programs, movements, or concepts when used as general terms.

social security benefits the civil rights movement

BUT: the Social Security Administration

BUT: the Civil Rights Act

medicare payments the big bang theory **BUT:** the Medicare Act existentialism and rationalism

b. Capitalize proper nouns and adjectives that are part of such terms.

the Socratic method Newtonian physics
Keynesian economics Marxist-Leninist theories

c. Capitalize imaginative names given to programs and movements.

the New Deal the New Frontier the Great Society the War on Poverty

d. Capitalize terms like democrat, socialist, and communist when they signify formal membership in a political party but not when they merely signify belief in a certain philosophy.

a lifelong Democrat (refers to a person who consistently votes for candidates of the Democratic Party)

independent voters

the right wing

a lifelong democrat (refers to a person who believes in the principles of democracy)

leftists

fascist tendencies

Races, Peoples, Languages

348 a. Capitalize the names of races, peoples, tribes, and languages.

Caucasians

Americans

Native Americans

BUT: the blacks

the Japanese

Hispanics

Mandarin Chinese

the whites

NOTE: The people who live in the Philippines are called Filipinos, and the official language of the country is called Pilipino.

- **b.** Do not hyphenate terms like *African Americans* or *French Canadians* when they are used as nouns, because the first word in each case modifies the second. However, hyphenate such terms when they are used as adjectives; for example, African-American enterprises, French-Canadian voters. Moreover, hyphenate such terms when the first element is a prefix; for example, an Afro-American style, the Anglo-Saxons, the Indo-Chinese.
- > For a usage note on ethnic references, see pages 292–293.

Religious References

349 a. Capitalize all references to a supreme being.

the Lord

the Supreme Being the Messiah

Allah Yahweh

the Holy Spirit the Almighty

Providence

NOTE: The word God is capitalized in such compound expressions as God-fearing and Godspeed but not in such terms as godforsaken and god-awful.

b. 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.

NOTE: Some writers capitalize these personal pronouns under all circumstances.

c. Capitalize references to persons revered as holy.

the Prince of Peace the Good Shepherd

Buddha

John the Baptist

the Blessed Virgin

the Prophet the Apostles Saint Peter (see ¶518e) Luke the Evangelist

d. Capitalize the names of religions, their members, and their buildings.

Reform Judaism

Mormons

Saint Mark's Episcopal Church

Zen Buddhism

Methodists

Temple Beth Sholom

the Roman Catholic Church (meaning the institution as a whole) BUT: the Roman Catholic church on Wyoming Avenue (referring to a specific building)

the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (see ¶363, note)

e. Capitalize references to religious events. (See also ¶342.)

the Creation

the Exodus

the Crucifixion

the Flood

the Second Coming

the Resurrection

f. In general, do not capitalize references to specific religious observances and services. However, if you are writing from the perspective of a particular religion, follow the capitalization style of that religion.

bar mitzvah

baptism

BUT: the Eucharist

seder

christening

the Mass

350 Capitalize (but do not quote, italicize, or underline) references to works regarded as sacred.

the King James Bible

the Koran

the Ten Commandments the Sermon on the Mount

BUT: biblical sources the Revised Standard

the Talmud the Torah

Psalms 23 and 24

Version the Old Testament the Our Father the Lord's Prayer Kaddish Hail Mary

the Book of Genesis

Hebrews 13:8

the Apostles' Creed

NOTE: Do not capitalize bible when the work it refers to is not sacred.

That reference manual has become my bible.

Celestial Bodies

Capitalize the names of planets (Jupiter, Mars), stars (Polaris, the North Star), and constellations (the Big Dipper, the Milky Way). However, do not capitalize the words sun, moon, and earth unless they are used in connection with the capitalized names of other planets or stars.

With the weather we've been having, we haven't seen much of the sun.

We have gone to the ends of the earth to assemble this collection of jewelry.

Compare the orbits of Mars, Venus, and Earth.

Course Titles, Subjects, Academic Degrees

352 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 got a bachelor's degree in American history. (Area of study.)

Do not capitalize academic degrees used as general terms of classification. However, capitalize a degree used after a person's name.

a bachelor of arts degree

received his bachelor's (see ¶644)

a master of science degree

working for a master's

a doctor of laws degree

will soon receive her doctorate

BUT: Claire Hurwitz, Doctor of Philosophy

In references to academic years, do not capitalize the words *freshman*, *sophomore*, *junior*, and *senior*. In references to grade levels, capitalize the word *grade* when a number follows but not when a number precedes.

Harriet spent her junior year in Germany.

Our oldest child is in *Grade 6*; our second child is in the *third grade*.

NOTE: Some schools and colleges prefer to use *first-year students* in place of *freshmen*.

All incoming *freshmen* (or *first-year students*) must register by September 4.

Commercial Products

2355 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 to give them special emphasis.

Elmer's glue

BUT: Krazy Glue

NOTE: Be alert to the correct spelling of proper nouns.

Macintosh computers

BUT: McIntosh apples

> For the capitalization of short words in the names of products, see ¶303, note. For the use of intercaps, see ¶366.

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 International Trademark Association (1133 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10036).

NOTE: You may contact the International Trademark Association either by e-mail <communications@inta.org> or on the Web http://www.inta.org.

Xerox, Photostat; **BUT:** photocopy Telecopier: BUT: fax DeskWriter, LaserJet; BUT: laser printer Express Mail, Yellow Pages, Filofax: BUT: e-mail, voice mail, videotex Scotch tape, Post-it notes, Rolodex Jiffy bag, Carousel slide projector Acrilan, Dacron, Lycra, Orlon, Ultrasuede; BUT: nylon, spandex Naugahyde, Thinsulate, Perma-Prest Levi's, Windbreaker, Snugli, L'eggs Loafers, Air Jordan, 'Boks Jeep, Dumpster, Hide-A-Bed Airbus, Learjet, AAdvantage Teflon, Velcro, Ziploc, Baggies, GLAD AstroTurf, Styrofoam, Lucite, Mylar Spackle, Plastic Wood, Sheetrock Fiberglas: BUT: fiberglass Jacuzzi, Disposall, Frigidaire, Sterno Laundromat, Dustbuster, Drygas Crock-Pot, Pyrex dish, Dixie cup

Off!, Oh Henry!, H2OH!, Guess? Band-Aid, Ace bandage, Q-Tips Kleenex, Vaseline, Chap Stick Tylenol, Novocain, Demerol, Valium; BUT: aspirin Nicotrol, Nyquil, Motrin; BUT: penicillin, cortisone Olean: BUT: olestra Adrenalin: BUT: adrenaline diet Coke, Diet Pepsi, Kool-Aid, Popsicle, Gatorade, Sanka Kitty Litter, Seeing Eye dog Day-Glo colors, Technicolor Discman, Walkman, Polaroid; BUT: camcorder StairMaster, Wiffle ball Jazzercise, Ski-Doo, Tamagotchi Frisbee, Ping-Pong, Rollerblades Scrabble, Trivial Pursuit Realtor; BUT: real estate agent Neon (car); BUT: neon (gas)

NOTE: Trademark holders typically use a raised symbol (such as TM or [®]) after their trademarks in all of their correspondence, promotional material, and product packaging. When you make reference to trademarks that belong to others, you do not need to use these symbols. Capitalizing the trademarks is sufficient.

Advertising Material

Words ordinarily written in small letters may be capitalized in advertising copy for emphasis. (This style is inappropriate in all other kinds of communication.)

Save money now during our Year-End Clearance Sale.

It's the event Luxury Lovers have been waiting for . . . from Whitehall's!

Legal Documents

In legal documents, many words that ordinarily would be written in small letters are often 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 ¶420b).

THIS AGREEMENT, made this 31st day of January 2002 . . .

... hereinafter called the SELLER ...

WHEREAS the Seller has this day agreed . . .

WITNESS the signatures . . .

NOTE: A number of lawyers no longer follow this style.

Nouns With Numbers or Letters

Capitalize a noun followed by a number or a letter that indicates sequence. **EXCEPTIONS:** Do not capitalize the nouns *line, note, page, paragraph, size, step,* and verse.

Account 66160	Class 4	Interstate 5 on I-5	Policy 394857
Act 1	Column 1	Invoice 270487	Proposition 215
Appendix A	Day One	Item 9859D	Room 501
Article 2	Diagram 4	Lesson 20	Route 46
Book III	Exercise 8	line 4	Rule 3
Building 4	Exhibit A	Model B671-4	Section 1
Bulletin T-119	Extension 2174	note 1	size 10
Catch-22	Figure 9	page 158	step 3
Channel 55	Flight 626	paragraph 2a	Table 7
Chapter V	Form 1040	Part Three	Unit 2
Chart 3	(BUT : a W-2 form)	Plate XV	verse 3
Check 181	Illustration 19	Platform 3	Volume II

NOTE: It is often unnecessary to use No. before the number. (See ¶455a.)

Purchase Order 4713 (RATHER THAN: Purchase Order No. 4713)

BUT: Social Security No. 042-62-5340 (NOT: Social Security 042-62-5340)

Titles of Literary and Artistic Works; Headings

360 a. 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

b. Be sure to capitalize short verb forms like *Is* and *Be*. However, do not capitalize *to* when it is part of an infinitive.

How to Succeed in Business Without Really Trying

"Redevelopment Proposal Is Not Expected to Be Approved"

NOTE: When citing titles in text, headings, source notes, or bibliographies, it is important to maintain a consistent style of capitalization. You may thus find it necessary to disregard the capitalization style used on the title page of a particular book or in the heading of a particular article or in the listings in a particular catalog. For reasons of typographic design or graphic appeal, titles may appear in such places in a variety of styles—in capital letters, small letters, small caps, or some combination of these styles. In some cases, only the first word of the title and subtitle is capitalized. In other cases, the first letter of every word is capitalized. In some books a different style of capitalization is used on the book jacket, the title page, and the copyright page. In light of all these variations in capitalization style that you are likely to encounter, impose a consistent style as described in ¶¶360–361. However, do not alter the all-cap style used for acronyms (for example, AIDS) and organizational names (for example, IBM).

- 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"

"The New Economy: Signs and Signals to Watch For"

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 as adverbs in verb phrases or in hyphenated compounds derived from verb phrases. See ¶¶803, 1070.)

"Microsoft Chalks Up Record Earnings for the Year"

"LeClaire Is Runner-Up in Election" (see also $\P363$)

BUT: "Sailing up the Mississippi"

The Spy Who Came In From the Cold

"Foxworth Is Considered a Shoo-In for Governor"

BUT: "Pollsters Project an Easy Win for Foxworth in Heavy Voter Turnout"

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"

"Mall Opening On or About May 1"

"Voters For and Against the New Budget Clash at Hearing"

e. When a title or heading is displayed on more than one line, do not capitalize the first word of any turnover line unless it needs to be capitalized on the basis of the preceding guidelines.

Should You Invest for the Long Pull or Should You Trade Continually? Millions of Dollars

Income per Capita

> For the capitalization of Preface, Contents, Appendix, and Index, see ¶242, note; for the use of all-capital letters with titles, see ¶289b.

362 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

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 proper 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 and Titles
e-mail (see ¶847)	E-mail	E-Mail
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 Clinton	Ex-President Clinton	Ex-President Clinton
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 ¶361c)
Ninety-ninth Congress	Ninety-ninth Congress	Ninety-Ninth Congress
post-World War II	Post-World War II	Post-World War II
one-sixth	One-sixth	One-Sixth
twenty-first	Twenty-first	Twenty-First

NOTE: In the hyphenated names of organizations and products, the word or letter following a hyphen may or may not be capitalized. Follow the organization's style in each case.

Snap-on tools Post-it notepads Etch-A-Sketch
Easy-Off oven cleaner Book-Of-The-Month Club La-Z-Boy

Awards and Medals

364 Capitalize the names of awards and medals.

Pulitzer Prize winners the Purple Heart the Nobel Prize the Medal of Honor

Oscars and Emmys (NOT: the Congressional Medal of Honor)

Computer Terminology

365 a. Use all-capital letters for the names of many programming languages.

COBOL FORTRAN BUT: Java
BASIC APL Ada
BUT: QuickBASIC LISP Logo

b. Use all-capital letters for the names of many operating systems.

MS-DOS UNIX BUT: MacOS X PC-DOS OS/2 Linux

- c. Capitalize the names of Internet search engines (Excite, Yahoo!), Internet service providers (UUNet) and commercial online services (America Online), Web sites (HotWired), online communities (Usenet), and online databases (Lexis, Dialog). Some of these names (such as UUNet and HotWired) follow a special capitalization style known as intercaps. (See ¶366 for more examples.)
- > For the capitalization of words or phrases beginning with Web, see ¶847f.

Intercaps

The names of many organizations and products are written with an unusual style known as *intercaps* or *BiCaps*. Follow the organization's style in each case.

a. The names of computer organizations and products commonly reflect an intercap style. For example:

AltaVista SurfWatch CorelDRAW CyberPatrol iMac TrueType HotWired VirusScan InterNIC NetNanny VisiCalc NeXT OmniPage WebCrawler QuarkXPress PageMaker WordPerfect RealTIME Media PowerPoint ZipZapp TK!Solver

b. The use of intercaps appears in other areas of business as well. For example:

AstroTurf CreataCard greeting cards PlaySkool toys
NordicTrack DieHard batteries ReaLemon juice
NutraSweet DuraSoft contact lenses TraveLodge motels
PowerBar KitchenAid appliances TripTik maps
SaladShooter MasterCard purchases VapoRub ointment

➤ Capitalization of questions within sentences: see ¶¶115, 117.

Capitalization after a colon: see ¶¶196–199.

Capitalization after an opening bracket: see ¶296.

Capitalization after an opening dash: see ¶214, note.

Capitalization after an opening parenthesis: see ¶¶224-226.

Capitalization after an opening quotation mark: see III272-273.

Capitalization of abbreviations: see ¶514.
Capitalization for special emphasis: see ¶285c.

SECTION 4

Numbers

Basic Rules (¶¶401-406)

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Expressing Numbers in Roman Numerals (¶¶468-469)

Expressing Large Numbers in Abbreviated Form (¶470)

> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

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 Rules

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 written communication, you should be prepared to use each style appropriately as the situation demands.

Figure Style

The figure style is most commonly used in ordinary business correspondence (dealing with sales, production, finance, advertising, and other routine commercial matters). It is also used in journalistic and technical material and in academic work of a technical or statistical nature. In writing of this kind, most numbers represent significant quantities or measurements that should stand out for emphasis or quick comprehension.

401 a. Spell out numbers from 1 through 10; use figures for numbers above 10. This rule applies to both exact and approximate numbers.

I would like ten copies of this article, but I need only two or three right away.

I sensed that the project was in trouble from Day One. (See ¶359.)

At the convention we got more than 75 requests for a copy of your report.

We expect about 30 to 35 employees to sign up for the graphic arts course.

The advertising is deliberately pitched at the 40-plus age group.

My letter in last Sunday's paper provoked over 25 letters and some 60-odd phone calls.

There has been a *sixfold* increase in the number of reported incidents. (See ¶817b.)

BUT: There has been a 20-fold increase in the number of reported incidents.

One bookstore chain has already ordered 2500 copies. (See ¶461, note, on the omission of commas in four-digit figures.)

The exhibition drew more than 12,000 people in the first month.

We send out about 200,000 catalogs almost every month, but our year-end holiday catalog is mailed to over 1,000,000 households. (See ¶403b.)

NOTE: In the statement of the rule above ("Spell out numbers from 1 through 10"), figures are used for 1 and 10 because these numbers are referred to as numbers. See ¶401b for a fuller explanation.

> For a note on the use of more than and over with numbers, see Section 11, page 300.

- b. Use all figures—even for the numbers 1 through 10 (as in this sentence)—when they have technical significance or need to stand out for quick comprehension. This all-figure style is used in tables, in statistical material, and in expressions of dates (May 3), money (\$6), clock time (4 p.m.), proportions and ratios (a 5-to-1 shot), sports scores (3 to 1), academic grades (95), and percentages (8 percent). This style is also used with abbreviations and symbols (12 cm, 8°F), with numbers referred to as numbers (think of a number from 1 to 10), with highway designations (U.S. Route 1, I-80), and with technical or emphatic references to age (a tristate clinical study of 5-year-olds), periods of time (a 6-month loan), measurements (parcels over 3 pounds), and page numbers (page 1).
- **c.** In isolated cases spell out a number above 10 in order to de-emphasize the number or make it seem indefinite.

Jonathan could give you a thousand and one reasons for his inability to find a job that's right for him.

I have a hundred things to do today. (In this context 100 things would seem too precise, too exact.)

Thanks a million for all your help on the Tennyson deposition.

When I asked Fran to reconsider, all she said was, "A thousand times no!"

- **d.** 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 need to lose another thirty pounds).
- > For rules on how to express numbers in figures, see ¶¶461–464; for rules on how to express numbers in words, see ¶¶465–467.
- 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.

We used to have two dogs, one cat, and one rabbit.

BUT: We now have 5 dogs, 11 cats, and 1 rabbit. (The rabbit is male.)

When the museum guard was asked how he could be so sure that the dinosaur skeleton on display was precisely 80,000,009 years old, he explained that the dinosaur had been 80,000,000 years old when he started working at the museum 9 years earlier.

Our *four* sons consumed a total of *18* hamburgers, *5* large bottles of diet Coke, *12* DoveBars, and about *2000* cookies—all at *one* sitting. (Figures are used for all the related items of food; the other numbers—*four* and *one*—are spelled out, since they are not related and are not over 10.)

NOTE: In the names of companies and products, follow the organization's style.

a 7-Eleven store a can of 7UP A.1. steak sauce
3-In-One oil V8 juice 9-Lives cat food
Lotus 1-2-3 software 3M office products One-A-Day vitamins

403 a. 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)

Bindel & Boggs is placing an order for 2.4 million barrels of oil.

BUT: Bindel & Boggs is placing a 2.4-million-barrel order. (See ¶817a.)



NOTE: 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. However, if the situation permits numbers to be rounded, this number can be rewritten as 4.8 million.

b. Treat related numbers alike.

Last year we sold 21,557,000 items; this year, nearly 23,000,000.

(NOT: 21,557,000 . . . 23 million.)

> For examples involving money, see ¶416.

Word Style

The word style of numbers is used mainly in high-level executive correspondence (see ¶¶1394–1395) 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.

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 *twenty-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 last Wednesday 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.

More than two hundred people attended the reception for Helen Russo.

BUT: More than 250 people attended the reception. (Use figures when more than two words are required.)

NOTE: In writing of all 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.

 \succ For guidelines on how to express numbers in words, see ¶¶465–467.

405 Express related numbers the same way, even though some are above 100 and some below. If any must be 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.)

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 that 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

The following rules apply to dates in sentences. See ¶1314 for the treatment of date lines in business correspondence.

407 a. When the day *precedes* the month or *stands alone*, express it either in ordinal figures (1st, 2d, 3d, 4th) or in ordinal words (the first, the twelfth, the twentieth).

FOR EMPHASIS: This year's international sales conference runs from Monday, the 2d of August, through Thursday, the 5th.

FOR FORMALITY: We leave for Europe on the third of June and return on the twenty-fifth.

b. When the day *follows* the month, use a cardinal figure (1, 2, 3, etc.) to express it. on March 6

NOTE: Do not use the form *March 6th* or *March sixth*, even though those versions reflect the way the date would sound when spoken aloud.

408 a. Express complete dates in month-day-year sequence.

March 6, 2003

NOTE: In United States military correspondence and in letters from foreign countries, the complete date is expressed in *day*-month-year sequence.

6 March 2003

- **b.** The form 3/6/03 (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, 2003; Mar. 6, 2003; the 6th of March, 2003; the sixth of March, 2003.
- **409** a. When you make a reference to a previous letter, memo, or document in the first sentence of a document you are composing, it is usually sufficient to cite only the month and the day.

Thank you for your letter of May 22, in which . . . (A reader will assume that the current year—as shown in your date line—also applies to the letter of May 22.)

> For the use of a comma between the date and the in which clause, see ¶152.

However, in cases where there can be no room for the slightest ambiguity (for example, in legal documents), it is safer to cite the full month-day-year date in the first sentence.

Thank you for your letter of December 27, 2000, in which . . .

NOTE: It is especially helpful to give the full date when the document you are citing was written in a prior year or when the document is part of a large file that



spans two or more years. Some writers, as a matter of policy, cite the full date under all circumstances.

b. When you make reference to dates elsewhere in the document you are composing, the decision to include or omit the year in these dates will depend on the nature of the document. If the dates are significant from a legal perspective (for example, in schedules specifying deadlines for performance and incremental payments), include the year in all subsequent references to dates. In ordinary correspondence, however, when it is clear from the context that the subsequent dates all fall within the same year as the one shown in the date line or in the first sentence in your document, the use of month and day alone is sufficient.

410 Note the use of commas and other punctuation with expressions of dates.

On August 13, 2001, my husband and I received the bank loan that permitted us to start our own restaurant. (Two commas set off the year following the month and day.)

We set a formal opening date of *November 15, 2001*; we actually opened on *March 18, 2002* (because of the flash fire that virtually destroyed the restaurant and forced us to start from scratch). (Note that the second comma is omitted after *2001* and *2002* because in each case other punctuation—a semicolon or an opening parenthesis—is required at that point.)

Sales for February 2002 hit an all-time low. (Omit commas around the year when it follows the month alone.)

BUT: Once we introduced our new product line in *September 2001*, it was clear that we were finally on the road to a strong recovery. (The comma following *2001* is needed to separate an introductory dependent clause from the rest of the sentence, not because of the date.)

The *May 2001* issue of *The Atlantic* carried an excerpt from Brenda's forthcoming book. (No commas are used when the month-year expression serves as an adjective.)

BUT: The *May 7, 2001,* issue of *Newsweek* broke the story. (Use two commas to set off the year when a complete date serves as an adjective. See §154.)

In 2001 we opened six branch offices in . . . (No comma follows the year in a short introductory phrase unless a nonessential element follows immediately.)

On February 28 we will decide . . . (No comma follows the month and day in a short introductory phrase unless a nonessential element follows immediately.)

BUT: On *February 28*, the date of the next board meeting, we will decide . . . (Insert a comma when a nonessential element follows immediately.)

On February 28, 27 managers from the lowa plant will . . . (Insert a comma when another figure follows immediately. See $\P456$.)

Yesterday, *April 3*, I spoke to a group of exporters in Seattle. On Tuesday, *April 11*, I will be speaking at an international trade fair in Singapore. (Set off a month-day expression when it serves as an appositive. See ¶148.)

On August 28, when the malfunction was first reported, we notified all of our dealers by e-mail about an equipment recall. (The phrase On August 28 establishes when; the when clause that follows is nonessential and is set off with commas.)

- > For the use or omission of a comma when a date is followed by a related phrase or clause, see ¶152.
- 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 two thousand and two in the year of our Lord two thousand and two

412 a. Well-known years in history may appear in abbreviated form.

the stock market crash in '29 the gold rush of '49 (1849) the Olympic Winter Games of '96 **BUT**: the San Francisco 49ers

 Years also appear in abbreviated form in certain business expressions. (See also ¶294.)

FY2001/02 **OR** fiscal year 2001/02 the fall '02/'03 catalog

c. Class graduation years often appear in abbreviated form.

the class of '99 the class of '00 the class of '04

NOTE: There is still no consensus on how to refer aloud to academic classes in the first decade of the twenty-first century. On the basis of the style commonly used at the start of the twentieth century, the class of 2004 (or '04) could be referred to aloud as "the class of aught-four" or "the class of naught-four." The more challenging question is how to refer to the class of '00. One solution is simply to say "the class of two thousand." Other suggestions currently in circulation include "the class of aughty-aught," "the class of naughty-naught," "the double-ohs," "the oh-ohs," and even "the uh-ohs." In time, one expression will probably become established through usage as the dominant form. Until then feel free to choose (or devise) whatever form appeals to you.

➤ For the expression of centuries and decades, see ¶¶438–439; for dates in a sequence, see ¶¶458–460.

Money

413 a. Use figures to express exact or approximate amounts of money.

\$7 over \$1500 more than \$5,000,000 a year a \$50 bill \$13.50 nearly \$50,000 a \$5,000,000-a-year account \$350 worth

- > For a note on the use of more than and over with numbers, see Section 11, page 300.
- **b.** When amounts of money from different countries are referred to in the same context, the unit of currency in each case usually appears as an abbreviation or symbol (or both) before the numerical amount.

US\$10,000 (refers to 10,000 U.S. dollars)
Can\$10,000 (refers to 10,000 Canadian dollars)
Mex\$10,000 (refers to 10,000 Mexican pesos)
DM10,000 (refers to 10,000 German deutsche marks)
£10,000 (refers to 10,000 British pounds)
¥10,000 (refers to 10,000 Japanese yen)
€10,000 (refers to 10,000 euros)

NOTE: If your software provides special character sets, you can access the symbols for the British pound and the Japanese yen. The symbol for the euro—introduced early in 1999—is still so new that it may not be provided by your software. In that case use a small e to represent the euro: e10,000

c. An isolated, nonemphatic reference to money may be spelled out.

two hundred dollars nearly a thousand dollars a twenty-dollar bill a half-dollar half a million dollars a million-dollar house five thousand dollars' worth (note the apostrophe with dollars)

414 Spell out indefinite amounts of money.

a few million dollars

many thousands of dollars

415 It is not necessary to add a decimal point or zeros to a whole dollar amount that occurs in a sentence.

I am enclosing a check for \$125. This model costs \$12.50; that one costs \$10.

In a column, however, if any amount contains cents, add a decimal point and two zeros to all *whole* dollar amounts to maintain a uniform appearance. (See also ¶1629.)

\$\frac{150.50}{8.05}\$
\$\frac{8.05}{5183.55}\$

416 a. Money in round amounts of a million or more may be expressed partly in words. (The style given in the first column is preferred.)

\$12 million	OR	12 million dollars		
\$10½ million	OR	10½ million dollars		
\$10.5 million	OR	10.5 million dollars		
\$6% billion	OR	6¼ billion dollars	OR	\$6250 million
\$6.25 billion	OR	6.25 billion dollars	OR	6250 million dollars

b. This style may be used only when the amount consists of a whole number with nothing more than a simple fraction or decimal following.

10.2 million dollars BUT: \$10,235,000

This style may also be used with the suffix plus. (See also $\P817b$.)

a \$10 million-plus deal

c. Express related amounts the same way.

from \$500,000 to \$1,000,000 (**NOT:** from \$500,000 to \$1 million)

- **d.** Repeat the word *million* (*billion*, etc.) with each figure to avoid misunderstanding. \$5 million to \$10 million (**NOT**: \$5 to \$10 million)
- Fractional expressions of large amounts of money should be either completely spelled out (see ¶427) or converted to an all-figure style.

one-quarter of a million dollars **OR** \$250,000 (**BUT NOT:** ¼ of a million dollars **OR** \$¼ million)

a half-billion dollars **or** \$500,000,000

(BUT NOT: ½ billion dollars OR \$½ billion)

418 a. For amounts under a dollar, ordinarily use figures and the word *cents*.

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.) These 25-cent tokens can be used at all tollbooths.

NOTE: An isolated, nonemphatic reference to cents may be spelled out.

I wouldn't give two cents for that car.

b. Do not use the style \$.75 in sentences except when related amounts require a dollar sign.

It will cost you \$5.47 a copy to do the company manual: \$.97 for the paper, \$1.74 for the printing, and \$2.76 for the special binder.

c. The cent sign (c) may be used in technical and statistical material.

The price of aluminum, 78.6c a pound a year ago, now runs around 69.8c a pound; copper, then selling for 98.6c a pound, now costs 87.6c a pound.

When using the dollar sign or the cent sign with a price range or a series of amounts, use the sign with each amount.

\$5000 to \$8000 \$10 million to \$20 million 10¢ to 20¢ (BUT NOT: \$10 to \$20 million)

These three properties are valued at \$832,900, \$954,500, and \$1,087,000, respectively.

If the term dollars or cents is to be spelled out, use the term only with the final amount.

420 a. In some legal documents, amounts of money are 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 (\$3100.50)

b. 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

(NOT: Six Hundred and 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

c. The capitalization of spelled-out amounts may vary. Sometimes the first letter of each main word is capitalized (as in the examples in ¶420a); sometimes only the first letter of the first word is capitalized (as on checks); sometimes the entire amount is in all-capital letters.

The following rules (¶¶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.

Thirty-four former students of Dr. Helen VanVleck came from all parts of the country to honor their professor on the occasion of her retirement.

Eight hundred people have already signed the recall petition.

Forty to fifty percent of the people polled on different occasions expressed disapproval of the mayor's performance in office.

(NOT: Forty to 50 percent . . .)

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.

You ought to consider 550-MHz Pentium III processors if you want to boost productivity. (Not: 550-MHz Pentium III processors are worth considering . . .)



The company sent out 298 copies of its consumer guidelines last month.

(NOT: Two hundred and ninety-eight copies of its consumer guidelines were sent out by the company last month.)

We had a good year in 2001.

(NOT: Two thousand one [OR 2001] was a good year for us.)

Our mining operations in Nevada provide 60 to 70 percent of our revenues.

(NOT: Sixty to seventy percent of our revenues come from our mining operations in Nevada.)

Indefinite Numbers and Amounts

423 Spell out indefinite numbers and amounts.

several hundred investors hundreds of inquiries
a few thousand acres thousands of readers
a multimillion-dollar sale many millions of dollars
a man in his late forties a roll of fifties and twenties

> For approximate numbers, see ¶401 (figure style) and ¶404 (word style).

Ordinal Numbers

In general, spell out all ordinal numbers (first, second, third, etc.) that can be expressed in one or two words. (A hyphenated number like twenty-first counts as one word.)

in the twenty-first century
twenty-first-century art
on the forty-eighth floor
on my fifty-fifth birthday
the Fourteenth Ward
the firm's one hundredth anniversary
(BUT: the firm's 125th anniversary)
the Ninety-ninth Congress (in text)
the Ninety-Ninth Congress
(in headings and titles; see ¶363)

the two millionth visitor the 106th Congress

the Seventh-Day Adventist Church the Eighteenth Amendment

NOTE: When a hyphenated term like *twenty-first* is the first element in a compound adjective (as in *twenty-first-century art*), the second hyphen may be changed to an en dash (*twenty-first-century art*).

- > For the rule on how to express ordinal numbers in words, see ¶465; for the distinction between ordinals and fractions, see ¶427d.
- **425** a. Use figures for ordinals in certain expressions of dates (see ¶¶407–409), in numbered street names above 10 (see ¶1333b), and in situations calling 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.

- **b.** Ordinal figures are expressed as follows: *1st*, *2d* or *2nd*, *3d* or *3rd*, *4th*, etc. Do not use an "abbreviation" period following an ordinal figure.
- > For the use of 2d in preference to 2nd, see ¶503.

NOTE: Some word processing programs have a default feature that treats ordinal suffixes as superscripts. For example:

21st 32d OR 32nd 43d OR 43rd 54th

If you prefer the on-the-line style, you can undo the superscript feature.

Ordinals that follow a person's name may be expressed in arabic or roman numerals. As a rule, use arabic numerals unless you know that the person in question prefers roman numerals.

James A. Wilson 3d OR James A. Wilson III
C. Roy Post 4th OR C. Roy Post IV

> For the use of commas with numerals after a person's name, see \$\pi 156\$.

Fractions

427 Fractions Standing Alone

a. Ordinarily, spell out a fraction that stands alone (without a whole number preceding); for example, *one-third*. Use figures, however, if the spelled-out form is long and awkward or if the fraction is used in a technical measurement or some type of computation.

one-half the audience (see ¶427c) three-fourths of the profits two-thirds of our employees nine-tenths of a mile away multiply by 2/5 a quarter pound of butter 3/4-yard lengths (BETTER THAN: three-quarter-yard lengths)

5/32 inch (BETTER THAN: five thirty-seconds of an inch)

He came back a half hour later (or half an hour later).

NOTE: Hyphenate half dozen or half a dozen when this phrase is used as a compound modifier before a noun. (See also \$817a.)

l'll take a half-dozen eggs (on half-a-dozen eggs).

BUT: I'll take a half dozen (OR half a dozen).

b. When a fraction is spelled out, hyphenate the numerator and the denominator unless either element already contains a hyphen.

five-eighths thirteen thirty-seconds twenty-seven sixty-fourths

NOTE: Some authorities hyphenate *simple fractions* (those that require only a single word for the numerator and the denominator) when they are used as adjectives but not as nouns.

a two-thirds majority BUT: two thirds of the voters

c. In constructions involving the balanced phrases *one half* . . . *the other half*, do not hyphenate *one half*.

One half of the shipment was damaged beyond use; the other half was 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 meaning *1/100*.) **BUT:** This year the company will be celebrating the *one hundredth* anniversary of its founding. (Unhyphenated ordinal meaning *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)

f. Use a fractional expression to indicate that one thing is smaller than another.

The old library was one-third smaller than the new one.

(NOT: The old library was three times smaller than the new one.)

BUT: The new library is three times larger than the old one.

428 Fractions in Mixed Numbers

a. Ordinarily use figures to express a mixed number (a whole number plus a fraction); for example, 31/4. Spell out a mixed number at the beginning of a sentence.

Our sales are now 4½ times what they were in 1997.

Two and a quarter (or Two and one-quarter) inches of rain fell over the weekend. (Note the use of and between the whole number and the fraction.)

b. When constructing fractions that do not appear on the keyboard or in a special character set with word processing software, use the diagonal (/). Separate a whole number from a fraction by means of a space (not with a hyphen).

Can you still get a fixed-rate mortgage for 7 3/8? (NOT: 7-3/8.)

c. In the same sentence, do not mix ready-made fractions (½, ¼) with those that you construct yourself (7/8, 5/16).

The rate on commercial paper has dropped from 5% percent a year ago to 5% percent today. (**Not**: $5\ 3/4 \ldots 5\%$.)

NOTE: To simplify typing, convert constructed fractions (and simpler ones used in the same context) to a decimal form whenever feasible.

The rate on commercial paper has dropped from 5.75 percent a year ago to 5.5 percent today.

d. When a mixed number is followed by a unit of measure, use the plural form of the unit of measure.

1½ inches OR 1.5 inches BUT: ¾ inch 1 inch

NOTE: If you are using an abbreviated form for a unit of measure, the abbreviation is usually the same for the singular and plural. (See ¶535a.)

The following rules (¶¶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

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 pounds.

BUT: I'm afraid I've gained another two pounds 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 a thirty-mile drive up to our summer place.

NOTE: Dimensions, sizes, and exact temperature readings are always expressed in figures.

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I'm looking for a 4- by 6-foot rug for my reception room. (See also ¶432.)

Please send me a half-dozen blue oxford shirts, size 17½/33.

The thermometer now stands at 32°F, a drop of five degrees in the past hour.

BUT: The temperature has been in the low *thirties* (**OR** 30s) all week. (An indefinite reference to the temperature may be spelled out or expressed in figures.)

When a measurement consists of several elements, do not use commas to separate the elements. The measurement is considered a single unit.

The package weighed 8 pounds 11 ounces.

The punch bowl holds 4 quarts 1 pint.

Hal is 6 feet 8 inches tall in his stocking feet.

NOTE: If this type of measurement is used as a compound modifier before a noun, use hyphens to connect all the elements as a single unit. (See also ¶817.)

a 6-foot-8-inch man

- 431 The unit of measurement may be abbreviated (for example, 12 ft) or expressed as a symbol (for example, 12') in technical material or in tables. If either an abbreviation or a symbol is used, the number must be expressed as a figure.
 - > For the style of abbreviations for units of measure, see ¶¶535–538; for the use of figures with abbreviations and symbols, see ¶453.
- **432** Dimensions may be expressed as follows:

GENERAL USAGE: a room 15 by 30 feet a 15- by 30-foot room

TECHNICAL USAGE: $\begin{cases} a \text{ room } 15 \times 30 \text{ ft} \\ a \text{ room } 15' \times 30' \end{cases}$ a 15- \times 30-ft room a 15' \times 30' room

GENERAL USAGE: a room 5 by 10 meters a 5- by 10-meter room

TECHNICAL USAGE: a room $5 \times 10 \text{ m}$ a $5 - \times 10 \text{-m}$ room

GENERAL USAGE: 15 feet 6 inches by 30 feet 9 inches

TECHNICAL USAGE: 15 ft 6 in \times 30 ft 9 in or 15' 6" \times 30' 9"

> For the use of suspending hyphens in dimensions, see ¶832a-b.

NOTE: When using symbols to signify feet and inches, select either the *straight* style of quotation marks (' for feet and " for inches) or preferably the slanted style (' and "), as shown in the examples above. (See ¶543.) If necessary, access an extended character set to avoid the use of curly quotation marks (' and ") in expressions of feet and inches.

Ages and Anniversaries

Express ages in figures (including 1 through 10) when they are used as significant statistics or as technical measurements.

Ethel Kassarian, 38, has been promoted to executive director of marketing services.

The attached printout projects the amount of the monthly retirement benefit payable at the age of 65. (See the entry for Age-aged-at the age of on page 283.)

A computer literacy program is being offered to all 8- and 9-year-olds. (See §832.)

This insurance policy is specially tailored for people in the 50-plus age group. 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 may be omitted.)

434 Spell out ages in nontechnical references and in formal writing.

My son is three years old and my daughter is two.

Shirley is in her early forties; her husband is in his mid-sixties.

Have you ever tried keeping a group of five-year-olds happy and under control at the same

We've got a surprise party planned for Jack when he reaches the Big Five-Oh.

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 my thirtieth birthday her forty-first class reunion our twenty-fifth anniversary the company's 135th 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 35-hour workweek

a 30-year mortgage

a note due in 6 months

NOTE: In legal documents, periods of time are often expressed twice: first in words and then in figures (enclosed in parentheses).

payable in ninety (90) days

NOT: payable in ninety (90 days)

Spell out nontechnical references to periods of time unless the number requires more than two words.

> a twenty-minute wait eight hours later a half hour from now BUT: 11/2 hours from now (see ¶428a)

the next twelve days a two-week cruise in twenty-four months

in the last thirty years

forty-odd years ago three hundred years ago BUT: 350 years ago

two thousand years ago

438 Centuries may be expressed as follows:

the 1900s **OR** the nineteen hundreds on the twentieth century

the twenty-first century twenty-first-century music

439 a. Decades may be expressed as follows:

the 1990s **OR** the nineteen-nineties the '90s **OR** the nineties the mid-1960s OR the mid-sixties OR the mid-'60s

in the 1980s and 1990s **or** in the '80s and '90s

(BUT NOT: in the 1980s and '90s or in the 1980s and nineties)

during the years 1993-2003 **OR** from 1993 to 2003 (see ¶459)

on between 1993 and 2003

b. There is still no consensus on how to refer to the first decade of the twenty-first century. One possibility is the aughts (the term used to refer to the first decade of the twentieth century). Among the other suggestions currently circulating are the ohs, the zeros, the zips, the naughties, and the preteens. Until one expression becomes established through usage as the dominant term, it may be safest to refer simply to the first decade of the twenty-first century.



c. Decades are not capitalized except in expressions such as the Gay Nineties and the Roaring Twenties.

Clock Time

440 With a.m., p.m., Noon, and Midnight

a. Always use figures with a.m. or p.m.

We take off at 8:45 a.m.

The bus is due 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.

- > For abbreviations of time zones such as CST, see ¶534.
- **b.** In books, journals, and similar publications, *a.m.* and *p.m.* usually appear in small capitals without internal space (A.M., P.M.). In other material, *a.m.* and *p.m.* typically appear in small letters without internal space; however, you can use small capitals if you have that option. Avoid the use of all-capital letters.
- c. For time "on the hour," zeros are not needed to denote minutes unless you want to give special emphasis to the precise hour.

Our store is open from 9:30 a.m. to 6 p.m. (NOT: 6:00 p.m.)

BUT: Our store is always open until 6:00. (See $\P 442$ for the use of zeros when a.m. or p.m. is omitted.)

You may call me between 7:30 a.m. and 4 p.m., Monday through Friday. You can reach me on the weekends between 2 and 5 p.m.

We always close from 12 noon to 1:30 p.m.

From a church bulletin: The Low Self-Esteem Support Group will meet on Thursday between 9:30 and 11 a.m. Please use the back door.

In tables, however, when some entries are given in	Arr.	Dep.
hours and minutes, add a colon and two zeros to	8:45	9:10
exact hours to maintain a uniform appearance. (For	9:00	9:25
more complex illustrations showing the alignment	9:50	10:00
of clock times in columns, see ¶1627b.)		

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. (**NOT**: 6 p.m. o'clock)

ten o'clock **or** 10 a.m. (**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, and 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.

Dinner is served in the main dining room until midnight. BUT: Dinner is served from 6 p.m. until 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

on 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 and in the afternoon.

10 o'clock at night

seven o'clock in the morning

For quick comprehension, use the forms 10 p.m. and 7 a.m.

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 OR arrive at 8:00 (NOT: at 8)

five after six OR 6:05

a quarter past ten OR 10:15

twenty of four or 3:40

a quarter to five on a quarter of five OR 4:45

half past nine or nine-thirty 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 rules (99443-455) 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) 58,919.23785 (comma used in whole part of the number)

- > For the metric style of writing decimals, see ¶461b.
- 444 When a decimal stands alone (without a whole number preceding the decimal point), insert a zero before the decimal point. (Reason: The zero keeps the reader from overlooking the decimal point.)

0.55 inch

0.08 gram

EXCEPTIONS: a Colt .45; a .36 caliber revolver

- Ordinarily, drop the zero at the end of a decimal (for example, write 2.787 rather than 2.7870). However, retain the zero (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 figures add zeros to the end of a decimal in order to make the number as long as other numbers in the column. (For illustrations, see ¶¶1627, 1629, 1630, 1632.)
- **446** Do not begin a sentence with a decimal figure.

The temperature was 63.7. **(NOT:** 63.7 was the temperature.)

Percentages

Express percentages in figures, and spell out the word *percent*. (See ¶¶421–422 for percentages at the beginning of a sentence.)

When your mortgage rate goes from 8 percent to 8.8 percent, it may have increased by less than 1 percentage point, but you'll pay 10 percent more in interest.

Yogi Berra once said, "Baseball is 90 percent mental. The other half is physical."

My client expected a 25 percent discount. (NOT: a 25-percent discount.)

Our terms are 2 percent 10 days, net 30 days. (Abbreviate these credit terms 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 material.

- **448** a. Fractional percentages under 1 percent may be expressed as follows: one half of 1 percent or 0.5 percent (see ¶444)
 - Prostional assessment and 1 toward about the assessment in

b. Fractional percentages *over 1 percent* should be expressed in figures.

7½ percent **or** 7.5 percent 9½ percent **or** 9.25 percent

In a range or series of percentages, the word *percent* follows the last figure only. If the symbol % is used (see ¶447, note), it must follow each figure.

We give discounts of 10, 20, and 30 percent. (BUT: 10%, 20%, and 30%.)

> For the use of % in a column of figures, see ¶1630; for the use of percent and percentage, see page 302.

Ratios and Proportions

450 As a rule, 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

NOTE: A nontechnical reference may be spelled out.

a fifty-fifty chance of success OR a 50-50 chance of success

Scores and Voting Results

451 Use figures (even for 1 through 10) to express scores and voting results.

a score of 85 on the test a vote of 17 to 6

New York 8, Chicago 6

BUT: a 17-6 vote

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 16

multiply by %

Figures With Abbreviations and Symbols

453 a. Always use figures with abbreviations and symbols.

\$50 10:15 a.m. 43% 2 in **OR** 2" FY2002 (see ¶1621c) 65¢ 6 p.m. No. 631 I-95 200 km (see ¶537)

b. 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)

 $5\frac{1}{2}$ " \times 8"
 $5\frac{1}{2}$ by 8 inches OR $5\frac{1}{2}$ \times 8 in

 $9' \times 12'$ 9 by 12 feet OR 9×12 ft

 30%-40% 30 to 40 percent

 50\$\(\chi\$-60\$\chi\$
 50 to 60 cents

 \$70\$-\$80
 seventy to eighty dollars

NOTE: A symbol should be used with each number in a series.

discounts of 5%, 10%, and 15% BUT: discounts of 5, 10, and 15 percent

Telephone Numbers

- **454** a. Insert a hyphen after the first three digits of a telephone number; for example, 555-1789. If a company chooses to express its phone number partially or entirely in words, follow the company's style; for example, 345-GIFT, 4-ANGIES, JOB-HUNT, CASH-NOW, GOFEDEX, PICK-UPS.
 - **b.** When providing a telephone extension along with the main number, use the following form: 555-4890, Ext. 6041. (In formal correspondence, spell out *Extension*.)
 - **c.** When the area code precedes a phone number, there are several ways to treat the number. The style most commonly seen, especially in text material, uses a hyphen (with no space on either side) to connect the elements: 707-555-3998.

The style that encloses the area code in parentheses—(707) 555-3998—is also frequently used, but it does not work well in text material when the phone number as a whole has to be enclosed in parentheses.

You can reach me by phone (707-555-3998) during normal business hours.

BUT NOT: ... by phone ((707) 555-3998) during normal business hours.

When telephone numbers are displayed (for example, in letterheads and on business cards), other styles are often seen. Some writers prefer to use a diagonal after the area code: 707/555-3998. Others simply leave spaces between the elements: 707 555 3998. And a relatively new style—707.555.3998—uses periods to separate the elements; because these periods resemble the dots in e-mail addresses, this style may well grow in popularity.

- \succ For the types of phone numbers used in business letterheads, see $\P\P 1311-1312$.
- **d.** When an access code precedes the area code and the phone number, use a hyphen to connect all the elements.

Please use our toll-free, 24-hour phone number: 1-800-555-6400.

Now that there are no more 800 or 888 phone numbers available, our new toll-free, 24-hour phone number will be 1-877-555-8758.

e. International phone numbers typically contain a series of special access codes. Use hyphens to connect all the elements.

```
011-64-9-555-1523
Linternational access code from the United States
Lountry access code
Licity access code
```

NOTE: The international access code 011 is valid only for international calls placed within the United States.

f. When you are providing a U.S. phone number in a printed or electronic document that may elicit calls from other countries, use a plus sign to represent the international access code and the numeral 1 to represent the country access code for the United States. For example:

```
+ 1,-415-555-2998

a symbol representing another country's international access code

the country access code for the United States

a U.S. area code
```

Since each country has its own international access code—for example, 191 is the code for outgoing calls from France—use a plus sign rather than a specific international access code unless you are sure all international calls to your number will come from only one country.

NOTE: Telephone calls between the United States and Canada, Puerto Rico, and most places in the Caribbean/Atlantic calling region do not require the use of international access codes.

No. or # With Figures

455 a. 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. (Not: No. 82175...) Our manager says the Southern Region has to be No. 1 in sales—or else!
```

b. If an identifying noun precedes the figure (such as *Invoice*, *Check*, *Room*, or *Box*), the abbreviation *No*. is usually unnecessary.

Our check covers *Invoices* 8592, 8653, and 8654. (See ¶463 for other exceptions.)

- c. The symbol # may be used on business forms and in technical material.
- > For the capitalization of nouns preceding figures, see ¶359.

The following rules (¶¶456-470) deal with two technical aspects of style: (1) treating numbers that are adjacent or in a sequence and (2) expressing numbers in figures, words, or roman numerals.

Adjacent Numbers

When two numbers come together in a sentence and both are in figures or both are in words, separate them with a comma.



In 1995, 78 percent of our field representatives exceeded their sales goal.

Although the meeting was scheduled for two, ten people did not show up.

On page 192, 25 problems are provided for review purposes.

On Account 53512, \$125.40 is the balance outstanding.

On May 8, 18 customers called to complain.

NOTE: No comma is needed when one number is in figures and the other is in words.

On May 9 seven customers called to complain.

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

BUT:

500 four-page leaflets

sixty \$5 bills

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

the years 1996, 2000, and 2004

459 a. Use an en dash (or a single hyphen if you do not have access to an en dash) to link two figures that represent a continuous sequence. The en dash means "up to and including" in the following expressions:

on pages 18-28

in Articles I-III

during the week of May 15-21

during the years 1999-2003

NOTE: Do not insert space before or after the en dash or the hyphen. (See also \$299.)

- > For a full discussion of the use of the en dash and additional examples, see π 217.
- **b.** Do not use the en dash (or hyphen) if the sequence is introduced by the word *from* or *between*.

from 1998 to 2001

between 2001 and 2002

(**NOT**: from 1998–2001) (**NOT**: between 2001–2002)

460 a. In a continuous sequence of figures connected by an en dash or a hyphen, the second figure may be expressed in abbreviated form. This style is used for sequences of page numbers or years when they occur quite frequently. In isolated cases, do not abbreviate. (See ¶217.)

1997-98 (OR 1997-1998)

pages 110-12 (or pages 110-112)

2001-2 (OR 2001-2002)

pages 101-2 (OR pages 101-102)

b. Do not abbreviate the second number when the first number ends in two zeros.

2000-2005 (**NOT**: 2000-05)

pages 100-101 (NOT: pages 100-1)

c. Do not abbreviate the second number when it starts with different digits.

1995-2003 (NOT: 1995-03)

pages 998-1004 (NOT: pages 998-04)

d. Do not abbreviate the second number when it is under 100.

46-48 A.D.

pages 46-48

> For a usage note on A.D., see page 282.

Expressing Numbers in Figures

461 a. When numbers run to five or more figures, use commas to separate thousands, hundreds of thousands, millions, etc., in *whole* numbers. Do not use commas in the decimal part of a number. (See also ¶443.)

12,375

147,300

\$11,275,478

4,300,000,000

BUT: 70,650.37248

NOTE: The comma is now commonly omitted in four-digit whole numbers except in columns with larger numbers that require commas.

3500 **or** 3,500

\$2000.50 OR \$2,000.50

b. In metric quantities, use a space 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 that has larger numbers.

5181 OR 5 181

0.3725 OR 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.

2003

8760 Sunset Drive

New York, NY 10021

1500°C

page 1246

Room 1804

602-555-2174 (see ¶454)

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

BUT: Social Security No. 152-22-8285

Patent No. 222,341

> For the capitalization of nouns before numbers, see ¶359; for the use of No., see ¶455.

464 To form the plurals of figures, add s. (See ¶624.)

in the '90s (decades)

in the 90s (temperature)

Expressing Numbers in Words

a. 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

seven hundred and twenty-five (and may be omitted)

five thousand seven hundred and twenty-five (no commas)

b. Do not hyphenate other words in a spelled-out number over 99.

one hundred nineteen hundred two thousand three hundred thousand

six hundred million fifty-eight trillion

c. When a spelled-out number appears in a place name, follow the style shown in an authoritative postal directory or atlas.

Twentynine Palms, California Eighty Four, Pennsylvania Ninety Six, South Carolina Thousand Oaks, California

> For the capitalization of hyphenated numbers, see ¶363.

1470

- When there are two ways to express a number in words, choose the simpler form. For example, use the form *fifteen hundred* rather than *one thousand five hundred*. (The longer form is rarely used except in formal expressions of dates. See ¶411.)
- **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.)

ones twos threes sixes twenty-fives thirds sixths eighths twenties thirty-seconds

> For spelled-out dates, see ¶411; for spelled-out amounts of money, see ¶¶413c, 414, 417, 418, 420; for spelled-out fractions, see ¶¶427–428.

Expressing Numbers in Roman Numerals

Roman numerals are used chiefly for the important divisions of literary and legislative material, for main topics in outlines, for dates, and in proper names.

Chapter VI Pentium III MCMXCIX (1999)
Volume III World War I MMIV (2004)

NOTE: Pages in the front section of a book or a formal report (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. (See ¶¶1420, 1427.)

469 To form roman numerals, consult the following table.

1	1	13	XIII	60	LX	1,100	MC
2	II	14	XIV	70	LXX	1,400	MCD
3	Ш	15	XV	80	LXXX	1,500	MD
4	IV	19	XIX	90	XC	1,600	MDC
5	V	20	XX	100	С	1,900	MCM
6	VI	21	XXI	200	CC	2,000	MM
7	VII	24	XXIV	400	CD	5,000	V
8	VIII	25	XXV	500	D	10,000	\overline{X}
9	IX	29	XXIX	600	DC	50,000	Ĺ
10	Χ	30	XXX	800	DCCC	100,000	Ĉ
11	XI	40	XL	900	CM	500,000	\overline{D}
12	XII	50	L	1,000	M	1,000,000	M

NOTE: A bar appearing over any roman numeral indicates that the original value of the numeral is to be multiplied by 1000.

Expressing Large Numbers in Abbreviated Form

470 In technical and informal contexts and in material where space is tight (such as tables and classified ads), large numbers may be abbreviated.

ROMAN STYLE: 48M (48,000); 6.3M (6,300,000)

METRIC STYLE: 31K (31,000); K stands for kilo, signifying thousands

5.2M (5,200,000); M stands for *mega*, signifying millions 8.76G (8,760,000,000); G stands for *giga*, signifying billions 9.4T (9,400,000,000,000); T stands for *tera*, signifying trillions

> Division of large numbers at the end of a line: see ¶915. House, street, and ZIP Code numbers: see ¶¶1332–1333, 1339, 1341c.

SECTION 5

Abbreviations

Basic Rules (¶¶501-514)

When to Use Abbreviations (¶¶501–505) Punctuation and Spacing With Abbreviations (¶¶506–513) Capitalization (¶514)

Special Rules (¶¶515–549)

Personal Names and Initials (¶¶515-516)

Abbreviations With Personal Names (¶¶517–518)

Academic Degrees, Religious Orders, and Professional Designations (¶519)

Names of Organizations (¶¶520-521)

Acronyms (¶522)

Names of Broadcasting Stations and Systems (¶523)

Names of Government and International Agencies (99524-525)

Geographic Names (¶¶526-529)

Compass Points (¶¶530-531)

Days and Months (¶532)

Time and Time Zones (¶¶533–534)

Customary Measurements (¶¶535-536)

Metric Measurements (¶¶537-538)

Chemical and Mathematical Expressions (¶¶539-540)

Business Expressions (¶¶541–542)

Symbols (¶543)

Computer Abbreviations (¶544)

Foreign Expressions (¶545)

Miscellaneous Expressions (¶¶546–549)

> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

ection 3 - Appreviations

Basic Rules

When to Use Abbreviations

- **501** a. An abbreviation is a shortened form of a word or phrase used primarily to save space. Abbreviations occur most frequently in technical writing, statistical material, tables, and notes.
 - b. Abbreviations that are pronounced letter by letter—for example, IBM, Ph.D., p.m.—may be referred to as initialisms. Abbreviations that are pronounced as words—for example, ZIP (Code), AIDS, laser—are called acronyms (see ¶522). Occasionally, an abbreviation may have two acceptable pronunciations—for example, URL (which stands for uniform resource locator and refers to a specific Web address for an individual or an organization). When URL is pronounced you arrell, it is an initialism; when pronounced erl, it is an acronym.
 - **NOTE:** The use of a or an before an abbreviation will depend on whether the abbreviation is an initialism or an acronym. See the entry for a-an on pages 281-282.
 - **c.** When using an abbreviation, do not follow it with a word that is part of the abbreviation. Consider the following example, which uses the abbreviation for *compact disc (CD)*.

Mary Jo has an enormous collection of CDs (NOT: CD discs).

➤ See also ¶522f.

- a. 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 writing, where a more formal style is appropriate, use abbreviations sparingly. When in doubt, spell it out.
 - **b.** Some abbreviations are always acceptable, even in the most formal contexts: those that precede or follow personal names (such as *Mr.*, *Ms.*, *Mrs.*, *Jr.*, *Sr.*, *Esq.*, *Ph.D.*, *S.J.*); 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.* and *B.C.*).
 - **c.** Organizations with long names are now commonly identified by their initials in all but the most formal writing (for example, *NAACP*, *SEC*).
 - **d.** Days of the week, names of the months, geographic names, and units of measure should be abbreviated only on business forms, in expedient documents, and in tables, lists, and narrow columns of text (for example, in a newsletter or brochure where space is tight).
 - **e.** When an abbreviation is only one or two keystrokes shorter than the full word (for example, *Pt.* for *Part*), do not bother to abbreviate except to achieve consistency in a context where similar terms are being abbreviated. (See also ¶532 for abbreviations of months.)
- 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.

continued: Use cont. rather than contd.

2 pounds: Use 2 lb rather than 2 lbs (see ¶620). 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).

megabyte, kilobyte: Use MB, KB for clarity rather than M, K.

NOTE: Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, Tenth Edition, the basic authority for all spelling in this manual, shows virtually every abbreviation without any periods, even though in actual practice many abbreviations are still written with periods.* Thus, for example, unless your Latin is very good, you may not realize that in the expression et al., the word et is a full word (meaning "and") and requires no period, whereas al. is short for alii (meaning "others") and does require a period. Under these circumstances, for specific abbreviations not shown in this manual, you will need to consult another up-to-date dictionary.

The forms shown here reflect the spellings found in Merriam-Webster, but the punctuation is based on observations of actual practice and is consistent with the style recommended by other authorities.

Be consistent within the same material: do not abbreviate a term in some sentences and spell it out in other sentences. Moreover, having selected one form of an abbreviation (say, c.o.d.), do not use a different style (COD) elsewhere in the same material. (See ¶542.)

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.

At the end of fiscal year (FY) 2000, we showed a profit of \$1.2 million; at the end of FY2001, however, we showed a loss of \$1.8 million.

on: At the end of FY2000 (fiscal year 2000) . . .

a. Given a choice between an abbreviation and a contraction, choose the abbreviation. It not only looks better but is easier to read.

cont. (RATHER THAN: cont'd) govt. (RATHER THAN: gov't) dept. (RATHER THAN: dep't) mfg. (RATHER THAN: m'f'g)

b. 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.

you're doesn't could've rock 'n' roll let's don't o'clock s'mores

EXCEPTIONS: c'mon (come on) wannabes (want-to-bes)

li'l (little) zine (magazine)

NOTE: Respect a company's preference when it uses a contraction in its corporate name or in the name of a product.

Wash'n Dri Puss'N Boots Dunkin' Donuts Bran'nola

Sweet'n Low Linens N' Things Cap'n Crunch Chock full o' Nuts Shake 'n Bake Light n' Lively Ship 'n' Shore Land O Lakes

^{*}It is interesting to note that Merriam-Webster itself uses periods with certain abbreviations (for example, masc., fem., trans., fr., prob., lit., and ca.) when they occur functionally within the main text of the dictionary, even though these same abbreviations are given without periods in the section on abbreviations at the back of the dictionary.

- **c.** As a rule, contractions are used only in informal writing or in tables where space is limited. However, contractions of verb phrases (such as *can't* for *cannot*) 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 considered a more formal way to express time than *a.m.* or *p.m.*).
- **d.** Be sure to distinguish certain contractions from possessive pronouns that sound the same but do not use an apostrophe.

Ron has been pushing the Kirschner proposal for all it's worth. (In other words, for all it is worth.)

Let's get an outside consultant to analyze the Kirschner proposal and assess its worth. (Here its is a possessive pronoun; no apostrophe should be used.)

- > For further examples and a test on whether to use a contraction or a possessive pronoun, see \$\pi\1056e\$.
- e. Note that certain contractions can have more than one meaning.

What's her name? (What is her name?)

What's he do for a living? (What does he do for a living?)

What's been happening? (What has been happening?)

When's the last time you saw her? (When was the last time you saw her?)

Let's find out. (Let us find out.)

Punctuation and Spacing With Abbreviations

506 a. The abbreviation of a single word requires a period at the end.

Mrs. Jr. Corp. pp. Wed. misc. Esq. Inc. Nos. Oct.

NOTE: When the abbreviations appear in the names of organizations and products, the period is occasionally omitted. Always follow the style of the organization.

Dr. Denton's clothing BUT: Dr Pepper soft drinks

b. Units of measurement are now commonly written without periods. (See ¶¶535a, 538a.)

Almost all small-letter abbreviations made up of single initials require a period after each initial but no space after each internal period.

a.m. i.e. f.o.b. **BUT:** rpm mpg p.m. e.g. e.o.m. cpi mph

> For the omission of periods with abbreviations of units of measure, see ¶535a; for the definition of business abbreviations like f.o.b. and e.o.m., see ¶541.

All-capital abbreviations made up of single initials normally require no periods and no internal space.

AMA IRS CEO PIN www UAW UN VIP ATM RAM PBS **AICPA PSAT** OCR IRA MIT NFL VCR UFO FTP

EXCEPTIONS: Retain the periods in abbreviations of geographic names (such as U.S.A.), academic degrees (such as B.A., M.S.), and a few expressions (such as A.D.,

B.C., and P.O.). Also retain the periods when they are used in the names of organizations and products (for example, B.V.D. underwear, S.O.S. scouring pads).

If an abbreviation of two or more words consists of more than single initials, insert a period and a space after each element in the abbreviation.

N. Mex.

Lt. Col.

Rt. Rev.

loc. cit.

nol. pros.

EXCEPTIONS: Academic abbreviations, such as *Ph.D.* (doctor of philosophy), *LL.B.* (bachelor of law), and *Litt.D.* (doctor of letters), are written with periods but no spaces. Units of measurement such as *sq ft* and *cu cm* are written with spaces but no periods.

A number of shortened forms of words are not abbreviations and should not be followed by a period. (See ¶236c and ¶524, note.)

abs	deli	info	prefab	specs
арр	demo	lab	prep	stereo
caps	exam	limo	promo	sync
cell phone	expo	logo	repro	temp
combo	fax	memo	req	typo
comp	glutes	micros	sales rep	zine
condo	high-tech	perks	sci-fi	before the 2d
co-op	hype	photo	sitcom	after the 5th

A number of the *sales reps* have sent a *fax*, asking for some *info* on this year's incentive *comp* plans.

When you check the *repros* for *typos*, please watch out for the problems we had with *caps* in our last *promo* piece, and make sure our *logo* is not left off this time.

Also check everything against the original specs, and tell me what the total prep costs are.

One space should follow an abbreviation within a sentence unless another mark of punctuation follows immediately.

You ought to talk to your CPA about that problem.

Dr. Wilkins works in Washington, D.C., but his home is in Bethesda.

Please call tomorrow (before 5:30 p.m.).

When Jonas asked, "When do you expect to finish your Ph.D.?" Fred looked embarrassed. (See ¶261c regarding the omission of a comma after an introductory dependent clause.)

I'm waiting for some word on Harrison, Inc.'s stock repurchase plan. (See 11638-639 for possessive forms of abbreviations.)

One or two spaces should follow an abbreviation at the end of a sentence that makes a statement. (See ¶102.) If the abbreviation ends with a period, that period also serves to mark the end of the sentence. If the abbreviation ends without a period, insert one to mark the end of the sentence.

Helen has just returned from a trip to Washington, D.C. Next year . . .

NOTE: Ordinarily, placing an abbreviation at the end of a sentence that makes a statement poses no problem. However, when the correct form of an abbreviation is the issue under discussion, place the abbreviation elsewhere in the statement. In that way the reader will not have to guess whether the period that marks the end of the statement also marks the end of the abbreviation.

5

1516

The correct postal abbreviation for *Alaska* is *AK*. (Here the period applies only to the end of the sentence.)

CLEARER: AK is the correct postal abbreviation for Alaska.

The correct abbreviation for *numbers* is *Nos.* (Here the period applies to the end of the statement *and* the abbreviation.)

CLEARER: Nos. is the correct abbreviation for numbers.

If rewording the sentence is not feasible, then as a last resort use this solution:

The correct postal abbreviation for Alaska is AK (no period).

513 No space should follow an abbreviation at the end of a question or an exclamation. Insert a question mark or exclamation point directly after the abbreviation.

Did you see Jack Hainey being interviewed last night on CBS? Because of bad weather our flight didn't get in until 4 a.m.!

Capitalization

Most abbreviations use the same capitalization as the full words for which they stand.

Mon. Monday e-mail electronic mail

Btu British thermal unit D.C. District of Columbia

EXCEPTIONS: CST Central standard time

A.D. anno Domini (see page 282)

> For abbreviations with two forms (for example, COD or c.o.d.), see ¶542.

The following rules (\P ¶515-549) offer guidance on how to treat 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. Jos. Robt. Beni. las Wm. Saml. Edw. Tom Ine Ed Roh Bill Sam Ben Jim

NOTE: Do not abbreviate first and middle names unless (a) you are preparing a list or table where space is tight or (b) a person uses such abbreviations in his or her legal name. (See also ¶1321a.)

516 a. Each initial in a person's name should be followed by a period and one space.

W. E. B. Du Bois Mr. L. Bradford Anders

J. T. Noonan & Co. L. B. Anders Inc. (see also ¶159)

NOTE: Respect the preference of individuals and of companies that use a person's initials in their company name.

Harry S Truman BFGoodrich FAO Schwarz L.L. Bean JCPenney S.C. Johnson

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)

NOTE: If you know that an individual prefers some other form (for example, FGO'B rather than FGO), respect that preference.

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. (Here the letters are used in place of real names, but they are not abbreviations of those names.)

BUT: Call Mrs. G. when you get a chance. (Here G. is an initial representing an actual name like Galanos.)

e. The abbreviation NMI is sometimes used on forms and applications to indicate that an individual has no middle initial.

Abbreviations With Personal Names

PLURAL:

517 a. Always abbreviate the following titles when they are used with personal names:

SINGULAR: (Mrs. (for Mistress)

Mr.

Dr.

Mme. (for Madame)

Mmes. OR Mesdames

Mses. OR Mss. Messrs.

Drs.

Mr. and Mrs. Pollo both speak highly of Dr. Fry.

Ms. Harriet Porter will serve as a consultant to the Finance Committee.

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. Always respect the individual woman's preference. If her preference is unknown, use the title Ms. or omit the title altogether. (See also ¶¶618, 1322b, 1366.)

- > For the proper use of the singular and plural forms of these titles, see ¶618; for the use of Dr. with degrees, see ¶519c.
- **b.** The titles *Miss* and *Misses* are not abbreviations and should not be followed by periods.
- **c.** In general, spell out all other titles used with personal names.

Vice President Howard Morse

Professor Harriman

Mayor Wilma Washington Governor Warren R. Fishback Father Hennelly

Dean Castaneda

Senator Hazel Benner Lieutenant Cowan

d. Long military, religious, and honorable titles are spelled out in formal situations but may be abbreviated in informal situations as long as the surname is accompanied by a first name or initials.

Formal

Informal

Brigadier General Percy J. Cobb

Brigadier General Cobb (NOT: Brig. Gen. Cobb)

Lieutenant Governor Nancy Pulaski

Lieutenant Governor Pulaski (NOT: Lt. Gov. Pulaski)

Lt. Gov. Nancy Pulaski

Brig. Gen. P. J. Cobb

NOTE: Do not abbreviate *Reverend* or *Honorable* when these words are preceded by *the*.

Formal

Informal

the Reverend William R. Bullock the Honorable Sarah T. McCormack Rev. W. R. Bullock Hon, Sarah T. McCormack

> For the treatment of titles in addresses, see ¶¶1322–1323; for the treatment of titles in salutations, see ¶¶1347–1350.

- **518** a. Always abbreviate *Jr.*, *Sr.*, and *Esq.* when these terms follow personal names.
 - **b.** The forms *Jr.* and *Sr.* should be used only with a full name or initials. A title like *Mr.* or *Dr.* may precede the name.

Mr. Henry J. Boardman Jr. or Mr. H. J. Boardman Jr.

Mr. and Mrs. Henry J. Boardman Jr. OR Henry J. Boardman Jr. and Sybil P. Boardman (BUT NOT: Henry J. and Sybil P. Boardman Jr. OR Henry J. Jr. and Sybil P. Boardman)

NOTE: Ordinarily, do not use Jr. or Sr. with a surname alone. However, in an office where both father and son work, it may be necessary in internal communications to refer to Mr. Boardman Sr. and Mr. Boardman Jr. as the only practical way to tell them apart.

- > For the use or omission of commas with Jr. and Sr., see ¶156.
- **c.** The form *Esq.* should also be used only with a full name or initials, but no title should precede the name. (See ¶157.)

George W. LaBarr, Esq.

(NOT: Mr. George W. LaBarr, Esq.)

NOTE: In the United States the form *Esq.* is used primarily by lawyers. Although by derivation the title applies strictly to males, it is now common practice for women who are lawyers to use the title as a professional designation.

- **d.** The terms 2d or II and 3d or III following personal names are not abbreviations and should not be used with periods.
- **e.** When the word *Saint* is part of a person's name, follow that person's preference for abbreviating or spelling out the word.

Yves Saint-Laurent

Camille Saint-Saëns

Ruth St. Denis

St. John Perse

NOTE: When used with the name of a person revered as holy, the word *Saint* is usually spelled out, but it may be abbreviated in informal contexts and in lists and tables where space is tight.

Saint Jude

Saint Peter Claver

Saint Thérèse

Saint Catherine

> For the treatment of Saint in place names, see ¶529b.

Academic Degrees, Religious Orders, and Professional Designations

519 a. Abbreviations of academic degrees and religious orders require a period after each element in the abbreviation but no internal space.

B.S.	LL.B.	B.Ch.E.	M.D.	S.J.
M.B.A.	Litt.D.	B.Arch.	D.D.S.	O.S.B.
Ph.D.	- Ed.D.	M.Div.	R.N.	S.N.D.

NOTE: The term *ABD* (without periods) is often used to identify a graduate student who has completed all the requirements for a doctorate except the dissertation. (The initials stand for *all but dissertation*.)

So far we have received résumés from two *Ph.D.s* and seven *ABDs*. (See ¶622a for guidelines on forming the plurals of these abbreviations.)

b. The term *M.B.A.* is now commonly written without periods when it is used to signify an executive with a certain type of training rather than the degree itself.

We have just hired two Stanford MBAs and one from Harvard.

BUT: After I get my M.B.A., I plan to go on to law school.

c. When academic degrees follow a person's name, do not use such titles as *Dr.*, *Mr.*, *Ms.*, *Miss*, or *Mrs.* before the name.

Dr. Helen Garcia OR Helen Garcia, M.D.

(BUT NOT: Dr. Helen Garcia, M.D.)

However, other titles may precede the name as long as they do not convey the same meaning as the degree that follows.

Professor Rex Ford, Ph.D.

the Reverend John Day, D.D.

President Jean Dill, L.H.D.

on the Reverend Dr. John Day

Dean May Ito, J.S.D.

(BUT NOT: the Reverend Dr. John Day, D.D.)

- > See also ¶¶1324c, 1324d, 1364a.
- **d.** Academic degrees standing alone may be abbreviated except in very formal writing.

I am now completing my Ph.D.

She received her M.A. last year.

OR . . . her master of arts degree last year. (See also ¶353.)

e. Professional designations such as CPA (certified public accountant), CPS (certified professional secretary), PLS (certified professional legal secretary), CFP (certified financial planner), CLU (chartered life underwriter), and FACS (fellow of the American College of Surgeons) are commonly written without periods when they are used alone but with periods when they are used with academic degrees.

Anthony Filippo, CPA

BUT: Anthony Filippo, B.S., M.B.A., C.P.A.

Ruth L. Morris, CLU

Ruth L. Morris, B.A., C.L.U.

NOTE: List professional designations after a person's name (for example, in the signature line in a letter) only in situations where one's professional qualifications are relevant to the topic under discussion.

Names of Organizations

a. Names of well-known business organizations, labor unions, societies, associations (trade, professional, charitable, and fraternal), and government agencies are often abbreviated except in the most formal writing. When these abbreviations consist of all-capital initials, they are typed without periods or spaces.

AFL-CIO American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations

ILGWU International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union

NAACP National Association for the Advancement of Colored People

NYSE New York Stock Exchange

NAM National Association of Manufacturers
NIMH National Institute of Mental Health
YMCA Young Men's Christian Association
IRS Internal Revenue Service
SEC Securities and Exchange Commission

b. The following terms are often abbreviated in the names of business organizations. However, follow the individual company's preference for abbreviating or spelling out.

Mfg. Manufacturing Co. Company Inc. Incorporated Mfrs. Manufacturers Corp. Corporation Ltd. Limited

In ordinary correspondence, for the sake of brevity and simplicity, you may drop abbreviations and other elements in organizational names as long as your reader will know which company you are referring to. For example, Charles Schwab & Co., Inc., may be referred to simply as Schwab; America Online, Inc., may be referred to as America Online or AOL. In formal and legal documents, an organization's name should be given in full when it is first introduced; if appropriate, a shorter form may be used in subsequent references.

Acronyms

C-SPAN

a. An acronym—for example, NOW—is a shortened form derived from the initial letters of the words that make up the complete form. Thus NOW is derived from National Organization for Women. Like all-capital abbreviations such as IRS 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 as words. (See ¶501b.) Because they have been deliberately coined to replace the longer expressions they represent, acronyms are appropriate for use on all occasions.

Cable Satellite Public Affairs Network

WATS Wide-Area Telecommunications Service POTS plain old telephone service ZIP (Code) Zone Improvement Plan PIN personal identification number (see ¶522f) SKU stockkeeping unit (pronounced SKEW) SOHO small office, home office (as in the SOHO market) BOGO buy-one, get-one-free offer **AMEX** American Stock Exchange (see ¶522c for AmEx) National Association of Security Dealers Automated Quotations (see ¶522e) NASDAQ DRIP dividend reinvestment program **ESOP** employee stock ownership plan **OSHA** Occupational Safety and Health Administration RICO Racketeer Influenced and Corrupt Organizations Act (pronounced REE-koe) **FOIA** Freedom of Information Act (pronounced FOY-uh) **EPIC** Electronic Privacy Information Center AIDS acquired immune deficiency syndrome CARE Cooperative for American Relief to Everywhere

NIMBY not in my backyard (as in a NIMBY protest)

BANANA build almost nothing anywhere near anything

SADD Students Against Destructive Decisions

FONZ Friends of the National Zoo

EMILY's List a political fund-raising group based on the concept that early money is like

yeast (and makes the dough rise)

SPELL Society for the Preservation of English Language and Literature

MEGO <u>my</u> eyes glaze over

BOGSAT <u>bunch of guys sitting around a table (an ad hoc decision-making process)</u>
SITCOMs couples with a single income, two children, and an onerous mortgage

PONA person of no account (someone not hooked up to the Internet; pronounced

POH-nuh)

WOMBAT waste of money, brains, and time

PEBCAK problem exists between chair and keyboard (computer service technician's

diagnosis in the absence of other problems)

YABA yet another bloody acronym

b. In a few cases acronyms derived from initial letters are written entirely in small letters without periods.

scuba <u>self-c</u>ontained <u>u</u>nderwater <u>b</u>reathing <u>a</u>pparatus laser <u>light a</u>mplification by <u>s</u>timulated <u>e</u>mission of radiation

yuppies young urban professionals

gorp good old raisins and peanuts (a high-energy snack)

c. Some coined names use more than the first letters of the words they represent. Such names are often written with only the first letter capitalized.

American Sign Language

Delmarva an East Coast peninsula made up of Delaware and parts of Maryland and

Virginia

Conrail Consolidated Rail Corporation
Amtrak American travel by track

Calpers <u>California Public Employees Retirement System</u>
Echo <u>East Coast Hang Out (an online service)</u>

The Well The Whole Earth 'Lectronic Link (an online community)

radar <u>ra</u>dio <u>detecting and ranging</u>
sonar <u>so</u>und <u>na</u>vigation <u>ranging</u>
modem <u>mo</u>dulator and <u>dem</u>odulator
canola (oil) <u>Can</u>ada, oil low acid

op-ed page that is opposite the editorial page

pixel picture element

domos <u>do</u>wnwardly <u>mo</u>bile professional<u>s</u>
dinks couple with <u>d</u>ouble <u>i</u>ncomes and <u>no kids</u>

FedEx Federal Express

INTELPOST International Electronic Postal Service

d. In a few cases all-capital abbreviations such as *MC* (for *master of ceremonies*) or *DJ* (for *disc jockey*) may also be spelled out in an uncapitalized form (*emcee* and *deejay*). The spelled-out forms are preferable when such abbreviations are used as verbs.

4

¶525

Fran Zangwill emceed (RATHER THAN: MC'd) the fund-raiser kickoff dinner.

Who has been okaying (RATHER THAN: OK'ing) these bills? (See ¶548.)

BUT: You'd find it easier to get up in the morning if you didn't OD on TV every night. (Here the choice is between OD and overdose, not oh-dee.)

e. Very long acronyms (with six or more letters) are sometimes written with only the initial letter capitalized to avoid the distracting appearance of too many capital letters.

UNESCO or Unesco (the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization) UNICEF OR Unicef (the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund; now simply called the United Nations Children's Fund)

f. When using an acronym, do not follow it with a word that is part of the acronym. Consider the following examples with PIN (personal identification number) and ATM (automated teller machine).

With all the PINs (NOT PIN numbers) I have to remember these days, I feel as if I were turning into a PINhead.

The ATM (**Not** the ATM machine) at the State Street branch has swallowed my card again.

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 all-capital letters without periods and without spaces.

> Portsmouth: WRAP-AM San Antonio: KISS-FM CNN (BUT: CNNfn)

KIIT-FM New Orleans: WYES-TV Houston: **MSNBC** According to ABC and CBS, the earthquake had a magnitude of 6.8.

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.

> **FNMA** the Federal National Mortgage Association (often referred to as Fannie Mae, the result of trying to sound out the initials FNMA)

GNMA Government National Mortgage Association (referred to as Ginnie Mae)

SLMA Student Loan Marketing Association (referred to as Sallie Mae) **FHLMC** <u>Federal Home Loan Mortgage Corporation</u> (referred to as Freddie Mac)

FEMA the Federal Emergency Management Agency EEOC the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

NOTE: Expressions such as the Fed (for the Federal Reserve Board) and the Ex-Im Bank (for the U.S. Export-Import Bank) involve shortened forms rather than true abbreviations and thus are written without periods.

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 spelled out.

> U.S. Department of Agriculture **USDA** U.S. Air Force **USAF**

the United States government the U.S. government United States foreign policy U.S. foreign policy throughout the United States (NOT: throughout the U.S.)

Geographic Names

Do not abbreviate geographic names except in tables, business forms, and expedient documents (see ¶502) and in place names with *Saint*. (See ¶529b.)

NOTE: In informal writing, the city of Washington may be referred to as D.C. and Los Angeles as L.A. In general, however, spell these names out.

INFORMAL CONTEXT: Did you know that Liz has been transferred from the *D.C.* office to the branch in *L.A.?*

OTHER CONTEXTS: Did you know that Liz has been transferred from the Washington, D.C., office to the branch in Los Angeles?

- **527 a.** When abbreviating state names *in addresses*, use the two-letter abbreviations (without periods) shown in ¶1341 and on the inside back cover.
 - **b.** In all situations other than addresses, use the following abbreviations (with periods and spacing as shown).

Alabama	Ala.	North Dakota	N. Dak.
Arizona	Ariz.	Oklahoma	Okla.
Arkansas	Ark.	Oregon	Oreg.
California	Calif.	Pennsylvania	Pa.
Canal Zone	C.Z.	Puerto Rico	P.R.
Colorado	Colo.	Rhode Island	R.I.
Connecticut	Conn.	South Carolina	S.C.
Delaware	Del.	South Dakota	S. Dak.
District of Columbia	D.C.	Tennessee	Tenn.
Florida	Fla.	Texas	Tex.
Georgia	Ga.	Vermont	Vt.
Illinois	111.	Virgin Islands	V.I.
Indiana	Ind.	Virginia	Va.
Kansas	Kans.	Washington	Wash.
Kentucky	Ky.	West Virginia	W. Va.
Louisiana	La.	Wisconsin	Wis.
Maryland	Md.	Wyoming	Wyo.
Massachusetts	Mass.	Alberta	Alta.
Michigan	Mich.	British Columbia	B.C.
Minnesota	Minn.	Manitoba	Man.
Mississippi	Miss.	New Brunswick	N.B.
Missouri	Mo.	Newfoundland	Nfld.
Montana	Mont.	Northwest Territories	
Nebraska	Nebr.	and Nunavut	N.W.T.
Nevada	Nev.	Nova Scotia	N.S.
New Hampshire	N.H.	Ontario	Ont.
New Jersey	N.J.	Prince Edward Island	P.E.I.
New Mexico	N. Mex.	Quebec	P.Q. or Que.
New York	N.Y.	Saskatchewan	Sask.
North Carolina	N.C.	Yukon	Y.T. or Yuk.

NOTE: Alaska, Guam, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Maine, Ohio, and Utah are not abbreviated.

5

¶531

528 a. Geographic abbreviations made up of single initials require a period after each initial but no space after each internal period.

> P.R.C. People's Republic of China U.K. United Kingdom

C.I.S. Commonwealth of Independent States N.A. North America

(formerly the U.S.S.R.) B.W.I. British West Indies

NOTE: When a company uses a geographic abbreviation in its corporate name or in the name of a product, respect the company's style.

U.S.A. BUT: USA Today U.S.

BUT: U S WEST Communications

b. If the geographic abbreviation contains more than single initials, space once after each internal period.

N. Mex. N. Dak. W. Va. W. Aust.

529 a. In place names, do not abbreviate Fort, Mount, Point, or Port except in tables and lists where space is tight.

Mount Pleasant Point Pleasant Fort Wayne Port Arthur Fort Myers Mount Rainier Point Pelee Port Ludlow

b. In U.S. place names, abbreviate Saint. For other place names involving Saint, follow the style shown in an authoritative dictionary or atlas.

St. Louis, Missouri St. Lawrence River St. Petersburg, Florida St. Charles Avenue

> For the abbreviation or the spelling out of names of streets, cities, states, and countries, see also ¶¶1334-1337, 1340-1341, 1343.

Compass Points

530 a. Spell out compass points used as ordinary nouns and adjectives.

The company has large landholdings in the Southwest.

We purchased a lot at the southwest corner of Green and Union Streets.

- \triangleright For the capitalization of compass points, see ¶¶338–341.
- **b.** Spell out compass points included in street names except in lists and tables where space is tight. (See also ¶1334.)

143 South Mountain Avenue 1232 East Franklin Street

531 a. Abbreviate compass points without periods when they are used *following* a street name to indicate the section of the city. (See also ¶1335.)

1330 South Bay Boulevard, SW

NOTE: In some communities the predominant style is to use periods in such abbreviations; for example, S.W., N.E. (See ¶1335.)

b. In technical material (especially pertaining to real estate and legal or nautical matters), abbreviate compass points without periods.

N north NE northeast NNE north-northeast S south . SW southwest SSW south-southwest S

Days and Months

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, as in the column heads of some computer reports, the following one- and two-letter abbreviations may be used.

Su M Tu W Th F Sa Ja F Mr Ap My Je JI Au S O N D

Time and Time Zones

Use the abbreviations a.m. and p.m. in expressions of time. These abbreviations most commonly appear in small letters, but you may use small capitals (A.M., P.M.) if you have that option. (See ¶440.) For more formal expressions of time, use o'clock (see ¶441).

534 a. The standard time zones in the continental United States are abbreviated as follows:

EST (Eastern standard time) MST (Mountain standard time)
CST (Central standard time) PST (Pacific standard time)

> For examples, see ¶440a.

b. When daylight saving time is in effect, use DST (daylight saving time) or one of the following forms:

EDT (Eastern daylight time) MDT (Mountain daylight time)
CDT (Central daylight time) PDT (Pacific daylight time)

NOTE: When referring to daylight saving time, note that saving is singular. Do not say "daylight savings time."

c. An alternative style of time zone abbreviations eliminates all references to standard and daylight time.

ET (Eastern time) MT (Mountain time)
CT (Central time) PT (Pacific time)

These shorter abbreviations are especially useful in promotional materials that are to be distributed without change throughout the year.

To place an order, call our toll-free number between 7 a.m. and 6 p.m., PT.

or . . . between 7 a.m. and 6 p.m. (PT).

d. Puerto Rico and the U.S. Virgin Islands are in the Atlantic standard time zone (AST). Hawaii is in the Hawaii-Aleutian time zone (abbreviated simply as HST with reference to Hawaii). Alaska falls in the Alaska time zone (which is commonly abbreviated as YST, referring to an earlier designation, the Yukon time zone). Within these areas only Alaska observes daylight saving time (YDT).

1537

Customary Measurements

535 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. The abbreviations are the same for the singular and the plural.

oz (ounce, ounces) rpm (revolutions per minute) vd (yard, yards) cpi (characters per inch) gal (gallon, gallons) ft (foot, feet) Ib (pound, pounds) mph (miles per hour) mi (mile, miles)

NOTE: The abbreviation in (for inch or inches) may be written without a period if it is not likely to be confused with the preposition in.

8 in OR 8 in. BUT: 8 sq in

b. In a set of simple dimensions or a range of numbers, use an abbreviation only with the last number. Repeat a symbol with each number.

```
BUT: a room 10' × 15' (see ¶543c)
a room 10 \times 15 ft
35° to 45°F or 35°-45°F (see ¶¶538c, 543c)
```

NOTE: In a set of complex dimensions, where more than one unit of measure is involved, repeat the abbreviations with each number.

a room 10 ft 6 in \times 19 ft 10 in **OR** a room 10' 6" \times 19' 10" (see ¶432)

536 In nontechnical writing, spell out units of measure.

> a 20-gallon container 8½ by 11 inches a 150-acre estate an 81/2- by 11-inch book (see ¶817)

Metric Measurements

The following rules of style are based on the Metric Editorial Guide, published by the American National Metric Council (Washington, D.C.). For a full listing of metric terms, consult a dictionary.

537 The most common metric measurements are derived from three basic units and several prefixes indicating multiples or fractions of a unit, as shown below. The abbreviations for these terms appear in parentheses in the first column below.

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 (2.2 pounds). gram (g)

liter (L)* A liter is about 5 percent bigger than a quart (1.057 quarts).

Prefixes Indicating Fractions

deci (d) 1/10 A decimeter (dm) equals 1/10 meter. centi (c) 1/100 A centigram (cg) equals 1/100 gram. milli (m) 1/1000 A milliliter (mL) equals 1/1000 liter.

Prefixes Indicating Multiples

deka (da)	10	A dekameter (dam) equals 10 meters (about 11 yards).
hecto (h)	100	A hectogram (hg) equals 100 grams (about 31/2 ounces).
kilo (k)	1000	A kilometer (km) equals 1000 meters (about 5/8 mile).

Continued on page 148

^{*}The abbreviation for liter is often shown as a lowercase l. However, because an l can easily be mistaken for the numeral I, the use of a capital L is recommended as the abbreviation for liter.

NOTE: Temperatures are expressed in terms of 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).

- > For the use of spaces in figures expressing metric quantities, see ¶461b.
- 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 typically appear in abbreviated form (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)

an office 5×3 m (about 5.5 by 3.3 yards)

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.

1 kg (1 kilogram)

5 kg (5 kilograms)

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 superscripts (raised numbers).

m² square meter

cm3 cubic centimeter

If the equipment you are using makes it difficult or awkward to create raised numbers, use the following forms:

sq m square meter

cu cm cubic centimeter

NOTE: In material that also uses superscripts for footnote references, use the forms $sq\ m$ and $cu\ cm$ to avoid the possibility of confusion.

Chemical and Mathematical Expressions

539 Do not use a period after the symbols that represent chemical elements and formulas.

K (potassium)

NaCl (sodium chloride-table salt)

The chemical notations $\rm H_2O$ and $\rm CO_2$ stand for "dihydrogen oxide" (namely, water) and "carbon dioxide." They do not refer, as one student observed, to hot water and cold water.

Do not use a period after such mathematical abbreviations as *log* (for *logarithm*) and *tan* (for *tangent*).

community development

1541

Business Expressions

A number of terms are commonly abbreviated on business forms, in tables, and in routine business documents. In addition to the list of abbreviations shown below, several other lists are provided in the following paragraphs:

CDC

> Computer abbreviations and acronyms: see ¶544.
Abbreviations in foreign expressions: see ¶545.
Common abbreviations in general usage: see ¶546.

administrative assistant.

AA	administrative assistant, Alcoholics Anonymous,	CDC	community development corporation
	author's alteration(s)	CEO	chief executive officer
A.A.	associate in arts (degree)	CFO	chief financial officer
acct.	account	cg	centigram(s)
ack.	acknowledge	chg.	charge
addl.	additional	c.i.f. or CIF	cost, insurance, and freight
agt.	agent		(see ¶542)
AHS	automated highway systems	CIO	chief information officer
Al	artificial intelligence	CKO	chief knowledge officer
a.k.a.	also known as	cm	centimeter(s)
amt.	amount	Co.	Company
anon.	anonymous	c/o	care of
AP	accounts payable	c.o.d. or COD	cash (or collect) on delivery
APB	all points bulletin		(see ¶542)
approx.	approximately	COLA	cost-of-living adjustment
APR	annual percentage rate	cont.	continued
AR	accounts receivable	C00	chief operating officer
ARM	adjustable-rate mortgage	Corp.	Corporation
ASAP	as soon as possible	CPA	certified public accountant
Assn.	Association		(see ¶519e)
assoc.	associate(s)	срі	characters per inch (see ¶507)
asst.	assistant	CPI	consumer price index
att.	attachment	CPM	cost per thousand
Attn.	Attention	CPS	certified professional
avg.	average	OF 0	secretary (see ¶519e)
bal.	balance	cr.	credit
bbl	barrel(s)	ctn.	carton
bf	boldface type	cwt.	hundredweight
bl	bale(s)	d.b.a. or DBA	doing business as (see ¶542)
BL or B/L	bill of lading	dept.	department
bldg.	building	dis.	discount
ВО	back order	dist.	district -
BS or B/S	bill of sale	distr.	distributor, distribution,
B-school	graduate school of business		distributed
bu	bushel(s)	div.	division
C, CC	copy, copies (see ¶1376a)	DJIA	Dow Jones industrial average
С	100; Celsius (temperature)	doz.	dozen
CBD	central business district	dr.	debit
	•		Continued on page 150

dstn.	destination	IPO	initial public offering (of
dtd.	dated		company shares)
DVD	digital videodisc	ips	inches per second
ea.	each	JIT	just in time
EEO	equal employment opportunity	kg	kilogram(s)
enc.	enclosed, enclosure	kHz	kilohertz
EOE	equal opportunity employer(s)	km	kilometer(s)
e.o.m. or	end of month (see ¶542)	km/h	kilometers per hour
EOM		1., 11.	line, lines
Esq.	Esquire	L	liter(s) (see ¶537)
ETA	estimated time of arrival	lb	pound(s)
ETD	estimated time of departure	LBO	leveraged buyout
exec.	executive	l.c.l. or LCL	less-than-carload lot (see
F	Fahrenheit (temperature)	021 202	¶542)
f.a.s. or FAS	free alongside ship (see ¶542)	LIFO	last in, first out
f.b.o. or FBO	for the benefit of (see ¶542)	LLP	limited-liability partnership
FIFO	first in, first out	Ltd.	Limited
f.o.b. or FOB	free on board (see ¶542)	m	meter(s) (see ¶537)
fps	feet per second	M	1000
ft	foot, feet	M&A	mergers and acquisitions
ft-tn	foot-ton(s)	max.	maximum
fwd.	forward	mdse.	merchandise
FY	fiscal year (see ¶504)	mfg.	manufacturing
FYI		mfr.	manufacturer
	for your information	mg	milligram(s)
g GAAP	gram(s) (see ¶537)	mgr.	manager
GAAP	generally accepted accounting principles	mgt. or	management
gal	gallon(s)	mgmt.	management
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs	MHz	megahertz
u/iii	and Trade	mi	mile(s)
GM	general manager	min	minute(s)
gr.	gross	min.	minimum
gr. wt.	gross weight	misc.	miscellaneous
hdlg.	handling	mL	milliliter(s)
HMO	health maintenance	mm	millimeter(s)
TIMO	organization		
HOV	high-occupancy vehicle	mo MO	month(s)
HP on hp	horsepower	MO	mail order, money order (see <i>M.O.</i> in ¶545)
HQ	headquarters	mpg	miles per gallon
hr	hour(s)	mph	miles per hour
Hz	hertz (a unit of frequency)	msg.	message
in oR in.	inch(es) (see ¶535a, note)	mtg.	mortgage
Inc.	Incorporated	n/30	net in 30 days
incl.	including, inclusive	NA	not applicable, not available
ins.	insurance	n.d.	no date
	international		
intl.		NGO	nongovernmental organization
inv.	invoice	NIC	newly industrialized country

			110
No., Nos.	number(s) (see ¶455)	recd.	received
nt. wt.	net weight	reg.	registered, regular
NV	no value	REIT	real estate investment trust
OAG	Official Airline Guide	ret.	retired
OJT	on-the-job training	rev.	revised
opt.	optional	RIF	reduction in force
OS	out of stock	ROA	return on assets
OTC	over the counter	ROE	return on equity
OZ	ounce(s)	ROI	return on investment
p., pp.	page, pages	rpm	revolutions per minute
P&H	postage and handling	S&H	shipping and handling
P&L or P/L	profit and loss (statement)	SASE	self-addressed stamped
PC	personal computer, politically		envelope
	correct	sc or SC	small caps (see ¶533)
P.C.	professional corporation	sec	second(s)
pd.	paid	sec.	secretary
PE	printer's error(s), Professional	shtg.	shortage
	Engineer	SO	shipping order
P/E	price/earnings (ratio)	SSN	social security number
PERT	program evaluation and	std.	standard
nka	review technique	stge.	storage
pkg. PO	package(s) purchase order	stmt.	statement
P.O.	post office	SUV	sport utility vehicle
p.o.e. or POE	port of entry (see ¶542)	t.b.a. ox TBA	to be announced (see ¶542)
pop.	population	t.b.d. or	to be determined (see ¶542)
POP	point of purchase	TBD	to be determined (see 542)
POS	point of sale	TM	trademark
POV	point of view	то	table of organization
PP	parcel post	treas.	treasury, treasurer
ppd.	postpaid, prepaid (postage	UPC	Universal Product Code
ppu.	paid in advance)	VAT	value-added tax
	-: (-)		

A few common business abbreviations listed in ¶541 are frequently typed in small letters (with periods) when they occur within sentences but are typed in all-capital letters (without periods) when they appear on business forms. For example:

pr.

pt

pt.

QA

Q&A

qt

qtr.

qty.

R

PS, PS.

pair(s)

pint(s)

quart(s)

quantity

quarter(ly)

postscript

part, point(s), port

quality assurance

question and answer

registered trademark

		-									
c.i.f.	OR	CIF	e.o.m.	OR	EOM	I.c.I.	OR	LCL	t.b.a.	OR	TBA
c.o.d.	OR .	COD	f.o.b.	OR	FOB	p.o.e.	OR	POE	t.b.d.	OR	TBD

VP

VS.

w/

whsle

w/o

wt.

yd

yΓ

YOB

YTD

vice president

with

wholesale

weight

yard(s)

year(s)

year of birth

year to date

without, week of

versus (v. in legal citations)

Symbols

543 a. A number of symbols are often used on business forms, in tables and statistical material, and in informal business documents. If you are using software with special character sets, you can access these symbols.

@	at	0	degrees	#	number (before a figure)
&	and	=	equals	#	pounds (after a figure)
%	percent	•	feet	¶	paragraph
\$	dollars	"	inches; ditto	×	by, multiplied by
¢	cents	§	section		

NOTE: When using symbols for feet and inches, use either the *slanted* version of the single and double quotation mark ('and ") or the *straight* version ('and "). Do not use the *curly* version ('and ").

b. Leave one space before and after the following symbols:

```
@ order 200 @ $49.95 = if a = 7 and b = 9 & Kaye & Elman Inc. \times a room 12 \times 18 ft
```

NOTE: As a rule, do not leave any space before and after an ampersand (&) in all-capital abbreviations.

AT&T pursues a wide range of R&D [research and development] activities.

At the next shareholders' meeting we need to anticipate some tough queries during the Q&A [question and answer] session about our M&A [merger and acquisition] activities.

c. Do not leave space between a figure and one of the following symbols:

% a 65% sales increase # use 50# paper for the job \$\cdot\$ about 30\$ a pound ' a 9' \times 12' Oriental carpet \$\cdot\$ reduce heat to 350° " an $8\frac{1}{2}$ " \times 11" sheet of paper

d. Do not leave any space after these symbols when they are followed by a figure:

Computer Abbreviations

The following list presents some of the abbreviations commonly used in references to computers and the Internet.

ASCII	American Standard Code for Information Interchange (pronounced as-kee)
BASIC	Beginner's All-Purpose Symbolic Instruction Code
BBSs	<u>b</u> ulletin <u>b</u> oard <u>services</u> (see ¶622a)
BCD	<u>b</u> inary <u>c</u> oded <u>d</u> ecimal
BIOS	basic input/output system
bit	<u>bi</u> nary digi <u>t</u>
BLOB	<u>b</u> inary <u>l</u> arge <u>object</u>
bps	<u>b</u> its per <u>s</u> econd
CAD	computer-aided design
CAI	computer-aided instruction
CAM	computer-aided manufacturing
CAR	computer-assisted retrieval
CD-ROM	compact disk-read-only memory

CGA <u>color graphics adapter</u>
CPU <u>central processing unit</u>
CRT <u>cathode-ray tube</u>

DBMS database management system

DOS <u>disk operating system</u>
dpi <u>dots per inch</u>
DTP <u>desktop publishing</u>
e-mail <u>electronic mail</u>
EOF end of file

FAQ <u>frequently asked questions (pronounced fak)</u>

FAT file allocation table

FTP file transfer protocol

GIGO garbage in, garbage out

GUI graphical <u>u</u>ser <u>i</u>nterface (pronounced *goo-ee*)

I-Way Information Superhighway

IC <u>integrated circuit</u>
I/O <u>input/output</u>

ISP Internet service provider
KB or K kilobyte (see ¶503)
LAN local area network
LCD liquid crystal display
LQ letter quality

MB **or** M <u>megabyte</u> (see ¶503)

MICR <u>magnetic ink character reader</u>

NC <u>network computer</u>
NLQ <u>near letter quality</u>

OCR <u>optical character recognition or reader</u>

OS <u>operating system</u>
PC <u>personal computer</u>

PIC personal intelligent communicator

PPP <u>point-to-point protocol</u>
RAM <u>random-access memory</u>

RISC <u>reduced instruction set computer</u>

ROM <u>read-only memory</u>

SCSI <u>small computer system interface port (pronounced scuzzy)</u>

SET Secure Electronic Transactions
SLIP Serial line Internet protocol

TCP/IP <u>transmission control protocol/Internet protocol</u>
UCE <u>unsolicited commercial e-mail (also called spam)</u>

VDT <u>v</u>ideo <u>d</u>isplay <u>t</u>erminal

VM voice mail

WAIS wide area information server (pronounced ways)

WAN wide area network

WORM write once-read many times

WWW or W3 the World Wide Web (sometimes pronounced triple-dub to avoid having

to say double-u, double-u, double-u)

W3C World Wide Web Consortium

WYSIWYG what you see is what you get (pronounced wiz-ee-wig)

XGA extended graphics array

Y2K the Year 2000 Problem; also known as the Millennium Bug (referring to

the potential worldwide crash of computers not modified to recognize

dates beginning with the year 2000)

NOTE: When using a computer abbreviation like those listed above, do not follow it with a word that is part of the abbreviation.

CD-ROM (NOT: CD-ROM disc)

DOS (NOT: DOS operating system)

ISP (NOT: ISP provider)

LCD (NOT: LCD display)

RAM (NOT: RAM memory)

TCP/IP (NOT: TCP/IP protocol)

➤ For a glossary of computer terms, see Appendix B; for the capitalization of computer terms, see ¶¶365, 366a, 847f.

Foreign Expressions

Many foreign expressions contain or consist of short words, some of which are abbreviations and some of which are not. Use periods only with abbreviations.

ad hoc meaning "for a particular purpose"

ad val. ad valorem, meaning "according to the value"

c. **OR** ca. circa, meaning "approximately" cf. confer, meaning "compare" Cie. Compagnie, meaning "Company"

C.V. curriculum vitae, meaning "course of one's life"; a résumé

e.g. exempli gratia, meaning "for example" et al. et alii, meaning "and other people"

etc. et cetera, meaning "and other things," "and so forth"

ibid. *ibidem,* meaning "in the same place"

idem meaning "the same"
i.e. id est, meaning "that is"
infra meaning "below"

inst. instans, meaning "the current month" loc. cit. loco citato, meaning "in the place cited"

M.O. *modus operandi*, meaning "the way in which something is done"

N.B. nota bene, meaning "note well"

nol. pros. nolle prosequi, meaning "to be unwilling to prosecute"

non seq.

op. cit.

p.a. or PA

p.d. or PD

per diem, meaning "for each day"

processes to proce

pro tem pro tempore, meaning "for the time being" prox. proximo, meaning "in the next month"

Q.E.D. quod erat demonstrandum, meaning "which was to be demonstrated"

q.v. quod vide, meaning "which see"

re **or** in re meaning "in the matter of," "concerning" R.S.V.P. **or** R.s.v.p. *Répondez s'il vous plaît,* meaning "please reply"

supra meaning "above"

ult. *ultimo*, meaning "in the last month"

Miscellaneous Expressions

546 The following list of expressions presents common abbreviations acceptable in general usage.

A-OK	very definitely OK	our morale is A-OK
ATM	automated teller machine	get \$50 from the nearest ATM
AV	audiovisual	a list of AV materials
CB	citizens band	called in on her CB radio
CD	certificate of deposit,	investing in 6% CDs
	compact disc	the quality of a CD recording
CPR	cardiopulmonary resuscitation	a need for CPR training
ESP	extrasensory perception	their manager must have ESP
GDP	gross domestic product	the GDP for the fourth quarter
ID	identification data	show your user ID card
IOU	I owe you	holds my IOU for \$500
IQ	intelligence quotient	take an IQ test
IRA	individual retirement account	make a tax-deductible deposit to your IRA
IV	intravenous	he's still hooked up to an IV (device)
PA	public address	a problem with our PA system
PAC	political action committee	limiting the role of PACs
PR	public relations	work on your PR campaign
R&D	research and development	need a bigger R&D budget
S&L	savings and loan association	a small S&L mortgage
SOP	standard operating procedure	find out the SOP for submitting expense reports
SRO	standing room only	an SRO audience at our show
TLC	tender, loving care	give this customer some TLC
TV	television	watch for it on TV
UFO	unidentified flying object	took off like a UFO
VCR	videocassette recorder	play this tape on your VCR
VIP	very important person	treat these VPs like VIPs

NOTE: Initialisms and acronyms are continually entering the language, and while they may not yet be widely used, in many cases they ought to be. For example:

- IAD Internet addictive disorder (a compulsive form of behavior in which the victim chooses cyberspace activities over real-world responsibilities and relationships)
- QCD quarterly charm deficiency (an emotional disorder that afflicts executives at the end of each fiscal quarter)
- **547** Do not use periods with letters that are not abbreviations. (See also ¶109a.)

Brand X T-bill f-stop I-beam pointer V-chip X ray T square y-axis U-turn B picture

- The abbreviation *OK* is written without periods. In sentences, the forms *okay*, *okayed*, and *okaying* look better than *OK*, *OK'd*, and *OK'ing*, but the latter forms may be used. (See also ¶522d.)
- 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 ¶¶619–623.
Possessives of abbreviations: see ¶¶638–639.

SECTION 6

Plurals and Possessives

Forming Plurals (¶¶601–626)

Basic Rule (¶601)

Nouns Ending in S, X, CH, SH, or Z ($\P\P602-603$)

Nouns Ending in Y (¶¶604–605)

Nouns Ending in O (¶¶606–607)

Nouns Ending in F, FE, or FF (9608)

Nouns With Irregular Plurals (¶¶609–610)

Compound Nouns (¶¶611–613)

Foreign Nouns (¶614)

Proper Names (¶¶615-617)

Personal Titles (¶618)

Abbreviations, Letters, Numbers, Words, and Symbols (¶¶619-625)

Plural Endings in Parentheses (¶626)

Forming Possessives (¶¶627–652)

Possession Versus Description (¶¶627-629)

Singular Nouns (¶¶630–631)

Plural Nouns (¶¶632–633)

Compound Nouns (¶¶634–635)

Pronouns (¶¶636–637)

Abbreviations (¶638)

Personal, Organizational, and Product Names (¶¶639-640)

Nouns in Apposition (¶641)

Separate and Joint Possession (¶¶642-643)

Possessives Standing Alone (¶644)

Inanimate Possessives (¶¶645-646)

Possessives Preceding Verbal Nouns (¶647)

Possessives in Of Phrases (¶648)

Possessives Modifying Possessives (¶649)

Possessives in Holidays (¶650)

Possessives in Place Names (¶651)

Miscellaneous Expressions (¶652)

> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

Forming Plurals

When you are uncertain about the plural form of a word, consult a dictionary. If no plural is shown, form the plural according to the rules in ¶¶601–626.

Basic Rule

601 Plurals are regularly formed by adding s to the singular form.

_	•				
suburb	suburbs	rhythm	rhythms	league	leagues
fabric	fabrics	flight	flights	alibi	alibis
yield	yields	quota	quotas	ski	skis
egg	eggs	idea	ideas	taxi	taxis
length	lengths	committee	committees	menu	menus
check	checks	freebie	freebies	bayou	bayous

NOTE: A few words have the same form in the plural as in the singular. (See $\P\P603$, 1014, 1016, 1017.)

Nouns Ending in S, X, CH, SH, or Z

When the singular form ends in s, x, ch, sh, or z, the plural is formed by adding es to the singular.

virus	viruses	sketch	sketches
summons	summonses	wish	wishes
business	businesses	quartz	quartzes
fax	faxes	BIIT: QUIZ	quizzes

NOTE: When ch at the end of a singular word has the sound of k, form the plural by simply adding s.

epoch	epochs	monarch	monarchs
stomach	stomachs	BUT: arch	arches

> For plural forms of proper names ending in ch, see ¶615b, 617.

Singular nouns ending in silent s do not change their forms in the plural. (However, the s ending is pronounced when the plural form is used.)

one corps two corps a rendezvous many rendezvous

Nouns Ending in Y

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.

сору	copies	liability	liabilities
policy	policies	proxy	proxies

When a singular noun ends in y preceded by a *vowel*, the plural is formed by adding s to the singular.

delay	delays	guy	guys
attorney	attorneys	BUT: soliloquy	soliloquies
boy	boys	colloquy	colloquies

NOTE: The regular plural of *money* is *moneys*. The plural form *monies* does not follow the rule, but it often appears in legal documents nonetheless.



Nouns Ending in O

606 Singular nouns ending in *o* preceded by a *vowel* form their plurals by adding *s* to the singular.

stereo	stereos	shampoo	shampoos
ratio	ratios	boo	boos
portfolio	portfolios	tattoo	tattoos
scenario	scenarios	duo	duos

- **607** Singular nouns ending in *o* preceded by a *consonant* form their plurals in different ways.
 - a. Some nouns in this category simply add s.

ego	egos	memo	memos
photo	photos	placebo	placebos
macro	macros	two	twos
typo	typos	weirdo	weirdos
logo	logos	hairdo	hairdos

b. Some add es.

potato	potatoes	hero	heroes
tomato	tomatoes	embargo	embargoes
echo	echoes	fiasco	fiascoes

c. Some have two plural forms. (The preferred form is given first.)

cargo	cargoes, cargos	zero	zeros, zeroes
no	nos, noes	tuxedo	tuxedos, tuxedoes
motto	mottoes, mottos	innuendo	innuendos, innuendoes
proviso	provisos, provisoes	ghetto	ghettos, ghettoes

d. Singular musical terms ending in o form their plurals by adding s.

```
soprano sopranos piano pianos alto altos cello cellos basso bassos banjo banjos
```

> For foreign nouns ending in 0, see ¶614.

Nouns Ending in F, FE, or FF

608 a. Most singular nouns that end in f, fe, or ff form their plurals by adding s to the singular form.

belief beliefs safe safes proof proofs tariff tariffs

b. Some commonly used nouns in this category form their plurals by changing the f or fe to ve and adding s.

half	halves	self	selves
wife	wives	shelf	shelves
leaf	leaves	knife	knives
thief	thieves	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.

wom<u>a</u>n m*ous*e wom<u>e</u>n m*i*ce* f<u>oo</u>t a*oo*se

f<u>ee</u>t geese

610 A few plurals end in en or ren.

ox child

standbv

BUT: passerby

oxen children brother

birth*day*

photocopy

grandchild

foothold

fore foot

BUT: talis man

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.

printout printouts
flashback flashbacks
wineglass wineglasses
hatbox hatboxes
eyelash eyelashes
strawberry strawberries
bookshelf bookshelves

*passers*by

straw*berries* tooth*brush*book*shelves* mouse*trap*stand*bys* (**NoT:** standbies) work*man*

grandchildren footholds forefeet toothbrushes mousetraps

birth days

photocopies

work*men* talis*mans* (**NOT:** talismen)

612 a. The plurals of *hyphenated* or *spaced* compounds are formed by pluralizing the chief element of the compound.

father-in-law fathers-in-law couch potato couch potatoes senator-elect senators-elect bill of lading bills of lading looker-on lookers-on letter of credit letters of credit *runner*-up runners-up account payable accounts payable grant-in-aid grants-in-aid editor in chief editors in chief attorney-at-law attorneys-at-law deputy chiefs of staff deputy *chief* of staff BUT: time-out time-outs lieutenant general lieutenant generals has-been has-beens BUT: chaise longuet chaise longues

- > For the plurals of foreign compound words, see ¶614.
- **b.** When a hyphenated compound does not contain a noun as one of its elements, simply pluralize the final element.

go-between	go-betweens	come-on	come-ons
get-together	get-togethers	show-off	show-offs
hang- <i>up</i>	hang-ups	run- <i>through</i>	run-throughs
hand-me-down	hand-me-downs	two-by-four	two-by-fours
drive-in	drive-ins	no-no	no- <i>nos</i>
fade-out	fade-outs	has-been	has-beens

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^{*}Mice may refer to computer devices as well as to rodents. Some authorities prefer mouse devices when writing about computers.

[†]Note that the correct spelling of this word is longue (not lounge).

have-nothave-nots (see ¶625a)do-it-yourselferdo-it-yourselferknow-it-allknow-it-allsshoot-'em-upshoot-'em-upsso-and-soso-and-sosno-see-umno-see-ums

c. 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 attorneys general, attorney generals

d. When the first element of a compound is a *possessive*, simply pluralize the final element.

collector's item collector's items traveler's check traveler's checks rabbit's foot rabbit's feet proofreaders' mark proofreaders' marks seller's market seller's markets farmers' markets farmers' market women's college women's colleges witches' brew witches' brews finder's fee finder's fees visitor's permit visitor's permits

NOTE: Do not convert a singular possessive form into a plural unless the context clearly requires it. (See also ¶652.)

The number of *driver's licenses* issued last year was 15 percent ahead of the number issued the year before.

BUT: As a result of the highway checkpoints set up by the state police, more than 200 *drivers' licenses* have been revoked in the past four weeks.

613 The plurals of compounds ending in *ful* are formed by adding *s*.

armful armfuls handful handfuls cupful cupfuls teaspoonful teaspoonfuls basketful basketfuls pocketful pocketfuls

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

- 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.
 - > For agreement of foreign-plural subjects with verbs, see ¶1018.

WORDS ENDING IN US

Singular	English Plural	Foreign Plural
alumnus (m.)		alumni (see note below)
apparatus	apparatuses*	apparatus
cactus	cactuses	cacti*
census	censuses	
corpus		corpora
focus	focuses*	focit
fungus	funguses	fungi*
genus		genera
locus		loci
nucleus	nucleuses	nuclei*
octopus	octopuses*	octopi
opus	opuses	opera*
prospectus	prospectuses	
radius	radiuses	radii*
status	statuses	
stimulus		stimuli
stylus	styluses	styli*
syllabus	syllabuses	syllabi*
terminus	terminuses	termini*
thesaurus	thesauruses	thesauri*

NOTE: The term *alumni* (the plural of *alumnus*) may be used to refer either to a group of male graduates or to a mixed group of male and female graduates. The term *alumnae* (the plural form of *alumna*, shown below) is used to refer only to a group of female graduates.

WORDS ENDING IN A

Singular	English Plural	Foreign Plural
agenda	agendas	
alga	algas	algae*
alumna (f.)		alumnae (see note above)
antenna	antennas (of radios)	antennae (of insects)
dogma	dogmas*	dogmata
formula	formulas*	formulae
lacuna	lacunas	lacunae*
larva	larvas	larvae*
minutia		minutiae
schema	schemas*	schemata†
stigma	stigmas	stigmata*
vertebra	vertebras	vertebrae*

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^{*}Preferred form.

[†]Merriam-Webster shows this form first.

WORDS ENDING IN UM

Singular	English Plural	Foreign Plural
addendum		addenda
auditorium	auditoriums*	auditoria
bacterium		bacteria
colloquium	colloquiums*	colloquia
consortium	consortiums*	consortia†
cranium	craniums*	crania
curriculum	curriculums*	curricula†
datum	datums	data* (see ¶1018)
erratum		errata
forum	forums*	fora
gymnasium	gymnasiums*	gymnasia
maximum	maximums*	maxima†
medium	mediums (spiritualists)	media (for advertising
		and communication)
memorandum	memorandums*	memoranda
millennium	millenniums*	millennia†
minimum	minimums*	minima†
momentum	momentums*	momenta†
optimum	optimums*	optima†
podium	podiums*	podia
referendum	referendums*	referendat
sanitarium	sanitariums*	sanitaria
stadium	stadiums*	stadia†
stratum		strata
symposium	symposiums*	symposia†
ultimatum	ultimatums*	ultimata

WORDS ENDING IN 0

Singular	English Plural	Foreign Plural	
concerto	concertos	concerti*	
graffito		graffiti	
libretto	librettos*	libretti	
paparazzo		paparazzi	
tempo	tempos	tempi (in music)	
virtuoso	virtuosos*	virtuosi	

WORDS ENDING IN ON

Singular	English Plural	Foreign Plural	
automaton	automatons*	automata	
criterion	criterions	criteria*	
phenomenon	phenomenons	phenomena*	

^{*}Preferred form.

[†]Merriam-Webster shows this form first.

WORDS ENDING IN X

Singular	English Plural	Foreign Plural
apex	apexes*	apices
appendix	appendixes*	appendices
codex		codices
crux	cruxes*	cruces
helix	helixes	helices*
index	indexes (of books)	indices (math symbols)
larynx	larynxes	larynges*
matrix	matrixes	matrices*
vertex	vertexes	vertices*
vortex	vortexes	vortices*

WORDS ENDING IN 1S

Singular	English Plural	Foreign Plural	
analysis		analyses	
axis		axes	
basis		bases	
chassis		chassis	
crisis		crises	
diagnosis		diagnoses	
ellipsis		ellipses	
emphasis		emphases	
hypothesis		hypotheses	
oasis		oases	
parenthesis		parentheses	
prognosis		prognoses	
synopsis		synopses	
synthesis		syntheses	
thesis		theses	

WORDS ENDING IN EU OR EAU

Singular	English Plural	Foreign Plural	
adieu	adieus*	adieux	
beau	beaus	beaux*	
bureau	bureaus*	bureaux	
milieu	milieus*	milieux	
plateau	plateaus*	plateaux	
tableau	tableaus	tableaux*	
trousseau	trousseaus	¬ trousseaux*	

NOTE: The x ending for the preceding foreign plurals is pronounced like z.

COMPOUND WORDS

Singular	English Plural	Foreign Plural	
chaise longue	chaise longues*	chaises longues	
coup d'état		coups d'état	
éminence grise		éminences grises	
fait accompli		faits accomplis	
hors d'oeuvre	hors d'oeuvres*	hors d'oeuvre	
idiot savant	idiot savants	idiots savants*	
maître d'	maître d's		
maître d'hôtel		maîtres d'hôtel	
nouveau riche		nouveaux riches	
pas de deux		pas de deux	

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
Mr. and Mrs. Cobb the Cobbs
Mr. and Mrs. Gray the Grays

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 Joneses Mr. and Mrs. James the Jameses Mr. and Mrs. Barnes the Barneses

NOTE: Omit the es ending if it makes the plural surname awkward to pronounce.

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 9615a and b.

Mr. and Mrs. McCarthy
Mr. and Mrs. Wolf
Mr. and Mrs. Wolf
Mr. and Mrs. Martino
Mr. and Mrs. Goodman
Mr. and Mrs. Lightfoot
Mr. and Mrs. Fairchild
Mrs. Fairchild

the McCarthys (NOT: McCarthies)
the Wolfs (NOT: Martinoes)
the Goodmans (NOT: Goodmen)
the Lightfoots (NOT: Lightfeet)
the Fairchilds (NOT: Fairchildren)

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 Jrs.

the Ellsworth Hadley 3ds the Ellsworth Hadleys 3d

*Preferred form.

FORMAL USAGE: the Roy Van Allens Jr.

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616 To form the plurals of first names, add s or es but do not change the original spellings.

Douglas Douglases Timothy Marie Maries Timothys Dolores Doloreses Ralph Ralphs Beatrix Beatrixes Waldo Waldos Gladys Gladyses Fritz Fritzes

617 To form the plural of other proper names, add *s* or *es* but do not change the original spelling.

three Texans
two Christmases ago
the Norwegians
checked our Rolodexes
the Dakotas
bought six Macintoshes
the Emmys and the Grammys
the two Kansas Citys (NOT: Cities)
Czechs (s after k sound)

EXCEPTIONS:

the Alleghenies (for Allegheny Mountains) the Rockies (for Rocky Mountains)

Personal Titles

618 a. The plural of *Mr.* is *Messrs*. (not *Mrs.*); the plural of *Ms.* is *Mses.* or *Mss.*; the plural of *Mrs.* or *Mme.* is *Mmes.* (for *Mesdames*); the plural of *Miss* is *Misses* (with no period). However, the use of plural titles normally occurs only in formal situations. In ordinary usage, simply retain the singular form and repeat it with each name.

Formal Usage
Messrs. Rae and Tate
Mmes. (or Mesdames) Byrd and Clyde
Misses Russo and Dupree
Mses. (or Mss.) Lai and Cohen
Mrs. Ordinary Usage
Mr. Rae and Mr. Tate
Mrs. Byrd and Mrs. Clyde
Miss Russo and Mrs. Dupree
Mses. (or Mss.) Lai and Cohen
Ms. Lai and Ms. Cohen

b. When personal titles apply to two or more people with the same surname, the plural may be formed in two ways: (1) pluralize only the title (formal usage); (2) pluralize only the surname (ordinary usage).

Formal Usage
the Messrs. Steele
the Mmes. (OR Mesdames) Bergeret
the Misses Conroy
the Mses. (OR Mss.) Purdy

Ordinary Usage
the Mr. Steeles
the Mrs. Bergerets
the Miss Conroys
the Mses. (OR Mss.) Purdy

Abbreviations, Letters, Numbers, Words, and Symbols

619 Form the plurals of most abbreviations by adding s to the singular.

 apt.
 apts.
 vol.
 vols.
 No.
 Nos.
 Dr.
 Drs.

 bldg.
 bldgs.
 par.
 pars.
 Co.
 Cos.
 401(k)
 401(k)s

620 a. The abbreviations of many customary units of weight and measure, however, are the same in both the singular and the plural. (See also ¶535a.)

oz (ounce or ounces)

deg (degree or degrees)

bbl (barrel or barrels)

ft (foot or feet)

in (inch or inches)

mi (mile or 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 the plural. (See also ¶¶537–538.)

km (kilometer **or** kilometers) cg (centigram **or** centigrams)
mL (milliliter **or** milliliters) dam (dekameter **or** dekameters)

 \succ For the omission of periods with abbreviations of measurements, see $\Pi \pi 535a$, 538a.

621 a. 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. 64 (page 64) c. (copy)
pp. 64-72 (pages 64 through 72) cc. (copies)
pp. 9 f. (page 9 and the following page) n. 3 (note 3)
pp. 9 ff. (page 9 and the following pages) nn. 3-4 (notes 3 and 4)
l. 23 (line 23)
ll. 23-24 (lines 23 through 24)

b. Plurals of certain symbols consist of the same symbol doubled.

¶ paragraph ¶¶ paragraphs § section §§ sections

622 a. Capital letters and abbreviations ending with capital letters are pluralized by adding *s* alone.

 three Rs
 HMOs
 BBSs
 R.N.s

 four Cs
 POs
 IQs
 M.D.s

 five VIPs
 S&Ls
 PTAs
 Ph.D.s

b. 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

BUT: His report card showed three As, two Bs, and one C. (When the context is clear, no apostrophes are necessary.)

623 For the sake of clarity, uncapitalized letters and uncapitalized abbreviations are pluralized by adding an apostrophe plus s. (See 1285b.)

dotting the i's p's and q's four c.o.d.'s wearing pj's

NOTE: When initials are spelled out, the plurals are formed normally.

emcees deejays okays Jaycees

624 a. Numbers expressed in figures are pluralized by the addition of s alone.

in the 1990s in the '90s (decade) in the 90s (temperature) sort the W-2s

b. Numbers expressed in words are pluralized by the addition of s or es.

ones twos threes sixes twenties twenty-fives

625 a. When words taken from other parts of speech are used as nouns, they are usually pluralized by the addition of s or es.

ifs, ands, or buts ins and outs pros and cons whereabouts dos and don'ts ups and downs the haves and whys and yeses and nos yeas and nays the havenots wherefores

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

c. If the singular form already contains an apostrophe, simply add s to form the plural.

ain'ts

mustn'ts

don'ts

ma'ams

> For the use of italics or underlining with words referred to as words, see ¶¶285, 290.

Plural Endings in Parentheses

When referring to an item that could be either singular or plural, enclose the plural ending in parentheses.

Please send the appropriate form(s) to the appropriate state agency(ies).

Forming Possessives

Possession Versus Description

a. A noun ending in the sound of s is usually in the possessive form if it is followed immediately by another noun. In the following examples note that possessive forms may express a number of different relationships, only one of which refers literally to possession or ownership.

my boss's approval (meaning the approval of my boss)

Belknap's farm (meaning the farm possessed or owned by Belknap)

IBM's product line (meaning the product line made or sold by IBM)

Faulkner's novels (meaning the novels written by Faulkner)

Matisse's paintings (meaning the paintings created by Matisse)

Frank's nickname (meaning the nickname given to or used by Frank)

a two weeks' vacation (meaning a vacation for or lasting two weeks)

NOTE: An apostrophe alone or an apostrophe plus s is the sign of the possessive. (See ¶¶630–640.)

b. To be sure that the possessive form should be used, try substituting an *of* phrase or making a similar substitution 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)

news release (news describes the type of press release)

earnings record (earnings describes the type of record)

NOTE: Some cases can be difficult to distinguish. Is it *the girls basketball team* or *the girls' basketball team?* Try substituting an irregular plural like *women*. You wouldn't say *the women basketball team*; you would say *the women's basketball team*. By analogy, *the girls' basketball team* is correct.

> For descriptive and possessive forms in organizational names, see \$\pi 640\$.

In a number of cases only a slight difference in wording distinguishes a descriptive phrase from a possessive phrase.

Descriptive	Possessive
a six-month leave of absence	a six months' leave of absence
the California climate	California's climate
the Burgess account	Burgess's account
the Crosby children	the Crosbys' children
	on: Mr. and Mrs. Crosby's children

Singular Nouns

630 a. To form the possessive of a singular noun *not* ending in an s sound, add an apostrophe plus s to the noun.

my lawyer's advice Mr. and Mrs. Goodwin's party a child's game Alzheimer's disease Gloria's career Down's syndrome

b. When a singular noun ends in a silent s, add an apostrophe plus s.

Illinois's highways the corps's leadership
Arkansas's mountains Des Moines's mayor

To form the possessive of a singular noun that ends in an s sound, be guided by the way you pronounce the word.

a. If a new syllable is formed in the pronunciation of the possessive, add an apostrophe plus s.

your boss's approval Mr. and Mrs. Morris's plane tickets the witness's reply Phoenix's suburbs
Congress's intention Ms. Lopez's application
Dallas's business district Mr. Marsh's office
St. Louis's airport my coach's training regimen

b. If the addition of an extra syllable would make a word ending in an *s* hard to pronounce, add the apostrophe only.

Mrs. Phillips' request
Mr. Hastings' proposal
Moses' flight from Egypt
the Burroughs' condominium
Los Angeles' freeways
New Orleans' restaurants

Jesus' parables
for goodness' sake (see ¶646)
Achilles' heel

BUT: Achilles tendon

NOTE: Individual differences in pronunciation will affect the way some of these possessives are written. For example, if you pronounce the possessive form of *Perkins* as two syllables, you will write *Mr. Perkins' kindness*; if you pronounce the possessive of *Perkins* as three syllables, you will write *Mr. Perkins's kindness*. The important thing is to listen to your own pronunciation. When you hear yourself pronounce the possessive of *boss* as two syllables (*boss's*) and the possessive of *witness* as three (*witness's*), you will not be tempted to write *your boss' approval* or the witness' reply. Naturally, tradition should take precedence over your ear. For example, an ambassador to Great Britain is appointed to the *Court of St. James's* (not, as you might expect, *Court of St. James*).

¶633

c. When forming the possessive of any noun ending in s (for example, Mr. Hodges). 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 a. For a regular plural noun (one that ends in s or es), add only an apostrophe to form the plural possessive. (See ¶¶639–640 for the use of the apostrophe in organizational names.)

> investors' objectives the agencies' conflicting rules the Gaineses' legal residence the witnesses' contradictions an old boys' network the United States' policy

BUT: a teachers college (see ¶652) attorneys' fees

b. 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.

An *investor's* objectives should largely define investment strategy.

BUT: Investors' objectives are often not clearly defined.

We will need a ride to Mr. and Mrs. Gaines's party.

BUT: We will need a ride to the Gaineses' party.

I especially want to hear the last witness's testimony.

BUT: I especially want to hear the last two witnesses' testimony.

Season's greetings! (Referring to the holidays that occur in only one season-winter.)

NOTE: In some cases only a dictionary can help you determine whether the possessive form should be singular or plural. For example, a plural possessive is used in Legionnaires' disease, but a singular possessive is used in Hodgkin's disease since the discoverer's name was Dr. Hodgkin (and not, as you might have expected, the more common name Hodgkins). Unlike the term deacon's bench (which uses a singular possessive), the term Parsons table involves no possessive form at all.

633 For an *irregular* plural noun (one that does not end in s), add an apostrophe plus s to form the plural possessive.

> the alumni's reunion women's blouses men's shirts children's toys the alumnae's contribution BUT: menswear (originally, men's wear)

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'
hero	heroes (regular)	heroes'
Mr. and Mrs. Fox	the Foxes (regular)	the Foxes'
child	children (irregular)	children's
alumnus	alumni (irregular)	alumni's
alumna	alumnae (irregular)	alumnae's

Compound Nouns

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 son-in-law's job prospects my stockbroker's advice the secretary-treasurer's report the notary public's seal the owner-manager's policies an eyewitness's account a do-it-yourselfer's obsession the attorney general's decision

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'
wheeler-dealer	wheeler-dealers	wheeler-dealers'
salesclerk	salesclerks	salesclerks'

b. If the plural form does not end in s, add an apostrophe plus s.

Singular	Plural	Plural Possessive
editor in chief	editors in chief	editors in chief's
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: We may have to invite my three sisters-in-law's parents too.

BETTER: We may have to invite the parents of my three *sisters-in-law* too.

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

The possessive forms of *personal pronouns* and of the relative pronoun *who* do not require the apostrophe. These pronouns have their own possessive forms.

l: my, mine he: his we: our, ours
you: your, yours she: her, hers they: their, theirs
it: its who: whose

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.)

The two products look so much alike that it's [it is] hard to tell *ours* from *theirs*. (**NOT**: our's from their's.)

CAUTION: Do not confuse personal possessive pronouns with contractions that are pronounced the same way. (See ¶1056e for examples.)

637 Some indefinite pronouns have regular possessive forms.

one's choice the other's claim anybody's guess anyone else's job the others' claim no one's responsibility one another's help each other's claim someone's chance

For those indefinite pronouns that do not have possessive forms, use an of phrase.

Although the children in this group seem very much alike, the needs of each are different. (Not: 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.)

Singular	Plural
Mr. C.'s opinion	the M.D.s' diagnoses
PBS's programming	the Ph.D.s' dissertations
this HMO's doctors	the CPAs' meeting

Personal, Organizational, and Product Names

To form the possessive of a personal or an organizational name that ends with an abbreviation, a number, a prepositional phrase, or a mark of punctuation, add an apostrophe plus s at the end of the complete name.

the Winger Co.'s new plant
the Knights of Columbus's drive
United Bank of Arizona's loan rates
Yahoo!'s Web site

Hyde & Sikh Inc.'s dividends
David Weild II's retirement
Walter Frick Jr.'s campaign
BUT: Carl's Jr. restaurants

NOTE: If *no* extra *s* sound is created when you pronounce the possessive form, add only an apostrophe.

the Gerald Curry Jrs.' yacht

> For the treatment of possessive forms when terms like Jr. and Inc. are set off by commas, see ¶¶156 and 159.

- The names of many organizations and products contain words that could be considered 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	Harper's Bazaar	Women's Wear Daily	Barron's
McDonald's	Levi's jeans	Macy's	Reese's Pieces
Children's Hospita	al (normal style)	St. Patrick's Cathedral	
BUT: Childrens He	ospital (in Los Angeles)	America's Cup (yachting)	
St. Elizabeth	s Hospital (in D.C.)	BUT: Americas Cup (golf)	

b. As a rule, do not use an apostrophe if the term is a regular plural.

Chemical Workers Union
Investors Trust Company
Underwriters Laboratories Inc.
Consumers Union

American Bankers Association
Government Employees Insurance Company
U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs
BUT: Reserve Officers' Training Corps

c. In all cases follow the organization's preference when known.

International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union Mrs. Paul's frozen foods Standard & Poor's Mrs. Fields cookies Actors' Equity Little Charlies pizza Lloyd's of London Thomas' English muffins Lay's potato chips Taster's Choice Folgers coffee Shoppers Choice Diners Club membership M&M's candy Lands' End catalogs Cliffs Notes Continued on page 172

d. In titles of books, periodicals, and similar works, always follow the style as given.

Gulliver's Travels

Reader's Digest

BUT: Finnegans Wake

BUT: Consumers Digest

e. When adding the sign of the possessive to a phrase that must be italicized or underlined, do not italicize or underline the possessive ending. (See also ¶290d.)

The Wind in the Willows' author

Gone With the Wind's main characters

Nouns in Apposition

Sometimes a noun that normally 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.

Rockport, *Massachusetts'* beauty attracts many painters. (Note that the comma that normally follows an appositive is omitted after a possessive ending.)

You will faint when you see Paul *the plumber's* bill. (If the noun and the appositive are closely linked as a unit, even the first comma is omitted. See also ¶150.)

NOTE: To avoid an awkward construction, use an of phrase instead.

You will need to get the signature of Mr. Bartel, the executor.

(BETTER THAN: You will need to get Mr. Bartel, the executor's signature.)

Separate and Joint Possession

642 a. 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: Repeating the with each name emphasizes that ownership is separate.

b. If one or both of the individuals' names are replaced by a possessive pronoun, watch out for awkwardness and reword if necessary.

AWKWARD: my and the seller's signatures

BETTER: the seller's and my signatures

OR: the seller's signature and mine

AWKWARD: their and our houses **BETTER:** their house and ours

AWKWARD: your and your husband's passports

BETTER: the passports for you and your husband

a. To indicate joint (or common) ownership, add the sign of the possessive to the *final* name alone.

the Barneses and the Terrys' property line

NOTE: In organizational names, follow the company's preference.

Ben & Jerry's ice cream

Kroch's & Brentano's bookstores

b. If one of the owners is identified by a pronoun, make each name and pronoun possessive.

Karen's and my ski lodge

BUT: Karen and Brian's ski lodge

Possessives Standing Alone

Sometimes the noun that the possessive modifies is not expressed but merely understood.

Fred is getting a master's [degree] in international economics.

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 dinner at the Furnesses' [house].

BUT: We always enjoy an evening with the *Furnesses*. (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 year's product line is pulling better than last year's [product line].

NOT: This year's product line is pulling better than last year. (Incorrectly compares product line with last year.)

Inanimate Possessives

As a rule, nouns referring to inanimate things should not be in the possessive. Use an of phrase instead.

the bottom of the barrel (NOT: the barrel's bottom)

the wording of the agreement (NOT: the agreement's wording)

the lower level of the terminal (NOT: the terminal's lower level)

In many common expressions that refer to time and measurements, however, and in phrases implying personification, the possessive form has come to be accepted usage. (See also ¶817a.)

one day's notice a dollar's worth a stone's throw a nine days' wonder several dollars' worth for heaven's sake for conscience' sake an hour's work two cents' worth (see ¶631b) two years' progress at arm's length the company's assets New Year's resolutions the earth's atmosphere the computer's memory this morning's news in today's world

NOTE: Be sure to distinguish possessive expressions like those above from similar wording where no possessive relation is involved.

two weeks' salary BUT: two weeks ago, two weeks later, two weeks overdue

I bought *five dollars' worth* of chocolate truffles. **BUT:** I found *five dollars lying* on the sidewalk.

Possessives Preceding Verbal Nouns

647 a. 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.

What was the point of our asking any further questions? (NOT: of us asking.)

NOTE: The use of a possessive form before a gerund can produce a sentence that is grammatically correct but is awkward nonetheless. In such cases reword the sentence.

AWKWARD: He wanted to be reassured about his children's being given a ride home.

BETTER: He wanted to be reassured that his children would be given a ride home.

b. Not every noun or pronoun preceding the *ing* form of a verb should be in the possessive form. Compare the following pairs of examples:

I heard you singing at the party. (Here the emphasis is on you, the object of heard; singing is a participle that modifies you.)

I liked *your* singing at the party. (Here the emphasis is on *singing*, a gerund that is the object of *liked*; the pronoun *your* is in the possessive form because it modifies *singing*.)

Our success in this venture depends on *Allen* acting as the coordinator. (This suggests that the success depends on Allen himself rather than on the role he is playing. Even if Allen's role should change, success seems likely as long as he is associated with the project in some way.) Our success in this venture depends on *Allen's* acting as the coordinator. (This puts the emphasis squarely on Allen's acting in a certain role. If he ceases to function as the coordinator, the venture may not succeed.)

Possessives in Of Phrases

a. 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.

Tony and Fiona are good friends of *ours* as well as our *children's*. Did you know that Polly and Fred are neighbors of the *Joneses'?* Bobby Busoni is a business associate of *Gordon's*.

b. Note the difference in meaning in the following phrases:

a statue of Rodin (a statue showing the likeness of the sculptor Rodin) a statue of Rodin's (a statue created by Rodin)

a controversial view of the President (a view held by someone else) a controversial view of the President's (a view held by the President)

c. Avoid adding the sign of the possessive to an of phrase.

AWKWARD: A friend of mine's house burned down last night.

BETTER: The house of a friend of mine burned down last night.

AWKWARD: One of my friends' son has been named a Rhodes scholar. (NOT: One of my friend's son.)

BETTER: The son of one of my friends has been named a Rhodes scholar.

AWKWARD: I just found out that the director of our training program's husband is the chief information officer of your company.

BETTER: I just found out that *the husband of the director of our training program* is the chief information officer of your company.

NOTE: Attaching the sign of the possessive to an of phrase can sometimes create humorous confusion in addition to awkwardness.

CLEAR: You must negotiate the purchase price with the owner of the horse's wife.

Possessives Modifying Possessives

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.*

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Possessives in Holidays

650 Possessives in names of holidays are usually singular.

New Year's Eve Lincoln's Birthday

Mother's Day

Valentine's Day Saint Patrick's Day Secretary's Day* **BUT:** Presidents' Day April Fools' Day All Saints' Day

NOTE: Some holiday names contain a plural form rather than a plural possessive; for example: *Armed Forces Day, Veterans Day, United Nations Day.*

Possessives in Place Names

651 Place names that contain a possessive form typically do not use an apostrophe.

Bonners Ferry, Idaho Colts Neck, New Jersey Devils Lake, North Dakota BUT: Devil's Island

Howards Grove, Wisconsin Kings Point, New York Loves Park, Illinois BUT: Martha's Vinevard

Grants Pass, Oregon

Pikes Peak, Colorado St. Marys, Georgia Toms River, New Jersey Travelers Rest, South Carolina No Mans Land, Massachusetts

Farmers Branch, Texas

Miscellaneous Expressions

652 A number of common expressions contain possessive forms.

athlete's foot

proofreaders' mark

traveler's check

lovers' lane

collector's item

workers' compensation (see ¶809a)

visitor's permit seller's market

witches' brew women's room

BUT: farmers' market

BUT: woman's rights

finder's fee

states' rights

dog's life

BUT: state's evidence

cat's-paw rabbit's foot citizen's arrest

bull's-eye

BUT: citizens band teacher's pet

lion's share

BUT: teachers college

NOTE: Although a number of states now issue *drivers licenses* (without an apostrophe), the preferred form remains *driver's licenses*.

> For the plural forms of expressions like these, see ¶612d.

^{*}The International Association of Administrative Professionals, the association that awards the professional designation CPS (certified professional secretary), renamed this event in April 2000 as Administrative Professionals Day (with no apostrophe).

SECTION 7

Spelling

Spelling Guides (¶¶701-718)

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, ENT, and ENCE (¶714)
Words Ending in IZE, ISE, and YZE (¶715)
Words Ending in CEDE, CEED, and SEDE (¶716)
Words Ending in C (¶717)
Words With Diacritical Marks (¶718)

Words That Sound Alike or Look Alike (¶719)

Troublesome Words (¶720)

> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

Section 7 offers three kinds of assistance: ¶¶701–718 present the basic guidelines for correct spelling; ¶719 provides a list of look-alike and sound-alike words for review and fast reference; ¶720 presents a list of troublesome words.

The authority for spelling in this manual is the 1997 printing of *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, Tenth Edition, and *Webster's Third New International Dictionary*. Whenever two spellings are allowable, only the first form is usually given here.

NOTE: The dictionaries and spell checkers that are built into word processing software may not always agree with the dictionaries that serve as the authority for spelling in this manual. A spell checker will flag any word not listed in its own dictionary or in a supplemental dictionary you create, even if the word is spelled correctly. Reduce the number of "false alarms" by expanding your dictionary to include frequently used terms and names. In addition, always proofread carefully since no spell checker will flag words spelled correctly but used incorrectly. (See ¶1202b.) For example, if you write "Summer is our *peek* season for swimwear," the spell checker will not question *peek* because it is spelled correctly. You will have to find the error yourself or suffer the embarrassing consequences.

Spelling Guides

When a Final Consonant Is Doubled

701 When a word of one syllable ends in a single consonant (bag) preceded by a single vowel (bag), double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel (baggage) or before the suffix y (baggy). (See ¶703.)

rub glad if fog	rub <u>b</u> ed glad <u>d</u> en if <u>f</u> y fog <i>g</i> y	swim skin clan run	swim <u>m</u> er skin <u>n</u> y clan <u>n</u> ish run <u>n</u> ing	stop slip star bet	stop <u>p</u> ed slip <u>p</u> age star <u>r</u> ing bet <u>t</u> or
EXCEP	TIONS:				
yes	yeses	dew	dewy	tax	taxing
bus	buses	bow	bowed	fix	fixed
gas	gases	sew	sewing	box	boxy

NOTE: When a one-syllable word ends in y preceded by a single vowel, do not double the y before a suffix beginning with a vowel. (See $\P711$.)

pay	payee	joy	joyous	toy	toying
key	keyed	boy	boyish	buy	buyer

When a word of more than one syllable ends in a single consonant (refer) preceded by a single vowel (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). (See ¶704.)

forbid	forbid <u>d</u> en	begin	begin <u>n</u> ing	infer	infer <u>r</u> ed
unclog	unclog <i>g</i> ed	unzip	unzip <u>p</u> ed	occur	occur <u>r</u> ing
retag	retag <u>g</u> ing	concur	concur <u>r</u> ent	regret	regret <u>t</u> able
control	control/er	defer	defer <u>r</u> ing	admit	admit <u>t</u> ing
PROPER	TOWN (000 (1711).				

obey

EXCEPTIONS (see ¶711):

display displaying

obeyed NOTE: When a suffix beginning with a vowel is added, do not double the final consonant if the accent shifts from the second syllable.

enjoy enjoyable

refer	referred	prefer	pre <u>ferred</u>	transfer	trans <u>ferred</u>
BUT: re	eference	BUT: pre	eferable	BUT: trans	sferee

When a Final Consonant Is Not Doubled

703 When a word of one syllable ends in a single consonant (ba \underline{d}) preceded by a single vowel (bad), do not double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a consonant (badly).

الممام	aladaas.				-16-1
glad	glad <i>ness</i>	star	star <u>dom</u>	play	play <u>ful</u>
ten	ten <i>fold</i>	wit	wit <u>less</u>	joy	joy <i>fully</i>
ship	ship <i>ment</i>	flag	flag <i>ship</i>	boy	boy <i>hood</i>

When a word of more than one syllable ends in a single consonant (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). Continued on page 178

catalog	cataloged, cataloging	differ	differed, different
total	totaled, totaling	credit	credited, creditor
cancel	canceled, canceling	profit	profited, profiting
	(BUT: cancellation)	benefit	benefited, benefiting
diagram	diagramed, diagraming	borrow	borrowed, borrowing
worship	worshiped, worshiper	index	indexed, indexing

EXCEPTIONS:

program	program <u>m</u> ed, program <u>m</u> ing	outfit	outfitted, outfitting
format	format <u>t</u> ed, format <u>t</u> ing	kidnap	kidnap <u>p</u> ed, kidnap <u>p</u> ing
overstep	overstep <u>p</u> ed, overstep <u>p</u> ing	handicap	handicap \underline{p} ed, handicap \underline{p} ing

When a word of one or more syllables ends in a single consonant (clou<u>d</u>, repea<u>t</u>) preceded by more than one vowel (cl<u>ou</u>d, rep<u>ea</u>t), do not double the final consonant before any suffix (cloud<u>less</u>, repeating).

gain	gain <u><i>ful</i></u>	bias	bias <u>ed</u>	wool	wool <u>en</u>
haul	haul <i>ing</i>	chief	chief/y		(BUT: wool <u>ly</u>)
dream	dreamy	riot	riot <u>ous</u>	loud	loud <u>ness</u>
cheer	cheery	broad	broad <i>ly</i>	equal	equal <u>ed</u>
deceit	deceit <u>ful</u>	poet	poet <u>ic</u>	duel	duel <u>ing</u>
feud	feud <u>al</u>	toil	toil <u>some</u>	buoy	buoy <u>ant</u>

EXCEPTIONS:

equip	equip <u>p</u> ed, equip <u>p</u> ing (BUT: equipment)	quit	quit <u>t</u> ing
quiz	quizzed, quizzing, quizzical	squat	squat <u>t</u> er

When a word of one or more syllables ends with more than one consonant (wo<u>rk</u>, deta<u>ch</u>), do not double the final consonant before any suffix (work<u>day</u>, detach<u>ed</u>).

comb	comb <i>ing</i>	back	back <u>ward</u>	shirr	shirr <i>ing</i>
hand	handy	curl	curly	mass	mass <u>ive</u>
self	self <u>ish</u>	warm	warm <i>ly</i>	slant	slant <u>wise</u>
swing	swing <i>ing</i>	return	return <u>ed</u>	jinx	jinx <u>ed</u>
wish	wish ful	harp	harp <i>ing</i>	blitz	blitzing

NOTE: Words ending in ll usually retain both consonants before a suffix. However, when adding the suffix ly, drop one l from the root word. When adding the suffix less or like, insert a hyphen between the root and the suffix to avoid three l's in a row.

skill	skill <u>ful</u>	full	ful <i>ly</i>	hull	hull-less
install	install <i>ment</i>	dull	dul/y	shell	shell-like

Final Silent E

see

seeing

707 a. Words ending in silent *e* usually *drop* the *e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

sale	sal <i>abl</i> e	sense	sens <i>ible</i>	propose	propos <i>ition</i>		
Saic	อดเ <u>สมเซ</u>	201126	20112 <u>INIO</u>	highoge	propos <u>ition</u>		
size	siz <u>able</u>	argue	argu <i>ing</i>	execute	execut <u>ive</u>		
store	stor <i>age</i>	issue	issu <i>ing</i>	sincere	sincer <i>ity</i>		
arrive	arriv <u>al</u>	blue	blu <u>ish</u>	desire	desir <u>ous</u>		
accuse	accus <u>ation</u>	true	tru <i>ism</i>	use	us <u><i>ual</i></u>		
EXCEPTIONS:							
agree	agreeing	mile	mile <i>age</i>	dve	dveina		

acreage

acre

hoe

hoeing

b. Words ending in silent e usually drop the e before the suffix y.

EXCEPTIONS:

cage cage<u>y</u> dice dice<u>y</u> price price<u>y</u>

c. Words ending in ce or ge usually retain the e before a suffix beginning with a or o (so as to preserve the soft sound of the c or g).

enforce enforceable trace traceable change changeable. advantage advantage ous knowledge notice noticeable knowledgeable replace able courage ous manage manage*able* replace courage serviceable outrage ous marriage marriage*able* service outrage

EXCEPTIONS:

pledge pledg<u>or</u> mortgage mortgag<u>or</u>

NOTE: Before suffixes beginning with i, the e is usually dropped.

force forcible college collegial age aging reduce reducible finance financial enforce enforcing

EXCEPTIONS:

singe singe<u>ing</u> tinge tinge<u>ing</u> age age<u>ism</u>

708 Words ending in silent *e* usually *retain* the *e* before a suffix beginning with a consonant.

hope hopeful manage manage*ment* trouble troublesome care/ess like*ness* nine nine ty care like sincerely. flame flame*proof* edge edgewise sincere

EXCEPTIONS:

wise wis*dom* true tru*ly* argue argu*ment* awful due judg*ment* awe du/y iudae acknowledgment nine nin*th* gentle gently acknowledge whole wholly subtle subt/y abridg*ment* abridge

709 Words ending in *ie* change the *ie* to *y* before adding *ing*.

die dying tie tying lie lying

When Final Y Is Changed to I

Words ending in y preceded by a consonant change the y to i before any suffix except one beginning with i.

vary	vari <u>able</u>	fly	fli <u>er</u>	likely	likeli <u>hood</u>
custody	custodi <u>al</u>	easy	easi <u>er</u>	ordinary	ordinari <u>ly</u>
Italy	Itali <u>an</u>	heavy	heavi <i>est</i>	accompany	accompani <i>ment</i>
defy	defi <u>ant</u>	fifty	fifti <u>eth</u>	happy	happi <u>ness</u>
carry	carri <u>ed</u>	fancy	fanci <i>ful</i>	fallacy	fallaci <u>ous</u>
EXCEPTIONS:					
dry	dry <u>ly</u>	shy	shy <u>ly</u>	country	country <u>wide</u>
try	try <u>ing</u>	thirty	thirty <u>ish</u>	lobby	lobby <u>ist</u>
EXCEPTI	ONS:				
academy	açadem <u>ic</u>	economy	econom <u>ic</u>	symphony	symphon <u>ic</u>

711 Words ending in y preceded by a vowel usually retain the y before any suffix.

U	J 1		J J			
okay	okay <u>ed</u>	convey	convey <u>ance</u>	employ	employ <u>able</u>	
clay	clay <u>ey</u>	obey	obey <u>ing</u>	joy	joy <u>ful</u>	
display	display <u>ing</u>	survey	survey <u>or</u>	buy	buy <u>er</u>	
EXCEPTIONS:						
pay	pa <u>id</u>	day	dai <i>ly</i>	gay	ga <i>ily</i>	
lav	la <i>id</i>	sav	sa <i>id</i>	slav	slain	

El and IE Words

712 According to the old rhyme:

Put i before eExcept after cOr when sounded like aAs in *neighbor* and *weigh*.

I Before E

believe	brief	field	niece	BUT: either	height		
relieve	chief	wield	piece	neither	leisure		
belief	thief	yield	anxiety	seize	foreign		
relief	friend	view	variety	weird	caffeine		
After C							
deceive	receive	conceive	perceive	BUT: ancient	species		
deceit	receipt	conceit	ceiling	science	financier		
Sounded Like A							
freight	their	eight	vein	beige	feign		
weight	heir	sleigh	skein	deign	reign		

Words Ending in ABLE and IBLE

713 a. The ending *able* is more commonly used.

admirable	knowledgeable	reasonable
advisable	likable	receivable
changeable	movable	salable
dependable	payable	transferable
doable	probable	valuable

- > For guidelines on dropping or retaining silent e before the ending, see ¶707.
- b. However, a number of frequently used words end in ible.

compatible	flexible	responsible
convertible	irrepressible	sensible
credible	irresistible	susceptible
eligible	legible	terrible
feasible	possible	visible

Words Ending in ANT, ANCE, ENT, and ENCE

Words ending in ant, ance, ent, and ence follow no clear-cut pattern. Therefore, consult a dictionary when in doubt.

exist <u>ent</u>	persist <u>ent</u>	defend <u>ant</u>	descendant	оссигт <u>елсе</u>
insist <u>ent</u>	resist <u>ant</u>	depend <u>ent</u>	transcend <u>ent</u>	гесигг <u>елсе</u>
assist <u>ance</u>	mainten <u>ance</u>	relev <u>ance</u>	surveill <u>ance</u>	intellig <i>ence</i>

Words Ending in IZE, ISE, and YZE

715 a. Most words end in ize.

apologize	criticize	minimize	realize	summarize
authorize	economize	organize	recognize	vandalize
characterize	emphasize	prize	specialize	visualize

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 sound of "seed" are spelled *cede*: precede, secede, recede, concede, accede, intercede.

Words Ending in C

Words ending in c usually take the letter k before a suffix so as to preserve the hard sound of the c.

mimic mimicked, mimicking (BUT: mimicry)
panic panicked, panicking, panicky
picnic picnicked, picnicking, picnicker
shellac shellacked, shellacking
traffic trafficked, trafficking
BUT: arc arced, arcing

Words With Diacritical Marks

Many French words are now considered part of the English language and no longer require italics or underlining (see ¶287). Some of these words still retain diacritical marks from the French form. If you are using software with special character sets, you can access these diacritical marks. Otherwise, you will have to insert them by hand.

a. Acute Accent. An acute accent (´) over the letter e (\acute{e}) signifies that the letter is to be pronounced "ay" (as in may). Moreover, it signifies that at the end of a word the letter \acute{e} is to be pronounced as a separate syllable.

attaché	crudités	fiancé (m.)	précis
blasé	détente	fiancée (f.)	risqué
café	éclat	habitué	touché
cliché	élan	née	BUT: matinee
communiqué	entrée	outré	melee
consommé	exposé	passé	puree

A few words call for two acute accents:

résumé protégé décolleté déclassé

NOTE: The word *forte* does not have an acute accent over the *e*. It is pronounced *FOR-tay* only when it refers to a musical direction (meaning "loud"). When *forte* means "one's strong point," it should be pronounced as one syllable—*FORT*.

b. Grave Accent. A few French expressions retain a grave accent (`).

à la carte vis-à-vis déjà vu pièce de résistance à la mode pied-à-terre voilà cause célèbre

c. The Circumflex. A few phrases derived from the French retain a circumflex (^).

maître d'hôtel raison d'être pâté papier-mâché table d'hôte tête-à-tête bête noire **BUT:** fete

Words That Sound Alike or Look Alike

The following list contains two types of words: (a) words that are pronounced exactly alike though spelled differently, and (b) words that look and sound somewhat alike.

NOTE: For additional words that are frequently confused, see Section 11.

accede to comply with; to give consent

exceed to surpass

accent stress in speech or writing

ascent act of rising assent consent

accept to take; to receive
except (v.) to exclude; (prep.)
excluding (see page 293)

access admittance excess surplus

ad short for advertisement
add to join

adapt to adjustadept proficientadopt to choose

addenda (see agenda)

addition something added edition one version of a printed work

adherence attachment adherents followers

adverse harmful; hostile; unfavorable (see page 283) averse opposed (to)

advice (n.) information; recommendation

advise (v.) to recommend; to give counsel

affect to influence; to change; to
 assume (see page 283)
effect (n.) result; impression;
 (v.) to bring about

agenda list of things to be done **addenda** additional items

aid (n.) a form of help; (v.) to help
aide an assistant

ail to be in ill health
ale a drink much like beer

air atmosphere heir one who inherits err to make a mistake

aisle (see isle)

allot to assign or distribute a share of something (see page 282) a lot a great deal; NOT: alot

allowed permitted

aloud audibly

allusion an indirect reference illusion an unreal vision: misapprehension delusion a false belief elusion adroit escape

almost nearly (see page 284) all most all very much

already previously (see page 284) all ready all prepared

altar part of a church alter to change

alternate (n.) substitute; (v.) to take turns alternative (n.) one of several

things from which to choose

altogether entirely (see page 284) all together everyone in a group

always at all times (see page 284) all ways all means or methods

annual yearly annul to cancel

ante- a prefix meaning "before" anti- a prefix meaning "against"

antecedence priority antecedents preceding things; ancestors

anyone anybody (see ¶1010) any one any one person in a group

anyway in any case (see page 285) any way any method

apportion (see portion)

appraise to set a value on (see page 285) apprise to inform

arc something arched or curved ark a ship; a place of protection

are (see hour)

area surface: extent aria a melody arrears that which is due but unpaid

arrange to put in order arraign to call into court ascent (see accent)

assay to test, as an ore essay (n.) a treatise; (v.) to attempt

assent (see accent)

assistance help assistants those who help

assure (see ensure)

ate past tense of eat eight a number

attain to gain; to achieve attend to be present at

attendance presence attendants escorts; followers: companions; associates

aught (see ought)

averse (see adverse)

awhile (adv.) for a short time (see page 286)

a while (phrase) a short period of

bail (n.) security; the handle of a pail; (v.) to dip water bale a bundle

baited past tense of bait bated restrained (as in bated breath)

baloney nonsense bologna smoked sausage

bare (adj.) naked; empty; (v.) to

bear (n.) an animal; (v.) to carry; to produce; to endure (as in grin and bear it)

base (n.) foundation; (adj.) mean bass a fish (pronounced like mass); lower notes in music (pronounced like base)

bases plural of base and of basis basis foundation

bated (see baited)

bazaar (see bizarre)

bear (see bare)

beat (n.) throb; tempo; (v.) to strike beet a vegetable

berry a fruit

bury to submerge; to cover over

berth a bed birth being born

beside by the side of, separate from (see page 287) besides in addition to; also

better (adj.) greater than; more effective; (adv.) to a greater degree

bettor one who bets

bibliography list of writings pertaining to a given subject or author

biography written history of a person's life

billed charged build to construct

birth (see berth)

bizarre fantastic; extravagantly bazaar a place for selling goods

blew past tense of blow blue a color

block (n.) a solid piece of material; (v.) to obstruct bloc an interest group pursuing certain political or economic goals (as in bloc voting)

board a piece of wood; an organized group; meals bored penetrated; wearied

boarder one who pays for meals and often for lodging as well border edge

bolder more daring boulder a large rock

bologna (see baloney)

born brought into life borne carried: endured

bouillon (see bullion)

boy a male child buoy a float

brake (n.) a retarding device; (v.) to retard

break (n.) an opening; a fracture; (v.) to shatter; to divide

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bread food **bred** brought up

breath respiration breathe to inhale and exhale breadth width

bridal concerning the bride or the weddingbridle (n.) means of controlling a horse; (v.) to take offense

broach to open; to introduce **brooch** ornamental clasp

build (see billed)

bullion uncoined gold or silver bouillon broth

buoy (see boy)

bury (see berry)

cache (see cash)

calendar a record of time calender a machine used in finishing paper and cloth colander a strainer

callous (adj.) hardened, unfeeling callus (n.) a hardened surface

cannot usual form (meaning "to be unable")

can not two words in the phrase can not only (where can means "to be able")

canvas (n.) a coarse cloth canvass (v.) to solicit

capital (n.) city serving as the seat of government; a principal sum of money; a large-sized letter; (adj.) chief; foremost; punishable by death capitol the building in which a state legislative body meets

Capitol the building in which the U.S. Congress meets

caret a wedge-shaped mark (^)
carat a unit of weight for
 precious stones
karat a unit of fineness for gold

carton a pasteboard box cartoon a caricature

cash ready money cache a hiding place

casual incidental causal causing

cease to stop seize to grasp

cede to grant; to give up seed that from which anything is grown

ceiling top of a room; any overhanging area sealing closing

cell (see sell)

cellar (see seller)

census statistics of population senses mental faculties

cent (see scent)

cereal food made from grain serial (adj.) arranged in a series; (n.) a work appearing in parts at intervals

cession a yielding session the sitting of a court or other body

chord combination of musical tones (as in to strike a responsive chord)
cord string or rope

chute (see shoot)

cite (v.) to quote; to summon sight a view; vision site a place

click a slight, sharp noise clique an exclusive group cliché a trite phrase

climatic referring to climate climactic referring to a climax

clothes garments cloths fabrics close (n.) the end; (v.) to shut

coarse rough; common course direction; action; a way; part of a meal

colander (see calendar)

collision a clashing collusion a scheme to defraud

colonel military rank below general kernel seed; germ; essential part

coma an unconscious state comma a mark of punctuation

command (n.) an order; (v.) to order

commend to praise; to entrust

commence (v.) to begin **comments** (n.) remarks

complement something that completes

compliment (n.) a flattering remark; (v.) to praise (see page 289)

comprehensible understandable comprehensive extensive

comptroller term used for a financial officer in government

controller term used for a financial officer in business

concur to agree conquer to overpower

confidant a friend; an adviser (feminine form: confidante) confident sure; positive

confidently certainly; positively **confidentially** privately

conquer (see concur)

conscience (n.) the sense of right and wrong conscious (adj.) cognizant; sensible; aware

conservation preservation conversation a talk

consul (see council)

consular (see councillor)

continual occurring steadily but with occasional breaks continuous uninterrupted; unbroken

cooperation working together corporation a form of business organization

cord (see chord)

core the central part; the heart **corps** a group of persons with a common activity

corporation (see cooperation)

correspondence letters correspondents those who write letters; journalists

corespondents certain parties in divorce suits

costume dress custom habit

council an assembly counsel (n.) an attorney; advice; (v.) to give advice consul a foreign representative

councillor a member of a council counselor one who advises consular (adj.) of a consul

course (see coarse)

courtesy a favor; politeness curtesy a husband's life interest in the lands of his deceased wife

curtsy a gesture of respect

credible believable creditable meritorious; deserving of praise

credulous ready to believe

critic one who makes judgments critique (n.) a critical assessment; (v.) to judge; to evaluate criticize to judge negatively

cue a hint **queue** a line of people

currant a berry current (adj.) belonging to the present; (n.) a flow of water or electricity

curser one who curses cursor a symbol used as a pointer on a computer screen

curtesy, curtsy (see courtesy)

custom (see costume)

dairy source of milk products diary daily record

deceased dead diseased sick decent proper; right descent going down dissent disagreement

decree a law degree a grade; a step

deduce to infer deduct to subtract

defer to put off differ to disagree

deference respect; regard for
 another's wishes
difference dissimilarity;

controversy

definite distinct; certain; unquestionable definitive authoritative; providing a final answer

defuse to make less harmful; to make less tense diffuse wordy; badly organized

degree (see decree)

delusion (see allusion)

deposition a formal written statement

disposition temper; disposal

depraved morally debased **deprived** taken away from

deprecate to belittle depreciate to lessen in value

descent (see decent)

desert (n.) barren land; (plural) a deserved reward; (v.) to abandon

dessert the last course of a meal

desolate lonely; sad dissolute loose in morals

detract to take away from distract to divert the attention of

device (n.) a contrivance devise (v.) to plan; to convey real estate by will

dew (see do)

diary (see dairy)

die (n.) mold; (v.) to cease living dye (n.) that which changes the color of; (v.) to change the color of differ (see defer)

difference (see deference)

diffuse (see defuse)

disapprove to withhold approval **disprove** to prove the falsity of

disassemble to take apart dissemble to disguise; to feign

disburse to pay out **disperse** to scatter

discreet prudent **discrete** distinct; separate

diseased (see deceased)

disingenuous (see ingenious)

disinterested unbiased; impartial uninterested bored; unconcerned

disperse (see disburse)

disposition (see deposition)

disprove (see disapprove)

dissemble (see disassemble)

dissent (see decent)

dissolute (see desolate)

distract (see detract)

divers (adj.) various or sundry; (n.) plural of diver diverse different

do to performdue owingdew moisture

done finished dun to demand payment

dose a measured quantity
doze to sleep lightly

dual double duel a combat

duck (n.) a water bird; (v.) to avoid ducked avoided duct pipe or tube (as in duct

tape)
due (see do)

dun (see done)

dye (see die)

dying near death dyeing changing the color of

edition (see addition)

effect (see affect)

eight (see ate)

elapse (see lapse)

elicit to draw forth illicit unlawful

eligible qualified illegible unreadable

elusion (see allusion)

elusive baffling; hard to catch illusive misleading; unreal

emerge to rise out of immerge to plunge into

emigrate to go away from a country

immigrate to come into a country

eminent well-known; prominent imminent threatening; impending immanent inherent; residing within

emanate to originate from; to come out of

en route (see root)

ensure to make certain (see page 291)

insure to protect against loss assure to give confidence to someone

envelop (v.) to cover; to wrap envelope (n.) a wrapper for a letter

equable even; tranquil equitable just; right

erasable capable of being erased irascible quick-tempered

err (see air)

especially to an exceptional degree

specially particularly, as opposed to generally

essay (see assay)

everyday ordinary (see page 293) every day each day everyone each one (see ¶1010) every one each one in a group

ewe (see you)

exalt to glorify exult to be joyful

exceed (see accede)

except (see accept)

excess (see access)

expand to increase in size **expend** to spend

expansive capable of being expanded expensive costly

expatiate to enlarge on expiate to atone for

expend (see expand)

explicit clearly expressed implicit implied

extant still existing extent measure

exult (see exalt)

facet aspect faucet a tap

facetious witty factitious artificial fictitious imaginary

facilitate to make easy felicitate to congratulate

facility ease felicity joy

faint (adj.) dim; weak; (v.) to pass out

feint a trick; a deceptive move

fair (adj.) favorable; just; (n.) an exhibit

fare (n.) cost of travel; food; (v.) to go forth

farther at a greater distance, referring to *actual* distance (see page 293)

further to a greater extent or degree, referring to *figurative* distance; moreover; in addition

faucet (see facet)

faze to disturb (as in doesn't faze me a bit) phase a stage of development feet plural of foot feat an act of skill or strength

feint (see faint)

felicitate (see facilitate)

felicity (see facility)

fictitious (see facetious)

finale the end finally at the end finely in a fine manner

fineness delicacy finesse tact

fir a tree fur skin of an animal

fiscal (see physical)

flack (n.) one who provides publicity; (v.) to provide publicity

flak literally, debris from exploding antiaircraft shells; criticism (as in to take a lot of flak)

flair aptitude flare a light; a signal

flaunt to display showily flout to treat with contempt

flew did fly flue a chimney flu short for influenza

flounder to move clumsily **founder** to collapse; to sink; one who establishes something

flour ground meal flower blossom

flout (see flaunt)

flu, flue (see flew)

for a preposition **fore** first; preceding; the front **four** the numeral 4

forbear to bear with forebear an ancestor

foreword (see forward)

forgo to relinquish; to let pass **forego** to go before

formally in a formal manner formerly before

fort a fortified place forte (n.) area where one excels; (adv.) loud (musical direction; see ¶718a, note)

forth away; forward fourth next after third

forward ahead foreword preface

foul unfavorable: unclean fowl a bird

founder (see flounder)

four (see for)

fourth (see forth)

fur (see fir)

further (see farther)

gaff hook, ordeal, rough treatment gaffe blunder

gage pledge, token of defiance gauge measuring device

genius talent genus a classification in botany or zoology

gibe (n.) a sarcastic remark; (v.) to scoff at jibe to agree

gourmet a connoisseur of food and drink

gourmand a person who eats and drinks to excess

grate (n.) a frame of bars (as in a fireplace); (v.) to scrape; to irritate great large; magnificent

quarantee an assurance of some kind

guaranty a promise to answer for another's debt

guessed past tense of guess guest visitor

hail (n.) a shower of icy pellets; (v.) to call out to (as in to hail a cab)

hale (adj.) healthy

hair a slender outgrowth from the skin (as in a hair's breadth) hare a rabbit (as in hare-

brained)

hall a corridor haul to drag

hangar a building used for storing and repairing aircraft hanger a device from which something (like clothing) can be hung

hare (see hair)

haul (see hall)

heal to cure heel part of a foot or a shoe

healthful promoting health (e.g., a healthful food) healthy being in good health (e.g., a healthy person)

hear to perceive by ear here in this place

heard past tense of hear herd a group of animals

heir (see air)

higher at a greater height hire to employ; to use someone's services

hoard (n.) a hidden supply; (v.) to hide a supply horde a crowd or throng

hoarse harsh or rough in sound horse a large animal

holy sacred holey full of holes wholly entirely holly a tree

hour sixty minutes our belonging to us are a form of to be (as in we are, you are, they are)

human pertaining to humanity humane kindly

hypercritical overcritical hypocritical pretending to be virtuous

ideal a standard of perfection idle unoccupied; without worth idol object of worship idyll a description of rural life

illegible (see eligible)

illicit (see elicit)

illusion (see allusion) illusive (see elusive)

imitate to resemble; to mimic intimate (adj.) innermost; familiar; (v.) to hint; to make

immanent (see eminent)

immerge (see emerge)

immigrate (see emigrate)

imminent (see eminent)

implicit (see explicit)

imply to suggest (see page 296) infer to deduce: to guess: to conclude

inane senseless insane of unsound mind

incidence range of occurrence incidents occurrences; happenings

incinerate to burn insinuate to imply

incite (v.) to arouse insight (n.) understanding

indict to charge with a crime indite to compose; to write

indifferent without interest (see page 296) in different in (preposition) + different (adjective)

indigenous native indigent needy indignant angry

indirect not direct (see page 296) in direct in (preposition) + direct (adjective)

inequity unfairness iniquity wickedness; sin

infer (see imply)

ingenious clever ingenuous naive disingenuous pretending to be naive

insane (see inane)

insight (see incite)

insinuate (see incinerate)

insoluble incapable of being dissolved insolvable not explainable insolvent unable to pay debts

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instants short periods of time **instance** an example

insure (see ensure)

intelligent possessed of understanding intelligible understandable

intense acute; strong intents aims

interstate between states intrastate within one state intestate dying without a will

intimate (see imitate)

into, in to (see page 296)

irascible (see erasable)

isle island aisle passage between rows

its possessive form of *it*it's contraction of *it is* or *it has*(see ¶1056e)

jibe (see gibe)

karat (see caret)

kernel (see colonel)

key a means of gaining entrance or understanding quay a wharf (also pronounced key)

knew understood new fresh; novel

know to understand **no** not any

lapse to become void elapse to pass relapse to slip back into a former condition

last final (see page 297) latest most recent

later more recent; after a time latter second in a series of two (see page 298)

lath a strip of wood lathe a wood-turning machine

lay to place (see page 298)
lie (n.) a falsehood; (v.) to recline;
to tell an untruth
lye a strong alkaline solution

lead (n.) heavy metal (pronounced led); (v.) to guide (pronounced leed)
led guided (past tense of to lead)

lean (adj.) thin; (v.) to incline lien a legal claim

leased rented least smallest

legislator a lawmaker legislature a body of lawmakers

lend to allow the use of temporarily loan (n.) something lent; (v.) to lend lone solitary

lessee a tenant lesser of smaller size lessor one who gives a lease

lessen (v.) to make smaller lesson (n.) an exercise assigned for study

levee embankment of a river levy (v.) to raise a collection of money; (n.) the amount that is thus collected

liable responsible **libel** defamatory statement

lie (see lay)

lien (see lean)

lightening making lighter lightning accompaniment of thunder lighting illumination

load a burden to be carried lode a mineral deposit; an abundant supply

loan, lone (see lend)

loath (adj.) reluctant loathe (v.) to detest

local (adj.) pertaining to a particular place

locale (n.) a particular place loose (adj.) not bound; (v.) to

release
lose (v.) to suffer the loss of; to
part with unintentionally
loss something lost

lye (see lay)

made constructed maid a servant

magnificent having splendor munificent unusually generous

mail correspondence male masculine

main (adj.) chief; (n.) a conduit mane long hair on the neck of certain animals

manner a way of acting (as in to the manner born) manor an estate

marital pertaining to marriage martial military (as in martial law) marshal (n.) an official; (v.) to arrange (as in to marshal the facts)

maybe perhaps (see page 300) may be a verb consisting of two words

mean (adj.) unpleasant; (n.) the midpoint; (v.) to intend mien appearance

meat flesh of animals meet (v.) to join; (adj.) proper mete to measure

medal a badge of honor meddle to interfere metal a mineral mettle courage; spirit (as in to test one's mettle)

mien (see mean)

miner a worker in a mine minor (adj.) lesser, as in size, extent, or importance; (n.) a person who is under legal age

missal a book of prayers missile a rocket; a projectile

mist haze missed failed to do

mite a tiny particle might (n.) force; (v.) past tense of may

mode fashion; method mood disposition mooed past tense of moo

monogram a set of initials monograph a short book; a pamphlet

moot debatable; disputed (as in a moot point) mute unable to speak

moral virtuous morale spirit

morality virtue mortality death rate

morning before noon mourning grief

munificent (see magnificent)

naught (see ought)

new (see knew)

no (see know)

nobody no one (see page 301) no body no group

noisome offensive, smelly noisy clamorous

none not one (see ¶1013) no one nobody (see ¶1010)

oculist an ophthalmologist or an optometrist

ophthalmologist a doctor who treats eyes

optician one who makes or sells eyeglasses

optometrist one who measures vision

official authorized officious overbold in offering services

one a single thing won did win

ordinance a local law ordnance arms: munitions

ought should aught anything; all; nothing; zero naught nothing; zero

our (see hour)

overdo to do too much overdue past due

packed crowded pact an agreement pail a bucket pale (adj.) light-colored; (n.) an enclosure (as in beyond the

pain suffering pane window glass

pair two of a kind pare to peel pear a fruit

palate roof of the mouth; the sense of taste

pallet a bed; a mattress; a portable platform for stacking materials palette a board holding a painter's pigments; a range of

parameter a quantity with an assigned value; a constant perimeter the outer boundary

partition division petition prayer; a formal written request

partly in part partially to some degree

past (n.) time gone by; (adj., adv., or prep.) gone by passed moved along; transferred (past tense of pass)

patience composure; endurance patients sick persons

peace calmness piece a portion

peak the top peek to look slyly at pique (n.) resentment; (v.) to offend; to arouse (as in to pique one's interest) piqué cotton fabric

peal to ring out peel (n.) the rind; (v.) to strip off

pear (see pair)

pedal (adj.) pertaining to the foot; (n.) a treadle peddle to hawk; to sell

peek (see peak) peel (see peal)

peer (n.) one of equal rank or age; (v.) to look steadily pier a wharf

perfect (adj.) without fault; (v.) to make perfect prefect (n.) an official

perimeter (see parameter)

perpetrate to carry out (a crime) perpetuate to make perpetual

perquisite privilege prerequisite a preliminary requirement

persecute to oppress prosecute to sue

personal private personnel the staff

perspective a view in correct proportion prospective anticipated

peruse to read pursue to chase

petition (see partition)

phase (see faze)

physic a medicine physics science dealing with matter and energy physique bodily structure psychic (adj.) pertaining to the mind or spirit; (n.) a medium

physical relating to the body fiscal pertaining to finance (see page 294) psychical mental

piece (see peace)

pier (see peer)

pique, piqué (see peak)

plain (adj.) undecorated; (n.) prairie land plane (n.) a level surface; an airplane; (v.) to make level or smooth

plaintiff party in a lawsuit plaintive mournful

pleas plural of plea please to be agreeable

pole a long, slender piece of wood or metal poll (n.) the casting of votes by a body of persons; (v.) to register the votes of

poor (adj.) inadequate; (n.) the needy pore to study; to gaze intently pour to flow

populace the common people; the masses populous thickly settled

portend (see pretend)

portion a part proportion a ratio of parts apportion to allot

practicable workable; feasible practical useful

pray to beseech prey a captured victim

precede to go before proceed to advance

precedence priority precedents established rules

prefect (see perfect)

preposition a part of speech proposition an offer

prerequisite (see perquisite)

prescribe to designate proscribe to outlaw

presence bearing; being present presents gifts

presentiment a foreboding presentment a proposal

pretend to make-believe portend to foreshadow

principal (adj.) chief; leading; (n.) a capital sum of money that draws interest; chief official of a school principle a general truth; a rule; integrity

proceed (see precede)

profit gain prophet one who forecasts

prophecy a prediction prophesy to foretell

proportion (see portion)

propose to suggest purpose intention

proposition (see preposition)

proscribe (see *prescribe*)

prosecute (see persecute)

prospective (see perspective)

psychic (see physic)

psychical (see physical)

purpose (see *propose*)

pursue (see *peruse*)

quay (see key)

queue (see cue)

quiet calm; not noisy quite entirely; wholly quit to stop

rain falling water rein part of a bridle (as in to give free rein to your imagination) reign (n.) the term of a ruler's power; (v.) to rule

raise (n.) an increase; (v.) to lift (see page 303) raze to destroy rays beams

rap to knock wrap (n.) a garment; (v.) to enclose

rapt engrossed (as in rapt attention)

wrapped past tense of wrap

read to perform the act of reading reed a plant; a type of musical instrument

red a color

real actual reel (n.) a dance; (v.) to whirl

reality actuality realty real estate

rebut to argue in opposition refute to prove wrong

receipt an acknowledgment of a thing received recipe a formula for mixing ingredients

recent (adj.) relating to a time not long past resent (v.) to feel hurt by

red (see read)

reel (see real)

reference that which refers to something

reverence profound respect

refute (see rebut)

reign, rein (see rain)

relapse (see lapse)

resent (see recent)

residence a house residents persons who reside in a place

respectably in a manner worthy of respect

respectfully in a courteous manner

respectively in the order indicated

reverence (see reference)

right (adj.) correct; (n.) a privilege rite a ceremony (as in a rite of passage)

wright a worker; a maker (used as a combining form, as in playwright)

write to inscribe

role a part in a play roll (n.) a list; a type of bread; (v.) to revolve

root (n.) underground part of a plant; (v.) to implant firmly route (n.) an established course of travel; (v.) to send by a

certain route en route on or along the way rout (n.) confused flight; (v.) to

defeat rote repetition wrote did write

rye a grain used to make bread or whiskey wry ironically humorous

sail (n.) part of a ship's rigging; (v.) to travel by water sale the act of selling

scene a setting; an exhibition of strong feeling

seen past participle of to see

scent odor sent did send cent penny

sense (n.) meaning; (v.) to feel

sealing (see ceiling)

seam a line of junction seem to appear

seed (see cede)

seen (see scene)

seize (see cease)

sell to transfer for a price cell a small compartment

seller one who sells cellar an underground room

sense, sent (see scent)

senses (see census)

serge a kind of cloth surge (n.) a billow; (v.) to rise suddenly

serial (see cereal)

serve to help (see page 303) service to keep in good repair

session (see cession)

sew (see so)

shear to cut; to trim sheer transparent; utter

shoot to fire chute a slide

shown displayed; revealed; past participle of show shone gave off light; did shine

sight, site (see cite)

simple plain; uncomplicated simplistic oversimplified; falsely simple

sleight dexterity (as in *sleight of hand*)

slight (adj.) slender; scanty; (v.) to make light of

so therefore sew to stitch sow to scatter seed soar (see sore)

soared did fly sword weapon

sole one and only soul the immortal spirit

soluble having the ability to dissolve in a liquid

solvable capable of being solved or explained

some a part of sum a total

someone somebody (see ¶1010) some one some person in a group

sometime at some unspecified time (see page 305) some time a period of time sometimes now and then

son male child sun the earth's source of light and heat

sore painful soar to fly

soul (see sole)

sow (see so)

spacious having ample room specious outwardly correct but inwardly false

specially (see especially)

staid grave; sedate
stayed past tense and past participle of to stay

stair a step stare to look at

stake (n.) a pointed stick; a prize;
 (v.) to wager
steak a slice of meat or fish

stanch to stop the flow of something (such as blood or tears) staunch faithful, steadfast

stationary fixed stationery writing materials

statue a carved or molded figure stature height statute a law

stayed (see staid)

steak (see stake)

steal to take unlawfully steel a form of iron

straight not crooked; directly strait a water passageway; (plural) a distressing situation (as in *dire straits*)

succor (n.) something that provides relief; (v.) to relievesucker someone easily cheated

suit (n.) a legal action; clothing; (v.) to please

suite a group of things (such as rooms or furniture) forming a unit

sweet having an agreeable taste; pleasing

sum (see some)

sun (see son)

superintendence management superintendents supervisors

surge (see serge)

sweet (see suit)

sword (see soared)

tack (n.) direction; (v.) to change direction (see page 306)tact considerate way of behaving

so as to avoid offending others

tail the end

tale a story

tare allowance for weight tear (n.) a rent or rip (pronounced like tare); a secretion from the eye (pronounced like tier); (v.) to rip tier a row or layer

taught did teach taut tight; tense

team a group teem to abound

tear (see tare)

tenant one who rents property tenet a principle

than conjunction of comparison (see page 306) then (adv.) at that time

Continued on base 10

¶719

their belonging to them (see ¶1056e)

there in that place they're contraction of they are

theirs possessive form of *they;* used when a noun does not follow

there's contraction of there is or there has (see ¶1056e)

therefor for that thing therefore consequently

throes a painful struggle throws hurls; flings

through by means of; from beginning to end; because of threw did throw thorough exhaustive

tier (see tare)

to (prep.) towardtoo (adv.) more than enough; alsotwo one plus one

tortuous winding; twisty; devious torturous cruelly painful

track a trail tract a treatise; a piece of land

trial examination; experiment; hardship trail a path

trustee a person to whom something is entrusted

trusty (n.) a convict who is considered trustworthy; (adj.) dependable

undo to open; to render ineffective undue improper; excessive

uninterested (see disinterested)

urban pertaining to the city urbane polished; suave

vain proud; conceited; futile vane a weathercock vein a blood vessel; a bed of mineral materials vale a valley
veil a concealing cover or cloth

vendee purchaser vendor seller

veracious truthful voracious greedy

veracity truthfulness voracity ravenousness; greediness

vial a small flask for liquids vile disgusting, despicable

vice wickedness; a prefix used with nouns to designate titles of office (see ¶808c)
vise a clamp

voracity (see veracity)

waist part of the body
waste (n.) needless destruction;
useless consumption; (v.) to
expend uselessly

wait to stay weight heaviness

waive (v.) to give up
wave (n.) a billow; a gesture;
(v.) to swing back and forth

waiver the giving up of a claim waver to hesitate

want (n.) a need; (v.) to lack; to desire

wont a custom (pronounced like want)

won't contraction of will not

ware goods
wear to have on; to diminish
were form of to be
where at the place in which

wave (see waive)

waver (see waiver)

way direction; distance; manner weigh to find the weight

weak not strong week seven days

weather (n.) state of the atmosphere; (v.) to come through safely

whether if (see page 308)

weigh (see way) weight (see wait)

wet (v.) to moisten
whet (v.) to sharpen (as in to
 whet one's appetite)

where (see ware)

whoever anyone who who ever two words (see page 308)

wholly (see holy)

whose possessive of who who's contraction of who is or who has (see ¶1063)

willfully in a determined manner willingly cheerfully; happily; with one's free will

won (see one)

wont, won't (see want)

wood lumber would an auxiliary verb form (as in they would like some)

wrap (see rap)

wrapped (see rapt)

wright, write (see right)

wrote (see rote)

wry (see rye)

yoke a crosspiece that holds two things together; an oppressive constraint

yolk the yellow part of an egg

you second-person pronounyew an evergreen tree or bushewe a female sheep

your belonging to you (see ¶1056e)
you're contraction of you are

Troublesome Words

720 The following list presents a selection of words that business writers often misspell or stop and puzzle over. In some cases the difficulty results from the inability to

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 ¶719 and Section 11. For troublesome compound words, see Section 8.

abscess absence accessory

accompanying

accidentally (see page 282) accommodate

acknowledgment (see ¶708)

acquaintance acquiesce acquire acquisition across adjacent

advantageous (see ¶707c)

adviser aegis affidavit aggressive

aging (see ¶707c, note)

Albuquerque algorithm alignment

all right (see page 284)

alleged

already (see page 284)

amateur

amortize (see ¶715a)

analogous analysis

analyze (see ¶715c)

anomalous answer antecedent appall

apparatus apparent

architect

argument (see ¶708) assistance (see ¶714)

asthma attendance attorney

autumn auxiliary bachelor bankruptcy

bargain

basically bellwether beneficiary benefited (see ¶704)

benign

Berkeley (California) biased (see ¶705) biscuit

bizarre boundary breakfast brochure buoyant

bureau business busy calendar caliber calorie

campaign canceled (see ¶704)

cancellation (see ¶704)
candor
Caribbean

carriage

catalog

category ceiling cemetery census

chaise longue (see ¶612a) changeable (see ¶707c)

chronological Cincinnati circuit coincidence collateral colonel colossal

column comparison condemn Connecticut

connoisseur conscience conscientious conscious

conscious consensus corduroy correspondent courtesy

debt debtor deductible

de-emphasize (see ¶835a) defendant (see ¶714)

defense deficit definite

dependent (see ¶714)

Des Moines

Continued on page 194

Spelling

fluorescent descendant (see ¶714) intern forbade irrelevant (see ¶714) describe foreign (see ¶712) desperately itinerary detrimental foresee jeopardy forfeit judgment (see ¶708) develop dictionary forty khaki labeled (see ¶704) dilemma fourteen fourth laboratory disappear disappoint freight league disastrous fulfill ledger dissatisfied leisure gauge liable dissimilar glamorous liaison doctrinaire glamour dossier library goodwill double license government ecstasy grammar lien lieutenant eighth grateful either lightning gray eliminate grievous liquefy embarrass gruesome (see ¶708) literature maintenance emphasize guarantee guardian maneuver empty entrepreneur guesstimate marriage handkerchief marshaled enumerate martvr environment harass erroneous harebrained medieval mediocre escrow harken hearten memento exaggerate exceed (see ¶716b) height (see ¶712) mileage (see ¶707) excellent milieu hemorrhage exercise heterogeneous millennium exhaustible hindrance millionaire exhibition miniature homogeneous exhilarate hors d'oeuvre minuscule hygiene miscellaneous exonerate mischievous exorbitant hypocrisy extension idiosyncrasy misspell

fantasy fascinating fatigue February fierv

financier

extraordinary

eveina

facsimile

familiar

indispensable innocuous innuendo inoculate interim

impasse

impostor

inasmuch as

incidentally

indict

mnemonic mortgage motor necessary negotiate

neither (see ¶712)

nickel

niece (see ¶712)

ninety ninth

noticeable (see ¶707c) quantity subtletv nuclear questionnaire subtly obsolescent queue summary offense rarefy superintendent omelet recommend supersede (see ¶716a) omission reconnaissance surgeon

omission reconnaissance surgeon
ophthalmology reconnoiter surprise
pamphlet recruit surreptitious
paradigm reinforce surveillance (see ¶714)

parallel relevant (see ¶714) synagogue
parliament renaissance tariff
part-time (see ¶816a) rendezvous taxiing
pastime renowned technique

patience rescind temperament
permissible (see ¶713b) resistance (see ¶714) temperature
perseverance restaurant tempt
persistent résumé (see ¶718) theater

persuade rhapsody their (see ¶712)
phase rhetorical theory
phenomenal rhyme thoroughly
Philippines (see ¶348a, note) rhythm threshold
phony sacrilegious through

physician salable (see ¶707a) totaled (see ¶704)
Pittsburgh San Francisco tragedy

plagiarism sandwich traveler (see ¶704)

poinsettia satellite Tuesday
potato, potatoes schedule unctuous
practically scissors unique

practice secretary unmanageable (see ¶707c)
preceding (see ¶716c) seize (see ¶712) usage (see ¶707a)

seize (see ¶712) usage (see ¶707a) preferable (see ¶702, note) separate vaccinate prerogative vacillate sergeant presumptuous sieve vacuum pretense similar vegetable privilege simultaneous victim procedure (see ¶716b) sincerely (see ¶708) lyniv proceed (see ¶716b) siphon volume programmed (see ¶704) skeptic warrant prohibition skiing Wednesday pronunciation skillful weird (see ¶712)

protégé souvenir whether psalm specimen whiskey pseudonym sponsor wholly psychiatric straitjacket withhold psychological stratagem woeful publicly

publiclystrengthwoolly (see ¶705)pursuesubpoenayield (see ¶712)

SECTION 8

Compound Words

Compound Nouns (¶¶801–810)

Compound Verbs (¶¶811–812)

Compound Adjectives (¶¶813-832)

Basic Rules (¶¶813-815)

Adjective + Noun (as in short-term note: ¶816)

Compound With Number or Letter (as in 40-hour week: ¶817)

Compound Noun (as in high school graduate: ¶818)

Proper Name (as in Madison Avenue agencies: ¶819)

Noun + Adjective (as in tax-free imports: ¶820)

Noun + Participle (as in time-consuming details: ¶821)

Adjective + Participle (as in nice-looking layout: ¶822)

Adjective + Noun + ED (as in quick-witted assistant: ¶823)

Adverb + Participle (as in privately owned stock and

as in well-known facts: ¶824)

Adverb + Adjective (as in very exciting test results: ¶825)

Participle + Adverb (as in warmed-over ideas: ¶826)

Adjective + Adjective (as in black leather notebook: ¶827)

Verb + Verb (as in stop-and-go traffic: ¶828)

Verb + Adverb (as in read-only memory: ¶829)

Verb + Noun (as in take-home pay: ¶830)

Phrasal Compound (as in up-to-date accounts: ¶831)

Suspending Hyphen (¶832)

Prefixes and Suffixes (¶¶833-846)

Compound Computer Terms (¶847)

Sometimes One Word, Sometimes Two Words (¶848)

> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

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. While the only complete guide is an up-to-date dictionary, 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 1997 printing of Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, Tenth Edition, and Webster's Third New International Dictionary unless otherwise indicated.

Compound Nouns

a. Compound nouns follow no regular pattern. Some are written solid, some are spaced, and some are hyphenated.

airfreight	air conditioner	air-conditioning ((see ¶¶801b, 812b)
checklist	check mark	check-in	
closeout	close shave	close-up	
crossroad	cross section	cross-reference	
daytime	day care	day-tripper	
doubleheader	double take	double-dipper	
eyewitness	eye shadow	eye-opener	
freelance	free fall	free-marketer	
goodwill	good sense	good-bye	
halftime	half hour	half-truth	
jobholder	job action	job-hopper	
lifestyle	life span	life-form	
lightbulb	light meter	light-year	
moneylender	money market	money-grubber	
placeholder	place mat	place-name	
pocketbook	pocket money	pocket-handkerd	hief
showbiz	show business	show-off	
sickroom	sick pay	sick-out	
timetable	time deposit	time-saver	
trademark	trade name	trade-off	
bondholder	bond paper	paperwork	paper clip
bookstore	book review	payroll	pay dirt
bylaw	by-product	salespeople	sales tax
cashbook	cash flow	schoolteacher	school board
database	data processing	standby	stand-in
handbook	hand truck	voiceprint	voice-over
homeowner	home port	wageworker	wage earner
masterpiece	master plan	workstation	work stoppage

b. To be sure of the spelling of a compound noun, check an up-to-date dictionary. Since dictionaries pride themselves on being descriptive (simply showing how individual words are most commonly spelled) rather than prescriptive (imposing consistent spelling patterns on similar words), you will sometimes encounter troubling inconsistencies like these:

layoff (solid) copywriter (solid) air conditioner (spaced) air-conditioning (hyphenated) payoff (solid) copyholder (solid) play-off (hyphenated) copyedit (solid) makeup (solid) copy editor (spaced) shake-up (hyphenated) skydiving (solid) skin diving (spaced)

When such inconsistencies appear within the same context and are likely to distract the reader, you may treat the troubling words the same way:

- Choose the spaced form over the hyphenated form. air conditioner air conditioning
- Choose the solid form over the hyphenated form. shakeup layoff payoff playoff
- Choose the solid form over the spaced form.

copyholder skydiving skindivina copywriter copyedit copyeditor

CAUTION: Do not convert a spaced or hyphenated compound noun to the solid form if the resulting word will be hard to grasp. For example, co-op—the short form of cooperative—is still written with a hyphen to avoid confusion with the word coop (even though the hyphen has now been dropped from cooperative). In short, do not pursue the goal of stylistic consistency if the result will confuse your reader.

Also keep in mind that adjusting dictionary spellings to avoid inconsistencies requires careful and experienced judgment. If you are not confident about your ability to make such judgments, follow the dictionary. Moreover, if you are working for an organization that strives for a consistent style in all of its written material, do not make any adjustments in spelling that could put you in conflict with the style of your organization.

c. When you cannot find a compound noun in the dictionary, the traditional guideline is to treat the noun in question as two words. As an alternative, you may treat the noun the same way that similar compounds appear in the dictionary.

We now go house hunting?/house-hunting?/househunting? every weekend.

If you consult Merriam-Webster for similar words, you will find two patterns:

SOLID: housebreaking, housecleaning, housekeeping, housewarming

HYPHENATED: house-raising, house-sitting

According to the guidelines in b above, choose the solid form over the hyphenated form. On that basis you could safely write househunting as a solid word. Moreover, for the sake of consistency, you could also write houseraising and housesitting as solid words.

NOTE: The cautionary note in b above applies here as well. If you are not confident about the best way to treat compounds not in the dictionary, follow the traditional rule and treat the elements of the compound as separate words.

Some solid and hyphenated compound nouns closely resemble verb 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 expect a turnaround in sales we have to make a getaway to attempt a takeover of their firm I was a standby on Flight 968A Paul's speech was merely a put-on protect data with regular backups after you complete the logon devise another plan as a fallback need to reduce staff turnover

Verb Phrases

when communications break down to follow up on your recommendation drive in to your dealer's don't drop out of high school planes cannot take off or land we can go ahead with the plan we can't stand still let's run through the presentation plan to get together they know how to handle it once our sales turn around we have to get away to attempt to take over their firm we can't stand by and do nothing your requisition was put on hold always back up the data in the file after you log on to the program we can always fall back on Plan B need to turn over a new leaf

803 a. Up Words. Compound nouns ending in up are solid or hyphenated. For example:

linkup	call-up	mock-up
makeup	catch-up	runner-up
markup	close-up	send-up
pasteup	cover-up	shake-up
pileup	flare-up	sign-up
roundup	follow-up	start-up
setup	frame-up	summing-up
slipup	grown-ups	tie-up
smashup	hang-up	toss-up
speedup	higher-ups	touch-up
warmup*	jam-up	tune-up
windup	lead-up	wrap-up
workup	mix-up	write-up
	makeup markup pasteup pileup roundup setup slipup smashup speedup warmup* windup	makeup catch-up markup close-up pasteup cover-up pileup flare-up roundup follow-up setup frame-up slipup grown-ups smashup hang-up speedup higher-ups warmup* jam-up windup lead-up

. Down Words. Most compound nouns ending in down are solid. For example:

own words.	most compound nouns	ending in aown are	solid. For example:
breakdown	lowdown	shakedown	BUT: dressing-down
closedown	markdown	showdown	put-down
comedown	meltdown	shutdown	sit-down
countdown	phasedown	slowdown	step-down
crackdown	rubdown	sundown	thumbs-down
letdown	rundown	turndown	write-down

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c. In Words. Compound nouns ending in in are typically hyphenated. For example:

break-in	fill-in	shoo-in	trade-in
cave-in	lead-in	shut-in	turn-in
check-in	log-in	sit-in	walk-in
drive-in	plug-in	stand-in	weigh-in
fade-in	run-in	tie-in	write-in

d. Out Words. Compound nouns ending in out are typically solid. For example:

bailout	foldout	readout	BUT: cop-out
blackout	handout	rollout	diner-out
blowout	hangout	sellout	fade-out
breakout	hideout	shakeout	falling-out
burnout	holdout	shutout	lights-out
buyout	layout	standout	log-out
carryout	lockout	tryout	pig-out
checkout	lookout	turnout	shoot-out
closeout	payout	walkout	sick-out
dropout	phaseout	washout	speak-out
fallout	printout	workout	time-out

e. *On* **Words.** Compound nouns ending in *on* are typically hyphenated. For example:

auu-un	COINE-OII	Hallycis-ull	allh-nii
carry-on	follow-on	lookers-on	turn-on
carryings-on	goings-on	run-on	BUT: logon (see ¶847b)

f. *Off* **Words.** Compound nouns ending in *off* are either solid or hyphenated. For example:

checkoff	liftoff	brush-off	send-off
cutoff	logoff (see ¶847b)	drop-off	show-off
falloff	payoff	play-off	sign-off
kickoff	shutoff	rake-off	spin-off
knockoff	standoff	rip-off	tip-off
layoff	takeoff	rub-off	trade-off
leadoff	turnoff	sell-off	write-off

g. Over Words. Compound nouns ending in over are typically solid. For example:

layover	slipover	turnover
leftover	spillover	walkover
pushover	stopover	BUT: going-over
rollover	switchover	once-over
runover	takeover	voice-over
	leftover pushover rollover	leftover spillover stopover rollover switchover

h. Back Words. Compound nouns ending in back are typically solid. For example:

	-		_
buyback	fallback	kickback	pullback
callback	feedback	leaseback	rollback
comeback	flashback	payback	setback
cutback	giveback	piggyback	snapback
drawback	hatchback	playback	throwback

i. Away Words. These compounds are typically solid. For example:

giveaway breakaway runaway straightaway hideaway stowaway throwaway getaway

j. Compounds Ending in About, Around, and By. These compounds are typically solid. For example:

turnabout knockabout runaround passersby whereabouts turnaround lavabout standbys

k. Compounds Ending in Between, Through, and Together. These compounds are typically hyphenated. For example:

follow-through go-between walk-through get-together in-between run-through BUT: breakthrough

804 a. Hyphenate a compound noun that lacks a noun as one of its elements.

know-it-alls the also-rans a set-to a big to-do hand-me-downs a lean-to the well-to-do a cure-all a talking-to a go-ahead a shoot-'em-up give-and-take a go-getter do-it-yourselfers a five-and-ten half-and-half a has-been a good-for-nothing the have-nots a ne'er-do-well my one-and-only know-how a merry-go-round on the up-and-up a look-alike a free-for-all show-and-tell make-believe the be-all and end-all the old so-and-so hide-and-seek BUT: ups and downs sav-so two-by-fours no get-up-and-go wear and tear the old one-two wannabes a sing-along

b. Words coined from repeated syllables or rhyming syllables are typically hyphenated. Other coined words may be hyphenated or solid.

boo-boo BUT: wingding goody-goody voodoo no-no mumbo jumbo hocus-pocus a no-brainer razzle-dazzle one-upmanship yada-yada-yada stick-to-itiveness culture-vulture comeuppance hurly-burly whodunit nitty-gritty twofers walkie-talkie a gofer

c. Many compound nouns that end with a prepositional phrase are hyphenated.

ambassador-at-large BUT: bill of lading stick-in-the-mud editor in chief attorney-at-law man-about-town brother-in-law line of credit right-of-way grants-in-aid power of attorney stav-at-home jack-of-all-trades stock-in-trade chief of staff Johnny-on-the-spot theater-in-the-round standard of living

a. As a general rule, treat a compound noun like *problem solving* as two words unless your dictionary specifically shows it as solid or hyphenated. (Many words of this pattern are not shown in a dictionary. However, the solid and hyphenated examples below have been taken from the 1997 printing of *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, Tenth Edition.)

bean counting brainstorming consciousness-raising data processing downloading fund-raising downsizing house-sitting decision making number crunching housewarming name-dropping letterspacing price-cutting problem solving sight-seeing logrolling profit sharing saber rattling safekeeping soul-searching tailgating speed-reading skill building whistle-blowing skin diving trailblazing BUT: skydiving troubleshooting witch-hunting

- b. As an alternative to the approach described in a above, when you cannot find a word of this type in the dictionary, treat it like a similar compound that does appear in the dictionary. For example, if you know that price-cutting appears in Merriam-Webster (and in the list above) as a hyphenated word, then you may hyphenate cost-cutting (which does not appear in Merriam-Webster) for the sake of stylistic consistency. By the same token, when the dictionary treats similar compounds differently—for example, skin diving and skydiving or housewarming and house-sitting (as shown in the list above)—you may treat them the same way for stylistic consistency. See ¶801b—c for guidance on how to deal with these situations. Also see ¶812 for guidance on how to treat compound nouns derived from infinitives.
- Hyphenate two nouns when they signify that one person or one thing has two functions. (See also ¶¶295b, 818b.)

actor-director director-producer secretary-treasurer dinner-dance owner-manager wheeler-dealer photocopier-printer doctor-lawyer editor-publisher

807 Compound nouns that have a single letter as their first element are either hyphenated or written as two words.

 A-frame
 H-bomb
 U-turn

 B-school
 I beam
 V neck

 D-mark
 I-280
 X ray

 f-stop
 T-shirt
 x-axis

 G suit
 T square
 y-coordinate

NOTE: The term X ray (which is two words when used as a noun) is hyphenated when used as a verb or an adjective. (See also \$815a.)

808 a. Do not hyphenate civil and military titles of two or more words.

Chief of Police Potenza Attorney General Liebowitz
General Manager Werner Rear Admiral Byrd
Vice President Vega Lieutenant Colonel Payne

b. Hyphenate compound titles containing ex and elect.

ex-President Clinton Vice President-elect Jordan

NOTE: Also use a hyphen when *ex* is attached to a noun (*ex-wife*, *ex-convict*), but omit the hyphen in Latin phrases (*ex officio*, *ex cathedra*).

- > For the capitalization of titles with ex and elect, see ¶¶317, 363; for the correct usage of ex, see the entry for Ex-former on page 293.
- **c.** The hyphen is still customary in *vice-chancellor* and *vice-consul*, but it is gone from *vice president* and *vice admiral* (for example, *Vice President* Warren).
- Compound nouns containing man or men as an element were traditionally used generically to refer to males and females alike. For example:

not for the average *layman* the history of *mankind* of concern to all *businessmen* reduce the number of *man-hours* write your *congressman* a new source of *manpower*

a. The *generic* use of such terms is now considered unacceptable, because the masculine bias of these terms makes them unsuitable for reference to women. The following list suggests appropriate alternatives.

In Place of the Generic Term	Use
layman	layperson
businessmen	business owners, business executives,
	business managers, business people
congressmen	members of Congress, representatives
mankind	people, humanity, the human race, human beings
man-hours	worker-hours
manpower	work force, human resources, staff
salesmen	salespeople, sales representatives, salespersons,
	salesclerks, sales staff, sales force, sales associates
foremen	supervisors
policemen	police officers, the police
mailmen	mail carriers
workmen	workers

NOTE: Workmen's compensation insurance (or workmen's comp) is now referred to as workers' compensation insurance (or workers' comp).

- \succ For alternatives to words ending with feminine suffixes, see ¶840.
- **b.** Whenever possible, replace a word like *salesmanship* with an alternative expression (for example, *selling skills*). However, words such as *craftsmanship*, *workmanship*, *sportsmanship*, *brinkmanship*, *showmanship*, and *one-upmanship* are still widely used because of the difficulty in devising alternative expressions.
- c. 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 Nancy Pelosi of California.

Who will be appointed as *head* of the committee? **OR** Who will be appointed to *chair* the committee? (**NOT**: . . . appointed *chairman* of the committee?)

BUT: Robert Haas has been appointed chairman of the committee.

NOTE: Words like *chair, chairperson*, and *spokesperson* have been coined as a means of avoiding the generic use of masculine compound nouns. Personal taste or institutional policy will dictate whether to use these terms or not.

Terms like *doctor*, *lawyer*, and *nurse* are generic—that is, they apply equally to women and men. Therefore, do not use compound nouns like *woman lawyer* and *male nurse* unless there is a legitimate reason for making a distinction according to gender.

Next Wednesday there will be a seminar on the special problems facing women lawyers in the courtroom.

➤ Capitalization of hyphenated compound nouns: see ¶363.

Plurals of compound nouns: see ¶¶611–613.

Possessives of compound nouns: see ¶¶634–635.

Compound Verbs

811 a. Compound verbs are usually hyphenated or solid.

to air-condition	to jump-start	to backstop	to mastermind
to baby-sit	to nickel-and-dime	to bulldoze	to moonlight
to color-code	to pooh-pooh	to buttonhole	to pinpoint
to custom-tailor	to rubber-stamp	to downgrade	to proofread
to deep-six	to second-guess	to download	to sandbag
to double-click	to shrink-wrap	to downsize	to shortchange
to double-space	to soft-pedal	to ghostwrite	to sidetrack
to dry-clean	to spot-check	to hamstring	to troubleshoot
to field-test	to test-drive	to handpick	to waterproof
to fine-tune	to window-shop	to highlight	to whitewash

NOTE: If you try to check the spelling of a compound verb in a dictionary and do not find the verb listed, hyphenate the components.

- **b.** Do not hyphenate verb phrases such as *make up*, *slow down*, *tie in*. (See ¶802 for other examples.)
- **812** a. If the infinitive form of a compound verb has a hyphen, retain the hyphen in other forms of the verb. (See the note on the following page for an 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.

You need to double-space all these reports.

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.)

NOTE: The gerund derived from a hyphenated compound verb requires no hyphen unless it is followed by an object.

Air conditioning* is no longer as expensive as it used to be.

BUT: In air-conditioning an office, you must take more than space into account.

Double spacing would make this table easier to read.

BUT: Double-spacing this table would make it easier to read.

Spot checking is all we have time for.

BUT: In spot-checking the data, I found some disturbing errors.

Dry cleaning is the best way to treat this garment.

BUT: Dry-cleaning this sweater will not remove the spot.

b. If the infinitive form of a compound verb is solid, treat other forms of the verb solid as well.

to copyedit a manuscript to handpick a candidate

finish the copyediting by Friday handpicking the ripest tomatoes

to proofread the galleys

proofreading the catalog copy

Compound Adjectives

No aspect of style causes greater difficulty than compound adjectives. When a compound adjective is shown hyphenated in the dictionary, you can 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.

Compound with number or letter (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 layout): see ¶822.

Adjective + noun + ed (as in quick-witted assistant): 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 test results): see ¶825.

Participle + adverb (as in warmed-over ideas): see ¶826.

Adjective + adjective (as in black leather notebook): see ¶827.

Verb + verb (as in stop-and-go traffic): see ¶828.

Verb + adverb (as in read-only memory): see ¶829.

Verb + noun (as in take-home pay): see ¶830.

Phrasal compound (as in up-to-date accounts): see ¶831.

NOTE: If you try to check the spelling of a compound adjective in a dictionary and do not find it listed, match up the components with one of the patterns shown above and follow the standard style for that pattern.

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

terminals installed at the point of sale

- a career moving along a fast track
- a guarantee to give you your money back
- 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
- an article that is as long as a book
- an environment where people work under high pressure
- a PC that delivers a high level of performance, carries a low cost, and is easy to use
- a stock split that gives holders two shares for each one that they now own

Compound Adjective

point-of-sale terminals

- a fast-track career
- a money-back guarantee
- a *quiet-spoken* woman
- a well-known actor
- a high-level conference
- a ten-story building
- an up-to-date report
- a book-length article
- a high-pressure environment
- a high-performance, low-cost, easy-to-use PC
- a two-for-one stock split

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, *who speaks quietly* becomes *quiet-spoken*); sometimes they are simply extracted from the phrase or clause without any change in form (for example, *well-known*, *high-level*).

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.)

high-tech equipment (equipment that reflects a high level of technology)

- a worst-case scenario (a scenario based on the worst case that could occur)
- an old-fashioned dress (a dress of an old fashion)
- a \$30,000-a-year salary (a salary of \$30,000 a year)

long-range plans (plans projected over a long range of time)

machine-readable copy (copy readable by a machine)

an eye-catching display (a display that catches the eye)

a high-ranking official (an official who ranks high in the organization)

same-day service (service completed the same day you bring the item in)
a black-tie affair (an affair at which men must wear formal clothes with a black tie)

the rubber-chicken circuit (a circuit or series of banquets at which speeches are given and rubbery chicken or some equally bad food is served)

revolving-door management (a management with such rapid turnover that managers seem to be arriving and departing through a continuously revolving door)

bottom-line results (the results that are shown on the bottom line of a financial statement) open-collar workers (workers who dress casually, with open collars; in other words, those who work at home, telecommuters)

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	This condition can be treated by <i>X ray</i> . (Object of preposition.)
an <i>up-to-date</i> report	Please bring the report <i>up to date</i> . (Prepositional phrase.)
a follow-up letter	Let's follow up at once with a letter. (Verb + adverb.)
a high-level decision	The decision must be made at a <i>high level</i> . (Object of preposition.)
a never-to-be-forgotten book	Your latest book is <i>never to be forgotten</i> . (Adverb + infinitive phrase.)
an off-the-record comment	The next comment is <i>off the record.</i> (Prepositional phrase.)
a <i>no-nonsense</i> attitude	Marion will tolerate <i>no nonsense</i> from you. (Object of verb.)
a low-key sales approach	Christopher pitches his sales approach in a <i>low key</i> . (Object of preposition.)
a cause-and-effect relationship	Is there a relationship of <i>cause and effect</i> in this case? (Object of preposition.)
a four-color cover	Is this cover printed in <i>four colors?</i> (Object of preposition.)

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.
	BUT: 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 watchdog	That watchdog is friendly-looking.
	BUT: That watchdog looks friendly.
high-priced goods	These goods are high-priced.
	BUT: These goods carry a high price.

NOTE: The following kinds of compound adjectives almost always need to be 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)

816 a. Hyphenate an adjective and a noun when these elements serve as a compound modifier *before* a noun. Do not hyphenate these elements when they play a normal role *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	Elsewhere in Sentence
high-speed printers	These printers run at high speed. (Object of preposition.)
a <i>plain-paper</i> fax	Please be sure to order a fax that uses <i>plain paper</i> . (Object of verb.)
red-carpet treatment	They plan to roll out the red carpet. (Object of infinitive.)
a closed-door discussion	The discussion was held behind <i>closed doors</i> . (Object of preposition.)
an all-day seminar	The seminar will last all day. (Normal adverbial phrase.)
a <i>long-term</i> investment in bonds	This investment in bonds runs for a <i>long term</i> . (Object of preposition.)
	BUT: This investment in bonds is <i>long-term</i> . (Compound adjective.)
a part-time job	This job is part-time. (Compound adjective.)
	I work part-time. (Compound adverb.)
	I travel part of the time. (Normal adverbial phrase.)

NOTE: 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.)

b. A few compound adjectives in this category are now written solid—for example, a commonsense solution, a freshwater pond, a surefire success.

Compound With Number or Letter

817 a. When a number and a noun form a one-thought modifier *before* a noun (as in *six-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.

Elsewhere in Sentence
a street that runs only one way
a story written in the first person
a job that deserves the first (or highest) rating
BUT: a job that is first-rate
profits for the first quarter (see ¶1069b)
a suit consisting of two pieces
a family with two wage earners
a circus with three rings
a program containing four points
a container that holds 5 liters

an 8-foot ceiling a 20-year mortgage

twenty-first-century art (see ¶424, note)

a 50-cent fee

an \$85-a-month charge a 100-meter sprint

an 81/2- by 11-inch book (see ¶832)

a 55-mile-an-hour speed limit

a 2-million-ton shipment

a 10-inch-thick panel

a 7-foot-2-inch basketball player

24-hour-a-day service

600-dpi graphics

a ceiling 8 feet above the floor

a mortgage running for 20 years

art of the twenty-first century

a fee of 50 cents

a charge of \$85 a month

a sprint of 100 meters

a book 81/2 by 11 inches

a speed limit of 55 miles an hour

a shipment of 2 million tons a panel 10 inches thick

a basketball player 7 feet 2 inches tall (see ¶430)

service 24 hours a day

graphics composed of 600 dpi (dots per inch)

EXCEPTIONS: a 15 percent decline, a \$4 million profit, a secondhand car (BUT: a second-degree burn)

> For the hyphenation of fractional expressions serving as compound adjectives (like half-dozen or 1/4-inch), see ¶427a.

NOTE: 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 one-year delay OR a one year's delay

(BUT NOT: a one-year's delay)

a two-week cruise OR a two weeks' cruise

(BUT NOT: a two-weeks' cruise)

b. Hyphenate compound adjectives involving a number and *odd* or *plus*.

The embezzlement occurred some twenty-odd years ago.

I now give my age simply as forty-plus.

If the merger negotiations are successful, we could be looking at a \$25 million-plus deal.

However, treat compound adjectives involving a number and *fold* as solid words.

Our profits have increased fourfold in the past year.

BUT: Our profits have increased 12-fold in the past year. (Insert a hyphen when the number is expressed as a figure.)

c. Compound adjectives involving two numbers (as in ratios and scores) are expressed as follows:

a 50-50 (or fifty-fifty) chance

an 18-7 victory

a 1000-to-1 possibility

a 3-to-1 ratio OR a 3:1 ratio BUT: a ratio of 3 to 1

20/20 (or twenty-twenty) vision > See also ¶¶450-451.

d. Other compound expressions involving a number or letter are expressed as follows:

our number-one* (or No. 1) goal a 3-D graphic BUT: we will be number one

an 8-bit machine

Class A materials

in A1 condition

a 4-H project

a grade of A plus (OR A+) BUT: does A-plus (OR A+) work

Title IX provisions

BUT: A.1. steak sauce

a G-7 member an NC-17 rating a passing mark of D minus (or D-) BUT: a D-minus (or D-) student

^{*}Merriam-Webster does not hyphenate number-one before a noun.

Compound Noun

818 a. A number of adjective-noun combinations (such as real estate or social security) and noun-noun combinations (such as life insurance or money market) are actually well-established compound nouns serving as adjectives. Unlike short-term, lowrisk, and the 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.

> accounts payable records branch office reports high school diploma income tax return

life insurance policy mass production techniques money market funds nuclear energy plant

public relations adviser real estate agent social security tax word processing center

EXCEPTION: a mail-order business

NOTE: When dictionaries do not provide guidance on a specific adjective-noun combination, consider whether the expression is more like a well-known compound such as social security or more like short-term. Then space the combination or hyphenate it accordingly.

b. When a noun-noun combination involves two words of relatively equal rank, hyphenate the combination. (See also ¶¶295, 806.)

an input-output device cost-benefit analyses

the space-time continuum labor-management relations an air-sea search a sand-gravel mixture

EXCEPTION: the *price/earnings* ratio on the P/E ratio

- c. As a general rule, when a compound noun is used as a compound adjective, the decision to hyphenate or not will depend on how familiar you think your reader is with the term in question. Thus a term like small business owner would not be hyphenated if you feel your reader is familiar with the concept of small business. However, if your reader could misinterpret small business owner as a reference to the size of the person rather than to the size of the business, write small-business owner.
- **d.** A compound noun like *African American* is hyphenated when used as an adjective. (See ¶348b.)

Proper Name

819 a. Do not hyphenate the elements in a proper name used as an adjective.

a Supreme Court decision

a Rodeo Drive location

Mickey Mouse procedures

a Saks Fifth Avenue store

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 cuisine is German-American

the New York-Chicago-Los Angeles flight (see also ¶821b, note)

BUT: the flight to New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles

NOTE: If one of the elements already contains a hyphen, use an en dash or two hyphens to connect the two proper names.

the Winston-Salem-Atlanta bus trip

the Scranton-Wilkes-Barre area

Noun + Adjective

820 a. When a compound adjective consists of a noun plus an adjective, hyphenate this combination whether it appears before or after the noun. (See ¶815b.)

accident-prone ice-cold tax-exempt machine-readable toll-free bone-dry paper-thin tone-deaf brain-dead capital-intensive pitch-dark top-heavy class-conscious power-hungry trigger-happy color-blind price-conscious user-friendly fork-tender sky-high water-repellent fuel-efficient street-smart year-round

Your suggestion is ingenious but not cost-effective.

You are trying to solve an age-old problem.

She wants everything to be letter-perfect.

We import these water-repellent fabrics duty-free.

I want a computer that is IBM-compatible.

NOTE: Retain the hyphen in a noun plus an adjective combination when the expression functions as an adverb rather than as an adjective.

ADJECTIVE: Please call me on my toll-free number.

ADVERB: You can always call me toll-free.

ADJECTIVE: The information is encoded on *paper-thin* wafers.

ADVERB: The wafers have to be sliced paper-thin.

b. A few words in this category are now written solid. For example:

 worldwide, nationwide, countrywide, statewide, countywide, citywide, communitywide, industrywide, companywide,

storewide

-proof: waterproof, fireproof, shatterproof, weatherproof, childproof,

bulletproof, foolproof, rustproof, soundproof, shockproof

-worthy: praiseworthy, newsworthy, trustworthy, creditworthy,

noteworthy

-sick: homesick, airsick, carsick, heartsick, lovesick, seasick
 -long: daylong, nightlong, yearlong, lifelong, agelong, headlong,

hourlong*

Noun + Participle

821 a. When a compound adjective consists of a noun plus a participle, hyphenate this combination whether it appears before or after the noun. (See ¶815b.)

law-abiding	smoke-filled
market-tested	snow-covered
mind-boggling	sugar-coated
muscle-bound	tailor-made
nerve-racking	tax-sheltered
panic-stricken	Windows-based
	market-tested mind-boggling muscle-bound nerve-racking

Continued on page 212

This number-crunching software uses eye-popping graphics.

Buying custom-tailored suits can easily become habit-forming.

The use of *computer-aided* design and *productivity-enhancing* equipment has boosted our profits enormously.

Thanks to an SBA-guaranteed loan, we expect to have a record-breaking year.

This Republican-led Congress will introduce additional budget-cutting measures.

Our company is now 40 percent employee-owned.

b. When an open compound noun is combined with a participle to form a one-thought modifier, insert a hyphen only before the participle.

U.S. government-owned lands

a Labor Department-sponsored conference

a Dayton, Ohio-based consortium

a Pulitzer Prize-winning play

health care-related expenditures solar energy-oriented research

NOTE: For greater clarity use an en dash instead of a hyphen when combining an open compound with a participle. (See also ¶¶217, 819b.)

a White House-backed proposal

a New Orleans-bound traveler

a Frank Lloyd Wright-designed building

a Windows NT-based program

c. Combining an open compound noun with a participle to form a compound adjective can often lead to awkward constructions. Reword to eliminate this problem.

AWKWARD: This software is Novell network-compatible.

BETTER: This software can also be used on a Novell network.

d. A few words in this category are now written solid. For example:

hand-:

handheld, handmade, handpicked, handwoven, handwritten

heart-:

heartbreaking, heartbroken, heartfelt, heartrending, heartwarming

home-:

homebound, homegrown, homemade, homespun

time-:

timesaving, timeserving, timeworn

BUT: time-consuming, time-honored, time-sharing, time-tested

pain-:

painkilling, painstaking

Adjective + Participle (see also ¶824b)

822 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.)

clean-cut friendly-looking (see ¶824a) half-baked

high-ranking long-standing odd-sounding rough-hewn smooth-talking

hard-hitting

ready-made

soft-spoken sweet-smelling

EXCEPTIONS: easygoing, halfhearted

I'm half-tempted to apply for the Singapore opening myself.

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*, *best-looking*, *oddest-sounding*, *better-tasting*.

As the *highest-ranking* official present, Mrs. Egan took charge of the meeting.

This year's brochure is better-looking than last year's.

Why can't we attract better-qualified people to our company?

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.)

broad-minded	light-fingered	closed-captioned
empty-headed	two-fisted	low-pitched
quick-witted	loose-jointed	high-priced
hot-tempered	double-breasted	middle-aged
good-humored	long-winded	old-fashioned
high-spirited	good-hearted	short-lived (pronounce the i as in life)
fair-haired	deep-seated	pint-sized (see ¶823d)
two-faced	flat-bottomed	fast-paced
clear-eyed	clean-limbed	broad-based
hard-nosed	weak-kneed	coarse-grained
tight-mouthed	long-legged	double-edged
thin-lipped	flat-footed	single-spaced (see ¶812a)
sharp-tongued	hot-blooded	deep-rooted
red-cheeked	thin-skinned	high-powered
round-shouldered	full-bodied	one-sided
empty-handed	open-ended	BUT: lopsided

Our success was *short-lived*: the business folded after six months. (*Short-lived* is derived from the phrase *of short life*. For that reason the *i* in *lived* is pronounced like the long *i* in *life*, not like the short *i* in *given*.)

These symptoms commonly occur in *middle-aged* executives.

I'm too old-fashioned to be that broad-minded.

b. Retain the hyphen in comparative or superlative forms—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.

Fred is the *longest-winded* speaker I ever heard.

Fred's speech was the longest-winded I ever heard.

c. Some words in this category are now written solid. For example:

-headed: bareheaded, bullheaded, chowderheaded, clearheaded, coolheaded,

fatheaded, hardheaded, hotheaded, levelheaded, muddleheaded, pigheaded,

redheaded, softheaded, soreheaded, thickheaded, woodenheaded,

wrongheaded

BUT: bald-headed, empty-headed, light-headed, pointy-headed

-hearted: bighearted, brokenhearted, coldhearted, halfhearted, heavyhearted,

lighthearted, openhearted, softhearted, stouthearted, tenderhearted,

warmhearted, wholehearted

BUT: good-hearted, hard-hearted, single-hearted

-mouthed: closemouthed, openmouthed, widemouthed, bigmouthed, loudmouthed,

mealymouthed

BUT: tight-mouthed

-fisted: hardfisted, tightfisted, closefisted, ironfisted

BUT: two-fisted, ham-fisted

-sighted: nearsighted, shortsighted, farsighted, foresighted, longsighted

BUT: clear-sighted, sharp-sighted

-brained: birdbrained, featherbrained, harebrained (NOT: hairbrained), lamebrained,

scatterbrained

-minded: feebleminded, absentminded, simpleminded

BUT: broad-minded, civic-minded, high-minded, like-minded,

low-minded, narrow-minded, open-minded, serious-minded, single-minded, small-minded, strong-minded

d. Compound adjectives ending in *sized* (such as *pint-sized*, *pocket-sized*, *life-sized*, *full-sized*, *giant-sized*, *king-sized*, *queen-sized*, and *twin-sized*) may also be written without the final d.

Adverb + Participle (see also ¶825)

824 a. Do not hyphenate an adverb-participle combination if the adverb ends in ly.

a poorly constructed house a wholly owned corporation
a highly valued employee a newly formed division
a clearly defined set of terms an extremely tiring trip

NOTE: Hyphenate adjectives ending in ly when they are used with participles. (See $\P 822$.)

a friendly-sounding voice a motherly-looking woman

- > To distinguish between adjectives and adverbs ending in ly, see ¶1069a-b.
- 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.

Before the Noun a well-known consultant much-needed reforms the above-mentioned facts the ever-changing tides a long-remembered tribute

a soon-forgotten achievement

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</u> long <u>remembered</u>. Her achievement <u>was</u> soon <u>forgotten</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 clear-cut position a well-intentioned proposal Elsewhere in Sentence The child is well-behaved. Their position was clear-cut. The proposal was well-intentioned.

NOTE: You couldn't say, "The child is behaved" or "Their position was cut" or "The proposal was intentioned." 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. A hyphenated adverb-participle combination like those in ¶824b retains the hyphen even when the adverb is in the comparative or superlative.

a better-known brand the hardest-working manager the best-behaved child a faster-moving stock clerk

d. A few words in this category are now written solid. For example:

-going: ongoing, outgoing, thoroughgoing

far-: farseeing, farsighted

BUT: far-fetched, far-flung, far-reaching

free-: freehanded, freehearted, freestanding, freethinking, freewheeling

BUT: free-floating, free-spoken, free-swinging

wide-: widespread

BUT: wide-eyed, wide-ranging, wide-spreading

Adverb + Adjective

a. A number of adverb-adjective combinations 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 very moving experience a rather irritating delay a quite trying day

NOTE: In these examples you can omit the adverb and speak of an *interesting* report, an *irritating* delay, a *moving* experience, and a *trying* day; hence no hyphen is needed. However, as explained in the note at the bottom of page 214, you cannot speak of a *behaved* child, a *cut* position, or an *intentioned* proposal; for that reason, the adverb preceding *behaved*, *cut*, and *intentioned* must be linked by a hyphen.

b. Do not hyphenate a comparative or superlative form when the adverb *more*, *most*, *less*, or *least* is combined with an adjective.

a *more determined* person the *most exciting* event

a less complicated transaction the least interesting lecture

> For a usage note on more, see page 300.

Participle + Adverb

Hyphenate a participle-adverb combination *before* the noun but not when it occurs elsewhere in the sentence.

Before the Noun	Elsewhere in Sentence
filled-in forms	These forms should be filled in.
worn-out equipment	The equipment was worn out.
a tuned-up engine	The engine has been tuned up.
a scaled-down proposal	The proposal must be scaled down.
baked-on enamel	This enamel has been baked on.
a cooling-off period	Don't negotiate without cooling off first.
unheard-of bargains	These bargains were unheard of.
an agreed-upon date	We agreed upon a date.
warmed-over ideas	His ideas were warmed over for the occasion.
1 41 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

> See also the examples in ¶831.

Adjective + Adjective

827 a. Do not hyphenate independent adjectives preceding a noun.

- 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)
- a distinguished public orator (public modifies orator; distinguished modifies public orator)
- > For the use of commas with adjectives, see ¶¶168–171, especially the final examples in ¶169.
- **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 cut-and-dried presentation

a hard-and-fast rule

a high-and-mighty attitude

a tried-and-true method

an open-and-shut case

an out-and-out lie

an up-and-coming lawyer

a lean-and-mean approach

a rough-and-tumble environment

a spick-and-span kitchen

Henry views the matter in black-and-white terms. (A one-thought modifier.)

BUT: Sue wore a black and white dress to the Mallory party. (Two independent adjectives.)

c. Hyphenate two adjectives that express the dual nature of the thing that they refer to. (See also ¶¶295b, 806.)

a true-false test

a compound-complex sentence

BUT: a bittersweet ending

d. Hyphenate expressions such as *blue-black*, *green-gray*, *snow-white*, 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).

Sales have been red-hot this quarter.

Her dress was bluish green.

Blue-black ink will show up best.

His moods range from black to dark gray.

Verb + Verb

828 a. Hyphenate a compound adjective consisting of two verbs (sometimes joined by and or or) when the adjective appears before the noun.

a drag-and-drop operation

point-and-click navigating

the cut-and-paste procedure

a hit-or-miss marketing strategy

a *make-or-break* financial decision

a *make-or-break* financial decisi stop-and-go production lines

a *plug-and-play* Web server

a wait-and-see attitude graded on a pass-fail basis

a can-do spirit

a do-or-die commitment

a live-and-let-live philosophy

Our CEO's ready-fire-aim approach does not inspire confidence.

Negotiations were conducted in a give-and-take atmosphere.

b. Do not hyphenate these elements when they play a normal function *elsewhere in the sentence*. However, retain the hyphen if these expressions continue to function as a compound adjective.

They're never sure whether they'll hit or miss their marketing targets.

BUT: Their marketing strategy can best be described as hit-or-miss.

Verb + Adverb

829 a. Hyphenate a compound adjective consisting of a verb plus an adverb when the adjective appears *before* the noun.

our break-even point a drop-dead party dress dress-down Fridays a read-only memory the trickle-down theory of financing a zip-out lining a get-well card a tow-away zone run-on sentences a mail-in rebate carry-on luggage a pop-up menu a drive-through window a twist-off cap their die-hard fans a set-aside program

b. Do not hyphenate these elements when they play a normal function *elsewhere in the sentence*.

At what point will we break even?

Does this lining zip out?

Verb + Noun

830 a. Hyphenate a compound adjective consisting of a verb plus a noun (or pronoun) when the adjective appears *before* the noun.

take-home pay
a show-me kind of attitude
a take-charge kind of person
a thank-you note

BUT: a turnkey computer system
a lackluster approach

b. Do not hyphenate these elements when they play a normal function *elsewhere in the sentence*.

In terms of salary it's not so much what you gross as it is what you *take home*. Betsy is inclined to *take charge* of any situation in which she finds herself.

Phrasal Compound

831 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
up-to-date expense figures
down-to-earth projections
on-the-job training
off-the-shelf software
an in-service workshop
a going-out-of-business sale
an out-of-the-way location
over-the-counter stocks
under-the-table payments
an above-average rating
below-the-line charges
a middle-of-the-road position

before-tax earnings after-dinner speeches

Elsewhere in Sentence

The expense figures are up to date.
These projections appear to be down to earth.
I got my training on the job.
You can buy that software off the shelf.
Modify only the equipment currently in service.
Is Chelsea's Drugs going out of business?
Why is the shopping mall so far out of the way?
These stocks are sold only over the counter.
Don't make any payments under the table.
Our unit's performance was rated above average.

Our unit's performance was rated above average. These charges will show up below the line.

His political position never strays far from the *middle of* the road.

What were our earnings before taxes?

Speeches after dinner ought to be prohibited.

Before the Noun

around-the-clock service across-the-board cuts a between-the-lines reading

behind-the-scenes contract negotiations

a state-of-the-art installation

a spur-of-the-moment decision

a change-of-address form

a matter-of-fact approach

a dog-in-the-manger attitude

straight-from-the-shoulder talk made-to-order wall units

a pay-as-you-go tax plan

a get-rich-quick scheme

a would-be expert coast-to-coast flights bumper-to-bumper traffic a case-by-case analysis a by-invitation-only seminar

a how-to manual

a soon-to-be-released report

a \$150,000-a-year fee a well-thought-of designer a well-thought-out plan

a *much-talked-about* party

BUT: in the not too distant future (see ¶825a)

a *nine-year-old* girl

BUT: a 91/2-year-old girl

(NOT: a nine-and-a-half-year-old girl)

Elsewhere in Sentence

We offer service around the clock.

The CEO wants budget cuts across the board.

When you read between the lines, Jan's memo takes on a completely different meaning.

Contract negotiations went on behind the scenes.

This model reflects the current state of the art.

Barra's decision was made on the spur of the moment.

Please show your change of address.

Jan accepted the situation as a matter of fact.

Joe's attitude reminds me of the fable about the *dog in* the manger.

I gave it to him straight from the shoulder.

These wall units were made to order.

The new tax plan requires you to pay as you go.

Don't trust any scheme that promises that you will get rich quick.

Roy hoped he would be accepted as an expert. I fly coast to coast about three times a month.

The traffic stood bumper to bumper.

We must resolve these problems *case by case*. Attendance at the seminar is *by invitation only*. This manual will show you *how to* get published.

The consultant's report is soon to be released. Our legal fees run about \$150,000 a year.

Our former designer was well thought of.

The plan was well thought out. Your party was much talked about.

Michelle is only *nine years old*.

Michelle is only 91/2 years old. (See ¶428a.)

b. When two nouns joined by *and* are used as a compound adjective before a noun, hyphenate the phrase.

a cock-and-bull story a dog-and-pony show

a chicken-and-egg situation

a *life-and-death* matter a *David-and-Goliath* battle

bread-and-butter issues

a trial-and-error approach

a mom-and-pop operation

a carrot-and-stick proposal

a meat-and-potatoes kind of guy

a cause-and-effect hypothesis

a cloak-and-dagger operation

c. As a rule, do not hyphenate foreign phrases used as adjectives before a noun. (See also ¶287.)

an *ad hoc* committee an *à la carte* menu

an *ex officio* member a *pro rata* assessment

a bona fide transaction a per diem fee

EXCEPTIONS: an *ad-lib* speech, a *laissez-faire* economic policy

- **d.** When a compound modifier consists of two or more hyphenated phrases, separate the phrases with a comma.
 - a penny-wise, pound-foolish approach to handling money
 - a knock-down, drag-out* fight over ownership of the company
 - an all-out, no-holds-barred strategy
 - the first-in, first-out* method of accounting
 - a first-come, first-served policy of seating
 - a no-fee, no-load IRA
 - a chin-up, back-straight, stomach-in posture
 - an on-again, off-again wedding
 - BUT: a go/no-go* decision (see also ¶295a)
- e. Hyphenate repeated or rhyming words used before a noun.
 - a go-go attitude
 - a rah-rah spirit
 - a hush-hush venture
 - a buddy-buddy relationship
 - a teeny-weeny salary increase
 - a palsy-walsy deal

- a razzle-dazzle display
- a fancy-schmancy wedding
- a rinky-dink setup
- a ticky-tacky operation
- an artsy-craftsy boutique
- a topsy-turvy world

Suspending Hyphen

a. When a series of hyphenated adjectives has a common basic element and this element is shown only with the last term, insert a suspending hyphen after each of the incomplete adjectives to indicate a relationship with the last term.

long- and short-term securities private- and public-sector partnerships single-, double-, or triple-spaced copy ice- and snow-packed roads

open- and closed-door sessions

10- and 20-year bonds

a three- or four-color cover

two- and four-wheel drive 8½- by 11-inch paper

BUT: $8\frac{1}{2}$ " × 11" paper (see ¶432)

b. Use one space after each suspending hyphen unless a comma is required at that point.

a six- to eight-week delay

a 10- to 12-hour trip

3-, 5-, and 8-gallon buckets

6-. 12-. and 24-month CDs

c. When two or more solid compound adjectives with a common element are used together (for example, lightweight and heavyweight) and the common element is shown only with the last term, use a suspending hyphen with the incomplete forms to indicate a relationship with the common element.

This product is available in light- and heavyweight versions.

Please provide day- and nighttime phone numbers.

NOTE: Repeat the common element with each word if the use of the suspending hyphen looks odd or confusing; for example, boyfriend or girlfriend (rather than boy- or girlfriend).

> For the use of a suspending hyphen with prefixes or suffixes, see ¶833d-e.

^{*}Merriam-Webster treats this expression differently.

Prefixes and Suffixes

macroeconomics

midwinter (see ¶844)

*micro*manage

833 a. In general, do not use a hyphen to set off a prefix at the beginning of a word or a suffix at the end of a word. (See ¶808b for two exceptions: *ex-* and *-elect.*)

aftertaste (see ¶842) mini bike ambidextrous *mis*spell antedate monosyllable antitrust (see ¶834) *multi* tasking nonessential audiovisual offbeat (see ¶845) biweekly. byline (BUT: by-product) outsourcing. circum locution overconfident coauthor (see ¶835b) *para*medical counterbalance polysyllabic decentralize (see ¶835) posttest prerequisite (see ¶835) downsizing extralegal *pro*active forefront *pseudo*scientific hypersensitive reorganize (see ¶837) retroactive hypocritical semiannual (see ¶834) i/legal immaterial *sub*division indefensible (see ¶843) supernatural infrastructure *supra*natural interoffice transcontinental intramural (see ¶834) tri lateral introversion ultraconservative (see ¶834)

patronage free dom sixfold meaning ful sonogram photograph likelihood convertible misspelling fiftyish thankless (see ¶846) booklet childlike (see ¶846) induce*ment* uppermost happiness computernik fire*proof* censorship

changeable

nation*wide* (see ¶820b) edge*wise* (see page 308) trust*worthy*

handsome

home stead

backward 1

NOTE: Be wary of spell checkers that may urge you to insert hyphens after these prefixes.

b. Whenever necessary, use a hyphen to prevent one word from being mistaken for another. (See ¶837.)

lock the *coop* multiply by 12 a unionized factory buy a co-op a multi-ply fabric an un-ionized substance

unaccustomed

undercurrent.

*up*shot

c. As a rule, when adding a prefix to a hyphenated or spaced compound word, use a hyphen after the prefix. (See ¶818.)

pre-high school texts
 post-bread-winning years
 ex-attorney general
 non-computer-literate adults
 non-civil service position
 EXCEPTIONS: coeditor in chief, unair-conditioned, unself-conscious

d. When two or more prefixes have a common element and this element is shown only with the final prefix, insert a suspending hyphen after each of the unattached prefixes to indicate a relationship with the common element. (See ¶832.)

pre- and postnatal care
macro- and microeconomics
pro- and antiunion forces

maxi-, midi-, and miniskirts inter- and intraoffice networks over- and underqualified job applicants

e. When two or more suffixes have a common element, it is possible to leave one of the suffixes unattached and insert a suspending hyphen to indicate the relationship with the common element; for example, *servicemen* and *-women*. However, to avoid confusion or awkwardness, it is usually better to repeat the common element with each suffix.

AWKWARD: I thought Nancy's reaction was more *thoughtless* than -ful. **BETTER:** I thought Nancy's reaction was more *thoughtless* than *thoughtful*. **AWKWARD:** I would characterize his behavior as *childlike* rather than -ish. **BETTER:** I would characterize his behavior as *childlike* rather than *childish*.

When the prefix ends with a or i and the base word begins with the same letter, use a hyphen after the prefix to prevent misreading.

ultra-active anti-intellectual semi-independent intra-abdominal anti-inflationary semi-indirect

835 a. When the prefix ends with e or o and the base word begins with the same letter, the hyphen is almost always omitted.

reeducate preeminent BUT: de-emphasize reelect preemployment de-escalate reemphasize preempt reemploy preexisting reenforce BUT: pre-engineered

b. When the prefix is *co* and the base word begins with *o*, use a hyphen except in a few commonly used words.

co-occurrence co-opt **BUT:** coordinate co-official co-organizer cooperate co-op co-owner cooperative

However, when the base word following *co* begins with a letter other than *o*, omit the hyphen.

coauthor coedition* copromoter cocaptain coeditor copublisher cochair cofounder cosign* coconspirator copartner cosigner cocontributor copayment* cosponsor codefendant copilot costar codeveloper coproducer coworker

836 a. Use a hyphen after self when it serves as a prefix.

 self-addressed
 self-fulfilling
 self-serving

 self-confidence
 self-help
 self-study

 self-destruct
 self-important
 self-supporting

 self-evident
 self-paced
 self-worth

b. Omit the hyphen when self serves as the base word and is followed by a suffix.

selfdomselfhoodselfnessselfishselflessselfsame

c. Avoid the expression him- or herself. Use himself or herself.

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-act a part in a play to react calmly to pressure to re-coil the hose to recoil from danger to recollect the mistake to re-collect the slips to recover from an illness to re-cover a chair to re-create the crime scene to recreate on a long vacation to re-dress the mannequins to redress a wrong to re-form the rows to reform a sinner to re-lay the carpet to relay a message to re-lease the apartment to release the hostage she re-marked the ticket as he remarked to me to repress one's emotions to re-press the jacket to reprove an offender to re-prove your point to re-search the files for the to research (investigate) a missing contract problem in depth I re-sent the letter yesterday I resent her criticisms to re-serve your customers to reserve the right to sue to re-side my house to reside in comfort and safety to re-solve this riddle to resolve the conflict to re-sort the cards to resort to violence to re-sian the contracts to resign the position to re-strain one's wrist to restrain one's impulses to re-treat the cloth to retreat to safer ground

When a prefix is added to a word that begins with a capital letter, use a hyphen after the prefix.

anti-Semitic mid-January non-Windows application inter-African trans-Canadian pre-Revolutionary War days un-American pro-Republican post-World War II period **BUT:** transatlantic, transpacific, the Midwest

Always hyphenate family terms involving the prefix *great* or the suffix *in-law*, but treat terms involving *step* and *grand* solid.

my great-grandfather your brother-in-law my grandmother their great-aunt my stepdaughter his grandchild

Note how the use or omission of a hyphen changes the meaning.

Martha Henderson is a *great-grandmother*. (At least one of her grandchildren has a child.) Martha Henderson is a *great grandmother*. (She treats her grandchildren extremely well.)

840 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**: stewardess.)

NOTE: A few terms with feminine suffixes are still widely used; for example, actress, hostess, heroine, fiancée, and waitress. In legal documents, the terms executrix and testatrix are increasingly being replaced by executor and testator.

1847

841 Use a hyphen after *quasi* when an adjective follows.

quasi-judicial

quasi-public

quasi-legislative

BUT: quasi corporation

When after is used as a prefix, do not use a hyphen to set it off from the root word. When after is used as a preposition in a compound adjective, insert a hyphen.

9	4 4	-	91
aftereffect	aftershave		BUT: an after-dinner speech
afterlife	aftershock		an after-hours club
aftermath	afterthought		my after-tax income
afternoon	afterward		an after-theater snack

When *in* is used as a prefix meaning "not," do not use a hyphen to set it off from the root word. When *in* is used as a preposition in a compound adjective, insert a hyphen.

inactive	infallible	BUT: an in-depth analysis
inarticulate	insensitive	in-flight movies
incapable	insolvent	our in-house designers
indecisive	intolerable	an in-service program

Although a hyphen is not ordinarily used to set off the prefix *mid*, a hyphen normally follows *mid* in expressions involving numbers or capitalized words.

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during the mid-sixties on the mid-'60s (see ¶¶434, 439a) sailing in the mid-Atlantic in mid-June (see ¶838)
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845 Many words beginning with the prefix *off* are written solid, but some are hyphenated.

offhand	offshore	BUT: off-color
offline	offspring	off-key
offset	offstage	off-season
offshoot	offtrack	off-white

846 If the addition of the suffix *less* or *like* causes three *l*'s to occur in succession, insert a hyphen before the suffix. (See also ¶706, note.)

lifelike	businesslike	BUT: bell-like
faultless	bottomless	shell-less

Compound Computer Terms

The free spirits who coin most computer terms typically feel no obligation to follow the standard rules for the treatment of compound words. Consider the term World Wide Web. According to ¶820b, worldwide should be a solid word, but actual usage—in this case, World Wide—must always take precedence over rules. Indeed, the rules merely represent an attempt to impose some order and consistency on a language that cheerfully persists in disorder and inconsistency.

The problem is especially severe in the treatment of compound words in computer terminology, where changes occur so rapidly that it is impossible to establish a style that one can confidently expect to last for several years. What's more, at any given time a particular word may be in a state of unsettled transition and appear in several ways—hyphenated, spaced, and solid. The general tendency is for hyphenated forms to give way to either spaced or solid forms and for the spaced forms to give way to solid forms.

Consider the word e-mail. Initially presented as electronic mail, the term evolved into E-mail, and conservative writers still write the word with a capital E. Writers on the cutting edge, who continually press for fewer hyphens and less capitalization, have already converted the term to *email*. Those currently occupying the middle ground treat the word as e-mail, but with the passage of time (two years? four years? six months?) email may become the standard form.

Dictionaries typically show the more conservative spellings, because they cannot keep pace with the changes rapidly taking place in the field. Where, then, do you turn for up-to-date guidance? The best places to look are (1) the magazines and dictionaries devoted to computer and Internet technology and (2) the manuals and style guides published by industry insiders. If you are writing for a knowledgeable audience of computer users, you can choose the emerging style for the treatment of compound words. If, on the other hand, you are writing for readers who are not immersed in the field, you may find it safer to stay with the more conservative treatment of these words, because such readers will more easily grasp, say, file name than filename.

The following paragraphs provide some guidelines on the current treatment of compound computer terms.

a. In the following list, the two-word forms (shown first) are still more common, but the one-word forms are starting to take hold.

file name on filename screen saver OR screensaver or spellchecker home page on homepage spell checker menu bar on menubar voice mail **OR** voicemail

b. In the following list, the one-word forms (shown first) are more common, but the spaced or hyphenated forms are still being used.

barcode or bar code offline or off-line handheld on hand-held offscreen on off-screen hardwired or hard-wired online on on-line logoff (n.) or log-off onscreen on-screen BUT: log off (v.) touchpad on touch pad logon (n.) OR log-on touchscreen or touch screen BUT: log on (v.) wordwrap on word wrap

c. In the following list, the two-word forms (shown first) are more common, but the hyphenated forms (which follow the standard rules) are also being used.

dot matrix printers **or** dot-matrix printers local area networks on local-area networks wide area networks wide-area networks OR

d. In the following list, the hyphenated forms (shown first) are more common, but the solid or spaced forms (if given) are now being used in materials aimed at industry insiders.

e-mail on email drop-down menu dropdown menu OR pull-down menu pop-up window on pulldown menu read-only memory ink-jet printer **or** inkjet printer write-only files random-access memory on random access memory

e. The following compound words are always solid except in a few special cases.

backup (n. & adj.) lookup table trackball

BUT: back up (v.)

BUT: look up (v.) trackpad

desktop newsgroup uplink (v.)

downlink (v.) newsreader upload (v.)

download (v.)

BUT: news server userid (der

 download (v.)
 BUT: news server
 userid (derived from user ID)

 keyword
 palmtop
 whois (derived from who is)

 laptop
 toolbar
 workstation

f. Compound words beginning with Web are usually two words.

Web site Web server BUT: Webmaster Web page Web browser Webcasting Web surfer Web directory Webzine

NOTE: The term Web site is starting to appear as one word (Website). Moreover, this word (as well as a few other Web compounds) is starting to lose the initial cap (website). However, for the sake of consistency, it is better to retain the capital W until a majority of these terms (such as the World Wide Web and the Web) lose their initial cap as well.

Sometimes One Word, Sometimes Two Words

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 Indirect-in direct
Already-all ready Into-in to (see In)
Altogether-all together Maybe-may be
Always-all ways Nobody-no body

Anymore-any more None-no one (see 1013)

Anyone-any one (see 1010, note)

Onto-on to (see 0n)

Anytime-any time Someday-some day
Anyway-any way Someone-some one

Anyway-any way

Someone-some one (see ¶1010, note)

Awhile-a while

Sometime-sometimes-some time

Everyday-every day

Everyone-every one (see ¶1010, note)

Whatever-what ever
Indifferent-in different

Whoever-who ever

> Hyphens in spelled-out numbers: see ¶¶427, 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 II 1459-460.

SECTION 9

Word Division

Basic Rules (¶¶901–906)
Preferred Practices (¶¶907–918)
Breaks Within Word Groups (¶¶919–920)
Guides to Correct Syllabication (¶¶921–922)

> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

Automatic hyphenation is a feature of many word processing programs. When the automatic hyphenation feature is turned on, the program consults its electronic dictionaries to determine where to insert a hyphen when dividing a word at the end of a line. The electronic dictionaries may not always agree with the authority for word divisions shown in this manual (the 1997 printing of *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, Tenth Edition). Moreover, some of the electronic word divisions may break the "unbreakable" rules in ¶¶901–906. Therefore, always review all electronic word-division decisions and adjust them as necessary.

When the automatic hyphenation feature is turned on, the hyphen that divides a word at the end of a line is a *soft hyphen* (that is, a nonpermanent hyphen). If you subsequently change your text so that the divided word no longer falls at the end of a line, the soft hyphen will disappear. If you are typing an expression in which a hyphen must always appear, use a *regular hyphen*. If such an expression crosses the end of a line, it will be divided after the hyphen. If you are typing a hyphenated expression (such as a phone number) that should not be divided at the end of a line, use a *hard* (or *nonbreaking*) *hyphen*. In that way the complete expression will remain on the same line. (See ¶903b.)

Whenever possible, avoid dividing a word at the end of a line. Word divisions are unattractive and they may sometimes confuse a reader. However, an extremely ragged right margin is also very unattractive. When word division is unavoidable, try to divide at the point that is least likely to disrupt the reader's grasp of the word. The following word division rules include (1) those that must never be broken (¶¶901–906) and (2) those that should be followed whenever space permits a choice (¶¶907–920).

NOTE: Professional typesetters often take liberties with the rules of word division in order to fit copy within a limited amount of space. For that reason you may occasionally notice word divisions in this professionally typeset manual that do not follow the guidelines presented in Section 9.

> For the division of URLs and e-mail addresses at the end of a line, see $\P\P1538-1539$.

Basic Rules

Divide words only between syllables. Whenever you are unsure of the syllabication of a word, consult a dictionary. (See also ¶¶921–922 for some guidelines on correct syllabication.)

ex- traordinary **OR** extraor- dinary **OR** extraordi- nary **BUT NOT**: extra- ordinary **NOTE**: Some syllable breaks shown in the dictionary are not acceptable as points of word division. (See ¶¶903–904.)

Do not divide one-syllable words. Even when *ed* is added to some words, they still remain one-syllable words and cannot be divided.

stressed through spring hour planned thoughts straight rhythm

903 a. Do not set off a one-letter syllable at the beginning or the end of a word.

amaze (NOT: a- maze) ideal (NOT: i- deal)
media (NOT: medi- a) lucky (NOT: luck- y)

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.

b. When typing a word like *e-mail*, use a hard (or nonbreaking) hyphen so that the word will not be divided after the *e-*.

Do not divide a word unless you can leave a syllable of at least three characters (the last of which is the hyphen) on the upper line and you can carry a syllable of at least three characters (the last may be a punctuation mark) to the next line.

ad -mit de- ter un- der in- ert do- ing re- new set- up, happi- hy.

NOTE: Whenever possible, avoid dividing any word with fewer than six letters.

905 Do not divide abbreviations.

ACTION UNICEF AMVETS NASDAQ irreg. approx. assoc. introd.

NOTE: An abbreviation like AFL-CIO may be divided after the hyphen.

906 Do not divide contractions.

haven't shouldn't mustn't o'clock

Preferred Practices

While it is acceptable to divide a word at almost 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 line to permit a choice.

907 Divide a solid compound word between the elements of the compound.

eye- witness time- saving photo- copy socio- economic

908 Divide a hyphenated compound word at the point of the hyphen.

self- confidence father- in-law cross- reference senator- elect

909 Divide a word after a prefix (rather than within the prefix).

Preferred		Acceptable	
***************************************	intro-		in-
duce	inter-	troduce	in-
national	super-	ternational	su-
sonic	circum-	personic	cir-
stances	ambi-	cumstance	am-
dextrous		bidextrous	

However, avoid divisions like the following, which can easily confuse a reader.

Confusing		Better	
	inter-		in-
rogate	super-	terrogate	su-
lative	circum-	perlative	cir-
ference	ambi-	cumference	am-
tious	hyper-	bitious	hy-
bole	extra-	perbole	ex-
neous	coin-	traneous	CO-
cide		incide	

910 Divide a word *before* a suffix (rather than within the suffix).

appli- cable (RATHER THAN: applica- ble) comprehen- sible (RATHER THAN: comprehensi- ble)

911 When a word has both a prefix and a suffix, choose the division point that groups the syllables more intelligibly.

replace- ment (RATHER THAN: re- placement)

The same principle applies when a word contains a suffix added on to a suffix. Choose the division point that produces the better grouping.

helpless- ness (RATHER THAN: help- lessness)

912 Whenever you have a choice, divide after a prefix or before a suffix (rather than within the root word).

over- active (RATHER THAN: overac- tive) success- ful (RATHER THAN: suc- cessful)

NOTE: Avoid divisions that could confuse a reader.

re- address (NOT: read- dress)
re- allocate (NOT: real- locate)
re- arrange (NOT: rear- range)
re- arrange (NOT: rear- range)
re- operate (NOT: coop- erate)

913 When a one-letter syllable occurs within the root of a word, divide *after* it (rather than before it).

impera- tive pene- trate simi- lar congratu- late nega- tive reme- dies apolo- gize salu- tary

914 When two separately sounded vowels come together in a word, divide between them.

recre- ation	medi- ation	pro- active	situ- ated
pre- eminent	experi- ence	po- etic	infl <i>u- e</i> ntial
spontan <i>e- i</i> ty	anti- intellectual	auto- immune	ingen <i>u- i</i> ty
courte- ous	patri- otic	co- opting	continu- ous

NOTE: Do not divide between two vowels when they are used together to represent one sound.

main- tained	trea- surer	en- croaching	ac- quaint
extraor- dinary	es- teemed	ap- p <i>oi</i> nt	guess- ing
pa- tience	sur- geon	ty- coon	acquit- tal
por- t <i>io</i> n	n <i>eu</i> - tral	pro- nounce	mis- quoted

- 915 When necessary, an extremely long number can be divided after a comma; for example, 24,358,- 692,000. Try to leave at least four digits on the line above and at least six digits on the line below, but always divide after a comma.
- **916** Try not to end more than two consecutive lines in hyphens.
- 917 Try not to divide at the end of the first line or at the end of 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 203	Mrs. Connolly	10:30 a.m.
April 29	Paula Schein, J.D.	465 miles
September 2002	Adam Hagerty Ir	80 percent

NOTE: If you are using word processing software, insert a hard space (also known as a nonbreaking space) between the elements of a word group that should not be broken at the end of a line. The complete word group will remain on the same line.

920 When necessary, longer word groups may be broken as follows:

a. Dates may be broken between the day and year.

November 14,	NOT: November
2001,	14, 2001,

b. Street addresses may be broken between the name of the street and Street, Avenue, or the like. If the street name consists of two or more words, the break may come between words in the street name.

Boulevard	NOT:
Fullerton Street	NOT: 617 North Fullerton Street

c. Names of places may be broken between the city and the state or between the state and the ZIP Code. If the city or state name consists of two or more words, the break may come between these words.

Oregon 97229, Portland,	or: Portland, Oregon 97229,
Rapids, MI 49505, Grand	or: Grand Forks, North Dakota,

¶921

	d. Names of persons may be broken between the given name (including middle init if given) and surname.				iddle initial	
		bsolutely neces s given for divi			be divided.	Follow the
	Eisen- hower	Spil- lane	e (see ¶922c)	BUT: Spell- n	nan (see ¶922a)
	e. Names precede (preferably) or	d by long titles between words		ten between	the title and	the name
	Roy N. Frawley	Assistant Comi		Commissione	er Roy N. Frawle	
	f. Names of depar	tments may be b	roken betwee	n words.		
	Resources De	partment	. Human	Public Safety		Bureau of
	g. A numbered or any number or	letter.		oroken before	(but not dir	ectly after)
		thes			the	
	h. A sentence with	a dash in it mag	y be broken at	fter the dash.		
	say, in March-	Early ne -let's	ext year—		E ch–let's	
	i. A sentence with	ellipsis marks ii	it may be bro	oken after the	e ellipsis ma	rks.
	Tennis hea and more.	lth spa golf		NOT: Tennis and	health spa . I more.	golf
Guide	s to Correct S	yllabication				
921	Syllabication is ge	nerally based on NOT: know- ledge)				
	Note how syllabic	_		-	prou- uct (M	T: pro- duct)
	Verbs	ation changes a	s pronuncian	Nouns		
	pre- sent (to n	nake a gift)		pres- ent (a g	ift)	
		ake an official copy	7)	rec- ord (an o		
	pro- ject (to th			proj- ect (an ı		
922	a. If a word ends after the double	in double conso e consonants (s				
	sell- ers	staff- ing	bless- ing	buzz- ers	BUT: filled, d	istressed
	b. If a final conso safely divide <i>be</i>	nant of the base tween the doubl				
	begin- ner	omit- ted	ship- ping	refer- ral	BUT: shipped	
	c. When double c	onsonants appe ts), you can safe			se word (but	not as the
	bub- bling suc- cess	sup- pose recom- mend	con- nect mid- dle	dif- fer strug- gle	bet- ter cur- rent	neces- sary mil- lion

SECTION 10

Grammar

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> For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

Subjects and Verbs

Basic Rule of Agreement

1001 a. A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

I am eager to start work. (First person singular subject I with first person singular verb am.)

It seems odd that Farmer has not followed up on our last conversation. (Third person singular subjects it and Farmer with third person singular verbs seems and has not followed up.)

He is coming to stay with us for a week. (Third person singular subject he with third person singular verb is coming.)

She does intend to call you this week. (Third person singular subject she with third person singular verb does intend.)

We were delighted to read about your promotion. (First person plural subject we with first person plural verb were.)

They are convinced that the Foys are worth millions. (Third person plural subjects they and Foys with third person plural verbs are convinced and are.)

Your order for six laptop computers was shipped last Friday. (Third person singular subject order with third person singular verb was shipped.)

Our efforts to save the business have been unsuccessful. (Third person plural subject efforts with third person plural verb have been.)

NOTE: A plural verb is always required after you, even when you is singular, referring to only one person.

You alone have understood the full dimensions of the problem. (Second person singular subject you with second person plural verb have understood.)

You both have been a great help to us. (Second person plural subject you with second person plural verb have been.)

You do enjoy your work, don't you? (Second person singular subject you with second person plural verb do enjoy.)

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.)

Singular The price seems reasonable. The prices seem reasonable. The tax applies to everyone. The taxes apply to everyone.

Subjects Joined by And

1002 a. If the subject consists of two or more words that are 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 as of July 1. (The repetition of the with the second subject emphasizes that two different items are meant.)

The general managers and the controllers are attending a three-day meeting in Chicago.

The director of marketing and the product managers are now reviewing the advertising budgets. The sales projections and the cost estimate do not have to be revised.

b. Use a singular verb when two or more subjects connected by and refer to the same person or thing. (See also ¶1028a, fourth example.)

Our secretary and treasurer is Frances Eisenberg. (One person.)

Corned beef and cabbage was his favorite dish. (One dish.)

Wear and tear has to be expected when you're in the rental business. (One type of damage.)

c. 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 computer, printer, and fax machine is marked for reduction.

Many a woman and man has responded to our plea for contributions.

Subjects Joined by Or or Similar Connectives

1003 If the subject consists of two or more *singular* words that are connected by *or*, *either* . . . *or*, *neither* . . . *nor*, or *not only* . . . *but also*, the subject is singular and requires a singular verb.

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 cost-profit analysis but also a marketing plan needs to be developed.

1004 If the subject consists of two or more *plural* words that are 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.

Not only the dealers but also the retailers are unhappy about our new policy.

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* copies of the new catalog. (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 *l am* in favor of the plan. (The first person verb *am* agrees with the nearer subject, *l*. Rearranging this sentence will change the emphasis.)

NOTE: When the subjects reflect different grammatical persons (first, second, or third), the verb should agree in person as well as number with the nearer subject. If the result seems awkward, reword as necessary.

ACCEPTABLE: Neither you nor I am in a position to pay Ben's legal fees.

BETTER: Neither *one* of us *is* in a position to pay Ben's legal fees. (See ¶1009a.)

ACCEPTABLE: Neither you nor *she has* the time to take on the Fuller case.

ACCEPTABLE: Neither she nor you have the time to take on the Fuller case.

BETTER: She and *you are* each too busy to take on the Fuller case. (See ¶1009c.)

AWKWARD: If you or Gary is coming to the convention, please visit our booth.

BETTER: If Gary or *you are coming* to the convention, please visit our booth.

> For neither . . . nor constructions following there is, there are, there was, or there were, see the last four examples in ¶1028a; for examples of subject-verb-pronoun agreement in these constructions, see ¶1049c.

Intervening Phrases and Clauses

1006 a. When establishing agreement between subject and verb, disregard intervening phrases and clauses.

The purchase order for new diskettes has not been found. (Disregard for new diskettes. The subject, purchase order, is singular and takes the singular verb has not been found.)

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.

Several phases of our order processing system are out of sync.

A key factor, the company's assets, is not being given sufficient weight in the analysis. (The subject factor, not the intervening appositive, determines that the verb should be singular in this case.)

BUT: The company's assets, a key factor, are not being given sufficient weight in the analysis.

NOTE: When certain indefinite pronouns (all, none, any, some, more, most) and certain fractional expressions (for example, one-half of, a part of, a percentage of) are used as subjects, you may have to look at an intervening phrase or clause to determine whether the verb should be singular or plural. See ¶¶1013 and 1025 for examples.

b. When a sentence has both a positive and a negative subject, make the verb agree with the positive subject. Set off the negative subject with commas unless it is preceded by *and* or *but*.

Profit and not sales is the thing to keep your eye on. (The verb is agrees with the positive subject profit.)

The *design* of the container, not the contents, *determines* what the consumer's initial reaction to the product will be.

The *members* of the Executive Committee and not the president *wield* the real power in the corporation.

It is not the president but the *members* of the Executive Committee who *wield* the real power in the corporation. (In the main clause the verb *is* agrees with the subject *it;* the verb *wield* in the *who* clause is plural to agree with the antecedent of *who*, the positive subject *members*. See ¶1062c.)

BUT: It is the *president* and not the members of the Executive Committee who *wields* the real power in the corporation. (In this sentence the positive subject is *president*, a singular noun; therefore, the verb *wields* in the *who* clause must also be singular.)

The number of the verb is not affected by the insertion between subject and verb of phrases beginning with such expressions as:

along with plus
together with besides
and not (see ¶1006b) including
as well as except
in addition to rather than
accompanied by not even

If the subject is singular, use a singular verb; if the subject is plural, use a plural verb.

This *study*, along with many earlier reports, *shows* that the disease can be arrested if detected in time.

Mr. and Mrs. Swenson, together with their son and daughters, are going to New Mexico.

No one, not even the executive vice presidents, knows whether the CEO plans to resign. (See $\P1010$.)

The director of finance, not the divisional controllers, is authorized to approve unbudgeted expenditures over \$5000. (See ¶1006b.)

NOTE: When the construction of a sentence like those above requires a singular verb but a plural verb would sound more natural, reword the sentence to create a plural subject.

CORRECT: The national sales *report*, along with the regional breakdowns you specifically requested plus the individual performance printouts, *was sent* to you last week.

BETTER: The national sales *report*, the regional *breakdowns* you specifically requested, and the individual performance *printouts were sent* to you last week. (The three subjects joined by *and-report*, *breakdowns*, and *printouts—*call for a plural verb.)

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 my backup disks has been lost.

One of the reasons for so many absences is poor motivation.

One of us has to take over the responsibility for in-service training.

One of you is to be nominated for the office.

One of the interviewers is going to call you early next week.

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 new *copiers* that *were advertised* in Monday's paper. (Of the new *copiers* that *were advertised* in Monday's paper, I ordered one.)

You are one of those rare individuals who are always honest with themselves. (Of those rare individuals who are always honest with themselves, you are 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 going* is required to agree with *one*.)

BUT: 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.)

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 was informed of the new policy well in advance.

One shipment was sent yesterday; another is to leave the warehouse tomorrow morning.

Neither one of the applicants is eligible.

OR: Neither applicant is eligible.

Much remains to be done on the Belgravia project.

- on: Much work remains to be done on the Belgravia project.
- > For the use of either . . . or and neither . . . nor, see $\pi 1003-1005$.
- **b.** When each, every, many a, or many an precedes two or more subjects joined by and, the verb should be singular.

Every customer and supplier has been notified.

Many a liberal and conservative has raised objections to that proposal.

- > See ¶1002c for other examples.
- **c.** 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	everybody	somebody	nobody
anything	everything	something	nothing
anyone	everyone	someone	no one
on any one	or every one	OR some one	

Was anybody monitoring actual costs against the budget?

Everyone is required to register in order to vote.

Something tells me I'm wrong.

No one could explain why the project was so far behind schedule.

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. Nobody and nothing is going to stop me.

Indefinite Pronouns Always Plural

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 a. All, none, any, some, more, and most may be singular or plural, depending on the noun that they refer to. (The noun often occurs in an of phrase that follows.)

All of the manuscript has been finished.

All of the reports have been handed in.

Is there any (money) left?

Are there any (bills) to be paid?

Some of the software seems too high-priced.

Some of the videotapes seem too high-priced.

Some was acceptable. (Meaning some of the manuscript.)

Some were acceptable. (Meaning some of the reports.)

More of these computer stands are due.

Most of the stock has been sold.

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*.)

Do any 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.)

b. 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.

None of the merchandise was stolen.

None of the packages were properly wrapped.

None were injured. (Meaning none of the passengers.)

Not one of the associates *has* a good word to say about the managing partner.

NOTE: The relative pronouns who, which, and that (like the indefinite pronouns discussed in a above) may be singular or plural, depending on the noun they refer to. (See ¶1062c.)

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) lens (plural: lenses) measles (no plural) summons (plural: summonses)
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.

assets dues grounds proceeds savings belongings earnings odds quarters thanks credentials goods premises riches winnings

The *premises are* now available for inspection. My *earnings* this year *have* not *gone* up.

NOTE: The following nouns are considered plural: glasses, scissors, pliers, pants, and trousers. However, when they are preceded by the phrase pair of, the entire expression is considered singular.

These scissors need sharpening.

BUT: This *pair of scissors needs* sharpening.

1016 A few nouns (not all of which end in s) 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 chassis headquarters deer species gross corps sheep moose

The series of concerts planned for the spring looks very exciting. (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.

Her means (referring to financial resources) are not sufficient to justify her current level of spending.

Headquarters is not pleased with the performance of the Northeastern Region. (Referring to top management or central authority.)

The Pesco Corporation *headquarters are located* at the intersection of Routes 80 and 287. (Referring to the offices of top management.)

Nouns Ending in ICS

1017 Many nouns ending in *ics* (such as *acoustics, 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.

Statistics is the one course I almost failed.

The statistics indicate that the market for this product line is shrinking.

Acoustics was not listed in last year's course offerings.

The acoustics in the new concert hall are remarkably good.

Ethics is a subject that ought to be part of the el-hi curriculum.

Frank's ethics have always met the highest standards.

Nouns With Foreign Plurals

1018 a. 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.

b. The noun *data*, which is plural in form, is commonly followed by a plural verb in technical and scientific usage. In general usage, *data* in the sense of "information" is followed by a singular verb; in the sense of "distinct bits of information," it is followed by a plural verb.

The data obtained after two months of experimentation is now being analyzed. (Here data means "information.")

BUT: The *data* assembled by six researchers are now *being compared*. (Here *data* refers to several distinct bits of information.)

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c. The noun *media* is the plural form of *medium* when that word refers to various forms of mass communication, such as the press, radio, and television.

The media through which we reach our clients are quality magazines and radio broadcasts.

BUT: The medium we find most effective is television.

NOTE: Media has acquired an acceptable singular meaning when it refers to reporters, journalists, and broadcasters acting in concert. However, treat media as a plural when these practitioners are not acting as a unified group.

The *media has given* so much publicity to the claims against the defendant that a fair trial may not be possible.

BUT: The media have approached the Bergamot case from a wide range of perspectives.

Collective Nouns

The following rules govern the form of verb to be used when the subject is a collective noun. (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, faculty, firm, group, jury, majority, minority, public, school, society, staff.)

a. If the group is acting as a unit, use the singular form of the verb.

The Board of Directors meets Friday. The firm is one of the oldest in the field.

The committee has agreed to submit its report on Monday. (The pronoun its is also singular to agree with committee.)

b. If the members of the group are acting separately, use a plural verb.

A *group* of researchers *are coming* from all over the world for the symposium next month. (The members of the group are acting separately in coming together from all over the world.)

BUT: A *group* of researchers *is meeting* in Geneva next month. (The members of the group are acting as a unit in the process of meeting.)

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.

AWKWARD: 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*.)

BETTER: The *members* of the committee *are* not in agreement . . .

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. If the resulting sentence sounds awkward, recast it as necessary.

I hope your family is well. (Emphasizes the family as a whole.)

on: I hope your family are all well. (Emphasizes the individuals in the family.)

SMOOTHER: I hope all the *members* of your family *are* well.

on: I hope everyone in your family is well.

The couple was married (or were married) last Saturday.

on: Bob and Pauline were married last Saturday.

The couple have moved into their new house. (More idiomatic than: The couple has moved into its new house.)

OR: The Goodwins have moved into their new house.

NOTE: The expression a couple of is usually plural in meaning.

A couple of customers have already reported the error in our ad.

A couple of orders have been shipped to the wrong address.

BUT: A couple of days is all I need to complete the report. (When the phrase refers to a period of time, an amount of money, or a quantity that represents a total amount, treat the phrase as singular. See also ¶1024.)

Organizational Names

1020 Organizational 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 organization; in that case, use the plural. Once a choice has been made, use the singular or plural form consistently within the same context.

Brooks & Rice has lost its lease. It is now looking for a new location.

on: Brooks & Rice have lost their lease. They are now looking for . . .

(BUT NOT: Brooks & Rice has lost its lease. They are now looking for . . .)

NOTE: If the organization is referred to as *they* or *who*, use a plural verb with the company name. If the organization is referred to as *it* or *which*, use a singular verb. (See ¶1049a.)

Geographic Names

1021 Geographic 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 Virgin Islands consists of three large islands (St. John, St. Croix, and St. Thomas) and about fifty smaller islands.

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.

Names of Publications and Products

1022 The name of a publication or product is considered singular, even though it may be plural in form.

<u>Physicians & Computers</u> is one magazine you should consider if you want to market your software to doctors.

Consumer Reports is publishing an update on automobile insurance costs.

<u>Changing Times</u> is offering new subscribers a special rate for a limited time.

Miss Thistlebottom's Hobgoblins by Theodore M. Bernstein deals forcefully with the "taboos, bugbears, and outmoded rules of English usage."

The Number; a Number

The expression *the number* has a singular meaning and therefore requires a singular verb; *a number* has a plural meaning and requires a plural verb.

The number of branch offices we have in the Southeast has increased in each of the last five years.

A number of our branch offices are now located in suburban malls rather than in the central business district.

Expressions of Time, Money, and Quantity

1024 When subjects expressing periods of time, amounts of money, or quantities represent a total amount, use singular verbs. When these subjects represent a number of individual units, use plural verbs.

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.

A total of 52 orders is not a very good response rate to a full-page ad.

BUT: A total of 52 callers have placed an order in response to our ad.

A psychotic is convinced that 2 and 2 equals 5, whereas a neurotic recognizes that 2 plus 2 is 4 but can't stand it.

Less than \$1 million was budgeted for the restoration of City Hall. (For a usage note on fewer-less, see pages 293-294.)

Fractional Expressions

When the subject is an expression such as one-half of, two-thirds of, a part of, a majority of, a percentage of, a portion of, or the rest 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 2000 signifies a landslide in this town. (The noun 2000 is considered singular because it is a total amount; see ¶1024. For a usage note on majority, see page 299.)

A large percentage has to be retyped. (Referring to a manuscript.)

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 majority of our employees have contributed to the United Way fund drive.

A large percentage work part-time. (Referring to the students at a college.)

NOTE: When used as a subject, the word *percentage* preceded by *the* requires a singular verb.

The percentage of students who work part-time is quite large. (The percentage takes a singular verb, even though it is followed by a plural noun, students.)

c. Consider the word half as a condensed version of one-half of.

Over half the staff have signed up for the additional benefits. (In this case half the staff is plural in meaning; the staff members are signing up as individuals and not as a group. See ¶1019b.)

Phrases and Clauses as Subjects

1026 When a phrase or clause serves as the subject, the verb should be singular.

Reading e-mail is the first item on my morning agenda.

That they will accept the offer is far from certain.

Whatever sales brochure they mail me goes directly into the circular file.

According to Bill Cosby, whether the glass is half full or half empty depends on whether you're pouring or drinking.

EXCEPTION: Clauses beginning with what may be singular or plural, according to the meaning.

<u>What we need</u> is a new statement of policy. (The what clause refers to statement; hence the verb is singular.)

<u>What we need</u> are some *guidelines* on personal time off. (Here the *what* clause refers to *guidelines*; hence the verb is plural.)

Subjects in Inverted Sentences

1027 a. Whenever the verb precedes the subject, make sure they agree.

Attached is a swatch of the fabric I'd like to order.

Attached are two copies of the January mailing piece.

Enclosed is a copy of the consultant's recommendations for boosting profits.

Also enclosed are my comments on his suggested plan of action.

Where is (or Where's) this strategy going to take us?

Where are the reviews of the Kelly book?

NOT: Where is (or Where's) the reviews of the Kelly book?

What is missing from the report is the rationale for the decision.

What appear to be problems are often opportunities.

What were your reasons for resigning?

Should a position become available, we will let you know. (In this case the helping verb should precedes the subject. If written in normal word order, this sentence would read: If a position should become available . . .)

b. When the verb is followed by two subjects joined by *and*, the verb should be plural. However, if the resulting sentence sounds awkward, reword as necessary.

Where are the address and phone number for this customer?

BETTER: Where can I find the address and phone number for this customer?

BUT NOT: Where is (**or** Where's) the address and phone number for this customer?

AWKWARD: Why are consumer spending up and retail sales down?

BETTER: Why are retail sales down and consumer spending up?

OR: Why are retail sales down when consumer spending is up?

1028 a. In a sentence beginning with *there is, there are, here is, here are,* or a similar construction, 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.

There are a great many angles to this problem.

Here are two catalogs and an order blank. (See ¶¶1002a, 1028b.)

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 ¶1002b.)

There is many an investor who regrets not having bought our stock when it was only \$5 a share. (See ¶1002c.)

There is a branch office or an agency representing us in every major city in the country. (See ¶1003.)

There is not only a 5 percent state tax but also a 2.5 percent city tax. (See ¶1003.)

There is the cost of your own time in addition to the substantial outlay for materials that must be figured in. (See ¶1007.)

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There's (There is) more than one way to solve the problem. (See ¶1013a.)

There're (There are) more than six candidates running for mayor. (See ¶1056e.)

(NOT: There's more than six 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 hospital nor a clinic on the island. (See ¶1003 for two singular subjects joined by neither...nor.)

There are neither motel rooms nor condominiums available for rent this late in the season. (See ¶1004 for two plural subjects joined by neither . . . nor.)

There were neither tennis courts nor a swimming pool in the hotel where we finally found a room. (Were agrees with the nearer subject, tennis courts. See also ¶1005 for singular and plural subjects joined by neither . . . nor.)

There was neither central air conditioning nor fans for any of the rooms in the hotel. (Was agrees with the nearer subject, air conditioning. See also ¶1005.)

b. When the subject consists of two or more singular nouns—or several nouns, the first of which is singular—there is or here is usually sounds more idiomatic (despite the fact that the subject is plural) than there are or here are. If you do not feel comfortable with this idiomatic construction, change the wording as necessary.

In the higher-priced model there *is* a more powerful *processor*, a 13.3-inch *color display*, and a 6.4-GB *hard drive*. (In this construction, *there is* is understood to be repeated before the second and third subjects.)

on: In the higher-priced model there *are* the following *features:* a more powerful *processor*, a 13.3-inch *color display*, and a 6.4-GB *hard drive*. (In this version *are* agrees with the plural subject *features;* the three subjects in the sentence above are now simply appositives modifying *features*.)

Within a mile of the airport there is a full-service hotel and three motels.

or: Within a mile of the airport there is a full-service hotel plus (**or** in addition to **or** as well as) three motels. (By changing the connective from and to plus or something similar, you are left with a singular subject, hotel, that calls for the singular verb is.)

OR: Within a mile of the airport there *are* three *motels* and a full-service *hotel*. (When the first subject in the series is plural, the verb *are* not only is grammatically correct but also sounds natural.)

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. The key issue is higher wages.

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 ¶¶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.** For most verbs, form the past and the past participle simply by adding d or ed to the present; form the present participle by adding ing to the present. (Some verbs require a minor change in the ending of the present form before ed or ing is added.)

Present	Past	Past Participle	Present Participle	
taxi	taxied	taxied	taxiing	
drop	drop	dropped	dropping	(see ¶701)
occur	occurred	occurred	occurring	(see ¶702)
offer	offered	offered	offering	(see ¶704)
sneak	sneaked	sneaked	sneaking	(see ¶¶705, 1032b)
fill	filled	filled	filling	(see ¶706)
warm	warmed	warmed	warming	(see ¶706)
issue	issued	issued	issuing	(see ¶707)
die	died	died	dying	(see ¶709)
try	tried	tried	trying	(see ¶710)
obey	obeyed	obeyed	obeying	(see ¶711)
panic	panicked	panicked	panicking	(see ¶717)

b. Many verbs have principal parts that are irregularly formed. The following list presents the ones most commonly used, beginning with the most irregular of all—to be.

Present	Past	Past Participle	Present Participle	
am, is, are	was, were	been	being	
become	became	become	becoming	
begin	began	begun	beginning	(see ¶1032b)
break	broke	broken	breaking	(see ¶1033, note)
bring	brought	brought	bringing	(see ¶1032b)
buy	bought	bought	buying	
catch	caught	caught	catching	
choose	chose	chosen	choosing	
come	came	come	coming	
cost	cost	cost	costing	
do	did	done	doing	(see ¶1032b)
draw	drew	drawn	drawing	
drive	drove	driven	driving	
eat	ate	eaten	eating	
fall	fell	fallen	falling	
feel	felt	felt	feeling	
find ·	found	found	finding	Continued on page 246

Present	Past	Past Participle	Present Participle	
fly	flew	flown	flying	
forget	forgot	forgotten or forgot	forgetting	
forgive	forgave	forgiven	forgiving	
get	got	gotten	getting	
give	gave	given	giving	
go	went	gone	going	
grow	grew	grown	growing	
hang (suspend)	hung	hung	hanging	
hang (execute)	hanged	hanged	hanging	
hold	held	held	holding	
keep	kept	kept	keeping	
know	knew	known	knowing	
lay (place)	laid	laid	laying	(see page 298)
lie (recline)	lay	lain	lying	(see page 298)
make	made	made	making	
mean	meant	meant	meaning	
pay	paid	paid	paying	
prove	proved	proved or proven	proving	
ring	rang	rung	ringing	
rise	rose	risen	rising	(see ¶1033, note)
say	said	said	saying	
see	saw	seen	seeing	(see ¶1032b)
sell	sold	sold	selling	
send	sent	sent	sending	
set	set	set	setting	(see page 304)
shrink	shrank	shrunk	shrinking	(see ¶¶1032b, 1033, note)
sit	sat	sat	sitting	(see page 304)
speak	spoke	spoken	speaking	
swing	swung	swung	swinging	
take	took	taken	taking	
teach	taught	taught	teaching	
tell	told	told	telling	
think	thought	thought	thinking	
throw	threw	thrown	throwing	
understand	understood	understood	understanding	
wear	wore	worn	wearing	(see ¶1033, note)
write	wrote	written	writing	

NOTE: Dictionaries typically show the principal parts for all *irregular* verbs. If you are in doubt about any form, consult your dictionary. If the principal parts are not shown, the verb is regular. (See ¶1030a.)

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 helping verbs, also known as auxiliary verbs. The most common helping verbs are:

do shall will is can has have might was did should would are were could had may must

> For a graphic view of how all the tenses are formed, see the chart on pages 248–249.

Forming 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.

She does what is expected of her.

b. To make a statement that is true at all times.

There is an exception to every rule (including this one).

c. With shall or will to express future time.

We will order (OR shall order) new stock next week. (For the use of the helping verbs shall and will in the future tense, see page 304.)

 \succ For the third person singular form of the present tense, see ¶1035.

1032 a. The second principal part of the verb (the past tense) is used to express past time. (No helping verb is used with this form.)

We filled the order yesterday.

She did what was expected of her.

b. Do not use a past participle form to express the past tense.

I saw it. (NOT: I seen it.) He drank his coffee. (NOT: He drunk his coffee.)

They began it together. (NOT: They begun it together.)

He was the one who *did* it. (**NOT**: He was the one who *done* it.)

I can't believe this sweater shrank. (NOT: . . . this sweater shrunk.)

Jill brought me up to date on the Cox project. (NOT: Jill brung me . . .)

Someone *sneaked* into my office last night. (**Not**: Someone *snuck*...)

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 always done what we expect of her.

Consumers have 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.

She had finished 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 page 304 for a usage note on shall and will.) She 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 shrank.)

Prices have risen again. (NOT: Prices have rose again.)

He has worn his shoes out. (NOT: He has wore his shoes out.)

FUTURE PROGRESSIVE TENSE Helping Verb (future tense of be)

Main Verb (present participle)

¶1033

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB TO SEE

NFINITIVE	TO SEE	2	TO BE		TO HAV	E
PRESENT TENSE	1	see	T	am	1	have
First Principal Part		see	you			have
	he or she	sees	he or she		he or she	
	we	see	we	are	we	have
		see	you			have
	they		they			have
AST TENSE	1	saw	1	was		had
Second Principal Part	-	saw		were		had
	he or she		he or she		he or she	
	we	saw	we	were	we	had
		saw		were		had
	· ·	saw		were	they	
UTURE TENSE	I shall	see	1 shall	be	I shall	have
Helping Verb (shall OR will)	you will		you will		you will	
+	he or she will		he or she will		he or she will	
Main Verb (first principal part)	we shall	see	we shall	be	we shall	have
	you will		you will		you will	
	they will		they will		they will	
ASSIVE TENSES (¶1036)						
NFINITIVE	TO SEE					
RESENT PASSIVE TENSE						
Helping Verb (present tense of be)	you are	seen				
+	he or she is					
		caam				
Main Verb (past participle)	we are you are					
+	they are					
AST PASSIVE TENSE	I was	seen				
Helping Verb (past tense of be)	you were					
+	he or she was					
Main Verb (past participle)	we were	seen				
, ore (base barneshie)	you were					
	they were					
UTURE PASSIVE TENSE	I shall be	seen				
Helping Verb (future tense of be)	you will be					
+	he or she will be					
Main Verb (past participle)	we shall be	seen				
main vero (pase participie)	you will be					
	they will be					
ROGRESSIVE TENSES (¶1034)						
NFINITIVE	TO SEE					
RESENT PROGRESSIVE TENSE		seeing				
Helping Verb (present tense of be)	you are he or she is					
+	ne or sile is	seeing				
Main Verb (present participle)		seeing				
	you are they are					
AST PROGRESSIVE TENSE		seeing				
Helping Verb (past tense of be)	you were					
+	he or she was	seeing				
Main Verb (present participle)	we were					
	you were					
	they were	seeing				

I shall be seeing you will be seeing he or she will be seeing

we shall be seeing you will be seeing they will be seeing

you had been seeing they had been seeing

I shall have been seeing

you will have been seeing he or she will have been seeing

we shall have been seeing you will have been seeing they will have been seeing

1033

PERFECT TENSES (¶1033) TO SEE INFINITIVE TO BE PRESENT PERFECT TENSE I have seen I have been Helping Verb (present tense of have) you have seen you have been he or she has seen he or she has been Main Verb (past participle) we have seen we have been you have seen you have been they have seen they have been PAST PERFECT TENSE I had seen I had been Helping Verb (past tense of have) you had seen you had been he or she had seen he or she had been Main Verb (past participle) we had seen we had been you had seen you had been they had seen they had been FUTURE PERFECT TENSE I shall have seen I shall have been Helping Verb (future tense of have) you will have seen you will have been he or she will have seen he or she will have been we shall have seen Main Verb (past participle) we shall have been you will have seen you will have been they will have seen they will have been PERFECT PASSIVE TENSES (¶1036) INFINITIVE TO SEE PRESENT PERFECT PASSIVE TENSE I have been seen Helping Verb (present perfect tense of be) you have been seen he or she has been seen Main Verb (past participle) we have been seen you have been seen they have been seen PAST PERFECT PASSIVE TENSE I had been seen you had been seen Helping Verb (past perfect tense of be) he or she had been seen we had been seen Main Verb (past participle) you had been seen they had been seen FUTURE PERFECT PASSIVE TENSE I shall have been seen you will have been seen Helping Verb (future perfect tense of be) he or she will have been seen Main Verb (past participle) we shall have been seen you will have been seen they will have been seen PERFECT PROGRESSIVE TENSES (¶1034) INFINITIVE TO SEE PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE TENSE I have been seeing Helping Verb (present perfect tense of be) you have been seeing he or she has been seeing Main Verb (present participle) we have been seeing you have been seeing they have been seeing PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE TENSE I had been seeing Helping Verb (past perfect tense of be) you had been seeing he or she had been seeing Main Verb (present participle) we had been seeing

FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE TENSE
Helping Verb (future perfect tense of be)

Main Verb (present participle)

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.

She is doing all that can be expected of her.

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.

She was doing a good job when I last checked her work.

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 page 304 for a usage note on 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 convey the same meaning as the simple perfect tenses (see ¶1033) except that the progressive element adds the sense of 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 Model 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
I think, you think, we think, they think
it looks
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 watches it buzzes it does

c. Verbs ending in a vowel plus y add s; those ending in a consonant plus y change y to i and add es.

say: he says buy: he buys convey: she conveys try: it tries employ: she employs apply: she applies

d. Verbs ending in *i* simply add *s*.

taxi: he taxis ski: she skis

e. The verb to be is irregular since be, the first principal part, is not used in the present tense.

we are lam you are vou are he, she, it is they are

f. A few verbs remain unchanged in the third person singular.

she can it will PRESENT TENSE: he may she could it would PAST TENSE: he might

> See page 290 for a usage note on don't.

Passive Forms

1036 The passive forms of a verb consist of some form of the helping 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 audit) 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 Appendix A.
- 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 deliberately 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. (Emphasizes the basis for the proposal; the name of the person who drafted the proposal is not important.)

Unfortunately, the decision was made without consulting any of the board members. (Emphasizes how the decision was made and omits the name of the person responsible.)

Mistakes were made. (A frequent comment made by politicians and corporate executives who have to acknowledge failure or wrongdoing but do not want to acknowledge personal responsibility or quilt.)

Fred Allen once defined a conference as a gathering of important people who "singly can do nothing but together can decide that nothing can be done."

b. In all other cases use active verb forms to achieve a simpler and more vigorous style. Except in those circumstances cited in ¶1037a, passive verb forms typically produce awkward or stilted sentences.

WEAK PASSIVES: It has been decided by the Human Resources Committee that full pay should be given to you for the period of your hospitalization.

STRONG ACTIVES: The Human Resources Committee has decided that you should receive full pay for the period of your hospitalization.

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c. Watch out for passive constructions that unintentionally point to the wrong *doer* of the action.

CONFUSING: Two computers were reported stolen over the weekend by the head of corporate security.

CLEAR: The head of corporate security reported that two computers were stolen over the weekend.

CONFUSING: One of our second-shift workers was found injured by a Good Samaritan outside the parking lot entrance last night.

CLEAR: Last night one of our second-shift workers was injured outside the parking lot entrance and was found there by a Good Samaritan.

Verbs Following Clauses of Necessity, Demand, Etc.

1038 Sentences that express *necessity, demand, strong request, urging,* or *resolution* in the main clause require a *subjunctive* verb in the dependent clause that follows.

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 insist that I *be allowed* to present a minority report at the next board meeting. (**NOT:** am allowed.)

REQUEST: They have asked that you *be notified* at once if matters do not proceed according to plan. (**NOT:** are notified.)

URGING: We urged (**or** suggested) that he *be given* a second chance to prove himself in the job. (**nor**: 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 (or otherwise change the form) 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 until the end of the year. (**NOT:** remains.)

URGING: I suggested that she *type* the material triple-spaced to allow room for some very heavy editing. (**NOT:** types.)

RESOLUTION: They have resolved that Fred *represent* them. (**NOT:** represents.)

> See the entry for mood, subjunctive in Appendix A.

Verbs Following Wish Clauses

1039 Sentences that start with *I wish*, *she 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 for all three persons.

I wish I were going to the reception. (NOT: was going.)

I wish he were going with me.

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b. To express *past* time in the dependent clause, put the verb in the *past perfect tense*.

I wish she *had invited* me.

I wish I had been there.

I wish I could have attended.

c. To express *future* time in the dependent clause, use the helping verb *would* instead of *will*.

I wish he would arrive on time. I wish she would make more of an effort.

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 page 308 for a usage note on would have.

1041 When an if clause states a condition that is possible or likely, the verb in the if clause requires no special treatment. 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 full-time teaching position.

IMPROBABLE: If I left this job (but I probably won't), I would take a full-time teaching position.

PROBABLE: If I go to Tokyo (and I may), I will want you to go too.

IMPROBABLE: If I were going to Tokyo (but I probably won't), I would want you to go too.

PROBABLE: If she was in yesterday (and she may have been), I did not see her.

IMPROBABLE: If she had been in 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 though 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

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 other copy. (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*.) You need not *return* the clipping. (**OR:** You do not need *to return* the clipping.)

- 1045 a. Infinitives have two main tense forms: present and perfect.
 - (1) 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.)

(2) 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, so the present infinitive is used.)

b. The passive form of the present infinitive consists of *to be* plus the past participle. Do not omit *to be* in such constructions.

This office needs to be repainted. (NOT: This office needs repainted.)

1046 Splitting an infinitive (that is, inserting an adverb between to and the verb) is no longer considered incorrect. However, it should be avoided when it produces an awkward construction and the adverb 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*.

When alternative locations of the adverb produce an awkward or weakly constructed sentence, do not be afraid to split the infinitive.

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.

CONFUSING: I want you *to supervise* the work that is to be done *personally.* (When the object of the infinitive is long, it is difficult to place the adverb after the object without creating confusion. Here *personally* seems to modify *to be done* when it should modify *to supervise.*)

AWKWARD: I want you to supervise personally the work that is to be done.

GOOD: 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.

GOOD: I want you to carefully consider Jenkins' proposal . . .

d. When an infinitive consists of *to be* plus a past or present participle of another verb, inserting an adverb before the participle is not considered splitting an infinitive. Nevertheless, in many such sentences it may be possible to locate the adverb to better advantage elsewhere in the sentence.

These plans need to be thoroughly reviewed.

Claude appears to be *continually* turning up with last-minute objections to any decision I make. **NOTE:** By the same token, it is perfectly acceptable to position an adverb between a helping verb and a past or present participle. It is even acceptable to position an adverb *within* the elements of a helping verb.

This new technology has already been effectively applied in many industries.

I hear that Martha has been seriously considering early retirement.

Sequence of Tenses

When the verb in the main clause is in the past tense, the verb in a dependent *that* clause should also express past time. Consider 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 dependent clause should remain in the present tense if it expresses a general truth.

Our lawyer pointed out (past) that all persons under 18 are (present) considered minors.

Omitting Parts of Verbs

1048 When compound verbs in the same sentence have 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 helping verb have is shared by the two main verbs, received and forwarded.)

We can and will achieve these goals. (The main verb achieve is shared by the two helping 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.

RIGHT: I never have forgotten and I never will forget . . .

WRONG: We have and still are asking for an accounting of the assets.

RIGHT: We have asked and still are asking for . . .

10

Troublesome Verbs

> See the individual entries listed alphabetically in Section 11 for the following verbs:

Affect-effect Home-hone
Ain't Imply-infer
Appraise-apprise Lay-lie
Appreciate Learn-teach
Being that Leave-let
Bring-take Look forward to
Cannot help but May-can (might-could)
Come-go Maybe-may be

Come-go Maybe-may be Come and Of-have Rack-wrack Complement-compliment Comprise-compose Raise-rise Could not care less Serve-service Done Set-sit Shall-will Don't Ensure-insure-assure Should-would Enthused over Supposed to Try and Graduated-was graduated Type-key Grow Had better Used to Would have Help

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.)

We plan to explain our shift in corporate strategy at the next shareholders' meeting.

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 $\P1053$ 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 she who is willing to compromise. It is they who are not.

It is we, the individual taxpayers, who have to make up for the loss of commercial ratables.

It is you who are to blame. (Who refers to you; hence the verb is are to agree with you. See ¶1001a, note.)

BUT: You are the *person* who *is* to blame. (Here *who* refers to *person*; hence the verb is *is* to agree with *person*.)

b. Use a plural pronoun when the antecedent consists of two nouns or pronouns joined by *and*.

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.

Are you and I prepared to say that we can handle the assignment?

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 videocassette recorder.

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 by locating the plural subject nearer the verb.

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.)

d. Make sure that the pronouns you use agree in gender with their antecedents.

The entire staff of JTX wishes to express its gratitude. (Third person singular.)

We (or All of us) here at JTX wish to express our gratitude. (First person plural.)

BUT NOT: The entire *staff* of JTX wishes to express *our* gratitude. (Do not use a first person pronoun to refer to a third person antecedent.)

- ➤ See also ¶1053d.
- **e.** Make sure that the pronouns you use refer to the antecedents you intend. To avoid confusion, reword as necessary.

CONFUSING: Unrealistic deadlines, excessive pressures, and unsafe working conditions can be very damaging to your employees. You must do everything you can to eliminate them. (The employees or the destructive conditions?)

CLEAR: Unrealistic deadlines, excessive pressures, and unsafe working conditions can be very damaging to your employees. You must do everything you can to eliminate these destructive conditions.

Agreement With Common-Gender Antecedents

1050 Nouns that apply to both males and females have a common gender.

parent	manager	student	boss	writer
child	doctor	professor	supervisor	speaker
customer	lawver	instructor	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 the pronoun *he* or *she*.

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 this form.

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.

This traditional use of *he* and *she* as generic pronouns (as described above) is offensive to many people, who 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, consider various alternatives to the generic use of *he* or *she*. (See ¶1052.)

1052 a. Use *he or she, his or her,* or *him or her.* This solution works well in isolated cases but can be clumsy if repeated frequently in the same context. (In any case, avoid the use of *he/she*, *s/he*, and similar constructions.)

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: When a customer calls, ask him or her to leave his or her phone number.)

An assistant tries to anticipate the needs of the boss.

(RATHER THAN: An assistant tries to anticipate the needs of his or her boss.)

d. If the application of these various alternatives produces wordiness or an unacceptable shift in meaning or emphasis, then as a last resort use the generic *he* or the generic *she* as described in ¶1051. However, try to avoid doing so whenever possible.

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. They are typically used as nouns, but a few (such as *each* and *every*) are used as adjectives.

anyone	everyone	someone	no one
anybody	everybody	somebody	nobody
anything	everything	something	nothing
each	every	either	one
each one	many a	neither	another

Every company has its own vacation policy. (NOT: their.)

Neither one of the campaigns did as well as *it* was supposed to. (**NOT**: they were.)

NOTE: These singular indefinite forms often call for the generic use of he or she (see ¶¶1051-1052). The following sentences use alternative wording to show how the generic he or she can be avoided. The last sentence presents a situation for which no reasonable alternative exists.

Everyone should submit his expense report by Friday.

BETTER: All staff members should submit their expense reports by Friday.

If anyone 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 . . .

Does every assistant know how she is to handle her boss's calls?

BETTER: Do all the assistants know how they are to handle their bosses' calls?

Nobody could have helped himself in a situation like that.

- > For agreement of these indefinite pronouns with verbs, see ¶¶1009–1011; for possessive forms of these pronouns, see ¶637.
- **b.** Use a plural pronoun when the antecedent is a plural indefinite form. The following indefinite pronouns are always plural:

many few several others both

Many customers prefer to help themselves; others usually like to have someone wait on them. Several sales representatives in the Southern Region 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.

- > For agreement of these indefinite pronouns with verbs, see ¶1012.
- **c.** The following indefinite forms may be singular or plural, depending on the noun to which they refer.

all none any some more most

When these words are used as antecedents, determine whether they are singular or plural. Then make the pronouns that refer to them agree in number.

Some of the *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.)

- > For agreement of these indefinite pronouns with verbs, see ¶1013.
- **d.** Since indefinite forms express the third person, pronouns referring to these antecedents should also be in the third person (he, she, it, they).

If anyone wants a vacation pay advance, he or she should apply for it in writing.

(NOT: If anyone wants a vacation pay advance, you should apply for it . . .)

If the indefinite form is modified so that it strongly expresses the first or second person, the personal pronoun must also agree in number.

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 to the United Way fund drive. (Third person.)

BUT: Each of us knows how much he or she ought to contribute to the United Way fund drive. (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 ¶¶1054-1064 indicate how to choose the right case for pronouns.

Personal Pronouns

1054 Nominative Forms of Personal Pronouns

Use I, we, you, he, she, it, they:

a. When the pronoun is the subject of a verb.

/ wrote to Eileen McIntyre, but she hasn't answered.

Debbie and I can handle the job ourselves. (NOT: Debbie and me me and Debbie.) 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 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?

This is she.

NOTE: A sentence like It could have been they, while grammatically correct, would sound better if reworded in idiomatic English: They could have been the ones. Moreover, a sentence like It's me is acceptable in colloquial speech but not in writing. When you hear a telephone caller ask for you by name, do not respond by saying This is him or This is her. If you wish to respond correctly (and somewhat pompously), say This is he or This is she. If you wish to respond correctly and sound more natural, say This is . . . and then give your name.

 \succ For special rules governing pronouns with the infinitive to be, see ¶1064.

1055 Objective Forms of Personal Pronouns

Use 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.

NOTE: When my husband and is mentally omitted, the objective form me is clearly the correct pronoun: "They invited me for the weekend."

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b. When the pronoun is the object of a preposition.

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 ¶648.)

c. When the pronoun is the subject or object of an infinitive. (See ¶1064.)

The department head asked *him* to resign. (*Him* is the subject of *to resign.*) Did you ask Janet to call *me*? (*Me* is the object of *to call.*)

1056 Possessive Forms of Personal Pronouns

a. Most personal pronouns have two possessive forms:

my	your	his	her	its	our	their
mine	yours		hers		ours	theirs

b. 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.

George is her neighbor.

c. 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.

NOTE: Do not insert an apostrophe before the final s in possessive pronouns.

yours (NOT: your's)

hers (NOT: her's)

ours (NOT: our's)

theirs (NOT: their's)

d. A pronoun that modifies a *gerund* (a verbal noun ending in ing) should be in the possessive. (See ¶647.)

I appreciated your shipping the order so promptly.

(NOT: I appreciated you shipping the order so promptly.)

e. Do not confuse certain possessive pronouns with contractions and other phrases that sound like the possessive pronouns.

its (possessive)

it's (it is on it has)

their (possessive)

they're (they are) **or** there're (there are)

theirs (possessive)

there's (there is on there has)

your (possessive)

you're (you are)

As a test for the correct form, try to substitute *it is, 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-tech stocks was a shrewd idea.

BUT: They're investing in high-tech stocks.

Their complaints have proved to be unfounded.

BUT: There are complaints that have proved to be unfounded.

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.

> For other possessive pronouns, see also ¶¶636-637.

1057 When a pronoun follows *than* or *as* in a comparison, determine the correct form of the pronoun by mentally supplying any missing words. To avoid correct but awkward sentences, actually supply the missing words.

She writes better than I. (She writes better than I do.)

Joe is not as talented as she. (Joe is not as talented as she is.)

I like you better than him. (I like you better than I like him.)

BUT: I like you better than he. (I like you better than he does.)

1058 When a pronoun is used to identify a noun or another pronoun, it is either nominative or objective, depending on how the antecedent is used.

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 *l*. (Exception was *l*.)

Let's you and me schedule a brown-bag lunch. (Let's is a contraction for let us. Since us is the objective form, the pronouns you and me are also objective.)

NOTE: In sentences like the following, mentally omit the noun (employees) to determine the correct form.

The firm wants *us* employees to work on Saturdays. (The firm wants *us* to work on Saturdays.) We employees need to confer. (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 the 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 Compound personal pronouns end in self or selves: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

a. They can 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.

b. They can emphasize a noun or pronoun already expressed.

/ will write her *myself*. The *trainees themselves* arranged the program.

I myself am bewildered. (BUT NOT: I myself am personally bewildered. Using myself and personally in the same sentence creates redundancy rather than emphasis.)

c. Place a compound personal pronoun carefully to avoid confusion or misreading.

CONFUSING: Now surgeons can have patients wheeled inside a new three-dimensional imaging machine; then they can step inside themselves to operate. (Are the surgeons stepping inside themselves or inside the machine?)

CLEAR: . . . then they themselves can step inside the machine to operate.

If necessary, reword the sentence without using a compound personal pronoun.

confusing: Are you tired of cleaning yourself? Let us do it for you.

CLEAR: Are you tired of doing your own cleaning? Let us do it for you.

d. 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 handle all the mail. (NOT: Henry and myself.)

The report will be prepared by Ray, Nessa, and me. (NOT: 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 or pronoun in the main clause).

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 of the program. (Relative, referring to Ms. DeAngelis.)

b. These pronouns may be either singular or plural in meaning.

Who is talking? (Singular.)

Whom do you prefer for this job? (Singular.)

Who are going? (Plural.)

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.)

Who is arranging the teleconference? (She is arranging the teleconference.)

Who could it have been? (It could have been he. See ¶1054b.)

Who booked our sales conference in a honeymooners' hideaway? (He booked the sales conference.)

Who shall I say is calling? (I shall say he is calling.)

Who did they say was chosen? (They did say she was chosen.)

The matter of who should pay was not decided. (He should pay.)

Everybody wants 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.)

We will select whoever meets our qualifications. (He meets our 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 firm. (You believe he has done the most for the firm.)

You are free to vote for whoever appeals to you. (She appeals to you.)

BUT: You are free to vote for whomever you wish. (You wish to vote for him.)

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 <u>who</u> we have reason to believe are interested in our book. (We have reason to believe *they* are interested . . .)

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.)

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 <u>whomever</u> you think you can safely recommend. (You think you can safely recommend <u>him.</u>)

BUT: I will give the job to $\underline{\text{whoever you think can be safely recommended.}}$ (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.)

Steve Koval is the person *whom* 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. (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 or type is meant.

She is the only one of my managers who can speak Japanese 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 employee benefits, *which* I sent you last week, should be of some help. (*Which* introduces a nonessential clause.)

The report that I sent you last week should be of some help. (That introduces 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 an expression such 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 chapters.

c. The verb in a relative clause introduced by who, which, or that should agree in number with the subject of the relative clause. In many cases the subject is clearly expressed.

The laser printer that you have ordered will be delivered in two weeks. (The subject of the relative clause is you, which requires a plural verb, have ordered.)

However, when the relative pronoun *who, which*, or *that* is itself the subject of the relative clause, the verb in the relative clause must agree with the antecedent of the relative pronoun.

The laser *printer* that *was ordered* on May 4 will be delivered in two weeks. (The relative pronoun *that* is the subject of the relative clause and refers to a singular antecedent, *printer*. Therefore, the verb in the relative clause—*was ordered*—must be singular.)

BUT: The laser printers that were ordered . . .

I am determined to succeed, not only for myself but for you, who have always encouraged me. (The relative pronoun who is the subject of the relative clause and refers to the antecedent you, which requires a plural verb—in this case have encouraged.)

Sometimes it is difficult to determine the antecedent of the relative pronoun. In such cases mentally rearrange the wording, as is done in the following example.

Hyphenate the *elements* of a *compound adjective* that occur?/occurs? before a noun. (To determine whether the antecedent of *that* is the plural term *elements* or the singular term *compound adjective*, recast the sentence: "When a *compound adjective* occurs before a noun, hyphenate the elements." This makes it clear that in the original sentence *compound adjective* is the antecedent of *that*; thus the verb in the relative clause must be singular: *occurs*.)

Hyphenate the elements of a compound adjective that occurs before a noun.

d. Which, that, and who may be used to refer to organizations. When you are referring to the organization as a single entity (in other words, as it), then use which or that as indicated in ¶1062b. However, when you are thinking of the organization in terms of the individuals who make up the organization (in other words, when you think of the organization as they), you may use who or that as indicated in ¶1062a. (See also ¶1020.)

Whenever we run short of computer supplies, the Brown & Weiner Company is the one that gives us the best service and the best prices.

We really like doing business with the people at the Brown & Weiner Company. They are a customer-oriented group *who* give us the best service and the best prices. (*That* may also be used in this sentence in place of *who*.)

e. Make sure that a relative clause is placed close to its antecedent to avoid unintended (and sometimes humorous) interpretations. (See also ¶1086.)

NOT: Wanted: Nanny to take care of two-year-old who does not drink or smoke.

BUT: Wanted: Nanny who does not drink or smoke; to take care of two-year-old.

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.)

Who's had the most experience in that position? (She has had the most experience in that position.)

Who's the most experienced person in that position? (She is the most experienced person in that position.)

Whose experience is best suited to that position? (Her experience 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 did you take him to be? (You did 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, caller.)

The Macauleys were thought to be we.

Who was he thought to be? (He was thought to be who?)

NOTE: The examples above are all grammatically correct, but they also sound quite awkward. Whenever possible, use more idiomatic wording. For example, the three sentences above could be recast as follows:

(see ¶1010, note)

(see ¶1062)

(see ¶1101)

(see ¶1101)

(see ¶1061)

(see ¶1061)

They thought I was the one who called.

The Macauleys were mistaken for us.

Who did they think he was?

Troublesome Pronouns

> See the individual entries in Section 11 for the following pronouns:

All of Each other-one another (see Someone-some one (see ¶1101) 11101) Anyone-any one Everyone-every one That-which-who (see ¶1010, note) (see ¶1010, note) Between you and me Its-it's These sort-these kind (see ¶1055b) (see ¶1101) Whatever-what ever Both-each Most (see ¶1101) (see ¶1101) Both alike Nobody-no body Who-whom (see ¶1101) (see ¶1101) Whoever-who ever Each-either-both None-no one (see ¶1101) (see ¶¶1013b, 1101)

Adjectives and Adverbs

> For definitions of the terms adjective and adverb, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

1065 Only an adverb can modify an adjective.

Packard's will give you a really good buy on printers. (NOT: Packard's will give you a real good buy on printers.)

1066 When a word in the predicate refers to the action of the verb, use an adverb (not an adjective).

We guarantee to ship the portfolios 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).

1067 When a word in the predicate describes the subject of the sentence, use 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) are followed in most cases by adjectives. A few other verbs (such as grow, prove, get, keep, remain, and turn) are sometimes followed by adjectives.

> I feel bad (NOT badly). He has grown tall. She looked happy. The work proved hard.

Your voice sounded strong. I got lucky.

Let's all keep (or remain) calm. He seemed (or appeared) shy. They became famous. 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.

NOTE: In the following group of examples, verbs of the senses and linking verbs are used as verbs of action (¶1066). 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.

Our market share has grown quickly.

He appeared quietly in the doorway.

1068 Several of the most frequently used adverbs have two forms.

close, closely loud, loudly fair, fairly short, shortly deep, deeply quick, quickly slow, slowly hard, hardly 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 come close play fair open wide wound deeply watch closely treat fairly proceed slowly travel widely

c. In still other cases the choice is simply one of formality. The ly forms are more formal.

sell cheap or sell cheaply talk loudly talk loud OR

1069 a. Although the *ly* ending usually signifies an adverb, a few adjectives also end in *ly*—for example, costly, orderly, timely, motherly, fatherly, friendly, neighborly, worldly, earthly, lively, lovely, lonely.

Let's look for a less costly solution.

Her offer to help you was intended as a friendly gesture.

b. A few common *ly*-ending words are used both as adjectives and as adverbs—for example, *early*, *only*, *daily*, *weekly*, *monthly*, *quarterly*, *yearly*.

I always try to leave for work at an early hour. (Adjective.)

The surge in sales began early last month. (Adverb.)

We issue our sales reports on a quarterly basis. (Adjective.)

We issue our sales reports quarterly. (Adverb.)

We are all waiting for the first-quarter sales report. (Compound adjective.)

(**NOT:** We are all waiting for the *first-quarterly* sales report.)

c. The words *fast*, *long*, and *hard* are also used both as adjectives and as adverbs.

ADJECTIVES: a fast talker a long, hard winter **ADVERBS:** talks fast thought long and hard

1070 Words such as *up*, *in*, *out*, *on*, and *off*—commonly recognized as prepositions—also function as adverbs, especially in verb phrases where these words are needed to complete the meaning of the verb. (See also ¶802.)

	Used as Adverbs	Used as Prepositions
up:	to look up the definition	to jog up the hill
down:	to take down your name	to walk down the street
in:	to trade in your old car	to see in the dark
out:	to phase out operations	to look out the window
on:	to put on a performance	to act on the stage
off:	to write off our losses	to drive off the road

NOTE: When used in headings and titles as *adverbs*, these short words are capitalized; when used as *prepositions*, they are not. (See ¶361c-d.)

1071 Problems of Comparison

a. Form the comparative degree of one-syllable adjectives and adverbs by adding er to the positive form. Form the superlative degree by adding est. (See ¶1071e for a few exceptions.)

thin: thinner, thinnest soon: sooner, soonest

b. Form the comparative degree of *two-syllable* adjectives and adverbs either by adding *er* to the positive form or by inserting either *more* or *less* before the positive form. Form the superlative degree by adding *est* in some cases or by inserting *most* or *least* before the positive form. In some cases the addition of *er* or *est* will create very awkward forms. Your ear will tell you when to avoid such forms.

happy: happier, more (**or** less) happy
likely: likeliest, most (**or** least) likely
often: oftener, more (**or** less) often
highly: highest, most (**or** least) highly

more hopeful (**not**: hopefuller)
more hostile (**not**: hostiler)
most complex (**not**: complexest)
most troubled (**not**: troubledest)

> See ¶825b and page 300 for a usage note on more.

NOTE: If the positive form ends in a consonant plus y (for example, happy, likely), change the y to i before adding er or est. Some ly-ending words drop the ly in the comparative and superlative (for example, highly, higher, highest; deeply, deeper, deepest). (See also $\P710$.)

c. Form the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs containing three or more syllables by inserting more or less before the positive form. Form the superlative degree by inserting most or least before the positive form.

competent: more competent acceptable: most acceptable

adventurous: less adventurous carefully: least carefully

d. Avoid double comparisons.

cheaper (NOT: more cheaper)

unkindest (NOT: most unkindest)

e. A few adjectives and adverbs have irregular comparisons. For example:

9		1
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
good or well (see page 294)	better	best
bad or ill	worse	worst
far	farther, further (see ¶719)	farthest, furthest
late	later, latter (see ¶719)	latest, last
little	littler, less, lesser	littlest, least
many, much	more	most

f. Some adjectives and adverbs—for example, square, round, unique, completely, universally, correct, perfect, always, never, dead—do not logically permit comparison. A square cannot be any squarer; a circle cannot be the roundest of all circles. Nevertheless, a number of these words may be modified by more, less, nearly, hardly, virtually, and similar adverbs to suggest something less than absolute perfection in each case.

Next year we hope to do a more complete study.

He is looking for a more universally acceptable solution.

Handicraft of this caliber is virtually unique these days.

We almost never increase our prices more than once a year.

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.)

This is the finest piece of linen I could find. (Many pieces are involved.)

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, they are being compared two at a time; hence the comparative.)

NOTE: In a few idiomatic expressions (such as *Put your best foot forward* and *May the best man win*), the superlative form is used, even though only two things are referred to.

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.

Continued on page 270

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*.")

NOT: This year's output is lower than last year. (Incorrectly compares this year's output with last year.)

Adverbs such as only, nearly, almost, ever, scarcely, merely, too, and also should be placed as close as possible to the word modified—usually directly before it. Putting the adverb in the wrong position may change the entire meaning of the sentence. (See also ¶1087.)

Our list of depositors numbers almost 50,000. (NOT: almost numbers.)

Only the board can nominate the three new officers. (Cannot be nominated by anyone else.)

The board can *only* nominate the three officers. (They cannot elect.)

The board can nominate only the three officers. (They cannot nominate anyone else.)

Elvira and Frank Mancuso have been married for not quite two years.

(**NOT:** Elvira and Frank Mancuso have *not quite* been married for two years.)

1073 Do not use an adverb to express a meaning already contained in the verb.

assemble (NOT: assemble together)
begin (NOT: first begin)
cancel (NOT: cancel out)
continue (NOT: continue on)
convert (NOT: convert over)

cooperate (NOT: cooperate together)

finish (NOT: finish up or off) follow (NOT: follow after) refer (NOT: refer back) repeat (NOT: repeat again) return (NOT: return back) revert (NOT: revert back)

Troublesome Adjectives and Adverbs

> See the individual entries in Section 11 for the following adjectives and adverbs:

A-an
Above
Accidentally
Adverse-averse
Afterward-afterwards
All right
Almost-all most
Already-all ready
Altogether-all together
Always-all ways
Another

Anxious-eager

Anymore-any more Anytime-any time Anyway-any way Awhile-a while Backward-backwards

Bad-badly
Biannual-biennialsemiannual
Biweekly-bimonthly

Biweekly-bimonthly Complementarycomplimentary Different-differently Entitled-titled
Equally-as good
Everyday-every day
Ex-former
Farther-further
Fewer-less
First-firstly, etc.

Flammable-inflammable Former-first Fulsome Good-well

Fiscal-financial

Hardly Maybe-may be Healthy-healthful More

Historic-historical More important-Hopefully more importantly

Hopefully
Incidentally
Incredible-incredulous
Indifferent-in different
Indirect-in direct
Last-latest

Last-latest Said
Latter-last Same
Literally Scarcely

Someday-some day

Sometime-

sometimes-some time

Sure-surely This here Unique Up Verbal Very Wise

Negatives

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.)

More than-over

Reluctant-reticent

Real-really

Only

We can sit by and do nothing.

We can not 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 "Jim 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.

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* so as to avoid a double negative in the second clause.)

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 to repeat or intensify the first negative expression. This construction is not a double negative.

No, I did not say that.

He would never, never do a thing like that.

That's a no-no.

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 an additional negative expression, such as nor, neither . . . nor, no, none, no one, or nothing. Instead, use the corresponding positive expression, such as or, either . . . or, any, anyone, or anything.

I have *not* invited *anyone*. (**wrong**: I have *not* invited *no one*.)

She does *not* want *any*. (**wrong**: She does *not* want *none*.)

Mary did not have anything to do. (wrong: Mary did not have nothing to do.)

I cannot find either the letter or the envelope. (wrong: 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. (**wrong:** 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.

I see *nothing* wrong with *either* proposal. (**Not:** neither proposal.)

Neither Martha Gutowski *nor* Yvonne Christopher *can* attend the meeting. (**Not:** cannot.)

c. The word *nor* may be used alone as a conjunction (see the second and third examples in ¶1075) or together with *neither*. Do not use *nor* in the same clause with any other negative; use *or* instead.

There are *neither* diskettes *nor* printer cartridges in the stockroom.

BUT: There are *no* diskettes *or* printer cartridges in the stockroom.

(NOT: There are no diskettes nor printer cartridges.)

There are *no* clear-cut rights *or* wrongs in the situation.

(NOT: There are no clear-cut rights nor wrongs in the situation.)

Francine has *not* called *or* written us for some time.

(**NOT**: Francine has *not* called *nor* written us for some time.)

Never try to argue or debate with Larry.

(NOT: Never try to argue nor debate with Larry.)

> For hardly, only, and scarcely, which have a negative meaning, see the appropriate entries in \$1101.

Prepositions

Words Requiring Certain Prepositions

1077 Usage requires that certain words be followed by certain prepositions. Some of the most frequently used combinations are given in the following list.

account for something or someone: I find it hard to account for his behavior. account to someone: You will have to account to Anne for the loss of the key. 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 in 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.

arque 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 copies do not conform to the originals.

consists in (exists in): Happiness largely consists in wanting what you have, not having what you want.

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 transportation facilities in the area. **correspond to** (agree with): The shipment does not *correspond to* the sample.

correspond with (exchange letters with): 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 had.

differ with (someone): I differ with you over the consequences of our plan.

different from: This product is *different from* the one I normally use.

different than: I view the matter in a *different* way *than* 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 or to: This \$180 suit is identical with (or to) one advertised for \$235 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 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 page 283 for a usage note on all of.)

Where is she [at]? Where did that paper go [to]? She could not help [from] laughing. His office is opposite [to] hers.

Your chair is too near [to] your terminal.

The carton apparently fell off [of] the truck.

Why don't we meet at about one o'clock? (Omit either at or about.) The new applicant seems to be [of] about sixteen years of age.

The strike is now over [with].

We need to focus [in] on ways to boost sales.

I'm not [for] sure that I can go with you to Rome.

Necessary Prepositions

1079 Conversely, do not omit essential prepositions.

I need to buy a couple of books.

Of what use is this gadget?

We don't stock that type of filter.

Jo will graduate from Yale next spring.

(NOT: I need to buy a couple books.)

(NOT: What use is this gadget?

(NOT: We don't stock that type filter.)

(NOT: Jo will graduate Yale next spring.)

What time will your plane arrive at Kennedy? (**NoT:** What time will your plane arrive Kennedy?)

You have a great interest in, as well as a deep respect for, fine antiques.

(NOT: You have a great interest, as well as a deep respect for, fine antiques.)

She frequently appears in movies, in plays, and on television.

(NOT: She frequently appears 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 a. Ending a sentence with a preposition is not incorrect. Whether you do so or not should depend on the emphasis and effect you want to achieve.

INFORMAL: I wish I knew which magazine her article appeared *in*. **FORMAL:** I wish I knew *in which* magazine her article appeared.

b. Trying to avoid ending a sentence with a preposition may lead to very awkward results.

STILTED: It is difficult to know *about* what you are thinking. **NATURAL:** It is difficult to know what you are thinking *about*.

c. Short questions and statements frequently end with prepositions.

How many can I count *on?*What is this good *for?*Where did he come *from?*Where did he come *from?*He has nothing to worry *about.*What is this good *for?*Whe need tools to work *with.*That's something we must look *into.*That's the car I want to look *at.*

d. Some sentences end with what seem like prepositions but are really adverbs.

I'm sure another job will soon turn up.

After Scott considers his alternatives, I'm sure he'll come around.

NOTE: Many people are familiar with Sir Winston Churchill's complaint to an editor who tried to discourage him from ending his sentences with prepositions:

This is the sort of English up with which I will not put.

At the other extreme is a sentence that probably takes the prize for piling the greatest number of prepositions at the end. It is the complaint of a small child who does not want to listen to a particular bedtime story:

What did you bring that book I don't want to be read to out of in for?

Both these examples reinforce the main point:

Use good sense in deciding whether or not to end a sentence with a preposition.

BETTER THAN: Use good sense in deciding whether or not to use a preposition to end a sentence with.

Troublesome Prepositions

> See the individual entries that are listed alphabetically in Section 11 for the following prepositions:

At about	In-into-in to	Off
Beside-besides	In regards to	On-onto-on to
Between-among	Indifferent-in different	On-upon-up on
Due to-because of-on account of	Indirect-in direct	Opposite
Except	Like-as, as if	Per-a
From-off	Of-have	Toward-towards

> For the treatment of words that can function as both prepositions and adverbs, see \$\pi \pi 802, 1070. For the capitalization of such words, see \$\pi 361c-d\$.

Sentence Structure

Parallel Structure

1081 Express parallel ideas in parallel form.

a. Adjectives should be paralleled by adjectives, nouns by nouns, dependent clauses by dependent clauses, and so on.

WRONG: Your new sales training program was *stimulating* and a *challenge*. (Adjective and noun.)

RIGHT: Your new sales training program was stimulating and challenging. (Two adjectives.)

WRONG: The sales representatives have already started using the new techniques and to produce higher sales. (Participial phrase and infinitive phrase.)

RIGHT: The sales representatives have already started using the new techniques and producing higher sales. (Two participial phrases.)

RIGHT: The sales representatives have already started to use the new techniques and produce higher sales. (Two infinitive phrases.)

WRONG: This scanner is *easy* to operate, *efficient*, and *it is relatively inexpensive*. (Two adjectives and a clause.)

RIGHT: This scanner is easy to operate, efficient, and relatively inexpensive. (Three adjectives.)

NOTE: Parallelism is especially important in displayed enumerations.

POOR: This article will discuss:

1. How to deal with corporate politics.

2. Coping with stressful situations.

3. What the role of the manager should be in the community.

BETTER: This article will discuss:

1. Ways to deal with corporate politics.

2. Techniques of coping with stressful situations.

3. The role of the manager in the community.

OR: This article will tell managers how to:

1. Deal with corporate politics.

2. Cope with stressful situations.

3. Function in the community.

b. Correlative conjunctions (both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, not only . . . but also, whether . . . or, etc.) should be followed by elements in parallel form.

WRONG: We are flying both to Chicago and <u>San Francisco</u>. **RIGHT:** We are flying to both <u>Chicago</u> and <u>San Francisco</u>. **RIGHT:** We are flying both to <u>Chicago</u> and <u>to San Francisco</u>.

WRONG: He would neither apologize nor would he promise to reform.

RIGHT: He would neither *apologize* nor *promise to reform*. **RIGHT:** He would not apologize, nor would he promise to reform.

WRONG: Dwayne is not only gifted as a violinist but also as a music critic. **RIGHT:** Dwayne is gifted not only as a violinist but also as a music critic.

NOTE: When using the correlative conjunction *not only* . . . *but also*, you do not have to place *also* immediately after *but*; in fact, *also* may be omitted altogether.

Dwayne is not only <u>a sensitive musician</u> but <u>a music critic</u> who is sensitive to the gifts of other musicians.

Dangling Constructions

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: Stashed away in the attic for the past hundred years, the *owner* of the painting has decided to auction it off. (Who was stashed in the attic: the owner or the painting?)

RIGHT: The owner of the painting that has been stashed away in the attic for the past hundred years has decided to auction it off.

WRONG: After coming out of a coma, the *police officer* asked the driver what caused the accident. (As worded, this version suggests that the police officer had been in a coma.)

RIGHT: After the driver came out of a coma, the police officer asked her what caused the accident.

WRONG: Having studied your cost estimates, a few *questions* occur to me about your original assumptions. (As worded, this version implies that the *questions* have studied the cost estimates.)

RIGHT: Having studied your cost estimates, I would like to ask you a few questions about your original assumptions. (In the correct version, the person who studied the cost estimates is now the subject of the sentence and is the one asking the questions.)

WRONG: Putting the issue of costs aside, production delays need to be discussed. **RIGHT:** Putting the issue of costs aside, we need to discuss production delays.

NOTE: A few words ending in *ing* (such as *concerning, considering, pending*, and *regarding*) have now become established as prepositions. Therefore, when they introduce phrases at the start of a sentence, it is not essential that they refer to the subject of the sentence.

Considering how long the lawsuit has dragged on, it might have been wiser not to sue.

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b. Infinitive Phrases

WRONG: To appreciate the full significance of Fox's latest letter, all the previous correspondence should be read.

RIGHT: To appreciate the full significance of Fox's latest letter, you should read all the previous correspondence.

WRONG: To obtain this free booklet, the enclosed coupon should be mailed at once.

RIGHT: To obtain this free booklet, mail the enclosed coupon at once.

c. Prepositional-Gerund Phrases

wrong: By installing a computerized temperature control system, a substantial saving in fuel costs was achieved.

RIGHT: By installing a computerized temperature control system, we achieved a substantial saving in fuel costs.

WRONG: In analyzing these specifications, several errors have been found.

RIGHT: 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 on these goods.

RIGHT: If these goods are ordered before May 1, a 5 percent discount . . .

WRONG: When four years old, my family moved to Omaha. **RIGHT:** When I was four years old, my family moved to Omaha.

e. Absolute Phrases

Absolute phrases (typically involving participles) are not considered to "dangle," even though they come at the beginning of a sentence and do not refer to the subject.

Strictly speaking, what you did was not illegal-but it wasn't right.

All things considered, Phyllis's plan may be the best way to proceed.

Weather permitting, the graduation ceremonies will be held in the quadrangle.

Speaking of weird performances, what did you think of George's presentation?

Judging by the response to our last ad campaign, our chances of meeting our sales goal this year are nil.

Avoid using absolute phrases when they produce awkward sentences.

AWKWARD: The speeches having been concluded, we proceeded to vote.

BETTER: After the speeches were concluded, we proceeded to vote.

1083 When verbal phrases and elliptical clauses fall elsewhere in the sentence, look out for illogical or confusing relationships. Adjust the wording as necessary.

WRONG: I saw two truck drivers get into a fistfight while jogging down the street.

RIGHT: While jogging down the street, I saw two truck drivers get into a fistfight.

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*.)

RIGHT: We think that as head of the program committee you should make immediate arrangements for another speaker.

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WRONG: As a young boy, the woman I was destined to marry did not appeal to me in any way. (That woman never was a "young boy.")

RIGHT: When I was a young boy, the woman I was destined to marry did not appeal to me in any way.

WRONG: You voted for change. As your next governor, you will get change. (The voters are not going to be the next governor.)

RIGHT: You voted for change. As your next governor, I will see to it that you get change!

1085 A verbal phrase will dangle at the end of a sentence if it refers to the meaning of the main clause as a whole rather than to the doer of the action.

WRONG: Our sales have been steadily declining for the past six months, thus creating a sharp drop in profits. (As worded, the sentence makes it appear that our sales, by themselves, have created the drop in profits. Actually, it is *the fact* that our sales have been declining which has created the drop in profits.)

RIGHT: The steady decline in our sales for the past six months has created a sharp drop in profits.

RIGHT: Our sales have been steadily declining for the past six months. As a result, we have experienced a sharp drop in profits.

Misplaced Modifiers

Watch out for misplaced modifiers (either words or phrases) that provide the basis for unintended (and sometimes humorous) interpretations.

WRONG: I suspect that my assistant accidentally dropped the report I had been drafting in the wastebasket. (What an uncomfortable location in which to draft a report!)

RIGHT: The report I had been drafting has disappeared. I suspect that my assistant accidentally dropped it in the wastebasket.

WRONG: Here are some helpful suggestions for protecting your valuable possessions from our hotel security staff. (Can no one be trusted?)

RIGHT: Here are some helpful suggestions from our hotel security staff for protecting your valuable possessions.

WRONG: One of our assistant vice presidents has been referred to a personal finance counselor with serious credit problems. (Would you consult such a counselor?)

RIGHT: One of our assistant vice presidents has serious credit problems and has been referred to a personal finance counselor.

WRONG: Lincoln wrote the Gettysburg Address while traveling to Gettysburg on the back of an envelope.

RIGHT: Lincoln wrote the Gettysburg Address on the back of an envelope while traveling to Gettysburg.

1087 Squinting Modifiers

Watch out for *squinting modifiers*—modifiers placed in such a way that they can be interpreted as modifying either what precedes or what follows.

SQUINTING: Traveling abroad frequently can become exhausting. (Does *frequently* modify *Traveling abroad* or *can become exhausting?*)

CLEAR: Frequently traveling abroad (**or** Making frequent trips abroad) can become exhausting. **CLEAR:** Traveling abroad can *frequently* become exhausting.

> See also ¶¶1062e, 1072.

SECTION 11

Usage

A-An

A-Of

A Lot-Alot-Allot

Above

Accidentally

A.D.-B.C.

Additionally

Adverse-Averse

Affect-Effect

Afterward-Afterwards

Age-Aged-At the Age of

Ain't

All of

All Right

Almost-All Most

Already-All Ready

Altogether-All Together

Always-All Ways

Amount-Number

And

And Etc.

And/Or

Another

Anxious-Eager

Anymore-Any More

Anyone-Any One

Anytime-Any Time

Anyway-Any Way

Appraise-Apprise

Appreciate

As

As . . . as-Not so . . . as

As Far as

As Well as

At About

Awhile-A While

Backward—Backwards

Bad-Badly

Balance

Being That

Beside-Besides

Between-Among

Between You and Me

Biannual-Biennial-Semiannual

Biweekly-Bimonthly

Both-Each

Both Alike-Equal-Together

Bring-Take

But . . . However

But What

Cannot Help but

Come-Go

Come and

Compare to-Compare With

Complement-Compliment

Complementary-Complimentary

Comprise-Compose

Could Not Care Less

Data

Different-Differently

Different From-Different Than

Dilemma

Disc-Disk

Done

Don't (Do Not)

Doubt That-Doubt Whether

Due to-Because of-On Account of

Each-Either-Both

Each Other-One Another

Emeritus-Emerita

Ensure-Insure-Assure

Enthused Over

Entitled-Titled

Equally-As

-		1
		1
	2	

Kind of a

Last-Latest

Latter-Last

Etc.	Lay-Lie
Ethnic References	Learn-Teach
Everyday–Every Day	Leave-Let
Everyone-Every One	Like-As, As if
Ex-Former	Literally
Except	Look Forward to
Farther-Further	Majority-Plurality
Fewer-Less	May-Can (Might-Could)
First-Firstly, etc.	Maybe-May Be
Fiscal-Financial	Media
Flammable-Inflammable	More
Former-First	More Important-More Importantly
From-Off	More Than-Over
Fulsome	Most
Gender-Sex	Nobody–No Body
Good–Well	None-No One
Graduated-Was Graduated	Of-Have
Grow	Off
Had Better	On-Onto-On to
Hardly	On–Upon–Up on
Healthy–Healthful	Only
Help	Opposite
Historic-Historical	Per–A
Home-Hone	Percent-Percentage
Hopefully	Period Ended-Period Ending
However	Plus
If-Whether	Principle-Principal
Imply-Infer	Rack-Wrack
In–Into–In to	Raise-Rise
In Regards to	Real–Really
Incidentally	Reason Is Because
Incredible–Incredulous	Reluctant-Reticent
Indifferent—In Different	Retroactive to
Indirect-In Direct	Said
Individual-Party-Person-People	Same
Irregardless	Scarcely
Is Where–Is When	Serve-Service
Its-It's	Set-Sit
Kind	Shall-Will
Kind of–Sort of	Should-Would

So-So That

Someday-Some Day

Someone-Some One

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Sometime-Sometimes-Some Time Up
Supposed to Used to
Sure-Surely Verbal
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Sure and
Tack-Tact

Tack-Tact Vicious Circle

Than-Then Ways
That Whate

That Whatever-What Ever
That-Which-Who Where-That
These Sort-These Kind Who-Which-That

Toward-Towards Who-Whom

Try and Whoever–Who Ever
Type–Key Wise

Unique Would Have

1101 The following entries will help you avoid a number of common mistakes in usage.

A-an. In choosing a or an, consider the sound (not the spelling) of the word that follows. Use the article a before all *consonant* sounds, including sounded h (as in hat), long u (as in use), and o with the sound of w (as in one).

a day	a unit	a one-week delay
a week	a union	a 60-day note
a year	a uniform	a CPA
a home	a youthful spirit	a B.A. degree
a house	a euphoric feeling	a PSAT score
a hotel	a European trip	a UN resolution

Use an before all vowel sounds except long u and before words starting with silent h.

	1 0	
an asset	an heir	an AT&T product
an essay	an hour	an EPA ruling
an eyesore	an honor	an FTC ruling
an input	an honest man	an IRS audit
an outcome	an 8-hour day	an OPEC price cut
an umbrella	an 80-year-old man	an ROI objective
an upsurge	an 11 a.m. meeting	an X-ray reading

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.

Continued on page 282

> For a list of words that are frequently misused because they sound alike or look alike, see ¶719. For definitions of grammatical terms, see the appropriate entries in the Glossary of Grammatical Terms (Appendix A).

NOTE: When you are dealing with an abbreviation, the choice of a or an will depend on whether you pronounce the expression letter by letter or as a word. Abbreviations pronounced letter by letter are called *initialisms*; abbreviations pronounced as words are called *acronyms*. (See also \$501b.)

Pronounced Letter by Letter	Pronounced as a Word
an FBI agent	a FICA tax increase
an HMO physician	a HUD project
an L.Abased firm	a LIFO method of inventory valuation
an M.B.A. degree	a MADD fund-raising drive
an NBC news report	a NATO strategy
an R.S.V.P.	a RICO investigation
an SRO performance	a SWAT team

A-of. Do not use a in place of of.

What sort of turnout did you have at your seminar?
(NOT: What sort a turnout did you have at your seminar?)
The weather has been kind of cool for this time of year.

(NOT: The weather has been kinda cool for this time of year.)

A lot-alot-allot. The phrase *a lot* (meaning "to a considerable quantity or extent") always consists of two words. Do not spell this phrase as one word (*alot*).

Thanks a lot (NOT alot) for all your help on this year's budget.

Do not confuse this phrase with the verb *allot* (meaning "to distribute or assign a share of something").

You will have to allot a portion of next year's budget to cover unforeseen expenses, even though you are not likely to have a lot of money left over after you cover your basic operations.

> See Kind of-sort of and Kind of a.

A-per. See Per-a.

Above. Avoid the use of above before a noun.

in the paragraph above $\mathbf{o}\mathbf{r}$ in the preceding paragraph

(RATHER THAN: in the above paragraph)

Accidentally. Note that this word ends in ally. (The form accidently is incorrect.)

A.D.-B.C. A.D. (abbreviation of *anno Domini*, Latin for "in the year of our Lord") and B.C. ("before Christ") are usually written in all-capital letters, with a period following each letter and with no internal space. Do not use a comma to separate B.C. or A.D. from the year.

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150 B.C. 465 A.D. (ordinary usage) in the first century B.C. A.D. 465 (formal usage)
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You may also type A.D. and B.C. in small caps (A.D., B.C.) if you have that option.

NOTE: In works of history and theology, the term A.D. is often replaced by the abbreviation C.E. (meaning "in the Common Era"); B.C. is replaced by B.C.E. (meaning "before the Common Era").

Additionally. Avoid the use of additionally as a transitional expression. Use in addition, moreover, furthermore, or besides instead. (See ¶138a.)

AWKWARD: Additionally, the new packaging will reduce costs by 20 percent. BETTER: Moreover, the new packaging will reduce costs by 20 percent.

Adverse-averse. Adverse means "unfavorable, harmful, hostile." Averse means "opposed (to), having a feeling of distaste (for)."

This research report will have an adverse (unfavorable) effect on our sales.

The medication you are taking could have adverse (harmful) side effects.

I am not averse (opposed) to working on weekends for the next month.

I am averse (opposed) to exercise in any form.

BUT: I have adverse (hostile) feelings about exercise in any form.

Affect-effect. Affect is normally used as 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* (change) the established legal precedent. She *affects* (assumes) an unsophisticated manner.

It is essential that we effect (bring about) an immediate improvement in sales.

It will be months before we can assess the full effect (result) of the new law.

NOTE: In psychology, affect is used as a noun meaning "feeling, emotion," and the related adjective affective means "emotional." Because of the limited context in which these terms are likely to be used with these meanings, it should be easy to distinguish them from effect as a noun and the related adjective effective.

We need to analyze the effects (results) of this new marketing strategy.

We need to analyze the affects (emotions) produced by this conflict.

Which technique is effective (capable of producing the desired results)?

Let's deal with the affective (emotional) factors first.

Afterward-afterwards. Both forms are correct, but *afterward* is more common in U.S. usage.

Age-aged-at the age of

I interviewed a man aged 52 for the job. (NOT: a man age 52.)

I don't plan to retire at the age of 65. (NOT: at age 65.)

NOTE: Elliptical references to age—for example, at age 65—should not be used except in technical writing such as human resources manuals.

See the chart on page 64 for the schedule of retirement benefits for employees who retire at age 65.

Ain't. Ain't has long been considered nonstandard usage, but it is acceptable in certain idiomatic expressions.

Making that many mistakes in one document ain't easy.

Two thousand dollars for a thirty-minute speech? That ain't hay!

You ain't seen nothin' yet.

If it ain't broke, don't fix it. (If it isn't broken is grammatically correct, but it lacks the punch of the original.)

All of. Of is not needed after all unless the following word is a pronoun serving as the object of the preposition of.

All my plans have gone up in smoke.

All the staff members belong to the softball team.

(ALSO: All of the staff members belong to the softball team.)

BUT: All of us belong to the softball team.

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All right. Like *all wrong*, the expression *all right* should be spelled as two words. (While some dictionaries list *alright* without comment, 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) in the binder I sent you.

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-between. 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 inquiries."

Monday's ad generated a large number of phone calls. (NOT: a large amount.)

Monday's ad generated a large amount of interest.

And. Retain *and* before the last item in a series, even when that last item consists of two words joined by *and*.

We need to increase our expense budgets for advertising, staff training, and research and development.

(**Not:** We need to increase our expense budgets for advertising, staff training, research and development.)

Beginning a sentence with *and* or some other coordinating conjunction (but, or, or nor) can be an effective means—if not overused—of giving special attention to the thought that follows the conjunction. No comma should follow the conjunction at the start of a new sentence unless a parenthetical element occurs at that point.

Last Friday George promised to submit the market analysis this Monday. *And* then he took off on a two-week vacation.

Tell him to return to the office at once. Or else.

BUT: George just called from Lake Tahoe to say that the report was undergoing some last-minute changes and would be on my desk by 11 a.m. *And,* to my delight, it was!

NOTE: Each of the sentences above illustrates how this device can be effectively used. However, these sentences also illustrate, when taken as a whole, how quickly the overuse of this device dissipates its effectiveness.

And etc. Never use and before etc. (See Etc.)

And/or. Avoid this legalistic term in ordinary writing.

Another. Although *another* is often used colloquially as a synonym for *additional*, avoid this usage in formal writing.

FORMAL: I have four copies left, but I will need an additional ten copies.

INFORMAL: . . . but I will need another ten copies.

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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.

Anymore-any more

We used to vacation in Bermuda, but we don't go there anymore (any longer).

Please call me if you have any more (any additional) suggestions.

Anyone-any one. See ¶1010, note.

Anytime-any time

Come see us *anytime* you are in town. (One word meaning "whenever.")

Did you have dealings with Crosby at *any time* in the past? (Two words after a preposition such as *at*.)

Can you spend any time (any amount of time) with Jill and me when you next come to Tulsa?

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.

I will keep you apprised of the reactions of the board members to your proposal.

(NOT: I will keep you appraised of the reactions of the board members to your proposal.)

Appreciate. When used with the meaning "to be thankful for," the verb appreciate requires an object.

NOT: We would appreciate if you could give us your decision by May 1.

BUT: We would appreciate it if you could give us your decision by May 1. (Pronoun as object.)

OR: We would appreciate your (**NOT** you) giving us your decision by May 1. (Noun clause as object. See $\P647b$ on the use of your before giving.)

We will always appreciate the help you gave us. (Noun as object.)

I will appreciate whatever you can do for us. (Noun clause as object.)

As. Do not use as for that or whether.

I do not know whether (NOT as) I can go.

Use because, since, or for rather than as in clauses of reason.

I cannot attend the meeting in Omaha, because (**NOT** as) I will be out on the West Coast that day.

As-as if-like. See Like-as, as if.

As . . . as—not so . . . as. The term as . . . as is 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.)

NOTE: Do not replace the second as with than.

In our family twice as much money is spent on entertainment as on food.

(NOT: In our family twice as much money is spent on entertainment than on food.)

As far as. As far as may be used as a preposition or as a subordinating conjunction.

I can drive you as far as Spokane. (Used as a preposition.)

I would recommend this template as far as format is concerned. (Used as a subordinating conjunction.)

BUT NOT: I would recommend this template as far as format. (Either create a clause following as far as, as in the example above, or change as far as to on the basis of or a similar expression: I would recommend this template on the basis of format.)

As well as. When using as well as, be on guard against the possibility of misleading your reader.

CONFUSING: Ms. Paglia plans to meet with Mr. Pierce and Mrs. Hamer as well as Ms. Fieno. (Is Ms. Paglia planning to meet with three people, or are Ms. Paglia and Ms. Fieno both planning to meet with two people?)

CLEAR: Ms. Paglia plans to meet *with* Mr. Pierce and Mrs. Hamer as well as *with* Ms. Fieno. (Repeating the preposition *with* makes it clear that Ms. Paglia will meet with three people.)

CLEAR: Ms. Paglia *as well as Ms. Fieno* plans to meet with Mr. Pierce and Mrs. Hamer. (Rearranging the word order makes it clear that both Ms. Paglia and Ms. Fieno will meet with two people. Note that an *as well as* phrase following the subject, *Ms. Paglia*, does not affect the number of the verb. See ¶1007.)

Assure. See *Ensure-insure-assure*.

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.)

Averse-adverse. See Adverse-averse.

Awhile-a while. The one-word form is an adverb; the two-word form is a noun.

You may have to wait awhile. (Adverb.)

You may have to wait for a while. (Noun; object of the preposition for.)

I ran into him a while back.

Backward-backwards. Both forms are correct, but *backward* is more common in U.S. usage; for example, "to lean over *backward*."

Bad-badly. Use the adjective bad (not the adverb badly) after the verb feel or look. (See 1067.)

I feel bad (NOT badly) about the mistake.

BUT: He was hurt badly.

NOTE: The only way you can "feel badly" is to have your fingertips removed first.

Balance. Do not use *balance* to mean "rest" or "remainder" except in a financial or accounting sense.

I plan to use the rest of my vacation time next February.

(NOT: I plan to use the balance of my vacation time next February.)

BUT: The balance of the loan falls due at the end of this quarter.

B.C.-A.D. See A.D.-B.C.

Because. See Reason is because.

Because of. See *Due to-because of-on account of.*

Being that. Do not use being that for since or because.

Because I arrived late, I could not get a seat.

(NOT: Being that I arrived late, I could not get a seat.)

Beside-besides

I sat *beside* (next to) Mr. Parrish's father at the meeting. *Besides* (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 bubble sheets between the plates.

The memo says something different when you read between the lines.

Between you, me, and the gatepost, we don't stand a chance of making budget.

Between you and me (NOT I). See ¶1055b.

Biannual-biennial-semiannual. Biannual and semiannual both mean "occurring twice a year." Biennial means "occurring every two years." Because of the possible confusion between biannual and biennial, use semiannual when you want to describe something that occurs twice a year.

PREFERRED: our *semiannual* sales conference **CLEARER THAN:** our *biannual* sales conference

If you think that your reader could misconstrue *biennial*, avoid the term and use *every two years* instead.

Within our global organization each national company holds its own sales conference on a semiannual basis (OR semiannually); an international sales conference is scheduled on a biennial basis (OR biennially OR every two years).

Biweekly-bimonthly. These two words do not mean the same thing. Moreover, bimonthly has two quite different meanings, which could confuse your readers.

If you are paid biweekly (every two weeks), you get 26 checks a year.

If you are paid bimonthly (twice a month), you get only 24 checks a year.

OR: If you are paid bimonthly (every two months), you get only 6 checks a year.

NOTE: To keep your meaning clear, avoid bimonthly and say "twice a month" or "every two months." You may also use semimonthly to mean "twice a month."

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.

Each sister complained about the other.

(NOT: Both sisters complained about the other.)

NOTE: Use each in cases where both leads to confusion or ambiguity.

CONFUSING: There are two statues on *both* sides of the entrance hall. (Is there a total of two statues or four?)

CLEAR: There are two statues on each side of the entrance hall.

OR: There is a statue on each side of the entrance hall.

> See Each-either-both.

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Both alike-equal-together. Both is unnecessary when used with alike, equal, or together.

These laser printers are alike. (NOT: both alike.)

These tape systems are equal in cost. (**NOT**: both equal.)

We will travel together to Japan. (NOT: both travel together.)

Bring-take. Bring indicates motion toward the speaker. Take indicates motion away from the speaker.

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.

I do not doubt that (NOT but what) he will be elected.

Can-could. See May-can (might-could).

Cannot help but. This expression is a confusion of two others, namely, *can but* and *cannot help*.

I can but try. (BETTER: I can only try.)

I cannot help feeling sorry for her. (NOT: I cannot help but feel sorry for her.)

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 manager speaking over the phone to an outsider: Will it be convenient for you to come to our office tomorrow?

NOTE: When discussing your travel plans with a person at your destination, adopt that person's point of view and use *come*.

An outsider speaking over the phone to a manager: Will it be convenient for me to come to your office tomorrow?

Midwesterner to Californian: I am coming to California during the week of the 11th. I will bring the plans with me if they are ready.

However, if you are discussing your travel plans with someone who is *not* at your destination, observe the regular distinction between *come* and *go*.

An outsider speaking to an outsider: I hope it will be convenient for me to go to their office tomorrow.

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.

FORMAL: Come to see me.

INFORMAL: Come and see me.

Compare to-compare with. See ¶1077.

Complement-compliment. Complement as a noun means "something that completes" or "one of two mutually completing parts"; as a verb it means "to complete, to be complementary to." Compliment as a noun means "an admiring or flattering remark"; as a verb it means "to praise, to pay a compliment to."

A simple dessert of berries and sherbet makes a fine *complement* to an elaborate meal with several rich courses.

The CEO was full of compliments for your sales presentation yesterday.

Complementary–complimentary. Complementary means "serving to complete" or "mutually supplying what each other lacks." Complimentary means "flattering" or "given free."

Our top two executives work so well as a team because they bring *complementary* skills and expertise to their jobs.

The CEO had many complimentary things to say about your sales presentation.

May I get a complimentary copy of your new book?

Comprise—compose. Comprise means "to include, contain, consist of"; compose means "to make up." The parts compose (make up) the whole; the whole comprises (includes) the parts; the whole is composed of (nor is comprised of) the parts.

The parent corporation comprises (consists of) three major divisions.

Three major divisions compose (make up) the parent corporation.

Do not use comprise in the passive.

The parent corporation *is composed of* (is made up of) three major divisions. (**NOT:** The parent corporation *is comprised of* three major divisions.)

Could not care less. To say that you "could not care less" means that you do not care at all. To say that you "could care less" implies that your ability to care has not yet reached rock bottom. If the first meaning is the one you wish to communicate, do not omit *not*.

Couldn't-hardly. See Hardly.

Data. See ¶1018b.

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. (See ¶1077.)

After linking verbs and verbs of the senses, the adjective different is correct. (See ¶1067.)

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.

Dilemma. A dilemma is a situation in which one must make a choice between two or more unpleasant alternatives. Do not use dilemma as a synonym for problem or predicament.

Many communities now face a common dilemma: raise taxes or cut services.

Many communities now face a common problem: how to provide adequate shelter for the homeless.

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Disc-disk. Disc is the customary spelling in terms such as compact disc, laser disc, optical disc,* videodisc, and disc jockey. Disk is the customary spelling in terms such as disk drive, disk space, disk directory, disk operating system, floppy disk, hard disk, and diskette.

Done. Do not say "I done it." Say "I did it." (See also ¶1032b.)

Don't (do not). Do not use don't with he, she, or it; use doesn't.

He doesn't talk easily.

She needs help, doesn't she?

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 adjective 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 to 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-either-both. Use *each* in cases where *either* or *both* leads to confusion or ambiguity. (See also *Both-each*.)

confusing: The landscaper has planted two gingko trees on *either* side of the driveway. (A total of two trees or four trees?)

confusing: The landscaper has planted two gingko trees on *both* sides of the driveway. (Again, a total of two trees or four trees?)

CLEAR: The landscaper has planted two gingko trees (**OR** one gingko tree) on *each* side of the driveway.

Each other-one another. Use *each other* to refer to two persons or things and *one another* for more than *two*.

Al and Ed respected each other's abilities.

The four winners congratulated one another.

Eager-anxious. See *Anxious-eager*.

Effect-affect. See Affect-effect.

Either-each-both. See *Each-either-both*.

Emeritus—emerita. The terms *emeritus* (m.) and *emerita* (f.) are honorary designations used mainly with academic titles to signify that the holders of those titles are now retired from active service. These terms usually follow the title (for example,

^{*}Merriam-Webster shows optical disk, but the form optical disc (which appears in other dictionaries) is more consistent with the spelling of compact disc, laser disc, and videodisc.

Paul Shea, professor emeritus; Jean Lovett, professor emerita). However, when a title is long, emeritus or emerita may precede the title for smoother reading (for example, Denton Fox, emeritus professor of Asian studies or Denton Fox, professor emeritus of Asian studies). Capitalize these honorary titles when they appear before a person's name (for example, Professor Emeritus Hugh Benz; Dean Emerita Ann Cory).

Ensure—insure—assure. Ensure means "to make certain." Insure means "to protect against loss." Assure means "to give someone confidence"; the object of this verb should always refer to a person.

I want to ensure (make certain) that nothing can go wrong tomorrow.

I want to insure this necklace (protect it against loss) for \$5000.

I want to assure you (give you confidence) that nothing will go wrong.

Enthused over. Use was or were enthusiastic about instead.

The sales staff was enthusiastic about next year's styles.

(NOT: The sales staff enthused over next year's styles.)

Entitled-titled. The primary meaning of entitled is "having a right to."

After a year you will be entitled to two weeks of vacation time.

It is now generally acceptable to say that a book or a similar item is *entitled* in a certain way.

The book I plan to write about my attempts to survive marriage and five children will be *entitled* (**or** *titled*) Looking Out for Number Seven.

Equal. See Both alike-equal-together.

Equally-as. Use either *equally* or *as* but not both words together.

This printer is the latest model, but that one is equally good.

OR: This printer is the latest model, but that one is just as good.

(BUT NOT: This printer is the latest model, but that one is equally as good.)

I would pick Pam for that job, but Joe is equally capable.

OR: I would pick Pam for that job, but Joe is every bit as capable.

(BUT NOT: I would pick Pam for that job, but Joe is equally as capable.)

Etc. This abbreviation stands for *et cetera* and means "and other things." Therefore, do not use *and* before *etc.* Use a comma before and after *etc.* (unless the expression falls at the end of a sentence or requires a stronger mark of punctuation, such as a semicolon). 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 an equivalent expression at the end of a series introduced by *such as, for example,* or *e.g.* Such terms imply 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 communication, grammar and style, and so on.

OR: . . . the company offers courses *such* as report writing, business communication, and grammar and style.

(BUT NOT: . . . the company offers courses such as report writing, business communication, grammar and style, and so on.)

> For the use or omission of a comma before such as, see \$\pi \pi 148-149.

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Ethnic references. When identifying U.S. citizens or residents as members of a certain ethnic group, use great care in choosing an appropriate term. There is often a good deal of disagreement within the group about which terms are acceptable and which are offensive, so always respect individual preferences if you know what they are. (See ¶348.)

a. Use African Americans or Afro-Americans to refer to black people of African ancestry. The terms Negroes and colored people are rarely used today except in the names of long-established organizations (for example, the United Negro College Fund and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People). Use the term blacks only in a context where you might also refer to whites. Use a term like African Americans (which reflects ethnic ancestry rather than skin color) in a context where you are also referring to other ethnic groups such as Latinos.

the votes of Latinos and African Americans

(RATHER THAN: the votes of Latinos and blacks)

b. Use *Hispanics* to refer broadly to people who trace their roots to Latin America or Spain. Use *Latinos* to refer to people of Latin-American ancestry (that is, from Central or South America). The term *Chicanos* may be used to refer to people of Mexican ancestry; however, since some members of this group consider the term offensive, a safer alternative is *Mexican Americans*.

Within the groups designated *Hispanic*, *Latino*, or *Chicano*, some people are white and some black. Therefore, do not use these terms in the same context with *white* or *black*.

the buying patterns of Hispanics and African Americans

(RATHER THAN: the buying patterns of Hispanics and blacks)

NOTE: The terms Latinos and Chicanos refer either to groups of men or to mixed groups of men and women. When referring to groups of women, use Latinas or Chicanas.

c. The terms *Anglo-Americans* and *Anglos* are used in some parts of the United States to refer to white people who have an English-speaking background.

Are there significant differences in the consumer preferences of Latinos, African Americans, and Anglos? (Note that all three groups are identified here by ethnic ancestry and not by color.) Ideally, the term whites should be used only in a context where you might also refer to blacks. However, in the absence of a more widely accepted term than Anglos or Anglo-Americans, use whites even though other groups are identified by ethnic ancestry in the same context.

Are there significant differences in the consumer preferences of Latinos, African Americans, and whites?

- **d.** Use Asian Americans to refer to people of South and East Asian ancestry. When appropriate, use a more specific term—for example, Japanese American or Korean American. When referring to people who live in Asia, use Asians (rather than Asiatics or Orientals, which many now consider offensive).
- **e.** The term *Native American* is now the preferred way to refer to American Indians. Although some members of this group still refer to themselves as *Indians*, use the term *Indians* to refer only to people who live in India.

- f. The term *people of color* refers broadly to people who trace their roots to non-European countries—for example, African Americans, Native Americans, and Asian Americans.
- g. Many ethnic references consist of two words, the second of which is American. Do not hyphenate terms like an African American, a German American, or a Chinese American when they are used as nouns, because the first element in each case modifies the second. Hyphenate such terms, however, when they are used as adjectives: African-American entrepreneurs, a German-American social club, Chinese-American restaurants. Also hyphenate such terms when the first element is a prefix; for example, Afro-Americans, Anglo-Americans.

NOTE: The term *hyphenated American* refers to an earlier stylistic practice of hyphenating nouns like *Polish Americans* and *Swedish Americans*. This term has fallen into disfavor because of the implication that hyphenated Americans are not fully American.

Everyday-every day

You'll soon master the *everyday* (ordinary) 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. (See also ¶1055b.)

Everyone has been notified except Jean and me. (NOT: except Jean and I.)

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 was farther (in actual distance) than we expected.

Let's plan to discuss the proposal further (to a greater extent).

Fewer-less. Fewer refers to 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 we expected.

Less effort (a smaller degree) was put forth by the organizers, and thus fewer people (a smaller number) attended.

The expression *less than* (rather than *fewer than*) precedes plural nouns referring to periods of time, distance, amounts of money, and quantities.

less than ten years ago

less than six miles away

less than \$1 million

less than 20 pounds

FORMAL: fewer than 60 people COLLOQUIAL: less than 60 people

The expression or less (rather than or fewer) is used after a reference to a number of items.

in 100 words or less in groups of six people or less

Note the difference in meaning in the following pair of examples:

In the future our company may hire fewer skilled workers (a smaller number of workers who are skilled).

In the future our company may hire less skilled workers (workers with a lower level of skill).

> See also the usage note on more on page 300.

First-firstly, etc. In enumerations, use the forms *first, second, third* (**NOT** firstly, secondly, thirdly).

Fiscal-financial. The adjective *fiscal* (as in *fiscal year* or *FY*) can be used to refer to all types of financial matters—those of governments and private businesses. However, with the exception of *fiscal year*, it is better to use *fiscal* only in connection with government matters and to use *financial* in all other situations.

Flammable-inflammable. Both terms mean "easily ignitable, highly combustible." However, since some readers may misinterpret *inflammable* to mean "nonflammable," *flammable* is the clearer form.

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 item is available in wool and in Dacron, but I prefer the former.

This item is available 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).

Fulsome. Do not use *fulsome* to mean "lavish" or "profuse." As commonly used, *fulsome* has the negative sense of "excessive." For example, *fulsome praise* is praise so excessive as to be offensive.

Further-farther. See Farther-further.

Gender-sex. Use *gender* to refer to social or cultural characteristics of males and females; use *sex* to refer to biological characteristics.

The results of the lab tests have been broken down according to the age and sex of the participants in the study.

See Chart 2-5 for an analysis of Presidential voting patterns on the basis of gender.

Go-come. See Come-go.

Good-well. *Good* is an adjective. *Well* is typically used as an adverb but may be used as an adjective to refer to the state of someone's health.

Marie got good grades in school. (Adjective.)

I will do the job as well as I can. (Adverb.)

NOTE: To feel well means "to be in good health." To feel good means "to be in good spirits."

He admits he does not feel well today. (Adjective.)

The security guards feel *good* about their new contract. (Adjective.)

Graduated-was graduated. Both forms are acceptable. However, use from after either expression.

My daughter graduated from (OR was graduated from) MIT last year.

(NOT: My daughter graduated MIT last year.)

Grow. Avoid the use of *grow* as a transitive verb.

make the economy grow OR improve economic growth (RATHER THAN grow the economy)

Had better. This idiomatic phrase means ought to or must. While had is often omitted in speech, be sure to retain it in written material.

You had better (or You'd better) be sure of your facts.

(NOT: You better be sure of your facts.)

Hardly. Hardly is negative in meaning. To preserve the negative meaning, do not use another negative with it.

You could hardly expect him to agree.

(NOT: You couldn't hardly expect him to agree.)

Have-of. See Of-have.

Healthy-healthful. People are healthy; a climate or food is healthful.

You need to move to a healthful (NOT healthy) climate.

Help. Do not use *from* after the verb *help*.

I couldn't help (NOT help from) telling her she was wrong.

Historic-historical. Historic means "important" or "momentous." Historical means "relating to the past."

The Fourth of July commemorates a historic event-the adoption of the Declaration of Independence in 1776.

The following article provides a historical account of the events leading up to the adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

> For a usage note on a historic occasion vs. an historic occasion, see A-an.

Home-hone. One homes in (nor hones in) on a target. Hone means "to sharpen something"—for example, an axe or one's professional skills.

Hopefully. Although the subject of much controversy, the use of hopefully at the beginning of a sentence is no different from the use of obviously, certainly, fortunately, actually, apparently, and similar words functioning as independent comments (see ¶138b). These adverbs express the writer's attitude toward what he or she is about to say; as such they modify the meaning of the sentence as a whole rather than a particular word.

Hopefully, the worst is over and we will soon see a strong upturn in sales and profits.

However. Beginning a sentence with *however* is now considered perfectly acceptable. However (like other transitional expressions, such as therefore and moreover) helps readers relate the thought being introduced to the thoughts that went before. Many readers find it more helpful if they encounter the transitional expression at the beginning of the sentence. In that way they can tell from the start the direction in which the new sentence is proceeding. Compare these examples:

When you are addressing a request to someone who reports to you, you expect that person to comply. A period can be properly used, *therefore*, to punctuate such requests. Since most people prefer to be asked to do something rather than be told to do it, *however*, a question mark establishes a nicer tone and often gets better results.

When you are addressing a request to someone who reports to you, you expect that person to comply. *Therefore*, a period can properly be used to punctuate such requests. *However*, since most people prefer to be asked to do something rather than be told to do it, a question mark establishes a nicer tone and often gets better results.

In any case, the location of a transitional expression in a sentence must be determined by the individual writer. (For a list of transitional expressions, see ¶138a.)

> For the entry But . . . however, see page 288.

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 (suggested) that we would not be invited.

Infer means "to assume, to deduce, to arrive at a conclusion"; you infer something from *another person's* words or actions.

I inferred (assumed) 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 *came in; to* is part of the infinitive *to see.*)

Failing to distinguish carefully between *into* and *in to* can create humorous confusion.

The fugitives turned themselves in to FBI agents.

(NOT: The fugitives turned themselves into FBI agents.)

In regards to. Substitute in regard to, with regard to, regarding, or as regards.

I am writing in regard to (NOT in regards to) your letter of May 1.

Incidentally. Note that this word ends in ally. Never spell it incidently.

Incredible-incredulous.

I thought their advertising claims were *incredible* (hard to believe). I was *incredulous* (skeptical) when I read their advertising claims.

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.

Individual-party-person-people. Use *individual* to refer to someone whom you wish to distinguish from a larger group of people.

We wish to honor those *individuals* who had the courage to speak out at a time when popular opinion was defending the status quo.

Use party only to refer to someone involved in a legal proceeding.

All the parties to the original agreement must sign the attached amendment.

Use person to refer to a human being in all other contexts.

Please tell me the name of the person in charge of your credit department.

If reference is made to more than one person, the term *people* usually sounds more natural than the plural form *persons*. In any event, always use *people* when referring to a large group.

If you like, I can send you a list of all the *people* in our corporation who will be attending this year's national convention.

Infer. See Imply-infer.

Inflammable-flammable. See Flammable-inflammable.

Insure. See Ensure-insure-assure.

Irregardless. Use regardless.

Is where-is when. Do not use these phrases to introduce definitions.

A dilemma is a situation in which you have to choose between equally unsatisfactory alternatives.

(NOT: A dilemma is where you have to choose between equally unsatisfactory alternatives.)

However, these phrases may be correctly used in other situations.

The Ritz-Carlton is where the dinner-dance will be held this year.

Two o'clock is when the meeting is scheduled to begin.

Its-it's. See ¶1056e.

Key-type. See Type-key.

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. These phrases are sometimes followed by an *adjective* (for example, *kind of sorry, sort of baffled*). Use this kind of expression only in informal writing. In more formal situations, use *rather* or *somewhat* (rather sorry, somewhat baffled).

I was somewhat (NOT kind of, sort of) surprised.

She seemed rather (**NOT** kind of, sort of) tired.

NOTE: When *kind of* or *sort of* is followed by a *noun*, the expression is appropriate in all kinds of situations.

What sort of business is Vern Forbes in? What

What kind of expression is that?

> See A-of and Kind of a.

Kind of a. The a is unnecessary.

That kind of (**NOT** kind of a) material is very expensive.

Last-latest. Last means "after all others"; latest means "most recent."

Mr. Lin's last act before leaving was to recommend Ms. Roth's promotion.

Attached is the latest report we have received from the Southern Region.

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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.

June, 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." This verb requires an object to complete its meaning.

Please lay the boxes on the pallets with extreme care.

I laid the message right on your desk.

I had laid two other notes there yesterday.

He is always laying the blame on his assistants. (Putting 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 on his desk.")

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" does not 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" does not 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.

(**NOT**: I was learned by 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, letting) means "to permit or allow." TEST: In deciding whether to use let or leave, substitute 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.)

Less-fewer. See Fewer-less.

Lie-lay. See Lay-lie.

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, as if, or a similar expression in written material.

We need to hire another person like you.

Kate. like her predecessor, will have to cope with the problem.

As I told you earlier, we will not reorder for six months.

(NOT: Like I told you earlier, we will not reorder for six months.)

It looks like snow.

It looks as if it will snow.

(NOT: It looks like it will snow.)

Mary looks like her mother.

Mary looks as her mother did at the same age.

OR: Mary looks the way her mother did at the same age.

(BUT NOT: Mary looks like her mother did at the same age.)

COLLOQUIAL USAGE: Ann Richards, former Governor of Texas, made this observation on the role of women in today's society: "Like we say in Texas, the roosters may crow but the hens deliver the goods."

Literally. This adverb means "actually, truly." Do not use it in the sense of "almost" to modify a reference to an exaggerated or unreal situation.

NOT: When Jensen got the bill for all the "minor changes" made at the last minute, he literally hit the ceiling. (Omit the word literally or change it to almost unless Jensen actually exploded out of his chair and hit the ceiling headfirst.)

Look forward to. In this phrase to is a preposition and should be followed by a gerund (a verbal noun ending in ing) or some other type of noun. Do not mistake to in this phrase for the start of an infinitive to be followed by a verb.

I look forward to meeting you next Friday. (Meeting is a gerund, serving as the object of the preposition to.)

OR: I look forward to our meeting next Friday. (Meeting here is an ordinary noun, serving as the object of the preposition to.)

BUT NOT: I look forward to meet you next Friday. (Do not use an infinitive after look forward.)

Majority-plurality. A majority means "more than half the total." A plurality means "more than the next highest number (but not more than half)."

Edna Welling received a majority of the votes in her district. (She received more than 50 percent of the total votes cast.)

Victor Soros won the election by a plurality. (He received 43 percent of the total votes cast; his two opponents received 31 percent and 26 percent respectively.)

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 *might* be true. (Possibility.)

Can he present a workable plan? (Has he the ability?)

The CEO could change this policy if he wanted to. (Power.)

Please call me if you think I can be of any help. (Emphasizes the ability to help.)

Please call me if you think I may be of any help. (Emphasizes the possibility of helping.)

NOTE: When it is important to maintain sequence of tenses, use *may* to express the present and *might* to express the past. (See ¶1047.)

I think (present) that I may go to Australia next winter.

I thought (past) that I might go to Australia next winter.

Under certain circumstances may and might convey different meanings. Consider the following examples:

The CFO's reorganization plan *may have saved* the company from bankruptcy. (Other factors may also have contributed to the outcome, but the company is still a going concern.)

The CFO's reorganization plan *might have saved* the company from bankruptcy. (However, the CFO's plan was not implemented, and the company did fail.)

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 give them a 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.

NOTE: Under special circumstances *media* may be considered a singular noun. (See ¶1018c.)

More. In some sentences it may not be clear whether *more* is being used to form the comparative degree of an adjective (for example, *more experienced*) or is being used as an adjective meaning "a greater number of." In such cases reword to avoid confusion.

CONFUSING: We need to hire more experienced workers. (A greater number of experienced workers? Or workers who are more experienced than those now on staff?)

CLEAR: We need to hire a greater number of experienced workers.

CLEAR: We need to hire workers who are more experienced.

> See also a usage note on fewer-less on pages 293-294.

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.)

More than-over. Either *more than* or *over* may be used before numbers, but *more than* is preferable in formal writing.

Our fall catalog brought in more than \$400,000 in sales.

How could you lose over \$80,000 in the stock market when it was going up?

In some situations—especially involving age—more than is not appropriate.

These provisions apply only to people over 50.

In all cases, choose the form that sounds more natural.

Most. Do not use most for almost.

Almost all the money is gone.

OR: Most of the money is gone.

(BUT NOT: Most all of the money is gone.)

¶1101

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. (Spell no body as two words when it is followed by of. See also ¶1010.)

None-no one. See ¶1013.

Not so . . . as. See As . . . as-not so . . . as.

Number. See Amount-number.

Of-a. See A-of.

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, and so forth.

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.)

Off-from. See *From-off*.

On-onto-on to

It's dangerous to drive on the shoulder. (On is a preposition that implies movement over.)

He lost control of the car and drove *onto* the sidewalk. (*Onto* is a preposition that implies movement toward and then over.)

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.)

Let's go on to the next problem, which runs on to the next page. (Go on and runs on are verb phrases followed by the preposition to.)

On-upon-up on

His statements were based *on* (**or** *upon*) experimental data. (*On* and *upon* are interchangeable.) Please follow *up* on the case. (*Up* is part of the verb phrase *follow up*; on is a preposition.)

On account of. See Due to-because of-on account of.

One another-each other. See Each other-one another.

Only. The adverb *only* can be negative in meaning. Therefore, do not use another negative with it unless you want a positive meaning. (See 1072.)

I use this letterhead *only* for formal matters. (I do not use this letterhead for anything else.) **BUT:** I do not use this letterhead *only* for formal matters. (I use it for other things too.)

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 no preposition at all.

Her opinion is opposite to (or from) mine. She lives opposite the school.

Over-more than. See More than-over.

Party. See Individual-party-person-people.

Per-a. Per, a Latin word, is often used to mean "by the," as in 28 miles per gallon (mpg) or 55 miles per hour (mph). Whenever possible, substitute a or an; for example, at the rate of \$8 an hour, 75 cents a liter. Per must be retained, of course, in Latin phrases—for example, per diem (by the day) or per capita (for each person; literally, by the head).

NOTE: 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.)

Percent-percentage. In ordinary usage, percent should always be accompanied by a number; for example, 20 percent, 0.5 percent, 150 percent. In a table, a column of figures representing percentages may be headed Percent of Total or something comparable. In all other cases, use the term percentage.

A large percentage of the calls we got yesterday came from customers who misread our ad. (${\tt NOT:}$ A large percent of the calls . . .)

What percentage of our subscribers are in the 30-49 age group? (See ¶1025.)

NOTE: In the percentage formula used in mathematics (base × rate = amount), the rate is called a *percent* and the amount is called a *percentage*. Thus you might be asked to calculate the *percentage* when a sales tax of 6 percent (the rate) is applied to a purchase of \$50 (the base). By the same token, you might be asked to calculate the percent (the rate) if you know that a tax of \$5 (the amount, or percentage) has been paid on an order of \$200. Apart from this special context, *percent* and *percentage* should be used as noted above.

Period ended-period ending. When referring to a period of time that is already in the past, write *period ended*. When the period in question has not yet ended, write *period ending*.

Enclosed are the sales figures for the *period ended* June 30. (It is now July.)

Here are my sales projections for the *period ending* December 31. (It is only September.)

Person-people. See Individual-party-person-people.

Plurality-majority. See Majority-plurality.

Plus. Plus can be correctly used as a noun, an adjective, or a preposition. However, do not use it as a conjunction (with the sense of "and").

Your presence at the hearing was a real *plus* for our cause. (*Plus* used correctly as a noun.)
The decision to offer a 10 percent discount on all orders received by June 1 was a *plus* factor in the campaign. (*Plus* used correctly as an adjective.)

Your willingness to innovate *plus* your patient perspective on profits has permitted this company to grow at an astonishing rate. (*Plus* used correctly as a preposition. Note that a *plus* phrase following the subject of a sentence does not affect the number of the verb. See ¶1007.)

BUT NOT: You have always been willing to innovate, *plus* you have been patient about the profits to be derived from the innovations. (Do not use *plus* as a conjunction; use *and* instead.)

Principle—**principal.** The word *principle* can be used only as a noun. It can mean "a basic law or rule" (a key principle of economics) or "faithful adherence to a code of ethics" (a person of principle). The derivative adjective principled also refers to adherence to an ethical code (a principled politician).

The word *principal* can serve as a noun or an adjective. As a noun, it may refer to a business owner or a partner (a principal in the firm), the head of a school (appointed principal of Edison Middle School), or to a sum of invested money (receiving an excellent return on my principal). As an adjective, principal means "the most important" (my principal reason for quitting, the principal parts of a verb).

Rack-wrack. The words *rack* and *wrack* have been used interchangeably so often in certain contexts that some authorities now regard *wrack* as a spelling variant of *rack*. However, careful writers will want to respect the traditional distinction in usage.

to rack one's brains a nerve-racking encounter to be racked with pain a storm-wracked island

a business *wracked* by heavy losses let the property go to *wrack* and ruin

¶1101

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.

One taste will tell you these cookies were made with real butter. (Adjective.)

We were really expecting a lower price from you this year. (Adverb.)

BUT: It was very OR really nice (NOT real nice) to see you and your family again.

Reason is because. Replace because with that.

The reason for such low sales is that (NOT because) prices are too high.

Reluctant-reticent. Reluctant means "disinclined," "unwilling," or "hesitant." Reticent means "inclined to be silent." Although some dictionaries now show reticent as a synonym for reluctant, careful writers and speakers will avoid this usage.

I am reluctant (NOT reticent) to agree to these changes in the contract.

Phil is reticent when you ask what he thought of the CEO's speech.

Retroactive to. After retroactive use to (not from).

These improvements in benefits under the company dental plan will be *retroactive to* July 1. (See also $\P 1077$.)

Rise-raise. See Raise-rise.

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 same to refer to a previously mentioned thing.

We are now processing your order and will have it ready for you Monday.

(NOT: We are now processing your order and will have same ready \dots)

Scarcely. The adverb *scarcely* is negative in meaning. To preserve the negative meaning, do not use another negative with it. (See ¶1072 for the placement of *scarcely*.)

I scarcely recognized (NOT didn't scarcely recognize) you.

Semiannual. See Biannual-biennial-semiannual.

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 dropped my wallet when I set my suitcase 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.

Allow a full hour for the mixture to set.

Sit (principal parts: sit, sat, sat, sitting) 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.

Sex-gender. See Gender-sex.

Shall-will. The helping verb *shall* has largely given way to the verb *will* in all but the most formal writing and speech. 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.

/ (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 (or 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.)

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 preceding entry) 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. **FORMAL:** I should 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.

Time and again 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.

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 delay your decision, I could offer you more attractive terms.

Sit-set. See Set-sit.

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 ¶179.)

Please finish what you are doing so that we can all go home.

Someday-some day

Please set up a meeting with Al and Jerry *someday* (on an unspecified day) next week. **BUT:** Please set up a meeting with Al and Jerry *for some day* next week. (Two words when used as the object of a preposition such as *for*.)

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 (a long time ago).

NOTE: Spell some time as two words when the term follows a preposition.

We will be happy to reconsider your proposal at some time in the future.

I've been thinking about retiring for some time.

Sort. See Kind.

Sort of-kind of. See Kind of-sort of.

Such as . . . etc. See Etc.

Supposed to. Be sure to spell *supposed* with a *d*.

Under the circumstances what was I supposed to think? (NOT: suppose to.)

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 written material use sure to in place of the colloquial sure and.

Be sure to give them my best regards. (Not: Be sure and give them my best regards.)

Tack-tact. Use *tack* (**NOT** tact) in the expression *to take a different tack* (meaning "to move in a different direction"). *Tact* means "a considerate way of behaving so as to avoid offending others."

We may have to take a different tack in our negotiations with Firebridge.

Please use a great deal of tact when you reply to Korbman's letter.

Take-bring. See Bring-take.

Teach-learn. See Learn-teach.

Than-then. Than is a conjunction introducing a dependent clause of comparison. Then is an adverb meaning "at that time" or "next."

The compulsory retirement age is higher 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. As a subordinating conjunction, *that* links the dependent clause it introduces with the main clause. *That* is often omitted (but understood).

We realize that our bargaining position is not a strong one.

on: We realize our bargaining position is not a strong one.

However, under certain circumstances that should not be omitted:

a. When the word or phrase following *that* could be misread as the object of the verb in the main clause.

NOT: I heard your speech next Wednesday had to be rescheduled.

BUT: I heard that your speech next Wednesday had to be rescheduled.

b. When *that* introduces two or more parallel clauses.

NOT: Hilary said she had narrowed the applicants for the job down to three people and *that* she would announce her choice by this Friday.

BUT: Hilary said *that* she had narrowed the applicants for the job down to three people and *that* she would announce her choice by this Friday.

c. When an introductory or interrupting element comes between *that* and the subject of the dependent clause.

NOT: I think whenever possible, you should consult everyone involved before making your decision.

BUT: I think *that* whenever possible, you should consult everyone involved before making your decision. (See ¶130d.)

NOTE: If you are in doubt, do not omit that.

That-where. See Where-that.

That-which-who. See ¶1062.

These sort-these kind. Incorrect; the correct forms are this sort, this kind, these sorts, these kinds. (See also Kind.)

Titled-entitled. See Entitled-titled.

Together. See Both alike-equal-together.

Toward-towards. Both forms are correct but toward is more common in U.S. usage.

Try and. In written material use try to rather than the colloquial try and.

Please try to be here on time. (NOT: Please try and be here on time.)

Type. See Kind.

Type-key. The verb *type* has traditionally been used to refer to actions performed on a typewriter keyboard. The verb *key* was introduced to refer to actions performed on a computer keyboard. However, *type* has supplanted *key* in many software manuals and even appears in screen displays.

Unique. Do not use *unique* 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.

You need to rest (up) for a bit. Let's divide (up) the workload. Save \$50 if you join (up) now. I will call him (up) tomorrow.

Upon-up on. See On-upon-up on.

Used to. Be sure to spell used with a d.

We used to use Forsgate as our main supplier. (NOT: We use to use \ldots)

Verbal. The word *verbal* can often cause confusion because it means "expressed in words" as well as "oral, not written." Reword as necessary to make your meaning clear.

AMBIGUOUS: How would you rate Sid's verbal skills?

CLEAR: How would you rate Sid's ability to express himself in words?

CLEAR: How would you rate Sid's ability to express himself orally?

CLEAR: How would you rate Sid's ability to express himself in speech and writing?

Avoid expressions such as *verbal contracts* unless you are sure your audience knows that these are *oral agreements*.

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 was a very disappointing showing. (Modifying a present participle.)

I was very pleased with the pictures. (Modifying a descriptive past participle.)

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.)

(NOT: They are very opposed to your plan.)

Vicious circle. The correct form is vicious circle (**NOT** vicious cycle).

Ways. Do not use ways for way in referring to distance. For example, "I live a short way (not ways) from here."

Well-good. See Good-well.

Whatever-what ever.

You may write on *whatever* (any) topic you wish.

What ever made you think that was true? (Ever is an adverb here.)

Where-that. Do not use where in place of that.

I saw in yesterday's paper that Schuster's had decided to close its midtown store.

(NOT: I saw in yesterday's paper where Schuster's had decided to close its midtown store.)

Whether-if. See If-whether.

Who-which-that. See ¶1062.

Who-whom. See ¶1061.

Whoever-who ever

Whoever (anyone who) made such a statement should be fired. Who ever made such a statement? (Ever is an adverb here.)

Will-shall. See Shall-will.

Wise. Avoid the temptation to coin new words by attaching the suffix wise to various nouns. (Stylewise, it's considered bad form.)

NOT: Costwise, we're already 20 percent over budget.

BUT: We're already 20 percent over budget on costs.

NOT: Sizewise, what comes after extralarge? Gross? (Even when used in a conscious attempt at humor, the approach leaves much to be desired. Once again, avoid the temptation.)

BUT: In terms of size, what comes after extralarge? Gross?

NOTE: A number of words ending in wise are quite acceptable. For example:

clockwise crosswise lengthwise otherwise counterclockwise edgewise likewise sidewise

In the examples above, *wise* is a suffix meaning "with regard to" or "in the manner of." *Wise* (in the sense of "knowledgeable about") is also used in compound adjectives like these:

penny-wise

weather-wise

worldly-wise

streetwise

Such words are also quite acceptable.

Would-should. See Should-would.

Would have. Note that the second word in this verb phrase is *have.* (The form *would of* is wrong.)

I myself would have (NOT would of) taken a different tack.

In a clause beginning with if, do not use would have in place of had.

If you had come early, you could have talked with Dr. Fernandez yourself.

(NOT: If you would have come early, you could have talked with Dr. Fernandez yourself.)

Wrack-rack. See Rack-wrack.

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SECTION 12

Editing, Proofreading, and Filing

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Editing and Proofreading

In the traditional business world, editing and proofreading have been considered activities quite distinct from the act of composing (whether letters, reports, or some other documents). In this environment one person composes the document—either in the form of a written draft or in the form of dictated material on tape—and someone else assumes the responsibility for editing and proofreading the material and producing the final document. Although this separation of responsibilities still exists in many offices, only higher-level executives typically continue to enjoy this arrangement.

In the modern business world, the widespread use of computers has greatly affected the way in which documents are prepared and produced. Many people are now responsible both for composing and for producing the final document themselves. In this new environment editing and proofreading become fully integrated into the overall writing process.

Individuals approach the writing process in different ways. Some begin by planning what they want to say in the form of an outline (see ¶¶1722–1727). Then, on the basis of this outline, they compose a first draft of the document. Many other people find it difficult to plan and outline before they begin to write. For such people the first stage of writing is the means by which they discover what they are trying to say. They typically begin by jotting their thoughts down in random order, knowing that the result of this first effort may literally be a mess that needs to be cleaned up. People who are paralyzed by the sight of a blank screen or a blank sheet of paper find it comforting to begin the *serious* job of writing by looking at something already on the screen or on paper. (They may even find it helpful to pretend that someone else has created the mess that they are about to clean up.)

However writers arrive at a first draft—whether through careful planning and outlining or by means of a random outpouring of thoughts—they must now apply editing techniques to the writing process in order to determine (1) what material to add or leave out, (2) how to organize the material that remains, and (3) how to adjust the wording so as to achieve their objective. As they edit, they must also correct any problems they encounter in grammar, usage, and style. And as they go through one or more additional drafts, they must also apply proof-reading techniques to confirm that each draft accurately presents the material in the form that was intended. When writers proceed in this way, editing and proofreading become totally integrated in the writing process almost from the very beginning.

Whether you are working on material composed by someone else or you are responsible for all phases of the writing process, the following guidelines on editing and proofreading should help you achieve a higher level of quality in the documents you produce.

1201 The Editing and Proofreading Process

a. Proofreading is the process by which you look at copy that you or someone else has written and confirm that this version faithfully reproduces the original material in the intended form. If the copy deviates in any way from the original, you have to mark it for correction. Once the corrections are made, you have to read the copy again to ensure that everything is now as it should be.

NOTE: Ordinarily, one person can handle the task of comparing the copy against the original and noting any necessary corrections. However, if the material is

complex or involves many statistics or formulas, it is wise for two people to share the proofreading function: one (known as the copyholder) reads the original material aloud and also indicates the intended punctuation, capitalization, and paragraphing, as well as other significant details of style and format, while the other person (the proofreader) examines the copy closely to ensure that everything appears as it ought to.

- **b.** Editing is the process by which you look at material that you or someone else has written and evaluate it on its own terms (either in original form or at a later stage). You question the material on the grounds of accuracy, clarity, coherence, consistency, and effectiveness. If you have drafted the material yourself, you may have to revise it several times in order to resolve all the problems you find. If you encounter problems while editing material that someone else has written, you resolve the ones you are equipped and authorized to handle. You refer the other problems (with suggestions for changes when possible) to the author of the original material, who will then decide how to resolve these problems.
- c. If you encounter a set of figures as a proofreader, your responsibility—strictly speaking—is only to ensure that the figures on the copy agree with the corresponding figures in the original. However, as an editor, you may question whether the figures in the original are correct as given or even the best figures that might be supplied. By the same token, if you examine text material as a proofreader, your only responsibility is to confirm that the copy agrees with the original in wording, style, and format. However, as an editor, you might question—and change—the wording, the format, and the style in the interests of accuracy, clarity, coherence, consistency, and effectiveness.
- **d.** Many people often function simultaneously as editors and proofreaders without realizing that they are operating at two levels—one essentially mechanical (checking for similarities and differences) and the other essentially analytical and judgmental (looking for problems and solving them). Ideally, editing should be done on the original material so that all problems of substance, grammar, style, and format are resolved before a copy is executed in final form. However, it would be a mistake to read the final copy merely as a mechanical proofreader, assuming that the original is perfect and that you only need to look for places where the copy deviates from the original. On the chance that problems may have gone undetected in the earlier editing, you need to read the final copy in that challenging, questioning way that distinguishes editing from simple proofreading. You may be able to edit and proofread at the same time, or you may need to make several readings, focusing each time on different things. The following paragraphs (¶¶1202-1203) will suggest the kinds of things you should be looking for when you proofread and edit. As you review these suggestions, keep in mind that a sharp eye and sound judgment are essential elements in this process.

The easy availability of spell checkers and grammar checkers has lulled many a computer user into a complacent (and false) sense of security. While these are extremely useful tools, they will not detect many types of errors. You will still have to read with a keen eye when you proofread, and you will always have to exercise sound judgment when you edit.

1202 What to Look For When Proofreading

When proofreading a document, be especially watchful for the following types of mistakes.

a. Repeated words (or parts of words), especially at the end of one line and the beginning of the next.

What are the chances of your your coming to see us sometime this summer?

I have been awaiting some indiindication of a willingness to compromise.

I can help you in the event in the event you have more work than you can handle.

We are looking forward to the to the reception you are planning for the Lockwoods.

b. Substitutions and omissions, especially those that change the meaning.

Original Material

The courts have clearly ruled that this kind of transaction is now legal.

In my opinion, there is no reason to suspect Ered.

I hereby agree to pay you \$87.50 in full settlement of your claim.

Tom has probably reached the acme of his career.

When provoked, Gail has been known to turn violent.

All of Trent's actions reflect his strong, upright character.

We want our managers to live in the communities where our plants are located.

He is quite proud of his flat stomach.

The company needs a good turnaround strategy, but what that will be is still undetermined.

My son was ticketed yesterday for reckless driving.

I'll gladly give you the job if you'll do it in a week and if you'll reduce your price by \$200.

Erroneous Copy

The courts have clearly ruled that this kind of transaction is not legal.

In my opinion, there is reason to suspect Fred.

I hereby agree to pay you \$8750 in full settlement of your claim.

Tom has probably reached the acne of his career.

When provoked, Gail has been known to turn violet.

All of Trent's actions reflect his strong, uptight character.

We want our managers to lie in the communities where our plants are located.

He is quite proud of his fat stomach.

The company needs a good turnaround strategy, but what that will be is still undermined.

My son was ticketed yesterday for wreckless driving.

I'll gladly give you the job if you'll reduce your price by \$200.

c. Errors in copying key data.

	Original Material	Erroneous Copy
NAMES:	Katharine Ann Jorgensen	Katherine Anne Jorgenson
	Johns Hopkins University	John Hopkins University
TITLES:	Ms. Margaret A. Kelley	Mrs. Margaret A. Kelly
ADDRESSES:	1640 Vauxhall Road Union, NJ 07083	140 Vauxhall Road Union, NH 07803
DATES:	October 13, 2002	October 31, 2020
PHONE NOS.:	419-555-1551	418-555-1515
AMOUNTS OF MONEY:	\$83,454,000,000	\$38,454,000
DECIMALS:	sales fell 5.2 percent	sales fell 52 percent
CLOCK TIME:	arrive at 4:15 p.m.	arrive at 4:51 p.m.
PERIODS OF TIME:	boil for 2 minutes	boil for 20 minutes

NOTE: Proofread addresses carefully, especially place names. An error in a single keystroke could create confusion, especially when cities with the same names are located in different states. (See also ¶1340a.)

Aberdeen, MD	Aberdeen, MS	Brunswick, MD	Brunswick, ME
Auburn, ME	Auburn, NE	Canton, MI	Canton, MO
Berlin, NH	Berlin, NJ	China, ME	China, MI

d. Transpositions in letters, numbers, and words as well as other typographical errors.

Original Material	Erroneous Copy
I'll buy two boats this May.	I'll buy tow boats this May.
a process of trial and error	a process of trail and error
Paul is a leader in today's world of public relations.	Paul is a leader in toady's world of public relations.
We'll need 82 binders for the seminar beginning July 12.	We'll need 28 binders for the seminar beginning July 21.
How can we thank you for all your thoughtfulness?	How can we thank you all for your thoughtfulness?
Capitalize the first letter of each word.	Capitalize the first word of each letter.

e. Errors in spacing and inconsistencies in format (for example, indenting some paragraphs but not others, leaving too little or too much space between words or after punctuation, improperly aligning lines).

Original Material

Dear Mrs. Neilson:

Thank you for your letter of April 24. Let me try to answer each of the questions you raised.

First, we do not sell the components separately; they only come packaged as a set.

Erroneous Copy

Dear Mrs. Neilson:

Thankyou for your letter of April 24. Let me try to answer each of the questions you raised.

First, we do not sell the components separately; they only come pack aged as a set.

NOTE: As a final step in proofreading, check the appearance of the document. Is the document printed clearly? Are there any smudges or marks that need to be cleaned up? Does each page as a whole look attractive? Apply standards that are appropriate for the occasion. Documents prepared for higher management and for clients or customers of your organization should meet the highest standards of appearance. On the other hand, manuscripts, drafts, and even rush memos to coworkers can be sent forward with minor corrections neatly inserted by hand. Naturally, if you are using a computer, you can make the corrections and quickly obtain a clean (and correct) page. (See ¶1203–1204.)

1203 What to Look For When Editing

When *editing* a document at any stage in the writing process, consider the material in light of the following factors.

- > For an explanation of the proofreaders' marks used to indicate the necessary corrections in the following examples, see ¶1205.
- a. Check for errors in *spelling* (see Section 7). Give special attention to compound words (see Section 8) and those that have plural or possessive endings (see Section 6). When the material is in its final form, confirm the correctness of all word divisions. (See Section 9.)

We had a similiar break down in communications last May when a high=level executive failed to inform us that the corporations attornies had advised against it's proceding with merger negotions. However, that was only the tip of the icebyrg.

NOTE: Use a spell checker if you have one. However, since spell checkers are not infallible, keep an up-to-date dictionary at hand.

Continued on page 316

b. Make sure that every necessary mark of *punctuation* is correctly inserted. (See Sections 1 and 2.)

How do you account for the fact that whenever we are about to launch a new product the company cuts the marketing dollars we need to promote the product?

c. Inspect the material for possible errors in *capitalization*, *number*, and *abbreviation* style. (See Sections 3, 4, and 5.)

Please be sure to attend the Managers' meeting scheduled for june 4th at three p.m. There will be 5 announcements of special interest.

d. Correct any errors in grammar and usage. (See Sections 10 and 11.)

has fewer Everyone of the sales representatives have made less calls in the past six months then they did in the previous six-month period.

NOTE: Consult a grammar checker and an electronic thesaurus if your word processing software provides these features. The grammar checker will highlight many mistakes in grammar, and the thesaurus can help you find alternatives to a particular word that may not be appropriate in the document as it now stands. However, you will still have to exercise good judgment in identifying and correcting errors in grammar and usage.

e. Be on the lookout for *inconsistencies in the wording* of the document. If you are editing someone else's material, resolve any problems that you can and refer the rest to the author of the original material.

When I met with you, Harry Mills, and Paula Fierro on May 8, we agreed that . . . Ed: Wasn't Paula at the 5/8 meeting!

I think that you ought to fill Paula Fierro in on what happened at our May 8 meeting and get her thoughts about how we ought to proceed.

NOTE: Be especially alert to wording that conveys a meaning you did not intend.

BAD: We take pride in offering excellent food and service every day except Sunday. (Does this mean that on Sundays the food and service are perfectly dreadful?)

BETTER: We take pride in offering excellent food and service. We are open every day except Sunday.

BAD: To enjoy our specially priced pretheater menu, you must be seated by 6 p.m. Remember, the early bird gets the worm. (Does the menu offer anything more appetizing?)

BETTER: To enjoy our specially priced pretheater menu, you must be seated by 6 p.m. Please try to come earlier if you can.

- f. Also look out for inconsistencies in format. Make sure that comparable elements in the document (for example, text, titles, headings, displayed extracts, and numbered or bulleted lists) have been treated the same way in terms of typeface, type size, placement, and so on.
- g. Look for problems in *organization* and *writing style*. The material could be entirely correct in terms of grammar, style, and usage, and it could still contain unclear or repetitive wording, clumsy sentences, a weak organization, or a tone that is not appropriate for the occasion.
- h. Look at the document as a whole, and consider whether it is likely to accomplish its *objective*. If the document is intended to persuade readers to accept a recommendation that they currently tend to oppose, has the writer (you or someone else) anticipated their objections and dealt with them? Or has the writer ignored the existence of such objections and thereby created the need for a follow-up document—or, what is worse, made it likely that the readers' negative leanings will harden into a flat rejection of the writer's recommendations?

NOTE: If you are editing material you yourself have written, consider all the points noted in ¶1203a-h. However, if you are editing material written by someone else, the extent of your editing will depend on your experience and your relationship with the writer. If you are working for a literate boss, determine whether your boss has any special preferences with regard to matters of style. (What may look like an error to you could be an acceptable practice that you are not familiar with.) On the other hand, a boss who does not pretend to grasp the technical points of style will no doubt welcome your editing for such things as spelling, punctuation, capitalization, grammar, usage, and inconsistencies (see ¶1203a-f).

How much your boss—or anyone else for that matter—will appreciate your comments about the organization, writing style, and effectiveness of the material (see ¶1203g—h) will depend not only on your relationship with the writer but also on the tact with which you make your comments. Do not assume that because you have a close relationship with the writer, you can speak bluntly. Indeed, the closer the relationship, the more tact you may need to exercise.

1204 Editing and Proofreading at the Computer

The computer provides some wonderful enhancements to the editing process. You can insert new copy, kill old copy, rearrange copy as many times as you like, and then print a clean version without any evidence of all the foregoing changes. Yet in the process of all this electronic "cutting and pasting," you may have failed to remove every bit of the old version you rejected; you may have changed the subject of a sentence from singular to plural without realizing the effect this change would have on the verb; you may even have inserted new copy in the wrong place and thus unintentionally produced pure gibberish. It is imperative, therefore, that copy that has been rewritten and edited on a computer be carefully proofread. Try to catch and

PROOFREAD	ERS' MARK	DRAFT	FINAL COPY
ss□	Single-space SS	I have heard he is leaving.	I have heard he is leaving.
ds□	Double-space dS	When will you have a decision?	When will you have a decision?
+12#>	Insert 1 line space + L#	Percent of Change	Percent of Change
-1 2 #→	Delete (remove) 1 line space - L#	Northeastern	Northeastern regional sales
	Delete space	together	together
共	Insert space	Itmay be	It may not be
ර	Move as shown	it is not true	it is true
S	Transpose	beleivable	believable
		is/it so	it is so
0	Spell out	②years ago	two years ago
,		16 Elm St.	16 Elm Street
∧ or ∧	Insert a word	How much it?	How much is it?
9 or _	Delete a word or a punctuation mark	it may not be true. 9	it may be true
∧ or ∧	Insert a letter	temperture	temperature
3 or 7	Delete a letter and close up	committement to buyly	commitment to buy
0	Add on to a word	a real/good day	a really good day
9 or /	Change a letter	this supercedes	this supersedes
	Change a word	bute can't	but if you can't
••••	Stet (don't delete)	I was very glad	I was very glad
/	Lowercase a letter (make it a small letter)	dederal dovernment	federal government
	Capitalize	Janet L. greyston	Janet L. Greyston

correct as many errors as you can when reviewing copy on the screen. However, experienced users report that it is difficult to find every error when proofing on the screen, so give the printout a careful reading as well. In any case, edit the material carefully in light of all the factors noted in ¶1203.

To maximize the benefits from a computer and minimize the drawbacks, follow these guidelines.

a. If you are composing at the computer, be especially careful when reviewing your work. Experienced writers recognize that when they read what they have written, they have a tendency to see what they intended to write rather than what is actually there. That's why even good writers always need good editors.

PROOF	READERS' MARK	DRAFT	FINAL COPY
V	Raise above the line	in her new book2	in her new book ²
^	Drop below the line	12SO4	H ₂ SO ₄
0	Insert a period	MrOHenry Grenada	Mr. Henry Grenada
^	Insert a comma	a large, old house	a large, old hous
v	Insert an apostrophe	my childrens car	my children's car
* "	Insert quotation marks	he wants a loan	he wants a "loan"
=	Insert a hyphen	a first=rate job	a first-rate job
		ask the copwner	ask the co-owner
<u> </u>	Insert a one-em dash or change	Success_at last!	Success-at last!
М	a hyphen to a one-em dash*	Here it is cash!	Here it is—cash!
	Insert italics	Do it <u>now</u> , Bill!	Do it now, Bill!
noital	Delete italics	Do it now! no ital	Do it now!
~~~	Change to boldface	CONFIDENTIAL	CONFIDENTIAL
ano bf	Delete boldface	Ship by June 1 nobf	Ship by June 1
	Insert underline	an issue of <u>Time</u>	an issue of <u>Time</u>
<del>}                                    </del>	Delete underline	a very long day	a very long day
()	Insert parentheses	left today (May 3)	left today (May 3
Ф	Start a new paragraph	¶If that is so	If that is s
2	Indent 2 spaces	Net investment in tangible assets	Net investment in tangible assets
图	Indent 0.5 inch	As a general rule, leave a top margin	As a generarule, leave a top
コ	Move to the right	\$38,367,000	\$38,367,000
	Move to the left	Anyone can win!	Anyone can win!
שכ	Center	☐Table A-15[	Table A-15
=	Align horizontally	Bob Muller	TO: Bob Muller
1)	Align vertically	Jon Peters Ellen March	Jon Peters Ellen March
	e ¶217c for special proofrea em, and one-en dashes. See ¶		

b. If someone else will be editing your material and preparing the final document, you may be tempted to deliver the material (whether on disk or in some other electronic format) in rough, first-draft form and expect the other person to resolve any problems that remain in your material. However, you need to take full responsibility for the document, even though editorial assistance is provided.

NOTE: If you are delivering a rough draft along with specific instructions on how certain material should be handled, write the instructions in the margin and circle them so that they will not be confused with material to be inserted in the text.

- c. If you are typing material from hard copy, first edit it carefully. If someone else wrote the copy, then before you type it, get the writer's help in resolving any questions about content and style that you do not feel equipped or authorized to resolve yourself. By carefully editing this material prior to typing it, you greatly reduce the likelihood of undetected errors in the final document.
- **d.** If you are transcribing from recorded input, you may have to consider the first version you print as a draft that must be approved by the dictator.
- e. By the same token, if you receive input in the form of a disk or via a modem, you may want to give the person who originated the document a chance to review and alter the document before you undertake the final editing and proofreading.
- f. Before you print the material, run it through the spell checker and the grammar checker and make the necessary corrections. Also scan the material on the screen for any obvious mistakes (such as those noted in ¶¶1202 and 1203), and make the necessary changes. However, do not assume that no further editing or proofreading will be required. Spell checkers and grammar checkers are not infallible, and your earlier review of copy may not have detected every error.

NOTE: If you have transcribed from recorded dictation, you will have no original copy to proofread against. Moreover, in the act of transcribing, it is easy to misinterpret and mispunctuate words and phrases or to omit them altogether. Therefore, while you should try to identify and correct as many errors on the screen as you can, you need to recognize that the editing you have done at this stage is not likely to be sufficient.

g. After you print the material, examine it carefully for all types of errors as well as possible instances of inconsistency and incoherence. Make the necessary corrections, and then review the new material—first on the screen and then again on the final printout—to make sure you have not introduced any new errors.

#### 1205 Proofreaders' Marks

Whether you are editing or proofreading, use the proofreaders' marks shown on pages 318 and 319 to indicate the corrections that need to be made. Minor variations in the way these marks are formed are unimportant as long as the marks clearly indicate what corrections have to be made.

# **Rules for Alphabetic Filing**

There are three types of alphabetic filing: (1) letter by letter (in which spaces between words are disregarded); (2) word by word; and (3) unit by unit (in which every word, abbreviation, and initial is considered a separate unit). The Association of Records Managers and Administrators (ARMA) recommends the use of the unit-by-unit method.



The basic principles of the unit-by-unit method (see ¶¶1206-1208) and the more specific rules that follow (see ¶¶1209-1221) are consistent with the ARMA standards. However, many acceptable alternative rules and variations are currently in use. The important thing to remember is that the goal of any set of filing standards and rules is to establish a consistent method of sorting and storing materials so that you and others you work with can retrieve these materials quickly and easily. Therefore, it makes sense to modify or change the following rules as necessary to accommodate the specific needs of your office or organization. Make sure, however, that everyone with access to your files knows what the modifications are so that a consistent set of standards can be maintained.

> For guidelines on how to create a computerized file name, see ¶1371.

**IMPORTANT NOTE:** Before names can be placed in alphabetic order, they must be *indexed*; that is, each name must be broken down into units, and the units must be arranged in a certain sequence. Once indexing is completed, the names can be compared unit by unit and alphabetic order can then be established.

Each of the following rules is accompanied by a chart that shows names in two ways: the first column (headed *Name*) shows the full name in a *standard* format, that is, as it would appear in an inside address of a letter; the remaining group of columns (headed *Unit 1*, *Unit 2*, and so on) shows the name in an *indexed* format, arranged unit by unit in a sequence appropriate for alphabetizing. Note that the "inside address" format presents the names in capital and small letters, with punctuation as necessary. The indexed format presents the names in all-capital letters because for purposes of alphabetizing, the differences between capital and small letters should be ignored. Moreover, the indexed format ignores punctuation; it even ignores a space or a hyphen between parts of a name.

If you want to use a computer (1) to print names in alphabetic order and (2) to insert names in inside addresses as well as ordinary text, you may have to create two name fields—one using the standard format, the other using the indexed format—as shown in the following charts.

# Basic Principles 1206 Alphabetizing Unit by Unit

a. Alphabetize names by comparing the first units letter by letter.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
AlphaNumerics	ALPHANUMERICS		
Butterfield	BUTTERFIELD		
Eagleton	EAGLETON		
Eaton	EATON		
Eberhardt	EBERHARDT		
Eberhart	EBERHART		
ERGOnomics	ERGONOMICS		
Office Space Designers	OFFICE	SPACE	DESIGNERS
Offices Incorporated	OFFICES	INCORPORATED	
Official Stationers	<u>OFFICI</u> AL	STATIONERS	

^{*}Alphabetic Filing Rules, 2d ed., Association of Records Managers and Administrators, Inc., Prairie Village, Kansas, 1996.

**b.** Consider second units only when the first units are identical.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	
Foley Associates	FOLEY	ASSOCIATES	
Foley Enterprises	FOLEY	ENTERPRISES	
Foley Industries	FOLEY	INDUSTRIES	
Foley Mills	FOLEY	MILLS	

c. Consider additional units only when the first two units are identical.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Fox Hill Company	FOX	HILL	COMPANY	
Fox Hill Farm	FOX	HILL	FARM	
Fox Hill Farm				
Supplies	FOX	HILL	FARM	SUPPLIES
Fox Hill Incorporated	FOX	HILL	INCORPORATED	

NOTE: If two names are identical, they may be distinguished on the basis of geographical location. (See ¶1219.)

# **1207** Nothing Comes Before Something

a. A single letter comes before a name that begins with the same letter.

Name	Unit 1	
0	<u>0</u>	
Oasis	<u>OA</u> SIS	
Oberon	OBERON	

b. A name consisting of one word comes before a name that consists of the same word plus one or more other words.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
Operations	<b>OPERATIONS</b>		
Operations Management Consultants	OPERATIONS	MANAGEMENT	CONSULTANTS
Operations	OI LIVIIONO	IVIVIOLIVILIVI	CONSOLIMINIS
Technologies	OPERATIONS	TECHNOLOGIES	

c. A name consisting of two or more words comes before a name that consists of the same two or more words plus another word, and so on.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Oak Creek	OAK	CREEK		
Oak Creek Home Furnishings	OAK	CREEK	HOME	FURNISHINGS
Oak Creek Homes	OAK	CREEK	HOMES	

#### 1208 Deciding Which Name to Use

ARMA advocates filing "under the most commonly used name or title." This helpful principle provides the basis for choosing which name you should use for a person or an organization when alternatives exist. Select the form most likely to be used and then provide cross-references for the alternatives. In that way anyone who is searching for material under an alternative name will be referred to the primary name being used for filing purposes. (See ¶¶1212c, 1214e, 1215a, note, and 1216a, note, for specific instances in which this principle can be applied.)

#### **Personal Names**

#### 1209 Rule 1: Names of Persons

a. Treat each part of the name of a person as a separate unit, and consider the units in this order: last name, first name or initial, and any subsequent names or initials. Ignore any punctuation following or within an abbreviation.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Jacobs	<u>JACOBS</u>			
L. Jacobs	JACOBS	L		
L. Mitchell Jacobs	JACOBS	L	MITCHELL	
Stephen Jacobson	JACOBSON	STEPHEN		
Stephen Brent Jacobson	JACOBSON	STEPHEN	BRENT	
Steven O'K. Jacobson	JACOBSON	STEVEN	ок	
B. Jacoby	JACOBY	<u>B</u>		
B. T. Jacoby	JACOBY	В	T	
Bruce Jacoby	JACOBY	BRUCE		

b. When you are dealing with a foreign personal name and cannot distinguish the last name from the first name, consider each part of the name in the order in which it is written. Naturally, whenever you can make the distinction, consider the last name first.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
Kwong Kow Ng	<u>K</u> WONG	KOW	NG
Ng Kwong Cheung	NG	KWONG	CHEUNG
Philip K. Ng	NG	PHILIP	K

**c.** In a name like *María López y Quintana*, the last name consists of three separate words. For purposes of alphabetizing, treat these separate words as a single unit (for example, *LOPEZYQUINTANA*).

**NOTE:** If you are using a computer, insert a hard (or nonbreaking) space between the parts of a name such as *López y Quintana*. Then the last name will be sorted as though it were typed without spaces, but it will appear *with spaces* in an alphabetized list of names.

> For the treatment of hyphenated personal names, see ¶1211.

# 1210 Rule 2: Personal Names With Prefixes

a. Consider a prefix as part of the name, not as a separate unit. Ignore variations in spacing, punctuation, and capitalization in names that contain prefixes (for example, d', D', Da, de, De, Del, De la, Des, Di, Du, El, Fitz, L', La, Las, Le, Les, Lo, Los, M', Mac, Mc, Saint, San, Santa, Santo, St., Ste., Ten, Ter, Van, Van de, Van der, Von, and Von Der).

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
A. Serafino Delacruz	DELACRUZ	A	SERAFINO
Anna C. deLaCruz	DELACRUZ	ANNA	С
Michael B. DeLacruz	DELACRUZ	MICHAEL	В
Victor P. De La Cruz	DELACRUZ	<u>V</u> ICTOR	Р .
LaVerne F. Delano	<u>DELAN</u> O	LAVERNE	F
Angela G. D'Elia	<u>DELI</u> A	ANGELA	G
Pierre Des Trempes	<u>DES</u> TREMPES	PIERRE	
Brian K. De Voto	<u>DEV</u> OTO	BRIAN	K

NOTE: If you are using a computer, insert a hard (or nonbreaking) space between the parts of a name such as De La Cruz (shown above) or Mac Kay (shown below). Then the last name will be sorted as though it were typed without spaces, but it will appear with spaces in an alphabetized list of names.

**b.** Consider the prefixes M', Mac, and Mc exactly as they are spelled, but ignore the apostrophe in M'. Consider a name such as O'Keefe as one word, and ignore the apostrophe.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
Marilyn R. Mack	MACK	MARILYN	R
Irene J. MacKay	MACKAY	IRENE	J
Roy F. Mackay	MACKAY	ROY	F
Walter G. Mac Kay	MACKAY	WALTER	G ,
F. Timothy Madison	MADISON	F	TIMOTHY
Agnes U. M'Cauley	MCAULEY	AGNES	U
Patrick J. McKay	<u>MCK</u> AY	PATRICK	J
Andrew W. O'Hare	<u>O</u> HARE	ANDREW	W

c. Treat the prefixes Saint, San, Santa, Santo, St., and Ste. exactly as they are spelled.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	3
George V. Sahady	<u>SAH</u> ADY	GEORGE	V	
Kyle N. Saint Clair	SAINTCLAIR	KYLE	N	
Jeffrey T. Sakowitz	SAKOWITZ	JEFFREY	T	
Annette San Marco	<u>SANM</u> ARCO	ANNETTE		
Felix Santacroce	SANTACROCE	FELIX		
Peter St. Clair	STCLAIR	PETER		
O. M. Ste. Marie	<u>STE</u> MARIE	0	M	

**NOTE:** If you are using a computer, insert a hard (or nonbreaking) space between the parts of a name such as *Saint Clair* or *San Marco*. Then the last name will be sorted as though it were typed without a space, but it will appear with a space in the alphabetized list of names.

# **1211** Rule 3: Hyphenated Personal Names

Consider the hyphenated elements of a name as a single unit. Ignore the hyphen.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
S. T. Laverty-Powell	LAVERTYPOWELL	S	T
Victor Puentes-Ruiz	PUENTESRUIZ	VICTOR	
Jean V. Vigneau	VIGNEAU	JEAN	V
Jean-Marie Vigneau	VIGNEAU	<u>JEANM</u> ARIE	
Jean-Pierre Vigneau	VIGNEAU	<u>JEANP</u> IERRE	

# 1212 Rule 4: Abbreviated Personal Names, Nicknames, and Pseudonyms

**a.** Treat an abbreviated part of a name (such as *Wm*. for *William*) or a nickname (such as *Al* or *Kate*) exactly as it is written if that is how the person is known. Ignore any punctuation used with the abbreviation.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
Chas. E. Kassily	<u>K</u> ASSILY	CHAS	E
Benjy Larson	<u>LA</u> RSON	BENJY	
Bubbles Leaden	<u>LE</u> ADEN	BUBBLES	
Moose Maguire	<u>MAG</u> UIRE	MOOSE	
Peggy Sue Marker	MARKER	PEGGY	SUE
Tommy Rae Marker	MARKER	TOMMY	RAE
B. J. Purcell	PURCELL	В	J
J. R. Purcell	PURCELL	J	R

**b.** If a person is known by a nickname alone (without a surname) or by a pseudonym, consider each word in the nickname or pseudonym as a separate unit. If the name begins with *The*, treat *The* as the last unit.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
Big Al	<u>B</u> IG	AL	
D. J. Clue	<u>C</u> LUE	D	J
The Fat Lady	<u>F</u> AT	LADY	THE
Handy Joe Bob	<u>HAN</u> DY	JOE	вов
Harry the Horse	<u>HAR</u> RY	THE	HORSE
Heavy D	<u>HE</u> AVY	D	
Mad Man Marko	MAD	MAN	MARKO
Madonna	<u>MADO</u> NNA		
Mr. Bill (see ¶1213b)	MR	BILL	
Tiny Tim	TINY	TIM	

c. When you have to decide whether to file material under a person's formal name or under a nickname, pseudonym, or some abbreviated form, choose the form that you and others you work with are most likely to think of when you want to find that person's name. (See also ¶1208.)

NOTE: You should also enter the person's alternative name in the appropriate alphabetic sequence and make a cross-reference to the primary name you have selected. For example, suppose that Big Al (the primary name you have selected) is formally named Albert J. Degas. In the appropriate alphabetic sequence you would provide this entry: Degas, Albert J.: see Big Al.

#### 1213 Rule 5: Personal Names With Titles and Suffixes

a. A title (such as Dr., Major, Mayor, Miss, Mr., Mrs., or Ms.) may be used as the last filing unit in order to distinguish two or more names that are otherwise identical. Treat any abbreviated titles as written, but ignore any punctuation.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Dr. Leslie G. Mabry	MABRY	LESLIE	G	DR
Miss Leslie G. Mabry	MABRY	LESLIE	G	MISS
Mr. Leslie G. Mabry	MABRY	LESLIE	G	MR
Mrs. Leslie G. Mabry	MABRY	LESLIE	G	MRS
Ms. Leslie G. Mabry	MABRY	LESLIE	G	MS
Major Felix Novotny	NOVOTNY	FELIX	<u>MAJ</u> OR	
Mayor Felix Novotny	NOVOTNY	FELIX	<u>MAY</u> OR	
Senator Felix Novotny	NOVOTNY	FELIX	SENATOR	
Sergeant Felix Novotny	NOVOTNY	FELIX	<u>SER</u> GEANT	
Bishop David Oliver	OLIVER	DAVID	BISHOP	
Brother David Oliver	OLIVER	DAVID	BROTHER	

b. When a title is used with only one part of a person's name, treat the title as the first unit. (See ¶1208.)

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2
Dr. Ruth	<u>D</u> R	RUTH
Grandma Moses	<u>G</u> RANDMA	MOSES
King Hussein	<u>K</u> ING	HUSSEIN
Miss Manners	MISS	MANNERS
Mother Teresa	MOTHER	TERESA
Mr. Rogers	MR	ROGERS
Prince Andrew	PRINCE	ANDREW
Queen Elizabeth	QUEEN	ELIZABETH
Saint Elizabeth	SAINT*	ELIZABETH

^{*}Note that Saint as a title is considered a separate unit, whereas Saint as a prefix in a personal name is considered only part of a unit. (See ¶1210c for examples of Saint as a prefix.)

c. Ordinarily, alphabetize a married woman's name on the basis of her own first name. However, consider the title Mrs. (as abbreviated) if a woman uses her husband's name and you do not know her first name.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Mr. Fred Naylor	NAYLOR	FRED		
Mrs. Marie Naylor	NAYLOR	MARIE		
Mrs. June Y. Nearing	NEARING	JUNE	Υ	
Mr. Peter J. Nearing	NEARING	PETER	J	
Mr. Harry L. Norton	NORTON	HARRY	L	MR
Mrs. Harry L. Norton (whose own first name is unknown)	NORTON	HARRY	L	MRS

d. Consider a seniority term (such as Jr., Sr., 2d, 3d, II, or III), a professional or academic degree (such as CPA, M.D., or Ph.D.), or any other designation following a person's name in order to distinguish names that are otherwise identical. Numeric designations precede alphabetic designations. Moreover, arabic numerals precede roman numerals, and each set of numbers is sequenced in numeric order. When dealing with ordinal numbers such as 3d or 4th, ignore the endings.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
James R. Foster 2d	FOSTER	JAMES	R	2
James R. Foster 3d	FOSTER	JAMES	R	3
James R. Foster III	FOSTER	JAMES	R	111
James R. Foster IV	FOSTER	JAMES	R	IV
James R. Foster, CPA	FOSTER	JAMES	R	CPA
James R. Foster, D.D.	FOSTER	JAMES	R	DD
James R. Foster Jr.	FOSTER	JAMES	R	JR
James R. Foster, M.B.A.	FOSTER	JAMES	R	MBA
James R. Foster, M.D.	FOSTER	JAMES	R	MD
James R. Foster, Mr.	FOSTER	JAMES	R	MR
James R. Foster, Ph.D.	FOSTER	JAMES	R	PHD
James R. Foster, S.J.	FOSTER	JAMES	R	SJ
James R. Foster, Sr.	FOSTER	JAMES	R	SR

NOTE: If you are using a computer, all names in which the first significant unit consists of arabic numerals will be sequenced in numeric order and will precede all names with a comparable unit composed of letters of the alphabet (as shown in the chart above).

There is a problem, however, with roman numerals. Since roman numerals are written with letters of the alphabet, your software will consider them as letters (and not as numerals) and position them accordingly in an alphabetic sequence of names. Thus, if your software were sequencing the names shown in the preceding chart, the name ending with *D.D.* (for *Doctor of Divinity*) would be inserted before the name ending with *III*. To avoid this outcome, you will have to override the software and move the name ending with *D.D.* to the correct position (after *CPA*, as shown in the chart above).

### **Organizational Names**

### **1214** Rule 6: Names of Organizations

a. Treat each word in the name of an organization as a separate unit, and consider the units in the same order as they are written on the letterhead or some other authoritative document.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
American Data Control	AMERICAN	DATA	CONTROL
American Datacom	AMERICAN	<u>DATAC</u> OM	
Computer Enterprises	COMPUTER	<u>E</u> NTERPRISES	
Computer Systems	COMPUTER	<u>S</u> YSTEMS	
I Deal Cards	1	DEAL	CARDS
Ideal Printers	<u>ID</u> EAL	PRINTERS	

**b.** When alphabetizing, ignore all punctuation—for example, periods, commas, hyphens, apostrophes, and diagonals. When words are joined by a hyphen or a diagonal, treat the phrase as a single unit.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
Baskins Advertising Agency	BASKINS	<u>AD</u> VERTISING	AGENCY
Baskins' Artworks	BASKINS	<u>AR</u> TWORKS	
Baskin's Basket Shop	BASKINS	BASKET	SHOP
Baskin-Shaw Films	BASKINSHAW	<u>FI</u> LMS	
Baskin/Shaw Foods	BASKINSHAW	<u>FO</u> ODS	
Curtis Imports	<u>CURTIS</u>	IMPORTS	
Curtis's China Gallery	CURTISS	<u>CH</u> INA	GALLERY
Curtiss Couriers	CURTISS	COURIERS	
Curtis's Marina	CURTISS	<u>M</u> ARINA	
In-Service Trainers	INSERVICE	TRAINERS	
Oleander's Displays!	<u>OLEAN</u> DERS	DISPLAYS	
O'Leary's			
Camera Shop	<u>OLEAR</u> YS	CAMERA	SHOP
What's New?	<u>W</u> HATS	NEW	

c. Treat prepositions (such as of and in), conjunctions (such as and and or), and articles (the, a, and an) as separate units. When the, a, or an is the first word in a name, treat it as the last unit.

Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
<u>IN</u>	TOUCH	WITH	LIFE
<u>INP</u> LANT	CATERING		
<u>O</u> VER	THE	RAINBOW	GIFTS
PEN	AND	PENCIL	THE
PHOTOS	IN	Α	FLASH
TOUCH	OF	GLASS	Α
	IN INPLANT OVER PEN PHOTOS	IN TOUCH INPLANT CATERING OVER THE PEN AND PHOTOS IN	INTOUCHWITHINPLANTCATERINGOVERTHERAINBOWPENANDPENCILPHOTOSINA

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d. When a compound expression is written as one word or hyphenated, treat it as a single unit. If the compound expression is written with spaces, treat each element as a separate unit.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
Aero Space Systems	AERO	SPACE	SYSTEMS
Aerospace Research	AEROSPACE	RESEARCH	
Aero-Space Unlimited	AEROSPACE	<u>U</u> NLIMITED	
Foy Brothers Associates	FOY	BROTHERS	ASSOCIATES
Foy North-South Properties	FOY	NORTHSOUTH	PROPERTIES
Foy-Brothers Financial Planners	<u>FOYB</u> ROTHERS	FINANCIAL	PLANNERS
Pay Fone Systems	PAY	FONE	SYSTEMS
Paychex Incorporated	<u>PAYC</u> HEX	INCORPORATED	
Pay-O-Matic Company	<u>PAYO</u> MATIC	COMPANY	
South East Condos	SOUTH	EAST	CONDOS
Southeast Chemicals	SOUTHEAST	_CHEMICALS	
South-East Medical Labs	SOUTHEAST	MEDICAL	LABS
Southeastern Medical Supplies	<u>SOUTHEASTE</u> RN	MEDICAL	SUPPLIES

e. Although the words in an organizational name should normally be considered in the same order in which they are written, there are occasions when it makes good sense to allow exceptions to this rule. (See also ¶1208.) Suppose the name in question is *Hotel Plaza*. Strictly speaking, *Hotel* should be the first unit. However, if you and others are more likely to look for stored material in the P section of the files, choose *Plaza* as the first unit and *Hotel* as the second. On the other hand, suppose the name in question is *Motel* 6. Most people would look for material in the M section. Thus it would be best to treat this name exactly as written.

The formal name of a South Bend academic institution is the *University of Notre Dame*. Yet most people would not look for the name in the U section (as the formal rule suggests) but would turn instead to the Ns. However, for the *University of the South*, most people would turn to the U section rather than the S section.

**CAUTION:** When introducing exceptions to the basic rule for organizational names, be sure that these exceptions are supported by cross-references for the sake of those who may search the files for an alternative name. (See ¶1212c, note, for an example of a cross-reference.)

# 1215 Rule 7: Personal Names Within Organizational Names

**a.** When an organizational name includes a person's name, consider the parts of the personal name in the order in which they are written. Ignore any punctuation.

NOTE: A more traditional rule that is still widely followed requires that a person's name within an organizational name be considered in the same way as if the person's name stood alone—namely, last name first. (See ¶1209.) Regardless of

which approach you are following, there are specific situations in which it would be wise to make exceptions, depending on the way you (and others with access to your files) are likely to look the name up.

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Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Frank Balcom Construc-				
tion Company	FRANK	BALCOM	CONSTRUCTION	COMPANY
Frank Balcom, Jr.,				
Paving	FRANK	BALCOM	_JR	PAVING
M. Clausen Optical				
Supplies	M	CLAUSEN	OPTICAL	SUPPLIES
M. G. Clausen Autos	M	G	CLAUSEN	AUTOS
Mark Clausen Interiors	MARK	CLAUSEN	INTERIORS	
Mark G. Clausen Homes	MARK	G	CLAUSEN	HOMES
Mark G. Clausen Hotel	MARK	G	CLAUSEN	HOTEL
Mark G. Clausen Roofing	MARK	G	CLAUSEN	ROOFING

For example, even if you follow the ARMA standard for personal names in organizational names (first name first), you might want to make an exception for the *John F. Kennedy Presidential Library*, since most people would look for the file under the Ks rather than the Js. Similarly, the file for the *Bernard J. Baruch College* might be more easily found if sequenced according to the surname, *Baruch*, rather than the first name, *Bernard*.

On the other hand, those who follow the last-name-first approach might be wiser to locate Sarah Lawrence College file in the S section rather than the L, to file materials on the John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Company in the J section rather than the H, to store the Fred Astaire Dance Studios file under F rather than A, and to put the Mary Kay Cosmetics file under M rather than K.

The key here is to consider the way in which the name is most likely to be looked up (see ¶1208). Then provide cross-references between the alternative form and the primary form that has been selected. (See ¶1212c, note, for an example of a cross-reference.)

**b.** If a prefix is used in a personal name that is part of an organizational name, do not treat the prefix as a separate unit. (See ¶1210.)

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
A. de La Cruz Securities Company	Α	<u>DELA</u> CRUZ	SECURITIES	COMPANY
A. D'Elia Boat Sales	Α	DELIA	BOAT	SALES
Peter Saint Clair Boatels	PETER	SAINTCLAIR	BOATELS	
Peter St. Clair Insurance Agency	PETER	<u>ST</u> CLAIR	INSURANCE	AGENCY
R. San Marco Environ- mental Controls	<u>R</u>	SANMARCO	ENVIRONMENTAL	CONTROLS

c. If a hyphenated personal name is part of an organizational name, treat the hyphenated elements as a single unit. (See ¶1211.)

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Mary Tom Packaging Consultants	MARY	TOM	PACKAGING	CONSULTANTS
Mary Tom-Katz Production Company	MARY	TOMKATZ	PRODUCTION	COMPANY

**d.** Consider a title in an organization's name as a separate unit in the order in which it occurs. Treat abbreviated titles as they are written and ignore punctuation.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Capt. Jack Seafood	CAPT	JACK	SEAFOOD	
Captain Ahab Tours	<u>CAPTA</u> IN	AHAB	TOURS	
Dr. Popper Vision Services	DR	POPPER	VISION	SERVICES
Ma Blake Food Shops	MA	BLAKE	FOOD	SHOPS
Miss Celeste Sports-				
wear	MISS	CELESTE	SPORTSWEAR	
Mother Goose Nurseries	MOTHER	GOOSE	NURSERIES	
Mr. George Limousines	MR	GEORGE	LIMOUSINES	
Mrs. Ellis Bakeries	MRS	ELLIS	BAKERIES	
Princess Diana Gowns	PRINCESS	DIANA	GOWNS	
Saint Ann Thrift Shop	SAINT*	ANN	THRIFT	SHOP

^{*}When Saint is used as a title rather than as a prefix in a personal name, treat it as a separate unit. (See ¶1213b.)

# 1216 Rule 8: Abbreviations, Acronyms, Symbols, and Letters in Organizational Names

**a.** Treat an abbreviation as a single unit. Consider it exactly as it is written, and ignore any punctuation.

against any pantonauton				
Name .	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
AFL-CIO	<u>A</u> FLCIO			
ILGWU	<u>I</u> LGWU			
NAACP	NAACP			
Smyly Grain Corp.	SMYLY	GRAIN	CORP	
Smyly Industries Inc.	SMYLY	INDUSTRIES	INC	
Smyth Data Systems Co.	SMYTH	DATA	SYSTEMS	CO
Smyth Datafax Ltd.	SMYTH	<u>DATAF</u> AX	LTD	
U. S. Data Sources*	U	S	DATA	SOURCES
U S Datalink	U	S	DATALINK	
U. S. Grant Foundation	U	S	GRANT	FOUNDATION
U.S. Data Files	US	DATA	FILES	
US Data Tracers	US	DATA	TRACERS	

^{*}For the treatment of an abbreviation consisting of spaced letters (for example, U. S.), see ¶1216d.

b. Treat acronyms and the call letters of radio and TV stations as single units.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
ASCAP	<u>A</u> SCAP		
CARE	<u>C</u> ARE		
EPCOT	<u>E</u> PCOT		
MADD	MADD		
NASDAQ	<u>NA</u> SDAQ		
NOW	<u>NO</u> W		
OPEC	<u>OP</u> EC		
OSHA	<u>OS</u> HA		
UNESCO	<u>U</u> NESCO		
VISTA	<u>V</u> ISTA		
WBBM Radio Station	<u>W</u> BBM	RADIO	STATION

**NOTE:** When organizations are better known by their abbreviated names (AFL-CIO and NAACP) or acronyms (NOW and UNESCO) than by their formal names, use these short forms for filing purposes and provide cross-references as necessary. (See also ¶¶520, 522. For an example of a cross-reference, see ¶1212c, note.)

**c.** When the symbol & occurs in a name, consider it as if it were spelled out (that is, as *and*). If the symbol is freestanding (that is, with space on either side), treat it as a separate filing unit.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
A & L Fabrics	A	AND	L	FABRICS
A&B Publications	<u>AA</u> NDB	PUBLICATIONS		
Allen & Korn	ALLEN	AND	KORN	
AT&T	ATANDT			

**d.** Treat single letters as separate units. If two or more letters in a sequence are written solid or are connected by a hyphen or a diagonal, treat the sequence as a single unit.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
A & D Terminals	A	<u>A</u> ND	D	TERMINALS
A D S Graphics	Α	D	S	GRAPHICS
AAA	AAA			
A&D Printers Inc.	AANDD	PRINTERS	INC	
ADS Reports	<u>AD</u> S	REPORTS		
A/V Resources	AV	RESOURCES		
A-Z Rental Corp.	AZ	RENTAL	CORP	
Triple A Realty Trust	TRIPLE	Α	REALTY	TRUST
W Z Leasing Co.	W	Z	LEASING	CO
W. Y. Yee	YEE	W	Υ .	
(person's name)				

#### 1217 Rule 9: Geographic Names Within Organizational Names

a. Treat each part of a geographic name as a separate unit. However, treat hyphenated parts of a geographic name as a single unit.

Name	Unit 1	∘ Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Big Sur Tours	BIG	SUR	TOURS	
Lake of the Woods Camping Store*	<u>L</u> AKE	OF	THE	WOODS
New Jersey Shore Rentals	<u>N</u> EW	JERSEY	SHORE	RENTALS
Puerto Rico Sugar Traders	<u>P</u> UERTO	RICO	SUGAR	TRADERS
United States Telecom	UNITED	STATES	TELECOM	
West New York Bedding	WEST	NEW	YORK	BEDDING
Wilkes-Barre Mills	WILKESBARRE	MILLS		

^{*}The words Camping and Store represent the fifth and sixth filing units in this name.

**b.** When a geographic name begins with a prefix followed by a space or hyphen, treat the prefix and the following word as a single unit. (See ¶1210a for a list of prefixes.)

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3
El Cajon Editorial Services	<u>E</u> LCAJON	EDITORIAL	SERVICES
La Crosse Graphics	<u>LAC</u> ROSSE	GRAPHICS	
Las Vegas Lenders	<u>LAS</u> VEGAS	LENDERS	
Le Mans Auto Repairs	<u>LE</u> MANS	AUTO	REPAIRS
Los Angeles Film Distributors	<u>LO</u> SANGELES	FILM	DISTRIBUTORS
San Francisco Cable Systems	SANFRANCISCO	CABLE	SYSTEMS
Santa Fe Hotel Supplies	<u>SANT</u> AFE	HOTEL	SUPPLIES
SteJulie Inn	STEJULIE	INN	
St. Louis Water			
Filters	STLOUIS	WATER	FILTERS

**NOTE:** A name like *De Kalb* or *Des Moines* is considered a single unit, whereas a name like *Fond du Lac* should be treated as three units (since the prefix *du* does not come at the beginning of the geographic name).

#### 1218 Rule 10: Numbers in Organizational Names

- a. Arabic numerals (1, 3, 5) and roman numerals (IV, XIX) are considered separate units. Treat ordinal numbers such as 1st, 3d, and 5th as if they were written 1, 3, and 5.
- b. Units that contain arabic numerals precede units expressed as roman numerals and those consisting of letters of the alphabet (as shown in the chart at the top of page 334). Arrange the units containing arabic numerals in numeric order.

NOTE: For sequencing purposes most software programs will consider arabic numerals from the left. Given the arabic units in the chart below, a computer will place 1218 before 21 and 210. To avoid this outcome, add zeros to the left of 21 and 210 to make them the same length as 1218: 0021, 0210, 1218. Then the software will sequence these units in the correct order.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
21st Century Travel	<u>21</u>	CENTURY	TRAVEL	
210th St. Assn.	<u>210</u>	ST	ASSN	
1218 Corp.	<u>1218</u>	CORP		
III Brothers Outlets	<u>III</u>	BROTHERS	OUTLETS	
The VII Hills Lodge	<u>VII</u>	HILLS	LODGE	THE
The IX Muses Bookshop	<u>IX</u>	MUSES	BOOKSHOP	THE
AAA Leasing Company	<u>A</u> AA	LEASING	COMPANY	
ILGWU Local 134	ILGWU	LOCAL	134	
ILGWU Local 145	ILGWU	LOCAL	145	
Seventh Heaven Vacations	<u>SE</u> VENTH	HEAVEN	VACATIONS	
Sixth Street Fashions	<u>SI</u> XTH	STREET	FASHIONS	

c. Units that contain roman numerals follow those with arabic numerals but precede those consisting of letters of the alphabet (as shown above). Arrange units containing roman numerals in numeric order.

NOTE: For sequencing purposes, most software programs will consider roman numerals as letters of the alphabet and position them accordingly. If your software were sequencing the names shown above, the name beginning with *III* would fall between *AAA* and *ILGWU*. The name beginning with *VII* would come after *Sixth*. The name beginning with *IX* would fall between *ILGWU* and *Seventh*. To avoid having the roman numerals scattered in this way, you would have to override the program and move these names to the positions shown in the chart above.

- **d.** Units containing numbers expressed in words are sequenced (along with other units containing words or letters) in alphabetic order.
- **e.** When a number is written with a hyphen (Seventy-Six), ignore the hyphen and treat the number as a single unit (SEVENTYSIX).

	Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
ı	The Turtle Back Inn	TURTLE	BACK	INN	THE
١	Twelve Eighteen Realty Co.	<u>TW</u> ELVE	EIGHTEEN	REALTY	СО
	Twenty-Eight Benbow Street Studios	<u>TWENTYE</u> IGHT	BENBOW	STREET	STUDIOS
	Twenty-Five Hundred Club	TWENTYFIVE	HUNDRED	CLUB	
	The Warren 200 Colony	WARREN	200	COLONY	THE
	The Warren House	WARREN	<u>H</u> OUSE	THE	
ı	Warren Sixty-Fourth Street Salon	WARREN	_SIXTYFOURTH	STREET	SALON

- **f.** When a phrase consists of a number (in figures or words) linked by a hyphen or a diagonal to a letter or word (for example, 1-A, A-1, 1-Hour, 4/Way, One-Stop), ignore the punctuation and treat the phrase as a single unit.
- **g.** When the phrase consists of a figure linked to another figure by means of a hyphen or a diagonal (for example, 80-20 or 50/50), consider only the number that precedes the punctuation.
  - NOTE: Most software programs will consider the complete number as well as any punctuation.
- **h.** When a phrase consists of a figure plus a letter or word (for example, 3M) without any intervening space or punctuation, treat the phrase as a single unit.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
1-A Physical Trainers	<u>1</u> A	PHYSICAL	TRAINERS	
3 Pro Corp.	<u>3</u>	PRO	CORP	
3M	<u>3M</u>			
4X Investment Group	<u>4</u> X	INVESTMENT	GROUP	
5-10 Household Wares	5	HOUSEHOLD	WARES	
5 Star Video Arcade	5	_STAR	VIDEO	ARCADE
5-Corners Pasta Dishes	5CORNERS	PASTA	DISHES	
7-Eleven Food Store	ZELEVEN	FOOD	STORE	
20/20 Eye Care	<u>20</u>	EYE	CARE	
The 30-45 Singles Club	<u>30</u>	SINGLES	CLUB	THE
A-1 Autos Inc.	<u>A1</u>	AUTOS	INC	
Adam's 10-Minute Pizza Service	ADAMS	10MINUTE	PIZZA	SERVICE
Adams' One-Hour Photos	ADAMS	ONEHOUR	PHOTOS	
Adam's One-Stop Shop	ADAMS	ONESTOP	SHOP	
The Fifty-Fifty Co-op	EIFTYFIFTY	COOP	THE	

i. When a symbol appears with a number, treat the two elements as a single unit only if there is no space between the symbol and the number. Consider the symbol as if it were spelled out; for example, & (and), ¢ (cent or cents), \$ (dollar or dollars), # (number or pounds), % (percent) and + (plus).

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
The \$50 Outerwear Shop	50DOLLAR*	OUTERWEAR	SHOP	THE
50% Off Clothing Outlet	50PERCENT	OFF	CLOTHING	OUTLET
The 50+ Retirement Community	50PLUS	RETIREMENT	COMMUNITY	THE
The #1 Pizza Parlor	NUMBER1	PIZZA	PARLOR	THE
The Original 5&10	ORIGINAL	5AND10	THE	
Plaza 5 & 10	PLAZA	5	AND	10

*When a \$ sign precedes a number, consider the number and then the word DOLLAR (or DOLLARS) in that order.

NOTE: Most software programs will consider these symbols on the basis of where they occur in the sequence of character sets. If you convert the symbol to a spelled-out form as shown in the chart on the bottom of page 335, it will be sequenced in the correct alphabetic order.

#### 1219 Rule 11: Alphabetizing by Addresses

When two organizational names are otherwise identical, alphabetize them according to address.

- a. First alphabetize by city.
- **b.** If the city names are the same, consider the state. (For example, *Charleston*, *South Carolina*, comes before *Charleston*, *West Virginia*.)

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
McDonald's Durango, Colorado	MCDONALDS	<u>D</u> URANGO	COLORADO	
McDonald's Springfield, Missouri	MCDONALDS	SPRINGFIELD	<u>M</u> ISSOURI	
McDonald's Springfield, South Dakota	MCDONALDS	SPRINGFIELD	<u>s</u> outh	DAKOTA
McDonald's Torrington, Connecticut	MCDONALDS		CONNECTICUT	

- **c.** If both the city and the state are identical, alphabetize according to the street name.
- d. If the street name is a number, treat it exactly as written. Numbered street names expressed in figures precede street names (numbered or otherwise) expressed in words. Numbered street names expressed in figures are sequenced in numeric order. Numbered street names in words are sequenced (along with other street names in words) in alphabetic order.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
McDonald's				
17th Street Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	17	STREET
McDonald's				
41st Street Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	41	STREET
McDonald's			<del></del>	
Appleyard Drive	MODONALDO	TALL ALLACOEF	A DDI CVA DD	סטער
Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	_APPLEYARD	DRIVE
McDonald's Third Avenue				
Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	THIRD	AVENUE

e. If the street names are also the same, alphabetize by direction if it is part of the address (for example, north, south, northeast, southwest).

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4	Unit 5
McDonald's N. 16th Street Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	N	16	STREET
McDonald's S. 16th Street Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	S	16	STREET
McDonald's Swan Avenue East Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	SWAN	AVENUE	EAST
McDonald's Swan Avenue West Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	SWAN	AVENUE	<u>W</u> EST

f. If all the foregoing units are identical, consider the house or building numbers and sequence them in numeric order.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4	Unit 5
McDonald's					
110 Park Avenue	**********	T411 41140055	DADIC		
Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	PARK	AVENUE	110
McDonald's 638 Park Avenue Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	PARK	AVENUE	638
McDonald's 23 Tier Street					
Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	TIER	STREET	23
McDonald's 870 Tier Street					
Tallahassee, Florida	MCDONALDS	TALLAHASSEE	TIER	STREET	870

#### **Governmental Names**

# **1220** Rule 12: Federal Government Names

- **a.** For any organization that is part of the federal government, consider *United States Government* as the first three units.
- **b.** If necessary, consider the name of the department, transposing *Department of* to the end. (For example, treat *Department of Labor* as three separate units: *LABOR DEPARTMENT OF*.)
- c. Next consider the name of the office or bureau within the department. Transpose opening phrases such as Office of and Bureau of to the end. (For example, treat Bureau of Labor Statistics as four separate units: LABOR STATISTICS BUREAU OF.)

**NOTE:** It is permissible to omit the names of departments (as is done in the following examples) and move directly from *United States Government* to the name of the office or bureau.

	Name	Unit 4*	Unit 5	Unit 6	Unit 7
4.00	Office of Con- sumer Affairs	CONSUMER	AFFAIRS	OFFICE	OF
	Federal Bureau of Investigation	<u>FE</u> DERAL	BUREAU	OF	INVESTIGATION
	Food and Drug Administration	<u>FO</u> OD	AND	DRUG	ADMINISTRATION
	General Accounting Office	GENERAL	ACCOUNTING	OFFICE	
	National Labor Relations Board	NATIONAL	<u>L</u> ABOR	RELATIONS	BOARD
,	National Park Service	NATIONAL	<u>P</u> ARK	SERVICE	

^{*}The first three units are United States Government.

#### 1221 Rule 13: State and Local Government Names

- a. For any organization (except an educational institution) that is part of a state, county, city, or town government, first consider the distinctive place name (for example, Idaho or Sandpoint).
- **b.** Then consider the name of the department, bureau, or other subdivision, transposing elements (if necessary) as was done with federal departments and bureaus in ¶1220.

NOTE: Do not add state, city, or a similar term after the distinctive place name unless it is necessary to distinguish such names as New York State, New York County, and New York City. Moreover, do not add of, of the, or a similar expression unless it is part of the official name.

Name	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4	Unit 5
Illinois State Board of Education	<u>IL</u> LINOIS	STATE	EDUCATION	BOARD	OF
lowa Division of Labor	<u>IO</u> WA	LABOR	DIVISION	OF	
Water Commission, City of Yuma	YUMA	<u>CI</u> TY	OF	WATER	COMMISSION
Registry of Deeds, Yuma County	YUMA	COUNTY	DEEDS	REGISTRY	OF

# SECTION 13

# **Letters and Memos**

#### Letters (¶¶1301-1387)

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)

Using a Printed Letterhead (¶1311)

Creating a Letterhead (¶1312)

Using a Return Address (¶1313)

Date Line (¶1314)

Personal or Confidential Notation (¶1315)

Reference Notation (¶1316)

Inside Address (¶¶1317-1320)

Letters to an Individual (¶1317)

Letters to an Organization (¶1318)

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 (¶¶1339-1343)

Attention Line (¶¶1344-1345)

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)
File Name Notation (¶¶1371–1372)
Enclosure Notation (¶¶1373–1374)
Delivery Notation (¶¶1375)
Copy Notation (¶¶1376–1380)
Postscript (¶1381)
Continuation Pages (¶¶1382–1387)

#### **Envelopes (¶¶1388-1391)**

Addressing Envelopes (¶¶1388–1390)

The Inside-Address Style (¶1389)

The All-Cap Style (¶1390)

Folding and Inserting Letters (¶1391)

Memos (¶¶1392-1393)

Social-Business Correspondence (¶¶1394–1395)

**Labels (¶1396)** 

Section 13 provides guidelines for formatting 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.

# Letters

#### **Parts of Letters**

**1301** A business letter has four parts with a variety of features:

Parts	Standard Features	Optional Features
HEADING:	Letterhead or return address (¶¶1311–1313) Date line (¶1314)	Personal or confidential notation (¶1315) Reference notations (¶1316)
OPENING:	Inside address (¶¶1317-1343) Salutation (¶¶1346-1351)	Attention line (¶¶1344-1345)
BODY:	Message (¶¶1354-1357)	Subject line (¶¶1352-1353)
CLOSING:	Complimentary closing (¶¶1358-1360) Writer's name and title (¶¶1362-1369) Reference initials (¶1370)	Company signature (¶1361) File name notation (¶1371–1372) Enclosure notation (¶¶1373–1374) Delivery notation (¶1375) Copy notation (¶¶1376–1380) Postscript (¶1381)

> Each of these features is illustrated in the model letters on pages 346–350.

**IMPORTANT NOTE:** Word processing programs typically provide templates that can greatly simplify your task of formatting letters as well as other documents. As you will see from the three illustrations of letter templates that follow, you simply insert the necessary copy in the appropriate places shown on the template. The program then completes the formatting and prints the final document.

If the existing templates do not fully satisfy your needs, you can modify these templates to some extent or you can create your own. In the process you can include macros in the templates so as to automate repetitive tasks, such as saving and backing up a file. You can also use autotext to store repetitive copy—for example, the name of a person or an organization to whom you frequently write, as well as phrases, sentences, paragraphs, or the closing that you frequently use in the letters you produce. Once you have typed the first few characters of such elements, the program will suggest replacement text. A simple command will then replace what you have partially typed with the complete text.

The following guidelines should prove helpful if you decide to modify the templates provided by your software or to design your own.

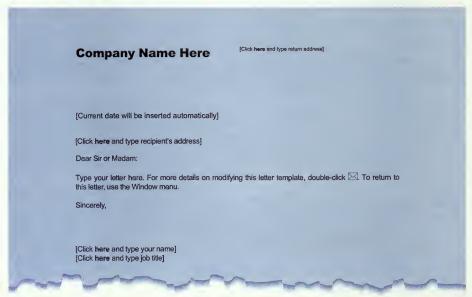
"Contemporary" letter template provided by Microsoft Word for Windows, using default specifications of 10-point Times New Roman, 1.25-inch side margins, and 1-inch top and bottom margins.



"Elegant" letter template provided by Microsoft Word for Windows, using default specifications of 10-point Garamond, 1.25-inch side margins, and 1-inch top and bottom margins.



"Professional" letter template provided by Microsoft Word for Windows, using default specifications of 10-point Arial, 1.25-inch side margins, and 1-inch top and bottom margins.



#### **1302** A business letter is usually arranged in one of the following styles:

- a. Modified-Block Style—Standard Format. The date line, the complimentary closing, the company signature, and the writer's identification all begin at center. All other lines begin at the left margin. This style is also referred to simply as the modified-block style. (See page 346 for an illustration.)
  - NOTE: This is still the style most commonly used.
- b. Modified-Block Style-With Indented Paragraphs. This style is exactly the same as the standard format described in a above except for one additional feature: the first line of each paragraph is indented 0.5 inch. This style is also referred to as the semiblock style. (See page 348 for an illustration.)
- c. Block Style. All lines typically begin at the left margin. Nothing is indented except for displayed quotations, tables, and similar material. This style is also referred to as the *full-block style*. (See page 349 for an illustration.)
- d. Simplified Style. As in the block style, all lines begin at the left margin. However, the simplified style has these additional features: the salutation is replaced by a subject line in all-capital letters, 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. (See page 350 for an illustration.)

#### **Stationery Sizes**

**1303** The three sizes of stationery most commonly used are *letter* (also called *standard*), executive (also called monarch), and half letter (also called baronial). For more information about stationery sizes, see ¶1305b.

# Letter Placement

#### 1304 Top Margin

- a. First Page. As a general rule, leave a top margin of about 2 inches; this is the standard top margin for all business documents. To create a 2-inch top margin, space down 6 times from the default (preset) top margin of 1 inch. (See the illustration on page 346.)
  - If you are typing a one-page letter, you may center the letter vertically. (See the illustration on page 348.)
  - If you are using letterhead stationery, make sure there is at least a 0.5 inch space between the letterhead and the first element to be typed (ordinarily the date line). If the letterhead design is especially deep (as in the illustration on page 349), the use of vertical centering or a 2-inch top margin may not provide an adequate visual break between the letterhead and the date line.
- b. Continuation Pages. Use a top margin of about 1 inch on each continuation page of a letter. These pages are always typed on unprinted stationery (even if the first page is prepared on a printed letterhead). (See also ¶¶1382–1387.)

#### 1305 Side Margins

- **a.** Determine the default side margins of the word processing software you are using: 1.25 inch for Microsoft Word, 1 inch for WordPerfect. For letter and executive stationery, these default side margins are usually adequate.
- b. Under certain circumstances, you may wish to use wider side margins—whether to lengthen a short letter or to make a letter more attractive or easier to read. The following table shows the extent to which you can widen side margins to produce a more open look.

Stationery	Default Side Margins	Longest Text Line	Adjusted Side Margins for Shorter Text Line	Shortest Text Line
Letter (Standard) 81/2" x 11"	MS Word: 1.25" WordPerfect: 1"	6" 6.5"	Up to 1.75"	5"
Executive (Monarch) MS Word: 71/2" x 10" WordPerfect:	1.25"	5"	Up to 1.5"	4.5"
71/4" x 101/2"	1"	5.25"	Up to 1.5"	4.25"
Half Letter (Baronial) 51/2" x 81/2"	0.75"*	4"	Up to 1"	3.5"

^{*}There are no default side margins for  $5^{1/2}$ " x  $8^{1/2}$ " stationery. The use of 0.75" side margins is recommended, however.

- **c.** If you are using letterhead stationery with a column of printed copy running down the left side of the page, set the left margin 0.5 inch to the right of this copy. Set the right margin at a minimum of 1 inch, or simply use the default right margin.
- **d.** Once you have established the side margins, the number of characters you can fit on a line of text will depend on the font (typeface) and the font size you select. The following chart displays some common fonts in different sizes so that you can see the variation in the number of characters that will fit in a given line.

Common Fonts and Sizes	Characters in 1 Inch	Sample Text (1.5 Inches)
12 point Times New Roman 11 point Times New Roman 10 point Times New Roman	abcdefghijklm abcdefghijklmno abcdefghijklmnop	Now is the time for all g Now is the time for all g Now is the time for all gre
12 point Garamond	abcdefghijklmn	Now is the time for all
11 point Garamond	abcdefghijklmno	Now is the time for all gr
10 point Garamond	abcdefghijklmnop	Now is the time for all grea
12 point Arial	abcdefghijklm	Now is the time for
11 point Arial	abcdefghijklmn	Now is the time for all
10 point Arial	abcdefghijklmno	Now is the time for all gr

NOTE: If the default font of your word processing software is too small or too difficult to read, select a font in a size that best meets your needs.

#### 1306 Bottom Margin

- a. Leave a bottom margin of at least 1 inch. If you are typing a one-page letter and center it vertically, the bottom margin will be automatically established.
- b. If the letter requires more than one page, you can increase the bottom margin on the first page up to 2 inches.
- c. If you are using letterhead stationery with a band of printed copy running across the bottom of the page, leave a minimum margin of 0.5 inch between the last line of text and the band of printed copy.
- > For auidelines on carrying a letter over from one page to the next, see ¶¶1382-1387.

#### **1307** Lengthening a Short Letter

To spread a short letter (under 8 lines of text) over one page, use any combination of the following techniques:

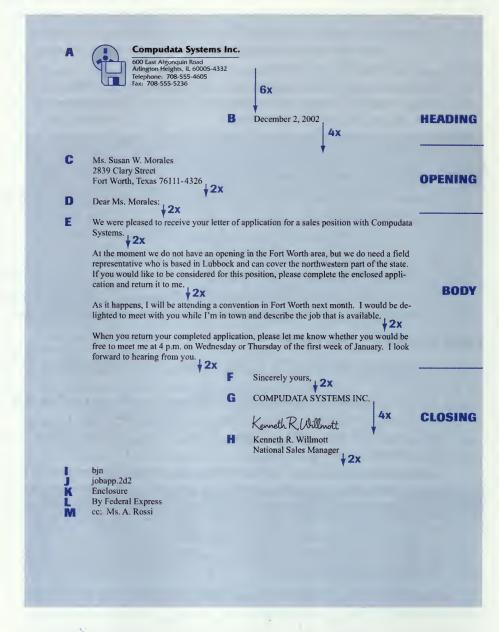
- a. Increase the side margins. (See the table in ¶1305b.)
- b. Change the paper size from letter to executive or half letter.
- c. Increase the font size or select a font that yields fewer characters to an inch.
- **d.** Insert extra space above the inside address, the signature line, and the reference initials. (Do not use more than twice the recommended space in each case.)

#### **1308** Shortening a Long Letter

To condense a long letter (over 23 lines of text), use any combination of the following techniques:

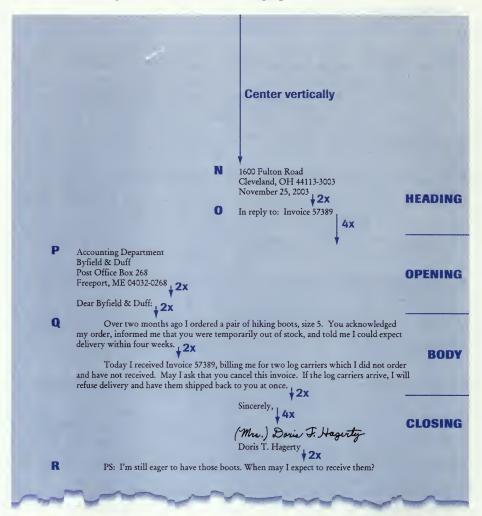
- a. If you have been using wide side margins, reduce them to 1 inch on letter and executive stationery and to 0.75 inch on half letter stationery.
- b. If you have been using executive or half letter stationery, change to letter stationery.
- c. If a small amount of text carries over to a second page, you may be able to reduce the text to fit on a single page by using the make-it-fit or shrink-to-fit option in your word processing software. Another option is to use a slightly smaller font or font size that fits more characters on a line. Be sure, however, that after you make such adjustments, the type is still quite readable.
- d. Reduce the space between the date and the inside address to 2 blank lines (instead of the customary 3).
- **e.** Reduce the space for the signature from 3 blank lines to 2.

#### Modified-Block Style—Standard Format



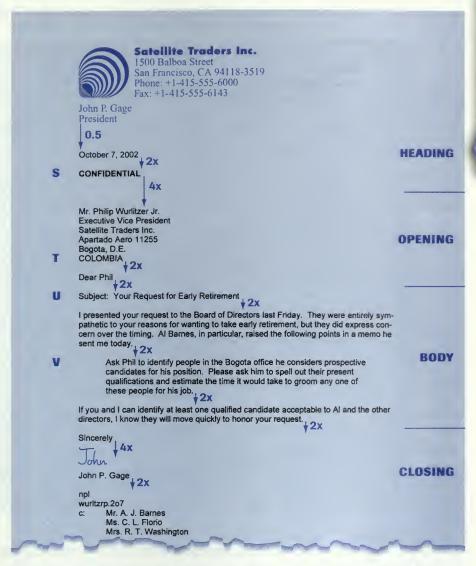
- ▲ Letterhead. The company's name and address, along with other information (such as a telephone number and a fax number). (See ¶¶1311-1312.)
- B Date Line. The date (month, day, and year) on which the letter is typed. As a general rule, space down 6 times from the default margin of 1 inch before typing the date line (as in the illustration on page 346). One-page letters may be centered vertically (as in the illustration on page 348); in that case type the date on the first available line. On stationery with a deep letterhead (as in the illustration on page 349), type the date line about 0.5 inch below the letterhead. (For additional details, see ¶1314d-f.)
- C Inside Address. The name and address of the person to whom you are writing. (See ¶¶1317-1343.)
- D Salutation. An opening greeting like Dear Ms. Morales. (See ¶¶1346-1351.)
- **E Message.** The text of the letter. All paragraphs are typed single-spaced with no indentions. Leave 1 blank line between paragraphs. (See ¶¶1354–1357.)
- **F** Complimentary Closing. A parting phrase such as Sincerely or Sincerely yours. (See ¶¶1358–1360.)
- **G** Company Signature. An indication that the writer is acting on behalf of the company. (See ¶1361.)
- H Writer's Identification. The writer's name and title. (See ¶¶1362-1369.)
- Reference Initials. The initials of the typist and sometimes those of the writer as well. (See ¶1370.)
- J File Name Notation. A coded notation that indicates where the document is stored in computer memory. (See ¶¶1371-1372.)
- **K** Enclosure Notation. A reminder that the letter is accompanied by an enclosure. (See ¶¶1373-1374.)
- **L Delivery Notation**. An indication that the letter has been sent a special way. (See ¶1375.)
- M Copy Notation. The names of those who will receive copies of this letter. (See \$\pi 1376-1380.)

### Modified-Block Style-With Indented Paragraphs



- N Return Address. The arrangement that is used in a personal-business letter when an individual writes on blank stationery from home. (For an alternative placement of the return address and other details, see ¶1313.) A person using word processing software can transform the return address into a professional-looking letterhead. (See ¶1312.)
- O Reference Notation. A filing code used by the writer or the addressee. (See ¶1316.)
- P Attention Line. A means of directing the letter to a particular person or a specific department, even though the letter is addressed to an organization as a whole. Traditionally positioned on a separate line below the inside address; now positioned as the first line of the inside address (without the word *Attention*) to reflect the recommended format for the mailing address. (See ¶¶1344-1345.)
- Q Paragraph Indentions. Customarily 0.5 inch. (See ¶1356a.)
- R Postscript. A device for presenting a final idea or an afterthought. (See ¶1381.)

### **Block Style**

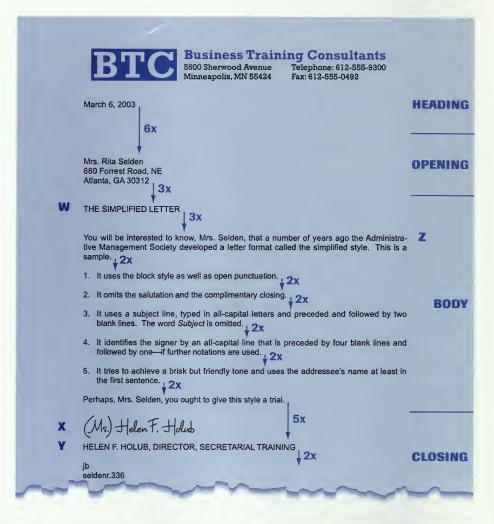


> For the use of +1 with telephone numbers (as in the letterhead above), see ¶454f.

- **S Confidential Notation.** A note indicating that the letter should be read only by the person addressed. (See ¶1315.)
- T International Address. The name of the country typed in all-capital letters on a line by itself. (See ¶1343.)
- Subject Line. A means of stating what the letter is about. (See ¶¶1352-1353.)
- **Displayed Extract.** Copy set off from the rest of the letter for emphasis; indented 0.5 inch from the left and right margins. (See ¶1357a.)

  Continued on page 350

### Simplified Style



- **W** Subject Line. Replaces the salutation; typed in all-capital letters on the third line below the inside address. (See also ¶1352.)
- X Complimentary Closing. Omitted. (See also ¶¶1358–1360.)
- Writer's Identification. Typed on one line in all-capital letters. (See also ¶1363.)
- **Z** Justified Right Margin. Makes each line in the body of the letter end at the same point. This is an optional feature and may be used with any letter style. (See ¶1356b.)

NOTE: The numbered list in this illustration has been typed with a blank line between items to achieve a more open look. If you use the numbered list feature of your word processing program and accept all the defaults, the list will be typed single-spaced. (See ¶1357d for illustrations showing lists typed with and without space between items.)

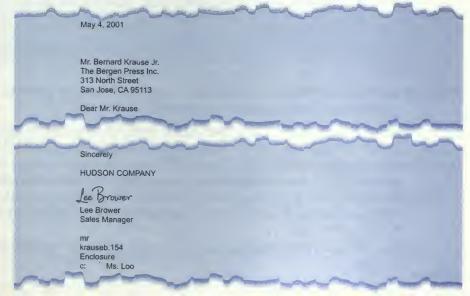
### **Punctuation Patterns**

- **1309** The message in a business letter is always punctuated with normal punctuation. The other parts may be punctuated according to one of the following patterns:
  - a. Standard (Mixed) Pattern. Use a colon after the salutation and a comma after the complimentary closing. (This is the style most commonly used.)



**b.** Open Pattern. Use no punctuation at the end of any line outside the body of the letter unless that line ends with an abbreviation (for example, Jr.).

NOTE: For an additional illustration of the use of open punctuation, see page 349.



### **Spacing**

**1310** Type all letters single-spaced. Leave 1 blank line between paragraphs. (See the illustrations on pages 346–350.)

The following rules (¶¶1311-1316) deal with the *heading* of a letter. The heading may include a letterhead or a return address (¶¶1311-1313), a date line (¶1314), a personal or confidential notation (¶1315), and a reference notation (¶1316). The model letters shown on pages 346-350 illustrate the position of these elements in the heading.

# **Letterhead or Return Address**

### **1311** Using a Printed Letterhead

a. The first page of a standard business letter is customarily written on stationery with a *printed letterhead* containing at least these elements: the organization's name, the street address or post office box number (or both), and the city, state, and ZIP Code. The printed letterheads for most organizations also provide a telephone number and a logo or some other graphic element. They may also provide a fax number, an e-mail address, a Web site URL (¶1532), and a cable address. However, large organizations with a number of operating units widely dispersed at the same location often choose to provide a generic letterhead that contains only those elements that are common to all operating units. They rely on individual business cards to provide the variable details for each employee.

**NOTE:** Top executives may have special letterheads showing their name and title. (See page 349 for an illustration of a top executive's stationery.)

# Cole, Steele & Backus

1800 Avenue of the Stars Telephone: 310.555.4345 Fax: 310.555.4265 Los Angeles, CA 90067-4201 E-Mail: csb@aol.com Cable: COSTEBA

- **b.** Avoid using abbreviations in a letterhead except those that are part of the organization's name or that represent a state name.
  - NOTE: It is not essential to abbreviate a state name in a letterhead. In fact, if you want to achieve a more formal effect, spell out the state name. (See ¶1341a.)
- c. Even if your organization uses a post office box number as its primary mailing address, show a street address as well. In that way others will know where to direct ordinary mail (the post office) and where to direct express mail (the organization's office). If the two addresses have different ZIP Codes, be sure to provide this information.
- > For guidelines on how to treat telephone numbers in letterheads and on business cards, see ¶454.

### 1312 Creating a Letterhead

In place of printed stationery, you can use word processing templates and various fonts and font sizes to create a professional-looking letterhead on plain paper. The following illustrations show two computer-generated letterheads—one designed for a company and one designed for an individual working from home.



Merle C. Forrest, Ph.D

SECOND WIND * 28 BISCAY ROAD * DAMARISCOTTA, MAINE 04531 * 207-555-9097

NOTE: Individuals who want to make themselves available to clients and customers at all hours may provide more than an address and a phone number. They may insert such elements as an e-mail address, a Web site URL, a home phone number, a mobile phone number, a pager number, and a voice mail number. All of these elements may appear as part of the letterhead at the top of the page, or some may be located at the foot of the page (to avoid a cluttered design at the top).

### 1313 Using a Return Address

If you are using plain paper for a *personal-business letter* (one you write as an individual from your home), you can supply the necessary address information in the form of a *return address*. There are two formats you can choose from.

a. Traditionally, the return address appears at the top of the page. Provide the following information on three or more single-spaced lines: (1) the street address;
(2) the city, state, and ZIP Code; (3) the phone number (if you want the addressee to have it); and (4) the date (see ¶1314).

Apartment 2B 212 West 22d Street New York, NY 10011-2706 212-555-9097 January 24, 2002 OR 212 West 22d Street, Apt. 2B New York, NY 10011-2706 212-555-9097 January 24, 2002

NOTE: For the modified-block letter style, start each line of the return address at the center of the page. (See page 348.) For the block and simplified styles, start each line at the left margin. (See pages 349–350.)

**b.** An alternative style locates the return address in the *closing* section of the letter. starting on the line directly below the writer's typed name.

Sincerely, Josephine C. Carbonara Apartment 2B 212 West 22d Street New York, NY 10011-2706 212-555-9097

NOTE: When the return address appears in the closing section, the first element to appear at the top of the letter is the date line. (See ¶1314.)

- c. Each line of the return address should begin at the same point as the complimentary closing and the writer's typed name—at the center of the page for the modified-block style and at the left margin for the block and simplified styles.
- d. Regardless of the format you use for a return address, establish a top margin in the same way. As a general guideline, space down 6 times from the default top margin of 1 inch to create a top margin of approximately 2 inches. One-page letters may be centered vertically; in this case simply type the start of the inside address (as in ¶1313a) or the date line (as indicated in ¶1313b, note, above) on the first available line.

### **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, 2001 (NOT Dec. 28, 2001 OR December 28th, 2001)

NOTE: Do not use the style 12/28/01 or '01 in the date line of a business letter.

**b.** Some writers write the date in this order: day, month, year. This is the style typically used in military correspondence and letters from abroad.

28 December 2001

- c. You can use the date insert feature of your word processing software to automatically insert the current date. You can also indicate (by selecting the appropriate option) whether or not you want the date to be automatically updated each time you open the document. Automatic updating is useful if the document is a form letter but should not be used if the document represents a permanent record.
- **d.** For the *modified-block* letter style, start the date at the center. For the *block* and simplified letter styles, start the date at the left margin.

- e. As a general rule, type the date about 2 inches from the top of the page. (See the illustration on page 346.) If you are typing a one-page letter and have decided to center it vertically, type the date on the first available line. (See the illustration on page 348.) If you are using stationery with a deep letterhead, type the date about 0.5 inch below the letterhead. (See the illustration on page 349.)
- f. If you are using a return address at the top of a letter, type the date directly under the return address (as illustrated in ¶1313a). If you place the return address at the bottom of the page (as shown in ¶1313b), position the date as directed in ¶1314d and e.

### **Personal or Confidential Notation**

**1315** If a letter is of a personal or confidential nature, provide the appropriate notation on the second line below the date, at the *left* margin. Type the notation in bold all-cap letters. (See the illustration on page 349.)

PERSONAL

CONFIDENTIAL

### **Reference Notation**

**1316** a. A reference notation—beginning with the guide words When replying, refer to: (or with something similar)—may be inserted 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: watsonnd.363

**NOTE:** You may insert a file name notation here instead of at the bottom of the letter. (See ¶1372.)

**b.** 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. (See the illustration on page 348.)

In reply to: G241 782 935 . Refer to: Policy 234844

c. When there are two reference notations to be given, type your own reference notation first (as indicated in ¶1316a). Then type the addressee's reference notation on the second line below.

When replying, refer to: dingesc.524 2x
Your reference: blockagc.747

- **d.** Some writers prefer to give the addressee's reference notation in a subject line. (See ¶1353e.)
- e. If you want the addressee of a given letter to send a response by fax or e-mail, you may make this request in the body of the letter or, for greater emphasis, in the form of a reference notation.

When replying, send fax to: 707-555-9985

When replying, send e-mail message to: mgallagher@aol.com

The following rules (¶¶1317-1351) deal with the opening of a letter. The opening typically includes two elements: the inside address (\$\mathbb{I}\$1317-1343) and the salutation (¶¶1346-1351). It may also include an attention line (¶¶1344-1345).

### Inside Address

#### 1317 Letters to an Individual

a. The inside address for a letter to an individual's home should include the following information: (1) the name of the person to whom you are writing; (2) the street address, the box number (see ¶1338), or the rural route number (see ¶1317c); and (3) the city, state, and ZIP Code (see ¶1339).

Dr. Margaret P. Vanden Heuvel 615 University Boulevard Albuquerque, NM 87106-4553

Mrs. Bernell Williams 5860 Spring-Cypress Road Spring, Texas 77379

- $\succ$  For the placement of the inside address, see ¶1319a; for the use of the nine-digit ZIP Code, see ¶1339, note.
- **b.** If the person lives in an apartment building, give the apartment number after the street address or, if it will not fit, on the line above.

Mr. William E. Slifka 13 Cat Mousam Road, Apt. 1B Kennebunk, Maine 04043

Miss Susan H. Ellington Apartment 2104 11740 Wilshire Boulevard Los Angeles, CA 90025

c. If you are writing to someone with a rural route address or a highway contract route address, do not use rural route, highway contract route, number, No., or # in the address. Use the abbreviation RR or HC plus a box number. For example:

HC 67, Box 21A RR 2, Box 454

Avoid using a street name in conjunction with an RR or HC address. If one is used, place it on the line above the RR or HC address.

NOTE: You may want to create an autotext entry containing the inside address and salutation for any individual or organization that you frequently write to.

# 1318 Letters to an Organization

a. The inside address for a letter to an organization 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).

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 37421-0431

> For the placement of the inside address, see ¶1319a; for the use of the nine-digit ZIP Code, see ¶1339, note.

**b.** When a room number or a suite number is included in the inside address, insert that number after the street address or, if it will not fit, on the line above.

Ms. Alice G. Alvarez Werler Construction Company 416 12th Street, Room 12 Columbus, Georgia 31901-2528 James W. Chiverton, M.D. Suite 1200 1111 West Mockingbird Lane Dallas, TX 75247-3158

- **1319** a. Whether a letter is going to an individual's home or to an organization, start the inside address at the left margin, on the *fourth* line below the date or below any notation that falls between the date and the inside address (see ¶¶1315–1316).
  - > See the illustrations on pages 346-350.

NOTE: You may need to modify these guidelines if you are planning to use a window envelope (see ¶¶1389i, 1391d).

- **b.** In social-business correspondence (see ¶¶1394–1395), type the inside address at the bottom of the letter, aligned at the left margin and starting on the *fourth* line below the writer's signature or title (whichever comes last). In a purely personal letter, no inside address is given at all.
- c. Single-space the inside address and align each line at the left.
- **1320 a.** If a letter is addressed to two or more people at different addresses, type the individual address blocks one under the other (with 1 blank line between) or position the address blocks side by side. If the address blocks take up too much space at the opening of the letter, type them at the end of the letter, starting at the left on the *fourth* line below the final notation or, if there are no notations, on the *fourth* line below the signature block.
  - b. 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 60624-1002

The following rules (¶¶1321-1343) provide additional details concerning the parts of inside addresses. See also the models in Section 18 for special forms of address used for individuals, couples, organizations, professional people, education officials, government officials, diplomats, military personnel, and religious dignitaries.

#### Name of Person and Title

- **1321** When writing the name of a person in an inside address or elsewhere in a letter, be sure to follow that person's preferences in the spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and spacing of the name. (See ¶311.)
  - a. Do not abbreviate or use initials unless the person to whom you are writing prefers that style. For example, do not write Wm. B. Sachs or W. B. Sachs if the person to whom you are writing used William B. Sachs in his correspondence.
  - **b.** When writing to a married woman, follow her preference for first and last names if you know it. She may prefer to be addressed by her original name (for example, Ms. Joan L. Conroy). If you do know that she is using her hubband's last name, continue to use her own first name and middle initial (for example, Mrs. Joan L. Noonan). The form that uses her husband's first name and middle initial as well (for example, Mrs. James W. Noonan) is acceptable only for social purposes. It should never be used when addressing a business letter to a married woman, and it should not be used when a married woman becomes a widow unless she indicates that this is her preference.
- **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., Ms., Mrs., or Miss. (See also ¶1801.)
  - **b.** In selecting *Ms.*, *Mrs.*, or *Miss*, always respect the individual woman's preference. If her preference is unknown, use the title Ms. or omit the courtesy title altogether. (See also ¶1801b-c.)
    - **NOTE:** Follow the same procedure 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. (See also ¶1801d.) 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, Hilary, and Lee) should use a courtesy title when they sign their letters so that others may be spared the confusion over which title to use. If they choose not to provide a courtesy title, they will have to accept the likelihood that they will be inappropriately addressed. (See also ¶¶1365-1366.)
  - **d.** Address teenage girls as Ms. or Miss and respect the individual's preference if you know it. For girls younger than 13, Ms. or Miss may be used or omitted.
  - e. Address teenage boys as Mr. For boys younger than 13, omit the title. (Master is now rarely used except with the names of very young boys.)
- **1323** a. A letter to a husband and wife is traditionally addressed in this form:
  - Mr. and Mrs. Harold D. Bennisch Jr. (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. List the names of a married couple on separate lines when (1) the wife alone has a special title, (2) both spouses have special titles, or (3) each spouse has a different surname.

Dr. Eleanor V. Eberhardt-Ball Mr. Joseph L. Eberhardt-Ball Ms. Eloise Baum Mr. Philip O'Connell

Dean Walter O. Goetz Professor Helen F. Goetz OR Mrs. Eloise Baum Mr. Philip O'Connell

**d.** Some married couples prefer a style of address which uses the first names of the spouses and omits *Mr*. and *Mrs*. Those who use this style typically do so because it treats both spouses as equals and does not imply that the wife can be identified only by her husband's name. Respect such preferences when you are aware of them.

Janet and Arnold Rogon OR Arnold and Janet Rogon (RATHER THAN: Mr. and Mrs. Arnold Rogon)

**NOTE:** If *Jr.*, *Sr.*, or a roman numeral such as *III* accompanies the husband's name, choose one of the following forms:

Janet Rogon and Arnold Rogon Jr.

OR Arnold Rogon Jr. and Janet Rogon

BUT NOT: Janet and Arnold Rogon Jr.

OR Arnold Jr. and Janet Rogon

- $\succ$  For other forms of address to use for couples in special circumstances, see ¶1802.
- **1324** a. When Jr., Sr., or a roman numeral such as III is typed after a name, omit the comma before this element unless you know that the person being addressed prefers the use of a comma. (See also ¶156.)
  - **b.** Do not use a title before a name if the term *Esq.* follows the name. (See also ¶¶518c, 1804a.)

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, some doctors of medicine and divinity prefer the use of the degree after their names (rather than the title *Dr.* before). (See also ¶¶1804b, 1810d, 1811d.)

**NOTE:** If an academic degree follows the person's name, separate it from the last name with a comma. Moreover, 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 ¶519c.)

Reva C. Calhoun, M.D.

The Reverend Ernest G. Wyzanski, D.D.

**d.** Abbreviations of religious orders, such as S.J. 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. (See also ¶¶519a, 1809.)

**1325** a. A title of position, such as *Vice President* or *Sales Manager*, may be included in an inside address. If a title is to be used, place it on the line following the name; if the title requires a second line, you may either indent the turnover 2 or 3 spaces or align it at the left with the line above. Capitalize the first letter of every word in the title except (1) prepositions under four letters (like *of, for,* and *in*), (2) conjunctions under four letters (like *and*), and (3) the articles *the, a,* and *an* when they appear *within* the title.

Mrs. Martha Hansen Executive Vice President Mr. Harry F. Benjamin Chairman of the Board

Mr. Ralph Nielsen
Vice President and (NOT &)
General Manager

Ms. Evangeline S. Palmer Director of In-Service Training

**NOTE:** In the last example above, *In* is capitalized because it is the first element in a compound adjective (rather than a pure preposition as in *Editor in Chief*). By the same token, in the title *Coordinator of On-the-Job Training*, *On* is capitalized as the first element in a compound adjective but *of* and *the* are not.

b. If the title is very short, it may be typed on the same line as the person's name or the person's department in order to balance the length of the lines in the address. However, do not type a title on the same line as the name of an organization. (See ¶1327.)

Mr. J. C. Lee, President Merchants National Bank Mr. Armand F. Aristides

Controller Dahl, Inc.

Mrs. Lucinda Hollingsworth Manager, Support Services E. J. Haines & Company NOT: Mr. Armand F. Aristides Controller, Dahl, Inc.

### 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. The following examples show two versions of this notation.

Professor Eleanor Marschak
In care of Henry Ward, Esq.

OR Professor Eleanor Marschak c/o Henry Ward, Esq.

### Name of Organization

1327 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 name of the organization on a line by itself.

Ms. Laura J. Kidd Assistant Vice President Department of Corporate Planning Holstein, Brooks & Co.

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.

America Online, Inc. Sierra On-Line, Inc. United Airlines Delta Air Lines Time Inc. Newsweek, Inc.

Prudential Securities Incorporated Hewlett-Packard Company Charles Schwab & Co., Inc.

PepsiCo, Inc. Xerox Corporation Engelhard Corp.

BankAmerica Corp. (see ¶366) Rogers Cablesystems of

America, Inc.

Parker Pen USA Limited Frye & Smith Ltd. Fujitsu, Ltd. USLife Corp.

U S WEST Communications Luce, Forward, Hamilton & Scripps

Dean Witter Reynolds Inc. Browning-Ferris Industries

Ply*Gem Industries Ex-Cell-O Corporation La-Z-Boy Chair Co. 1 Potato 2 Inc.

Toys "R" Us, Inc. (see ¶320a, note) 196@: Directory of Electronic Mail Addressing & Networks

**NOTE:** If the name is long and requires more than one line, you may either indent any turnover line 2 or 3 spaces or align it at the left with the line above. (See ¶1329e for examples.)

- **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.
  - **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, you may use the abbreviation *Co.* or *Corp*.
  - **d.** Do not use the word *the* at the beginning of a name unless you are sure it is part of the official name; for example, *The Wall Street Journal* (as illustrated at the top of page 362).
  - **e.** Capitalize the first letter of every word except (1) prepositions under four letters (like of and for), (2) conjunctions under four letters (like and), and (3) the articles the, a, and an when they appear within the organization's name.

American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (see ¶1328, note) 424 East 92d Street New York, New York 10128 Department of Health and Human Services (see ¶1328, note) 200 Independence Ave, SW Washington, DC 20201-0001

NOTE: In the following example note that the article the is capitalized because it comes at the start of the organization's official name. Note also that the name of

the newspaper is not italicized or underlined because it refers to the organization rather than to the actual newspaper. (See also ¶289e.)

The Wall Street Journal 200 Liberty Street New York, NY 10281-1099

> For the use or omission of apostrophes in company names, see ¶640.

# **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 follow the street address, but if it will not fit on that line, insert it before the building name on the line above.

Park Square Building 31 St. James Avenue, Room 858 Boston, MA 02116-4255 Room 118, Acuff Building 904 Bob Wallace Avenue, SW Huntsville, AL 35801

> For additional examples, see ¶1318b.

#### **Street Address**

- **1331** Always type the street address on a line by itself, immediately preceding the city, state, and ZIP Code. (See ¶¶1317–1318 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*.

**NOTE**: Some house numbers contain a fraction or a hyphen; for example, 234½ Elm Street, 220-03 46th Street.

- **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, 627 East 202d Street or 144 65th Street. (See ¶425b.)
  - **c.** Some grid-style addresses require a period in a numbered street name; for example, 26.2 Road.
- **1334** When a compass point (for example, *East, West, Southeast, Northwest*) appears *before* a street name, do not abbreviate it except in a very long street address when space is tight.

330 West 42d Street

3210 Northwest Grand Avenue

- **1335** When a compass point appears *after* a street name, follow the style most commonly used in your area. In the absence of a local style, follow these guidelines:
  - a. Abbreviate compound directions (NE, NW, SE, SW) that represent a section of the city. Do not use a period with these abbreviations (see ¶531a). Insert a comma before them.

817 Peachtree Street, NE 12

120 112th Street, NW

**b.** Spell out *North*, *South*, *East*, and *West* following a street name, and omit the comma. (In such cases these compass points are typically an integral part of the street name rather than a designation of a section of the city.)

10 Park Avenue South

2049 Century Park East

- **1336** Use the word and, not an ampersand (&), in a street address; for example, Tenth and Market Streets. However, avoid the use of such "intersection" addresses if a house or building number plus a single street name is available (such as 304 Tenth Street).
- **1337** Avoid abbreviating such words as *Street* and *Avenue* in inside addresses. (It may be necessary to abbreviate in envelope addresses. See ¶1390a.)
  - > For apartment and room numbers with street addresses, see ¶¶1317b, 1318b, 1330.

#### **Box Number**

**1338 a.** A post office box number may be used in place of the street address. The following forms are acceptable:

Post Office Box 1518 OR P.O. Box 1518

Do not use the form  $Box\ 1518$  except with a rural route (RR) address or a highway contract (HC) address. (See  $\P1317c$ .)

NOTE: The U.S. Postal Service (USPS) prefers that a designation such as Drawer L be changed to Post Office Box L.

**b.** A station name, if used, 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 above.

Box 76984, Sanford Station Los Angeles, CA 90076-0984

Linda Vista Station P.O. Box 11215 San Diego, CA 92111

NOTE: According to the USPS, station names are no longer needed.

- c. Some organizations show both a street address and a post office box number in their mailing address. When you are writing to an organization with two addresses, use only one address: the post office box number for ordinary mail and the street address for express mail. If you provide both addresses on an envelope, the USPS will deliver the mail to the address that appears directly above the city-state-ZIP Code line.
- **d.** If you are writing to someone who rents a mailbox from a private company, insert the *private mailbox* number (formerly known as a *mailstop code*) on the line directly above the delivery address—that is, the street address of the private company where the mailbox is located. For example:

Ms. Robin B. Kantor PMB 215 621 Bloomfield Avenue Verona, NJ 07044

# City, State, and ZIP Code

**1339** Always type the city, state, and ZIP Code on one line, immediately following the street address. Type the name of the city (followed by a comma and 1 space), the state (followed by 1 space but no comma), and the ZIP Code.

Denver, Colorado 80217 OR Denver, CO 80217-9999

NOTE: The USPS encourages the use of a nine-digit ZIP Code (consisting of the basic five digits followed immediately by a hyphen and another four digits); hence the designation ZIP + 4 Code. The use of the additional four digits is voluntary, but as an inducement the USPS offers discounts on postage fees. To qualify for a discount, mailers must submit a minimum of 500 first-class letters or postcards at one time, and the envelope addresses must be readable by electronic equipment known as optical character readers (OCRs). Moreover, the mailing list must be certified by USPS-approved software. Because of the number of criteria that must be satisfied. mailers who want to qualify for a discount should consult their local USPS business center for details. (See ¶¶1389-1390.)

**1340** When writing the name of a city in an inside address:

a. Take special care in spelling city names. Do not go by sound alone.

Baldwin, LA	Baldwyn, MS	Hillsboro, OR	Hillsborough, NC
Center, PA	Centre, PA	Jessup, PA	Jesup, GA
Cortland, NY	Cortlandt, NY	Kenedy, TX	Kennedy, PA
Green, IN	Greene, IN	Lynnwood, WA	Lynwood, CA
Hamden, CT	Hampden, MA	Paterson, NJ	Patterson, NY

- > See also ¶1202c, note.
- **b.** Do not use an abbreviation (for example, L.A. for Los Angeles).
- c. Do not abbreviate the words Fort, Mount, Point, or Port. Write the name of the city in full; for example, Fort Worth, Mount Vernon, Point Pleasant, Port Huron. (See also ¶529a.)
- **d.** Abbreviate the word *Saint* in the names of American cities; for example, *St. Louis*, St. Paul, St. Petersburg. (See also ¶529b.)

NOTE: It may be necessary, for reasons of space, to abbreviate city names in envelope addresses. (See ¶1390a.)

**1341 a.** In an address, spell out the name of the state or use a two-letter abbreviation of the state name. Either form is correct for use with a ZIP Code, and either form can be read by OCRs.

> NOTE: The two-letter abbreviations (for example, AL for Alabama) were created by the USPS and should be used only in mailing addresses. The more traditional abbreviations of state names (for example, Ala. for Alabama) should be used in other situations where abbreviations are appropriate. (See ¶527b for a list of the traditional abbreviations.)

**b.** When using two-letter state abbreviations, type them in capital letters, with no periods after the letters or space between them.

			_
Alabama	AL	Missouri	MO
Alaska	AK	Montana	MT
American Samoa	AS	Nebraska	NE
Arizona	AZ	Nevada	NV
Arkansas	AR	New Hampshire	NH
California	CA	New Jersey	NJ
Colorado	CO	New Mexico	NM
Connecticut	CT	New York	NY
Delaware	DE	North Carolina	NC
District of		North Dakota	ND
Columbia	DC	Northern Mariana	
Federated States		Islands	MP
of Micronesia	FM	Ohio	OH
Florida	FL	Oklahoma	OK
Georgia	GA	Oregon	OR
Guam	GU	Palau	PW
Hawaii	HI	Pennsylvania	PA
Idaho	ID	Puerto Rico	PR
Illinois	IL	Rhode Island	RI
Indiana	IN	South Carolina	SC
lowa	IA	South Dakota	SD
Kansas	KS	Tennessee	TN
Kentucky	KY	Texas	TX
Louisiana	LA	Utah	UT
Maine	ME	Vermont	VT
Marshall Islands	MH	Virgin Islands	VI
Maryland	MD	Virginia	VA
Massachusetts	MA	Washington	WA
Michigan	MI	West Virginia	WV
Minnesota	MN	Wisconsin	WI
Mississippi	MS	Wyoming	WY
the second second			

c. When giving an address in a sentence, insert a comma after the street address and after the city. Leave 1 space between the state and the ZIP Code. Insert a comma after the ZIP Code unless a stronger mark of punctuation is required at that point.

In April my new address will be 501 South 71st Court, Miami, Florida 33144-2728.

1342 Omit the name of the county or area (such as Long Island) in an address. However, the name of a community, subdivision, or real estate development may be included as long as it comes before the lines containing the mail delivery address.

Ms. J	Janet G. Arnold
Muir	Meadows
1039	Erica Road
Mill	Valley, CA 94941

NOT: Ms. Janet G. Arnold 1039 Erica Road Muir Meadows Mill Valley, CA 94941

**1343** a. In international addresses, type the name of the country on a separate line in allcapital letters. Do not abbreviate the name of the country.

> Graf-Adolf Strasse 100 4-14-11 Ginza Dusseldorf 4000 Chuo-Ku, Tokyo 104 GERMANY JAPAN

NOTE: If you are writing from another country to someone in the United States, type UNITED STATES OF AMERICA as the last line of the address.

b. In a Canadian address, the name of the province or territory may be spelled out or abbreviated. However, Canada Post has expressed a preference for the abbreviated form in order to keep the city, province, and postal code all on one line.

Alberta	AB	Nova Scotia	NS
British Columbia	BC	Ontario	ON
Manitoba	MB	Prince Edward	
New Brunswick	NB	Island	PE
Newfoundland	NF	Quebec	: QC
Northwest Territories		Saskatchewan	s SK
and Nunavut	NT	Yukon	YT

NOTE: In an inside address or an envelope address, insert a comma and 1 space between the city name and the two-letter abbreviation, followed by 2 spaces and the six-character postal code.

21 St. Clair Avenue Toronto, ON M4T 1L9

When giving an address in a sentence, spell out the name of the province and leave only 1 space before the postal code. Then insert a comma, 1 space, and Canada.

Write to me at 21 St. Clair Avenue, Toronto, Ontario M4T 1L9, Canada.

### **Attention Line**

1344 When a letter is addressed directly to an organization, an attention line may be used to route the letter to a particular person (by name or title) or to a particular department. Here is the format that has been used in the past.

> Shelton & Warren Industries Carrolton Labs 6710 Squibb Road 1970 Briarwood Court Mission, KS 66202-3223 Atlanta, GA 30329

> ATTN: SALES MANAGER Attention: Mr. John Ellery

NOTE: This form of address is intended to emphasize the fact that the letter deals with a business matter (rather than a personal matter) and may be handled by someone other than the person named in the attention line. However, it is simpler to type the name of the person or department above the organization name and omit the attention line. When a letter without a personal or confidential notation is received by an organization, it will be presumed to deal with company business and may be

handled by others in the absence of the person named in the address. For this reason an attention line is not really needed and in fact is no longer frequently used. Moreover, the arrangements shown on the preceding page—placing the attention line below the inside address—are not suitable if you are planning to use your computer to replicate the inside address on an envelope or mailing label.

**1345 a.** If you are using window envelopes or planning to generate the envelope address by repeating the inside address as typed, you should insert the attention line as the first line of the inside address—with or without the word *Attention*. (See also ¶¶1389n, 1390h.)

Mr. John Ellery Shelton & Warren Industries 6710 Squibb Road Mission, KS 66202-3223 Attention: Sales Manager Carrolton Labs 1970 Briarwood Court Atlanta, GA 30329

b. Once the attention line is placed on the first line of the address block, the argument for omitting the word *Attention* is further strengthened. (See the note in ¶1344.) Indeed, when the USPS illustrates the use of an attention line, it typically omits the word *Attention*. In fact, the USPS uses the term *attention line* to refer to *any* information—whether a person's name (*Ms. Hilary Edwards*), a person's title (*Marketing Director*), or a departmental name (*Research Department*)—that appears on the line above the organizational name (*The E. J. Monagle Publishing Company*). If you read somewhere that the USPS wants the first line of a business address to be an "attention line," do not conclude that it is requiring the use of the word *Attention*. The USPS simply wants to have personal or departmental names or titles come above the name of the organization.

**NOTE:** The use or omission of the word Attention will affect the choice of salutation. See ¶1351.

> For the treatment of an attention line on an envelope, see \$\pi 1389n, 1390h.

### **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 ¶1309b) or are typing a social-business letter (see ¶1395b). Omit the salutation if you are using the simplified style, and replace it with a subject line. (See ¶1352.)
- **1347** Abbreviate only the titles *Mr.*, *Ms.*, *Mrs.*, *Messrs.*, and *Dr.* Spell out all other titles, such as *Professor* and *Father.* (See Section 18 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 Mrs. Brand, Dear Sir.*
- **1349 a.** A list of salutations appears on the next page. (See Section 18 for the salutations to be used with different forms of address.)

NOTE: The salutations identified as more formal are no longer frequently used.

#### To One Person (Name, Gender, and Courtesy Title Preference Known)

Dear Mr. Smith: Dear Ms. Simpson: Dear Mrs. Gray: 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: 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: OR Gentlemen: OR Dear Messrs. Gelb and Harris: (more formal)

#### To Two or More Women

Dear Mrs. Allen, Ms. Ott, and Miss Day:

Dear Mrs. Jordan and Mrs. Kent: (see ¶618)

OR Dear Mesdames Jordan and Kent: (more formal)

Dear Ms. Scott and Ms. Gomez: (see ¶618)

or Dear Mses. (or Mss.) Scott and Gomez: (more formal)

Dear Miss Winger and Miss Rossi: (see ¶618)

OR Dear Misses Winger and Rossi: (more formal)

#### To a Woman and a Man

Dear Ms. Kent and Mr. Winston: Dear Mrs. Kay and Mr. Fox: Dear Mr. Fong and Miss Landis: Dear Mr. and Mrs. Green:

#### To Several Persons

Dear Mr. Anderson, Mrs. Brodsky, Ms. Carmino, and Mr. Dellums:

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

Ladies: **or** Mesdames: (more formal)

### To an Organization Composed of Men and Women (see §1350)

**b.** Be sure that the spelling of the surname in the salutation matches the spelling in the inside address. If the person you are writing to has a hyphenated last name (for example, Mrs. Hazel Gray-Sparks), the salutation should include the entire last name (Dear Mrs. Gray-Sparks).

- c. When writing to someone you know well, use a first name or nickname in place of the more formal salutations shown on page 368. However, once you start using an informal salutation, be sure that anyone who prepares your letters for you maintains that form of address. Otherwise, a person who is used to getting *Dear Mike* letters from you may one day receive a *Dear Mr. Romano* letter and waste a good deal of time brooding over what could have caused the sudden chill in your warm relationship.
- **d.** When you are preparing a letter that may be sent or shown to a number of as yet undetermined individuals, use *Dear Sir or Madam*. You may also use the simplified letter style and omit the salutation. (See page 350.)
- e. In salutations involving two or more people, use and, not &.
- **1350** For an organization composed of both men and women, choose one of the following alternatives:
  - a. Use Ladies and Gentlemen or Gentlemen and Ladies. (Do not use Gentlemen alone.)
  - **b.** 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 in ¶1349a.

Mr. James V. Quillan President United Services Corporation 100 Kendall Parkway Somerset, NJ 08873 President (OR Chief Executive Officer) United Services Corporation 100 Kendall Parkway Somerset, NJ 08873

Dear Mr. Quillan:

Dear Sir or Madam:

**c.** Use the name of the organization in the salutation.

Dear United Services Corporation:

**NOTE:** This approach is acceptable in routine or informal letters but should not be used in formal communications. (See the illustration on page 348 and ¶1803a.)

- d. Use the simplified letter style and omit the salutation. (See page 350.)
- **1351** a. If you have used an attention line beginning with the word Attention (see ¶¶1344–1345), 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.
  - **b.** If you drop the word *Attention* (as shown in ¶1345) and address the letter directly to an individual in the organization (either by name or by title), use one of the personal salutations shown in ¶1349.

The following rules (¶¶1352-1357) deal with the *body* of a letter. The body contains the text of the letter—in other words, the message (see ¶¶1354-1357). The body may also begin with a subject line (see ¶¶1352-1353), which briefly identifies the main idea in the message.

### **Subject Line**

**1352** In the simplified letter style:

- **a.** Use a subject line in place of the salutation.
- **b.** 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.
- **c.** Do not use a term like *Subject* to introduce the subject line. (See the illustration on page 350.)

# **1353** In all other letter styles:

- a. The subject line (if used) appears between the salutation and the text of the letter, with 1 blank line above and below. (See the illustration on page 349.)
- b. Ordinarily, the subject line starts at the left margin, but it may be centered for special emphasis. In a letter with indented paragraphs, the subject line may also be indented (typically, 0.5 inch).
- c. Type the subject line either in capital and small letters or in all-capital letters.
- **d.** The term Subject or In re or Re usually precedes the actual subject but may be omitted.

Subject: Introductory Offer to New Subscribers and Renewal Offer to Present Subscribers

SUBJECT: MORAN LEASE

In re: Moran Lease

NOTE: If the subject line is long, type it in two or more single-spaced lines of roughly equal length. (See the first example above as well as the illustrations on pages 415 and 506.)

e. When replying to a letter that carries a "refer to" notation, you may put the desired reference number or filing code in a subject line or below the date line. (See ¶1316d.)

Subject: Policy 668485 OR Refer to: Policy 668485

### Message

**1354** a. As a general rule, begin the text of the letter—the message—on the second line below the subject line, if used, or on the second line below the salutation. In the simplified letter style, begin the message on the third line below the subject line (which replaces the salutation).

> NOTE: With word processing software, you can use autotext to capture the keystrokes that represent frequently used names, phrases, sentences, or paragraphs. (See the note on page 341.)

b. If you are writing in response to a letter or some other document, it is helpful to refer to that document by date in the first sentence of your letter.

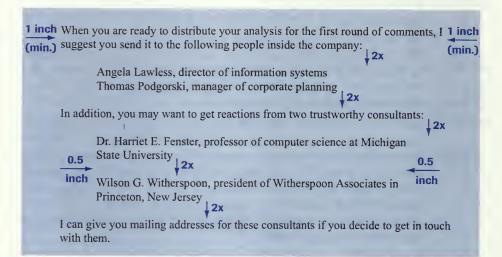
Thank you for your letter of May 9 (OR May 9, 2000).

NOTE: Whether you use the full date or the month and day alone to refer to the earlier document will depend on the nature of your letter. For a full discussion of this issue, see ¶409.

- **1355** Use single spacing and leave 1 blank line between paragraphs.
- 1356 a. Align each line of the message at the left margin. However, if you are using the modified-block letter style with indented paragraphs, indent the first line of each paragraph 0.5 inch. (See the illustration on page 348.)
  - **b.** You can use your word processing software to justify the right margin—that is, have each full line of text end at the same point. If you choose this format (known as full justification), your software will automatically insert extra space between words to make each line the same length. (See page 350 for an illustration of a letter with a justified right margin.)
    - NOTE: While full justification (aligning the lines of text at both the left and the right margins) looks attractive, the insertion of extra space between words can sometimes produce unintended "rivers" of white space running vertically down through the text. Full justification can also produce significant variations in the space between sentences (as illustrated in ¶102e). More important, studies have demonstrated that text with a ragged (unjustified) right margin is easier to read. Moreover, some recipients of a fully justified letter tend to regard it as a form letter and not take it seriously.
  - c. If you decide on a ragged right margin, try to avoid great variations in the length of adjacent lines. (See Section 9 for guidelines on dividing words in order to keep the lines of text roughly equal in length.)
  - **d.** If a letter takes two or more pages, do not divide a short paragraph (with only two or three lines) at the bottom of a page. Always leave at least two lines of the paragraph at the foot of one page and carry over at least two lines to the top of the next page. (See  $\P\P1382-1387$ .)
    - NOTE: Use the widow/orphan control feature to prevent the creation of orphans (printing the first line of a new paragraph as the last line on a page) and widows (printing the last line of a paragraph as the first line of a new page).
- 1357 a. Quoted Material. If a quotation will make four or more lines, type it as a singlespaced extract, indent it 0.5 inch from each side margin, and leave 1 blank line above and below the extract. (See the illustration on page 349.) With word processing software, you can change the indent settings, or you can use the double indent feature (if one is available), which will indent the extract equally from each side margin. If the quoted material represents the start of a paragraph in the original, indent the first word an additional 0.5 inch.
  - > For different ways of handling a long quotation, see \$\mathbb{I}265\$.
  - **b.** Tables. When a table occurs in the body of a letter, center it between the left and right margins. Try to indent the table at least 0.5 inch from each side margin. (If the table is very wide, reduce the space between columns to prevent the table from extending beyond the width of the text.) (See Section 16 for a full discussion on how to plan and execute tables.)

Continued on page 372

**c.** Items in a List. Type the list with 1 blank line above and below the list as a whole. Either type the list on the full width of the letter, or indent the list 0.5 inch from each side margin. If each item in the list requires only one line, type the list single-spaced. If any item in the list requires more than one line, leave a blank line after each item in the list for a more open look. Align any turnovers with the first word in the line above.



- > See ¶1424e, note, and the illustration on page 504.
- **d.** Enumerated Items in a List. If the items each begin with a number or a letter, you may use the numbered list feature of your word processing program. Each item will begin at the left margin, and no space will be left between items.

When I review the situation as you described it in your letter of June 24, it seems to me that you have only two alternatives:

- 1. Agree to pay the additional amount that Henning now demands.
- Agree to pay the daditional
   Drop Henning and start the search all over again for a new firm.

Note the treatment of turnover lines when you use the numbered list feature.

When I review the situation as you described it in your letter of June 24, it seems to me that you have only two alternatives:

- 1. Agree to pay the additional amount that Henning now demands before he will start construction.
- 2. Drop Henning and start the search all over again to find a firm qualified to handle a project of this size and this complexity.

For a more open look, leave one blank line after each item in the list if any item requires more than one line.

When I review the situation as you described it in your letter of June 24, it seems to me that you have only two alternatives:

- 1. Agree to pay the additional amount that Henning now demands before he will start construction.
- Drop Henning and start the search all over again to find a firm qualified to handle a project of this size and this complexity.

An enumerated list may be typed the full width of the letter, or it may be indented 0.5 inch from each side margin. However, if the first line of each text paragraph is indented, then for better appearance indent the enumerated list as well.

#### **Default Style Preferred Style** When I review the situation as you When I review the situation as you seems to me that you have only two alterr seems to me that you have only two alter-1. Agree to pay the additional amount th 1. Agree to pay the additional ar will start construction. he will start construction. 2. Drop Henning and start the search all handle a project of this size and this 2. Drop Henning and start the s to handle a project of this size As painful as it may be, you may tor than to have to deal with new demant As painful as it may be, you may the way through the job. tor than to have to deal with new demands the way through the job.

NOTE: The numbered list feature aligns numbers and letters at the left. If your list contains 10 or more items, you can make an adjustment so that the numbers will align at the right.

DEFAULT ALIGNMENT:	8.	STANDARD ALIGNMENT	: 8.
	9.		9.
	10.		10.
	11.		11.
	12.		12.

The numbered list feature of some word processing programs (such as Microsoft Word) indents the first word that follows the number and any turnover lines 0.25 inch from the left margin (as shown in the illustration at the top of this page). The numbered list feature of other programs uses a default indent of 0.5 inch, but you can change this indent to 0.25 inch for a more attractive look.

**e.** Bulleted Items in a List. Instead of numbers or letters, you can use *bullets* before the items in a list. With word processing software, you can choose from a variety of styles to create bullets. For example:

CIRCLES: ○ ● TRIANGLES: ▷ ►

SQUARES: □ ■ OTHER ASCII CHARACTERS: > → *

If you use the automatic bullet insert feature, the default position of the bullet is at the left margin and the text and any turnovers are automatically indented (as in the illustration below). If you prefer, you can position the bullets 0.5 inch from the left margin by pressing the tab before activating the bullet feature.

When I review the situation as you described it in your letter of June 24, it seems to me that you have only two alternatives:

- Agree to pay the additional amount that Henning now demands before he will start construction.
- Drop Henning and start the search all over again to find a firm qualified to handle a project of this size and this complexity.

The following rules (¶¶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). The closing may also include a company signature line (¶1361), a file name notation (¶¶1371-1372), an enclosure notation (¶¶1373-1374), a delivery notation (¶1375), a 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 modified-block-style letter, start the closing at center. In a block-style letter, start the closing at the left margin. In a simplified letter, omit the closing. (See the illustrations on pages 346–350.)

NOTE: Word processing software allows you to use autotext for the complimentary closing and other elements that are frequently used in the closing of a letter.

- **1359** a. Capitalize only the first word of a complimentary closing.
  - **b.** Place a comma at the end of the line (except when open punctuation is used).
- **1360** a. The following complimentary closings are commonly used:

Sincerely, Sincerely yours, Cordially, Cordially yours,

NOTE: More formal closings—such as Very truly yours and Respectfully yours—are infrequently used these days.

b. An informal closing phrase may be inserted in place of one of the more conventional closings shown in a. If the wording is an adverbial phrase (one that tells how or in what manner—for example, With all best wishes or With warmest regards), follow the closing with a comma. If the wording is a complete sentence (for example, See you in Boston), follow the closing with a period. In each case the comma or the period may be replaced with stronger punctuation as appropriate—that is, a question mark, an exclamation point, or a dash.

NOTE: If you are using open punctuation, see ¶1309b.

- **c.** If both a complimentary closing and an informal closing phrase are used, type the complimentary closing in its regular position, and (1) type the informal phrase at the end of the last paragraph or (2) treat the informal phrase as the final paragraph with the appropriate terminal punctuation.
- **d.** 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 who receives the letter may wonder what has happened to the established relationship. (See also ¶1349c.)

# **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-capital letters on the second line below the complimentary closing. Begin the company signature at the same point as the complimentary closing. (See the illustration on page 346.)

HASKINS & COHEN Inc.

NOTE: When a letter is written on letterhead stationery, the recipient of the letter may reasonably assume that the individual who signs the letter does so on behalf of the organization named in the letterhead. For that reason a company signature (like an attention line) is not really needed. Nevertheless, follow the style of the organization you work for.

> For the use of autotext and macros, see the note on page 341.

# Writer's Name and Title

**1362** a. Ordinarily, type the writer's name in capital and small letters on the fourth line below the company signature, if used, or on the fourth line below the complimentary closing. In the simplified letter style, type the writer's name and title in all-capital letters on the *fifth* line below the body. (See the examples in ¶1363 and the illustrations on pages 346–350.)

NOTE: If the letter is running short, you can leave up to 6 blank lines for the signature. If the letter is running long, you can reduce the signature space to 2 blank lines. (See also ¶1307-1308.)

**b.** Ordinarily, start typing at the same point as the company signature or the complimentary closing. In the simplified letter style, start typing at the left margin.

- c. 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 unsigned copies will clearly show who sent the letter. If the writer prefers to omit his or her name from the signature block, then it should be spelled out in the reference initials. (See ¶1370d.)
- **d.** Top-level executives usually have special stationery with their name and title imprinted along with other elements of the letterhead. When using this type of stationery, supply a typewritten signature but omit the title. (For an illustration. see page 349.)
- > For the use of autotext and macros, see the note on page 341.)
- **1363** a. Arrange the writer's name, title, and department on two or more lines to achieve good visual balance. If a title takes more than one line, align all turnovers at the left.

Janice Mahoney, Manager Data Processing Division Ernest L. Welhoelter Chairman of the Board

Charles Saunders Assistant Manager Credit Department Franklin Browning Vice President and General Manager

SIMPLIFIED STYLE: MARY WELLER, MANAGER, SALES DEPARTMENT

- b. In signature blocks, capitalize the first letter of every word in the title and department except (1) prepositions under four letters (like of, for, and in), (2) conjunctions under four letters (like and), and (3) the articles the, a, and an when they appear within the title. (See also ¶1325a.)
- **1364** For the use of a special title in a signature block, observe the following guidelines:
  - **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. Charles Burgos, D.D.S.

not before it.

Nancy Buckwalter, Ph.D. Morris Finley, D.D.

Lee Toniolo, D.O. Henry Krawitz, D.H.L. **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,

Helene C. Powell Joseph F. Corev Dean of Students Major, USAF

(NOT: Dean Helene C. Powell) (NOT: Major Joseph F. Corey)

c. When a title cannot be placed after a surname or cannot be inferred from the initials of an academic degree, then it may precede the name.

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, Adrian, Beverly, Lynn) or if he uses initials

¶1366 in place of a first and middle name (J. G. Eberle), he should use Mr. in either his hand-

written or his typed signature when writing to people who do not know him. Otherwise, he will have to accept the fact that he may be addressed as a woman.

NOTE: If given in the handwritten signature, Mr. should be enclosed in parentheses. If given in the typed signature, Mr. should appear without parentheses.

Sincerely,

Sincerely,

(Mr.) Lynn Treadway Lynn Treadway

Lynn Treadway

Mr. Lynn Treadway

1366 a. A woman may choose not to include any title along with her signature. In that case, someone writing to her may choose to address her as Ms. or give her full name without any title at all.

Sincerely,

Sincerely,

Joan Beauregard

Leslie Ellis

Joan Beauregard

If she uses initials in place of a first name or if she has a first name that could also be a man's name (as in the case of Leslie Ellis shown above), she will have to accept the fact that by not indicating her gender, she may be addressed as a man.

- > For salutations to use when writing to someone whose gender is unknown to you, see ¶1349.
- **b.** A woman who wants to indicate her preference for Ms. should use this courtesy title in either her handwritten or her typed signature (but not both).

Sincerely yours,

Sincerely yours,

(Ms.) Constance G. Booth

Constance G. Booth

Constance G. Booth

Ms. Constance G. Booth

c. A single woman who wants to indicate her preference for Miss should include this title in her handwritten or her typed signature (but not both).

Cordially,

Cordially,

(Miss) Margaret L. Galloway

Margaret L. Galloway

Margaret L. Galloway

Miss Margaret L. Galloway

**d.** A married woman who retains her original name for career purposes or who does not change her surname at all may use either Ms. or Miss, as illustrated in ¶1366b-c.

Continued on page 378

e. 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 original name was Nancy O. Ross and whose husband's name is (or was) John A. Wells.

Sincerely,	Sincerely,				
(Mrs.) Nancy O. Wells	Nancy O. Wells				
Nancy O. Wells	Mrs. Nancy O. Wells				
Sincerely,	Sincerely,				
(Mrs.) Nancy R. Wells	Nancy R. Wells				
Nancy R. Wells	Mrs. Nancy R. Wells				
Sincerely,	Sincerely,				
(Mrs.) Nancy Ross Wells	Nancy Ross Wells				
Nancy Ross Wells	Mrs. Nancy Ross Wells				
Sincerely,	Sincerely,				
(Mrs.) Nancy O. Ross-Wells	Nancy O. Ross-Wells				
Nancy O. Ross-Wells	Mrs. Nancy O. Ross-Wells				

NOTE: Giving the husband's full name in the typed signature (as in the example below) is a style often used for social purposes. It should not be used in business, and it should not be used when a married woman becomes a widow unless she indicates that that is her preference.

Sincerely,

Nancy O. Wells

Mrs. John A. Wells

- f. A divorced woman who has resumed her original surname may use *Ms.* or *Miss* in any of the styles shown in ¶1366b-c. If she retains her ex-husband's surname, she may use *Ms.* or *Mrs.* in any of the styles shown in ¶1366b and e. (EXCEPTION: The style that uses the husband's full name in the typed signature is not appropriate for a divorced woman.)
- **1367** An administrative assistant who signs a letter at the boss's request customarily signs the boss's name and adds his or her own initials. However, if the boss prefers, the administrative assistant may sign the letter in his or her own name.

Section 13 • Letters and Memos

11370

Sincerely yours,

Robert H. Benedict

Robert H. Benedict **Production Manager**  Sincerely yours,

Dorothy Kozinski

Ms. Dorothy Kozinski Administrative Assistant to Mr. Benedict

**1368** If the person who signs for another is not the administrative assistant, either of the following forms may be used:

Sincerely yours,

(Miss) alice R. Brentano

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, aligned at the left. In a modified-block-style letter, begin typing at center; however, in a block-style or simplified letter, begin typing at the left margin.

### Reference Initials

- **1370** a. When the writer's name is given in the signature block, the simplest and most unobtrusive way to provide the necessary information is to give the typist's initials alone in small letters. (See the illustrations on pages 346, 349, and 350.)
  - NOTE: Do not include reference initials in a personal-business letter (see the illustration on page 348) or a social-business letter (see \$\pi 1394-1395\$ and the illustration on page 401). Moreover, omit reference initials on letters you type yourself unless you need to distinguish them from letters prepared for you by someone else.
  - **b.** Type the initials of the typist at the left margin, on the second line below the writer's name and title. If the writer wants his or her initials used, they should precede the initials of the typist.
  - c. Type the initials either in small letters or in capital letters. When giving two sets of initials, type them both the same way for speed and simplicity.

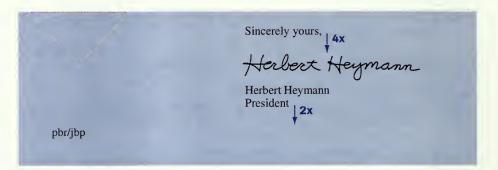
TYPIST ONLY: WRITER AND TYPIST: dmd/mhs

OR GDL

OR DMD/MHS

> For the use of autotext, see \$1354a, note; for initials based on names like McFarland and O'Leary, see ¶516c. Continued on page 380

- **d.** If the writer's name is not given in the signature block, type the writer's initials and surname before the initials of the typist; for example, BSDixon/rp.
- e. 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).



### File Name Notation

- 1371 When you create documents using word processing software, each document needs a unique file name so that it can be readily retrieved from storage. Some organizations have specific guidelines for creating file names so that anyone in the organization can retrieve a document. If you are free to create your own file names, the following guidelines may be of some help.
  - a. A file name has three components: a name, a period (called a dot) used as a separator, and an extension typically consisting of 1 to 3 characters. Older programs allow a name preceding the dot of no more than 8 characters. Current Windows programs allow a name preceding the dot of up to 255 characters. Moreover, some current programs permit more than 3 characters after the dot and allow the use of more than one extension.
  - **b.** In creating a file name, try to make it as meaningful as possible. You can use the letters a to z, the figures 0 to 9, and certain symbols. Do not use a period except to separate the name from the extension. Moreover, do not use any of the following characters: the forward slash (/), the back slash (\), the greater-than sign (>), the less-than sign (<), the asterisk (*), the question mark (?), the quotation mark ("), the colon (:), the semicolon (;), or the pipe symbol (!). Depending on the software that you are using, you may be able to use spaces in file names.
    - NOTE: Refer to your software help file or your user's manual to determine whether you can use spaces and to confirm which symbols may or may not be used.
  - c. If you are planning to file alphabetically, the first element in a file name may be the name of a person, an organization, or a subject. Try to limit the number of characters simply for the sake of efficiency. If you are dealing with a long name, abbreviate it in a way that suggests the full name. For example, a long name like Yvonne Christopher could be transformed into chrstphr—or better yet, chrstphy (to distinguish it from a file name created for Henry Christopher—chrstphh). An orga-

nizational name like *BankAmerica Corp.* could be abbreviated as *bankamer*. A subject name like *Direct Marketing Plans for 2003* could be shortened to *dmplns03*.

**d.** If you are planning to file numerically, the first element in a file name may be a date, a policy number, an order number, or something similar. If you are using dates, express months in a sequence that ranges from 01 to 12, days in a sequence that ranges from 01 to 31, and years in a sequence that ranges from 00 to 99. Express the date in year-month-day sequence; for example, the file name based on May 2, 2002, would be 020502.

NOTE: If you create a lot of correspondence, you may want to include the first few letters of the recipient's surname following the date. For example, the file name for a letter sent to Alexander Grayson on June 4, 2003, might be 030604gry. The file name for a letter sent to the American Automobile Association on the same day might be 030604aaa.

- e. If your software limits you to 8 characters before the dot, the 3-character extension that serves as the last component in a file name can be used to show (in abbreviated form) the date assigned to the document (in year-month-day order).
  - (1) To express the year, use the last digit of the year (for example, 0 for 2000).
  - (2) To express the months from January to September, use the figures 1 to 9. For October, November, and December, use the letters o, n, and d.
  - (3) To express days of the month, use the figures 1 to 31. However, if you are planning to show the year as well, all figures over 9 will have to be expressed as a single character. Here is one possible code for the numbers 10 to 31:

10 a										
21 	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31

NOTE: On the basis of the code shown above, an extension such as 28d would signify August 13, 2002; 4nn would stand for November 23, 2004.

- f. The 3-character extension may also be used:
  - (1) To show the initials of the writer.
  - (2) To indicate where a document falls in chronological order. (For example, bonoj. 12 would signify that a given document is the twelfth sent to J. Bono.)
  - (3) To identify a document in different stages of revision. (For example, d1 could signify the first draft, d3 the third draft, and df the final version.)
  - (4) To indicate the initials of the recipient of the letter if the primary component of the file name is the date.

NOTE: Some word processing programs will automatically insert an extension such as .doc or .wpd unless you provide one.

1372 It is not essential to provide a file name notation on your letters, but some organizations require it and some writers prefer to do so. If you want to insert a file name notation in a letter, type it on the line below the reference initials (see ¶1370). Some writers prefer to treat the file name notation as a reference notation and insert it after the phrase When replying, refer to: (See ¶1316.)

### **Enclosure Notation**

1373 a. 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 alternative) at the left margin, on the line below the reference initials or the file name notation, whichever comes last.

> NOTE: Before sending the letter, make sure that the number of enclosures shown in the enclosure notation agrees with (1) the number cited in the body of the letter and (2) the number of items actually enclosed.

**b.** The following styles are commonly used:

Enclosure 2 Enclosures Enclosures: Enc. (See ¶503) 2 Enc. 1. Check for \$500 1 Enclosure Enclosures 2 2. Invoice A37512 Check enclosed Enc. 2

- c. Some writers use the term Attachment or Att. when the material is actually attached to the cover letter rather than simply enclosed.
- > For the use of autotext and macros, see the note on page 341; for the use of enclosure notations with copy notations, see ¶1379.
- **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 or the file name notation, whichever comes last. The following styles may be used:

Separate cover 1 Under separate cover:

- 1. Annual report
- 2. Product catalog
- 3. Price list

# **Delivery Notation**

**1375** a. If a letter is to be delivered in a special way (other than ordinary first-class mail). type an appropriate notation on the line below the reference initials, the file name notation, or the enclosure notation, whichever comes last. Among the notations that could be used are By certified mail, By Express Mail, By fax, By Federal Express (or FedEx), By messenger, By registered mail, and By special delivery.

> crj HWM: FH tpg/wwc Enc. 2 By Federal Express Enclosures 4 By certified mail cc: Mr. Fry By fax

NOTE: If you send a letter by fax and want to record the fax number on your file copy, simply expand the delivery notation as follows:

By fax (203-555-4687)

b. When a letter is first faxed to the addressee and then sent through the mail as a confirmation copy, it is helpful to provide a "confirmation" notation on the letter being mailed so that the addressee will realize at once that the document now in hand is not a new letter but simply a duplicate of the fax. Type the confirmation notation on the second line below the date line (see ¶1314) or on the second line below any notation that follows the date (see  $\P$  $\P$ 1315–1316). Starting at the left

margin, type Confirmation of fax sent on and then supply the date on which the fax was transmitted.

**NOTE:** It is sometimes necessary to send a letter confirming a message already transmitted by e-mail. In such a case provide a confirmation notation like the example above, with a minor change in wording: *Confirmation of e-mail message sent on* [date on which message was transmitted].

> For the use of autotext and macros, see the note on page 341.

## **Copy Notation**

**1376 a.** A copy notation lets the addressee know that one or more persons will also be sent a copy of the letter. The initials cc are still the most commonly used device for introducing this notation. Although the abbreviation originally referred to carbon copies, cc also means copies (in the same way that pp. means pages and ll. means lines). The initials cc may also stand for courtesy copies; indeed, that is how cc is defined in the Microsoft Word program.

Some writers object to using cc, now that the widespread use of photocopying has made the use of carbons obsolete when it comes to preparing duplicates of letters and memos. However, cc and its related form bcc (see ¶1378) continue to be widely used (regardless of how the copies are made), in much the same way that a *dial tone* continues to be heard on telephone instruments that use buttons rather than a rotary dial.

**NOTE:** The abbreviation *cc* is used in the heading of many memo templates and e-mail formats. (For illustrations see pages 394–395.)

- **b.** Writers looking for an alternative to *cc* may use a single *c* or the phrase *Copies to* (or *Copy to*).
- **c.** Start the copy notation on the line directly under any previous notation (such as reference initials or an enclosure notation). If there is no previous notation, type the copy notation on the second line below the writer's name and title.
- **d.** Type cc or c o
- e. If you are sending a copy to only one person, leave 1 or 2 spaces after the colon.

mfn Enclosure pda/gfy c: Ms. Wu c: Mr. Case Copy to: Mrs. L. Bergamot

**f.** If you are sending copies to several people, start all names at the same point. To avoid alignment problems, either take advantage of a preset tab or set a tab 1 or 2 spaces after the colon. List the names in accordance with the rank of the persons or in alphabetic order. Type cc or c or Copies to only alongside the first name in the list.

cc: Ms. Aguirre c: Mr. Devoe
Mr. Boulet Ms. Eggleston
Mrs. Corbin Mrs. Franco

Copies to: Mrs. Gold Mr. Hunsicker Ms. Ismail

**1377** When first names or initials are given along with last names, omit personal titles (Mr., Miss, Mrs., and Ms.) except in formal letters. Moreover, do not use personal titles if nicknames are given with last names.

c:	James Diaz	cc:	J.	Diaz	cc:	Jim Diaz
	Kenneth Eustis		K.	Eustis		Ken Eustis
	Margaret Foster		Μ.	Foster		Peggy Foster
	Katherine Gabor		K.	Gabor		Kay Gabor

- **1378** If you do not want the addressee to know that one or more persons are also being sent a copy of the letter, use a blind copy notation.
  - a. Print the original letter plus any copies on which the regular copy notation is to appear.
  - **b.** Print the blind copies one at a time, with a blind copy notation showing the name of the designated recipient.
  - c. Under certain circumstances, you may wish to let all recipients of blind copies know who the others are.
  - **d.** Type the blind copy notation on the second line below the last item in the letter (whether reference initials, an enclosure notation, or any other notation).
  - e. The form of a blind copy notation should follow the form of the copy notation. If you have used cc or c, then use bcc or bc accordingly. If you have used Copies to, use Blind copies to.
  - f. The file copy should show all the blind copy notations, even though the individual copies do not. Whether the file copy is stored in computer memory or in hardcopy form, you may need to use the file copy later on to make additional copies for distribution. In such cases make sure that no prior blind copy notation appears on these new copies unless you want it to.
- **1379** When a letter carries both an enclosure notation and a copy 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. P. Wellak
                                    (will receive only the letter)
                                    (will receive only the letter)
     Ms. N. A. Warren
cc/enc: Mr. J. Baldwin
                                    (will receive the letter and the enclosures)
          Mrs. G. Conger
                                    (will receive 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. As an alternative, you may use a highlighting marker to identify the recipient of each copy.

```
c: Ms. M. Starr ✓
                      c: Ms. M. Starr
                                              c: Ms. M. Starr
  Mr. W. Fried
                          Mr. W. Fried 🗸
                                                 Mr. W. Fried
  Mrs. C. Bell
                          Mrs. C. Bell
                                                 Mrs. C. Bell /
```

NOTE: When an unsigned 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.

> For the use of autotext and macros, see the note on page 341.

## **Postscript**

- **1381** a. 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, the reader may conclude that the letter was badly organized.
  - **b.** When a postscript is used:
    - (1) Start the postscript on the second line below the copy notation (or whatever was typed last). If the paragraphs are indented, indent the first line of the postscript (see the illustration on page 348). Otherwise, begin it at the left margin.
    - (2) Type PS: or PS. before the first word of the postscript, or omit the abbreviation altogether. (If PS is used, leave 1 or 2 spaces between the colon or period and the first word.)
    - (3) Use *PPS*: or *PPS*. (or no abbreviation at all) at the beginning of an additional postscript, and treat this postscript as a separate paragraph.

PS: Instead of dashing for the airport as soon as the meeting is over, why don't you have dinner and spend the night with us and then go back on Saturday morning?

PPS: Better yet, why don't you bring Joyce with you and plan to stay for the whole weekend?

## **Continuation Pages**

- 1382 Use plain paper of the same quality as the letterhead (but never a letterhead) for all but the first page of a long letter.
- 1383 Use the same left and right margins that you used on the first page.
- 1384 If you use the header feature in your word processing program, type a continuationpage heading consisting of the following: the name of the addressee, the page number, and the date. Either of the following formats is acceptable in the modified-block
  letter style. The three-line format is preferred in the block and simplified letter
  styles.



**NOTE:** If you are using a letter template provided by your word processing software, the program may automatically insert a continuation-page heading and correctly number each continuation page.

1385 a. Leave 1 or 2 blank lines below the last line of the continuation-page heading and resume typing the letter. If you use the header feature of your word processing software to create a continuation-page heading, be sure there is at least 1 blank line between the header and the text of the letter.

Ms. Jenny Applegate 2 February 23, 2001 and comparison shopping on Web sites will help you research products and compare prices to find the best bargains.

OR:

Ms. Jenny Applegate

2
February 23, 2001

3x

and comparison shopping on Web sites will help you research products and compare prices to find the best bargains.

NOTE: If you use Microsoft Word's header feature for the one-line format, you will automatically get 2 blank lines below the continuation heading. If you use the same feature for the three-line format, you will need to insert 1 or 2 blank lines in the header box before resuming the text of the letter.

- **b.** Do not divide a short paragraph (one that contains only two or three lines) at the bottom of a page. For a paragraph of four or more lines, always leave at least two lines of the paragraph at the bottom of the previous page. Carry over at least two lines to the continuation page. (See also ¶1356d.)
- c. Never use a continuation page just for the closing section of a business letter. (The complimentary closing should be preceded by at least two lines of text.)

1386 Leave a bottom margin of at least 1 inch. The last page may run short. (See ¶1306.)

**1387** Do not divide the last word on a page.

## **Envelopes**

## **1388** Addressing Envelopes

a. The following chart indicates which envelopes may be used, depending on the size of the stationery and the way in which the stationery is folded (see ¶1391).

Stationery	Fold	Envelope
Letter (81/2" x 11")	In thirds In half, then in thirds	No. 10 (91/2" x 41/8") No. 63/4 (61/2" x 35/8")
Executive (MS Word: 71/2" x 10") (WordPerfect: 71/4" x 101/2")	In thirds In thirds	No. 9 (87/8" x 37/8") Monarch (71/2" x 37/8")
Half Letter (51/2" x 81/2")	In thirds	No. 63/4 (61/2" x 35/8")

NOTE: If you are using stationery and envelopes other than those shown above, consult the standards established by the U.S. Postal Service (USPS) for envelope size and thickness in order to qualify for automated processing.

- b. Using the envelope feature of a word processing program, you can select the envelope size you plan to use from a preestablished menu. With regard to the placement of the return address and the mailing address, you can accept the default placement specifications provided for the envelope size you have selected, or you can modify them to suit your needs. You can also use a custom-size envelope (assuming your printer will support it) and establish appropriate placement specifications for that size.
- > For an illustration of an envelope prepared by Microsoft Word (using the envelope feature and all the default specifications), see page 388.

## **1389** The Inside-Address Style for Addressing Envelopes

The traditional style for addressing envelopes—and the style most commonly seen on envelopes—uses capital and small letters plus punctuation as appropriate. This style may be thought of as the inside-address style, because it follows all aspects of the format for inside addresses, as discussed in ¶¶1317–1343. The advantage of using this style on envelopes is that you can use your computer to generate the same address information in both places. Moreover, the OCRs (optical character readers) used by the USPS are programmed to read this traditional style of address.

> For the use of the all-cap style in addressing envelopes, see ¶1390.

When using the inside-address style:

- a. Always use single spacing and block each line at the left.
- > See the illustrations on pages 388–389. For specific details on the handling of elements within the address block, see ¶¶1317–1343.
- **b.** Capitalize the first letter of every word in an address except (1) prepositions under four letters (like of and for), (2) conjunctions under four letters (like and), and (3) the articles the, a, and an when they are used within a name or title. (Under certain circumstances even some of these short words are capitalized. See \$\pi 1325a\$, 1329e.)
- c. Type the city, state, and ZIP Code on the last line. If space limitations make it impossible for the ZIP Code to fit on the same line, the ZIP Code may be typed on the line directly below, blocked at the left.
- **d.** Leave 1 space between the state name and the ZIP Code. (The USPS recommends either 1 or 2 spaces.)
- e. The state name may be spelled out or given as a two-letter abbreviation. Either form is correct for use with a ZIP Code. (See ¶1341.)
- f. The next-to-last line in the address block should contain a street address, a post office box number, a rural route address, or a highway contract address. (See ¶¶1317c, 1331-1338.)

Elvera Agresta, M.D. 218 Oregon Pioneer's Building 320 Southwest Stark Street Portland, Oregon 97204-2628 Mr. Peter Schreiber Director of Research Colby Electronics Inc. P.O. Box 6524 Raleigh, NC 27628

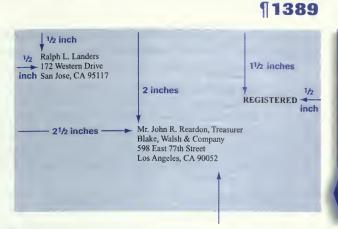
- g. When using the envelope template of a word processing program to prepare an envelope, accept the default positions for the mailing address and the return address. Doing so will ensure that the mailing address falls within the OCR "read area" and that the return address does not.
  - **NOTE:** The OCR read area starts  $2^{3}/4$  inches above the bottom edge of the envelope, ends  $^{5}/8$  inch from the bottom edge, and extends horizontally so as to end  $^{1}/2$  inch in from the left and right edges. Do not allow any notations to fall along-side or below the OCR read area.
- h. Your software may permit you to insert the USPS POSTNET bar code above or below the address block. (See ¶1390b.) Before you take advantage of this option, make sure that your complete database of mailing addresses has been certified by means of address-matching software approved by the USPS. For further information, contact your local Postal Service business center. (See also ¶1339, note.)

## No. 10 envelope created by Microsoft Word for Windows, using all the default specifications.

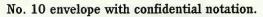


- i. When using a window envelope, adjust the placement of the inside address on the material to be inserted so that there will be a minimum clearance of 1/8 inch (and preferably 1/4 inch) between the edges of the window and all four sides of the address block, no matter how much the inserted material shifts around inside the envelope. (See also ¶1391d.)
- j. To facilitate OCR processing, make sure that the lines in the address block are parallel to the bottom edge of the envelope. Moreover, there should be good contrast between the typed address and the color of the envelope; black type on a white background is preferred. In addition, do not use a script or italic font, and avoid dot matrix print, especially if the dots that make up each character do not touch. The type should be clear and sharp, and adjacent characters should not touch or overlap.
- **k.** When the envelope contains a printed return address for an organization, it is not possible to type the writer's name above the printed address. In such cases you may write the name in by hand above the printed address, or you may type the name on the second line below the printed return address.

No. 6³/4 envelope with mailing notation.



For OCR processing, start the mailing address no higher than  $2^{3}/4$  inches from the bottom edge. Leave a minimum bottom margin of  $^{5}/8$  inch and minimum side margins of  $^{1}/2$  inch. (See ¶1389j.)





- 1. If you have to create a return address, it should contain the following information, arranged on single-spaced lines, aligned at the left: (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. If you are using the envelope template of a word processing program, accept the default position for the return address.
- m. If a notation such as *Confidential*, *Personal*, *Please Forward*, or *Hold for Arrival* is to be used, type it on the third line below the return address. Align the notation at the left with the return address. Begin each main word with a capital letter, and use boldface, italics, or underlining. For special emphasis type *Confidential* and *Personal* in all-capital letters.

NOTE: Do not allow any notations or graphics to fall alongside or below the area established for the mailing address (see ¶1389j). Copy placed in these locations will interfere with OCR processing.

- n. If an attention line was used within the letter itself, it should appear on the envelope as well. The attention line should be typed as the first line of the address block (see ¶1345).
- $\rightarrow$  See III 1344–1345, note, on avoiding the use of attention lines.
- o. If a special mailing procedure is used, type the appropriate notation (such as REGISTERED) in all-capital letters in the upper right corner of the envelope. Type the notation  $1^{1/2}$  inches from the top edge or on the third line below the bottom edge of the stamp, whichever is lower. Position the notation so that it ends ¹/₂ inch from the right margin.
- > See the illustration at the top of page 389.
- **p.** 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 your records or the incoming document).
- > For letters being sent to two or more people at the same address, see ¶1320b.

## **1390** The All-Cap Style for Addressing Envelopes

The all-cap style for addressing envelopes was devised by the U.S. Postal Service (USPS) primarily for the benefit of high-volume mailers who must contend with space limitations for the address blocks they generate by computer. The all-cap style typically appears on labels to be used in a mass mailing.

The USPS has issued many brochures urging everyone—individuals as well as organizations—to use the all-cap style, but it acknowledges that the inside-address style (see ¶1389) is quite acceptable for use on envelopes and can be easily read by the USPS OCRs.

Keep in mind that the USPS now subjects all letter-sized mail and postcards to OCR processing—even mail with handwritten addresses. Only those items that cannot be read by OCR are diverted to special encoding centers for manual processing.

NOTE: If your organization maintains its mailing lists on tapes or disks and uses these to generate inside addresses in letters (as well as address blocks on envelopes), the all-cap (and no-punctuation) style designed for the envelope will look inappropriate inside the letter. Moreover, the heavy use of abbreviations in the all-cap style (see ¶1390a) often makes the address unintelligible to readers—another reason for not using this format for inside addresses. In such cases it makes sense to use the inside-address style described in ¶1389. You will then have a format that looks attractive as an inside address and that is also OCR-readable when used on an envelope.

When using the all-cap style:

- a. Keep in mind the maximum number of keystrokes you can get in any one line. If necessary, use abbreviations freely and omit all punctuation except the hyphen in the ZIP+4 Code.
  - NOTE: To keep the line length down to 28 keystrokes, the USPS has provided three special sets of abbreviations: one for state names; another for long names of cities,

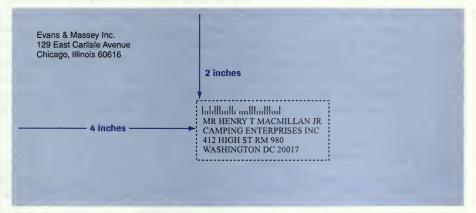
towns, and places; a third for names of streets and roads and general terms like *University* or *Institute*. By means of these abbreviations (see the ZIP Code directory), it is possible to limit the last line of any domestic address to 28 keystrokes.

```
Pass-a-Grille Beach, Florida 33741-9999 (39 keystrokes) 12345678901234567890123456789 PAS-A-GRL BCH FL 33741-9999 (27 keystrokes)
```

Abbreviations such as those shown above serve to facilitate OCR processing, but they also serve in some cases to make the address incomprehensible to all except devoted students of USPS manuals. (Read the copy in the illustration on page 446.)

b. Type the lines in all-capital letters, single-spaced and blocked at the left. Try to hold the address block to 5 lines. If possible, insert the USPS POSTNET bar code above or below the address block. (See the illustration below and the one on page 388.) In either position the top of the bar code should fall within 4 inches from the bottom and come no closer than 1/2 inch to the left or right edge of the envelope. (See ¶1389g, note.)

### No. 10 envelope showing a mailing label and the all-cap address style.



- c. Type the city, state, and ZIP Code on the last line. If space limitations make it impossible for the ZIP Code to fit on the same line, the ZIP Code may be typed on the line directly below, blocked at the left.
- **d.** Leave 1 space between the state name and the ZIP Code. (The USPS recommends either 1 or 2 spaces.)
- e. Express the state name as a two-letter abbreviation.
- f. The next-to-last line in the address block should contain a street address, a post office box number, a rural route address, or a highway contract address. (See ¶¶1317c, 1331-1338.)
- g. If a room number, a suite number, or an apartment number is part of the address, insert it immediately after the street address on the same line. (See examples in ¶1390b and h.) When this information will not fit on the same line as the street address, place it on the line above but never on the line below. (See examples in ¶¶1317b, 1318b.)

Continued on page 392

NOTE: Do not use the pound sign (#) if a term such as Room, Suite, or Apartment is available. If you do use the pound sign, the USPS asks that 1 space be left between the symbol and the number that follows; for example:

616 Ohio Avenue # 203

h. If an attention line is to be included in the address, insert it on the line directly above the organizational name or (in the absence of an organizational name) on the line directly above the street address or post office box number. If a serial number of some kind (for example, an account number or a file reference number) is required, insert it as the first line of the address block. (See ¶1345.)

H 048369 1078 AT5 MRS M R TURKEVICH BROCK & WILSON CORP 79 WALL ST STE 1212 NEW YORK NY 10005-4101 OR H 048369 1078 AT5
ATTN MRS M R TURKEVICH
BROCK & WILSON CORP
79 WALL ST STE 1212
NEW YORK NY 10005-4101

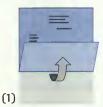
i. To facilitate OCR processing, make sure that the mailing address starts no higher than 2³/₄ inches from the bottom edge, falls no lower than ⁵/₈ inch from the bottom edge, and comes no closer to either the left or the right edge than ¹/₂ inch. Do not allow any notations or graphics to fall alongside or below the area established for the mailing address. Make sure that the lines in the address block are parallel to the bottom edge of the envelope. Moreover, there should be good contrast between the typed address and the color of the envelope; black type on a white background is preferred. Do not use a script or italic font, and avoid dot matrix print, especially if the dots that make up each character do not touch. The type should be clear and sharp. Adjacent characters should not touch or overlap.

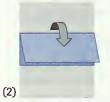
## **Folding and Inserting Letters**

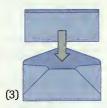
1391 The following paragraphs describe several methods for folding letters and inserting them into envelopes. See the chart in ¶1388a to determine which method is appropriate for the stationery and envelope you are using.

a. To fold a letter in thirds:





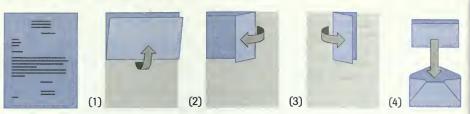




- (1) Bring the bottom third of the letter up and make a crease.
- (2) Fold the top of the letter down to within ³/₈ inch of the crease you made in step 1. Then make the second crease.
- (3) The creased edge made in step 2 goes into the envelope first.

**NOTE:** Use this method for  $8^{1}/2^{"} \times 11^{"}$  stationery with a No. 10 envelope; executive stationery with a No. 9 or a Monarch envelope;  $5^{1}/2^{"} \times 8^{1}/2^{"}$  stationery with a No.  $6^{3}/4$  envelope.

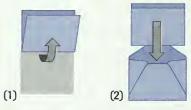
**b.** To fold a letter in half and then in thirds:



- (1) Bring the bottom edge to within 3/8 inch of the top edge and make a crease.
- (2) Fold from the right edge, making the fold a little less than one-third the width of the sheet before you crease it.
- (3) Fold from the left edge, bringing it to within 3/8 inch of the crease you made in step 2 before you crease the sheet again.
- (4) Insert the left creased edge into the envelope first. This will leave the crease you made in step 2 near the flap of the envelope.

**NOTE:** Use this method for  $8^{1/2}$ " × 11" stationery with a No.  $6^{3/4}$  envelope.

c. To fold a letter in half:

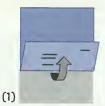


- (1) Bring the bottom edge to within 3/8 inch of the top edge and make a crease.
- (2) Insert the creased edge into the envelope first.

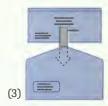
**NOTE:** Use this method for  $5^{1/2}$ "  $\times$   $8^{1/2}$ " stationery with a No.  $5^{3/8}$  envelope.

**d.** To fold a letter for insertion into a window envelope:









- (1) Place the letter *face down* with the letterhead at the top, and fold the bottom third of the letter up.
- (2) Fold the top third down so that the inside address shows.
- (3) 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. Moreover, there should be at least 1/8 inch (and preferably 1/4 inch) between all four sides of the address and the edges of the window, no matter how much the letter slides around in the envelope.

## Memos

1392 An interoffice memo (or memorandum) is intended to expedite the flow of written communication within an organization. For that reason many organizations provide computerized formats (and less frequently, printed forms) in order to simplify and standardize the treatment of key information.

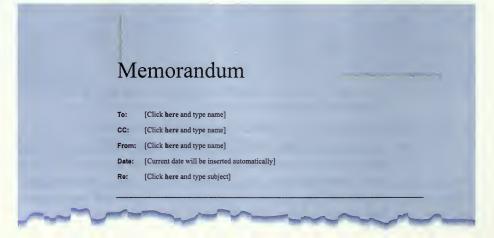
Depending on the circumstances, a memo may be as terse as a telegram, as impersonal as a formal announcement, or as warm and casual as a personal note. Those circumstances will help you determine whether a particular memo should contain or omit such features as a salutation or a signature line.

If your organization has not established a standard format, your word processing software may provide memo templates that you can use as is or modify to suit your preferences. Here are three sample templates provided by the Microsoft Word program.

"Professional" memo template (using 10-point Arial), provided by Microsoft Word for Windows.



"Contemporary" memo template (using 10-point Times New Roman), provided by Microsoft Word for Windows.



"Elegant" memo template (using 10-point Garamond), provided by Microsoft Word for Windows.



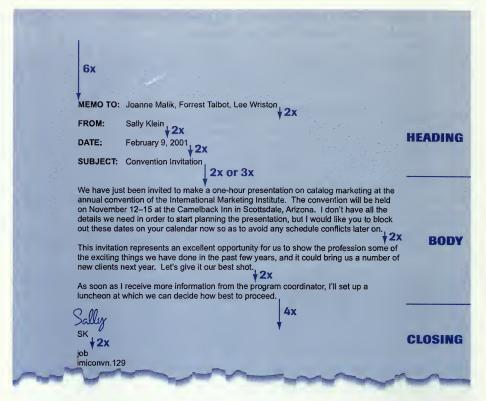
You can always modify a memo template or create your own format. The following rule (¶1393) provides guidelines for formatting memos, and the illustrations on pages 396 and 397 show memos formatted according to these guidelines.

Please remember: There is no one correct format for a memo. Design the format to meet your needs and those of the organization you work for.

**NOTE:** Because many memos are now distributed as e-mail, see ¶¶1708–1711 for special guidelines on preparing e-mail messages.

- **1393** When preparing a memo on plain paper or letterhead stationery, observe the following guidelines. (Also see the illustrations on pages 396–397.)
  - a. For side margins, either choose the default settings (1.25 inches for Microsoft Word, 1 inch for WordPerfect) or, for better appearance and legibility, choose even wider side margins (as shown in the table in ¶1305b).
  - **b.** Leave a top margin of about 2 inches. (Space down 6 times from the default top margin of 1 inch.) If you are using stationery with a deep letterhead, begin typing about 0.5 inch below the letterhead.
    - **NOTE:** You can reduce the top margin to 1 inch if doing so will make a continuation page unnecessary.
  - c. If you are using plain paper, you can create a heading such as INTEROFFICE MEMORANDUM or simply MEMORANDUM (as shown in the illustrations at the bottom of page 396 and the top of page 397). In that case reduce the top margin to 1 inch to accommodate long messages and avoid the need for a continuation page.
  - **d.** The heading of the memo should include the following guide words—TO, FROM, DATE, and SUBJECT.

**NOTE:** If you do not use a heading such as *INTEROFFICE MEMORANDUM* or *MEMORANDUM*, change *TO* (the first guide word) to *MEMO TO* (as shown in the illustration at the top of page 396).



e. You may also wish to add a number of other guide words. For example, below the guide word TO you could insert COPIES TO. If you work in a large organization and are sending memos to people who do not know you, then below the guide word FROM you might want to insert such guide words as DEPARTMENT, FLOOR, PHONE NO., or FAX NO. Start typing the guide words at the left margin and use double spacing. Type the guide words in bold all-capital letters, and follow each with a colon.

**NOTE:** If you plan to use a large number of guide words (beyond *TO, FROM, DATE,* and *SUBJECT*), you may want to arrange the guide words in two columns to prevent the heading from taking too much space. In that case, start the second column of guide words at center (as shown in the illustration below).

Intero	office Memorandum		
To:	Bernard O'Kelly	From:	Janet R. Wiley
Dept.:	Special Sales	Dept.:	Software Products
Floor:	4	Floor and Ext.:	7/3825
Subject:	Test Marketing Arrangements	Date:	April 7, 2003

#### **MEMORANDUM**

Bernard O'Kelly 2x

COPIES TO: Steve Kubat, Pat Rosario

FROM:

Janet R. Wiley

DATE:

April 7, 2003

SUBJECT:

Test Marketing Arrangements 2 or 3x

Dear Bernie: 12x

Let me try to summarize the outcome of our excellent meeting last Friday, in which we discussed how your group might sell our product lines to the markets you serve.

- 1. Steve Kubat, chief product manager for my group, will provide you with product descriptions, catalog sheets, ad mats, and current price lists. If you need additional information, just call Steve (or me in his absence) and we'll be glad to help in any way that we can. L 2x
- 2. We will pay you an 18 percent commission on all orders you generate for our products. Please forward a copy of these orders to Steve, who will arrange to have the commission credited to your account.
- 3. We very much appreciate your offer to give us three hours at your weeklong sales meeting next month to present our products to your field staff. We'll be there.
- 4. We have agreed to give this new arrangement a six-month test to determine (a) how much additional sales revenue you and your people can produce with our products and (b) what effect, if any, this special marketing effort will have on your sales of other products. At the end of the test period, we will analyze the results and decide whether to continue the arrangement, modify it in some way, or abandon it altogether.

I don't think we'll be abandoning it, Bernie. In fact, I feel quite confident that this new arrangement is going to produce significant gains in sales and profits for both of us. I look forward to working with you to make it all happen. 12x

okellyb.347

- f. Set a tab or use a default tab so that the entries following the guide words will all block at the left and will clear the longest guide word by a minimum of 2 spaces.
- g. After the guide words TO (or MEMO TO) and FROM, the names of the addressee and the writer are usually given without personal titles (Mr., Miss, Mrs., Ms.). Indeed, when you are doing a memo to someone within your immediate unit, the use of initials or simply a first name may suffice. In short, the way you treat these names will depend on the relative formality or informality of the occasion.

John A. Mancuso JAM OR Jack

h. If you want to provide additional information (such as a department name or title, a phone number, or a fax number), you can add the appropriate guide words to

the heading of the memo, or you can insert the relevant information after the person's name. For example:

Cynthia Chen, Accounting Manager

- OR Cynthia Chen (Ext. 4782)
- i. If the memo is being addressed to two or three people, try to fit all the names on the same line.

MEMO TO: Hal Parker, Meryl Crawford, Mike Monagle

If there are too many names to fit on the same line, then list the names in one or more single-spaced columns alongside TO or MEMO TO. Leave 1 blank line before the next guide word and fill-in entry.

MEMO TO: Louise Landes

> Fred Mendoza Jim Norton Ruth O'Hare

Neil Sundstrom FROM:

- j. If listing all the addressees in the heading of a memo looks unattractive, then after the guide words TO or MEMO TO, type See Distribution Below or something similar (see the illustration on page 399). Then on the second line below the reference initials, the file name notation, or the enclosure notation (whichever comes last), type Distribution. Use capital and small letters, followed by a colon, and italicize or underline the word for emphasis. (If you use italics, italicize the colon as well. If you underline, do not underline the colon.) Leave 1 blank line and then list the names of the individuals who are to receive a copy of the memo. Arrange the names either by rank or in alphabetic order, and type them blocked at the left margin. (If space is tight, arrange the names in two or more columns.) NOTE: For purposes of actual distribution, simply place a check mark next to one of the listed names to indicate who is to receive that particular copy. As an alternative, use a highlighting marker to identify the recipient of each copy.
- **k.** If the fill-in after the guide word SUBJECT is long, type it in two or more singlespaced lines of roughly equal length. Align all turnover lines with the start of the first line of the fill-in. (For illustrations, see pages 415 and 506.)
- 1. Begin typing the body of the memo on the second or third line below the last line in the heading. (The illustration on page 399 shows the use of only 1 blank line between the heading and the body of the memo. The illustrations at the top of pages 396 and 397 show the use of 2 blank lines.)

NOTE: An interoffice memo 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. (See, for example, the illustration below.) However, when a memo is directed to one person (as in the illustration on page 397), 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 the salutation.)

```
6x
MEMO TO: See Distribution Below 12x
FROM:
             Stanley W. Venner (Ext. 3835)
DATE:
             May 10, 2002
SUBJECT: Car Rentals 2 or 3x
We have just been informed that car rental rates will be increased by $1 to $2 a day.
effective July 1. 2x
This daily rate increase can be more than offset if you refill the gasoline tank before
returning your rental car to the local agency. According to our latest information, the car
rental companies are charging an average of 32 percent more per gallon than the gas
stations in the same area. Therefore, you can help us achieve substantial savings and
keep expenses down by remembering to fill up the gas tank before turning your rental
     ↓2x
imb
venner.25a
Distribution: 2x
G. Bonardi
D. Catlin
S. Folger
V. Jellinek
E. Kasendorf
P. Legrande
T. Pacheco
F. Sullivan
J. Trotter
W. Zysk
```

- m. Use single spacing and either block the paragraphs or indent the first line of each paragraph 0.5 inch. Leave 1 blank line between paragraphs.
  - NOTE: If a numbered list appears within the body of a memo, the numbered items may be separated by 1 blank line for a more open look (as in the illustration on page 397). If you use the numbered list feature of your word processing program and accept all the defaults, the list will be typed single-spaced. (See ¶1357d for illustrations showing lists typed with and without space between items.)
- n. Although memos do not require a signature line, some writers prefer to end their memos in this way. In that case type the writer's name or initials on the second

line below the last line of the message (as shown in the illustration on page 399). If the writer plans to insert a handwritten signature or initials above the signature line, type the signature line on the fourth line below (as shown in the illustration at the top of page 396) to allow room for the handwriting. If the writer simply inserts handwritten initials next to the typed name in the heading (as in the illustration on page 397), omit the signature line altogether.

NOTE: The position of the signature line may vary. If all the lines in the memo heading begin at the left margin (see, for example, the illustration at the top of page 396), type the signature line at the left margin as well. If the memo uses a two-column heading format (as in the illustration at the bottom of page 396), start the signature line at the same point as the fill-ins for the second column in the heading.

- o. Type the reference initials (see ¶1370) at the left margin, on the second line below the end of the message or the writer's typed name or initials, whichever comes last. (See the illustrations on pages 396, 397, and 399.)
- p. Type a file name notation (if needed) on the line below the reference initials. (See  $\P$  1371–1372 and the illustrations on 396, 397, and 399.)
- **q.** Type an enclosure notation (if needed) on the line below the reference initials or the file name notation, whichever comes last. (See ¶1373.)
- r. Type a copy notation (if needed) on the line below the reference initials, the file name notation, or the enclosure notation, whichever comes last. Use the same style for the copy notation as in a letter. (See \\1376-1380.) If the addressee of the memo is not intended to know that a copy of the memo is being sent to one or more other persons, use a blind copy notation. (See ¶1378.)

NOTE: As an alternative, place the copy notation in the heading. (See the illustration on page 397.) On the second line below TO or MEMO TO, insert the guide words COPIES TO and then insert the appropriate names at the right, starting at the same point as the other fill-ins in the heading.

s. If the memo is of a confidential nature, type the word CONFIDENTIAL in bold allcapital letters. Center the confidential notation on the second line below the last line of the memo heading.

$$\psi^{2x}$$
CONFIDENTIAL  $\psi^{2}$  or  $3x$ 

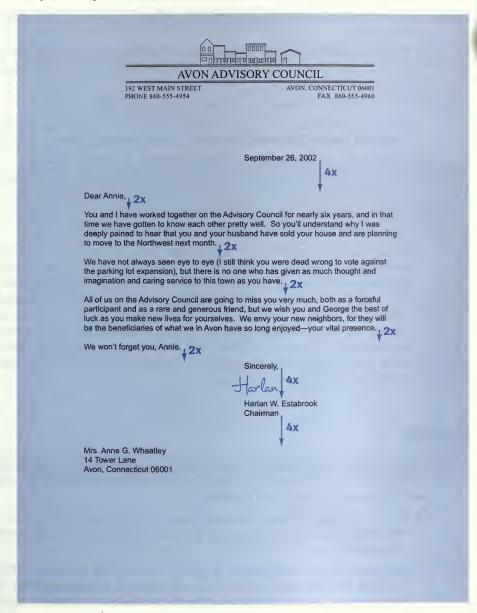
Begin typing the body of the memo on the second or third line below this notation. (See ¶13931.)

- t. If the memo continues beyond the first page, use the software header feature to insert a continuation heading on a new sheet of paper. (Use the same style as shown in ¶1384 for a letter.) Leave 1 or 2 blank lines between the continuationpage heading and the message. (See ¶¶1385–1387 for additional details on continuing the message from one page to another.)
- > For the use of autotext and macros, see the note on page 341.

## **Social-Business Correspondence**

**1394** The term social-business correspondence applies to the following types of letters:

a. Executive correspondence addressed to high-level executives, officials, and dignitaries. (Unlike ordinary business correspondence—which deals with sales, production, finance, advertising, and other routine commercial matters—these letters deal with such topics as corporate policy and issues of social responsibility, and they are written in a more formal style.)



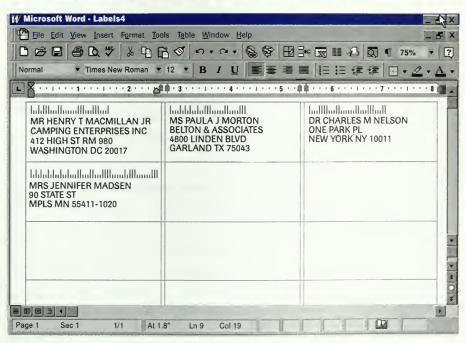
- b. Letters expressing praise, concern, or condolence to someone within or outside the organization. (The occasion that prompts the letter could be exceptional performance on the job or in the community, an employment anniversary, the death or serious illness of a family member, or an upcoming retirement. Such letters may be formal or informal, depending on the relationship between the writer and the person addressed.)
- c. Letters to business associates within or outside the company on purely social matters.
- 1395 Social-business correspondence differs from ordinary business correspondence in several ways:
  - a. The inside address is typed at the bottom of the letter, aligned at the left margin and starting on the fourth line below the writer's signature or title (whichever comes last).
  - **b.** The salutation is followed by a comma rather than a colon.
  - c. Reference initials and notations pertaining to file name, enclosures, delivery, and copies are typically omitted. (It would make good sense, however, to put such notations on the file copy in case this information is needed later on.)
  - **d.** If the letter requires a *Personal* or *Confidential* notation, place the notation only on the envelope, not on the letter itself. (For the appropriate placement of the notation on an envelope, see ¶1389m and the second illustration on page 389.) **NOTE:** Include the *Personal* or *Confidential* notation on the file copy.
  - e. Social-business correspondence is also more formal or less formal than ordinary business correspondence. For example, correspondence to high-level officials and dignitaries is customarily more formal. In such cases use the word style for numbers (see ¶¶404-406) and one of the special salutations listed in Section 18. However, in letters to business associates who are also close friends, the salutation and the complimentary closing may be very informal, and the writer's typed signature and title-and even the inside address-may be omitted. Moreover, when such letters are purely personal in nature, the writer may use plain stationery and omit the return address.

## Labels

- 1396 If you are using the label feature of a word processing program, you can quickly prepare a wide variety of labels (for example, mailing labels, file folder labels, and cassette labels) by following these guidelines:
  - a. Use commercially prepared labels (packaged in rolls and sheets) that have been specifically designed for the purpose you have in mind and that are compatible with your printer.
  - b. Many software programs provide a menu of label types and sizes. When you select the type and size you want to use, the program automatically sets up the label windows. All you need to do is type the necessary information in each window (as illustrated on page 403).

- NOTE: You can also create your own specifications for a special type of label. See your software user's manual for the procedures to follow.
- c. Before you begin to type text in each label window, consider the maximum number of characters you can fit on one line and the number of lines you can fit on one label. For example, if you are preparing mailing labels, you may very well find that some mailing addresses as you would style them in an inside address are too wide to fit on the labels you are planning to use. In such cases use the all-cap style designed by the U.S. Postal Service. The all-cap style, with its heavy reliance on abbreviations, was specifically created to take such limitations into account. (See ¶1390 and the illustration below.)
- d. When applying a label to a No. 10 envelope or a smaller envelope, follow the placement guidelines provided in ¶1389h. (For an illustration showing the correct placement of a mailing label on a No. 10 envelope, see page 391.) On envelopes larger than No. 10, position the label so that it appears visually centered horizontally and vertically.

Screen dump showing label feature of Microsoft Word for Windows.



# SECTION 14

## Reports and Manuscripts

## Reports (¶¶1401-1431)

Choosing a Format (¶1401)

Parts of a Formal Report (¶1402)

Parts of an Informal Report (¶1403)

Margins (¶¶1404-1407)

Side Margins (¶1404)

Top and Bottom Margins of Opening Pages (¶1405)

Top and Bottom Margins of Other Pages (¶1406)

Handling Page Breaks on a Computer (¶1407)

Shortening a Long Report (¶1408)

Informal Business Reports (¶¶1409-1410)

Informal Academic Reports (¶1411)

The Front Matter of Formal Reports (¶¶1412–1420)

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Letter or Memo of Transmittal (¶1413)

Table of Contents (¶¶1414-1415)

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Summary (¶1419)

Numbering Front Matter Pages (¶1420)

The Body of Formal Reports (¶¶1421–1427)

Introduction (¶1421)

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Chapter-Opening Pages (¶1423)

Text Spacing and Indentions (¶1424)

Text Headings (¶¶1425-1426)

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The Back Matter of Formal Reports (¶¶1428-1431)

Appendixes (¶1429)

Endnotes and Bibliography (¶1430)

Glossary (¶1431)

## Manuscripts (¶¶1432-1437)

Preparing Manuscript for an Article (¶¶1432–1433)

Preparing Manuscript for a Book (¶¶1434–1435)

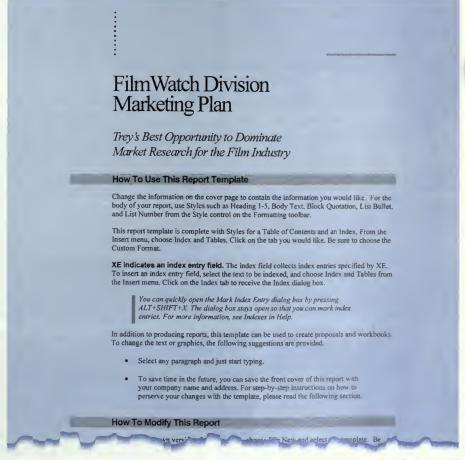
Precautions for All Manuscripts (¶¶1436–1437)

## Reports

Reports serve all kinds of purposes. Some simply communicate information—such as monthly sales figures or survey results—without any attempt to analyze or interpret the data. Others offer extensive analyses and make detailed recommendations for further action. As a result, reports come in all sizes and shapes. Some are done informally as memos or letters (depending on whether they are to be distributed inside or outside the organization). Some consist simply of fill-ins on printed or computer-generated forms. Many, however, are done in a more formal style. As you might expect, there is a wide variation to be found in what is considered acceptable—from one authority to another and from one organization to another. Regardless of which guidelines you follow, be prepared to modify them to fit a specific situation.

Word processing software typically provides templates that you can use as is or modify to suit your preferences. Three report templates provided by Microsoft Word are partially illustrated below and on page 406. Note in particular the differences in the way titles and headings are treated.

"Contemporary" report template provided by Microsoft Word for Windows.



### "Elegant" report template provided by Microsoft Word for Windows.

## PROPOSAL AND MARKETING PLAN

BLUE SKY'S BEST OPPORTUNITY FOR EAST REGION EXPANSION

#### HOW TO USE THIS REPORT TEMPLATE

Change the information on the cover page to contain the information you would like. For the body of your report, use Styles such as Heading 1-5, Body Text, Block Quotation, List Bullet, and List Number from the Style control on the Formatting toolbar.

#### HOW TO CREATE BULLETS AND NUMBERED LISTS

- To create a bulleted list like this, select one or more paragraphs and choose the List Bullet style from the Style drop-down list.
- To create a numbered list like the numbered paragraphs above, select one or more paragraphs and choose the List Number style from the Style drop-down list — Word will automatically number the paragraphs for you.

### "Professional" report template provided by Microsoft Word for Windows.



## **Blue Sky Marketing Plan**

Blue Sky's Best Opportunity for East Region Expansion

#### **How to Modify This Report**

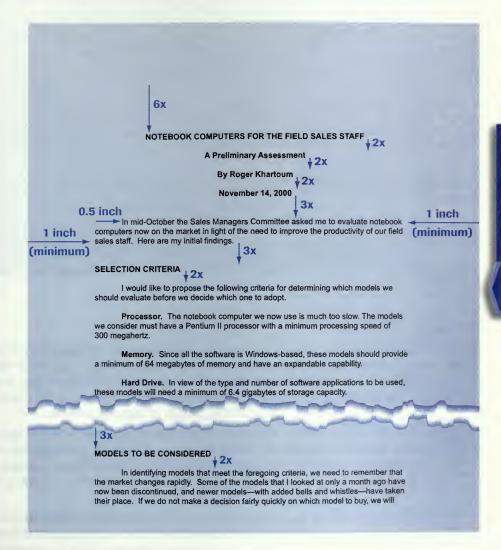
To create your own version of this template, select File New and choose this template. Be sure to indicate "template" as the document type in the bottom right comer of the dialog. You can then:

#### **How to Create a Report**

To create a report from your newly saved template, select File New to re-open your template as a document. (Your company information should appear in place,). For the body of your report, use Styles such as Heading 1-5, Body Text, Block Quotation, List Butlet, and List Number from the Style control on the Formatting toolbar.

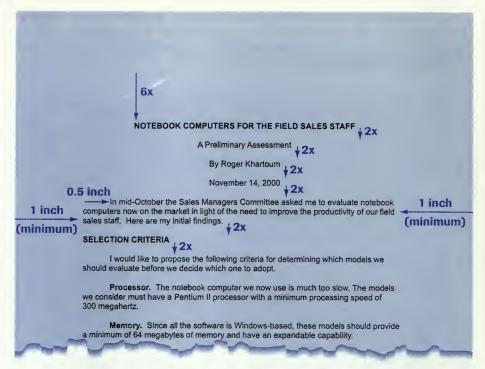
#### **How to Create Bullets and Numbered Lists**

To create a bulleted list like this, select one or more paragraphs and choose the List Bullet style from the Style drop-down list on the formatting toolbar. To create a numbered list like the numbered haragraphs above, select one or more paragraphs. If you do not wish to use one of the report templates provided by your software, you can always create your own format. This section provides format guidelines for formal and informal reports. The model below shows how the first page of an informal report would appear if executed according to these guidelines.



NOTE: In the model above, boldface is used for all four lines in the heading. To create a more open look, 2 blank lines have been inserted (a) between the heading and the text and (b) above the side heads.

As the illustration on page 408 shows, some writers prefer to use boldface only for the title and to insert only 1 blank line between elements in those places where the model above inserts 2.



## **Choosing a Format**

- 1401 If you are preparing a report at the request of someone else, always try to get some guidelines from that person on such matters as format, length, amount of detail desired, and distribution. Check the files for copies of similar reports done in the past. If guidelines or models are not provided or if you are preparing the report on your own initiative, consider the following factors in choosing a format.
  - a. For whom are you writing the report? If intended for your boss or a colleague on staff, the report could be done simply as a memo. If intended for top management or the board of directors, the report will often require a more formal approach. By the same token, an academic term paper will require a simpler format than a thesis for an advanced degree.
  - b. What outcome do you hope to achieve? If you are merely providing information without attempting to win someone over to your point of view, the simplest and clearest presentation of the information will suffice. If you are trying to persuade the reader to adopt your viewpoint and accept your recommendations, you may need to make a detailed argument and devise a more complex structure for your report. For example, you may need to develop a number of chapters, grouped by part. If you need to demonstrate that your argument is supported by much detailed research, you may have to quote from published sources and provide an elaborate set of data in the form of tables and charts. If you know that your intended reader already supports your argument or simply wants your judgment on a certain matter, a shorter and simpler document will usually suffice.

## Parts of a Formal Report

**1402** A *formal* report typically has three parts: front matter, body, and back matter. Each of these parts, in turn, typically contains some (if not all) of the following elements in the sequence indicated.

#### a. Front Matter

TITLE PAGE

In a business report: gives the full title, the subtitle (if any), the writer's name, title, and department, and the date of submission; may also indicate for whom the report was written. In an academic report: gives the name of the writer, the instructor, and the course, along with the date of submission. (See ¶1412.)

LETTER OR MEMO OF TRANSMITTAL May be done as a letter (for distribution outside the company) or as a memo (for inside distribution); may be clipped to the front of the report (or the front of the binder in which the report is inserted); may be inserted in the report itself as the page preceding the title page. (See §1413.)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

A list of all chapters (by number and title), along with the opening page number of each chapter. If chapters are grouped by part, the titles of the parts also appear in the table of contents. Sometimes main headings within the chapters are also given under each chapter title. (See ¶¶1414–1415.)

LISTS OF TABLES
AND ILLUSTRATIONS

Separate lists of tables and illustrations are included if they are numerous and likely to be frequently referred to by the reader. (See ¶¶1416–1417.)

FOREWORD

Written by someone other than the author of the report. May explain who commissioned the report, the reasons for doing so, and the qualifications of the writer to prepare the report. May also offer an evaluation of the report, and may ask those who receive copies of the report to give their assessment or take some other action after they have read the report. (See ¶1418.)

PREFACE

Written by the author of the report. Indicates for whom the report is written, the objectives and the scope of the report, and the methods used to assemble the material in the report. Acknowledgments of help received on the report are usually included here (placed at the end), but to give this material special emphasis, you can treat the acknowledgments as a separate element of the front matter, immediately following the preface. (See ¶1418.)

SUMMARY

Preferably limited to one page (two pages at most); designed to save the reader's time by presenting conclusions and recommendations right at the outset of the report. If a preface is not provided, the summary also includes some of the material that would have gone there. (See ¶1419.)

#### b. Body

INTRODUCTION

Sets forth (in greater detail than the preface) the objectives, the scope, and the methods, along with any other relevant background information. In a report with several chapters, the introduction may precede the first chapter of the text or it may be labeled as Chapter 1. (See ¶1421.)

MAIN DISCUSSION

Sets forth all the pertinent data, evidence, analyses, and interpretations needed to fulfill the purpose of the report. May consist of one long chapter that opens with an introduction and closes with conclusions and recommendations. May consist of several chapters; these may be grouped into parts, with a part-title page inserted to introduce

each sequence of chapters. May use different levels of headings throughout the text to indicate what the discussion covers and how it

is organized. (See ¶¶1422-1426.)

**CONCLUSION** Summarizes the key points and presents the recommendations that

the writer hopes the reader will be persuaded to accept. In a report with several chapters, this material represents the final chapter or the

final part.

c. Back Matter

**APPENDIXES** A collection of tables, charts, or other data too specific or too lengthy

to be included in the body of the report but provided here as sup-

porting detail for the interested reader. (See ¶1429.)

ENDNOTES A collection—all in one place at the end of the report—of what would

otherwise appear as footnotes at the bottom of various pages in the report. (See ¶¶1501–1502, 1504–1505.)

BIBLIOGRAPHY A list of all sources (1) that were consulted in the preparation of the

report and (2) from which material was derived or directly quoted.

(See ¶¶1547-1551.)

GLOSSARY A list of terms (with definitions) that may not be readily understood

when encountered in the body of the report. (See ¶1431.) May be

treated as an appendix.

## Parts of an Informal Report

- **1403** a. An *informal* report has no front matter. The information that would go on a separate title page appears at the top of the first page and is immediately followed by the body of the report. (See ¶¶1409–1411 for format guidelines.)
  - **b.** An informal report typically contains no back matter except possibly a list of *end-notes* (in place of separate footnotes throughout the body of the report) and a *bib-liography*. (See ¶1505 for an illustration of endnotes and ¶1548 for an illustration of a bibliography.) Tables that cannot be easily incorporated in the body of the informal report may also be placed in an appendix in the back matter.

## **Margins**

## 1404 Side Margins

- a. Unbound Reports. If a report is to remain unbound or will simply be stapled in the upper left corner, use default side margins. However, you can reduce 1.25-inch default side margins to 1 inch if you are trying to limit the overall length of a report. By the same token, if length is not a problem, you can increase 1-inch default side margins to 1.25 inches to give the report a more open look.
- **b.** Bound Reports. Use a 1.5-inch left margin. (The extra space at the left will provide space for the binding.) Ordinarily, accept the default right margin. However, reduce a 1.25-inch right margin to 1 inch if length is a problem, and increase a 1-inch right margin to 1.25 inches to achieve a more open look.

## 1405 Top and Bottom Margins of Opening Pages

The following guidelines apply to (a) the first page of each chapter, (b) the first page of each distinct element in the front matter and back matter, and (c) the first page

of an informal report that consists of only one chapter (without any separate title page or other front matter).

- a. On these opening pages, space down 6 times from the default top margin of 1 inch to create a top margin of about 2 inches. On the title page and on part-title pages, where the copy as a whole will be centered on the page, do not space down; simply begin typing on the first available line.
- **b.** Use the page numbering feature of your word processing program, and select the format that automatically ends an opening page with a page number centered at the bottom. Some software programs insert the page number within the bottom margin area; others insert the page number on the last line above the bottom margin.
- c. Ordinarily, nothing is typed in the space that represents the top margin. However, in informal academic reports, certain information is often typed in the upper right corner. (See ¶1411.)
- > For the numbering of opening pages, see ¶1420.

### **1406** Top and Bottom Margins of Other Pages

- a. Use the default top and bottom margins of 1 inch.
- **b.** For pages in the *body* and *back matter* of a report, use the page numbering feature of your word processing program to position the page number in the upper right corner of the page. If you want to provide additional information along with the page number (for example, the title of the report or a chapter within the report), use the header feature of your word processing software.
- **c.** For pages in the *front matter* of a report, use the page numbering feature of your word processing software to center the page number at the bottom of the report. If you want to provide additional information along with the page number, use the footer feature of your software.

## 1407 Handling Page Breaks on a Computer

Your word processing software can help you avoid most page-ending problems, as outlined in a-e below. There are, however, page-ending situations in which you must use your own judgment, as outlined in f-j on page 412.

- a. Your software ensures that the bottom margin will always be 1 inch (or whatever margin you have selected). A *soft page break* is inserted when the bottom margin is reached, but because that break is "soft," you can easily adjust it if you do not like the page break created by the software.
  - **NOTE:** The *preview* feature permits you to see an entire page on the screen prior to printing so that you can tell whether adjustments will be necessary. See ¶1407f-j for page-ending situations that may require adjustments.
- **b.** A hard page break permits you to end a page wherever you want and to ensure that any copy that follows will appear at the top of the next page.
- **c.** The *keep lines together* feature ensures that a designated block of copy (such as a table, an enumerated list, or selected lines of text) will not be divided at the bottom of a page but will, if necessary, be carried over intact to the top of the next page.

- **d.** To prevent *widows* (a situation in which the last line of a paragraph appears as the first line of a page), the *widow/orphan control* feature ensures that at least two lines of that paragraph are carried over to the top of the next page. (As an illustration, see the four-line paragraph that begins at the bottom of page 410.)
- **e.** To prevent *orphans* (a situation in which the first line of a paragraph appears as the last line of a page), the *widow/orphan control* feature ensures that at least two lines of that paragraph will appear at the bottom of a page or that the paragraph will begin at the top of the next page.
- **f.** Do not type a *centered heading* or a *side heading* near the bottom of a page unless you can fit at least the first two lines of copy after the heading. Use the *keep lines together* feature. (For illustrations, see ¶1426a-c.)

**NOTE:** A run-in heading (in the first line of a paragraph) can fall near the bottom of a page if one additional line of the paragraph will also fit there. (For all illustrations, see ¶1426c.)

- > For a discussion of centered, side, and run-in headings, see ¶¶1425c, 1426.
- **g.** Do not divide a quoted extract (see ¶1424d) unless you can leave at least two lines at the bottom of one page and carry over at least two lines to the top of the next. Use the *widow/orphan control* feature.
- h. If a list of items (see ¶1424e-g) has to be divided at the bottom of a page, try to divide between items (not within an item). Moreover, try to leave at least two items at the bottom of one page and carry over at least two items to the top of the next. Use the widow/orphan control feature or the hard page break feature.
  - NOTE: If you need to divide within an item, leave at least two lines at the bottom of one page and carry over at least two lines to the next.
- i. If it is not possible to start typing a table at the desired point of reference and have it all fit on the same page, then insert a parenthetical note at the appropriate point in the text (referring the reader to the next page) and continue with the text to the bottom of the page. Then at the top of the next page, type the complete table and resume typing the text. (See Section 16 for guidelines on the typing of tables.) If you encounter a number of problems locating tables within the body of a particular report, you may want to consider placing all the tables in a separate appendix at the end of the report. (See ¶1402c.)
  - NOTE: If a table is so long that it will not fit on one page even when typed single-spaced, then look for a sensible division point in the body of the table and end the first page there. Your software will automatically carry the remaining lines in the table to the top of the next page. If you mark the table title and the column heads as "headings," the items marked in this way will be automatically inserted at the top of the next page. (See ¶1638.)
- j. If a footnote cannot all fit on the page where the text reference occurs, continue it at the bottom of the following page. If you are using the widow/orphan control feature and the footnote feature, either the footnote will be automatically divided or the text containing the footnote reference and the footnote itself will be carried over to the next page. (See ¶1504d.)

## 1408 Shortening a Long Report

When the cost of photocopying and distributing a large number of copies of a long report becomes prohibitively expensive, consider the following devices for reducing the number of pages without having to cut the copy. (Note that these devices will also reduce the readability and the attractiveness of the report, so use them only in extreme circumstances.)

- a. You can reduce the font size, or you can choose a different font that yields more characters to an inch. If absolutely necessary, you can also reduce the amount of space between words and letters.
- **b.** Reduce the standard top margin for all opening pages from 2 inches to 1.5 inches. (See ¶1405.)
- c. Reduce the top margin for all other pages from 1 inch to 0.5 inch. (See ¶1406.)

  NOTE: If you are using the header feature or the page numbering feature at the top and if the header or page number is placed in the margin area, you will not be able to reduce the top margin.
- **d.** As an alternative to c, maintain the standard top margin and reduce the bottom margin from 1 inch to 0.5 inch. (See ¶1406.)

NOTE: If you are using the footer feature or the page numbering feature at the bottom and if the footer or page number is placed in the margin area, you will not be able to reduce the bottom margin.

- e. Single-space the report and leave 1 blank line between paragraphs. (See ¶1424a.)
- f. If the report has only one level of heading, use run-in heads rather than side heads. (See ¶¶1425-1426.)
- g. Wherever the guidelines allow for 2 blank lines between elements, reduce this space to 1 blank line. Wherever 1 blank line is called for, reduce this space to half a line (if your software offers this option).

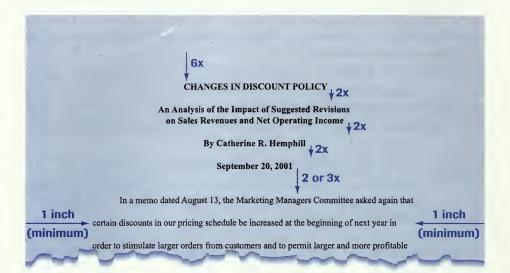
## **Informal Business Reports**

These guidelines apply to business reports that consist of only one chapter and have no separate title page or other front matter.

- **1409** If the first page is typed on a blank sheet of paper (as shown in the illustration on page 414):
  - **a.** Leave a top margin of approximately 2 inches.
  - **b.** Use single spacing while executing the title, the subtitle, the writer's name, and the date. (See c-f.)
  - c. On the first line below the top margin, type the title of the report centered in allcapital letters. If a subtitle is used, type it centered in capital and small letters on the second line below the main title. (If the title or subtitle is long, divide it into sensible phrases and arrange them on two or more single-spaced lines.)

NOTE: Use boldface for the title and subtitle (and for the writer's name and the date as well). Some writers prefer to use boldface only for the title.

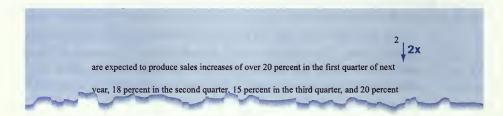
**d.** Type By and the writer's name centered in capital and small letters on the second line below the title or subtitle.



**e.** Type the date on which the report is to be submitted on the second line, centered, below the writer's name.

**NOTE:** Additional details that appear on a title page (such as the writer's title and affiliation or the name and affiliation of the person or group for whom the report has been prepared) are omitted when the title starts on the same page as the body. If these elements need to be provided, you will have to prepare a separate title page. (See ¶1412.)

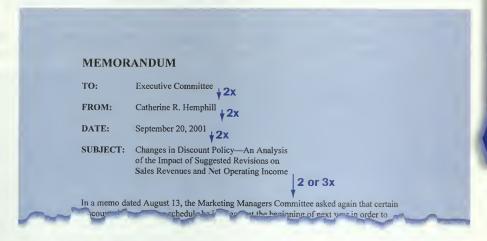
- f. On the second or third line below the date, start the body of the report. (See ¶¶1424-1426.) At this point switch to double spacing.
  - **NOTE:** On the first page of an informal business report, do not type a page number. However, count this page as page 1.
- g. If the report requires more than one page, use the page numbering feature to automatically insert the page number at the top right margin. Leave 1 or 2 blank lines below the page number, and resume the text on the following line.



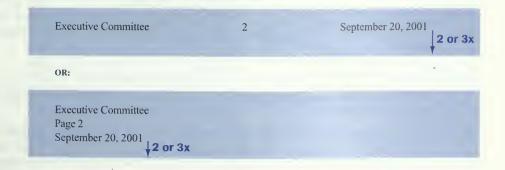
h. If the report requires one or more elements of back matter—for example, endnotes or a bibliography—follow the style established for a formal report. (See ¶¶1501-1502, 1504-1505, 1547-1551.)

## **1410** If the first page of a report is prepared in *memo form*:

- a. Give the report title (and subtitle, if any) as the *subject* of the memo. Supply all the other elements called for in the heading of the memo in the usual way. (See ¶¶1392-1393.)
- **b.** Then begin typing the body of the report on the second or third line below the last fill-in line in the heading. (See ¶¶1424–1426.)



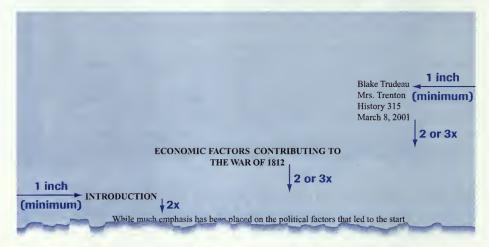
c. If the report requires more than one page, then type each continuation page on a blank sheet of paper. Use the header feature to insert the same kind of continuation heading called for in any long memo (see ¶1393t). Leave 1 or 2 blank lines and resume the text on the following line.



## **Informal Academic Reports**

- - **a.** Leave a default top margin of 1 inch. Then type the following information on four separate lines, single-spaced, in the upper right corner of the first page: the writer's name, the instructor's name, the course title, and the date. Align these four lines at the left, with the longest line ending at the right margin.
  - **b.** On the second or third line below the date, type the title just as in an informal business report. If a subtitle is used, type it on the second line below the title. (See ¶1409c.)
  - c. Start typing the body of the report on the second or third line below the preceding copy (the title or subtitle). At this point switch to double spacing. (See ¶¶1424-1426.)

NOTE: Many academic reports have to follow the format established by The Modern Language Association. You can find these guidelines in *The MLA Style Manual*.



## **The Front Matter of Formal Reports**

The following guidelines deal with the preparation of a title page, a letter or memo of transmittal, a table of contents, a list of tables, a list of illustrations, a preface or foreword, and a summary. For a formal report, only a separate title page is essential; all the other elements are optional.

## 1412 Title Page

There is no one correct arrangement for the elements on a title page. Here are two acceptable formats.

**a.** Three-Block Arrangement. Group the material into three blocks of type, and leave equal space (1 to 2 inches) above and below the middle block. Then center the material as a whole horizontally and vertically on the page. (See the illustrations on page 417.)

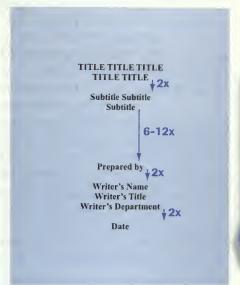
b. Two-Block Arrangement. Group the material into two blocks of type, and leave 1 to 2 inches between blocks. Center the material as a whole horizontally and vertically on the page. (See the first illustration below on the right.)

NOTE: The two-block arrangement works well when the title page does not try to show the name of the person or group to whom the report is being submitted.

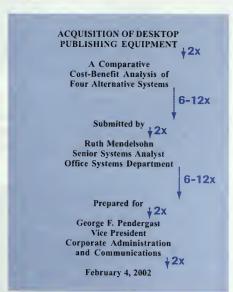
#### Three-Block Arrangement



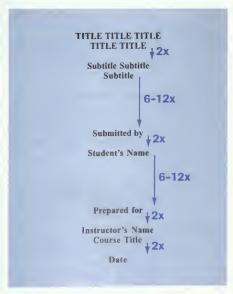
### **Two-Block Arrangement**



#### **Business Report**



## Academic Report



c. Margins. Regardless of the arrangement you use, the side margins should be at least equal to those used for the body of the report (see ¶1404). The top and bottom margins should be a minimum of 1 inch, but make sure that they are at least equal to (and preferably slightly larger than) the space inserted between the blocks of text on the title page.

**NOTE:** When you set up the text for a title page, insert a 2-inch space between the blocks of text at the outset. Then center the material as a whole horizontally and vertically, and consider whether adjustments are necessary to achieve an attractively balanced page. At this point you can reduce the space between blocks if necessary to ensure that it does not exceed the space used for the top and bottom margins. You can also adjust line breaks in the text as necessary to preserve attractive side margins.

- **d. Title.** Type the title in boldface all-capital letters. If the title is long, type it on two or more lines, single-spaced; try to divide the title into meaningful phrases. (See the illustration of a business report on page 417.)
- e. Subtitle. Type the subtitle, if any, in boldface capital and small letters. If the subtitle requires more than one line, type it single-spaced. Leave 1 blank line between the main title and the subtitle. (See the illustrations on page 417.)
- **f.** Writer's Identification. Leave 1 to 2 inches before typing the writer's identification block. The writer's name may be preceded by the word By on the same line or by a phrase such as *Prepared by* or *Submitted by* (or simply By) typed 2 lines above. If appropriate, the writer's name may be followed by a title on the next line and by an organizational affiliation on the following line.

6-12x
By Doris Eberle
Manager, Telemarketing
Circulation Department



**g.** Reader's Identification. It is customary (but not essential) to identify the individual or group for whom the report has been prepared. Leave 1 to 2 inches before typing *Submitted to* or *Prepared for* or a similar phrase. Then on the second line below, type the name of the individual or the group. On succeeding lines, supply a title, an organizational affiliation, or both.



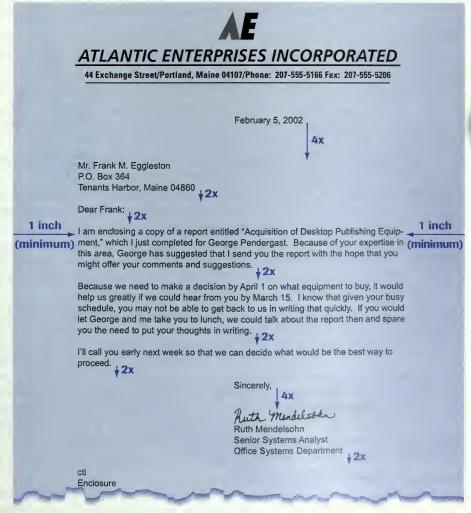


- h. Date. Supply the date (month, day, and year) on which the report is being submitted. Type it on the second line below the reader's identification block (or, if none is given, on the second line below the writer's identification). (See the illustrations on page 417.)
- i. Graphic Elements. You can use special display type and add an organizational logo or some other graphic element to enhance the appearance of a title page.

**NOTE:** When word processing software provides a template for reports, it typically includes a recommended format for a title page.

#### 1413 Letter or Memo of Transmittal

a. A formal report is often accompanied by a letter or memo of transmittal. If you are sending the report to people outside the company, use the letter format (see the illustration below); if you are sending the report only to people within the company, use a memo.



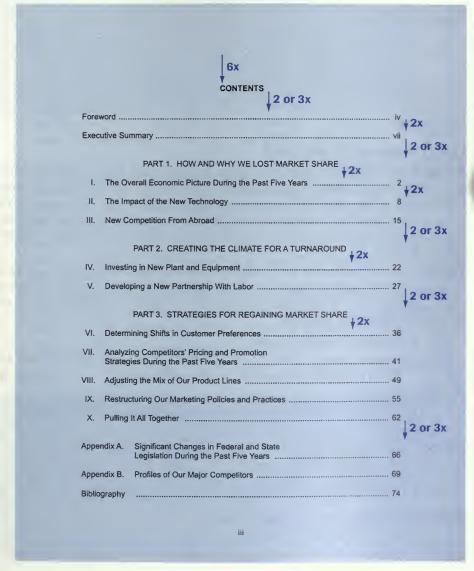
- b. The message typically covers the following points: (1) a brief description of what is being transmitted; (2) a brief reference to the circumstances that prompted the report; (3) if necessary, a brief indication of why the report is being sent to the addressee; and (4) a statement about what action the addressee is expected to take. (See the illustration on page 419.)
- c. The letter or memo of transmittal is typically clipped to the front of the report. If the report is in a binder, the transmittal document may be clipped to the front of the binder or inserted in the binder preceding the title page.

#### **Table of Contents**

- 1414 If your word processing software has the appropriate feature, you can create a table of contents by scrolling through the text and coding (according to level of subordination) every part title, chapter title, main heading, and subheading that you wish to appear in the table of contents. If you subsequently add, delete, or change any titles or headings in the report, you can readily update your table of contents to reflect these changes.
- 1415 If you do not like the default style for a table of contents that is provided by your software, you may be able to modify that style or select a different style. If you prefer to create your own format, the following guidelines may be helpful.
  - a. Type the table of contents on a new page. (See the illustration on page 421).

    NOTE: To achieve a more open look, the illustration uses 2 blank lines above each major element within the table of contents. However, some writers prefer to use only 1 blank line above these elements.
  - **b.** Approximately 2 inches from the top of the page, center the heading *CONTENTS* (or *TABLE OF CONTENTS*) in boldface all-capital letters.
  - c. On the second or third line below the heading, begin typing the table of contents double-spaced. Use the same side and bottom margins as for the text pages in the body of the report. (See ¶¶1404–1406.)
  - **d.** In typing the body of the table of contents, list every separate element that *follows* the table of contents in sequence—whether in the front matter, the body of the report, or the back matter. In the illustration on page 421, note the following aspects of the format:
    - (1) Type individual entries pertaining to front matter and back matter at the left margin, with the title in capital and small letters or in all-capital letters. Page numbers (roman for front matter and arabic for back matter) align on the right at the right margin. Leaders help guide the eye to the column of page numbers. Set a right leader tab for the page numbers. After you type each entry at the left margin, pressing the leader tab will automatically insert the leaders before you type the page number. The leader feature provides only solid leaders and establishes the space before and after each row of leaders. Accept the results that your software provides.
      - NOTE: Leave 1 or 2 blank lines after the front matter entries and 1 or 2 blank lines before the back matter entries.
    - (2) Center individual entries pertaining to part titles in all-capital letters. The part numbers that precede the titles may be in arabic or roman numerals or

- (for formality) may be spelled out. Leave 1 or 2 blank lines before each part title and 1 blank line after.
- (3) Individual entries pertaining to chapters begin with a chapter number (roman or arabic), followed by a period, 1 or 2 spaces, and then the chapter title typed in capital and small letters or in all-capital letters. Align the chapter numbers at the right. If you are using roman numerals, set a decimal tab, with the longest number positioned as close to the left margin as possible. Press the tab key to insert a row of leaders before you type each page number.
- (4) If any chapter title should require more than one line, type the turnover line single-spaced, aligned with the first letter of the chapter title in the line above.

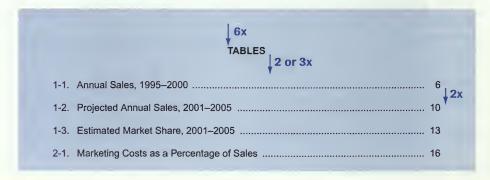


e. The main headings within each chapter may be included in the table of contents. One acceptable arrangement is to indent each heading from the start of the chapter title. Type the list of headings for each chapter in capital and small letters, and treat it as a single-spaced block, with 1 blank line above and below it. Page numbers may be provided with the headings if desired.

9.	GETTING RELIABLE PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK	83 <b>↓2</b> x
	Using Formal Appraisals by Supervisors	83
	Obtaining Realistic Self-Appraisals	84
	Getting Indirect and Informal Feedback	86
	Bias and Distortion in Appraisals	89
		2 or 3
10.	TRANSLATING FEEDBACK INTO HIGHER LEVELS	
	OF PERFORMANCE	92
		<b>√2</b> x
	Setting New Objectives	92
	Developing a Work Plan	94
	Measuring Performance Data	

#### **List of Tables or Illustrations**

- 1416 If your word processing software has the appropriate feature, you can create separate lists of tables and illustrations by scrolling through the text and coding the titles of the tables and lists that you want to appear in the front matter. If you subsequently add or delete tables or illustrations, you will find it easy to update these lists. (The process is similar to using software to generate a table of contents. See ¶1414.)
- 1417 If you do not like the default style provided by your software, you may be able to modify that style or select a different style. If you prefer to create your own format for these lists of tables and illustrations, the following guidelines and the illustration below may be helpful.
  - **a.** Type each list on a new page.
  - **b.** Type the heading—*TABLES* (or *LIST OF TABLES*) or *ILLUSTRATIONS* (or *LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS*)—in boldface all-capital letters.



- c. On the second or third line below the heading, type the first entry in the list. Use the same format as for chapter titles in a table of contents. (See ¶1415.) The tables or the illustrations may be numbered consecutively throughout the report or consecutively within each chapter. The latter technique uses the chapter number as a prefix in the numbering scheme. (See the illustration on page 422.)
- **d.** If your word processing software has the appropriate features, you can automatically number tables and illustrations throughout the report.

#### 1418 Preface or Foreword

- **a.** If a preface (written by the author) or a foreword (written by someone else) is to be provided, then on a new page type the appropriate title in boldface all-capital letters, and center the heading approximately 2 inches from the top of the page. Note that the correct spelling is *FOREWORD* (not *FORWARD*).
  - **NOTE:** If both a preface and a foreword are to appear in the front matter, the foreword should precede the preface.
- b. On the second or third line below the heading, begin typing the actual text. Use the same side and bottom margins as for the text pages in the body of the report (see ¶¶1404-1407). Also follow the same guidelines for spacing, indentions, and headings as in the body of the report (see ¶¶1424-1426).
- c. The preface should cover the following points: (1) for whom the report is written, (2) what prompted the writing of the report, (3) what the report aims to accomplish, (4) what the report covers and what it does not try to deal with, (5) how the data and the conclusions were arrived at, and (6) acknowledgments of those individuals and organizations who helped the writer of the report.
  - NOTE: The acknowledgments may be treated as a separate element in the front matter, following the foreword and the preface (if both are given) and using the same format.
- **d.** The foreword typically deals with these topics: (1) who commissioned the report, (2) the reasons for doing so, (3) the writer's qualifications for undertaking the assignment, (4) an assessment of the job that the writer has done, and (5) a call for some follow-up action on the part of those who receive copies of the report.

## 1419 Summary

- a. If a summary (frequently called an executive summary) is to be provided, follow the format guidelines provided for a preface in ¶1418a-b.
- **b.** Since this element is intended to be a time-saver, keep it short—ideally one page, at most two pages. The summary may be handled as a series of ordinary text paragraphs or as a series of paragraphs typed as items in a list (see ¶1424e-g).

## **1420** Numbering Front Matter Pages

- **a.** On all pages of front matter except the title page, use the page numbering feature or the footer feature to position the page number at the bottom of the page.
- **b.** Type the page number in small roman numerals (ii, iii, iv, and so on).

c. Consider the title page as page i, even though no number is typed on that page.

NOTE: You can direct the page numbering feature to (1) suppress the page number on the first page of the front matter and (2) insert a sequence of small roman numerals at the bottom of all the other pages in the front matter.

## **The Body of Formal Reports**

#### **1421** Introduction

- **a.** If the body of a report contains several chapters and begins with a formal introduction, treat the introduction either as Chapter 1 or as a distinct element preceding Chapter 1.
  - (1) If you decide to treat it as Chapter 1, then consider *INTRODUCTION* to be the title of this chapter. You can then treat it as you would any other title on a chapter-opening page. (See ¶1423.)
  - (2) If you decide to have the introduction precede Chapter 1, then on a new page type *INTRODUCTION* in boldface all-capital letters, and center the heading approximately 2 inches from the top of the page. On the second or third line below, begin typing the text.
  - (3) In either case treat the first page of the introduction as page 1 of the report. (See ¶1427.)
- > For guidelines on margins, see ¶¶1404–1407; for guidelines on spacing, indentions, and headings, see ¶¶1424–1426.
- **b.** If a report contains only one chapter and begins with an introductory section, treat the title *INTRODUCTION* as a first-level head (see ¶¶1425–1426) and type it on the second or third line below the block of copy (title, etc.) at the top of the page.

#### 1422 Part-Title Pages

**a.** If the report contains several chapters organized in parts, insert a separate parttitle page directly in front of the chapter that begins each part. Either of the following formats is acceptable.





NOTE: If the body of the report begins with a formal introduction (see ¶1421a), then the part-title page for Part 1 should *follow* the introduction. (REASON: The introduction embraces the whole work and not simply Part 1.)

**b.** Type the word *PART* and the part number on one line. Underneath type the part title on one or more lines as appropriate. Use boldface all-capital letters for emphasis, and arrange the copy for maximum display effect. Center the copy as a whole horizontally and vertically or, for a more attractive display, position the copy so that there is twice as much space below as there is above.

#### **1423** Chapter-Opening Pages

**a.** On a new page, approximately 2 inches from the top, center the chapter number and title in boldface all-capital letters.



**b.** If the title is long, divide it into sensible phrases and arrange them on two or more single-spaced lines. Put the chapter number on a line by itself, and leave 1 blank line before starting the chapter title.



c. Begin typing the first line of copy (whether text matter or a heading) on the second or third line below the title.

## **1424** Text Spacing and Indentions

- **a. Text.** Ordinarily, double-space all text matter. However, use single spacing or 1.5-line spacing in business reports when the costs of paper, photocopying, file space, and mailing are important considerations. (See ¶1408 for a number of ways to shorten a long report.)
- > For guidelines on dividing words and word groups at the ends of lines and between one page and the next, see \$\pi \pi 901-920\$; for guidelines on the use of footnotes, endnotes, or textnotes, see Section 15; for guidance on whether or not to justify the right margin, see \$\pi 1356b-c\$.
- b. Drafts. Always double-space drafts that are to be submitted for editing or evaluation.

- **c.** Paragraphs. Indent the first line of text paragraphs 0.5 inch. Leave 1 blank line between paragraphs.
- > For guidelines on dividing short paragraphs at the bottom of a page, see ¶1407d–e.
- d. Quoted Material. If a quotation will make four or more lines, treat it as a single-spaced extract, indent it 0.5 inch from each side margin, and leave 1 blank line above and below the extract. With word processing software, you can change the indent settings or you can use the *double indent* feature (if one is available), which will indent the extract equally from each side margin. If the quoted matter represents the start of a paragraph in the original, indent the first word an additional 0.5 inch.

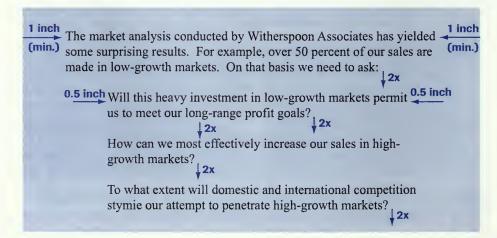
need to consider a new phenomenon in the software market. Here is an observation from Hal Pryor in a memo dated March 14:

0.5 inch

We're competing in an economy where the cost of drive down prices on software products as well. The only way to survive in this economy is to establish a long-term relationship with a customer, even if that means giving the first generation of a product away.

This is a startling idea and needs to be discussed at some length in our upcoming session on pricing strategy.

- > For another illustration, see page 349.
- e. Items in a List. Type the list single-spaced with 1 blank line above and below the list as a whole. Either type the list on the full width of the text (as illustrated on page 428), or indent the list equally from each side margin (as described in d above and illustrated below). If any item in the list requires more than one line, leave a blank line after each item in the list. If an item requires more than one line, align any turnover with the first word in the line above.



NOTE: Sometimes a list of one-line items (with no turnovers) is typed doublespaced to enhance readability.

- > For an example, see the illustration on page 504.
- f. Enumerated Items in a List. If each of the items begins with a number or a letter, you may use the numbered list feature of your word processing program. Each item will begin at the left margin, and turnovers will be indented to align with the first word in the line above. However, when the first line of each text paragraph is indented 0.5 inch (as is typically done in reports), an enumerated list that falls within the text looks best when indented 0.5 inch from each margin. (See the illustrations below.)

When you use the numbered list feature, the list will be typed single-spaced (as in the following illustration).

0.5 inch 1 inch In evaluating various companies as candidates for acquisition, we must address three basic questions: (min.) (min.) 0.5 inch 1 0.5 inch What should be our criteria for identifying desirable candidates for acquisition? How much should we be prepared to pay? To what extent will each acquisition affect our overall financial performance? Naturally, broad questions like these lead to a great number of other questions. We lack the internal resources to deal with the addi-

For a more open look, leave 1 blank line after each item in the list (as in the following illustration).

0.5 inch In evaluating various companies as candidates for acquisition, (min.) we must address three basic questions: (min.) 0.5 inch ₁ 0.5 inch What should be our criteria for identifying desirable candidates for acquisition? How much should we be prepared to pay? To what extent will each acquisition affect our overall financial performance? Naturally, broad questions like these lead to a great number of other questions. We lack the internal resources to deal with the addi-

**g.** Bulleted Items in a List. Instead of numbers or letters, you can use *bullets* before the items in a list. The bullet feature of a word processing program permits you to choose from a variety of styles to create bullets. For example:

CIRCLES: ○ ● TRIANGLES: ▷ ►

SQUARES: □ ■ OTHER ASCII CHARACTERS: > → *

The default position of the bullet is at the left margin; the text and any turnovers are automatically indented (as shown in the illustration below). If you prefer, you can position the bullets 0.5 inch from the left margin by pressing the tab before activating the bullet feature.

0.5 inch In evaluating various companies as candidates for acquisition, we must address three basic questions:

(min.)

- What should be our criteria for identifying desirable candidates for acquisition?
- How much should we be prepared to pay? ¹/₂x
- To what extent will each acquisition affect our overall financial performance?

Naturally, broad questions like these lead to a great number of other questions. We lack the internal resources to deal with the addi-

- **h. Tables.** Tables may be typed with single, double, or 1.5-line spacing. However, establish one style of spacing for all tables within a given report.
- > See Section 16 for a full discussion on how to plan and execute tables and for numerous illustrations.

## **Text Headings**

1425 Headings (or heads) are the key technique for letting readers see at a glance the scope of the writer's discussion and the way in which it is organized. Therefore, make sure that the heads used throughout the report properly reflect the coverage and the structure of the material. It is also essential that you type the heads in a way that clearly indicates different levels of importance or subordination.

Here are several techniques for achieving these objectives:

a. Try to limit yourself to three levels of text heads (not counting the chapter title). If you use more than three levels of text heads, it will be difficult for the reader to grasp the typographical distinction between one level and another. Moreover, the use of more than three levels of text heads suggests that you may be trying

us =

¶1426

to cram too much into one chapter. Consider a different organization of the material to solve this problem.

**NOTE:** In order to clearly distinguish one level of text heading from another and the headings from the text, carefully choose fonts and font sizes, and make appropriate use of boldface, italics, and other devices.

- **b.** Before preparing the final version of the report, make an outline of the heading structure as it then stands and analyze it for:
  - (1) *Comprehensiveness*. When the heads are viewed as a whole, do they cover all aspects of the discussion, or are some topics not properly represented?
  - (2) Balance. Is one part of a chapter loaded with heads while a comparable part has only one or two?
  - (3) Parallel structure. Are the heads all worded in a similar way, or are some complete sentences and others simply phrases? (See ¶1081.)

On the basis of this analysis, revise the heads as necessary.

NOTE: Using the outline feature of a word processing program will greatly simplify the process of reviewing and improving the wording of the heads. You can use the outline feature to generate a complete list of the heads as they currently appear in the report. Any changes in wording that you make on this list will automatically be reflected in the headings in the full text.

- c. Headings come in three styles:
  - (1) A centered head is one centered on a line by itself. Type it in boldface all-capital letters. If the head is too long to fit on one line, center the turnover on the following line.
- > For spacing above and below heads, see ¶1426.
  - (2) A side head starts flush with the left margin, on a line by itself. Type side heads in boldface, using all-capital letters or capital and small letters.
  - (3) A run-in head (also called a paragraph heading) is one that begins a paragraph and is immediately followed by text matter on the same line. Indent a run-in head 0.5 inch from the left margin. Type it in boldface capital and small letters. The run-in head should be followed by a period (unless some other mark of punctuation, such as a question mark, is required). The text then begins 1 or 2 spaces after the punctuation. (See the illustrations in \$\infty 1426b-c.)
- > For capitalization in headings, see ¶¶360-361, 363.
- 1426 The illustrations on pages 430 and 431 provide spacing guidelines for headings. You have two options. You can leave only 1 blank line above centered and side headings (as shown in the models in the right column). For a more open look, you can leave 2 blank lines above centered and side headings (as shown in the models in the left column).

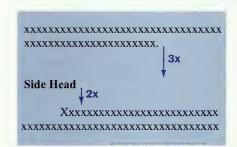
**a.** In a report that calls for only *one* level of heading, choose a side heading and type it in one of the styles shown below.

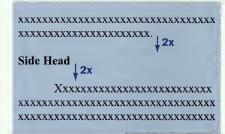
#### Open Style



#### **Condensed Style**

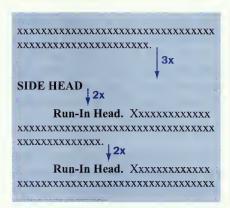




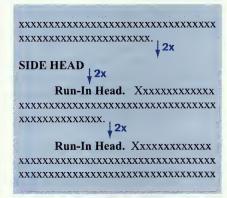


**b.** In a report that calls for *two* levels of headings, choose one of the styles shown below.

## Open Style



## Condensed Style



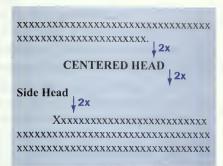
When a paragraph begins with a run-in head, leave 1 blank line above it. (Even paragraphs without run-in heads should be preceded by 1 blank line.)

**NOTE:** If you normally leave 2 blank lines above a side head, leave only 1 blank line when a side head comes directly below a centered head (without any intervening text).

#### Open Style



#### Condensed Style



c. In a report with three levels of headings, choose one of the following styles.

#### Open Style



#### Condensed Style



## **1427** Numbering Text Pages

a. When you use the page numbering feature of your word processing software, the appropriate page number will be properly positioned on each page in the correct sequence. If you later add or delete copy in a way that changes the overall length of the report, the page numbering will be automatically adjusted.

NOTE: The page numbering feature will insert space below a page number at the top of a page or above a page number at the bottom.

- **b.** When the first page contains the title of the report and the body starts on the same page, count this as page 1 but do not type the number on the page.
  - NOTE: With the page numbering feature you can easily hide or suppress a page number and still have the page counted in the overall numerical sequence.
- c. When the report begins with a formal title page and one or more additional pages of front matter, give these pages a separate numbering sequence, using small roman numerals. (See ¶1420.)
- **d.** In a formal report, consider the first page *following* the front matter as page 1 in the *arabic* numbering sequence.
- e. If part-title pages are included in the report (see ¶1422), consider them in the numbering sequence for the body of the report but do not type a number on these pages. (Thus if the first page following the front matter is the part-title page for Part 1, it will count as page 1 but no number will appear.)
- f. On the first page of each new element in the body or back matter of the report, use the page numbering feature to center the page number at the bottom of the page.
- g. On all other pages in the body or back matter of the report, use the page numbering feature to position the page number in the upper right corner of the page.
- h. If the final version of a report is to be printed on both sides of the paper (as in a book), the odd-numbered pages will appear on the front side of each sheet and the even-numbered pages on the back. If the report is bound, then on a spread of two facing pages, the even-numbered pages will appear on the left and the odd-numbered pages on the right. In such cases it is more convenient for the reader if the page numbers at the top or bottom of the page appear at the outside corners, as in the following illustration.

15

**NOTE**: You can direct the page numbering feature of a word processing program to alternate the placement of these page numbers in the outside corners, depending on whether the page has an odd or even number.

i. In a long report with several chapters written by different authors under a tight deadline, it may be necessary to prepare the final version of the chapters out of order. In such cases, you may use a separate sequence of page numbers for each chapter, with the chapter number serving as a prefix. Thus, for example, the pages in Chapter 1 would be numbered 1-1,1-2, 1-3, ...; those in Chapter 2 would be numbered 2-1, 2-2, 2-3, ...; and so on.

NOTE: If the authors submit their material on disk, it is easy to renumber the entire report at the last minute, using one continuous sequence of numbers throughout.

## **The Back Matter of Formal Reports**

1428 Following the last page of the body of the report are those elements of back matter that may be needed: appendixes, endnotes, bibliography, and glossary. Begin each of these elements on a new page. Use the same margins as for other pages in the report (see ¶¶1404–1407), and treat the numbering of these pages as discussed in ¶1427f–i.

#### **1429** Appendixes

- a. If you plan to include more than one appendix, number or letter each one in sequence. (For an example of the treatment of two appendixes, see the illustration of the table of contents on page 421.)
- **b.** On a new page, about 2 inches from the top, center *APPENDIX* (plus a number or letter if appropriate) and the appendix title in boldface all-capital letters.

6x
APPENDIX B. PROFILES OF OUR MAJOR COMPETITORS
2 or 3x

NOTE: If the title is long, type it in two or more centered lines, single-spaced. Leave 1 blank line before starting the appendix title.

APPENDIX A
APPENDIX A

SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN
FEDERAL AND STATE LEGISLATION
DURING THE PAST FIVE YEARS
2 or 3x

**c.** Leave 1 or 2 blank lines before typing the body of the appendix. Since this material may be a table, a chart, a list, or regular text, choose the format that displays this copy to best effect.

## **1430** Endnotes and Bibliography

For detailed guidelines on endnotes and the bibliography, see  $\P$ 1501-1502, 1505-1506, 1547-1551.

#### 1431 Glossary

If you plan to provide a glossary, then on a new page, approximately 2 inches from the top, center *GLOSSARY* or some other heading in boldface all-capital letters. Leave 1 or 2 blank lines before beginning the text.

Continued on page 434

There are a number of ways to set up a glossary: in two columns, in one column with hanging indentions, and in paragraphs.

a. Two Columns. In the left column type the terms in alphabetic order, using bold-face, italics, or underlining. In the right column put the corresponding definitions alongside. Begin the right column at least 2 spaces to the right of the longest term in the left column. Single-space each definition, and align turnover lines flush with the left margin of this column. Leave 1 blank line between entries.

Elliptical expression A condensed expression from which key words are omitted.

Essential elements Words, phrases, or clauses that are necessary to the complete-

ness of the structure or the meaning of a sentence.

b. Hanging Indention. Begin each term at the left margin, using boldface, italics, or underlining. Follow with a colon, a dash, or some other device and then the definition. Type the definition single-spaced and indent turnover lines 0.5 inch so that the term in the first line will stand out. Leave 1 blank line between entries.

elliptical expression: a condensed expression from which key words are omitted. 2x

essential elements: words, phrases, or clauses that are necessary to the completeness of the structure or the meaning of a sentence.

c. Paragraph Style. Indent each term 0.5 inch from the left margin, using boldface, italics, or underlining. Follow with a colon, a dash, or some other device and then the definition. Type the definition single-spaced, with turnover lines flush with the left margin. Leave 1 blank line between entries.

0.5 inch Elliptical expression—a condensed expression from which key words are omitted.

<u>Essential elements</u>—words, phrases, or clauses that are necessary to the completeness of the structure or the meaning of a sentence.

NOTE: Regardless of the format selected, the terms may be typed with initial caps or all in small letters (except for proper nouns and adjectives). The definitions may also be styled either way; however, if they are written in sentence form, it is best to use initial caps for both the term and the definition. The use of periods at the end of definitions is optional unless, of course, the definitions are written as complete sentences. (See the illustration in ¶1431a for an example of the use of initial caps for both the term and the definition.)

## **Manuscripts**

The preparation of manuscripts is subject to virtually the same considerations that apply to the preparation of reports (¶¶1401–1431). However, manuscripts differ from reports in one fundamental way: they are written with the idea of publication in mind—whether as a self-contained book, as an article in a magazine or some other printed periodical, or as an item to be included in a bulletin or newsletter. As a result, manuscripts require some special considerations concerning format.

**NOTE:** Some publishers now require authors to submit their manuscripts on disk as well as in the form of hard copy. Whenever possible, try to determine a publisher's manuscript submission requirements and preferences in advance.

## **Preparing Manuscript for an Article**

- 1432 If you have been invited to write an article for a specific publication, ask the editor for concrete guidelines on matters of format—line length, spacing, paragraph indention, heading style, preferences in capitalization and punctuation, overall length of article, and so on. You may also want to ask for guidance on content.
- **1433** If you are writing an article only with the hope that it may be accepted by a certain publication, you will enhance your chances of favorable consideration by imitating all aspects of the publication's format and style.
  - a. In particular, try to type your manuscript on a line length that equals an average line of copy in the finished publication. A manuscript prepared in this way will make it easy for the editor to determine how much space your article will fill in the publication. To determine the appropriate line length, copy 10 to 20 lines—on a line-for-line basis—from a representative article. Observe at what point most lines end, and set your margins accordingly.
  - **b.** Even if the publication puts two or more columns on a page, type only one column on a manuscript page. The wider margins will provide space for editing.
  - c. Type your manuscript double-spaced to allow room for editing.
  - **d.** Be sure to keep the overall length of your manuscript within the range of the materials typically used by the intended publication. There is little point in submitting a 2000-line manuscript to a publication that carries articles of no more than 500 lines.
    - NOTE: Your software very likely has a feature that will provide the following information you can share with your editor: the number of characters in your manuscript, the number of words, the number of lines, the number of paragraphs, and the number of pages.
  - e. In trying to simulate the character count of a printed line on your computer, you may have to adjust some of the spacing and indentions you normally use. For example, if you usually use 2 spaces after periods, question marks, exclamation points, and colons, use only 1 space. If you indent paragraphs 0.5 inch, use a 0.25-inch indention instead.

## **Preparing Manuscript for a Book**

If you are writing a book or assisting someone who is, consider the following guidelines in the absence of specific guidance from a publisher.

**1434** If the manuscript will consist essentially of regular text matter (with perhaps a few tables and illustrations), then in establishing a format for your manuscript, you can follow the standard guidelines for a formal report with respect to spacing, headings, page numbering, and other aspects involved in typing the front matter, the body, and the back matter. Use 1.5-inch side margins to provide extra space for editing.

NOTE: A book manuscript should not be bound.

1435 If you think your manuscript, when set in type, will require a special format—for example, a larger-than-usual page size to accommodate extremely wide tables or to permit notes and small illustrations to run alongside the text or to allow for a two-column arrangement for the printed text—then the easiest way to establish a format for your manuscript page is to select a published work that has the kind of format and font size you have in mind. Then, on your computer, copy a full page of representative printed text—on a line-for-line basis, if possible—to determine the manuscript equivalent of a printed page. (If a printed line is too long to fit on one typed line and still leave side margins of 1.5 inches, choose some other format that you can readily execute.) The important thing is to determine how many pages of manuscript equal a page of printed text. Then, as you develop the manuscript, you can exercise some real control over the length of your material.

## **Precautions for All Manuscripts**

**1436** When sending material to a publisher, always retain a duplicate copy in case the material goes astray in the mail or the publisher calls to discuss the manuscript.

NOTE: When you prepare your manuscript on a computer, be sure to save the file on disk. If you are subsequently asked to make changes in the manuscript, you can readily do so and then print a corrected manuscript.

1437 Your unpublished manuscript is automatically protected by the copyright law as soon as it is written, without your putting a copyright notice on it or registering it with the U.S. Copyright Office. If you are concerned that someone may copy your material without giving you appropriate credit or compensation, you may place a copyright notice on the first page (Copyright © [current year] by [your name]) to call attention to your ownership of the material. Since the copyright law protects only the written expression of your ideas and not the ideas themselves, you should obtain the help of a lawyer if you have an original publishing idea that you are afraid may be misappropriated.

# SECTION 15

## Notes and Bibliographies

#### Footnotes, Endnotes, and Textnotes (¶¶1501–1531)

Functions of Notes (¶1501)

Text References to Footnotes or Endnotes (¶1502)

Footnotes (¶¶1503-1504)

Endnotes (¶¶1505-1506)

Textnotes (¶1507)

Constructing Source Reference Notes (¶¶1508–1522)

Book Title: Basic Pattern (¶1508)

Book Title: With Edition Number (¶1509)

Book Title: With Subtitle (¶1510)

Book Title: With Volume Number and Volume Title (¶1511)

Book Title: With Volume Number Alone (¶1512)
Book Title: With Chapter Reference (¶1513)

Selection From Collected Works of One Author (¶1514)

Selection in Anthology (¶1515)

Article in Reference Work (¶1516)

Article in Newspaper (¶1517)

Article in Magazine or Journal (¶1518)

Quotation From a CD-ROM (¶1519)

Bulletin, Pamphlet, or Monograph (¶1520)

Unpublished Dissertation or Thesis (¶1521)

Quotation From a Secondary Source (¶1522)

Elements of Source Reference Notes (¶¶1523-1529)

Note Number (¶1523)

Names of Authors (¶1524)

Title of the Work (¶1525)

Publisher's Name (¶1526)

Place of Publication (¶1527)

Date of Publication (¶1528)

Page Numbers (¶1529)

Subsequent References (¶¶1530-1531)

## **Notes Based on Online Sources (¶¶1532–1546)**

URL Addresses (¶1532)

E-Mail Addresses (¶1533)

General Guidelines for Online Citations (¶¶1534–1539)

Constructing Online Citations (¶¶1540–1546)

World Wide Web Sources (¶1540)

E-Mail Sources (¶1541)

Listserv Sources (¶1542)

Usenet Sources (¶1543)

FTP Sources (¶1544)

Gopher Sources (¶1545)

Telnet Sources (¶1546)

## Bibliographies (¶¶1547-1551)

## Footnotes, Endnotes, and Textnotes

#### **Functions of Notes**

**1501 a.** In a report or manuscript, *notes* serve two functions: (1) they provide *comments* on the main text, conveying subordinate ideas that the writer feels might be distracting if incorporated within the main text; and (2) they serve as *source references*, identifying the origin of a statement quoted or cited in the text.

#### Comment

¹The actual date on which Governor Galloway made this statement is uncertain, but there is no doubt that the statement is his.

#### Source Reference

²Michael Wolff, *Burn Rate: How I Survived the Gold Rush Years on the Internet*, Simon & Schuster, New York, 1998, p. 38.

**b.** When notes appear at the foot of a page, they are called *footnotes*. (See  $\P 1503-1504$ .)

an incredible range of bloopers to be found in classified ads. One anthology contains these gems: "Dog for sale: eats anything and is fond of children." "Illiterate? Write today for free help." "Auto Repair Service.... Try us once, you'll never go anywhere again."

> For a discussion of whether to type the note number as a superscript (as shown above) or on the line, see ¶1523b; for a discussion of default formats provided by word processing software, see ¶1503.

¹Richard Lederer, Anguished English, Wyrick, Charleston, S.C., 1987, p. 38.

**c.** When notes appear all together at the end of a complete report or manuscript (or sometimes at the end of each chapter), they are called *endnotes*. (See ¶¶1505–1506.)

#### NOTES

- Richard Lederer, Anguished English, Wyrick, Charleston, S.C., 1987, p. 38.
  - 2. Ibid., pp. 39-40.
- $\succ$  For a discussion of default formats provided by word processing software, see ¶1505.
- d. When source references appear parenthetically within the main text, they are called *textnotes*. (See ¶1507.)

but the proper use of punctuation can sometimes have serious financial consequences. Consider the following predicament.

We came upon a writer at his work . . . . Quite casually he mentioned that he was getting fifty cents a word. A moment or two later his face became contorted with signs of an internal distress. With his hand poised above the machine, he seemed to be fighting something out with himself. . . . "Listen," he said, grimly, "do you hyphenate 'willy-nilly'?" We nodded, and saw him wince as he inserted the little mark, at the cost of half a dollar. (E. B. White, "The Cost of Hyphens," Writings From The New Yorker: 1927–1976, HarperCollins, New York, 1991, p. 17.)

- e. Footnotes or endnotes are ordinarily keyed by number to a word, phrase, or sentence in the text. Textnotes (which appear parenthetically at the desired point of reference right in the text itself) do not have to be keyed this way.
- f. Endnotes are growing in popularity because they leave the text pages looking less cluttered and less complicated. They do present one drawback, however: the reader does not know in each instance whether the endnote will contain a comment of substance (which is typically worth reading) or simply a source reference (which is usually of interest only in special cases).
- g. Textnotes are also growing in popularity for the same reason: lack of clutter. While it is possible to provide in a textnote all the information that a source reference typically contains, writers more often use the textnote to provide an abbreviated reference in the text, with the understanding that the reader who wants complete information will be able to consult a bibliography at the back of the report or manuscript. (See ¶1507 for examples of these abbreviated references.)

h. To take advantage of the benefits and avoid the drawbacks of these three types of notes, some writers use a hybrid system: they treat comments as footnotes and source references as endnotes or textnotes. In this way comments of substance are conveniently positioned at the bottom of the page, whereas all or most of the information about sources is tucked out of sight but accessible when needed. (See ¶1502g.)

#### **Text References to Footnotes or Endnotes**

**1502 a.** To indicate the presence of a comment or a source reference at the bottom of the page or in a special section at the end of the report or manuscript, insert a *superscript* (a raised figure) following the appropriate word, phrase, or sentence in the text.

**NOTE**: The footnote or endnote feature of your word processing software will insert superscripts in the text wherever you wish. (See *b* below for examples.)

**b.** There should not be any space between the superscript and the preceding word. If a punctuation mark follows the word, place the superscript immediately after the punctuation mark. (There is one exception: the superscript should precede, not follow, a dash.)

A research study published last month by a leading relocation consulting firm² provides the basis for the recommendations offered in Chapter 5.

The alternative approaches discussed in this report have been taken largely from an article entitled "Getting a Handle on Health Care Costs."

An article entitled "Getting a Handle on Health Care Costs"1—written by an eminent authority in the field—was the source of the alternative approaches discussed in this report.

c. While the superscript should come as close as possible to the appropriate word or phrase, it is often better to place the superscript at the end of the sentence (if this will cause no misunderstanding) so as to avoid distracting the reader in the midst of the sentence.

**ACCEPTABLE:** Her latest article, "Automating the Small Legal Office," 1 was published about three months ago. I urge you to read it.

**PREFERABLE:** Her latest article, "Automating the Small Legal Office," was published about three months ago. ¹ I urge you to read it.

**NOTE**: Leave 1 or 2 spaces after a superscript that follows the punctuation at the end of a sentence. (See ¶102.)

**d.** When a paragraph calls for two or more footnotes or endnotes, try to combine all the necessary information within one note if this can be done without any risk of confusing the reader. This approach will reduce the sense of irritation that a large number of footnotes or endnotes tend to produce.

NOTE: When this approach is used, the superscript is typically placed after the last word in the sentence or paragraph, depending on how the text references are dispersed. (See the examples at the top of page 441.)

**AVOID:** The following analysis draws heavily on recent studies undertaken by Andrew Bowen,¹ Frances Kaplan,² and Minetta Coleman.³

¹Andrew Bowen, . . .

²Frances Kaplan, . . .

³Minetta Coleman, . . .

**PREFERABLE:** The following analysis draws heavily on recent studies undertaken by Andrew Bowen, Frances Kaplan, and Minetta Coleman.¹

¹Andrew Bowen, . . .; Frances Kaplan, . . .; and Minetta Coleman, . . . .

- e. The numbering of footnotes or endnotes may run consecutively throughout or begin again with each new chapter.
- f. Footnotes and endnotes are sometimes keyed by symbol rather than by number. This often occurs in tables with figures and in technical material with many formulas, where a raised figure—though intended to refer to a footnote or endnote—could be mistaken for part of the table text or the formula. When the use of symbols is appropriate, choose one of the following programmed sequences:

t t § ¶ or a b c d e

These tests confirmed that there was a reduction over time of the flexural strength of the marble unit from 1400 to 1200 lb/in².†

(NOT: These tests confirmed that there was a reduction over time of the flexural strength of the marble unit from 1400 to 1200 lb/in².²)

g. If you wish to treat *comments* as footnotes and *source references* as endnotes (as suggested in ¶1501h), use *symbols* for the notes containing comments (at the bottom of the page) and use *figures* for the notes containing source references (at the end of the report or manuscript).

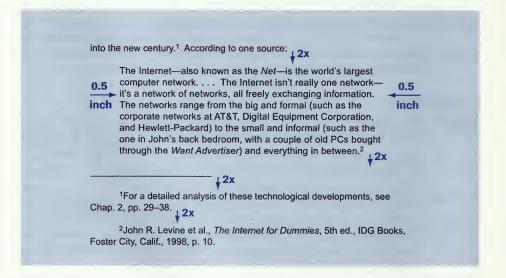
#### **Footnotes**

- 1503 a. When you execute footnotes using the footnote feature of a word processing program, the software will automatically position your footnotes at the bottom of the page where the footnote reference appears in the text. The software will also (1) insert a horizontal line to separate the footnotes from the text above, (2) continue a footnote on the following page if it is too long to fit as a whole on the page where it started, and (3) automatically number your footnotes. If subsequent additions or deletions in the text cause the text reference to shift to another page, the related footnote will automatically shift as well. If a footnote is subsequently inserted or deleted, all the remaining footnotes (and their related text references) will be automatically renumbered from that point on.
  - **b.** The illustration at the top of page 442 shows you how your footnotes will look if you use the footnote feature of Microsoft Word for Windows and accept all the defaults. Note the following details: (1) the first line of each footnote begins at the left margin; (2) no extra space is inserted between footnotes; (3) no extra space is inserted between the horizontal rule and the first footnote; and (4) an ordinal abbreviation such as th (in the phrase 5th ed.) appears as a superscript (5th ed.).

into the new century.1 According to one source:

The Internet—also known as the Net—is the world's largest computer network.... The Internet isn't really one network—it's a network of networks, all freely exchanging information. The networks range from the big and formal (such as the corporate networks at AT&T, Digital Equipment Corporation, and Hewlett-Packard) to the small and informal (such as the one in John's back bedroom, with a couple of old PCs bought through the Want Advertiser) and everything in between.²

**c.** In the standard format most commonly used, a horizontal rule 2 inches long appears 1 line below the text (as in the illustration below); the first line of each footnote is indented; a blank line is inserted between the horizontal rule and the first footnote as well as between all footnotes; and ordinal abbreviations are placed on the line (for example, 2d ed., 3d ed., 4th ed.).



**NOTE:** Whether you are writing business or academic reports or developing manuscript for a particular publisher, you will be expected in most cases to follow a prescribed style for footnotes (unless, of course, you are required to use endnotes or textnotes instead). In situations where no format is prescribed but professional editorial standards have to be met, follow the standard format illustrated above.

➤ For guidelines on how to construct footnotes, see ¶¶1508–1531, 1540–1546.

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$  For a detailed analysis of these technological developments, see Chap. 2, pp. 29–38.

² John R. Levine et al., *The Internet for Dummies*, 5th ed., IDG Books, Foster City, Calif., 1998, p. 10.

#### **1504** When dealing with footnotes, consider the following guidelines.

- **a.** If the text runs short on a page (say, the last page of a chapter), any footnotes related to that text should still be positioned at the *foot* of the page.
- **b.** Ordinarily, single-space each footnote, but in material that is to be edited, use double spacing to allow room for the editing.
- c. Type the footnote number as a superscript or on the line. (See 1523b for details on spacing and punctuation.)
- d. Ideally, the complete footnote should appear on the same page as the superscript figure or symbol that refers to it. Occasionally, however, a footnote may be so long that it will not all fit on the page, even if it begins immediately following the line of text in which the superscript figure or symbol occurs. In such a case the footnote feature of your word processing software will automatically break the footnote and complete it at the bottom of the next page (as shown in the following illustrations).

#### Start of a Long Footnote

and computers should not be used to write thank-you notes.2

²Judith Martin (in *Miss Manners' Basic Training: Communications*, Crown, New York, 1998, p. 37) clearly supports this position: "Thank-you letters should be written by hand. Miss Manners...grants exemptions

#### Continuation of a Long Footnote

on which there still is a considerable difference of opinion.3

only to people with specific physical disabilities that prevent them from writing. Those who claim illegible handwriting should be home practicing their penmanship instead of bragging about it."

³Baldrige, p. 593.

**NOTE:** If you have a number of long notes that may not easily fit on the page where they are first referred to, you have an excellent reason for abandoning the footnote format and using endnotes instead. (See ¶¶1505-1506.)

> For the treatment of footnotes that pertain to a table, see ¶¶1634-1636.

#### **Endnotes**

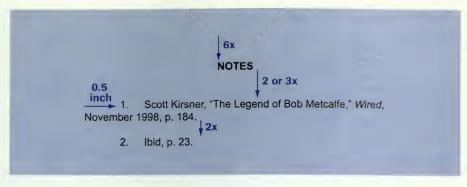
- 1505 a. The endnote feature of a word processing program will automatically position all endnotes at the end of the document. If you add or delete endnotes, all the remaining endnotes (and their related text references) will be automatically renumbered from that point on.
  - b. The endnote feature will also automatically format the endnotes for you. Here is how your endnotes will look if you accept all the defaults of the endnote feature of Microsoft Word for Windows. Note that the endnote section begins on the same page as the conclusion of the main text, separated by a short horizontal rule starting at the left margin but with no heading (such as NOTES) to introduce this section. Note also that each entry begins at the left margin with superscripts in small roman numerals and with no extra space between entries.

Having now surveyed the ways in which innovation has traditionally been viewed, I would venture to say that the most striking definition has been provided by Bob Metcalfe, the inventor of the Ethernet. At a recent MIT panel discussion on innovation, he said, "Invention is a flower. Innovation is a weed."

ⁱ Scott Kirsner, "The Legend of Bob Metcalfe," *Wired*, November 1998, ρ. 184.

- **1506** If you want to modify the default format shown above or if you prefer to create your own format for endnotes, consider the following guidelines. (The illustration at the top of page 445 reflects these guidelines.)
  - a. For better readability, use arabic rather than roman numerals in the text and the endnotes. The numbers in the endnotes sometimes appear as superscripts, but the on-the-line style is more commonly used.
  - **b.** Indent the first line of each endnote 0.5 inch. The turnovers should start at the left margin.
  - **c.** On a new page type the heading *NOTES*, centered in boldface capital letters, approximately 2 inches from the top of the page.
    - NOTE: If the document consists of only one chapter, the endnotes may begin on the same page where the main text ends. In that case leave about 3 blank lines before the heading and 1 or 2 blank lines after it.
  - **d.** Ordinarily, single-space each endnote, but in material that is to be edited, use double spacing to allow room for the editing. In either case leave 1 blank line between endnotes.

ii lbid., p. 23.



- e. Use the same margins as for other pages in the body of the report or manuscript (see ¶¶1404-1407), and treat the numbering of these pages as described in ¶1427f-g.
- > For guidelines on how to construct source reference endnotes, see \$\pi 1508-1531\$.
- f. If the numbering of endnotes starts again with each new chapter or with each new page, insert an appropriate heading—Chapter 1, Chapter 2, etc., or Page 1, Page 2, etc.—above each sequence of endnotes in this section. Type the heading at the left margin in capital and small letters (using boldface, italics, or underlining), and leave 2 blank lines above and 1 blank line below.

NOTE: If the numbering of endnotes is consecutive throughout, no headings are needed.

g. Insert this special section of endnotes in the back matter following any appendixes. If no appendix is given, the endnotes begin the back matter. (See also ¶1428.)

NOTE: When the individual chapters of a report or a manuscript are prepared by different writers, it may be advantageous to have the endnotes that each author prepares inserted at the end of the respective chapter instead of redoing all the endnotes as one continuous section in the back matter. If this approach is used, expand the heading NOTES in each case to read NOTES TO CHAPTER 1, NOTES TO CHAPTER 2, and so on. The disadvantage of this approach is that the reader will have a bit more difficulty locating the notes for each chapter than is true when all the endnotes are presented in one section at the very end.

#### **Textnotes**

- **1507 a.** In a report or manuscript with only a few source references and no bibliography at the end, the complete source data may be inserted within the text in the form of parenthetical textnotes. (See the illustration at the top of page 446.)
  - > For guidelines on how to construct source reference textnotes, see ¶¶1508–1531.

recommended by the U.S. Postal Service. As for the abbreviations devised to hold down the length of place names in addresses, here is what one authority had to say:

And all you people with beautiful words in your addresses: Cut 'em down. There's a bright golden haze on the MDWS; a fairy dancing in your GDNS; and a safe HBR past the happy LNDG at the XING, where no hope SPGS. Environmentalists are now GRN, as in how GRN was my VLY.... Is the language not lessened when words like meadow, gardens, harbor, landing, crossing, green, valley—even islands (ISS)—are disemvoweled? (William Safire, In Love With Norma Loquendi, Random House, New York, 1994, p. 166.)

NOTE: If some of the data called for in a source reference is already provided in the main text, there is no need to repeat it in the textnote.

recommended by the U.S. Postal Service. As for the abbreviations devised to hold down the length of place names in addresses, here is what William Safire had to say:

And all you people with beautiful words in your addresses: Cut 'em down. There's a bright golden haze on the MDWS; a fairy dancing in your GDNS; and a safe HBR past the happy LNDG at the XING, where no hope SPGS. Environmentalists are now GRN, as in how GRN was my VLY... Is the language not lessened when words like meadow, gardens, harbor, landing, crossing, green, valley—even islands (ISS)—are disemvoweled? (In Love With Norma Loquendi, Random House, New York, 1994, p. 166.)

- **b.** In a report or manuscript that contains a number of source references *and* a complete bibliography, textnotes may be used as follows:
  - (1) At the appropriate point in the main text, supply the author's last name and the appropriate page number in parentheses. The reader who wants more complete information can consult the full entry in the bibliography.

According to a fine book on time management (Bittel, p. 27), your ability to manage time depends in part on the way you experience the passage of time.

**NOTE:** Some authorities omit p. and pp. as well as the comma between the name and the page number. For example:

- ... book on time management (Bittel 27) ...
- (2) If the author's name already appears in the main text, give only the page number in parentheses.
  - Lester R. Bittel, in his fine book Right on Time! (p. 27), says that . . .
- (3) If the bibliography lists more than one publication by the same author, then in the textnote use an abbreviated title or the year of publication to indicate which publication is being referred to.
  - According to a fine book on time management (Bittel, Time, p. 27), ...
  - OR: . . . a fine book on time management (Bittel, 1991, p. 27), . . .

- (4) If the bibliography lists publications by two or more authors with the same surname, use each author's first name or initial along with the surname. For example:
  - According to a fine book on time management (L. Bittel, p. 27), . . .
- (5) If the entries in the bibliography are numbered in sequence (see 1549c), then the textnote can simply list the appropriate "entry number" along with the page reference. Italicize or underline the entry number to distinguish it from the page number, especially if the abbreviation p. or pp. is omitted. For example:

According to a fine book . . . (18, p. 27), . . . **OR** (18, p. 27), . . .

## **Constructing Source Reference Notes**

The following guidelines for constructing source reference notes deal with the situations that most commonly occur—whether in the form of footnotes, endnotes, or the type of textnote discussed in ¶1507. There is no clear-cut agreement among authorities on how these notes should be constructed; rather, there are several schools of thought on the subject, and within each school there are variations between one reference manual and another.

Of all the well-established conventions and variations, the style best suited for business use—and the one presented here—is a style that employs the simplest punctuation and the most straightforward presentation of the necessary data without any sacrifice in clarity or completeness. However, certain professional organizations—for example, the American Psychological Association (the APA)—have each established a distinctive style, the use of which sometimes shows up in other fields. Moreover, slightly different patterns are often used in academic materials, such as those featured in *The MLA [Modern Language Association] Style Manual* and *The Chicago Manual of Style*. If you are one of the many full-time business workers who are simultaneously taking one or more academic courses or one of the many full-time academic students who are concurrently holding down part- or full-time office jobs, you may need to familiarize yourself with more than one style. Note that along with the basic pattern for citing book titles (see ¶1508), you will find an "academic" variation that you may need to use from time to time. However, unless you are specifically directed to follow a particular style, the following "all-purpose" patterns—based on well-established conventions—should meet your needs in virtually every type of situation you encounter.

For detailed information about specific elements within these patterns, see the following paragraphs:

Note number: see ¶1523.
Names of authors: see ¶1524.
Title of the work: see ¶1525.
Publisher's name: see ¶1526.
Place of publication: see ¶1527.
Date of publication: see ¶1528.
Page numbers: see ¶1529.

Subsequent references: see ¶¶1530-1531.

#### 1508 Book Title: Basic Pattern

#### a. Business Style

¹Author, *book title*, publisher, place of publication, year of publication, page number [if reference is being made to a specific page].

¹Ron Chernow, Titan, Random House, New York, 1998, p. 663.

OR

1. Ron Chernow, Titan, Random House, New York, 1998, p. 663.

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 note. Moreover, if reference is made to the book as a whole rather than to a particular page, omit the page number. In the following illustration, observe that the quoted material requires more than three lines. For that reason, it is indented 0.5 inch from each side margin. (See ¶1424d.)

about the surprising frugality of immensely wealthy people. Ron Chernow, in Titan

(his award-winning biography of John D. Rockefeller, Sr.), offers this illustration:

0.5 inch
The world's richest man never lost the thrifty boyhood habits that had made him the nonpareil of American business. One day at Ormond Beach, he was studying the blazing hearth when he turned to Michael, the butler, and asked, "How long are those sticks of wood?" Fourteen inches, Michael replied. "Do you think they would do just as well if they were cut twelve inches in length?" Michael conceded this was possible. "Then the next time the wood is being sawed have it made twelve inches in length." Since twelve inches gave sufficient light and heat at less expense, it became the new household standard.\footnote{1}

¹Random House, New York, 1998, p. 663.

## b. Academic Style

¹Author, book title (place of publication: publisher, year of publication), page number [if reference is being made to a specific page].

¹Ron Chernow, *Titan* (New York: Random House, 1998), p. 663.

NOTE: The key distinction between the business style and the academic style lies in a slightly different sequence of elements and a slightly different form of punctuation:

**BUSINESS STYLE:** ... publisher, place of publication, year of publication ... **ACADEMIC STYLE:** ... (place of publication: publisher, year of publication) ...

The following patterns for books (in ¶¶1509–1516) show only the business style. However, you can readily convert them to the academic style by simply changing the treatment of these three elements.

> For the academic style for entries in bibliographies, see ¶1551c.

#### 1509 Book Title: With Edition Number

¹Author, book title, edition number [if not the first edition], publisher, place, year, page number.

¹David Kairys, *The Politics of Law*, 3d ed., Basic Books, New York, 1998, p. 113.

**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 an example, see ¶1511.) The following forms are commonly used: 2d ed., 3d ed., 4th ed., and rev. ed. (for "revised edition").

²Jane Bryant Quinn, *Making the Most of Your Money*, rev. ed., Simon & Schuster, New York, 1997, p. 53.

#### 1510 Book Title: With Subtitle

¹Author, book title: subtitle, edition number [if not the first edition], publisher, place, year, page number.

¹Pat Schroeder, 24 Years of House Work . . . and the Place Is Still a Mess: My Life in Politics, Andrews McMeel, Kansas City, Mo., 1998, p. 97.

²Ben Cohen and Jerry Greenfield, *Ben & Jerry's Double-Dip Capitalism: Lead With Your Values and Make Money Too*, Simon & Schuster, New York, 1997, p. 55.

**NOTE:** It is not necessary to supply the subtitle of a book unless it is significant in identifying the book or in explaining its basic nature. If a subtitle is to be shown, separate it from the main title with a colon (unless the title page shows some other mark such as a dash). Italicize the main title and the subtitle. Capitalize the first word of the subtitle, even if it is a short preposition like *for*, a short conjunction like *or*, or an article like *the* or *a*. (See ¶361.)

³Joshua Quittner and Michelle Slatalla, *Speeding the Net: The Inside Story of Netscape and How It Challenged Microsoft*, Atlantic Monthly Press, New York, 1998, p. 124.

⁴Joe S. Foote, *Live From the Trenches: The Changing Role of the Television News Correspondent*, Southern Illinois Univ. Press, Carbondale, Ill., 1998, p. 147.

#### 1511 Book Title: With Volume Number and Volume Title

¹Author, book title, volume number, volume title, edition number [if not the first edition], publisher, place, year, page number.

¹E. Lipson, *The Economic History of England*, Vol. 1, *The Middle Ages*, 12th ed., Adam & Charles Black, London, 1959, pp. 511–594.

**NOTE:** As a rule, do not show the volume title in a note 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. Some writers prefer to use one style of volume number throughout the notes. (See also ¶1512.)

#### 1512 Book Title: With Volume Number Alone

¹Author, book title, edition number [if not the first edition], publisher, place, year, volume number, page number.

¹Ruth Barnes Moynihan et al. (eds.), *Second to None: A Documentary History of American Women*, Univ. of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, 1994, Vol. II, p. 374.

> For the use of et al., see \$\pi 1524c\$; for the use of eds., see \$\pi 1524e\$.

**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. III, p. 197 **or** III, 197

Style for Arabic Volume Number

Vol. 5, pp. 681-684 **OR** 5:681-684

¹Ruth Barnes Moynihan et al. (eds.), Second to None: A Documentary History of American Women, Univ. of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, 1994, II, 374.

Do not use the forms with figures alone if there is a chance your reader will not understand them.

#### 1513 Book Title: With Chapter Reference

¹Author, book title, publisher, place, year, chapter number, "chapter title" [if significant], page number.

¹Will Durant and Ariel Durant, *The Age of Napoleon,* Simon & Schuster, New York, 1975, Chap. XII, "Napoleon and the Arts," pp. 278–285.

NOTE: When a note refers primarily to the title of a book, a chapter number and a chapter title are not usually included. If they are 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. Some writers prefer to use one style of chapter number throughout the notes.

#### **1514** Selection From Collected Works of One Author

¹Author, "title of selection," book title, publisher, place, year, page number.

¹Seamus Heaney, "A Basket of Chestnuts," *Seeing Things*, Farrar, Strauss and Giroux, New York, 1997, pp. 26–27.

## 1515 Selection in Anthology

¹Author of selection, "title of selection," in editor of anthology (ed.), book title, publisher, place, year, page number.

¹Mary Corliss Pearl, "Ecology and the Environment," in Richard W. Bulliet (ed.), *The Columbia History of the 20th Century,* Columbia Univ. Press, New York, 1998, p. 173.

²Harris Breslow, "Civil Society, Political Economy, and the Internet," in Steven G. Jones (ed.), *Virtual Culture: Identity and Communication in Cybersociety,* Sage Publications, London, 1997, p. 253.

³E. B. White, "The Ring of Time," in Phillip Lopate (ed.), *The Art of the Personal Essay: An Anthology From the Classical Era to the Present*, Doubleday, New York, 1994, pp. 538–544.

⁴Lindsy Van Gelder, "The Great Person-Hole Cover Debate: A Modest Proposal for Anyone Who Thinks the Word 'He' Is Just Plain Easier," in *75 Readings: An Anthology*, 7th ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, 1999, pp. 347–349.

#### 1516 Article in Reference Work

¹Author [if known], "article title," name of reference work, edition number [if not the first edition], publisher [usually omitted], place [usually omitted], year, page number [may be omitted].

¹Joel Cracraft, "Animal Systematics," *McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology*, 8th ed., 1997.

²"Computers," Encyclopedia Americana, International Edition, 1995.

³Mary Jane Lupton, "Maya Angelou," American Writers, Scribner, New York, 1996, p. 18.

NOTE: It is not necessary to give the name of the publisher or the place of publication unless there is some possibility of confusion or the reference is not well known.

⁵Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 10th ed., 1997, pp. 23a-30a.

⁶The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 3d ed., 1997, pp. xxvi-xxx.

Moreover, if you are making reference to an article or an entry that appears in alphabetic order in the main portion of the work, even the page number may be omitted. If the reference work carries the name of an editor rather than an author. the editor's name is also usually omitted.

7"Data Processing," The Columbia Encyclopedia, 5th ed., 1993.

#### **1517** Article in Newspaper

¹Author [if known], "article title," name of newspaper, date, page number, column number.

¹Albert B. Crenshaw, "Looking for a New Mortgage? A Car? There's a Site for It," The Washington Post, November 2, 1998, p. 7, cols. 1-3.

> See ¶1518, note.

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 letter or number before the page number.

²Donald M. Murray, "O Say Can We Find a Better National Anthem?" The Boston Globe, November 3, 1998, Sec. E, p. 1, col. 1.

or: . . . November 3, 1998, p. E1, col. 1.

## **1518** Article in Magazine or Journal

#### a. Article in Magazine

¹Author [if known], "article title," name of magazine, date, page number.

¹"In Search of Quality Medical Care," Consumer Reports, October 1998, pp. 35–40.

²James A. Martin, "Work From Home, Get More Done," PC World, November 1998, pp. 45-48.

³Marcia Stepanek, "2000 Reasons to Celebrate," Business Week, November 9, 1998, p. 54.

4Wendy M. Beech, "Building a Successful Home-Based Business," Black Enterprise, September 1997, p. 92.

NOTE: Omit the comma between the article title and the name of the periodical if the article title ends with a question mark or an exclamation point.

⁵Margaret Mannix, "What's That Lurking on Your Phone Bill?" U.S. News & World Report, November 9, 1998, p. 74.

6Mark Frauenfelder, "Block That Site!" Yahoo! Internet Life, November 1998, pp. 92-98.

See also the second example in \$\mathbb{I}1517\$ and the examples in b below.

## b. Article in Professional Journal

Author, "article title," title of journal [frequently abbreviated], series number [if given], volume number, issue number [if given], date, page number.

⁷Suzy Wetlaufer, "After the Layoffs, What Next?" Harvard Business Review, Vol. 76, No. 5, September-October 1998, p. 24.

Continued on page 452

NOTE: Titles of journals are often abbreviated in notes whenever these abbreviations are likely to be familiar to the intended readership or are clearly identified in a bibliography at the end.

⁷Suzy Wetlaufer, "After the Layoffs, What Next?" HBR, Vol. 76, No. 5, September-October 1998, p. 24.

#### 1519 Quotation From a CD-ROM

¹Author [if known], "article title" [if appropriate], title of work (CD-ROM), publisher [may be omitted], place of publication [may be omitted], year of publication, reference to location of quotation [if available].

1"Jupiter," McGraw-Hill Multimedia Encyclopedia of Science and Technology (CD-ROM), 1994.

²Guerilla Marketing: Winning Strategies for Greater Profits (CD-ROM), Houghton Mifflin Interactive, Boston, 1998.

³Inc.'s Customer Service Plan Pro (CD-ROM), Inc., Boston, 1998.

NOTE: When citing material taken from a CD-ROM, try to provide some specific guidance on how to access the quoted passage on the disk. For example, if the material is organized in numbered paragraphs or pages, give the appropriate paragraph or page number. If the quoted passage is taken from a work organized like an encyclopedia or a dictionary (that is, in the form of brief articles or entries arranged in alphabetic sequence), provide the article title or key word used to identify the article or entry. Without such assistance, a person can usually input a key phrase (or character string) from the quoted material and use the search feature of a word processing program to locate the complete passage.

#### 1520 Bulletin, Pamphlet, or Monograph

¹Author [if given], "article title" [if appropriate], title of bulletin, series title and series number [if appropriate], volume number and issue number [if appropriate], sponsoring organization, place [may be omitted], date, page number.

¹Lois Mai Chan and Diane Vizine-Goetz, "Toward a Computer-Generated Subject Validation File," *Library Resources & Technical Services*, Vol. 42, No. 1, American Library Association, Washington, January 1998.

**NOTE:** Because the data used to identify bulletins, pamphlets, and monographs may vary widely, adapt the pattern shown above as necessary to fit each particular situation. For example, the name of the sponsoring organization may be omitted if it is incorporated in the title of the bulletin.

## **1521** Unpublished Dissertation or Thesis

¹Author, "title of thesis," **doctoral dissertation OR master's thesis** [identifying phrase to be inserted], name of academic institution, place, date, page number.

¹David Clement Dvorak, "The Education Designed for Gainful Employment (EDGE) Program: An Analysis of Local Implementation," doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, 1994, p. 169.

## **1522** Quotation From a Secondary Source

¹Author, book title, publisher, place, date, page number, **quoted by or cited by** author, book title, publisher, place, date, page number.

¹Robert J. Dolan and Hermann Simon, *Power Pricing*, Free Press, New York, 1997, cited by Jack Trout with Steve Rivkin, *The Power of Simplicity*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1999, p. 76.

NOTE: While it is always preferable to take the wording of a quotation from the original source, it is sometimes necessary to draw the wording from a secondary source.

In such cases construct the note in two parts: in the first part, give as much information as possible about the *original* source (derived, of course, from the reference note in the secondary source); in the second part, give the necessary information about the *secondary* source (which is at hand). Bridge the two parts of the note with a phrase such as *quoted by* or *cited by*. The pattern shown at the bottom of page 452 assumes that the quotation originally appeared in a book and that the secondary source for the quoted material was also a book. Naturally, if the original source or the secondary source is a work other than a book, use the pattern appropriate for that work.

#### **Elements of Source Reference Notes**

#### 1523 Note Number

- **a.** Make sure that the number at the start of a footnote or an endnote corresponds to the appropriate reference number in the text.
- **b.** Indent the note number 0.5 inch and type it (1) as a superscript (raised figure) without any space following it or (2) on the line (like an ordinary number), followed by a period and 1 or 2 spaces. The on-the-line style is more commonly used in endnotes. (See ¶¶1504–1505.)

¹Michael D. Woodard, *Black Entrepreneurs in America: Stories of Struggle and Success*, Rutgers Univ. Press, New Brunswick, N.J., 1997, p. 183.

OR

- 1. Michael D. Woodard, *Black Entrepreneurs in America: Stories of Struggle and Success*, Rutgers Univ. Press, New Brunswick, N.J., 1997, p. 183.
- > For guidelines on numbering notes, see ¶1502e; for the use of symbols in place of figures, see ¶1502f-g.

#### **1524** 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 ¶1508a, note.)

¹William A. Henry III, In Defense of Elitism, Doubleday, New York, 1995, p. 23.

²William Strunk Jr. and E. B. White, *The Elements of Style*, 3d ed., Macmillan, New York, 1979, pp. 32–33.

³Michael Eisner with Tony Schwartz, *Work in Progress*, Random House, New York, 1998, p. 71.

⁴John A. Byrne with a team of *Business Week* editors, *Business Week Guide to the Best Business Schools*, 6th ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, 1999, p. 67.

**b.** When two authors have the same surname, show the surname with each author's listing.

⁵Nancy Baker Wise and Christy Wise, *A Mouthful of Rivets: Women at Work in World War II*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, 1994, p. 153.

**c.** When there are three or more authors, list only the first author's name followed by *et al.* (meaning "and others"). Do not italicize or underline *et al.* 

⁶Roger Fisher et al., Getting to Yes, Penguin, New York, 1998, p. 33.

**NOTE:** The names of all the authors may be given, but once this style is used in a source reference note, it should be used consistently.

⁷Roger Fisher, William A. Ury, and Bruce Patton, *Getting to Yes*, Penguin, New York, 1998, p. 33.

Continued on page 454

**d.** When an organization (rather than an individual) is the author of the material, show the organization's name in the author's position.

⁸Society for Creative Anachronism, *Giants in the Earth, Bennett & Kitchel, East Lansing, Mich., 1991, p. 54.* 

However, if the organization is both the author and the publisher, show the organization's name only once—as the publisher.

⁹Patterson's American Education, rev. ed., Educational Directories, Mount Prospect, III., 1996.

**e.** When a work 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.)

¹⁰Nan Stone (ed.), *Peter Drucker on the Profession of Management,* Harvard Business School Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1998.

¹¹Andrés Torres and José E. Velázquez (eds.), *The Puerto Rican Movement: Voices From the Diaspora*, Temple Univ. Press, Philadelphia, 1998.

NOTE: If a reference work (such as an encyclopedia, a dictionary, or a directory) carries the name of an editor rather than an author, the editor's name is usually omitted. (See ¶1516, note.)

¹²Dictionary of American Regional English, Harvard Univ. Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1996, Vol. III, p. xxxii.

#### RATHER THAN:

¹²Frederic G. Cassidy (ed.), *Dictionary of American Regional English*, Harvard Univ. Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1996, Vol. III, p. xxxii.

**f.** If the author of a work is unknown, begin the note with the title of the work. Do not use *Anonymous* in place of the author's name.

#### 1525 Title of the Work

- **a.** In giving the title of the work, follow the title page of a book or the main heading of an article for wording, spelling, and punctuation. However, adjust the capitalization as necessary so that all titles cited in the notes conform to a standard style. For example, a book entitled *Assertiveness*, with a subtitle (the right to be you) shown entirely in small letters on the title page for graphic effect, would appear in a note as follows: Claire Walmsley, *Assertiveness: The Right to Be You.*
- > For the capitalization of titles, see ¶¶360–363.
- **b.** If a title and a subtitle are shown on separate lines in the original work without any intervening punctuation, use a colon to separate them in the source reference note. (See ¶1510 for an example.)
- **c.** As a general rule, use italics or underlining for titles of *complete* published works, and use quotation marks for titles that refer to *parts* of complete published works.
- For the use of italics or underlining with titles, see ¶¶289, 1508a; for the use of quotation marks with titles, see ¶¶242–243.

#### 1526 Publisher's Name

- **a.** List the publisher's name as it appears on the title page (for example, John Wiley & Sons) or in a shortened form that is clearly recognizable (Wiley); 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.** The following list of examples shows acceptable patterns for abbreviating publishers' names. If in doubt, do not abbreviate.

Full Name	Acceptable Short Form
Alfred A. Knopf	Knopf
John Wiley & Sons	Wiley
William Morrow and Company, Inc.	Morrow
Random House	
The Brookings Institution	Brookings
The Free Press	Free Press
Houghton Mifflin Company	Houghton Mifflin
Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.	Addison-Wesley
HarperCollins Publisher	HarperCollins
The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.	McGraw-Hill
Simon & Schuster Inc.	Simon & Schuster
Merriam-Webster, Incorporated	Merriam
Little, Brown & Co.	Little, Brown
Farrar, Straus and Giroux	
Yale University Press	Yale Univ. Press
University of California Press	Univ. of California Press

**NOTE:** The patterns of abbreviation typically depend on how the publishers are referred to in speech. Since one never hears Random House referred to as *Random*, the name is not abbreviated. By the same token, one hears Little, Brown & Co. referred to as *Little*, *Brown*, never simply as *Little*.

c. Omit the publisher's name from references to newspapers and other periodicals. The publisher's name is also usually omitted from references to dictionaries and similar works unless confusion might result or the work is not well known. (For examples, see ¶1516.)

#### **1527** Place of Publication

- a. As a rule, list only the city of publication (for example, New York, Boston, Washington, Toronto). If the city may not be well known to your intended audience (for example, readers from abroad) or the city 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 references to periodicals and well-known reference works.
- **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 note as *The Newark (N.J.) Star-Ledger*.

#### 1528 Date of Publication

- **a.** For books, show the year of publication. (Use the most recent year shown in the copyright notice.)
- **b.** For monthly periodicals, show both the month and the year. (See ¶1518 for examples.)
- c. For weekly or daily newspapers and other periodicals, show the month, day, and year. (See ¶¶1517–1518 for examples.)

#### 1529 Page Numbers

a. Page references in notes occur in the following forms:

p. 3 p. v pp. 3–4 pp. v–vi pp. 301 f. (meaning "page 301 and the following page") pp. 301 ff. (meaning "page 301 and the following pages")

**NOTE:** Whenever possible, avoid using the indefinite abbreviations f. and ff., and supply a specific range of page numbers instead.

- **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.)
- **c.** There is a trend toward dropping p. and pp. when there is no risk of mistaking the numbers for anything but page numbers.
- > For the use of an en dash or a hyphen in a range of page numbers, see \$\pi 459a\$.

# **Subsequent References**

**1530 a.** When a note refers to a work that was fully identified in the note *immediately preceding*, it may be shortened by the 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 note. Do not italicize or underline *ibid*.

¹Deborah Tannen, *For the Sake of Argument*, Random House, New York, 1998, pp. 61–62. ²Ibid., p. 94. (*Ibid.* represents all the elements in the previous note except the page number.) ³Ibid. (Here *ibid.* represents everything in the preceding note, including the same page number.)

- **b.** If you plan to use *ibid*. in a *footnote*, make sure that the footnote "immediately preceding" is no more than a few pages back. Otherwise, the interested reader will have to riffle back through the pages in order to find the "immediately preceding" footnote. To spare your reader this inconvenience, use the forms suggested in ¶1531.
- **c.** Do not use *ibid*. in a *textnote* unless the one "immediately preceding" is on the same page and easy to spot; otherwise, your reader will have to search through lines and lines of text to find it. To spare your reader, construct these "subsequent reference" textnotes along the same lines as "first reference" textnotes. (See ¶1507b.)

NOTE: With *endnotes*, the use of *ibid*. will cause no inconvenience, since it refers to the note directly above.

**1531 a.** When a note refers to a work fully identified in an earlier note but *not the one immediately preceding*, it may be shortened as follows:

¹Author's surname, page number.

⁸Tannen, p. 65. (Referring to the work fully identified in an earlier note; see the first example in ¶1530a.)

NOTE: When short forms are used for subsequent references, it is desirable to provide a complete bibliography as well, so that the interested reader can quickly find the complete reference for each work in an alphabetic listing.

**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 ¶1531a must be modified in the following way:

¹Author's initial(s) plus surname, page number.

on: 1Author's full name, page number.

¹David R. Johnson, *Illegal Tender*, Smithsonian, Washington, D.C., 1995, pp. 38–43.

²Debbie Johnson, *Think Yourself Thin*, Hyperion, New York, 1997, p. 205.

3D. R. Johnson, p. 48.

⁴D. Johnson, p. 211.

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. 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 note.

¹Author's surname, book title [shortened if feasible], page number.

¹Peter F. Drucker, *Managing for Results*, Harper Business, 1993, pp. 199-202.

²Peter F. Drucker, *The Pension Fund Revolution,* Transaction Publishers, New Brunswick, N.J., 1995, p. 87.

³Drucker, *Managing*, p. 144.

⁴Drucker, *Pension*, p. 93.

If you are referring to an article in a periodical, use the periodical title rather than the article title.

²Author's surname, *periodical title* [shortened if feasible], page number.

⁵Stephen H. Wildstrom, "A New Chapter for E-Books," *Business Week*, November 2, 1998, p. 19. ⁶Amy Borrus, . . .

⁷Wildstrom, *Business Week*, p. 20. (Referring to the work identified in note 5 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").

¹Author'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.)

¹Helen Kennerley, *Overcoming Worries, Fears, and Anxieties,* New York Univ. Press, New York, 1997, p. 165.

²Larry Hirschhorn, *Reworking Authority: Leading and Following in the Postmodern Organization*, MIT Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1997, p. 99.

³Kennerley, op. cit., p. 169. (Referring to a different page in *Overcoming Worries, Fears, and Anxieties.*)

⁴Hirschhorn, loc. cit. (Referring to the same page in *Reworking Authority*.)

⁵lbid. (Referring to exactly the same page as shown in note 4. *lbid.* may be used only to refer to the note immediately preceding. See ¶1530.)

NOTE: Do not italicize or underline loc. cit., op. cit., or ibid.

# **Notes Based on Online Sources**

Business and academic writers increasingly rely on the Internet rather than on printed materials as the source of information to be quoted, paraphrased, or summarized in the reports and manuscripts they prepare. Hence the critical need for guidelines on how to construct online citations—that is, footnotes, endnotes, and bibliographic entries that are based on online sources.

# **Dealing With Online Addresses**

The feature that distinguishes an online citation from one based on printed material is the inclusion of an *online address*—an element that takes the place of information about the name and location of the publisher. There are two major types of online addresses: a URL address (discussed in ¶1532) and an e-mail address (discussed in ¶1533).

#### 1532 URL Addresses

Every unit of information on the Internet has its own unique address—a Uniform Resource Locator, commonly referred to as a URL and pronounced as individual letters (you-are-el) or as a word (earl). (See ¶501b.) A URL represents not only the storage location of a particular document on the Internet but also the means by which a document can be retrieved. If a URL is not accurately presented in an online citation, it will be impossible to locate the material being cited.

A URL consists of at least two parts: (a) the *protocol* (the name of the system to be used in linking one computer with another on the Internet) and (b) the *host name* (the name of the host computer where the desired material is stored). Here, for example, is the URL for Yahoo!, a large directory of Web pages.

#### **Protocol Host Name**

http://www.yahoo.com

- **a. Protocol.** There are a number of protocols that you can use to locate material stored on another computer on the Internet.
  - HTTP (HyperText Transfer Protocol). The most widely used of all the protocols, HTTP permits you to surf the World Wide Web—that part of the Internet that provides access not only to text material but also to photographs, drawings, animations, and video and sound clips.
  - FTP (File Transfer Protocol). FTP permits you to transfer text material from an *ftp server* (the host computer where the desired material is stored) to your own computer.
  - **Listserv**. Listserv (a short form for *mailing list server*) permits you to retrieve messages posted to a network of mailing lists and to post your own messages as well.

- Usenet. Usenet is a network consisting of thousands of newsgroups (discussion groups each focused on a particular topic of interest). A message posted to a particular newsgroup can be read and commented on by any interested member of that newsgroup, and those comments may prompt additional rounds of comments. The original message (known as an article) and the subsequent series of comments create what is known as a thread. Users doing research on Usenet have the option of citing only the article, one or more of the comments, or the entire thread.
- Gopher. Gopher permits you to access text plus graphical and audio materials, but it first provides you with a series of menus that become progressively more specific until you locate the information you are looking for.
- **Telnet.** Telnet permits you to log onto another computer on the Internet and retrieve the desired information located there.

NOTE: Now that HTTP has become the dominant protocol for locating information on the Internet, Gopher and Telnet are no longer widely used.

When these protocols appear as the first part of a URL, they are represented as follows:

HTTP: http:// Listserv: listserv:// Gopher: gopher://
FTP: ftp:// Usenet: news:// Telnet: telnet://

The first part of a URL always ends with a colon and two forward slashes (://).

**b. Host Name.** The second part of a URL—the host name—consists of several elements separated by *dots* (never referred to as *periods*). Here are some representative host names as they appear in Web-based URLs:

# eBay: http://www.ebay.com Gateway 2000: http://www.gw2k.com Intel: http://www.intel.com/ PBS Online: http://www.pbs.org NASA: http://www.nasa.gov. PSINet: http://www.psi.net/

In the host names shown above, the first element—www—refers to the World Wide Web. The second and third elements—for example, <code>.ebay.com</code> (referred to as <code>dot-ebay-dot-com</code>)—represent the domain name. The second element often reflects some form of the organization's name. The third element is usually a three-letter unit preceded by a dot; it is called a <code>top-level domain</code> (TLD) or a <code>zone</code>, and it indicates the type of organization that owns the host computer. For example:

.com	commercial organization	.mil	military site
.edu	educational institution	.net	network organization
.gov	government body or agency	.org	nonprofit or noncommercial
.int	international organization		organization

#### Seven new TLDs were recently adopted:

.biz	provider of business services
.info	provider of information services
.pro	provider of professional services

.aero airline organization or group

.coop business cooperative

.museum museum

.name personal Web site

Computers outside the United States usually have host names ending in a twoletter country code. For example:

ca Canada fr France jp Japan

de Germany it Italy uk United Kingdom

The following URL for the Bavarian Ministry for Economic Affairs reveals that the host computer is located in Germany:

http://www.bayern.de

c. File Name. A URL may also provide a file name as the final element. For example, the following URL directs a Web browser to retrieve a file named iway.html from a host computer named www.cc.web.com using the HyperText Transfer Protocol.

#### Protocol Host Name File Name

http://www.cc.web.com/iway.html

**NOTE**: A swung dash (~)—also referred to as a tilde—is sometimes used to introduce a file name. For example:

http://www.netaxs.com/~harrington

d. Path. A URL may also include one or more elements between the host name and the file name. These elements indicate the electronic path to be taken (after the host computer is reached) in order to locate the desired file. For example:

# Protocol Host Name Path File Name http://www.yahoo.com/Computers/World_Wide_Web/HTML_Editors/

e. URLs are usually typed all in small letters, but when capital letters appear, follow the style of the particular URL exactly as shown (as in the example in d above). Also note that spaces between words in any part of a URL have to be signified by means of an underline (as in the example above) or some other mark of punctuation such as a hyphen (as in the example below).

http://www.cis.ohio-state.edu/hypertext/faq/usenet/FAQ-List.html

- f. Note that some of the URLs shown in ¶1532b—e end with a forward slash and others do not. Always follow the style of a URL exactly as shown.
- g. When Web-based URLs are given in documents and publications aimed at computer professionals, the protocol <a href="http://">http://</a> is often omitted; the fact that the host name begins with <a href="http://">www makes it clear to knowledgeable readers which protocol is to be used. When constructing your own online citations, consider how much your readers will know. As a general rule, it is safer to insert the protocol at the start of a URL, even if it was omitted in your source.

#### 1533 E-Mail Addresses

An e-mail address consists of two parts separated by an at sign (@). The part before the @ is called the mailbox; the part after the @ is called the domain.

a. The mailbox typically consists of the user's name (the name used to sign on to an e-mail system). However, some commercial online services assign users a numerical mailbox.

MailboxDomainMailboxDomainapinkham@aol.com73004,5077@compuserve.com

- **b.** The domain represents the system on which the e-mail message is delivered (for example, America Online and Compuserve in the examples above). The last part of the domain (for example, .com) is called the zone. (For a list of the most commonly used zones, see ¶1532b.)
- > For guidelines on the formatting of e-mail messages, see ¶¶1708–1711.

#### **General Guidelines for Online Citations**

Making use of online sources can pose special problems. After you have quoted or made reference to certain online materials in your report or your manuscript, the person who originally posted the material may later decide to change it or transfer it to a new location (with a new URL or e-mail address) or remove it from the Internet altogether. If any of these things should happen, readers who try to confirm the accuracy of your citations may very well draw unfair conclusions about your competence as a researcher and as a writer. To protect yourself against these potential problems, take the following precautions.

- 1534 Every online document that you plan to cite should be saved in the form of hard copy and as part of your backup files. If the document is very long, save at least enough of the document to establish the full context from which the cited material was taken. In that way you can always demonstrate—if the need arises—that you have not taken the material out of context or otherwise distorted its intended meaning.

  NOTE: Since much online material originally appeared in print (a much more stable medium), refer whenever possible to the printed source rather than the online source.
- 1535 In your citations of online material, include not only the date on which the material was posted on the Internet but also the date on which you accessed the material. Then if the material is subsequently changed or removed, you will still be able to prove the accuracy of your citation.
- 1536 When URLs or e-mail addresses appear in footnotes, endnotes, bibliographies, or even in the main text, enclose each address in angle brackets (< >). The use of angle brackets makes it possible to insert sentence punctuation before and after an online address and not have the punctuation mistaken for an integral part of the online address.
- 1537 Always present a URL or an e-mail address exactly as it is given. Never alter the capitalization, the internal spacing, or the symbols used. Failure to provide an accurate online address will usually make it impossible to locate the desired information. (See ¶1532g.)

- **1538** Always try to fit a URL on one line. If it becomes necessary to divide a URL at the end of a line:
  - a. You may break after the double slash (//) that marks the end of a protocol (but not within the protocol itself).

Acceptable Line Ending	Next Line
<http: <="" th=""><th>www.nowonder.com&gt;</th></http:>	www.nowonder.com>
NOT <http:< th=""><th>NOT //www.nowonder.com&gt;</th></http:<>	NOT //www.nowonder.com>

**b.** You may break *before* (but never after) a dot (.), a single slash (/), a hyphen (-), an underscore (_), or any other mark of punctuation.

Acceptable Line Ending	Next Line
<a href="http://www.">http://www.</a>	.pbs.org>
<a href="http://www.mcgraw-nor-">http://www.mcgraw-nor-</a>	-hill.com/> NOT hill.com/>
<a href="http://www.senate.gov">http://www.senate.gov</a>	/~daschle> NOT ~daschle>

- c. Never insert a hyphen within an online address to signify an end-of-line break.
- **1539** Always try to fit an e-mail address on one line. If it becomes necessary to divide it at the end of a line:
  - a. You may break before the at symbol (@) or before a dot.

Acceptable Line Ending	Next Line
<pre><wryter6290 <wryter6290@<="" not="" pre=""></wryter6290></pre>	@aol.com> NOT aol.com>
<pre><pbenner@lincoln <pbenner@lincoln.<="" not="" pre=""></pbenner@lincoln></pre>	.midcoast.com> <b>NOT</b> midcoast.com>

**b.** Never insert a hyphen within an e-mail address to signify an end-of-line break.

# **Constructing Online Citations**

The following guidelines provide a number of basic patterns for constructing online citations—source reference notes based on online sources. These patterns are much the same as those presented in ¶¶1508–1522 for printed works with one fundamental difference: the name and location of the publisher of a printed work are replaced in these patterns by URLs or e-mail addresses enclosed in angle brackets (< >).

The following patterns cannot cover every contingency that you may encounter when constructing online citations. Therefore, be prepared to adapt these patterns as necessary to fit each particular situation.

**NOTE**: These patterns are appropriate for use in constructing footnotes and endnotes in business and academic documents. For examples showing how these patterns should be adjusted for use in a bibliography, see ¶1551a, c.

#### 1540 World Wide Web Sources

¹Author's name, "title of document," title of complete work, date of posting,* <URL beginning http://> (date of access).

¹Nate Zelnick, "Wireless Net Access Gets Renewed Push," *Internet World*, November 16, 1998, <a href="http://www.iw.com/print/current/news/19981116-wireless.html">http://www.iw.com/print/current/news/19981116-wireless.html</a> (February 26, 1999).

#### 1541 E-Mail Sources

'Author's name <author's e-mail address>, "subject line," date of posting,* type of e-mail† (date of access).

¹Allie Goudy <Allie_Goudy@ccmail.wiu.edu>, "Continuing Education and Paraprofessionals," November 3, 1998, office communication (April 23, 1999).

#### 1542 Listserv Sources

¹Author's name <author's e-mail address>, "subject line," date of posting,* <URL beginning listserv://> (date of access).

¹Bo Ekvall <br/>
bo@PARTENON.COM>, "NEW: FREE Business-Related E-Zine. FREE Ad!" November 23, 1998, Istserv://scout.cs.wisc.edu/> (March 3, 1999).

#### **1543** Usenet Sources

¹Author's name <author's e-mail address>, "subject line," date of posting,* <newsgroup's URL beginning news://> (date of access).

¹Laura Beall <br/>
| Seall@azstarnet.com>, "Enterprises for Women," November 7, 1998, <news://alt.business> (May 27, 1999).

#### 1544 FTP Sources

¹Author's name, "title of document," date of posting, * <URL beginning ftp://> (date of access).

¹L. R. E. Quin, "Summary of Meta Fonts Available," n.d., <ftp://sun.soe.clarkson.edu/pub/tex/texmag.4.06> (August 9, 1999).

# **1545** Gopher Sources

'Author's name, "title of document," date of posting, * <URL beginning gopher://>(date of access).

¹American Association of University Professors, "Statement on Professional Ethics," n.d., <gopher://scsu.ctstateu.edu:70/> (December 14, 1999).

#### **1546** Telnet Sources

¹Author's name, "title of document," title of complete work, date of posting,* <URL beginning telnet://> (date of access).

¹DeAnne Rosenberg, "Women in Business: Gender Differences in the Professional World—Are Male and Female Managers Like Oil and Water?" *Business Credit,* November 1, 1989, <telnet://132.162.37.16> (April 9, 1999).

# **Bibliographies**

A bibliography at the end of a report or a manuscript typically lists all the works *consulted* in the preparation of the material as well as all the works that were actually *cited* in the notes. The format of a bibliography is also used for any list of titles, such as a list of recommended readings or a list of new publications.

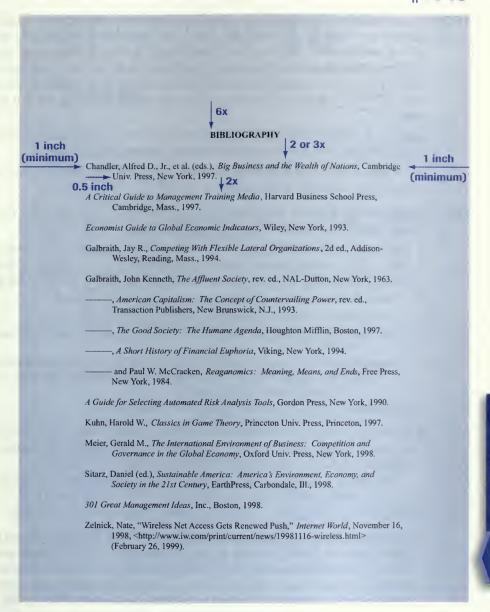
^{*}If the date of posting cannot be determined, insert the abbreviation n.d. (no date).

[†]Insert a phrase such as personal e-mail or office communication.

1547 Word processing programs do not typically provide a template for bibliographies. Some special word processing applications, however, will format not only footnotes and endnotes but bibliographies as well. These programs ask you to create a database (also referred to as a *reference library*) in which you enter the necessary data for each title you plan to cite. Then you select (1) one of the standard formats built into the software or (2) a format that you have modified or created. In effect, once you have developed the reference library, you can extract the data in the form of footnotes, endnotes, or entries in a bibliography.

NOTE: ¶¶1548-1551 provide guidelines for formatting a bibliography.

- **1548** Consider the following guidelines for formatting a bibliography. (See the illustration on page 465.)
  - a. On a new page type BIBLIOGRAPHY (or some other appropriate title) in boldface all-capital letters. Center this title on the first line after the top margin of approximately 2 inches, and begin the text on the second or third line below.
  - **b.** Use the same margins as for other pages in the body of the report or manuscript (see ¶¶1404-1407), and treat the numbering of these pages as indicated in ¶1427f-g.
  - **c.** Begin each entry at the left margin. Ordinarily, single-space the entries, but in material that is to be edited, use double spacing to allow room for editing.
  - d. Indent turnover lines 0.5 inch so that the first word in each entry will stand out.
  - e. Leave 1 blank line between entries (whether they are single- or double-spaced).
- **1549** a. List the entries alphabetically by author's last name.
  - **b.** Entries lacking an author are alphabetized by title. Disregard the word *The* or *A* at the beginning of a title in determining alphabetic sequence. (For an example, see the second entry in the illustration on page 465. Note that this entry is alphabetized on the basis of *Critical*, following *Chandler*.)
    - NOTE: When a publication lacks an author and the title begins with a figure (see the next-to-last entry in the illustration on page 465), alphabetize the title on the basis of how the figure would appear if spelled out. Thus, when 301 is converted to Three Hundred and One, the title is alphabetized on the basis of Three, following Sitarz.
  - c. There is no need to number the alphabetized entries in a bibliography unless you plan to use the style of textnotes described in ¶1507b(5). In that case begin each entry of the bibliography with a number typed at the left margin, followed by a period and 1 or 2 spaces. Then type the rest of the entry in the customary way, but indent any turnover so that it begins under the first word in the line above. (In the parenthetical textnotes, you can then make reference to different works by their bibliographic "entry number" instead of by author.)
    - Bamford, Janet, Consumer Reports Money Book: How to Get It, Save It, and Spend It Wisely, Consumers Union, Mount Vernon, N.Y., 1997.
    - 10. Farrell, Paul B., Mutual Funds on the Net: Making Money Online, Wiley, New York, 1997.
    - 11. Wilson, William Julius, *When Work Disappears: The World of the New Urban Poor*, Random House, New York, 1996.



NOTE: If you use the numbered list feature of your word processing program, the turnover lines will automatically be indented. The list will also be typed single-spaced. For a more open look insert 1 blank line between entries (as shown in the illustration above). The numbered list feature also aligns single- and double-digit numbers on the left. However, you can make an adjustment so that the numbers align at the right (as in the examples in ¶1549c). For additional details and illustrations, see ¶1357d.

1550 When a bibliography contains more than one work by the same author, replace the author's name with a long dash (using three-em dashes or six hyphens) in all 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 465. Note that these titles are alphabetized on the key words Affluent, American, Good, and Short. The ninth entry involves a coauthor and therefore follows the works written by the first author alone.)

NOTE: As an alternative, multiple entries pertaining to the same author may be listed in chronological sequence according to the date of each publication.

- > For guidelines on the typing of three-em dashes, see ¶216d; for guidelines on the marking of three-em dashes in manuscript, see ¶217c.
- **1551** Entries in bibliographies contain the same elements and follow the same style as source reference notes except for two key differences.
  - **a.** Begin each entry with the name of the author listed in inverted order (last name first). When an entry includes two or more authors' names, invert only the first author's name. When an organization is listed as the author, do not invert the name.

Ainley, Patrick, and Bill Bailey, The Business of Learning, Cassell, Herndon, Va., 1997.

Apple Computer, Multimedia Demystified?! Random House, New York, 1995.

Burchfield, R. W. (ed.), *The New Fowler's Modern English Usage*, 3d ed., Oxford Univ. Press, New York, 1996.

- Rosenberg, DeAnne, "Women in Business: Gender Differences in the Professional World—Are Male and Female Managers Like Oil and Water?" *Business Credit,* November 1, 1989, <telnet://132.162.37.16> (April 9, 1999).
- > For additional examples, see the illustration on page 465.
- **b.** Include page numbers in bibliographic entries only when the material being cited is part of a larger work. In such cases show the page number or numbers (for example, pp. 215–232) on which the material appears.

Levy, Steven, "Beyond Silicon Valley: The Hot New Tech Cities," *Newsweek*, November 9, 1998, pp. 45–50.

- $\succ$  For the use of an en dash or a hyphen in a range of page numbers, see ¶459a.
- c. In academic material, bibliographic entries typically follow a slightly different style. In the examples below, note that a period follows each of the three main parts of the entry (author's name, the title, and the publishing information). Also note that the parentheses that normally enclose the publishing information in an academic-style footnote or endnote are omitted in the bibliographic entry. (See ¶1508b.)

Burchfield, R. W. (ed.). *The New Fowler's Modern English Usage*, 3d ed. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1996.

Farrell, Paul B. Mutual Funds on the Net: Making Money Online. New York: Wiley, 1997.

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- Rosenberg, DeAnne. "Women in Business: Gender Differences in the Professional World—Are Male and Female Managers Like Oil and Water?" *Business Credit*, November 1, 1989, <telnet://132.162.37.16> (April 9, 1999).

# SECTION 16

# **Tables**

Using the Software Table Feature (¶¶1601–1608)

Locating Tables Within the Text (¶¶1609–1611)

Locating Tables on Separate Pages (¶¶1612-1615)

Centering Tables (¶1616)

Table Identification (¶¶1617–1620)

Column Heads (¶¶1621–1624)

Braced Column Heads (¶1623)

Crossheads (¶1624)

Table Text (¶¶1625–1633)

Spacing (¶1625)

Items Consisting of Words (¶1626)

Items Consisting of Figures (¶1627)

Items Consisting of Figures and Words (¶1628)

Amounts of Money (¶1629)

Percentages (¶1630)

Special Treatment of Figures in Tables (¶1631)

Leaders (¶1632)

Accounting for Omitted Items (¶1633)

Table Notes (¶¶1634-1636)

Dealing With Long Tables (¶¶1637–1639)

Dealing With Wide Tables (¶¶1640–1641)

Converting Tables Into Charts and Graphs (¶1642)

You can fit a good deal of material into a compact space when you present it in the form of a table—with items arranged in *rows* (to be read horizontally) and in *columns* (to be read vertically). However, in designing a table, you should aim for more than compactness. Your reader should be able to locate specific information faster—and detect significant patterns or trends in the data more quickly—than if the same information were presented in the regular text.

The following paragraphs provide detailed guidelines for creating a table. Modify these guidelines as necessary to achieve results that are easy to understand and attractive to look at.

# **Using the Software Table Feature**

Before the introduction of word processing software, the execution of tables required a great deal of advance planning and careful typing. Now, thanks to the table feature of your word processing software, you can prepare tables with little or no advance planning and you can make corrections and adjustments with relative ease.

The table feature, however, does impose some limitations on the results you can achieve unless you are willing to invest additional time and effort. As a result, you may not always find it feasible or even possible to achieve the appearance of professionally typeset tables. Here, for example, is how a table might appear in a textbook or a magazine:

LIFE	LIFE INSURANCE IN FORCE (\$000,000 Omitted)		
Year	Ordinary	Group	
1940	79,346	14,938	
1950	149,116	47,793	
1960	341,881	175,903	
1970	734,730	551,357	
1975	1,083,421	904,695	
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355	
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595	
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506	
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538	

Note that within each column the head and the text are centered between vertical rules. Note also the use of extra space surrounding various elements of the table to give it an open look and make it easy to read.

Paragraphs 1601–1608 show you (1) the results you will achieve if you prepare this table with the Microsoft Word table feature, accepting all the default specifications, and (2) the steps you need to take in order to achieve the look of a professionally typeset table.

**IMPORTANT NOTE:** When you use the table feature to execute a table, how far you go in modifying the default specifications will depend on a number of factors. If the table is intended for your eyes alone (or those of your immediate associates) and speed rather than appearance is critical, you may not want to go very far (if at all) in modifying those default specifications. On the other hand, if the table will appear in a document to be presented to higher management or to people outside the organization, you will have to invest the extra time and effort needed to create a more professional-looking table.

- **1601** The default format provided by the Microsoft Word table feature encloses the complete table (including any heading at the top and any notes at the bottom) in a grid of horizontal and vertical lines.
  - **a.** At the outset specify the number of columns the table should have (in this particular case, three). It is not necessary to specify the number of rows in advance since the act of tabbing at the end of a row will automatically add another row.

NOTE: If you are using an autoformat style (see ¶1608), you may need to specify the number of rows as well.

**b.** In the absence of other instructions, the table grid will have the same width as the regular text. You may find it simplest to accept this dimension at the outset and adjust the width of the table later on. (See 1603.)


1602 a. Begin by entering the column heads and the column text. Leave one blank row at the top for the heading and one blank row at the bottom for any notes. If you accept all the default specifications, the column heads and the text in each column will align at left.

Year	Ordinary	Group
1940	79,346	14,938
1950	149,116	47,793
1960	341,881	175,903
1970	734,730	551,357
1975	1,083,421	904,695
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538

**b.** It is appropriate to use left alignment when the column text consists entirely of words or of figures representing years (as in the first column above). However, when the column text consists of figures that have to be added or compared in some way (as in the second and third columns above), the figures should align at the right.

c. To save a step, select right alignment (or right justification) for the second and third columns before you enter any data in the grid. Moreover, to enhance the appearance of the table, select boldface for the column heads. If these modifications are made in advance, the first version of the table will look like this:

Year	Ordinary	Group
1940	79,346	14,938
1950	149,116	47,793
1960	341,881	175,903
1970	734,730	551,357
1975	1,083,421	904,695
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538

**1603 a.** The table, as it now stands, has excessively wide columns. To remedy the situation, use the *autofit* feature to adjust the width of the columns to fit the column text.

Year	Ordinary	Group
1940	79,346	14,938
1950	149,116	47,793
1960	341,881	175,903
1970	734,730	551,357
1975	1,083,421	904,695
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538

Note that now the text in each column is not perfectly centered between the vertical rules. Moreover, the use of the autofit feature creates a fairly tight appearance. You can widen a column by clicking on the appropriate vertical line and dragging it to the desired point. Then use the indent markers to visually center the column text as a block between vertical rules

Ordinary	Group
	14,938
149,116	47,793
341,881	175,903
734,730	551,357
1,083,421	904,695
1,760,474	1,579,355
3,247,289	2,561,595
5,366,982	3,753,506
8,337,188	5,158,538
	341,881 734,730 1,083,421 1,760,474 3,247,289 5,366,982

**NOTE:** If you try to widen a column simply by inserting extra space, all that extra space will appear on only one side of the column text (and not be evenly distributed on both sides). Thus in a column with left-justified text, all the extra space will appear on the right; in a column with right-justified text, all the extra space will appear on the left. To avoid this result, use the technique described in  $\P 1603a$  to visually center the column text.

- b. When a table that initially extends from one side margin to the other is reduced in width (as in the illustrations in ¶1603a), the table as a whole will remain aligned at the left margin. Therefore, once you complete the table, center it horizontally on the page. Moreover, if the table occupies a page by itself, center the table vertically as well.
- **1604** Before you can enter the table heading at the top or any table notes at the bottom, you need to merge or join the cells in the lines reserved for these purposes.

Year	Ordinary	Group
1940	79,346	14,938
1950	149,116	47,793
200	7,00,	
1985	3,247,289	2,561595
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538

- **1605** a. The heading of a table may consist simply of a table title. Or the title may be preceded by a table number and followed by a subtitle—all on the same line or on separate lines. (See ¶1620 for the various ways in which these elements may be positioned.) Whether the heading consists of only one line or several lines, enter the complete heading in one cell at the top of the grid.
  - **b.** If the table is accompanied by one or more footnotes, enter these elements in one cell at the bottom of the grid.
  - **c.** As the following illustration demonstrates, when you enter these elements in the grid, they are automatically aligned at the left.

Table A-15 LIFE INSURANCE IN FORCE					
(\$000,000 Omitted)					
Year	Ordinary	Group			
1940	79,346	14,938			
1950	149,116	47,793			
1960	341,881	175,903			
1970	734,730	551,357			
1975	1,083,421	904,695			
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355			
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595			
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506			
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538			
Source: The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1998, p. 970.					

**1606** To improve the appearance of the table, consider making these adjustments:

- **a.** Use boldface for all the elements in the table heading. (Some writers prefer to use boldface only for the title.)
- **b.** Select the centering option for the column heads and all the elements in the table heading.
- **c.** Insert 1 blank line between the lines in the table heading and above and below the heading as a whole.

NOTE: If the table title or subtitle will not fit all on one line, break it into sensible phrases and single-space the turnover. (See ¶1620 for illustrations of the ways in which the elements in the table heading may be arranged.)

- d. Insert 1 blank line above and below the column heads.
- **e.** Insert 1 blank line between the notes at the bottom of the table and above and below the notes as a whole.
- f. If the footnotes each require no more than one full line, begin each note at the left margin of the table text. However, if any one of the notes turns over to a second line, indent the first line of each note. Ordinarily, the indention should be 0.5 inch, but if a table is relatively narrow (as in the illustration below), reduce the indention to 0.25 inch for better appearance. In any case, adjust the measure of the footnote so that the turnover aligns at the left margin of the table text and does not extend beyond the right margin of the table text.
- **g.** Add shading to portions of the table as desired to give special emphasis to certain elements and make the table more attractive as a whole.

NOTE: If all of these modifications are made, the table will then look like this:

Table A-15				
LIFE INSURANCE IN FORCE				
(\$000,000 Omitted)  Year Ordinary Group				
1940	79,346	14,938		
1950	149,116	47,793		
1960	341,881	175,903		
1970	734,730	551,357		
1975	1,083,421	904,695		
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355		
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595		
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506		
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538		

Source: The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1998, p. 970.

**1607** a. If you want to achieve a more open look, you can remove the grid and increase the space between rows, as in the illustration below.

Table A-15				
LIFE INSURANCE IN FORCE				
(\$000,000 Omitted)				
Year	Ordinary	Group		
1940	79,346	14,938		
1950	149,116	47,793		
1960	341,881	175,903		
1970	734,730	551,357		
1975	1,083,421	904,695		
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355		
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595		
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506		
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538		

NOTE: Even if you ultimately intend to remove the grid from the table, be sure to enter all the elements in the table heading and the table notes within the grid at the outset. In that way, if you later decide to transfer the table to another location in the document, you can be sure that the table will be moved as a whole. If the table heading and the source note are not inserted in the grid, only the body of the table will be moved.

b. As an alternative, you can simply eliminate all the vertical rules in the grid.

LIFE	Table A-15 E INSURANCE II (\$000,000 Omit	
Year	Ordinary	Group
1940	79,346	14,938
1950	149,116	47,793
1960	341,881	175,903
1970	734,730	551,357
1975	1,083,421	904.695
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506
		5,158,538

**1608 a.** Some word processing programs provide a number of autoformats that can enhance the appearance of your tables. The following illustrations provide examples of three styles offered by Microsoft Word: Contemporary, Professional, and Elegant.

#### Contemporary

Table A-15
LIFE INSURANCE IN FORCE
(\$000,000 Omitted)

- 159	No.	
Year	Ordinary	Group
1940	79,346	14,938
1950	149,116	47,793
1960	341,881	175,903
1970	734,730	551,357
1975	1,083,421	904,695
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538

Source: The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1998, p. 970.

#### Professional

LIFE INSURANCE IN FORCE (\$000,000 Omitted)			
Year	Ordinary	Group	
1940	79,346	14,938	
1950	149,116	47,793	
1960	341,881	175,903	
1970	734,730	551,357	
1975	1,083,421	904,695	
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355	
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595	
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506	
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538	

Source: The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1998, p. 970.

Elegant [

Table A-15  LIFE INSURANCE IN FORCE  (\$000,000 Omitted)			
Year	Ordinary	Group	
1940	79,346	14,938	
1950	149,116	47,793	
1960	341,881	175,903	
1970	734,730	551,357	
1975	1,083,421	904,695	
1980	1,760,474	1,579,355	
1985	3,247,289	2,561,595	
1990	5,366,982	3,753,506	
1996	8,337,188	5,158,538	
	arce: The World Facts, 1998, p. 97		

**b.** If you make all of your modifications to the table before applying autoformat, you will lose the attributes of boldface and italic wherever you have added them. In the following illustration, note how the application of the Elegant autoformat causes the loss of boldface in the table heading and the column heads as well as the loss of italics in the table footnote. Moreover, the word *Table* (preceding the table number) and the word *Omitted* in the subtitle have been converted to all-capital letters. However, it is easy to restore these attributes so that the finished table looks like the illustration above.

LIFE INSURANCE IN FORCE			
(\$000,000 OMITTED)			
Year Ordinary Group			
1040 70 246 14 020 1790 0,55/,100 14 020			
Sou	rce: The World		

**c.** If you select autoformat before making any modifications, those modifications will remain in place.

# **Locating Tables Within the Text**

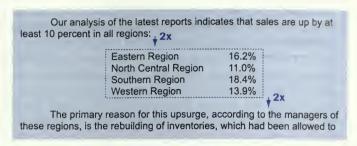
- **1609 a.** Tables should be easy to refer to. Therefore, try to locate each table on the same page where the subject of the table is introduced in the text. In this way the reader will have ready access to the table while reading the text commentary that may precede and follow.
  - **b.** Ideally, every table should fall immediately after the point in the text where it is first mentioned. However, if placing the table within a paragraph is likely to disrupt the reader's grasp of the material, then locate the table at the end of the paragraph or at the top or bottom of the page. (See ¶1611d.)
- 1610 a. Avoid breaking a table at the bottom of a page. If starting a table at the ideal point means that it will not all fit in the space remaining on the page, then place the complete table at the top of the next page. (At the point in the text where the table is first mentioned, insert an appropriate cross-reference. See ¶1615.)
  - NOTE: Many word processing programs have a feature called *keep lines together* which prevents tables from breaking across pages. (See ¶1639b.)
  - **b.** If you have to fit a number of relatively short tables (half a page or less) in a given document, single-space the table text to maximize your chances of locating each table in the ideal place. (See ¶1625.)
    - NOTE: Microsoft Word's table feature single-spaces the table text by default.
  - ➤ For other techniques to limit the length of a table to one page, see ¶1637; for guidelines on dealing with a table too long to fit on one page, see ¶¶1638−1639.
- **1611** If a table is to appear on a page that also carries regular text:
  - a. Center the table horizontally within the established margins. (See ¶1609a.)
  - **b.** Try to indent the table at least 0.5 inch from each side margin. In any case, the width of the table should not exceed the width of the text. (See ¶¶1640-1641.)
  - c. Use blank lines to set off a table from the text above and below it as follows:
    - (1) Leave only 1 blank line above and below the table if horizontal rules or shading sets the table off from the text.

Quantity Unit Symbol				
Length	meter	m		
Mass	kilogram	kg		
Time	second	S		
Electric current	ampere	A		
Thermodynamic temperature	kelvin	K		

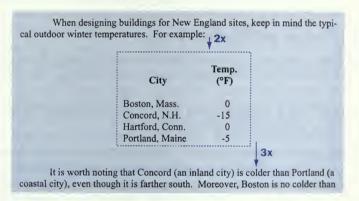
In addition, there are two supplementary units, the radian and the steradian.

9

(2) Leave 1 blank line above and below an open table (one without horizontal rules) that has neither column heads nor a table title.

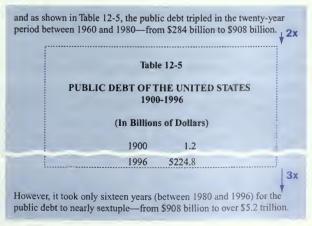


(3) Leave 2 blank lines above and below an open table that uses column heads as its first element.



**NOTE:** If you have inserted a blank line above a column head or a title within the grid, you will automatically achieve the appearance of 2 blank lines above the table when you remove the grid.

(4) Leave 2 blank lines above and below an open table that begins with a table title. (See the note directly above.)



- **d.** If space is tight, place the table at the top or bottom of the page. In that way you can eliminate one set of blank lines and improve your chances of fitting the table on the desired page.
- e. When using the table feature of a word processing program, simply insert the table copy at the desired location in the regular text. If you discover that the table will not all fit on the same page, you can move the table as a whole to the top or bottom of the page (as noted in d above), make other adjustments (as noted in ¶¶1637–1639), or place the table on a page by itself (see ¶¶1612–1615). If you use the keep lines together feature (see ¶1610a, note), the table will not be divided at the bottom of a page; instead the table as a whole will be moved to the top of the next page. (See ¶1639b.)
- **f.** Be sure you can fit at least two full lines of regular text above or below the table. If the results look unattractive, devote the full page to the table and resume the text on the following page. (See ¶1612-1615.)

# **Locating Tables on Separate Pages**

- 1612 When a table occupies more than two-thirds of a page, it can often be difficult to fit on the same page with regular text. In such cases type the table on a separate page and place it immediately after the text page on which the table is first referred to.
  - **NOTE:** Insert a hard page break before and after the table to ensure that the table will appear on a page by itself. (See ¶1639b.)
- 1613 If a given document contains a number of tables, most of which will each require a separate page, then all the tables (short as well as long) may be executed as an appendix or as an attachment. This arrangement—which permits the reader to keep the full set of tables alongside the regular text (except in the case of bound reports)—can be very convenient, especially if some tables are repeatedly cited throughout the regular text. (This arrangement also eliminates the problem of trying to fit tables within the text.)
- **1614** When a table is to appear on a page by itself, center the table horizontally and vertically within the established margins of the page.
  - NOTE: If no margins have been established, leave a minimum margin of 1 inch on all four sides of the table.
- 1615 When a table is not located on the same page on which it is referred to, provide a cross-reference in parentheses to the appropriate page.

(See Table 4 on page 18.) OR (See Table 2-2 on page 31.)

NOTE: These parenthetical cross-references may be treated as a separate sentence (as shown above) or as part of another sentence (see ¶220).

> For the advisability of numbering tables to simplify cross-references, see ¶1618.

# **Centering Tables**

**1616 a.** The table feature of a word processing program extends the table to the full width of the regular text. If you decide to reduce the overall width of the table, first type

the table. Then use autofit to adjust the width of the columns (see ¶1603), and choose *center alignment* to position the table horizontally.

**b.** If a table appears on a page by itself, center the table vertically as well. (Use the *center page* feature of your word processing software.)

#### **Table Identification**

- **1617** Identify tables by *title* unless they are not very numerous and the significance of the material in the table is clear without some descriptive label. (See ¶1620a.)
- **1618** Also identify tables by *number* unless they are quite short, not very numerous, and typically referred to only on the page on which they fall. The use of table numbers simplifies cross-references, an important consideration if you expect that a number of tables will not fit on the page where they are first mentioned or if you know that certain tables will be referred to repeatedly throughout the regular text.

**NOTE:** Tables may be numbered consecutively throughout a given document or consecutively within each chapter and each appendix. With the latter technique, the chapter number (or the appendix number or letter) is used as a prefix in the numbering scheme. For example, Table 3-2 would be the second table in Chapter 3, and Table A-5 would be the fifth table in Appendix A.

- 1619 The table title may be followed by a *subtitle*, which provides additional information about the significance of the table, the period of time it covers, or the manner in which the information is organized or presented. Since a subtitle should be held to one line if possible (two at the most), treat a lengthy comment on any of these points as a note to the table rather than as a subtitle. (See ¶¶1634–1636.)
- **1620** Type the elements of table identification as follows:
  - a. Table Title. Center the table title, using boldface all-capital letters.
  - > For guidelines on spacing above the table title, see ¶¶1611c and 1614.
  - **b.** Table Number. Type the word *Table* in capital and small letters, followed by the appropriate number. To give the table number special emphasis, center it on the second line above the table title and use boldface. To hold down the length of the table, type the table number on the same line with the table title; in this case insert a period after the table number and leave 1 or 2 spaces before typing the table title. (See the illustrations below.)

NOTE: Within a given document treat all table numbers the same way.

Table 2

TITLE OF THE TABLE

OR

Table 2. TITLE OF THE TABLE

Table 1-5

TITLE OF THE TABLE

OR

Table 1-5. TITLE OF THE TABLE

- **c.** Table Subtitle. Center the subtitle on the second line below the title, using bold-face capital and small letters. The subtitle is usually enclosed in parentheses when it simply comments on the listing of data in some special order (for example, *In Descending Order by Sales Revenue*) or on the omission of zeros from figures given in the table (for example, *In Millions* or *000 Omitted*).
- > For examples of subtitles enclosed in parentheses, see the tables illustrated on these pages: 468, 477, 481, 484, and 491.

NOTE: If either the title or the subtitle requires more than one line, break it into sensible phrases; then single-space and center any turnover lines. If possible, try to hold the title and the subtitle to two lines each.

#### Table 5

# TITLE OF THE TABLE WITH ONE TURNOVER LINE

**Table Subtitle** 

# Table 3-4. TITLE OF THE TABLE WITH ONE TURNOVER LINE

Table Subtitle
With One Turnover Line

> For guidelines on how to enter the elements of the table heading in the grid provided by the table feature, see ¶¶1604–1605 and ¶1606a–d.

#### Column Heads

2003F

- **1621 a.** Unless a table is very simple and the significance of the material is clear without heads, provide a heading for each column. (A heading may be omitted over the first column, also known as the *stub*. See, for example, the table on page 491.)
  - **b.** Whenever possible, use singular forms in the column heads. Thus, for example, over a column listing a number of cities, use the heading *City* rather than *Cities*. (See the illustration in the middle of page 477.)
  - **c.** In order to hold down the length of column heads, use abbreviations and symbols as necessary. For example:

Acct. No.	Account number
% of Total	Percent of total
FY2002 <b>or</b> FY02	<u>Fiscal Year 2002</u> (also used to indicate that a company's <i>fiscal</i> year does not coincide with the <i>calendar</i> year)
1Q/2003 <b>or</b> 1Q/03	$\underline{F}irst\ \underline{Q}uarter$ of 2003 (also used with 2Q, 3Q, and 4Q to signify the other three quarters of the year)
Sales (\$)	Sales results expressed as a dollar amount (in other words, sales revenues)
Sales (U)	Sales results expressed in terms of the number of units sold
Sales YTD (\$)	Cumulative sales revenues so far this year (that is, year to date)
% O/(U) Last Year	Percentage by which this year's results are over (or under) last year's results
2001A	Actual results in 2001
2002B	Budgeted results in 2002
2002E	Estimated results in 2002

Forecast results in 2003

If your reader may not understand some of the abbreviations and symbols you use, explain the unfamiliar ones in a footnote to the table. For example:

Note: A = actual: E = estimated: F = forecast.

NOTE: As an alternative to the use of abbreviations, select a smaller font size for the column heads.

- d. Column heads should be single-spaced and may be broken into as many as five lines.
- e. Capitalize the first letter of each word in a column head except articles (a, an, the), conjunctions under four letters (such as and and or), and prepositions under four letters (such as of and in). See ¶¶360-361, 363 for detailed guidance on capitalizing words in column headings.
- **f.** Type all column heads in boldface.
- g. If the column heads in a table do not all take the same number of lines, align the column heads at the bottom.

**NOTE:** When you use the table feature of a word processing program, choose the bottom alignment option to automatically align column heads that do not take the same number of lines.

**h.** Leave 1 blank line above and below the tallest column head.

Table 14-4					
DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONAL INCOME: 1960 TO 1996					
(In Billions of Dollars)					
D. II					
	Personal	Personal	Disposable Personal	Personal	

Year	Personal Income	Personal Taxes	Disposable Personal Income	Personal Savings
1960	411.7	48.7	362.9	23.3
1970	836.1	109.0	727.1	61.0
1980	2285.7	312.4	1973.3	161.8
1990	4791.6	624.8	4166.8	208.7
1996	6495.2	886.9	5608.3	239.6

- **1622** a. When you use the table feature of a word processing program, the default alignment for all column heads is at the left. (See the illustration in ¶1602a.)
  - b. If you change the alignment of the column text from left to right (for example, with a column of figures), align the column head at the right as well. (See the illustration in ¶1602c.)

c. When a very narrow column head falls above a very wide column of text, the table will look more attractive if the column head is centered over the column text. It is easy to use center alignment in the table feature of word processing programs; therefore, as a general rule, plan to center all column heads.

Name	Name
A. Michael Ashworth	A. Michael Ashworth
Dwayne Gilpatrick Jr.	Dwayne Gilpatrick Jr.
Bradley M. Harrington	Bradley M. Harrington

Sales	Sales
95,517,833	95,517,833
1,039,875,742	1,039,875,742
874,320,199	874,320,199

**d.** When a very wide column head falls above a very narrow column of text, you may produce some very odd-looking tables. To avoid this problem, move the indent markers to visually center the column text as a block.

Applications Received	Applications Received
98	98
182	182
243	243
139	139
87	87
202	202

**e.** All column heads should be either blocked or centered. Do not mix styles within a table.

#### **1623** Braced Column Heads

- a. Some complex tables contain braced column heads (heads that "embrace" two or more columns). They are also called straddle heads because they straddle two or more columns. (See the illustration on page 483.)
- **b.** There are two ways to create a table with braced headings. You can create the table body—5 columns in the illustration on page 483—and merge the cells that will be used for the braced headings. Or you can create a 3-column table, type the braced headings in the appropriate cells, and then split the cells below the braced headings to complete the table.
- **c.** To achieve the best appearance, center each braced column head over the appropriate columns; center the other column heads and the related column text between the vertical rules in each case.

CABLE	DIVISION SAL	Table 12 LES AND NET	OPERATING	INCOME
	1	rom 1995 to 20	02 Net Operat	ing Income
Year	Thousands of Dollars	Percent of Increase	Thousands of Dollars	Percent of Increase
1995A	1429		252	

#### 1624 Crossheads

- **a.** Crossheads are used to separate the data in the body of a table into different categories. (See the illustration on page 484.)
- **b.** The first crosshead falls immediately below the column heads across the top of the table; the other crossheads occur within the body of the table at appropriate intervals.
- c. Type each crosshead in capital and small letters, centered on the full width of the table. Using the table feature of a word processing program, you can automatically center each crosshead after you join the cells in that row.
- **d.** Each crosshead should be preceded and followed by a horizontal rule running the full width of the table. Leave 1 blank line between the rule and the crosshead.

#### **Table Text**

#### 1625 Spacing

- a. The table text may be typed with single or double spacing. However, you may find it simplest to accept the default spacing provided by your word processing program. (Microsoft Word uses single spacing.)
  - NOTE: Within the same document try to treat all tables alike.
- **b.** Double-spaced tables are more readable. However, choose single spacing if the overall length of a document is a concern or you want to maximize your chances of locating each table on the page where it is first mentioned.

NOTE: You can make single-spaced tables more readable by retaining the horizontal rules between rows and by the use of shading. (See ¶1608 for illustrations of single-spaced tables that have been enhanced for better readability.) And even a slight increase in space between rows can make single-spaced tables more readable. (See the illustration in ¶1607a.)

¶1626

Table 8-4					
SOCIAL SEC	SOCIAL SECURITY TAX RATE SCHEDULE				
(Perce	ent of Cover	ed Earnings)			
Year	Total	OASDI*	HI**		
Emplo	yees and Er	nployers Each			
1985	7.05	5.70	1.35		
1986–1987	7.15	5.70	1.45		
1988–1989	7.51	6.06	1.45		
1990 and after	7.65	6.20	1.45		
	Self-Emp	loyed			
1985	14.10	11.40	2.70		
1986-1987	14.30	11.40	2.90		
1988–1989	15.02	12.12	2.90		
1990 and after	15.30	12.40	2.90		
1998, p. 715.		nac and Book o			
**Hospital in					

c. As a rule, type the table with the same spacing (or less) used for the regular text. Thus when the regular text is *single-spaced*, all the tables should also be single-spaced. When the regular text is *double-spaced*, then all the tables may be typed with double or single spacing.

### **1626** Items Consisting of Words

If the table text consists of items expressed entirely in words:

**a.** Capitalize only the first word of each item in the table text plus any proper nouns and proper adjectives.

NOTE: In special cases, where it may be important to show whether terms are capitalized or written with small letters, the first word in each item need not be consistently capitalized. (See, for example, the second and third columns of the table on page 476.)

- **b.** Use abbreviations and symbols as necessary to hold down the length of individual items. (See ¶1621c for examples.)
- c. Align each item at the left margin of the column. If any item requires more than one line, set a tab to indent the turnover line 0.25 inch. However, if a column contains both main entries and subentries, begin the main entry at the left margin of the column text, set tabs to indent the first line of subentries 0.25 inch, and indent all turnover lines 0.5 inch.

Photographs, prints, and illustrations Scientific or technical drawings Commercial prints Reproductions of works of art Total weekly
broadcast
hours
General
programs
Instructional
programs

NOTE: You can avoid the need to indent turnovers (but not subentries) if you use horizontal rules or extra space to separate the entries. The table feature will automatically align turnovers at the left, and the horizontal rules or extra space will help to make each entry visually distinct.

Photographs, prints, and illustrations	
Scientific or tech- nical drawings	
Commercial prints	
Reproductions of works of art	

Total weekly broadcast hours
General programs
Instructional programs

**d.** If an item in the first column requires more than one line and all the other items in the same row require only one line, align all the items in that row at the bottom.

Chemical and allied products	151	201
Petroleum refining and related products	69	73 — Aligned at the bottom
Paper and allied products	391	364

# ¶1627

**e.** If two or more items in a row each require more than one line, align all entries in that row at the top.

Employee Benefit Report Prepared Quarterly Data based on administrative records

**f.** Do not use a period as terminal punctuation at the end of any item except in a column where all entries are in sentence form.

#### **1627** Items Consisting of Figures

- a. If a column of table text consists of items expressed entirely in figures:
  - (1) Align columns of whole numbers at the right.
  - (2) Align columns of decimal amounts on the decimal point.
  - (3) In a column that contains both whole numbers and decimals, add a decimal point and zeros to the whole numbers to maintain a consistent appearance.
  - (4) Omit commas in four-digit whole numbers unless they appear in the same column with larger numbers containing commas. (Some writers prefer to retain the comma in four-digit numbers under all circumstances.) In any case, never insert commas in the decimal part of a number. (See also ¶460.)

325 465.2137 1 1250.0004 152,657 1.0000 1,489 37.9898

- (5) Align the figures in a column by using right alignment or a decimal tab.
  - **NOTE:** If you want your software program to perform some calculations in the process of executing a table, you will need to select and follow one of the number formats presented by the software.
- > For the way to handle a total line in a column of figures, see ¶1629d.
- **b.** If a column of table text consists entirely of "clock" times (as in a program or schedule):
  - (1) Align the figures in "on the hour" expressions at the right.

11 a.m.

12 noon

1 p.m.

8 p.m.

12 midnight

(2) Align the figures in "hour and minute" expressions on the colon. (Add two zeros to exact times to maintain a uniform appearance.)

8:15 a.m.

10:30 a.m.

12:00 noon

1:45 p.m.

12:00 midnight

(3) When the items in a column each consist of a starting and an ending time, either align all the items at the left or align them on the en dash within the items. (See the illustration in ¶1627c and on page 505.)

8:30-9:30	OR	8:30-9:30
10:30-11:30		10:30-11:30
12:30-1:30		12:30-1:30
2:30-3:30		2:30-3:30
4:45-6:00		4:45-6:00

NOTE: When you use the table feature and want to align clock times at the right or on the colon or en dash, the hours 1 to 9 must be made equal in width with the hours 10 to 12. Since each figure occupies 2 spaces, simply type 2 spaces before the single-digit hours to make them the same width as the double-digit hours.

c. In the "24-hour" system of expressing clock time (in which midnight is 0000 and 11:59 p.m. is 2359), the alignment of clock times poses no problem since all times are expressed in four digits (with no colons and no need for reference to a.m. or p.m.).

0830-0930 1030-1130 1230-1330 1430-1530 1645-1800

### **1628** Items Consisting of Figures and Words

If a column consists of both figures and words (as in the second column below), align the items at the left. Note, however, that a column consisting only of words aligns at the left (as in the first column below) and a column consisting only of whole numbers aligns at the right (as in the third column below.)

Type of Food	Average Serving	Calorie Count
Bacon	2 strips	97
Beef, roast	4 oz	300
Broccoli	1 cup	44
Tomato, raw	Medium size	30

### **1629** Amounts of Money

a. In a column containing dollar amounts, insert a dollar sign only before the first amount at the head of the column and before the total amount.

\$ 45.50	\$ 165	\$ 423.75
2406.05	3,450	584.45
783.25	98,932	1228.00
\$3234.80	\$102.547	\$2236.20

- b. The dollar signs at the head and foot of the column should align in the first space to the left of the longest amount in the column. If the item at the head of the column is shorter than the one at the foot, aligning the dollar signs can be troublesome. Choose one of the following approaches to deal with the problem:
  - (1) Avoid the problem altogether by incorporating the dollar sign in the column head—for example (\$000,000 Omitted). Then there is no need for dollar signs alongside the figures below.
  - (2) Insert the first dollar sign by hand. (This approach is not acceptable in documents that have to meet professional standards.)
  - (3) Type the dollar sign in the space before the first number. After the column is finished, insert spaces between the first dollar sign and the first digit to align the dollar signs (2 spaces for each digit, 1 space for each comma).
- c. Do not insert commas to set off thousands in four-digit numbers unless they appear in the same column with larger numbers. (See the examples in ¶1627a and ¶1629a.) Moreover, if all the amounts in a column are whole dollar amounts, omit the decimal point and zeros (as in the second example in ¶1629a). However, if any amount in a column includes cents, use a decimal point with zeros with any whole dollar amount in the same column (as in the third example in ¶1629a).

NOTE: If you want your software program to perform some calculations in the process of executing a table, you will need to select and follow one of the number formats presented by the software.

- **d.** If the table text ends with a *total* line, a horizontal rule should separate the body of the table from the total line.
  - (1) If the table displays the full default grid or only horizontal rules that set off key sections of the table, the necessary separation will be automatically provided. To give the total amount greater emphasis in a single-spaced table (as in the illustration below), adjust the spacing so that there is 1 blank line above and below the total line.

1998 SALES REVENUES					
Region	1998B	1998A	Percent of Difference		
Eastern	\$ 300,000	\$ 345,108	15.0		
Midwestern	450,000	467,380	3.9		
Southern	260,000	291,849	12.2		
Western	240,000	241,005	0.4		
Totals	\$1,250,000	\$1,345,342	7.6		

(2) If the table has been executed in an *open* style (without horizontal and vertical rules), you must insert a horizontal rule that is as wide as the longest entry in the column (including the dollar sign at the left). Before typing the last amount before the total, choose the *underline appearance* option. You may have to insert spaces before the last amount above the total so that the horizontal line will be as wide as the longest entry (2 spaces for the dollar sign and each digit, 1 space for each comma).

NOTE: In a single-spaced table, type the total amount on the line directly below the underline (as in the first example above). To give the total amount greater emphasis, type it on the second line below the underline (as in the second example above). In a double-spaced table, type the amount on the second line below the underline (as in the third example above).

e. If a total line is needed, type the word Total or Totals in the first column, depending on the number of totals to be shown in this row. Use an initial cap only or (for emphasis) all-capital letters. Start the word at the left margin of the column or indent it 0.5 inch.

# **1630** Percentages

- a. If all the figures in a column represent percentages, type a percent sign (%) directly after each figure unless the column heading clearly indicates that these are percentages.
- **b.** Percentages involving decimals should align on the decimal point. If necessary, add zeros after the decimal part of the number so that each figure will align at the right. If any percentage is less than 1 percent, add one zero to the left of the decimal point.

Increase	Percent of Increase	Increase (%)	
55.48%	11.63	24	
0.80%	4.00	37	
2.09%	24.60	120	
13.00%	0.40	8	
24.35%	71.08	55	
66.67%	9.25	69	
81.90%	0.08	103	
0.25%	12.50	41	

#### **1631** Special Treatment of Figures in Tables

a. Columns of long figures can be reduced in width by omitting the digits representing thousands, millions, or billions and indicating this omission in parentheses. For example:

 (In Thousands)
 OR
 (000 Omitted)

 (In Millions)
 (000,000 Omitted)

 (In Billions)
 (000,000,000 Omitted)

NOTE: The word forms on the left are easier to grasp.

**b.** If the parenthetical comment applies to all columns of figures in the table, insert it as a subtitle to the table. However, if the comment applies only to one column of figures, insert the parenthetical comment in the column head.

**NOTE:** Sometimes because of space limitations a comment such as (000 Omitted) is reduced to (000). The latter form is permissible if you are sure your reader will understand it.

c. If the parenthetical comment applies to columns of dollar amounts, this fact can also be noted within parentheses, and the dollar sign can then be omitted from the columns of figures.

(\$000 Omitted) OR (In Thousands of Dollars) OR (\$000)

d. When omitting thousands, millions, or billions from a wide column of figures, you may use rounding or a shortened decimal (or both) to reflect the portion of the number that is being omitted.

<b>Complete Version</b>	Shortened Versions			
Sales Revenues	Sales Revenues (\$000 Omitted)	Sales Revenues (In Millions)	Revenues (\$000,000)	
\$ 5,878,044	5,878	\$ 5.9	6	
29,023,994	29,024	29.0	29	
14,229,683	14,230	14.2	14	
\$49,131,721	49,132	\$49.1	49	

e. A negative figure in a column may be designated by enclosing the figure in parentheses or by inserting a minus sign (represented by a hyphen or an en dash) directly to the left of the negative figure.

\$1642.38	28.2%	Sales in 2000	\$264,238
<u>-82.41</u>	-14.5%	Sales in 2001	262,305
\$1559.97	6.1%	Gain/(loss)	\$ (1,933)

NOTE: When you use the table feature, you may not be able to easily achieve the alignment shown above for a negative figure in parentheses.

#### 1632 Leaders

a. If the items in the first column vary greatly in length, you can use leaders (rows of periods) to lead the eye across to the adjacent item in the next column. Every line of leaders should have at least three periods.

(In Billions of Dollars)			
	1980	1990	1996
Agriculture, forestry, and			
fisheries	61.4	98.0	105.6
Construction	126.6	222.0	285.2
Finance, insurance, and real			
estate	279.5	684.2	1095.3
Government enterprises	321.8	661.1	855.3
Manufacturing	532.1	859.5	1110.1
Services	341.0	949.4	1410.

**b.** To insert a row of leaders within a column, set a right leader tab as close to the right edge of the column as possible. After typing the text, use a hard tab to insert the leaders; then tab to the next column.

**NOTE:** In view of the extra steps involved in inserting leaders, you may find it more practical to retain the grid provided by the table feature. The horizontal rules that separate rows in the body of the table are sufficient to lead the eye across each row from one column to the next.

c. The *leader* feature in Microsoft Word offers the choice of solid periods, solid hyphens, or solid underscores. Other programs may allow you to specify the character to be used and the space to be left between characters.

# **1633** Accounting for Omitted Items

When there is no entry to be typed in a given row, you can simply leave a blank at that point. However, if doing so may raise a question in the mind of your reader, consider these alternatives:

- **a.** Type the abbreviation *NA* (meaning "not available" or "not applicable") centered on the column width. (See the examples at the top of page 492.)
- **b.** Type a row of periods or hyphens. Use as few as three (centered on the column width), or type the row to the full width of the column. (See the examples at the top of page 492.)

23,804	23,804	23,804
16,345	16,345	16,345
		NA
38,442	38,442	38,442

> See page 483 for another illustration.

**NOTE:** If any one of the columns in a table contains omitted items, you will not be able to use a formula to perform calculations.

#### **Table Notes**

- **1634** a. If a table requires any explanatory notes or an identification of the source from which the table text was derived, place such material at the foot of the table. (Do not treat it as part of a sequence of notes related to the main text.)
  - b. A horizontal rule should separate the body of the table from the table notes.
    - (1) If the table displays the full default grid or only the horizontal rules that set off key sections of the table, the separation will be automatically provided.

1999	60,410,000,000	65%
2000	64,130,000,000*	68%
Sou 2000, p.	rce: Business Week, November 167.	ber 27,
*Es	timated for the full year.	

(2) If the table has been executed in an *open* style (without horizontal and vertical rules), leave 1 blank line below the last line of the table text and type a 1-inch line of underscores.

1999	60,410,000,000	65%
2000	64,130,000,000*	68%
So	urce: Business Week, Nover	nber 27.
2000, p. 16		,
	(	
	stimated for the full year.	

- **c.** To give the table notes greater emphasis in a single-spaced table, insert 1 blank line above and below each note (as in the illustrations above).
- **d.** If all the notes occupy no more than one full line each, begin each note at the left margin of the table text (for the sake of appearance). However, if any of the notes turn over onto a second line, indent the first line of each note. Ordinarily, use the standard indention of 0.5 inch (as in the open-style table above). If a relatively narrow table appears within a grid, reduce the indention to 0.25 inch for a more attractive look (as in the first illustration in b above). Also adjust the length of

the notes so that the turnovers align with the left edge of the first column and do not extend beyond the right edge of the last column.

- **1635** If the material in the table has been derived from another source, indicate this fact as follows:
  - a. Type the word *Source* with an initial cap or in all-capital letters, followed by a colon, 1 or 2 spaces, and the identifying data. (See ¶¶1508–1522 for models to follow in presenting the bibliographic data.)
  - **b.** A source note should precede any other table note. (See the illustrations in ¶1634b.)
- 1636 a. If you use abbreviations or symbols that the reader may not understand, explain them in a note at the bottom of the table. This explanation should follow the source note (if any) and precede any other table note. If more than one abbreviation or symbol needs decoding, the explanation can be handled as a series of separate notes (each preceded by a superscript symbol or letter), or it may be done all in one note. (For an illustration, see page 484.)
  - b. Except for source notes (like the one illustrated in ¶1634) and a single note explaining symbols and abbreviations, every table note should begin with a superscript symbol or letter that keys the note to the appropriate word or figure in the table text (or title or subtitle) above. Type the corresponding symbol or letter immediately after the appropriate word or figure above, without any intervening space. (See ¶1636d, note.)
  - c. Use one of the following programmed sequences of symbols. (See also ¶1502f.)

    * † ‡ § ¶ or a b c d e
  - * † ‡ § ¶ or a b c d e

    d. Use superscript lowercase letters (a, b, c, etc.) in place of symbols when there are more than five footnotes for a given table.
    - NOTE: Avoid the use of superscript *figures* to identify table notes. They could be confusing if used in conjunction with figures in the table text. Moreover, if superscript figures are already used for notes pertaining to the main text, it is wise to use letters or symbols so as to distinguish notes that pertain to a specific table.
  - **e.** In assigning symbols or letters in sequence, go in order by row (horizontally), not by column (vertically).

# **Dealing With Long Tables**

- **1637** To keep a table from extending beyond the page on which it starts, consider these techniques:
  - **a.** Put the table number (if any) on the same line as the table title rather than on the second line above. (See also ¶1620b.)
  - **b.** Use single spacing for the table text. (See also ¶1625.)
  - c. Shorten the wording of the table title, subtitle, column heads, and items in the table text to reduce turnover lines. Use abbreviations and symbols toward this end. (See also ¶1621c.) If necessary, provide a brief explanation in the table notes of any abbreviations and symbols that your reader may not immediately understand. (See also ¶1636.)

- **d.** When the table text entails a long item that is out of proportion to all other items (or is to be entered in several places in the table text), try to convert the item into a table note, keyed by a symbol or letter appropriately placed in the table above.
- e. If a table is narrow and long, you can save space by reformatting the table as shown below. Note that the table text is divided into two parts placed side by side and divided by a double vertical rule. The column heads are repeated over each part.

D	Table A-20 DOW JONES INDUSTRIAL AVERAGE: 1989 –1998				
Year	High	Low	Year	High	Low
1989	2791.41	2144.64	1994	3978.36	3593.35
1990	2999.75	2365.10	1995	5216.47	3832.08
1991	3168.83	2470.30	1996	6560.91	5032.94
1992	3413.21	3136.58	1997	8340.14	6315.84
1993	3794.33	3241.95	1998	9380.20	7400.30

f. Select a smaller size of the font you are using for the other tables.

#### **1638** If a table requires more than one page, follow this procedure:

**a.** At the bottom of the page where the table breaks, type a continuation line in parentheses—for example, (Continued on page 14)—unless it is quite obvious that the table continues on the next page. Merge the cells in the last row at the bottom of the page; then, using right alignment, type the continuation line.

Table 14 TWENTIETH-CENTURY INVENTIONS		
Invention	Date	Nation
Airship, rigid dirigible	1900	Germany
Washer, electric	1901	United States
Pen, ballpoint	1 1938	Hungary
Teflon	1938	United States
Airplane jet engine	1939	Germany
		(Continued on page 1

b. At the top of the next page, before continuing with the table text, insert the table number, title, and column heads by marking those rows as header rows. If your software will permit it, insert Continued in parentheses after the table number (if one is provided) or after the table title.

Table 14 (Continued)  TWENTIETH-CENTURY INVENTIONS			
Invention	Date	Nation	
CAT scan	1973	England	
Microcomputer	1973	France	
Disk player, compact	1979	Japan, Netherlands	
Heart, artificial	1982	United States	

If your software will not permit you to make insertions in the header rows, merge the cells in the first row beneath the column heads; then insert a continuation line in parentheses—for example, (Continued from page 14)—and align it at the left margin of the table text.

Table 14 TWENTIETH-CENTURY INVENTIONS			
Invention	Date	Nation	
Continued from page 14)			
CAT scan	1973	England	
Microcomputer	1973	France	
Disk player, compact	1979	Japan, Netherlands	
Heart, artificial	1982	United States	

- **c.** Ordinarily, all table notes should appear only on the page on which the table ends. However, if certain notes will help the reader interpret the data in the table (for example, notes explaining certain abbreviations or symbols), repeat these notes on each page on which the table appears. (A source note would appear only on the page where the table ends.)
- 1639 a. Do not start a table at the bottom of one page and continue it on the top of the next page if the entire table will fit on one page (either by itself or with regular text). In such a case start the table at the top of the next page and insert a crossreference in the text. (See ¶1615.)

- b. Many word processing programs have a feature called keep lines together, which prevents a page break from occurring within a block of text. If you use this feature to keep a table from breaking at the bottom of a page, the table as a whole will appear at the top of the next page. However, the space previously occupied by the first part of the table will remain empty; the text that follows the table will not come forward to fill up this vacant space. If you want to avoid this result, do not use keep lines together. Use the following approach instead:
  - (1) Let the table break naturally and continue typing the rest of the document.
  - (2) When the document is completed in all other respects, select and cut the table; the text following the table will flow forward. Insert a hard page break at the bottom of the page where the table was removed, and paste the whole table at the top of the following page.

#### **Dealing With Wide Tables**

- **1640** To keep a wide table from extending beyond the margins established for the page, consider the following techniques:
  - a. Reduce the width of the columns by using the autofit feature.
  - **b.** Use abbreviations and symbols to hold down the length of lines in the column heads and the column text.
  - c. If only a few entries are disproportionately wide or are repeated in the table and make it difficult to fit the table in the space available, consider converting these items to table footnotes. (See also ¶1637d.)
  - **d.** Select a smaller font size in order to make the table fit within the space available.

#### **1641** Turning the Table Sideways

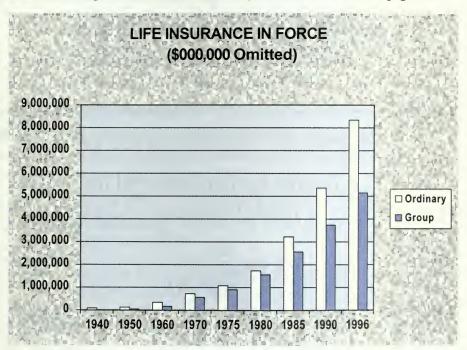
- **a.** Whenever possible, the page orientation of a table should be the same as that of the regular text. However, when other alternatives do not work or cannot be used, turn the table so that it prints in *landscape* (across the 11-inch dimension) on a page by itself. In such a case, the left margin of the table will fall toward the bottom of the page and the right margin toward the top.
  - **NOTE:** Landscape printing is the term that describes printing text on the 11-inch dimension of a standard page. Portrait printing is the term that describes the customary printing of text on the 8½-inch dimension of a standard page.
- **b.** In planning the layout of a turned table, be sure that the overall dimensions of the table will fit within the established margins for the regular pages in the given document. If no margins have been established, leave a minimum of 1 inch on all sides of the turned table.
  - **NOTE:** If a turned table is to be part of a *bound* report, leave a minimum top margin of 1.5 inches. This top margin will represent the left margin when the turned table is bound into the report. (See also ¶1404b.)

# **Converting Tables Into Charts and Graphs**

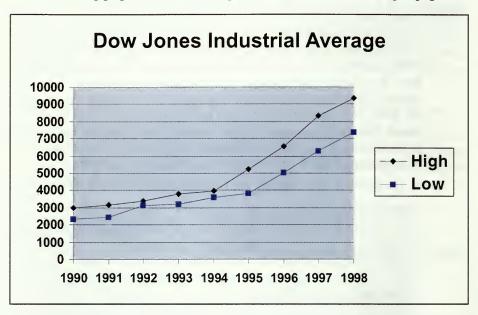
1642 Data presented in a table is easier to grasp and work with than when it is presented in running text. By the same token, a chart or a graph can often present data more effectively than a table, especially when you are trying to emphasize patterns of growth or want to contrast different levels of performance or achievement.

Most word processing programs provide a *chart* or *graph* feature that offers you a variety of formats to choose from. To create a chart or graph, first select the format you want; then insert the appropriate data in a *datasheet* (which looks like a spreadsheet). With some programs you can simply import the data from an existing table or some other source without having to reenter it in the datasheet. The following illustrations will show you some of the results you can achieve.

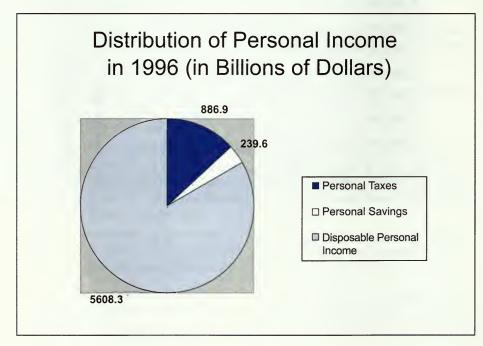
a. The following bar chart reflects the data presented in the table on page 468.



b. The following graph reflects the data presented in the table at the top of page 494.



c. The following pie chart reflects the data presented in the table on page 481.



# SECTION 17

# **Other Business Documents**

# **General Format Considerations (¶¶1701–1702)**

Margins (¶1701) Headings (¶1702)

# **Executive Documents (¶¶1703-1707)**

Agendas (¶1703) Minutes (¶1704) Itineraries (¶1705) Fax Cover Sheets (¶1706) News Releases (¶1707)

#### E-Mail (¶¶1708-1711)

#### Résumés (¶¶1712-1717)

Preparing a Résumé (¶1712) Choosing a Standard Format (¶1713) Formatting a Scannable Résumé (¶¶1714–1717)

# Other Employment Documents (¶¶1718-1721)

General Guidelines (¶1718) Application Letters (¶1719) Follow-Up Letters (¶1720) Acceptance Letters (¶1721)

# Outlines (¶¶1722-1727)

**Guidelines for Designing Forms (¶¶1728–1729)** 

Section 17 provides models for a number of common business documents. The models reflect formats widely used, but they are not to be regarded as rigid patterns that must be followed without deviation. Feel free to modify these formats to fit the needs of the situation at hand. As always, good sense and good taste (rather than an artificial notion of "absolute correctness") should prevail.

**IMPORTANT NOTE:** Your word processing software may provide templates for many of the documents discussed in Section 17. If you decide to use a template provided by your software, you may find it helpful to examine the corresponding model in this section to see whether there are certain features or details that are worth adding to the basic template.

# **General Format Considerations**

Paragraphs 1701–1702 deal with the issues of establishing margins and the treatment of headings. These format considerations apply to all the specific types of documents discussed later in Section 17.

# **Margins**

- **1701 a.** Top Margin. If you are using plain  $8\frac{1}{2}$ " x 11" stationery for the first page of a business document, use a top margin of about 2 inches. However, accept the default top margin of 1 inch in order to fit more copy on the page and avoid the need for a second page. If you are using letterhead stationery for the first page, leave at least 0.5 inch between the letterhead and the first element to be typed. If the document requires more than one page, use plain paper for the continuation pages and leave a top margin of 1 inch.
  - **b. Side Margins.** If you are using  $8\frac{1}{2}$ " x 11" stationery, the default side margins (1.25 inch for Microsoft Word, 1 inch for WordPerfect) should be adequate in most cases. However, you may increase the side margins if you want to achieve a more open look or a more balanced arrangement of copy on the page. (See, for example, the illustration on page 504.)

NOTE: The table in ¶1305b offers guidelines on adjusting side margins.

c. Bottom Margin. Leave a bottom margin of at least 1 inch.

# **Headings**

- **1702 a.** The main heading typically consists of the title of the document or the name of the organization. It ordinarily appears centered on the first line in all-capital letters. Additional details (such as a date or a location) appear in capital and small letters on separate lines, with 1 blank line between them.
  - NOTE: If any item in the heading requires more than 1 line, type the turnover line single-spaced, centered on the line above.
  - **b.** Use boldface for at least the first item in the heading. The remaining items in the heading may also be done in boldface (see the illustration on page 505) or in regular type (see the illustration on page 504).
  - **c.** Leave 1 blank line—or, for a more open look, 2 blank lines—between the last line of the heading and the body of the document. The illustration on page 503 shows

- the use of 1 blank line; the illustrations on pages 504–506, 508, and 510 show the use of 2 blank lines.)
- **d.** If a document requires more than one page, insert a continuation heading like the one used on the second page of a letter. Use the header feature to create and automatically position the continuation heading. (See ¶1384 for further details.)

**NOTE:** The second page of a résumé typically uses a slightly different continuation heading. (See pages 521, 523, and 525 for examples.)

# **Executive Documents**

The following paragraphs (¶¶1703–1707) present commonly used formats for agendas, minutes, itineraries, fax cover sheets, and news releases.

# **Agendas**

1703 An agenda is a list of items to be considered or acted upon. The format of an agenda varies with the circumstances. The agenda for an informal staff meeting may be done as a simple numbered list of topics in a memo addressed to the attendees. (See the illustration on page 503.) The agenda for a formal meeting (for example, of a corporate board of directors) will typically call for a more structured list of topics. (See the illustration on page 504.) The agenda for a formal program (for example, for a conference or a seminar) will be structured around a timetable, with specific time slots allotted to formal presentations by speakers and topical discussions in small groups. (See the illustration on page 505.)

There is no "correct" way to set up an agenda. The illustrations on pages 503-505 are intended only to suggest various ways in which an agenda can be formatted. The format you decide to use should be tailored to fit the needs of the meeting or program being planned.

#### **Minutes**

1704 Minutes provide a record of what was discussed and decided upon at a meeting. The minutes of small committee meetings within an organization are usually done in an informal style, in much the same way that the agendas for such meetings are also prepared. (Compare the informal agenda on page 503 with the informal minutes on page 506.) When the participants at a meeting come from a number of different organizations (as they would, for example, at meetings of professional associations and societies), the minutes tend to be somewhat more formal. And when the minutes may have to serve some legal use, they are typically done in a highly formal style. According to the American Society of Corporate Secretaries, increasing government regulation and stockholder lawsuits make it critically important that the minutes of a meeting of a corporation's board of directors be complete and accurate, since they may have to serve as legal evidence of what the corporation's directors did or intended to do. The short form of corporate minutes (illustrated on page 508) simply describes the decisions that were made, along with some brief indication of the key facts on which those decisions were made. By contrast, the long form describes in some detail the arguments for and against the decisions finally arrived at.

#### **Itineraries**

An itinerary should clearly set forth the travel arrangements and the appointment schedule of the person making the trip. If the itinerary is intended only for the use of the person traveling, it should be possible to eliminate certain items and abbreviate details that the person is quite familiar with. However, if the itinerary will be distributed to others (who may need to contact the person who is traveling), present the information as fully and as clearly as possible. (For example, see the illustration on page 510.)

#### **Fax Cover Sheets**

1706 Most messages sent by fax (facsimile) equipment are accompanied by a fax cover sheet that indicates (1) the name and the fax number of the person receiving the fax, (2) the name and fax number of the person sending the fax, (3) the number of pages being sent, and (4) the name and the telephone number of the person to be called in case the transmission is not satisfactorily completed. There are different ways to prepare a fax cover sheet. Your word processing software may provide a fax template that you can use as is or modify to suit your preferences. If you are designing a fax cover sheet as a form to be filled in by hand, you will need to add fill-in lines. (See the illustration on page 511.)

**NOTE:** The ready availability of small stick-on labels that accommodate all the essential information in a compact form is appealing to many people, who are pleased to save time and money as a result of not having to create or transmit a separate fax cover sheet. Therefore, do not feel compelled to use a fax cover sheet if a commercially prepared stick-on label will serve your purpose.

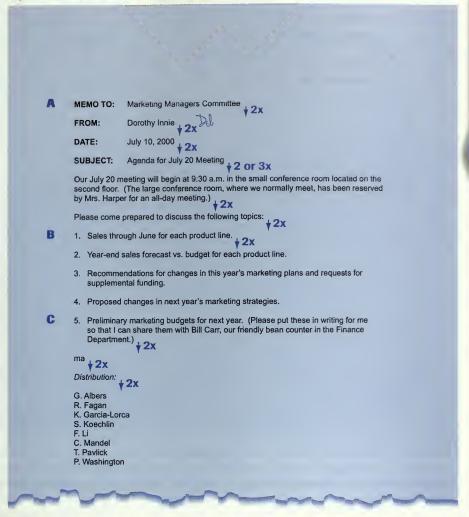
#### **News Releases**

1707 A news release (also referred to as a press release) is an announcement made by an organization about news that it considers important—for example, the acquisition of (or the merger with) another organization, the hiring or the promotion of key executives, the physical expansion or relocation of the organization, the achievement of better than expected financial goals, and the celebration of organizational anniversaries and other key events.

A news release is distributed to members of the media (representing newspapers, magazines, TV and radio stations, and Web sites) and to others who help shape public opinion (such as financial analysts and advertising agencies). This distribution is undertaken with the hope that these various people will bring this news to the attention of the audiences they serve. Because the recipients of news releases are typically inundated with these documents on a daily basis, it is important that your news release try to present its message in a manner that will make it seem truly newsworthy.

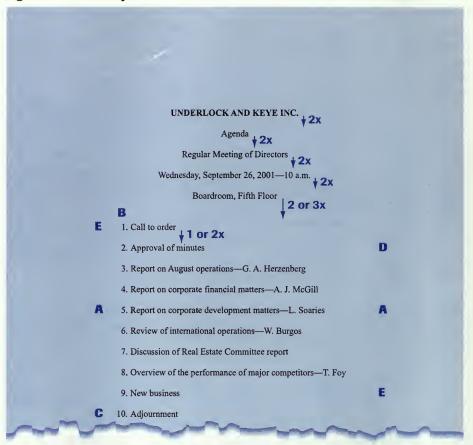
Your word processing software may provide one or more templates that you can use as is, or you may prefer to create your own template along the lines of the model illustrated on page 512.

#### Agenda-Informal (Memo) Style



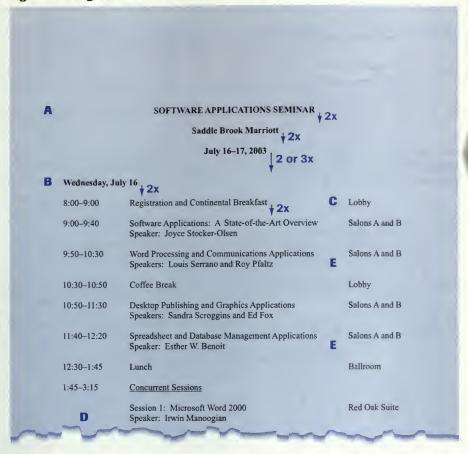
- A Memo Format. For the format of a memo done on plain paper (as shown here) or on letter-head stationery, see ¶1393.
- **B** Numbered List. If you use the numbered list feature of your word processing program, each item will begin at the left margin, turnovers will be indented to align with the first word in the line above, and no space will be left between items. (See ¶1357d for an illustration of a single-spaced list created by the numbered list feature.) To make the list easier to read, leave 1 blank line after each item in the list, as in the illustration above. (For further details, see ¶1357d.)
- **C** End Punctuation. The items in an agenda typically require no end punctuation. However, if any item involves the use of a complete sentence (as in item 5 in this illustration), place a period at the end of every item. For details on the use or omission of periods with items in a list, see ¶107.

#### Agenda—Formal Style



- A Margins. This agenda has a number of very short items. If it were done using default side margins, it would have an unbalanced look, with a relatively small left margin and a very large right margin. Therefore, this agenda has been centered horizontally to achieve a balanced appearance.
- **B** Numbered List. If you use the numbered list feature of your word processing program, each item will begin at the left margin and no space will be left between items. Ordinarily, when the items in a list contain no turnovers, single spacing is quite acceptable. However, in a document like an agenda, where each item will be the subject of discussion, the use of 1 blank line between items makes the list easier to read and work with. (For an illustration of a single-spaced list created by the numbered list feature, see ¶1357d.)
- **c** When a numbered list contains 10 or more items, the numbered list feature of your word processing program will align the numbers at the left. (See the illustration in ¶1357d, note.) However, you can choose to align the numbers at the right (as in the illustration above).
- **D** End Punctuation. Note that no periods are needed at the end of the items in this illustration. (See also ¶107.)
- **E** Formal Items. In a formal agenda it is customary to include such items as *Call to order, Approval of minutes, New business,* and *Adjournment* (or similar types of expressions).

#### Agenda-Program for a Conference or Seminar



- A Headings. Include the location and date(s) of the conference or seminar in the main heading unless the program is part of a larger document that features this information prominently in some other way.
- **B** If the program is scheduled to last more than one day, insert an appropriate side heading above each day's listing of events.
- C Columnar Format. To create this three-column format, use the table feature.
- D For the alignment of "clock" times in a column, see ¶1627d.
- E Speaker Identification. The speakers listed on the program may be further identified by title, organization, and place of residence. Use commas to separate these elements of identification and, if you wish, use parentheses to enclose these elements as a whole. For example:

Roy Pfalz, software consultant, Newton, Massachusetts Esther W. Benoit (vice president, Programmatic Associates, Los Altos, California)

#### Minutes-Informal (Memo) Style

Marketing Managers Committee MEMO TO:

FROM:

July 21, 2000 **★ 2**x DATE:

SUBJECT: Minutes of the Marketing Managers

Committee Meeting of July 20, 2000 2 or 3x

Present: Dorothy Innie (presiding), Georgia Albers, Ruth Fagan, Katherine Dorothy Innie (presiding), Georgia Rubers, 1941. Garcia-Lorca, Sid Koechlin, Charles Mandel, Tim Pavlick

Absent:

Fay Li **† 2**x Guest: Bill Carr 2 or 3x

1. Sales through June for each product line. Each product line is behind budget for the first six months of the year. Bill Carr of the Finance Department reported that the company as a whole is running 11.2 percent behind budget and 6.3 percent behind last year's sales for the first six months.

Year-end sales forecast vs. budget for each product line. Ruth Fagan and Sid Kooob ear corted that on the asir of recent reports from the field, sales will

The next meeting of the Marketing Managers Committee will be held on August 24 in the large conference room (as usual).

**2** x 

D. Innie

G. Albers

R. Fagan

K. Garcia-Lorca

S. Koechlin

F. Li

C. Mandel

T. Pavlick

- A Memo Format. For the format of a memo on plain paper (as shown on page 506) or on letterhead stationery, see ¶1393.
- **B** Subject Line. For better appearance, the entry following Subject has been broken into two lines of roughly equal length. (See ¶1353d, note.)
- C Attendance Data. This block of copy indicates who was present at the meeting (the person who presided is listed first), who was absent, and who attended as a guest.
- **D** Content Considerations. List each topic in the order in which it was discussed at the meeting. (Compare these minutes with the agenda shown on page 503.)
- E Treat each topic as a boldface run-in head, followed by a period and the comments that relate to that topic (as illustrated here). As an alternative, treat each topic as a boldface side head, with no period following. The related comments will then appear as a separate paragraph starting on the second line below. For example:

#### 1. Sales through June for each product line

Each product line is behind budget for the first six months of the year. Bill Carr of the Finance Department . . .

- F When the items in a numbered list consist of paragraphs with two or more lines, leave a blank line between items for better readability and a more open look. (See ¶1357d.)
- **G** Give the date and location of the next meeting in a concluding paragraph, starting at the left margin.

#### Minutes—Formal Style

Minutes **↓ 2**x

Regular Meeting of Directors \$\daggeq 2x\$

September 26, 2001 2 or 3x

- A regular meeting of the Board of Directors of Underlock and Keye Inc. was called to order at 4 Riverfront Plaza, Louisville, Kentucky, at 10 a.m. pursuant to the notice sent to all directors in accordance with the bylaws.
- The following directors were present, constituting all the directors: Jared G. Allison II, Kenneth L. Calderone, Deborah Dean Daniels, Gary Guyot, Henry Koyama, Anton Mika, Helen Roberts, Walter F. Tarshis, Samuel A. Tuleja, and D. J. Wikowski.
- Also present by invitation were William Burgos, Thomas Foy, Gregory A. Herzenberg, Angela J. McGill, and Lester Soaries.

Jared G. Allison II, Chairman, presided and David K. Rust, Assistant Secretary, recorded the proceedings of the meeting.

The minutes of the last meeting were approved.

Mr. Allison introduced Gregory A. Herzenberg, Executive Vice President of Operations, who reported on August operations.

Henry Koyama reviewed the recommendations of the Real Estate Committee on the matter of building a new facility or renovating the existing facility to accommodate the Corporation's information processing needs over the next ten years.

Minutes

2

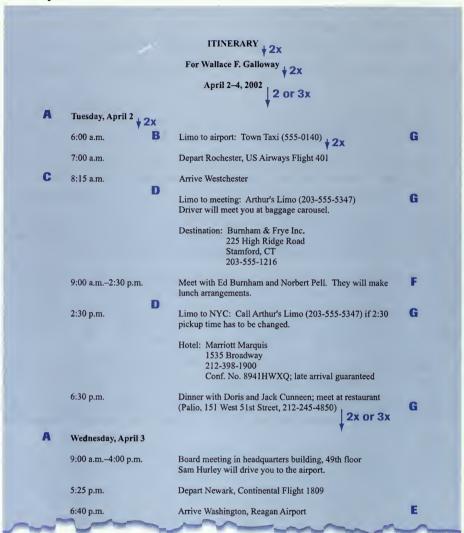
September 26, 2001

- After further discussion, upon motion duly made and seconded, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:
- RESOLVED, that the Corporation is hereby authorized to undertake construction and rehabilitation activities with respect to renovating the
- G The next meeting of the Board will be held on November 28 at 10 a.m.
- There being no further business before the meeting, it was, on motion duly made and seconded, adjourned at 1:05 p.m.

Assistant Secretary

- A Heading. Use all-capital letters for the name of the company in the first line. Use capital and small letters for the other lines. For the date line, use the date on which the meeting was held (not the date on which the minutes were prepared). Use boldface for the name of the company and, if desired, for all the elements in the heading.
- **B** Format Considerations. Use default side margins. Indent the first line of each paragraph 0.5 inch.
- **C** Treat resolutions as extracts, indented as a block 0.5 inch from each side margin. Type *RESOLVED* in all-capital letters, followed by a comma and *that* (as illustrated). As an alternative, type *RESOLVED* followed by a colon and *That*.
- **D** Content Considerations. Use the opening paragraph to indicate the name of the company; the time and the place where the meeting was "called to order" (the first item on the agenda shown on page 504); and whether it was a regular or special meeting.
- E Use the next paragraphs to indicate which directors were present (all were in this illustration); which were absent; which company officers and invited guests were present; who presided; and who recorded the proceedings and prepared the minutes.
- F The body of the minutes should note in each paragraph what business was transacted and what actions were taken.
- **G** Use the next-to-last paragraph to indicate the date and time of the next meeting.
- **H** Use the final paragraph to indicate the time of adjournment.
- Capitalization Style. Minutes done in a formal style use a formal style of capitalization. Note that short forms such as *Corporation* and *Board* are capitalized.
- J Also note that in formal minutes such titles as *Chairman*, *Assistant Secretary*, and *Executive Vice President of Operations* are capitalized when used after a person's name. (See ¶313d.)

#### Itinerary



- A Headings. If the itinerary is to cover more than one day, insert an appropriate side heading above each day's scheduled list of activities.
- **B** Columnar Format. To create this two-column format, use the table feature.
- C For the alignment of "clock" times in a column, see ¶1627b.
- **D** Spacing. Leave 1 blank line between entries. Single-space any turnovers.
- **E** Content Considerations. Provide the names of airports only when there is more than one airport serving the city (in this case, Washington, D.C.).
- F Try to provide the first names (rather than simply titles or initials) for all the individuals whom the traveler is scheduled to meet.
- **G** Provide phone numbers for all transportation services, hotels, and restaurants in case the plans have to be rescheduled or canceled.

#### Fax Cover Sheet

EAV	BURNHAM & FRYE INC.
ΓΑΛ	
	225 High Ridge Road Stamford, CT 06905
Date: B _	
To:	
Fax Number: _	
From: A _	
Fax Number: A	
Number of pages	(including this cover sheet):
Message: B _	
	and the same
If any part of this	fax transmission is missing or not clearly
received, please	
Name: B	
Phone number: _	

- A Format Considerations. If you are using software to create a template for a fax cover sheet that only you will use, insert any information that will not change (such as your name and fax number) as a part of the template. However, if you are creating a form to be used by a number of people, provide blank fill-in lines for this variable information.
- **B** Fill-In Lines. If the entries on the fax cover sheet are likely to be typed in, use consistent spacing between fill-in lines and try to arrange the fill-in lines so that all entries can start at a common point.

**Confidentiality Statement.** If you are faxing something that is confidential (and this may sometimes not be a wise thing to do), add an appropriate message to the cover sheet.

#### CONFIDENTIAL

The contents of this fax transmission are confidential. If this transmission has been directed to the wrong office, please destroy the contents of this fax immediately and notify [sender's name] at [phone number].

To further ensure the confidentiality of the transmission, call the appropriate person in the receiving office and (1) confirm the fax number to be used and (2) confirm that the person will be standing right by the receiving equipment while the fax is being transmitted.

#### News Release

# **News Release**

BURNHAM & FRYE INC.

225 High Ridge Road Stamford, CT 06905

B Contact: Norbert Pell

Phone: 203.555,1294

Fax: 203.555.1299 2 or 3x

FOR IMMEDIATE RELEASE C

Purchase Strengthens Burnham & Frye's Lifetime Learning Initiatives 2 or 3x

Stamford, Connecticut, May 29, 2001: Burnham & Frye today completed its acquisition of Halsted Multimedia Solutions Ltd. of Maidenhead, Berkshire, England.

Halsted's multimedia management and employee training courses and its state-of-the-art technology will expand Burnham & Frye's capabilities in delivering interactive training programs for professionals over the Internet, corporate intranets, and other multimedia platforms.

Halsted's product line includes 18 multimedia programs in CD-ROM format on topics ranging from customer service to teamwork and marketing. All offer a rich mix of video, audio, graphics, and text, and they also feature interactive exercises and easy navigation.

F

###

- A Heading. The heading should indicate the name and address of the organization sponsoring the news release.
- **B** It should also show the name and phone numbers of the person to contact in case more information is needed.
- **C** The heading should also indicate when the information contained in the news release may be distributed to the public. In many cases the phrase *For immediate release* is sufficient. If the information is to be kept confidential until a specific time and date, the heading should carry a notation like this:

#### For release 9 a.m. EST, May 7, 2001

- **D** Headline. The text of the news release should begin with a descriptive title and, if desired, a subtitle.
- **E** Content Considerations. The first paragraph should begin with a bold run-in head that indicates the city and state of origin and the date on which this material is to be released. This run-in head is usually followed by a colon or a dash (typical newspaper practice) rather than a period.
- F At the end of the text, leave 1 blank line and type one of the following notations, centered: three spaced pound signs (# # #) or the phrase -30-. These notations, derived from long-standing newspaper practice, signify "the end."

# E-Mail

The volume of e-mail traffic continues to grow at an explosive rate. In 1994 U.S. computers carried an estimated 776 billion e-mail messages. By 1997 that number tripled to 2.6 trillion messages, and by 2000 that number was expected to nearly triple again—to 6.6 trillion messages. There is good reason for the speed with which this new technology has taken hold: the use of e-mail serves to overcome the problems associated with the delivery of regular mail (referred to as *snail mail* by some e-mail users) and the frustrations that result from playing telephone tag (leaving messages but never connecting). Do keep in mind that e-mail is not always the best means of communication, particularly when matters need to be treated confidentially. (See ¶1709d.)

The following guidelines (¶¶1708–1711) suggest how to compose and format e-mail messages so as to make the most of what this technology offers.

- 1708 Before composing an e-mail message, remember that the person you are addressing may receive more than 100 such messages a day. Many recipients report increasing frustration over the time it takes to read each day's e-mail messages, especially if many of those messages are the electronic equivalent of junk mail. To avoid frustrating the recipients of your e-mail:
  - a. Keep the distribution of your e-mail messages to a minimum. Given the ease of transmitting an e-mail message to everyone on an existing mailing list, you could be sending messages to people who don't need to see them and thus be adding to their e-mail overload.
  - **b.** Keep your messages short. Try to hold the overall length to the number of lines that will fit on one screen. Limit each line to a maximum of 80 characters.
  - c. Consider how much background your reader needs to have in order to understand your message. If you are responding to an issue raised in the earlier e-mail message, it is a great temptation to repeat the earlier message along with your response. Try to paraphrase the earlier message as briefly as possible so as to spare your reader unnecessary verbiage.
  - d. Provide a subject line for each message you compose. A subject line helps the recipient of a great many messages screen them quickly to determine which require the fastest action. (See ¶1711b.)
  - e. Restrict each message to one subject. It is better to send two separate messages than to cover several topics in one message.
  - f. Organize your sentences in short, single-spaced paragraphs to make your message easier to understand. Do not indent the opening line of each paragraph, but leave 1 blank line between paragraphs.
  - g. Edit and proofread each message carefully, and make the necessary corrections before sending the message. Because e-mail messages are usually composed on the computer, it is easy to make (and overlook) mistakes in grammar, usage, spelling, and style. (See ¶¶1202-1204.)
    - NOTE: Some e-mail systems provide spelling and grammar checkers, but these devices do not relieve you of the responsibility to check your own material with great care.

Other Business Documents

11710

h. Do not use all-capital letters in your messages. (This practice is considered to be the equivalent of shouting.) Follow the standard rules of capitalization.

#### 1709 When you are composing e-mail messages, keep these points in mind:

- a. Watch your tone in composing the message. Before you send it, read the message from the recipient's point of view to make sure that your words and your tone are not likely to be misconstrued.
  - NOTE: Some e-mail users insert smileys [for example, :-)] in their messages to indicate their feelings about what they are writing. However, many people find the use of smileys overly cute and feel they are no more necessary in e-mail messages than in any other kind of written communication. (For further discussion of this issue, see the entry for Smiley in Appendix B.)
- **b.** Do not send a message composed in anger (an act known as *flaming*). Moreover, if you receive flames (angry messages), it is wiser to ignore them than to respond in kind.
- c. Do not use e-mail to send unsolicited ads or other material that the recipient is likely to regard as junk mail. People who receive such material often take revenge by responding with flames. Some recipients may go so far as to make use of special programs referred to as bozo filters. These programs automatically intercept and delete all future messages from such bozos.
- **d.** Put nothing in an e-mail message that you would not want anyone other than the intended recipient to see. For example, do not provide confidential information that could wind up in the wrong hands. Moreover, do not use e-mail if you want to criticize or reprimand someone. In all such cases use another medium of communication. Remember: The privacy of the e-mail messages you send cannot be guaranteed.
- e. Respect the privacy of the messages you receive. Do not pass such messages on to others unless you are sure the sender will not object.
- 1710 E-mail messages can be distributed through local and wide area networks, bulletin board systems, online services, and the Internet. Procedures for sending and receiving e-mail messages will therefore differ, depending on the system you use. Even the construction of mailing addresses will vary as a result.
  - **a.** An e-mail address has two parts separated by @ (the symbol for at). NOTE: Because of its appearance, the @ symbol is sometimes referred to as a strudel (a type of rolled pastry).
  - **b.** The part that precedes @ is called the *mailbox*. It typically consists of your *user*name (the name you use to sign on to an e-mail system); for example, ritajbella, rjbella, rjb, or ritaj. However, some systems may assign you an arbitrary mailbox.
  - c. The part that follows @ is called the domain. It represents the mail system on which you receive your mail. The domain consists of two or more elements separated by periods (referred to as dots). If you use America Online, the domain is aol.com; if you use CompuServe, the domain is compuserve.com. (Dots are used between the elements of the domain but not at the end.) If you are sending e-mail

to someone within your own domain, you can omit the domain from the e-mail address.

NOTE: The final element in the domain—called the zone—indicates what kind of system is being used. For example, .com signifies "commercial," .gov governmental," .edu "educational," and .org "organizational."

- > For a more detailed discussion of the zones now being used, see ¶1532.
- d. Here are a few sample e-mail addresses.

the President of the United States:

The Internet Society:

Laboratory for Computer Science at MIT:

NewbieNewz (an electronic newsletter for newcomers to the Internet):

president@whitehouse.gov

newbienewz-request@io.com

isoc@isoc.org

lcs@mit.edu

e. Never alter the spacing, the punctuation, the symbols, or the capitalization of an e-mail address.

- > For guidelines on how to divide a long e-mail address at the end of a line, see ¶1539.
- 1711 The format of an e-mail message is very much like that of a simplified memo. The first illustration on page 517 shows how an e-mail message looks after the sender has written it. The second illustration on page 517 shows how the same message will appear to the person who receives it.
  - **a.** After the guide word *To* or *Mail To*, insert the recipient's name and e-mail address. If the message is addressed to more than one person, separate the entries showing each recipient's name and mailing address by means of a comma or a semicolon (depending on the system you use).
  - **b.** After *Subject* or *Re* insert an appropriate subject line. As noted in ¶1708e, try to deal with only one subject in each message. Since the recipient may look at only the subject line to decide how important your message is, be sure to choose wording that will get you the attention you want.
  - **c.** Your e-mail template may provide guide words such as *CC* or *cc* so that you can insert the name and e-mail address of anyone who is also intended to receive this message.
  - **d.** Your e-mail template may also provide a guide word such as *Reply to*. Make an entry here if you want the recipient to send a response to an address other than the one shown in the *From* entry.
  - e. You do not need to indicate whom the message is from. The software program will automatically insert your mailing address (as well as your full name) after *From*. It will also automatically display the date and time when the message was transmitted.

NOTE: The program will automatically display additional lines of information such as routing data. You may also have the option of displaying your conventional mailing address, your phone number, your fax number, and any other information you wish.

#### E-Mail Message Sent

iled Outgoin	g Message	Sub S Corporation	Page 1 of
Subject:	Sub S Corporati	on	
Sent:	9/27/02 10:36 A	AM	
To:	Jack Lynch, jly	nch@lincoln.midcoast.com	
CC:	Bev Funk, bevfu	ınk@whidbey.net	
Jack:			
Bev and I	have decided to ta	ake your advice and set up a Sub S corp	oration. I'll be in
town next	Thursday and Frida	ay. Can you spare me a little time eith	er afternoon?
		Margaret	

#### E-Mail Message Received

```
msabin, 10:42 AM 9/27/02 Sub S Corporation

Return-Path: msabin@mail.viconet.com
Date: Fri, 27 Sep 2002 10:42:39 -0400
Subject: Sub S Corporation
From: msabin (msabin@viconet.com)
To: Jack Lynch <jlynch@lincoln.midcoast.com)
cc: Bev Funk <bevfunk@whidbey.net>

Jack:

Bev and I have decided to take your advice and set up a Sub S corporation.
I'll be in town next Thursday and Friday. Can you spare me a little time
either afternoon?

Margaret
```

- **f.** In the interest of brevity, salutations and complimentary closings are often omitted. However, follow your personal preferences in such matters. (In the illustrations above note the use of *Jack* as a salutation and *Margaret* as a closing.)
- ➤ For guidelines on message length, paragraphing, spacing, and capitalization, see ¶1708; for guidelines on sending a letter confirming an e-mail message already transmitted, see ¶1375b.
- **g.** Users of e-mail sometimes rely on special abbreviations to shorten their messages. For example:

BTW by the way

IMHO in my humble opinion

GMTA great minds think alike

J/K just kidding

BRB be right back

BAK I'm back at the keyboard

LOL I'm laughing out loud at what I just read

ROTFL I'm rolling on the floor laughing at what I just read

# Résumés

#### Preparing a Résumé

1712 When you prepare a résumé, keep the following things in mind:

- a. The purpose of a résumé is not to get you a job but to get you a job interview.
- **b.** The purpose of a résumé is not to tell a prospective employer about *your* long-term goals and aspirations but to indicate *what you can do for the employer* with the experience you have acquired and the skills you have developed.
- **c.** Do not describe your past jobs in terms of duties and responsibilities. Emphasize things you have achieved, capabilities you have acquired, decision-making skills you have put to good use, activities you have initiated, and sales and profits that have increased (and expenses that have decreased) because of your efforts.
- **d.** Describe your achievements and skills in a way that indicates they are readily applicable to other types of jobs and other fields.
- **e.** Do not overstate your achievements by claiming to have accomplished certain things single-handedly when it will be clear to the prospective employer that your achievement had to be part of a team effort. In the attempt to come across as a self-starter, don't jeopardize your reputation for honesty.
- f. While you want your résumé to stand out from all the others that are submitted at the same time, think of how an employer will view your résumé. If you're applying for a job in advertising, design, or some other creative field, an original format or even an off-the-wall approach may spark the interest you crave. But if you're after a job in management, finance, or marketing—where an image of maturity and dependability is important—you'll gain more ground by emphasizing how you can help the employer rather than by taking a far-out approach.
- g. Weigh the advantages of preparing a custom-tailored résumé for each situation (in which you organize and focus your strengths in light of a specific employer's needs) over the savings in time and money that come from preparing a single résumé designed to fit a variety of job opportunities and a range of employers' needs. When you use a computer, preparing custom-tailored résumés is easy.
- **h.** Keep the résumé as short as possible (no more than two pages). Some employers may ask for a one-page résumé. (See pages 526–527.)
- i. Choose a format that yields a clean, uncluttered look. (See pages 520-531.)
- **j.** Do not mention how much you earned in previous jobs or how much you expect to earn in the future.
- **k.** Do not refer to your age, your marital status, your height and weight, your hobbies, or other personal details unless they enhance your suitability for the job.
- 1. Do not supply reasons for having left previous jobs or for gaps in your employment history. However, do prepare yourself for dealing with these issues if they come up in the interview.
- m. Do not give references on the résumé. It is not even necessary to state that references are available upon request. Be prepared, however, to supply names, addresses, and phone numbers at the interview.

n. Use good-quality paper (of at least 20-pound weight and preferably 24), and consider having your résumé executed and reproduced professionally if you cannot create a crisp-looking document with the equipment you have at your disposal.

# **Choosing a Standard Format**

1713 There is a wide range of formats you can choose from. Indeed, in a number of books dealing exclusively with the topic of résumés, you will find as many as a hundred models showing all kinds of variations in layout and approach. In addition, some word processing programs provide at least one résumé template and suggestions concerning the contents of each section of the document.

The illustrations on pages 520–525 show three different ways to format a standard résumé for Alison L. Bumbry, who majored in marketing in college, has had a number of secretarial and administrative positions in the marketing field, and is now attempting to move up to a managerial job in the same field.

The first two models illustrate the *chronological* approach, in which a person's employment history is sequenced by date, starting with the most current job and working backward. This is the approach most widely used.

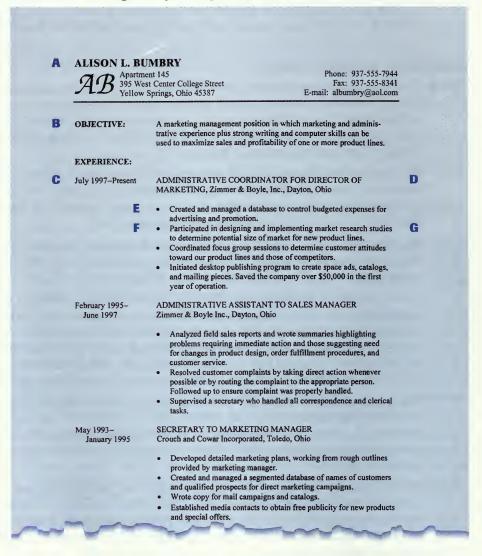
In the first model (on pages 520–521) note that the dates for each job are high-lighted in the left column; the corresponding job title, the name and location of the employer, and comments about the job are grouped together at the right. Also note that all the information about job *experience* typically comes before the information about *education*. If you are just out of school and have little job experience to cite, put the educational information first. (See the fourth model described below.)

The second model (on pages 522–523) also lists the jobs in reverse chronological order, but it highlights the job titles (rather than the dates) in the left column. This approach is especially effective when your employment history shows steady upward progress in a chosen field and you are applying for the next logical position in your career path.

The third model (on pages 524–525) illustrates the *functional* approach, which groups a person's achievements and skills in functional areas such as management, administration, marketing, and writing. The functional approach is the hardest to implement, but it does have the advantage of grouping your key strengths in meaningful categories (rather than leaving it to the employer to ferret out these patterns of strength from your chronological job descriptions). This approach is especially helpful (1) when you are trying to change to another field (since it emphasizes generic types of abilities that can be applied in various settings) and (2) when you are trying to play down gaps or frequent job changes in your employment history.

The fourth model (on pages 526–527) illustrates a one-page résumé for a person recently out of school (or soon to complete a college or high school program). This model is essentially an adaptation of the chronological approach, but because this person does not have a great deal of job experience to list, this résumé deals with the person's educational background first and goes into greater detail about the courses taken than would otherwise be appropriate.

#### Résumé—Chronological Style (Emphasizing Dates)



- A Heading. The heading should give all the key data an employer needs to get in touch with you. One possible arrangement is to present the data in two blocks: one aligned at the left margin, the other at the right.
- **B** Objective. Use your "objective" statement to indicate the type of job you're looking for, the strengths you can bring to the job, and what you think you can accomplish for the employer's benefit.
- **C** Experience. In this format the dates for each job are featured in the left column.
- **D** At the right, each job history begins with the job title (in all-capital letters), followed by the employer's name and location (in capital and small letters) on the following line.
- E The specific achievements in each job history are presented in a series of bulleted entries.

#### ALISON L. BUMBRY Page 2 ASSISTANT TO DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC RELATIONS September 1991-The Toledo Muscum of Art, Toledo, Ohio April 1993 Wrote news releases for new exhibits and special events. Wrote, designed, and laid out fund-raising brochures. Established and maintained effective media contacts with regional newspapers and TV and radio stations. B.S. in marketing, 1991; minor in English EDUCATION: Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona Wrote feature articles for The Arizona Sundial during sophomore and junior years. Created (with two partners) an on-campus birthday celebration service. Managed the service during junior and senior years. Tested various direct marketing techniques to solicit orders from parents of students. CONTINUING Courses in copywriting, telemarketing techniques, niche marketing, EDUCATION: and computer graphics, Wright State University, Dayton, Ohio, COMPUTER Microsoft Windows 98, Microsoft Word 2000, Microsoft PowerPoint 2000, Microsoft Money 99, Corel WordPerfect 8, SKILLS: Corel Quattro Pro 8, Corel Presentations 8, Peachtree Office Accounting, Adobe PageMaker 6.5 for Windows, Mac OS 8.1, Adobe Illustrator 8.0, Adobe Photoshop 5.0, QuarkXPress 4.0. Wrote, designed, and laid out annual fund-raising brochures (since COMMUNITY SERVICE: 1997) for the Dayton Homeless Shelter Coalition, using desktop publishing and computer graphics software.

- F Note that many entries begin with vigorous verbs (such as *created*, *initiated*, *resolved*, and *supervised*) to create the image of a dynamic, take-charge kind of person.
- **G** Note also that to maintain credibility, the writer uses such terms as participated in and created (with two partners) to acknowledge the contribution of others whenever appropriate.
- **H** Education. Provide information on college and any postgraduate degrees in that order. Provide information about your high school education only if that is the highest level so far attained. If you are currently enrolled in a degree program, note this fact along with an estimated date of completion. For example: Pursuing a two-year program in business administration at Glendale Community College; will receive an A.A. degree in June 2001.
- **Continuing Education.** Note any job-related courses you have taken. If you are changing careers or fields, note any other continuing education activity that shows you are a person committed to learning new things.
- J Special Skills. Note any special skills that could be job-related; for example, mastery of software programs, experience with certain equipment or machinery, mastery of spoken or written foreign languages.
- **K** Community Service. Note any activity that is job-related or that shows concern about the needs of others.

**Optional Sections.** Also provide job-related information under such labels as these: *Professional Affiliations* (memberships), *Professional Activities* (speeches and published articles and books), *Military Service*, and *Special Interests*.

#### Résumé—Chronological Style (Emphasizing Job Titles)

#### ALISON L. BUMBRY

AB Apartment 145
395 West Center College Street
Yellow Springs, Ohio 45387

Phone: 937-555-7944 Fax: 937-555-8341 E-mail: albumbry@aol.com

#### OBJECTIVE:

A marketing management position in which marketing and administrative experience plus strong writing and computer skills can be used to maximize sales and profitability of one or more product lines.

#### EXPERIENCE:

A Administrative Coordinator for Director of Marketing

ZIMMER & BOYLE INC., Dayton, Ohio, July 1997-Present

R

Created and managed a database to control budgeted expenses for advertising and promotion. Participated in designing and implementing market research studies to determine the potential size of market for new product lines. Coordinated focus group sessions to determine customer attitudes toward our product lines and those of competitors. Initiated desktop publishing program to create space ads, catalogs, and mailing pieces; saved the company over \$50,000 in the first year of operation.

Administrative Assistant to Sales Manager ZIMMER & BOYLE INC., Dayton, Ohio, February 1995-June 1997

Analyzed field sales reports and wrote summaries highlighting problems requiring immediate action and those suggesting need for changes in product design, order fulfillment procedures, and customer service. Resolved customer complaints by taking direct action whenever possible or by routing the complaint to the appropriate person; followed up to ensure the complaint was properly handled. Supervised a secretary who handled all correspondence and clerical tasks.

Secretary to Marketing Manager CROUCH AND COWAR INCORPORATED, Toledo, Ohio, May 1993-January 1995

Developed detailed marketing plans, working from rough outlines provided by the marketing manager. Created and managed a segmented database of names of customers and qualified prospects for direct marketing campaigns. Wrote copy for mail campaigns and catalogs. Established media contacts to obtain free publicity for new products and special offers.

- A Experience. In this format the job titles (rather than the dates) are featured in the left
- **B** At the right the name and location of the organization plus the employment dates are given on one or two lines.
- C Arranging the specific achievements for each job in one paragraph is a common format, but it is not as readable as the bulleted format used in the résumés on pages 520–521 and pages 524–525.

#### ALISON L. BUMBRY

Page 2

Assistant to Director of Public Relations THE TOLEDO MUSEUM OF ART, Toledo, Ohio,

September 1991-April 1993

Wrote news releases for new exhibits and special events. Wrote, designed, and laid out fund-raising brochures. Established and maintained effective media contacts with regional newspapers and TV and radio stations.

EDUCATION:

B.S. in marketing, 1991; minor in English Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona

Wrote feature articles for *The Arizona Sundial* during sophomore and junior years. Created (with two partners) an oncampus birthday celebration service; managed the service during junior and senior years. Tested various direct marketing techniques to solicit orders from parents of students.

CONTINUING EDUCATION:

Courses in copywriting, telemarketing techniques, niche marketing, and computer graphics, Wright State University, Dayton, Ohio, 1997–1999.

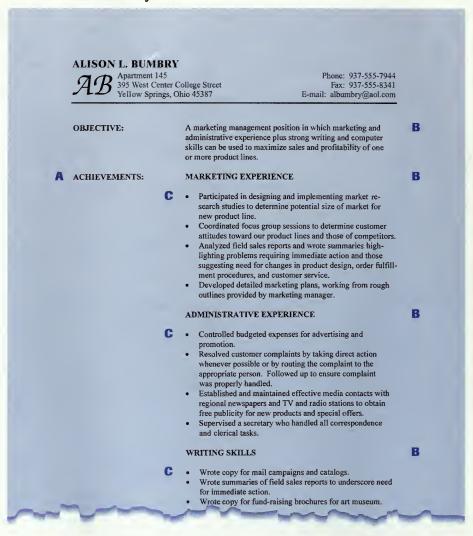
COMPUTER SKILLS:

Microsoft Windows 98, Microsoft Word 2000, Microsoft PowerPoint 2000, Microsoft Money 99, Corel WordPerfect 8, Corel Quattro Pro 8, Corel Presentations 8, Peachtree Office Accounting, Adobe PageMaker 6.5 for Windows, Mac OS 8.1, Adobe Illustrator 8.0, Adobe Photoshop 5.0, QuarkXPress 4.0.

COMMUNITY SERVICE:

Wrote, designed, and laid out annual fund-raising brochures (since 1997) for the Dayton Homeless Shelter Coalition, using desktop publishing and computer graphics software.

#### Résumé-Functional Style



- A Sideheads. In this illustration the customary sidehead *EXPERIENCE* in the left column has been replaced by *ACHIEVEMENTS* because the term *experience* has been used in two of the sideheads in the right column.
- **B** Note how the wording of the "objective" statement (in which marketing and administrative experience plus strong writing and computer skills) provides the springboard for the functional sideheads in the right column (MARKETING EXPERIENCE, ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE, WRITING SKILLS, and COMPUTER SKILLS).
- C Note how the entries under these sideheads in the right column have been reordered (and in some cases reworded) so as to emphasize the applicant's strengths in each functional area, independent of the job setting in which these strengths were developed.

#### ALISON L. BUMBRY Page 2 COMPUTER SKILLS R Initiated an in-house desktop publishing program. Saved the company over \$50,000 in the first year of operation. Designed and laid out space ads, catalogs, mailing pieces, and fund-raising brochures. Created and managed a database to control budgeted expenses for advertising and promotion. Created and managed a segmented database of names of customers and qualified prospects for direct marketing Microsoft Windows 98, Microsoft Word 2000, Microsoft PowerPoint 2000, Microsoft Money 99, Corel WordPerfect 8, Corel Quattro Pro 8, Corel Presentations 8, Peachtree Office Accounting, Adobe PageMaker 6.5 for Windows, Mac OS 8.1, Adobe Illustrator 8.0, Adobe Photoshop 5.0, QuarkXPress 4.0. **EMPLOYMENT** Administrative coordinator for director of marketing, Zimmer & Boyle Inc., Dayton, Ohio, July 1997-Present. HISTORY: Administrative assistant to sales manager, Zimmer & Boyle Inc., Dayton, Ohio, February 1995-June 1997. Secretary to marketing manager, Crouch and Cowar Incorporated, Toledo, Ohio, May 1993-January 1995. Assistant to director of public relations, the Toledo Museum of Art, Toledo, Ohio, September 1991-April 1993 EDUCATION: B.S. in marketing, 1991; minor in English Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona Wrote feature articles for The Arizona Sundial during sophomore and junior years. Created (with two partners) an on-campus birthday celebration service. Managed the service during junior and senior years. Tested various direct marketing techniques to solicit orders from parents of students. CONTINUING Courses in copywriting, telemarketing techniques, niche marketing, and computer graphics, Wright State University, EDUCATION: Dayton, Ohio, 1997-1999. COMMUNITY SERVICE: Wrote, designed, and laid out annual fund-raising brochures (since 1997) for the Dayton Homeless Shelter Coalition, using desktop publishing and computer graphics software.

**D** Employment History. Although this section would not appear in a purely "functional" résumé, an employment history provides prospective employers with a brief chronological listing of previous job titles, the name and location of previous employers, and employment dates. Including this section in a functional résumé often serves to mollify employers who are more comfortable with résumés done completely in the chronological style.

# Résumé—One-Page Style

		RALPH A. PINKHAM 148 Biscay Road Damariscotta, Maine 04543 207-555-3266	
	OBJECTIVE:	To gain experience as a bank teller as a first step toward a career in banking.	
1	EDUCATION:	A.A. in business management, 1999 University of Maine, Augusta, Maine	
		Courses in accounting, business communication, business management, finance, and office technology.	
	1	Academic scholarships, 1997–1999. Member of the intramural wrestling team, 1997–1998. Tutor in a university-sponsored community literacy program, 1998–1999.	
	EXPERIENCE:	Sales associate, Reny's, Damariscotta, Maine, June 1999– Present	
		Handled cash and credit card transactions, using electronic cash register. Helped customers with product selections and suggested tie-in purchases. Resolved customer problems. Assisted in taking inventory and restocking shelves. Suggested special promotions and helped design merchandise displays.	
		Cashier, Pinkham's Plantation, Damariscotta, Maine, May 1994– August 1997	
		Worked part-time in family-owned business. Handled cash and credit card transactions. Advised customers on planting and care of purchased items. Set up special seasonal displays and recommended special pricing arrangements to boost sales.	
	SKILLS:	Strong number sense and quick mastery of electronic cash register and calculators. Proven ability to handle large amounts of money accurately. Outgoing personality with the ability to grasp and to respond to customers' needs and concerns. Excellent communication skills in writing, over the phone, and face to face. Mastery of Microsoft Office and Lotus Notes software. Facility in the use of e-mail and accessing information on the Web.	1

A List your educational achievements in reverse order, starting with your most recent experience. If you have graduated from a college-level program, you do not need to cite your high school experience unless mentioning certain courses that you took or certain activities that you engaged in will enhance your qualifications. In that case, you could make the following kind of entry:

Lincoln Academy, Newcastle, Maine, graduated in May 1997

Then list any significant high school courses and activities in a paragraph underneath.

- **B** Any special activities or honors connected with your education can be listed here, or they can be displayed at the end of the résumé in a special section labeled *Activities*. Creating a special Activities section makes sense if you also want to cite other significant items beyond those related to your education.
- C In describing the tasks you performed in your limited job experience, give special emphasis to those activities that have direct relevance to the job you are now applying for. Ralph Pinkham's references to handling cash are directly related to the job of bank teller. Mentioning that he helped customers "with product selections and suggested tie-in purchases" or that he "suggested special promotions" and "special pricing arrangements to boost sales" indicates that he is the kind of person who takes the initiative in finding ways to do his job more effectively.
- D The section labeled *Skills* gives you a real opportunity to demonstrate that despite your lack of previous experience in performing the job you are applying for, you already possess many of the desirable characteristics of an experienced employee. Ralph Pinkham's previous job experience, though relatively limited, has given him (1) the ability to handle a lot of cash competently, (2) the human relations skills needed to deal with customers, and (3) the ability to quickly master whatever equipment he is required to use on the job. Even a seemingly unrelated job like baby-sitting can be described in such a way as to demonstrate that one has acquired a variety of coping skills that carry over into the areas of management and human relations.
- In order to hold this résumé to one page, it is better to describe your educational activities, your job experience, and your skills in paragraph style rather than as bulleted items in a list.

**NOTE:** This illustration of a one-page résumé is specifically designed for someone who is recently out of school and does not have much work experience. However, individuals with a great deal of work experience can also make effective use of a one-page format. In that case, the section dealing with educational achievements should *follow* the sections dealing with work experience and skills.

#### Formatting a Scannable Résumé

1714 Scannable résumés represent a significant innovation in the job-seeking process. They serve to match the best-qualified applicants with job openings that currently exist or that may soon be opening. Scannable résumés permit organizations to sift through large numbers of résumés by computer in order to identify a smaller (and much more manageable) number of suitable candidates for a particular job. In effect, the computer does the first round of screening. Then human beings enter the process of evaluating qualified individuals for a specific opening.

A scannable résumé is a hard-copy document designed to be scanned by an optical character reader (OCR) into a computerized database, where a computer will initially screen individual résumés for keywords that also show up in the description posted for a particular job opening. The more links between the keywords in a scannable résumé and those in the job description, the more likely that résumé (and the individual who wrote it) will be selected for further evaluation by real people.

- a. In planning a scannable résumé, carefully read the ads and the postings for the kind of job you want. Try to incorporate in your résumé as many keywords from those job descriptions as you honestly can. Also make heavy use of industry jargon, acronyms, and abbreviations, as well as current industry buzzwords, even if these do not actually appear in the ads and the postings, since these are likely to be the kinds of keywords that the computer has been programmed to focus on. To increase the total number of keywords in your résumé, use synonyms whenever possible to avoid repeating the same keywords.
  - **NOTE:** If acronyms and abbreviations are used, some authorities recommend that they be accompanied by the spelled-out forms when they first appear.
- b. It is important that a scannable résumé pose no difficulties for the OCRs currently in use. The very techniques and devices that serve to draw the attention of a human reader may in many cases interfere with the ability of certain OCRs to accurately transfer the contents of the résumé into the computerized database. Paragraphs 1715–1717 offer a number of guidelines to help you avoid such problems when you are formatting a scannable résumé.
- **1715** a. Do not use boldface, italics, underlining, script, bullets, logos, shading, horizontal or vertical lines, or any other graphic devices. If desired, asterisks may be used to introduce individual items in a list.
  - **b.** Do not arrange material in columns. Try to begin everything at the left margin, and do not justify the right margin (see ¶1356b).
  - **c.** To achieve the sharpest possible image for the sake of accurate scanning, use a laser printer, black ink, and good-quality paper (of 20- or 24-pound weight).
  - **d.** Do not fold or crease the résumé. If possible, insert the résumé in a plastic sleeve to keep it clean and wrinkle-free.
  - **e.** Try to limit the résumé to one page. If more than one page is required, use a paper clip (not a staple) to keep the pages together. Moreover, use a continuation heading (as illustrated on page 531).

1716 As you can tell from ¶1715 and from the illustrations on pages 530–531, the appearance of a scannable résumé tends to be quite bland—intentionally so because it has been designed with the needs of the OCR and not those of a human reader in mind. For that reason, consider submitting your résumé in two ways: (a) in a scannable format for the initial round of screening and (b) in a more visually attractive format (as illustrated on pages 520–527) for the benefit of the human readers who will subsequently evaluate you in light of the openings they have available.

Because of the differences between those two types of résumés, the illustrations on pages 530–531 show how a standard résumé for Alison Bumbry (featured in the illustrations on pages 520–525) might be reworked as a scannable résumé.

- 1717 In organizing the sections of a scannable résumé, keep these guidelines in mind:
  - a, Begin with a centered heading block that provides all the key data a prospective employer needs to get in touch with you. (See the illustration and the annotations on page 530 for additional details.)
  - **b.** Divide the rest of your résumé into sections identified by side headings like these: *Objective, Skills, Employment History, Education, Continuing Education.* Also consider optional headings such as *Community Service.* (See the illustration and annotations on pages 530–531 for additional details.)
  - **c.** Under the heading *Objective*, aim for a statement that matches as closely as possible the job description for the position you want. If a job description is not currently available for a specific opening, draw on your knowledge of the industry to describe your objective in language that uses attention-getting keywords.
  - d. You may list all your significant skills under the single heading Skills, or you may create a number of headings that group your skills appropriately—for example, Marketing Skills, Administrative Skills, Writing Skills, and Computer Skills (as is done in the illustration on page 530). No matter how you decide to label this section, the material you provide here should also be filled with attention-getting keywords. Indeed, some authorities recommend labeling this section of the résumé Keyword Profile or Keyword Summary, and some recommend placing this section at the end of the résumé instead of at the beginning.

NOTE: In the illustration on page 530, the material that appears under the various Skills headings has been derived from the functional-style résumé for Alison Bumbry on pages 524-525.

**e.** For the sections headed *Employment History, Education, Continuing Education,* and optional sections such as *Community Service*, see the illustration and the annotations on page 531 for details on how to format materials under these headings.

#### Scannable Résumé

ALISON L. BUMBRY
Apartment 145
395 West Center College Street
Yellow Springs, Ohio 45387
Telephone: 937-555-7944
Fax: 937-555-8341
E-mail: albumbry@aol.com

#### B OBJECTIVE

A position in marketing management in which marketing experience and administrative expertise plus writing skills and computer skills can be used to promote sales growth and exceed profit goals for one or more product lines.

#### **B** MARKETING SKILLS

Design and implementation of market research studies. Assessment of potential market size for new product lines. Coordination of focus group sessions. Assessment of customer attitudes toward product lines. Analysis of field sales reports. Pinpointing of problems for immediate action. Pinpointing of need for changes in product design, order fulfillment procedures, and customer service. Development of detailed marketing plans based on input from marketing manager.

#### **B** ADMINISTRATIVE SKILLS

Control of advertising and promotion expense budgets. Resolution of customer complaints. Contacts with newspapers, TV stations, and radio stations for free publicity. Supervision of secretary.

#### **B** WRITING SKILLS

Preparation of copy for mail campaigns, catalogs, and fund-raising brochures. Summaries of field sales reports.

#### B COMPUTER SKILLS

Start-up of in-house desktop publishing program, with first-year savings of \$50,000.

Design and layout of space ads, catalogs, mailing pieces, and fund-raising brochures.

Creation and management of database for control of advertising and promotion expense budgets. Creation and management of segmented database of customers and qualified prospects for direct marketing campaigns. Mastery of Microsoft Windows 98, Microsoft Word 2000. Microsoft PowerPoint 2000. Microsoft Money 99, Corel WordPerfect 8,

- A Heading. On separate single-spaced lines centered in a block, provide your name, address, and phone number, plus a fax number and an e-mail address if these are available. Use all-capital letters only for your name. Do not use boldface or any other graphic device to highlight the information in this heading block.
- **B** Side Headings. Identify each section of a scannable résumé with an all-capital side heading. Leave 1 blank line above and below each heading. Do not use boldface, italics, or any other graphic device to highlight these sideheads.
- **C** Skills. Note how the copy in these sections (drawn from the functional-style résumé on pages 524–525) shifts the wording away from action verbs to keyword nouns. Also note that the copy under each side heading is organized as one paragraph consisting of phrases, each ending with a period. This arrangement, which takes less space, is not as readable as listing these items on separate lines, but remember that a scannable résumé is designed to be read by an OCR and not by a human pair of eyes.

Н	ALISON L. BUMBRY Page	2
В	EMPLOYMENT HISTORY	
D	* Administrative coordinator for director of marketing, Zimmer and Boyle Inc., Dayton, Ohio, July 1997–Present.	1
	Administrative assistant to sales manager, Zimmer and Boyle Inc., Dayton, Ohio, February 1995–June 1997.	1
	* Secretary to marketing manager, Crouch and Cowar Incorporated, Toledo, Ohio, May 1993–January 1995.	
	*Assistant to director of public relations, the Toledo Museum of Art, Toledo, Ohio, September 1991April 1993.	
В	EDUCATION	
E	B.S. in marketing, 1991, minor in English, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona.	
	Writer of feature articles for The Arizona Sundial during sophomore and junior years. Cofounder and manager of on-campus birthday service. Testing of various direct marketing techniques to solicit orders.	1
В	CONTINUING EDUCATION	
F	Courses in copywriting, telemarketing techniques, niche marketing, and computer graphics, Wright State University, Dayton, Ohio, 1997–1999.	
В	COMMUNITY SERVICE	
G	Writing, design, and layout of annual fund-raising brochures for the Dayton Homeless Shelter Coalition.	

- **D** Employment History. Note that the jobs are listed in reverse chronological order, starting with the most recent job. You may use an asterisk to introduce each job listing (as in the illustration above), but do not use bullets or any other graphic device for this purpose. Because the duties of each job have already been summarized in the Skills sections in the illustration on page 530, there is no reason to repeat them here.
- **E Education.** List your educational experience in reverse order, starting with the most recent college or graduate program for which you have received (or expect to receive) a degree. List your secondary education only if you cannot cite enrollment in or completion of a college degree program.
- **F** Continuing Education. Under this heading cite courses you have taken or are now taking but not as part of a formal degree program.
- **G** Optional Sections. Use such headings as Community Service, Professional Affiliations, Professional Activities (including honors and awards), Military Service, and Special Interests to cover any activities that involve job-related skills or that show your involvement in addressing the needs of others.
- **H** Continuation Heading. Provide a heading that gives your name and the page number.
- Elimination of Graphic Elements. Because some OCRs cannot properly scan ampersands, note that the ampersand in *Zimmer & Boyle* has been replaced by *and*. Moreover, because some OCRs cannot cope with italics or underlining, the title of the university newspaper—*The Arizona Sundial*—appears without any special display.

# **Other Employment Documents**

As part of the job-seeking process you will need to write three types of letters: letters of application, follow-up letters after an interview, and (hopefully) a letter of acceptance. Specific guidelines are provided in ¶¶1719–1721, but a few general guidelines (¶1718) apply to all employment communications.

#### **General Guidelines**

- 1718 a. Keep your letters short—less than one full page if possible.
  - **b.** Resist the temptation to copy sample letters word for word. Draw on these samples for ideas, but create your own letters—letters that communicate the distinctive flavor of your personality.
  - **c.** Edit and proofread your letters carefully. Simple typographical errors (not to mention more serious errors in grammar, style, and usage) will create a negative impression that damages your job-seeking campaign.
  - **d.** Always try to address your letters to a specific person, using that person's full name and title. If necessary, call the organization to obtain this information.

**NOTE:** The model letters on pages 534–537 are all written by Alison Bumbry, the fictitious person whose job qualifications are set forth in the résumés shown on pages 520–525 and 530–531. In these letters, Ms. Bumbry is trying to move up to a marketing management position.

#### **Application Letters**

- 1719 Letters you write to apply for a job will vary to some extent, depending on whether you are (a) following up on an ad, (b) taking the initiative to find out whether any openings exist for a person with your skills and experience, or (c) following up on the suggestion of a mutual friend or acquaintance to explore job opportunities with a specific person within an organization. Yet all application letters have the same three objectives: to indicate what you have to offer the organization, to transmit your résumé, and to obtain an interview. Consider the following guidelines and the illustration on page 534 when you write an application letter.
  - **a.** Before you draft your letter, try to get as much information as you can about the organization you have in mind. For example, what products or services does it offer? What special strategy or philosophy governs the way the organization operates? Such information can help you focus your letter more effectively and will let the recipient of the letter know that you have taken the initiative to learn something about the organization.
    - **NOTE:** If you are responding to a blind ad (one that provides no organizational name and only a box number address), you will not be able to undertake this research. However, the ad will spell out the qualifications desired, something not usually available when you are simply exploring the possibility of job openings.
  - **b.** Begin your letter by indicating whether you are responding to an ad, following up on the suggestion of a mutual friend or acquaintance, or simply exploring what job opportunities currently exist.

c. Indicate what you have to offer the organization. If you are responding to an ad that states the qualifications desired, clearly indicate how your skills and experience relate to each of the qualifications listed. If you are simply exploring job openings, do not focus on specific tasks that you have performed in the past. Instead, highlight the things you have accomplished as a result of the way you applied your skills and experience. This approach will make it easier for someone to gauge how well you might fit the job available, even if you have not performed those exact tasks in the past.

NOTE: The recipient of your letter will probably be receiving many other application letters at the same time. It is important, therefore, that your letter and your résumé make you stand out from the others. In your letter you should aim to achieve—in much shorter form—the same things you are trying to achieve in your résumé. (See ¶1712a—d for further details on this point.)

d. The primary short-term objective of this letter is to arrange for an interview. Rather than wait for the recipient of your letter to call you, indicate that you will call on a specific date to determine whether an interview can take place. In stating when you will call, allow enough time for your material to be delivered and looked at. Keep in mind that the recipient may be inundated with other matters or may be traveling and thus may not look at your letter and résumé as quickly as you would like.

**NOTE:** Keep a record of when you promised to call so that you follow through on time. Calling a day or two later could suggest that you are not a very good manager of your time.

#### **Follow-Up Letters**

1720 After an interview, follow up immediately with a letter that covers the following points. (Also see the illustration on page 535.)

- a. Thank the interviewer for (1) taking the time to see you, (2) giving you better insight into the available job and the organization you would be working for, and (3) considering your qualifications in light of the available job.
- **b.** Reinforce the positive impression you tried to make during the interview, and briefly restate why you think you would be an asset to the organization.
- c. Offer additional information about your qualifications if they were not fully discussed during the interview. If you promised during the interview to supply additional information, do so now.
- d. Address questions that arose during the interview that you were not fully prepared to answer at the time. If you know (or simply sense) that the interviewer had some doubts about your qualifications, use this opportunity to overcome such doubts if you can.

**NOTE:** If the interviewer made it clear at the time that you were not right for the current job opening, send a follow-up letter nonetheless. Offer thanks for having been considered for this job, and express hope that you will be considered for other jobs that may open in the future. On the other hand, if you decide the job is not right for you, send a follow-up letter in which you thank the interviewer and ask not to be a candidate.

#### **Application Letter**

#### A ALISON L. BUMBRY

AB Apartment 145
395 West Center College Street
Yellow Springs, Ohio 45387

Phone: 937-555-7944 Fax: 937-555-8341 E-mail: albumbry@aol.com

March 3, 2001

Mr. Oliver Digby Director of Human Resources Hunt and Ketcham Inc. 1228 Euclid Avenue Cleveland, Ohio 44115

Dear Mr. Digby:

You advertised for a marketing manager in the March 2 Plain Dealer. I have used many Hunt and Ketcham texts in my computer courses, so I know that your company publishes books of consistently high quality. As the following comparison shows, my experience and background come close to satisfying all of the requirements stated in your ad.

#### Your Requirements My Qualifications

College degree B.S. in marketing plus continuing education courses in marketing and computer software applications

Knowledge of technical Over six years' experience in sales and marketing divipublishing market sions of two educational publishing companies

Field sales experience Extensive contact with field sales reps and customers, resolving a wide range of sales support and customer service problems

our new productions

The enclosed résumé will provide additional information about my marketing experience.

I would appreciate the chance to meet with you and discuss the ways in which I can help Hunt and Ketcham achieve its marketing objectives and its profit goals. I will call your office on March 12 to determine whether there is a convenient time for you to see me.

Sincerely,

- A Letterhead. The attractive letterhead design that Alison Bumbry has executed on her computer will help make her application letter stand out. It is the same letterhead she used on the first page of her résumé.
- **B** First Paragraph. Alison uses her opening paragraph to indicate how she found out about the job, what she knows about the organization, and how her qualifications stack up against the job requirements stated in the ad.
- **C** Displayed List of Qualifications. Alison does her best to play down her lack of specific knowledge about the technical publishing market and her lack of field sales experience. In this situation a résumé formatted in the functional style (see pages 524–525) will best highlight her strengths in the areas of marketing, administration, writing, and computers.
- **D** Final Paragraph. Alison takes the initiative in saying she will call to see whether an interview can be arranged. At the same time, she stresses her willingness to focus the interview on how she can help the organization achieve *its* goals and objectives.

#### Follow-Up Letter

#### ALISON L. BUMBRY

 $\mathcal{AB}^{A}$ 

Apartment 145 395 West Center College Street Yellow Springs, Ohio 45387 Phone: 937-555-7944 Fax: 937-555-8341 E-mail: albumbry@aol.com

March 26, 2001

Mr. Oliver Digby Director of Human Resources Hunt and Ketcham Inc. 1228 Euclid Avenue Cleveland, Ohio 44115

Dear Mr. Digby:

- A Thank you for taking the time last Friday to explain why my lack of field sales experience in the technical publishing market would prevent me from being considered for the marketing manager's position at Hunt and Ketcham.
- B Thank you, moreover, for arranging an interview that same day with your director of sales. Ms. Cantrell gave me a very detailed picture of a field rep's responsibilities. She also stated that in light of all my prior experience in educational publishing, I ought to make the transition to technical publishing very easily. I was also encouraged to learn that after a year or two of experience in the field, I would be a strong candidate for any marketing manager's position that might open at that time.
- Ms. Cantrell has promised to let me know within the next four weeks whether she is in a position to offer me a field rep's job. If she does, I very much look forward to seeing you again. In any event, thank you very much for all the help you have given me.

Sincerely,

Alison L. Bumbry

Alison L. Bumbry

- A First Paragraph. Alison thanks the interviewer for clarifying the demands of the job and pointing out where her qualifications fell short.
- **B** Second Paragraph. Alison thanks the interviewer for steering her to another opportunity in the organization and for setting up an interview that same day. (Alison should also send a follow-up letter to the second person who interviewed her.) Note that she reaffirms her hope for a marketing management job in a year or two.
- C Third Paragraph. Alison ends on a warm note, thanking the first interviewer for all his help.

#### **Acceptance Letters**

- 1721 Of all employment communications, this is the most pleasant letter to write. Use this occasion to:
  - a. Formally accept the job.
  - **b.** Confirm the key details of your working arrangements (including starting date) that have been previously discussed. If any of these details are not clear, ask the person who hired you to spell them out.
  - c. Express your pleasure in coming to work for the organization and, more specifically, in working for the person who has offered you the job.

- A First Paragraph. Alison accepts the job with pleasure, both for its immediate opportunities and for its long-term prospects.
- **B** Second Paragraph. Alison uses this paragraph to deal with the technical details involved in starting a new job.
- **C** Third Paragraph. Alison expresses her pleasure (perhaps a bit too effusively) at the prospect of working for the person who has offered her the job.
- **D** Final Paragraph. Alison shows initiative in offering to undertake advance preparation for the job before she officially starts work.

#### Acceptance Letter

#### ALISON L. BUMBRY

AB

Apartment 145 395 West Center College Street Yellow Springs, Ohio 45387 Phone: 937-555-7944 Fax: 937-555-8341 E-mail: albumbry@aol.com

April 30, 2001

Ms. Jennifer Cantrell Director of Sales Hunt and Ketcham Inc. 1228 Euclid Avenue Cleveland, Ohio 44115

Dear Jennifer:

- A I am very pleased to accept the job of field sales representative, with the state of Ohio as my territory. What especially appeals to me is that this job not only represents an excellent opportunity in itself; it provides a springboard for higher-level marketing jobs with Hunt and Ketcham.
- B The materials that Oliver Digby sent me answered all my questions about compensation arrangements and company policies. All the necessary paperwork has now been completed and returned. As I understand it, you want me to start work on June 4, spending the first month in Cleveland for orientation and training. I assume that someone in your department will provide me with information about my accommodations during the month of lune.
- conversations I can tell how supportive you are of the people who report to you. When I think of how much I will learn under your supervision, I realize just how lucky I am to be joining Hunt and Ketcham.
- If there is anything you think I should be reading or doing in the next month, please let me know. I would welcome the chance to get a head start on the job before I actually report for work on June 4.

Sincerely,

Alison L Bumbry

Alison L. Bumbry

#### **Outlines**

- 1722 An outline can be used to *plan* the content and organization of a document. The outline identifies (a) the topics that are to be discussed and (b) the sequence in which they are to be introduced. In some cases, an outline may consist of a simple list of points to be covered. In other cases an outline may contain several levels of subtopics under each main topic (as in the illustrations on pages 539 and 541).
- 1723 After you have finished drafting a document, you can use an outline to *review* the document in terms of content and organization. An outline of this kind typically lists the key words or phrases used as headings throughout the document to identify topics and subtopics as they are each introduced. When you use an outline for reviewing purposes, you can more easily answer questions like these:
  - Have all topics been included?
  - Have all topics been fully developed?
  - Does the heading structure—that is, the sequence of heads—provide a balanced representation of all aspects of the discussion, or are some parts of the text loaded with heads while other parts have very few?
  - Are the heads all worded in a similar way, or are some complete sentences and others simply phrases?
- **1724** a. The outline feature of your word processing software will permit you to create an outline by scrolling through the text and coding (according to level of subordination) every heading in the text. If you later decide to revise the heading structure in the document, you can use the outline feature to generate a new outline to confirm that the document is now better organized.
  - NOTE: The illustration on page 539 shows an outline created by the outline feature (with all the default settings) of Microsoft Word for Windows. Note that the outline is single-spaced throughout. Moreover, note that the indentions established for each level of heading are based on preset tabs and do not permit the start of each new level of heading to align with the first word in the level above.
  - b. When you are creating an outline for your own use (say, for planning or reviewing purposes), an outline produced by the outline feature is quite acceptable. However, if the outline will be part of a formal document, you should consider using a more readable format with a more open look and a standard pattern of alignments. (See ¶1725 and the illustration on page 541.)
- **1725** If you want to devise your own format for an outline, consider these guidelines and the illustration on page 541.
  - a. Margins. Use default side and bottom margins. Space down 6 times from the default top margin of 1 inch to create a top margin of about 2 inches; leave a top margin of only 1 inch if doing so will prevent the outline from taking a second page. A one-page outline may also be centered vertically on the page.
  - b. Heading. Type the title in all-capital letters, and use capital and small letters for the other lines. Use boldface for the complete heading or, if you prefer, for the title alone. Leave 1 blank line between lines in the heading, and leave 2 blank lines below the last line of the heading.

Text continues on page 540

#### Outline Format Using the Outline Feature of Microsoft Word for Windows

#### EQUIPMENT AND SOFTWARE

Orientation for Department Staff

```
INTRODUCTION
```

II. EQUIPMENT AND SOFTWARE

Equipment

Î. Computer

a) Drives

(I) Types

(a) Hard

(b) Floppy

(2) Capacity

(a) Hard (b) Floppy

b) RAM

Monitor

3. Modem

Mouse

Printer 5.

6. Scanner

Software

System

a) MS-DOS

b) MS-Windows

c) Other

Applications

a) Standalones

(I) Database

(2) Spreadsheet (3) Word Processing

(4) Other

b) Suites

Registration procedure 3.

a) Fax

b) Mail c) Online

#### HI. **OPERATION**

Startup A.

Start/Quit a Program B.

C. Get Help

Modifications D.

System Settings

2. New Programs

Shut Down

- **c.** Enumerations. The numbers or letters that identify the items at different levels in an outline should all be followed by a period and 1 or 2 spaces. At the first four levels, align the numbers or letters on the period.
- **d. Capitalization.** Use all-capital letters for first-level items (those preceded by roman numerals). Use capital and small letters for items at all lower levels.
- e. Indentions. When using roman numerals to identify first-level items, start the widest numeral (III or VIII, for example) at the left margin. Align all the other roman numerals on the period. Align the second level of items (those beginning with A and B) on the first word after the roman I. Align the third level of items (those beginning with 1 and 2) on the first word after A in the second level. However, if the third level of items has more than nine entries, align the number 10 on the first word after A in the second level; then align all the single-digit numbers on the period following 10.
- **f.** Spacing Between Items. Leave 2 blank lines above and 1 blank line below each first-level item. For all other levels, use single spacing with no blank lines between items.
- 1726 The use of numbers and letters with the items in an outline indicates the relative importance of these items to one another. The illustration on page 541 shows six levels of heads, but many outlines do not require that many and a few may require more.
  - **a.** In the illustration on page 541, the first level of items is identified by roman numerals, the second by capital letters, the third by arabic numerals, the fourth by small letters, the fifth by arabic numerals in parentheses, and the sixth by small letters in parentheses.
  - **b.** At least two items are needed for each level used in an outline. If your outline shows a roman I at the first level, it must also show a roman II; if you use a capital A at the second level, you must also use a capital B; and so on.
- 1727 The outline feature of your word processing software may also be used to create a table of contents and a list of tables or illustrations. (See ¶¶1416–1417.)

# **Guidelines for Designing Forms**

**1728** When you are designing a form with fill-in lines:

- a. Lay out the fill-in lines so that most entries—and preferably all entries—can start at the same point. Reducing the number of tab stops required makes the task of filling out the form a great deal easier. See, for example, the design of the fax cover sheet on page 511, which permits all entries to begin at the same point.
- **b.** Use double spacing between the fill-in lines, and make the lines long enough to accommodate handwritten as well as typed entries.
- **c.** In any case, use equal vertical space between the fill-in lines. In that way no adjustment in line spacing will be required when the fill-in entries are inserted.

#### Standard Outline Format

```
EQUIPMENT AND SOFTWARE $2x
                      Orlentation for Department Staff
     INTRODUCTION
                       3x
     EQUIPMENT AND SOFTWARE $\daggeq 2x
П.
     A. Equipment
        I. Computer
            a. Drives
              (I) Types
                   (a) Hard
                   (b) Floppy
               (2) Capacity
                        Hard
                   (a)
                       Floppy
                   (b)
           b. RAM
        2. Monitor
        3. Modem
           Mouse
        5. Printer
        6. Scanner
     B. Software
        1. System
            a. MS-DOS
           b. MS-Windows
           c. Other
        2. Applications
           a. Standalones
              (I) Database
                   Spreadsheet
               (2)
               (3)
                   Word Processing
              (4) Other
           b. Suites
        3. Registration procedure
           a. Fax
           b. Mail
           c. Online
                      3x
     OPERATION ↓ 2x
III.
     A. Startup
     B. Start/Quit a Program
```

1729 When you are designing a multicolumn form, look for ways to reduce the number of tab stops required to fill in the form. For example, arrange the top of the form so that any entries to be inserted in the heading can start at the same point as entries in one of the columns below.

# SECTION 18

# Forms of Address

Individuals (¶1801)

Man With Courtesy Title (¶1801a)

Woman—Courtesy Title Preference Known (¶1801b)

Woman—Courtesy Title Preference Unknown (¶1801c)

Individual—Name Known, Gender Unknown (¶1801d)

Individual—Name Unknown, Gender Known (¶1801e)

Individual—Name and Gender Unknown (¶1801f)

Two Men (¶1801g)

Two Women (¶1801h)

Woman and Man—No Personal Relationship (¶1801i)

Couples (¶1802)

Married Couple With Same Surname—No Special Titles (¶1802a)

Married Couple With Same Surname—Husband Has Special Title (¶1802b)

Married Couple With Same Surname—Wife Has Special Title (¶1802c)

Married Couple With Same Surname—Both Have Special Titles (¶1802d)

Married Couple With Different Surnames (¶1802e)

Married Couple With Hyphenated Surname (¶1802f)

Unmarried Couple Living Together (¶1802g)

Organizations (¶1803)

Organization of Women and Men (¶1803a)

Organization of Women (¶1803b)

Organization of Men (¶1803c)

Professionals (¶1804)

Lawyers (¶1804a)

Physicians and Others With Doctoral Degrees (¶1804b)

Education Officials (¶1805)

President of College or University (¶1805a)

Dean of College or University (¶1805b)

Professor (¶1805c)

Superintendent of Schools (¶1805d)

Member of Board of Education (¶1805e)

Principal (¶1805f)

Teacher (¶1805g)

#### Government Officials (¶1806)

President of the United States (¶1806a)

Vice President of the United States (¶1806b)

Cabinet Member (¶1806c)

United States Senator (¶1806d)

United States Representative (¶1806e)

Chief Justice of the United States (¶1806f)

Associate Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court (¶1806g)

Judge of Federal, State, or Local Court (¶1806h)

Governor (¶1806i)

State Senator (¶1806j)

State Representative or Assembly Member (¶1806k)

Mayor (¶1806l)

#### Diplomats (¶1807)

Secretary General of the United Nations (¶1807a)

Ambassador to the United States (¶1807b)

Minister to the United States (¶1807c)

American Ambassador (¶1807d)

#### Members of the Armed Services (¶1808)

Army, Air Force, and Marine Corps Officers (¶1808a)

Navy and Coast Guard Officers (¶1808b)

Enlisted Personnel (¶1808c)

#### Roman Catholic Dignitaries (¶1809)

Pope (¶1809a)

Cardinal (¶1809b)

Archbishop and Bishop (¶1809c)

Monsignor (¶1809d)

Priest (¶1809e)

Mother Superior (¶1809f)

Sister (¶1809g)

Brother (¶1809h)

#### Protestant Dignitaries (¶1810)

Protestant Episcopal Bishop (¶1810a)

Protestant Episcopal Dean (¶1810b)

Methodist Bishop (¶1810c)

Minister With Doctor's Degree (¶1810d)

Minister Without Doctor's Degree (¶1810e)

#### Jewish Dignitaries (¶1811)

Rabbi With Doctor's Degree (¶1811a)

Rabbi Without Doctor's Degree (¶1811b)

The following forms are correct for addressing letters to individuals, couples, organizations, professional people, education officials, government officials, diplomats, military personnel, and religious dignitaries. Some writers now omit courtesy titles with the names of individuals and married couples. For examples, see ¶¶1323d, 1349a, 1366a.

**IMPORTANT NOTE:** In the salutations that follow the forms of address, the most formal one is listed first. Unless otherwise indicated, the ellipsis marks in the salutation stand for the surname alone.

Because of space limitations, only the masculine forms of address have been given in some illustrations. When an office or a position is held by a woman, make the following substitutions:

For Sir, use Madam.

For *Mr.* followed by a name (for example, *Mr. Wyatt*), use *Miss, Mrs., or Ms.,* whichever is appropriate.

For His. use Her.

For *Mr.* followed by a title (for example, *Mr. President, Mr. Secretary, Mr. Mayor*), use *Madam*.

> For a detailed discussion of how to construct inside addresses, see ¶¶1317–1343; for further information on salutations, see ¶¶1346–1351; for details on how to handle addresses on envelopes, see ¶¶1389–1390.

#### 1801 Individuals

#### a. Man With Courtesy Title

Mr. . . . (full name) Address Dear Mr. . . . :

#### b. Woman—Courtesy Title Preference Known

Ms. (or Miss or Mrs.) . . . (full name) Address

Dear Ms. (or Miss or Mrs.) . . . :

**NOTE:** Always use the title that a woman prefers.

#### c. Woman—Courtesy Title Preference Unknown

Ms. . . . (full name) Address

Dear Ms. . . . :

**OR:** ... (full name with no title)
Address

Dear . . . (first name and surname):

#### d. Individual—Name Known, Gender Unknown

. . . (full name with no title)
Address

Dear . . . (first name or initials plus surname):

#### e. Individual—Name Unknown, Gender Known

... (title of individual)
... (name of organization)
Address

Madam: Dear Madam:

on: Sir: Dear Sir:

#### f. Individual—Name and Gender Unknown

... (title of individual)
... (name of organization)

Address

Sir or Madam: Dear Sir or Madam:

**OR:** Madam or Sir: Dear Madam or Sir:

#### g. Two Men

Mr. ... (full name) Mr. ... (full name)

Address

Gentlemen:

Dear Messrs. ... and ...: (see ¶1349)

Dear Mr. ... and Mr. ...:

#### h. Two Women

Ms. ... (full name) Ms. ... (full name)

Address

Dear Mses. (or Mss.) . . . and . . . : Dear Ms. . . . and Ms. . . . :

Mrs. ... (full name) OR: Mrs. ... (full name)

Address

Dear Mesdames ... and ...: (see ¶1349) Dear Mrs. ... and Mrs. ...:

Miss ... (full name) OR: Miss . . . (full name)

Address

Dear Misses . . . and . . . : Dear Miss . . . and Miss . . . :

Ms. ... (full name) OR: Mrs. ... (full name) Address

Dear Ms. ... and Mrs. ...:

Miss . . . (full name) OR: Ms. ... (full name) Address Dear Miss . . . and Ms. . . . :

Mrs. ... (full name) Miss ... (full name) Address

Dear Mrs. ... and Miss ...:

#### i. Woman and Man-No Personal Relationship

Ms. (or Mrs. or Miss) . . . (full name) Mr. ... (full name) Address

Dear Ms. (or Mrs. or Miss) . . . and Mr. ...:

OR: Mr. ... (full name)

> Ms. (or Mrs. or Miss) . . . (full name) Address

Dear Mr. . . . and Ms. (or Mrs. OR Miss) ...:

NOTE: When addressing a widow, choose the form for the inside address and the salutation that the widow uses in her signature line. (See ¶1366e for examples of the various styles that a widow has to choose from.)

#### 1802 Couples

#### a. Married Couple With Same Surname—No Special Titles

Mr. and Mrs. ... (husband's full name) Address

Dear Mr. and Mrs. ... Thusband's surname):

... (wife's first name) and OR: ... (husband's first name and surname) (see ¶1323d) Address

> Dear . . . (wife's first name) and ... (husband's first name and surname):

... (husband's first name) and ... OR: (wife's first name) . . . (husband's surname) Address

> Dear . . . (husband's first name) and ... (wife's first name) ... (husband's surname):

#### b. Married Couple With Same Surname—Husband Has Special Title

Dr. and Mrs. ... (husband's full name) Address

Dear Dr. and Mrs. . . . (husband's surname):

#### c. Married Couple With Same Surname-Wife Has Special Title

Senator . . . (wife's full name) Mr. ... (husband's full name) Address

Dear Senator and Mr. ... (husband's surname):

#### d. Married Couple With Same Surname—Both Have Special Titles

Dr. . . . (wife's full name) Dr. ... (husband's full name)

Address

Dear Drs. . . . (husband's surname):

Captain . . . (husband's full name) OR: Professor . . . (wife's full name) Address

Dear Captain and Professor . . . (husband's surname):

#### e. Married Couple With Different Surnames

Ms. (or Miss) . . . (wife's full name) Mr. ... (husband's full name) Address

Dear Ms. (or Miss) . . . (wife's surname) and Mr. ... (husband's surname):

Mr. . . . (husband's full name) OR: Ms. (or Miss) . . . (wife's full name) Address

Dear Mr. . . . (husband's surname) and Ms. (or Miss) . . . (wife's surname):

NOTE: If either spouse has a special title (like those shown in ¶1802b-d), use that special title here as well.

#### f. Married Couple With Hyphenated Surname

Mr. and Mrs. . . . (husband's first name and middle initial, plus wife's original surname followed by hyphen and husband's surname)

Address

Dear Mr. and Mrs. . . . (wife's original surname followed by hyphen and husband's surname):

#### g. Unmarried Couple Living Together

Ms. (or Miss) . . . (full name) Mr. ... (full name) Address

Dear Ms. (or Miss) . . . and Mr. . . . :

Mr. ... (full name) OR: Ms. (or Miss) . . . (full name) Address Dear Mr. ... and Ms. (or Miss) ...:

#### **1803** Organizations

#### a. Organization of Women and Men

... (name of organization) Address

Ladies and Gentlemen: Gentlemen and Ladies: Dear . . . (name of organization): (see ¶1350c)

*See the note at the top of page 544.

Mr. ... (name of organization head)* President (or other appropriate title) ... (name of organization) Address

Dear Mr. . . :*

Chief Executive Officer (or other appropriate title) . . . (name of organization)

Address

Sir or Madam: Madam or Sir: Dear Sir or Madam: Dear Madam or Sir:

#### b. Organization of Women

. . . (name of organization) Address Mesdames: (see ¶1349)

Ladies:

#### c. Organization of Men

... (name of organization) Address Gentlemen:

#### **1804** Professionals

#### a. Lawyers

Mr. ... (full name)* Attorney-at-Law Address

OR: ... (full name), Esq.+ Address Dear Mr. . . . :*

#### b. Physicians and Others With **Doctoral Degrees**

Dr. ... (full name) Address

... (full name), M.D.+ OR: Address Dear Dr. . . . :

#### **1805** Education Officials

#### a. President of College or University

... (full name, followed by comma and highest degree) President, . . . (name of college) Address

^{*}When an abbreviation such as Esq., M.D., or Ph.D. follows a name, do not use a courtesy title such as Mr., Ms., or Dr. before the name. (See also ¶¶518c, 519c.)

OR: Dr. . . . (full name)
President, . . . (name of college)
Address

OR: President . . . (full name) . . . (name of college) Address

Dear President . . . : Dear Dr. . . . :

#### b. Dean of College or University

... (full name, followed by comma and highest degree)

Dean, ... (name of school or division)

... (name of college)

Address

OR: Dr. . . . (full name)
Dean, . . . (name of school or division)
. . . (name of college)
Address

OR: Dean . . . (full name)
. . . (name of school or division)
. . . (name of college)
Address

Dear Dean . . . :

#### c. Professor

Professor . . . (full name)
Department of . . . (subject)
. . . (name of college)
Address

OR: ... (full name, followed by comma and highest degree)

Department of (OR Professor of) ... (subject)
... (name of collegé)

Address

OR: Dr. (OR Mr.) . . . (full name)*

Department of (OR Professor of) . . . (subject)
. . . (name of college)

Address

Dear Professor . . . :

#### d. Superintendent of Schools

Dear Dr. (or Mr.) . . . :*

Mr. (or Dr.) ... (full name)*
Superintendent of ...
(name of city) Schools
Address
Dear Mr. (or Dr.) ...:*

#### e. Member of Board of Education

Mr. . . . (full name)*
Member, . . . (name of city) Board of
Education
Address
Dear Mr. . . . . *

#### f. Principal

Mr. (or Dr.) . . . (full name)*
Principal, . . . (name of school)
Address
Dear Mr. . . . . *

Dear Mr. . . . : Dear Dr. . . . :

#### g. Teacher

Mr. (OR Dr.) (full name)*
... (name of school)
Address
Dear Mr. ...:*
Dear Dr. ...:

#### **1806** Government Officials

#### a. President of the United States

The President The White House Washington, DC 20500

Mr. President:*
Dear Mr. President:*

#### b. 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 20510

Dear Mr. Vice President:*

#### c. Cabinet Member

The Honorable . . . (full name) Secretary of . . . (department) Washington, DC ZIP Code

Dear Mr. Secretary:*

#### d. United States Senator

The Honorable . . . (full name)
United States Senate
Washington, DC 20510

^{*}See the note at the top of page 544.

[†]When an abbreviation such as Esq., M.D., or Ph.D. follows a name, do not use a courtesy title such as Mr., Ms., or Dr. before the name. (See also \$\pi 1518c, 519c.)

Continued on page 548

OR: The Honorable . . . (full name)
United States Senator
Local address

Dear Senator . . . :

#### e. United States Representative

The Honorable . . . (full name) House of Representatives Washington, DC 20515

**OR:** The Honorable . . . (full name)
Representative in Congress
Local address

Dear Representative . . . :
Dear Mr. . . . *

#### f. Chief Justice of the United States

The Chief Justice of the United States (see ¶313b)
Washington, DC 20543

OR: The Chief Justice
The Supreme Court
Washington, DC 20543
Dear Mr. Chief Justice:*

# g. Associate Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court

Mr. Justice . . . (last name only)*
The Supreme Court
Washington, DC 20543

Dear Mr. Justice:*
Dear Justice . . . :

#### h. Judge of Federal, State, or Local Court

The Honorable . . . (full name)
Judge of the . . . (name of court)
Address

Dear Judge . . . :

#### i. Governor

The Honorable . . . (full name)
Governor of . . . (state)
State Capital, State ZIP Code
Dear Governor . . . :

#### i. State Senator

The Honorable . . . (full name)
The State Senate
State Capital, State ZIP Code
Dear Senator . . . :

#### *See the note at the top of page 544.

# k. State Representative or Assembly Member

The Honorable . . . (full name)
House of Representatives
(or The State Assembly)
State Capital, State ZIP Code

Dear Mr. . . . :*

#### 1. Mayor

The Honorable . . . (full name)
Mayor of . . . (city)
City, State ZIP Code

**OR:** The Mayor of the City of . . . City, State ZIP Code

Dear Mr. Mayor:* Dear Mayor . . . :

#### **1807** Diplomats

# a. Secretary General of the United Nations

His Excellency . . . (full name)*
Secretary General of the United Nations
United Nations Plaza

New York, NY 10017 Excellency:

Dear Mr. Secretary General:*
Dear Mr. . . . . *

#### b. Ambassador to the United States

His Excellency . . . (full name)*
Ambassador of . . . (country)
Address

Excellency:

Dear Mr. Ambassador:*

#### c. Minister to the United States

The Honorable . . . (full name) Minister of . . . (department) Address

Sir:*

Dear Mr. Minister:*

#### d. American Ambassador

The Honorable . . . (full name)
American Ambassador
(OR The Ambassador of the United
States of America)
Foreign address of U.S. Embassy

Sir:*

Dear Mr. Ambassador:*

# SSB

# 1808 Members of the Armed Services

The addresses of both officers and enlisted personnel in the armed services should include title or rank and full name followed by a comma and the initials USA, USN, USAF, USMC, or USCG. Below are some specific examples with appropriate salutations.

#### a. Army, Air Force, and Marine Corps Officers

Lieutenant General . . . (full name), USA (or USAF or USMC) Address

Dear General . . . :†

(NOT: Dear Lieutenant General . . . :)

#### b. Navy and Coast Guard Officers

Rear Admiral . . . (full name), USN (or USCG) Address

Dear Admiral . . . : +

#### c. Enlisted Personnel

Sergeant . . . (full name), USA Address

on: Seaman . . . (full name), USN Address

Dear Sergeant (or Seaman) . . . :

#### **1809** Roman Catholic Dignitaries

#### a. Pope

His Holiness the Pope

OR: His Holiness Pope . . . (given name)
Vatican City
00187 Rome

ITALY

Your Holiness: Most Holy Father:

#### b. Cardinal

His Eminence . . . (given name)
Cardinal . . . (surname)
Archbishop of . . . (place)
Address

Your Eminence: Dear Cardinal . . . :

#### c. Archbishop and Bishop

The Most Reverend . . . (full name) Archbishop (or Bishop) of . . . (place) Address

Your Excellency: Dear Archbishop (or Bishop) . . . :

#### d. Monsignor

The Reverend Monsignor . . . (full name)
Address

Reverend Monsignor: Dear Monsignor . . . :

#### e. Priest

The Reverend . . . (full name, followed by comma and initials of order)

Address

Reverend Father: Dear Father . . . : Dear Father:

#### f. Mother Superior

The Reverend Mother Superior Address

**or:** Reverend Mother . . . (name, followed by comma and initials of order)

Address

Reverend Mother: Dear Reverend Mother: Dear Mother . . . :

#### g. Sister

Sister . . . (name, followed by comma and initials of order)

Address

Dear Sister . . . : Dear Sister:

#### h. Brother

Brother . . . (name, followed by comma and initials of order)

Address

Dear Brother . . . : Dear Brother:

^{*}See the note at the top of page 544.

^{*}Use the salutation *Dear General* . . . whether the officer is a full general or only a lieutenant general, a major general, or a brigadier general. Similarly, use *Dear Colonel* . . . for either a full colonel or a lieutenant colonel and *Dear Lieutenant* . . . for a first or a second lieutenant. Use *Dear Admiral* . . . for a full admiral, a vice admiral, or a rear admiral.

#### **1810** Protestant Dignitaries

a. Protestant Episcopal Bishop

The Right Reverend . . . (full name) Bishop of . . . (place) Address

Dear Bishop . . . :

b. Protestant Episcopal Dean

The Very Reverend . . . (full name) Dean of . . . (place) Address

Dear Dean . . . :

c. Methodist Bishop

The Reverend . . . (full name) Bishop of . . . (place) Address

**OR:** Bishop . . . (full name) Address

Dear Bishop . . . :

d. Minister With Doctor's Degree

The Reverend Dr. . . . (full name) Address OR: The Reverend . . . (full name), D.D. Address

Dear Dr. . . . :

e. Minister Without Doctor's Degree

The Reverend . . . (full name) Address

Dear Mr. . . . :*

#### **1811** Jewish Dignitaries

a. Rabbi With Doctor's Degree

Rabbi . . . *(full name)*, D.D. Address

OR: Dr. . . . (full name) Address Dear Rabbi (OR Dr.) . . . :

b. Rabbi Without Doctor's Degree

Rabbi . . . (full name) Address Dear Rabbi . . . :

*See the note at the top of page 544.



# PART 3

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# APPENDIX A

# **GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS**

Active verb. See Voice. active.

**Adjective.** A word that answers the question what kind (excellent results), how many (four laptops), 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 (loose cannon) or a pronoun (unlucky me, I was wrong).

Adjective, predicate. See Complement.

**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. (See also Clause, adverbial.)

We closed the deal *quickly*. (Modifies the verb *closed*.)
Caroline seemed *genuinely* pleased. (Modifies the adjective *pleased*.)
My presentation went *surprisingly* well. (Modifies the adverb *well*.)

**Adverbial conjunctive (or connective).** An adverb that connects the main clauses of a compound sentence; for example, *however, therefore, nevertheless, hence, moreover, otherwise, consequently.* Also referred to as a *conjunctive adverb* or a *transitional expression*. (See also ¶¶138a, 178.)

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 a home has its advantages. (Owning a 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. Mancuso, our chief financial officer, would like to meet you.

**Article.** Considered an adjective. The *definite* article is *the*; the *indefinite* articles are a and an. (For a usage note on a-an, see pages 281–282.)

Auxiliary verb. See Verb, helping.

**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, possessive, and objective. *Nouns* have the same form in the nominative and objective cases but a special ending for the possessive. (See ¶¶627–652.) The forms for *pronouns* are:

Nominative	Possessive	Objective
I	my, mine	me
you	your, yours	you
he, she, it	his, hers, its	him, her, it
we	our, ours	us
they	their, theirs	them
who	whose	whom

Nominative case. Used for the subject or the complement of a verb.

She publishes a newsletter. (Subject.)

The person who called you was *l.* (Complement.)

Possessive case. Used to show ownership and other relationships. (See ¶¶627–652, especially the examples in ¶627.)

Your copy of the report contains a statistical analysis. Mine doesn't.

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, and (5) the complement of the infinitive to be.

Can you help us this weekend? (Object of the verb help.)

Brenda has not written to me. (Object of the preposition to.)

I encouraged *her* to enter the biathlon. (Subject of the infinitive *to enter.*)

William promised to call me but he didn't. (Object of the infinitive to call.)

They believed me to be her. (Complement of the infinitive to be.)

Clause. A group of related words containing 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).

Their bill, which includes servicing, seems reasonable. (Modifies bill.)

**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 live 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 fill your order now. (Reason.)

**Coordinate clauses.** Clauses of the same rank—independent or dependent.

Carl will oversee the day-to-day operations, and Sheila will be responsible for the finances. (Coordinate independent clauses.)

When you have read the user's manual and you have mastered all the basic operations, try to deal with these special applications. (Coordinate dependent clauses.)

Elliptical clause. A clause from which key words have been omitted (See ¶¶101b-c, 111, 119, 130b, and 1082d.)

> Now, for the next topic. Really? If possible, arrive at one.

Essential (restrictive) clause. A dependent clause that cannot be omitted without changing the meaning of the main (independent) clause. Essential clauses are not set off by commas.

The magazine that came yesterday contains an evaluation of new software.

Nonessential (nonrestrictive) clause. A dependent clause that adds descriptive information but could be omitted without changing the meaning of the main (independent) clause. Such clauses are separated or set off from the main clause by commas.

> She has had a lot of success with her latest book, which deals with corporate finance. Her latest book, which deals with corporate financial analysis, 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.)

Then he said, "Who gave you that information?" (Noun clause as object.)



**Comparison.** The forms of an adjective or adverb that indicate degrees in quality, quantity, or manner. The degrees are positive, comparative, and superlative. (See ¶1071.)

**Positive.** The simple form; for example, new, efficient (adjectives); soon, quietly (adverbs).

**Comparative.** Indicates a higher or lower degree of quality or manner than is expressed by the positive degree. The comparative is used when two things are compared and is regularly formed by adding *er* to the positive degree (*newer*, *sooner*). In longer words the comparative is formed by adding *more* or *less* to the positive (*more efficient*, *less efficient*; *more quietly*, *less quietly*).

**Superlative.** Denotes the highest or lowest degree of quality or manner. The superlative is used when more than two things are compared and is regularly formed by adding *est* to the positive degree (newest, soonest). In longer words the superlative is formed by adding most or least to the positive (most efficient, least efficient; most quietly, least quietly).

**Complement.** A word or phrase that completes the sense of the verb. It may be an object, a predicate noun, a predicate pronoun, or a predicate adjective.

**Object.** Follows a transitive verb. (See Verb.)

I have already drafted the contract.

**Predicate noun or pronoun.** Follows a linking verb (such as is, are, was, were, will be, has been, could be). It explains the subject and is identical with it. (Also called a predicate complement, subject complement, and predicate nominative.)

Miss Kwong is our new *accountant*. (Accountant refers to Miss Kwong.)

The person responsible for the decision was I. (The pronoun I refers to person.)

Predicate adjective. Completes the sense of a linking verb. (Also called a predicate complement.)

These charges are excessive. (The adjective excessive refers to charges.)

**NOTE:** In this manual, the term *complement* is used to refer only to a predicate noun, pronoun, or adjective following a linking verb. The term *object* is used to denote the complement of a transitive verb.

**Compound adjective.** A phrase or clause that qualifies, limits, or restricts the meaning of a word. Also referred to as a *compound modifier*. (See also ¶¶813–832.)

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.** Conjunctions consisting of two elements that are used in pairs; for example, both . . . and, not only . . . but (also), either . . . or, neither . . . nor.

**Subordinating conjunction.** Used to join a dependent clause to a main (independent) clause; for example, when, where, after, before, if. (See ¶132.)

Conjunctive adverb. See Adverbial conjunctive.

**Connective.** A word that joins words, phrases, or clauses. The chief types of 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). (See also Vowels.)

**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*. (See ¶505b-e.)

Dangling modifier. A modifier that is attached either to no word in a sentence or to the wrong word. (See Modifier and ¶¶1082-1086.)

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; for example, if necessary (for if it is necessary). (See ¶¶101b-c, 111, 119a; see also Clause; Sentence.)

Essential elements. Words, phrases, or clauses needed to complete the structure or 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, he), feminine (woman, girl, she), or neuter (book, concept, it). Nouns that refer to either males or females have common gender (berson, child).

**Gerund.** A verb form ending in *ing* and used as a *noun*.

Selling requires special skills. (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 either 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  $\P\P1044-1046$ ). An infinitive may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. (See Phrase.)

> To find affordable housing these days is not easy. (Subject.) NOUN:

> > She is trying to do a hatchet job on my proposal. (Object.)

I still have two more contracts to draft. (Modifies contracts.) ADJECTIVE:

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.

> Wow! What a weekend! Oh, so that's what he meant.

Modifier. A word, phrase, or clause that qualifies, limits, or restricts the meaning of a word. (See Adjective; Adverb; Compound adjective; Dangling modifier; Squinting 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.

Our lease has expired. When does our lease expire?

Imperative. Expresses a command or makes a request.

Call me next week. Please send me your latest catalog.

Subjunctive. Used in dependent clauses following main (independent) clauses expressing necessity, demand, or wishing (see \$\pi 1038-1039); also used in if, as if, and as though clauses that state conditions which are improbable, doubtful, or contrary to fact (see \$\pi 1040-1043).

> I demand that we be heard. It is imperative that he be notified. We urge that she be elected. If he were appointed. I would guit.

I wish I were going. If she had known, she would have written.

A

Nominative case. See Case, nominative.

**Nonessential elements.** Words, phrases, or clauses that are not needed to complete the structure or 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, places, or things; for example, *child*, *house*. (See  $\P 307-310$ .)

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: beeper, beepers

PRONOUN: she, they

VERB: (she) works, (they) work

**Object.** The person or thing that receives the action of a transitive verb. An object may be a word, a phrase, or a clause. (See *Case, objective*.)

I need a new laptop computer. (Word.)

She prefers to work with hard copy. (Infinitive phrase.)

We did not realize that your deadline was so tight. (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 be made the object of the preposition *to* or *for*.

Molly gave (to) me a hard time about my sales performance this guarter.

**Ordinal number.** The form of a number that indicates order or succession; for example, *first*, *second*, *twelfth* or *1st*, *2d*, *12th*. (See ¶¶424–426.)

**Parenthetical elements.** Words, phrases, or clauses that are not necessary to complete the structure or the meaning of a sentence.

Gina Sala, my wife's older sister, is my accountant.

**Participle.** A word that may stand alone as an adjective or may be combined with helping (auxiliary) 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 written). (See ¶1030a-b.)

**Perfect participle.** Consists of having plus the past participle; for example, having asked, having lost.

When a participle functions as an adjective, it modifies a noun or a pronoun.

The coming year poses some new challenges. (Modifies year.)

Having retired last year, I now do volunteer work. (Modifies /.)

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 thrase.

> Seizing the opportunity, Orzo offered to buy the business. (Opportunity is the object of seizing.) Moving aggressively, we can control the market, (Aggressively modifies moving.)

Dangling participle. A participial phrase attached either to no word in a sentence or to the wrong word. (See Phrase and ¶1082a.)

Parts of speech. The eight classes into which words are grouped according to their uses in a sentence: verb, noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, conjunction, preposition, and interjection.

Passive verb. See Voice, passive.

**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.

	Singular	Plural
FIRST PERSON:	/ like this book.	We like this book.
SECOND PERSON:	You like this book.	You like this book.
THIRD PERSON:	She likes this book.	They like this book.

**Phrase.** A group of two or more words without a subject and a predicate; used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. (See Predicate.)

**Noun phrase.** A phrase that functions as a noun (such as a gerund phrase, an infinitive phrase, or a prepositional phrase).

I like running my own business. (Gerund phrase as object.)

To provide the best possible service is our goal. (Infinitive phrase as subject.)

Before 9 a.m. is the best time to call me. (Prepositional phrase as subject.)

**Adjective phrase.** A phrase that functions as an adjective (such as an infinitive phrase, a participial phrase, or a prepositional phrase).

The time *to act* is now! (Infinitive phrase indicating what kind of time.)

**Adverbial phrase.** A phrase that functions as an adverb (such as an infinitive phrase or a prepositional phrase).

Let's plan to meet after lunch. (Prepositional phrase indicating when to meet.)

**Gerund phrase.** A gerund plus its object and modifiers; used as a noun.

Delaying payments to your suppliers will prove costly. (Gerund phrase as subject.)

**Infinitive phrase.** An infinitive plus its object and modifiers; may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. An infinitive phrase that is attached to either no word in a sentence or to the wrong word is called a dangling infinitive. (See ¶1082b.)

> To get TF's okay on this purchase order took some doing. (As a noun; serves as subject of the verb took.)

> The decision to close the Morrisville plant was not made easily. (As an adjective; tells what kind of decision.)

Janice resigned to open her own business. (As an adverb; tells why Janice resigned.)

NOTE: An infinitive phrase, unlike other phrases, may sometimes have a subject. This subject precedes the infinitive and is in the objective case.

I have asked her to review this draft for accuracy. (Her is the subject of to review.)

Participial phrase. A participle and its object and modifiers; used as an adjective.

The committee *considering your proposal* should come to a decision this week. I prefer the cover sample *printed in blue and yellow*.

**Prepositional phrase.** A preposition and its object and modifiers; may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

From Boston to Tulsa is about 1550 miles. (As a noun; serves as subject of is.)

Profits in the automobile industry are up sharply this quarter. (As an adjective; indicates which type of profits.)

You handled Dr. Waterman's objections with great skill. (As an adverb; indicates the manner in which the objections were handled.)

**Prepositional-gerund phrase.** A phrase that begins with a preposition and has a gerund as the object. (See *Gerund* and ¶1082c.)

By rechecking these figures before you release them, you deal with any questions raised by higher management. (By is the preposition; rechecking, a gerund, is the object of by.)

**Essential (restrictive) phrase.** A phrase that limits, defines, or identifies; cannot be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence.

The study analyzing our competitors' promotion activities will be finished within the next two weeks

**Nonessential (nonrestrictive) phrase.** A phrase that can be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence.

The Stanforth-Palmer Company, one of the country's largest financial services organizations, is expanding into satellite communications.

**Verb phrase.** This term is often used to indicate the individual words that make up the verb in a sentence. Sometimes the verb phrase includes an adverb. A verb phrase can function only 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, positive.

Possessive case. See Case, possessive.

**Predicate.** That part of a sentence which tells what the subject does or what is done to the subject or what state of being the subject is in. (See also *Verb.*)

**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. A predicate consisting of two or more predicates joined by conjunctions.

Barbara has handled the job well and deserves a good deal of praise.

Predicate adjective. See Complement.

Predicate nominative. 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 (such as *from, to, in, on, of, at, by, for, with*) that shows the relationship between a noun or pronoun and some other word in the sentence. The noun or pronoun following a preposition is in the objective case. (See ¶¶1077–1080.)

Martin's work was reviewed by Hedley and 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, himself, herself, ourselves, themselves, etc.

INTERROGATIVE:

who, which, what, etc.

PERSONAL:

I, you, he, she, it, we, they, etc.

RELATIVE:

who, whose, whom, which, that, and compounds such as whoever

Punctuation. Marks used to indicate relationships between words, phrases, and clauses.

**Terminal (end) punctuation.** The period, the question mark, and the exclamation point—the three marks that may indicate the end of a sentence.

**NOTE:** When a sentence breaks off abruptly, a dash may be used to mark the end of the sentence (see ¶207). When a sentence trails off without really ending, ellipsis marks (three spaced periods) are used to mark the end of the sentence (see ¶291a).

**Internal punctuation.** Commas, semicolons, colons, dashes, parentheses, quotation marks, apostrophes, ellipsis marks, asterisks, diagonals, and brackets are the most common marks of internal punctuation.

#### Question.

Direct question. A question in its original form, as spoken or written.

He then asked me, "What is your opinion?"

**Indirect question.** A restatement 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 quotation.** A quotation of words exactly as spoken or written.

I myself heard Ed say, "I will arrive in Santa Fe on Tuesday."

**Indirect quotation.** A restatement of a quotation without the use of the exact words of the speaker.

I myself heard Ed say that he would arrive in Santa Fe on Tuesday.

**Sentence.** A group of words representing a complete thought and containing a subject and a predicate (a verb 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 (also called the *main clause*) and one or more dependent clauses.

We will make an exception to the policy 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.

**Elliptical sentence.** A word or phrase treated as a complete sentence, even though the subject and verb are understood but not expressed. (See ¶¶101b–c, 111, 119a.)

Enough on that subject.

Why not?

**Declarative sentence.** A sentence that makes a statement.

Our company is continually testing cutting-edge technologies.

Interrogative sentence. A sentence that asks a question.

When will the conference begin?

**Exclamatory sentence.** A sentence that expresses strong feeling.

Don't even think of smoking here!

**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 let us hear from you.

Sentence fragment. A phrase or clause that is incorrectly treated as a sentence. (See ¶101c.)

**Squinting modifier.** A modifier placed in such a way that it can be interpreted as modifying either what precedes or what follows. (See ¶1087.)

**Statement.** A sentence that asserts a fact. (See also Sentence.)

**Subject.** A word, phrase, or clause that names the person, place, or thing about which something is said. (See *Case, nominative.*)

The law firm with the best reputation in town is Barringer and Doyle.

Whoever applies for the job from within the department will get special consideration.

**Compound subject.** Two or more subjects joined by a conjunction.

My wife and my three sons are off on a white-water rafting trip.

Subjunctive. See Mood.

**Suffix.** A letter, syllable, or word added to the end of a word to modify its meaning; for example, trendy, friendly, countless, receivership, lonesome. (See ¶833a.)

Superlative degree. See Comparison, superlative.

**Syllable.** One or more letters that represent one sound. (See ¶¶901–904.)

**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

FUTURE:

they will think

#### There are three *perfect* tenses, corresponding to the primary tenses:

PRESENT PERFECT:

they have thought

PAST PERFECT:

they had thought

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 they will be thinking

FUTURE PROGRESSIVE: PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE:

they have been thinking

PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE:

they had been thinking

FIITURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE:

they will have been thinking

There are two emphatic tenses:

PRESENT EMPHATIC:

they do think

PAST EMPHATIC:

they did think

> For an illustration of how these tenses are formed, see pages 248–249.

Transitional expressions. Expressions that link independent clauses or sentences; for example, as a result, therefore, on the other hand, nevertheless. (See also ¶138a; Adverbial conjunctive.)

**Verb.** A word or phrase used to express action or state of being. (See also *Mood.*)

Enniston has boosted its sales goals for the year. (Action)

My son-in-law was originally a lawyer, but he has now become a computer-game designer. (State of being.)

Helping (auxiliary) verb. A verb that helps in the formation of another verb. (See ¶¶1030c, 1033-1034.) The chief helping verbs are be, can, could, do, have, may, might, must, ought, shall, should, will, would.

**Transitive verb.** A verb that requires an object to complete its meaning.

Fusilli has rejected all offers to purchase his business.

Intransitive verb. A verb that does not require an object to complete its meaning.

As market growth occurs and customer interest builds, our sales expectations are rising and top management's excitement has increased.

**Linking verb.** A verb that connects a subject with a predicate adjective, noun, or pronoun. The various forms of to be are the most commonly used linking verbs. Become, look, seem, appear, and grow are also used as linking verbs. (See Complement and ¶1067.)

> Laura seemed willing to compromise, but Frank became obstinate in his demands. Was he afraid that any concession might make him appear a fool?

**Principal parts of verbs.** See Principal parts.

**Verbal.** A word that is derived from 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. (See ¶1037.) About a dozen people *reviewed* the report in draft form.

**Passive voice.** A verb is in the passive voice when its subject is acted upon. (See ¶¶1036–1037.) The report was reviewed in draft form by about a dozen people.

**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.)

# APPENDIX B

## **GLOSSARY OF COMPUTER TERMS**

As the world of the office continues to undergo a series of rapid technological changes, a whole new vocabulary continues to evolve. The following glossary provides brief and simple definitions of the key terms and concepts that are part of this vocabulary.*

**NOTE:** When boldface type is used to highlight a word or phrase within a definition, it signifies that the highlighted word or phrase is defined elsewhere in this glossary.

> See ¶544 for a list of common computer abbreviations and acronyms.

Access. To call up information out of storage.

Random access. A technique that permits stored information to be directly retrieved, regardless of its location on the storage medium.

**Sequential access.** A technique for retrieving stored information that requires a sequential search through one item after another on the storage medium.

Access time. The amount of time it takes a computer to locate stored information.

**Active matrix display.** A type of **monitor** typically used on **laptop** or portable **computers**; provides a brighter, more readable display than older LCD equipment.

**Adapter.** A **circuit board** that plugs into a **computer** and gives it additional capabilities. (See *Circuit board*.)

AI. See Artificial intelligence.

Algorithm. A step-by-step procedure designed to solve a problem or achieve an objective.

Alphanumeric. Consisting of letters, numbers, and symbols.

**Antivirus software.** A **program** designed to look for and destroy a **virus** that may have infected a **computer's memory** or **files**.

**Applet.** A small **application**, that is, a **program** designed to perform a simple task. An applet is usually embedded within a larger program.

**Application (also called** *app***).** A **program** designed to perform **information processing** tasks for a specific purpose or activity (for example, **desktop publishing** and **database management**). (See also *Applet*; *Killer app*.)

Archie. A tool for finding a file stored in a file transfer protocol (FTP) server.

**Archive.** A file compressed for more efficient use of storage space. The compression of files may be accomplished by means of such **programs** as StuffIt.

**Artificial intelligence (AI). Computer** systems that attempt to imitate human processes for analyzing and solving problems.

**Ascending sort.** Sorting records from A to Z or 0 to 9. (See *Descending sort*.)

^{*}A number of works were consulted in the preparation of this glossary, but five were especially helpful: Webster's New World Dictionary of Computer Terms, 7th ed., Macmillan, New York, 1999; Peter Norton's Introduction to Computers, 3d ed., Glencoe, Westerville, Ohio, 1999; Microsoft Press Computer Dictionary, 3d ed., Redmond, Wash., 1997; The New Hacker's Dictionary, 3d ed., MIT Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1996; and Wired Style: Principles of English Usage in the Digital Age, Hardwired, San Francisco, 1996.

ASCII (pronounced as-kee). An acronym derived from American Standard Code for Information Interchange. ASCII is a standard 8-bit code that represents 256 characters. The use of this standard code permits computers made by different manufacturers to communicate with one another.

Background printing. The ability of a computer to print a document while other work is being done on the keyboard and the display screen at the same time.

Backup. Storage of duplicate files on disks, diskettes, or some other form of magnetic medium (such as tapes) as a safety measure in case the original medium is damaged or lost. (One word as a noun or an adjective: backup procedures; two words as a verb: back up your hard disk.)

Bandwidth. The volume of information that a network can handle (usually expressed in bits per second). The greater the bandwidth, the more quickly data can move from a network to a user's computer. The term bandwidth is now also used to refer to a person's attention span (as in "Burt is a low-bandwidth kind of guy") or a person's ability to handle an assignment (as in "Sally lacks the bandwidth to do this job").

Basic Input/Output System (BIOS). A set of programs stored in read-only memory (ROM) on IBM or IBM-compatible computers. These programs control the disk drives, the keyboard, and the display screen, and they handle start-up operations.

Baud rate. The rate of data transmission between two computers or other electronic equipment.

**BBS.** See Bulletin board system.

Binary numbering system. A numbering system in which all numbers are represented by various combinations of the digits 0 and 1.

BIOS. See Basic Input/Output System.

Bit. An acronym derived from binary digit. The smallest unit of information that can be recognized by a computer. Bits are combined to represent characters. (See also Byte.)

Bitmap. A method of storing a graphic image as a set of bits in a computer's memory. To display the image on the screen, the computer converts the bits into pixels.

Bits per second (bps). A measurement that describes the speed of data transmission between two pieces of equipment. (See Baud rate.)

Bloatware. A program that uses an excessive amount of disk space and memory.

**Block.** A segment of **text** that is selected so that it can be moved to another location or processed in some other way. (See Block delete; Block move; Cut and paste.)

**Block delete.** A **command** to delete (or erase) a segment of **text**.

**Block move.** A command to reproduce a segment of text in another place and at the same time erase it from its original position. (See Cut and paste.)

**Block protect.** A command to prevent a page break from occurring within a block of text (for example, a table). (See also Orphan protection; Widow protection.)

Boilerplate. Standard wording (for example, sentences or paragraphs in form letters or clauses in legal documents) that is held in storage. When needed, it can be used as is, with minor modification, or in combination with new material to produce tailor-made documents.

Bookmark list. A customized list of a user's favorite Web sites (also referred to as a hot list). A bookmark list permits the user to access a particular Web site with a single command.

**Boot** (short for bootstrap). To start a computer and load the operating system to prepare the computer to execute an application.



**Bozo filter.** A **program** that screens out unwanted **e-mail** or other messages from individuals or organizations you no longer want to hear from.

bps. See Bits per second.

**Brochureware.** A product that is being actively marketed, even though the product is not yet (and may never be) ready for sale. (See also *Vaporware*.)

Browser. See Web browser.

**Buffer.** A holding area in memory that stores information temporarily. Also called *cache*.

**Bug.** A defect in the **software** that causes the **computer** to malfunction or cease to operate. Some writers now use *bug* to refer to **hardware** problems as well. (See also *Debugging*; *Glitch*.)

**Bulletin board system (BBS).** An **online** information system, usually set up by an individual (called a *system operator*, or **SYSOP**) on a nonprofit basis for the enjoyment of other individuals with similar interests. (See also *Internet*.)

**Bundled software.** Software that is sold along with a **computer** system; several software **programs** that are packaged together (also called *software suites*).

Bus. A pathway along which electronic signals travel between the components of a computer system.

**Button bar.** An on-screen element that offers instant access to commonly used **commands**. The commands are represented by **icons** on a row of buttons at the top of the screen. Also called a *tool bar*.

Byte. The sequence of bits that represents a character. Each byte has 8 bits.

Cache. See Buffer.

**Cancelbot (from cancel robot).** A program that detects spamming and automatically issues a cancel command.

Card. See Circuit board: Adapter.

**Carpal tunnel syndrome.** A wrist or hand injury caused by using a **keyboard** for long periods of time. A type of repetitive strain injury **(RSI)**. (See also *Mouse elbow*.)

Cathode-ray tube (CRT). See Display screen.

**CD-ROM** (pronounced *cee-dee-rom*). An acronym derived from compact disk-read-only memory. A form of optical storage. One compact disk can hold up to 250,000 text pages; it can also be used to store graphics, sound, and video. (See *DVD*.)

**Cell.** A box or rectangle within a table or **spreadsheet** where a **column** and a **row** intersect; an area in which information can be entered in the form of **text** or figures.

**Central processing unit (CPU).** The brains of an **information processing** system; the processing component that controls the interpretation and execution of instructions. (See *Motherboard*.)

**Character.** A single letter, figure, punctuation mark, or symbol produced by a **keystroke** on a **computer**. Each character is represented by a **byte**.

**Character set.** The complete set of **characters**—alphabetic, numeric, and symbolic—displayable on a **computer**. (See *ASCII*.)

**Character string.** A specified sequence of typed **characters**, usually representing a word or phrase. A character string is often used to locate a particular word or phrase wherever it appears in a **document** so that it can be automatically replaced with another word or phrase. If a person's name has been consistently misspelled or a date appears incorrectly in several places, the error can be easily corrected. (See also *Search and replace*.)



Characters per inch (cpi). The number of characters in a font that will fit within 1 inch.

Characters per second (cps). The number of characters printed in 1 second; a measurement frequently used to describe the speed of a printer.

Chat line. See Newsgroup.

**Check box.** A small box that appears on screen alongside each option displayed in a **dialog box**. When an option is selected, an X or a check mark appears inside the box.

Chip. An integrated circuit used in computers.

Chip jewelry. An obsolete computer.

**Circuit board.** A board or card that carries the necessary electronic components for a particular **computer** function (for example, **memory**). The circuit boards that come with the original equipment perform the standard functions identified with that type of equipment. Additional circuit boards expand the kinds of functions that the equipment can perform. (Also called a *board*, a *card*, or an *expansion board*.)

Clear. A command to erase information.

**Click.** To quickly press and release a **mouse** button *once* while the **cursor** (mouse pointer) is positioned over a specific item on the screen. (See also *Double-click*.)

Client/server computing. A network of computers that consists of a file server (a computer that runs a database management system) and individual clients (computers that request and process data obtained from the file server).

**Clipboard.** A holding area in **memory** where information that has been copied or **cut** (**text**, **graphics**, sound, or video) can be stored until the information is inserted elsewhere. (See *Copy*; *Cut*; *Cut* and paste.)

**Column.** A vertical block of **cells** in a table or **spreadsheet.** (See also *Row.*)

**Command.** An instruction that causes a **program** or **computer** to perform a function. A command may be given by means of a special **keystroke** (or series of keystrokes), or the command may be chosen from a **menu**.

Commercial online service. See Internet service provider.

**Compatibility.** The ability of one type of **computer** to share information or to communicate with another type of computer. (See also *ASCII*.)

Computer. An electronic device that is capable of (1) accepting, storing, and logically manipulating data or text that is input and (2) processing and producing output (results or decisions) on the basis of stored programs of instructions. Some computers are also capable of processing graphics, video, and voice input. Most computers include a keyboard for text entry, a central processing unit, one or more disk drives, a display screen, and a printer—components referred to as hardware.

**Control menu.** An on-screen Windows element that appears in a box in the upper left corner of a window. The control menu allows the user the option of adjusting the size of the window, closing or reopening the window, or switching to another window.

Cookie. A device that permits a Web site to identify and collect information about every user who visits that site.

**Copy.** To reproduce information elsewhere. The original information remains in place. (See *Cut.*)

cpi. See Characters per inch.

cps. See Characters per second.



CPU. See Central processing unit.

**Cracker.** The preferred term (rather than **hacker**) to refer to a **computer** criminal who penetrates a computer **program** to steal information or damage the program in some way.

**Crash.** A malfunction in **hardware** or **software** that keeps a **computer** from functioning. (See also *Bug*; *Glitch.*)

**CRT.** Cathode-ray tube. (See *Display screen*.)

**Cursor.** A special **character** (usually a blinking underline, dot, or vertical line) that indicates where the next typed **character** will appear on the **display screen**. Also refers to the **mouse** pointer (arrow) or **I-beam pointer**. Microsoft Word refers to the cursor as the *insertion point*. (See also *Prompt*.)

**Cursor positioning.** The movement of the **cursor** on the **display screen.** Most **computers** have four keys to control up, down, left, and right movement. Many computers also permit the use of a **mouse** to position the cursor.

Cut. To remove text from its original location and place it on a clipboard. (See Copy; Paste.)

Cut and paste. To move a block of text from one place to another.

**Cyberspace.** A realistic simulation of a three-dimensional world created by a **computer** system; also referred to as *virtual reality*. Now commonly used to refer to the world of the **Internet** as a whole.

Cybrarian. The electronic equivalent of a librarian. A person who makes a career of online research and data retrieval.

**Data.** Information consisting of letters, numbers, symbols, sound, or images—in a form that can be processed by a **computer**.

**Data compression.** A procedure for reducing the volume of **data** so as to shorten the time needed to transfer the data.

Database. A stored collection of information.

**Database management system (DBMS).** The **software** needed to establish and maintain a **database** and manage the stored information.

**DDE.** See Dynamic data exchange.

Dead-tree edition. The paper version of a publication available online.

**Debugging.** Locating and eliminating defects in a program. (See also Bug.)

Decimal tab. A type of tab that aligns columns of figures on the decimal point.

**Default settings.** The preestablished settings (for margins, **font,** type size, tab stops, and so on) that a **program** will follow unless the user changes them.

Delete. A command to erase information in storage.

**Descending sort.** Sorting records from Z to A or 9 to 0. (See also *Ascending sort.*)

Desktop. The electronic work area on a display screen.

Desktop computer. A microcomputer that is bigger than a laptop.

**Desktop publishing (DTP).** A system that processes the **text** and **graphics** and, by means of page layout **software** and a **laser printer**, produces high-quality pages suitable for printing or in-house reproduction.



Dialog box. A message box on the screen that supplies information to—or requests information from—the user.

Dictionary. A program used to check the spelling of each word entered in the computer.

**Digerati.** A term referring to the elite group of intellectuals in the computer world (in the same way that *literati* refers to the elite group of intellectuals in the literary world).

Directory. A list of the files stored on a disk.

**Disk.** A random-access, magnetically coated storage medium used to store and **retrieve** information. (See also *Diskette*; *CD-ROM*.)

**Disk drive.** The component of a **computer** into which a **disk** is inserted so that it can be read or written on.

Disk operating system. See DOS.

**Diskette.** A small, nonrigid **disk** with limited **storage** capacity (normally 30 to 200 pages). Also known as a *floppy disk*.

**Display screen.** A device similar to a television screen and used on a **computer** to display **text** and **graphics**. Also called a *cathode-ray tube (CRT)*, a *video display terminal (VDT)*, or a *monitor*.

**Distributed processing system.** A form of a **local area network** in which each user has a fully functional **computer** but all users can share **data** and **application software**. The data and software are distributed among the linked computers and not stored in one central computer.

**Document.** Any printed business communication—for example, a letter, memo, report, table, or form. (See *File.*)

**Domain.** Typically, a three-letter element in a Web address or an **e-mail** address. The domain—commonly referred to as the *zone*—indicates the type of organization that owns the **computer** being identified in the address. For example, *.com* signifies a commercial organization; *.edu* signifies an educational institution. (See ¶1532b for a list of the most common domains.)

**Domain name.** The second part of an **e-mail** address—what follows the @ symbol (for example, *aol.com*). The name of the **computer** intended to receive an e-mail message. (See ¶1533.) In Web addresses (URLs) this element is referred to as the **host** name. (See ¶1532b.)

**DOS.** An acronym derived from <u>disk operating system</u>. A **program** that allows the **computer** to manage the **storage** of information on **disks** and controls other aspects of a computer's operation.

**Dot.** The period symbol used in **e-mail** addresses. Always referred to as a *dot* (never as a period). Thus the **domain name** *aol.com* would be pronounced *ay-oh-ell-dot-com*. **Internet** surfers who spend a lot of time in the *.com* domain are sometimes referred to as *dot communists*.

Dot matrix printer. A printer that uses pins to produce characters made up of small dots.

**Double-click.** To quickly press and release a **mouse** button *twice* while the **cursor** is positioned over a specific item on the **screen**. (See *Click*.)

**Download.** To transfer information to the user's **computer** from another computer.

**Drag-and-drop editing.** A **software** feature that allows the user to (1) highlight **text** to be moved and (2) use a **mouse** to drag the text to a new location.

DTP. See Desktop publishing.

Duplexing. A procedure that permits two computers to transmit data to each other simultaneously.

**DVD.** Digital video disc (predicted to replace the CD-ROM).

**Dynamic data exchange (DDE).** A technology that permits the user to transfer or **paste data** from one **application** (for example, a **spreadsheet**) to another (for example, a report). Because of the dynamic link created by this technology, any change in the data in the original application will be automatically reflected in the data copied in the second application. (See also *Object linking and embedding*.)

**Easter egg.** An unexpected image or message that pops up on the **display screen** when the user innocently enters a secret combination of **keystrokes**. Programmers playfully code Easter eggs into **software** and **operating systems** as a way of surprising and amusing users engaged in more serious tasks.

**Editing.** The process of changing information by inserting, deleting, replacing, rearranging, and reformatting. Also known as *changing* or *customizing*.

**Ellipsis marks.** Three dots (. . .) that appear as part of a **menu** option. Ellipsis marks indicate that a **dialog box** will appear if that option is selected.

**E-mail.** The term *e-mail* (short for *electronic mail*) refers to the transfer of messages or **documents** between users connected by an electronic **network**. (The original form—*E-mail*—is rarely seen anymore except at the beginning of a sentence, and a few cutting-edge publications have started to write the word without a hyphen—*email*.) One wit has suggested replacing the term *e-mail* with *e-pistle*.

Encryption. Coding confidential data so that only a user with the right password can read the data.

Enter. To input data into memory. (See Type.)

Escape key. A key that permits the user to leave one segment of a program and move to another.

**Execute.** To perform an action specified by the user or the **program**.

Expert system. See Artificial intelligence.

**Export.** To save information in a **format** that another **program** can read.

**Extranet.** A technology that permits users of one organization's **intranet** to enter portions of another organization's intranet in order to conduct business transactions or collaborate on joint projects.

**E-zine.** The term *e-zine* refers to a magazine published in an electronic format. Also called *Webzine*.

**Face time.** Time spent dealing with someone face to face (as opposed to time spent communicating electronically).

**FAQ.** Frequently asked questions. Pronounced as a word (to rhyme with pack) or as separate letters.

**Fax (n.).** A shortened form of the word *facsimile*. A copy of a **document** transmitted electronically from one machine to another.

**Fax (v.).** To transmit a copy of a **document** electronically.

Fax modem. A device built into or attached to a computer that serves as a facsimile machine and a modem.

**Field.** A group of related **characters** treated as a unit (such as a name); also the area reserved for the entry of a specified piece of information.

**File.** A collection of information stored electronically and treated as a unit by a **computer**. Every file must have its own distinctive name. (See *File name*.)

File name. The name assigned to a file stored on a disk.



File transfer protocol (FTP). A set of guidelines or standards that establish the format in which files can be transmitted from one computer to another.

Firewall. Software that prevents unauthorized persons from accessing certain parts of a program, database, or network.

Flame (n.). An inflammatory e-mail message; one deliberately designed to insult and provoke the recipient. (See also Rave.)

Flame (v.). To send an inflammatory message.

Floppy disk. See Diskette.

Folder. A storage area on a disk used to organize files.

**Font.** A typeface of a certain size and style. Includes all letters of the alphabet, figures, symbols, and punctuation marks. (See *Monospace font; Proportional font*.)

**Footer.** Repetitive information that appears at the bottom (the foot) of every page of a **document.** A page number is a common footer. (See also *Header*.)

**Footnote feature.** The ability of a **program** to automatically position footnotes on the same page as the **text** they refer to. If the text is moved to another page, any related footnotes will also be transferred to that page.

**Footprint.** The amount of space a **computer** occupies on a flat surface.

Forelash. Negative reactions to a technology not yet in existence but excessively promoted in advance.

**Format.** The physical specifications that affect the appearance and arrangement of a **document**—for example, margins, spacing, and **font.** 

Forms mode. The ability of a program to store the format of a blank document or form so that it can later be viewed on the display screen and completed by the user. Once a fill-in has been entered, the cursor automatically advances to the beginning of the next area to be filled in. (See also Style sheet; Template.)

Forum. See Newsgroup.

**Freenet.** A local **network** that offers free (or low-cost) **access** to **host computers** located in libraries and to other public interest groups in the community. A freenet may also offer limited access to the **Internet.** 

**Freeware.** Copyrighted **software** that is available for use without charge. (See also *Shareware*.)

FTP. See File transfer protocol.

**Function keys.** Keys on a **keyboard** (for example, F1) that give special commands to the **computer**—for example, to set margins or tabs.

Gateway. A machine that links two networks using different protocols.

**GIGO.** Garbage  $\underline{i}n$ ,  $\underline{g}$ arbage  $\underline{o}ut$ . In other words, your **computer output** is only as good as your computer **input**.

Glitch. A hardware problem that causes a computer to malfunction or crash. (See Bug.)

**Global.** Describing any function that can be performed on an entire **document** without requiring individual **commands** for each use. For example, a global **search-and-replace** command will instruct the **computer** to locate a particular word or phrase and replace it with a different word or phrase wherever the original form occurs in the document.



Gopher. The term gopher refers to a protocol used for locating and transferring information on the Internet. The use of gopher is diminishing as the use of the Web's hypertext transfer protocol (HTTP) gains in popularity.

Graphical user interface (GUI). A software feature that permits the user to click on icons or select options from a menu.

Graphics. Pictures or images presented or stored using a computer.

**Grok.** To research and comprehend something in great detail and great depth.

**GUI** (pronounced goo-ee). See Graphical user interface.

**Hack.** To work on an electronic project.

Hacker. A dedicated computer programmer. The term hacker is sometimes used erroneously to refer to a computer criminal who penetrates and damages a computer program. The preferred term for a computer criminal is cracker.

Handheld computer. A portable computer smaller than a notebook computer. Also called a palmtop computer.

Hard copy. Text or graphics printed on paper; also called a printout. (See also Soft copy.)

Hard disk. A rigid type of magnetic medium that can store large amounts of information.

Hard hyphen. A hyphen that is a permanent character in a word. A word that contains a hard hyphen will not be divided at this point if the word comes at the end of a line. (See also Soft hyphen.)

Hard page break. A page-ending code or command inserted by the user that cannot be changed by the program. A hard page break is often used (1) to prevent a table from being divided between two pages and (2) to signify that a particular section of a document has ended and the following text should start on a new page.

Hard return. A command used to end a paragraph, end a short line of text, or insert a blank line in the text. (See also Soft return.)

Hard space. A space inserted between words in a phrase that should remain together (for example, the word page and the number, month and day, number and unit of measure). The hard space ensures that the phrase will not be broken at the end of a line.

Hardware. The physical components of a computer: the central processing unit, the display screen, the keyboard, the disk drive, and the printer. (See also Software.)

**Hardwired.** Describing any **computer** function that cannot be easily modified.

**Header.** Repetitive information that appears at the top (the head) of every page of a document. A page number is a common header. (See also Footer.)

Hit. A single request for information made by a client computer from a Web server. The popularity of a given Web site is measured by the number of hits it receives.

Home. The upper left corner of the display screen; the starting position of a page or document.

Home page. The main page for a Web site established by an organization or an individual; it usually serves as the entrance for a series of related pages.

**Host computer.** A computer that provides information or a service to other computers on the Internet. Every host computer has its own unique host name.

Hot key. A keyboard shortcut that allows quick access to a command or menu option.



Hot list. See Bookmark list.

HTML. See Hypertext markup language.

**HTTP.** See Hypertext transfer protocol.

**Hyperlink.** A highlighted word or image on a Web page. When a user clicks on the word or image, the user is connected with another related Web page.

Hypermedia. An extension of hypertext that integrates audio, video, and graphics with text.

**Hypertext.** A technology that links **text** in one part of a **document** with related text in another part of the document or in other documents. A user can quickly find the related text by clicking on the appropriate keyword, key phrase, **icon**, or button.

**Hypertext markup language (HTML).** The formatting language used to establish the appearance of a Web page.

Hypertext transfer protocol (HTTP). The protocol used on the World Wide Web that permits Web clients (Web browsers) to communicate with Web servers. This protocol allows programmers to embed hyperlinks in Web documents, using hypertext markup language.

**Hyphenation.** The ability of a **program** to automatically hyphenate and divide words that do not fit at the end of a line. If the **text** is later revised so that the divided word no longer begins at the right margin, the hyphen is automatically removed and the word prints solid. (See also *Soft hyphen*.)

I-beam pointer. A mouse-controlled cursor that looks like a capital I.

**Icon.** A symbol (such as a picture of a trash can or a file folder) that represents a certain function. When the user **clicks** on the icon, the appropriate function is **executed**. (See *Graphical user interface*.)

Import. To retrieve any text or other information created by one program (for example, images created by a graphics program) and transfer it to another program (for example, a spreadsheet program).

**Indexing.** The ability of a **program** to accumulate a list of words or phrases that appear in a **document** (along with their corresponding page numbers) and to print or display the list in alphabetic order.

**Information processing.** The coordination of people, equipment, and procedures to handle information, including the **storage**, **retrieval**, distribution, and communication of information. The term *information processing* embraces the entire field of processing words, figures, **graphics**, video, and voice **input** by electronic means.

**Information Superhighway (or I-way).** The **Internet**. Also referred to as the *Infobahn* (based on the German term for its network of highways, the *Autobahn*).

**Ink-jet printer.** A nonimpact printer that forms **characters** by spraying tiny, electrically charged ink droplets on paper.

Input (n.). Information entered into the computer for processing.

Input (v.). To enter information into the computer. (See also Type; Key.)

Insert. To add information to a file.

Insertion point. See Cursor.

Integrated circuit. Multiple electronic components combined on a tiny silicon chip. (See Microprocessor.)

**Integrated software.** Software that combines in one program a number of functions normally performed by separate programs.



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**Interface.** The electrical connection that links two pieces of equipment so that they can communicate with each other. Also, the **software** that controls the interaction between the **hardware** and the user.

**Internet (or Net).** A system that links existing **computer networks** into a worldwide network. The Internet may be accessed by means of commercial online services (such as America Online) and **Internet service providers**.

Internet community. A group of individuals with common interests, who frequently exchange ideas on the Internet.

**Internet service provider (ISP).** An organization that provides access to the **Internet** for a fee. Companies like America Online are more properly referred to as *commercial online services* because they offer many other services in addition to **Internet** access—for example, news, travel services, and financial and shopping information.

**Intranet.** A private **network** established by an organization for the exclusive use of its employees. **Firewalls** prevent outsiders from gaining access to an organization's intranet. (See also *Extranet*.)

L/O. An abbreviation for input/output.

ISP. See Internet service provider.

**Justification.** Aligning lines of **text** at the left margin, the right margin, both margins, or the center. Text aligned at both margins is considered *fully justified*. Text aligned only at the left margin is said to have a *ragged right margin*. (See ¶1356a–c.)

K or KB. See Kilobyte.

Kern. To make fine adjustments in the space between any two characters.

**Key.** To **enter characters** into the **memory** of a **computer**. (*Key* is being replaced by the word *type*. See *Type*.)

**Keyboard.** The device used to enter information into a computer.

**Keystroke.** The depression of one key on a **keyboard**.

**Killer app (short for application). Software** that is considered "so great it will blow you away." (Mosaic, a program that facilitates information retrieval for **Internet** users, was considered a killer app when it was introduced.)

**Kilobyte.** A measurement of the **storage** capacity of a **computer.** One kilobyte represents 1024 **bytes.** *Kilobyte* may be abbreviated K or KB; however, KB is the clearer abbreviation since K also stands for the metric prefix kilo (meaning 1000).

Kluge (pronounced klooi). An expedient (but often inelegant) way to solve a problem.

LAN. See Network.

Landscape orientation. The positioning of a page so that information is printed across the long dimension of the paper. (See *Portrait orientation*.)

Language. The characters and procedures used to write programs that a computer is designed to understand.

Laptop computer. A portable computer slightly larger than a notebook computer.

**Laser printer.** A nonimpact **printer** that produces sharper **text** and **graphics** than any other type of printer. (See also *Dot matrix printer*; *Ink-jet printer*.)

LCD. See Liquid crystal display.



**Line or paragraph numbering.** The ability of a **program** to automatically number each line or paragraph sequentially in a **document**. The line or paragraph numbers can be deleted before the preparation of the final **printout**.

**Line spacing.** The ability of a **program** to automatically change vertical line spacing (for example, from double to single to double again).

**Liquid crystal display (LCD).** A type of **monitor** typically used on **laptop computers** or portable **computers**. (See also *Active matrix display*.)

**Listserv.** Any **software** that manages a **mailing list.** The most widely used programs are LISTSERV (as distinct from *listserv*, a generic term), Listproc, and Majordomo.

Load. To transfer information or program instructions into a computer's memory.

Log off. To exit or leave a computer system. (See ¶803f.)

Log on. To access a computer system. (See ¶¶802, 803e.)

M or MB. See Megabyte.

**Macro.** A time-saving feature (like telephone speed dialing) that allows the user to store in **memory** a set of **keystrokes** or **commands** that will accomplish a certain task.

**Mail merge.** The process of taking information from a **database** and inserting it into a form letter or other **document** in order to customize the document for an individual recipient. For example, mail merge can be used to create the inside address and the salutation for a form letter. (See also *Forms mode.*)

**Mailbomb.** A deluge of **e-mail** messages from one or more sources, deliberately intended to overload the recipient's **computer** and make it **crash**. A mailbomb is typically sent to punish someone guilty of **spamming** or some other serious breach of **netiquette**.

Mailing list. An e-mail discussion group devoted to one or more specific topics.

Mainframe. A large computer system.

**Megabyte.** A measurement of the **storage** capacity of a **computer.** One megabyte represents more than 1 million **bytes.** Megabyte may be abbreviated M or MB; however, MB is clearer since M also stands for the metric prefix mega (meaning 1 million).

**Megahertz.** A measurement used to identify the speed of the **central processing unit.** One megahertz is equal to 1 million cycles per second.

**Memory.** The part of a **computer** that stores information. (See also *Storage*.)

Random-access memory (RAM). The temporary memory that allows information to be stored randomly and accessed quickly and directly (without the need to go through intervening data).

**Read-only memory (ROM).** The permanent **memory** of a **computer**; a set of instructions that has been built into the computer by the manufacturer and cannot be accessed or changed by the user.

**Menu.** A list of choices shown on the **display screen**. For example, a **format** menu would include such options as the type style and the type size to be selected. A menu is often referred to as a *pull-down menu* or a *pop-up menu* because it appears on screen after the user **clicks** on the **menu bar** or on some other item on the screen.

Menu bar. The bar across the top of the screen or window that displays the names of available menus.

Merge. A command to create one file by combining information that is stored in two different locations. For example, a computer can merge the text in a form letter with a mailing list to produce a batch of letters with a different name, address, and salutation on each letter. (See also Mail merge.)



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**Microcomputer.** A small and relatively inexpensive **computer**, commonly consisting of a **display screen**, a **keyboard**, a **central processing unit**, one or more **disk drives**, and a **printer**, with limited **storage** based upon a **microprocessor**. (See also *Desktop computer*; *Laptop computer*.)

Microprocessor. An integrated circuit on a silicon chip that serves as the central processing unit of a computer.

**MIPS.** An acronym derived from  $\underline{millions}$  of  $\underline{instructions}$   $\underline{per}$   $\underline{second}$ . Used to measure the speed of a computer.

**Modem.** An acronym derived from <u>modulator/dem</u>odulator. A device that (1) converts digital signals into tones for transmission over telephone lines and (2) converts the tones back into digital signals at the receiving end.

Monitor. The display screen of a computer.

**Monospace font.** A **typeface** such as Courier in which each **character** has exactly the same width (like this).

Morph (from metamorphosize). To change one image into another by means of digital technology.

**Motherboard.** The **computer's** main **circuit board**, which contains the **central processing unit**, the **memory**, and expansion slots for additional circuit boards called *adapters* or *cards*. (See *Adapter*.)

**Mouse.** A hand-operated electronic device used to move a **cursor** or pointer on the **display screen**. Mostly used with **microcomputers**. (See *Word of mouse*.)

**Mouse arrest.** To be placed under mouse arrest is to be denied further access to an **Internet service** provider or a commercial online service as a result of violating the terms of service.

**Mouse elbow.** A repetitive strain injury (similar to tennis elbow) that is caused by repeatedly using a **mouse.** (See also *Carpal tunnel syndrome.*)

**Mouse potato.** A person who sits glued to a **computer** screen (in the same way that a couch potato sits glued to a TV screen).

MS-DOS (pronounced em-ess-doss). Derived from Microsoft disk operating system. An operating system used on IBM and IBM-compatible microcomputers.

**Multimedia.** The use of several types of media (such as **text**, **graphics**, animation, sound, and video) in a **document** or an **application**.

Multitasking. The ability of a computer to execute more than one program at a time.

Net. See Internet.

Netiquette. A set of guidelines for formatting and composing e-mail messages.

**Netizen.** A "citizen" of the Net; an active participant in the **Internet community.** Netizens in general are sometimes referred to as *netkind*.

Network. A system of interconnected computers. (See Notwork; Sneakernet.)

Local area networks (LANs) use cable to connect a number of computers within the same location or at most a 2-mile radius.

Wide area networks (WANs) use telephone lines or other telecommunications devices to link computers in widely separated locations.

Internet is a system that links existing networks into a worldwide network.

Newbie. A newcomer to a bulletin board system or some other network facility.

Newsgroup (also called a chat line or a forum). An electronic discussion group tied into a bulletin board system. Each newsgroup is typically organized around a specific interest or matter of concern.

Newsreader. A program that permits users to read and respond to messages posted on Usenet.

**Notebook computer.** A portable computer that is slightly smaller than a **laptop computer** and slightly larger than a **palmtop** (or **handheld**) **computer**.

Notwork. A network that does not live up to its advance billing. Also called a nyetwork.

Number crunching. Processing large amounts of numerical data.

**Object linking and embedding (OLE).** A process that permits the user to take material (referred to as an *object*) from one source and **insert** (*embed*) it in another **document**. If the user subsequently makes changes in the original material, those changes will be automatically transferred to the second document as a result of the OLE linking process. (See also *Dynamic data exchange*.)

OCR. See Optical character reader.

**Offline.** Referring to the state in which a **computer** is temporarily or permanently unable to communicate with another computer (even though it is turned on and capable of performing other functions). The term *offline* is also used humorously to refer to "real life."

Offscreen. Referring to any computer function that does not produce a display on the screen.

**OLE** (pronounced oh-LAY). See Object linking and embedding.

**Online.** Referring to the state in which a **computer** is turned on and ready to communicate with other computers.

Onscreen. Referring to anything displayed on a computer screen.

Open. To transfer a file from a disk into a computer's memory.

Operating system (OS). Software that manages the internal functions and controls the operations of a computer.

Optical character reader (OCR). A device that can scan text from hard copy and enter it automatically into a computer for storage or editing. Also called an optical scanner.

**Orphan protection.** The ability of a **program** to prevent the first line of a paragraph from printing as the last line on a page. When the first line of a paragraph does appear as the last line on a page, it is referred to as an *orphan*. (See also *Widow protection*.)

**OS.** See Operating system.

Outlining. The ability of a program to automatically number and letter items typed in an indented format.

Output. The results of a computer operation.

**Overwriting.** Recording and storing information in a specific location on a storage medium that destroys whatever had been stored there previously.

**Page break.** A command that tells the **printer** where to end one page and begin the next. (See *Hard page break*; *Soft page break*.)

**Page numbering.** The ability of a **program** to automatically print page numbers on the pages that make up an entire **document**. If the document is revised and the total number of pages changes, the page numbering is automatically adjusted.

**Pagination.** The ability of a **program** to take information and automatically divide it into pages with a specified number of lines per page. If the information is changed because of the addition, deletion, or rearrangement of copy, the material will be automatically repaged to maintain the proper page length. (See also *Soft page break*.)

Palmtop computer. A portable computer smaller than a notebook computer. Also called a handheld computer.

Papernet. Ordinary mail service. (See also Voicenet.)

**Password.** A user's secret identification code, required to access stored material. A procedure intended to prevent information from being accessed by unauthorized persons.

**Paste.** A **command** that transfers information from a **clipboard** and inserts it in another location. (See *Cut and paste.*)

Patch. A small program that improves an existing piece of software or corrects an error in it.

PC. See Personal computer.

PDA. See Personal digital assistant.

**Peripheral.** A device that extends the capabilities of a **computer** (for example, a **printer**).

Personal computer (PC). A microcomputer for personal and office use.

Personal digital assistant (PDA). A palm-sized, handheld computer.

**Personal information manager (PIM).** A database management system that permits a user to store and **retrieve** a wide range of personal information (for example, names, addresses, phone numbers, appointments, and lists of people to call and things to do).

**Pica.** A measurement used for a **font**; equal to 1/6 inch or 12 **points**.

Pitch. The number of monospace characters printed in a 1-inch line of text.

**Pixel.** An acronym derived from <u>picture element</u>. The smallest element (a dot) on a **display screen**. Pixels are used to construct images on the screen.

**Plug-and-play.** The ability to plug in a **peripheral** and have it work without difficulty. The term *plug-and-play* is now sometimes used to refer to a new employee who can immediately do the job without any preliminary training. Because of the problems some users have experienced with items so labeled, they refer instead to *plug-and-pray*.

**Point.** A measurement used to indicate the size of a font; 72 points equals 1 inch. (See also *Pica*.)

Pop-up menu. A menu that appears in a dialog box.

**Port.** A socket on a **computer** into which an external device (such as a printer cable) can be plugged.

**Portrait orientation.** Positioning paper so that information is printed across the short dimension of the paper. (See also *Landscape orientation*.)

**Posting.** An article sent to a **Usenet** newsgroup.

**Print preview.** A **software** feature that reduces the pages of a **document** so that a full page (or two facing pages) can be seen on the screen before being printed. This feature permits the user to spot and correct problems in **format** and **page breaks**.

**Printers.** Output devices of various types that produce copy on paper. (See *Dot matrix printer*; *Ink-jet printer*; *Laser printer*.)



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Printout. The paper copy of information produced on a printer.

**Program.** An established sequence of instructions that tells a **computer** what to do. The term *program* means the same as **software**.

**Prompt.** An onscreen symbol (for example, a **cursor**) that indicates where to **type** a **command**; a message that indicates what action is to be taken.

**Proportional font.** A **typeface** in which the width of each **character** varies (as in this sentence), so that the letter I takes much less space than the letter M. (See *Font*.)

**Protocol.** A set of standards that permits **computers** to exchange information and communicate with each other.

**Radio button.** An onscreen element that allows a user to select one option from a group of items. An empty circle precedes each option not selected. A dot appears in a circle to signify that the user has selected that option.

RAM. See Memory, random-access.

**Rave.** To annoy someone by persistently talking about something. The act of raving is different from **flaming** in that flaming is deliberately provocative and even insulting, whereas raving is simply annoying because it goes on so long.

**Read.** To transfer information from an external storage medium into internal storage. (See also *Storage*, *external* and *internal*.)

Record (n.). A collection of all the information pertaining to a particular subject.

**Redline.** A word processing feature that shows deleted material by displaying it in a shaded panel, by printing a line through the **text**, or by using some other method. Redlining allows a user to see what has been deleted. Any redlined text may be easily removed from a **document** to produce the final copy.

For example, this portion of text is shown using the redline feature.

Response time. The time a computer takes to execute a command.

**Retrieve.** To call up information from **memory** so that it can be processed in some way.

ROM. See Memory, read-only.

Row. A horizontal block of cells in a table or spreadsheet. (See also Column.)

**RSI.** Repetitive strain injury; sometimes referred to as *chiplash*. (See also *Carpal tunnel syndrome*; *Mouse elbow*.)

**Ruler.** A bar (displayed on the screen) that shows the width of the page, the margin settings, the paragraph indentions, and the tab stops.

Save. To store a program or data on a storage device such as a disk.

**Scanner.** An **input** device that can copy a printed page into a **computer**'s **memory**, thus doing away with the need to **type** the copy. A scanner can also convert artwork and photographs into a digital format and store these in memory.

Screen. See Display screen.

**Screen dump.** A **printout** of what is displayed on the screen. (For an example, see the illustration in ¶1396.)

**Screen saver.** A **program** that changes the screen display while the user is away from the **computer.** Without the use of a screen saver, a screen image that remains on display for any length of time can damage the screen.

**Scroll.** To move information horizontally or vertically on a **display screen** so that one can see parts of a **document** that is too wide or too deep to fit entirely on one screen.

Scroll bar. An onscreen element that allows a user to scroll by using a mouse.

**SCSI.** See Small computer system interface.

**Search and replace.** A command that directs the program to locate a character string or information (text, numbers, or symbols) wherever it occurs in a document and replace this material with new information. (See *Global*.)

**Search engine.** A free program that helps Web users locate **data** by means of a key word or concept. Among the most popular search engines are Yahoo!, Excite, WebCrawler, and AltaVista.

Server. A computer that delivers data to other computers (clients) linked on the same network.

**Shareware. Software** that usually may be **downloaded** and used initially without charge; the author may subsequently ask for some payment. (Compare with *Freeware*.)

**Shouting.** The use of all-capital letters in **e-mail.** This practice is considered a violation of **netiquette** and is actively discouraged.

Shovelware. Mediocre material used to fill up space on a CD-ROM or a Web site.

Sig block. The signature block that automatically appears at the end of every outgoing e-mail message. Also referred to as a .sig file.

Small computer system interface (SCSI, pronounced scuzzy). A type of hardware and software interface for connecting peripherals such as a disk drive or a CD-ROM.

**Smiley.** In **e-mail** messages, a facial expression constructed sideways (for the "lateral-minded") with standard **characters.** Also referred to as *emoticons* (emotional icons). For example:

:-)	I'm smiling.	>:-(	I'm angry.	:-J	I'm being tongue-in-cheek.
:-D	I'm laughing.	:-@	I'm screaming.	:-+	I'm exhausted-my tongue
:-(	I'm sad.	:-&	I'm tongue-tied		is hanging out.
:-<	I'm very sad.	:-x	My lips are sealed.	%-)	I've been staring at the
:'-(	I'm crying.	#-)	I'm feeling no pain.		screen too long.
;-)	I'm winking.	:-0	I'm shocked.	8-	What next?

Although some smileys are quite witty, many people find them excessively cute. Therefore, don't use smileys unless you are sure the recipient will appreciate them.

Snail mail. A term employed by e-mail users to refer to regular mail service.

Sneakernet. The procedure for transferring files from one computer to another when the computers are not connected by an electronic network. (Users remove diskettes from one computer and carry them on foot to another.)

**Soft copy.** Information shown on the **display screen.** (See also *Hard copy.*)

**Soft hyphen.** A hyphen that divides a word at the end of a line; considered soft (nonpermanent) because the hyphen will automatically be deleted if the word moves to another position as a result of a change in the **text**. (See *Hard hyphen*; *Hyphenation*.)



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**Soft page break.** A line inserted by the **program** to show where a page will end. If copy is added or deleted, the original **page break** will be replaced with a new soft page break at the appropriate place. (By contrast, a **hard page break** will remain fixed, no matter what changes are made in the copy.) (See also *Pagination*.)

**Soft return.** A **software** feature that automatically breaks **text** between words at the right margin. The line ending is considered soft (nonpermanent) because the line ending will change if the user adds or deletes **text.** (See *Hard return*; *Word wrap.*)

**Software.** The instructions that a **computer** needs to perform various functions. The term *software* means the same as **program.** (See also *Hardware.*)

Sort. To arrange fields, records, or files in a predetermined sequence.

**Spam (n.).** The electronic equivalent of junk mail; also called <u>unsolicited commercial e-mail</u> (UCE).

**Spam (v.).** To send an **e-mail** message to a great number of recipients without regard for their need to know. A user who spams sometimes receives a **mailbomb** in return as a form of retaliation.

Spider. A program that searches the Web for new Web sites.

**Split screen.** The ability of some **programs** to display information in two or more different areas on the screen at the same time.

**Spreadsheet.** A **program** that provides a worksheet with **rows** and **columns** to be used for calculations and the preparation of reports.

Storage. The memory of a computer.

**External storage.** A magnetic medium such as a **disk**, **diskette**, or tape used to store information; can be removed from the **computer**.

Internal storage. An integral component of a computer; cannot be removed.

**Store.** To place information in **memory** for later use.

Style sheet. A collection of the user's formatting decisions regarding font, type size, margins, justification, paragraph indentions, and the like.

Surfing the Net. Browsing through various Web sites on the Internet in search of interesting things.

**SYSOP** (pronounced siss-op). An acronym derived from system operator. A person who operates a bulletin board system.

**Tab grid.** A series of preset indentions (usually a half inch apart). If the tabs are reset by the user, the grid will change to show the new location of the tabs.

TCP/IP. See Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol.

**Telecommunications.** The process of sending and receiving information by means of telephones, satellites, and other devices.

**Telecommuter.** An employee who works away from the office (usually at home) and uses a **computer** (1) to **access** needed information on the organization's **intranet** and the **Internet** and (2) to communicate with other employees, suppliers, and customers or clients.

**Teleconferencing.** Conducting a conference by using **computers**, video, and **telecommunications** to share sound and images with others at remote sites.

**Telnet.** A protocol that allows a computer to connect with a host computer on the Internet. The use of telnet is diminishing as the Web's hypertext transfer protocol (HTTP) gains in popularity.

**Template.** A preestablished **format** for a **document**, stored in a **computer**. The template determines the margins, the type style and size to be used for the **text**, placement instructions for various elements (such as the date line), and design specifications for certain items (such as a letterhead). A user can simply call up the appropriate template, **insert** text where needed, and then print a final document. The user can modify the original template or create a new template to satisfy personal preferences.

Terminal. Any device that can transmit or receive electronic information.

Text. The information displayed on a screen or printed on paper.

Text entry. The initial act of typing that places text in storage. (See Type.)

Thread. A series of posted messages that represents an ongoing discussion of a specific topic in a bulletin board system, a newsgroup, or a Web site.

Tool bar. See Button bar.

Touchpad. The device on a laptop computer that takes the place of a mouse.

**Touchscreen technology.** The technology that permits a user to perform a function simply by touching the screen in an appropriate spot.

**Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol.** A collection of over 100 **protocols** that are used to connect **computers** and **networks**.

Treeware. Anything printed on paper.

**Type.** To enter **characters** into the **memory** of a **computer**. For a number of years the verb *type* began to be replaced by the verb *key* as a way of emphasizing the difference between a **computer** and a type-writer. However, the simpler verb *type* has made a comeback in computer terminology and is now the word commonly seen in users' manuals and on **display screens**.

Typeface. See Font; ¶1305d for samples.

Typeover. See Overwriting.

**Uniform resource locator (URL).** The specific Web address for an individual or an organization. (See *World Wide Web*; ¶1537.)

Upload. To transfer information from a client computer to a host computer. (See World Wide Web; ¶1537.)

URL (pronounced you-are-el or erl). See Uniform resource locator.

Usenet (from <u>Users' Network</u>). A bulletin board system that hosts thousands of newsgroups.

**User-friendly.** Describing **hardware** or **software** that is easy to use. A related phrase, *user-obsequious*, describes hardware or software that is so simplistic in design that it is virtually unusable.

**Userid** (pronounced *user-eye-dee*). The name a person must use, along with a password, to gain access to restricted areas on a network.

**Vaporware. Software** that is being widely advertised, even though it is still in the developmental stage and has serious problems which may doom its eventual release. The premature marketing of products like these is designed to deter prospective customers from buying competitive products already available for sale. (See *Brochureware*.)

Veronica. A tool for searching gopher menus to locate information on a particular topic.

Video display terminal (VDT). See Display screen.

Virtual reality. See Cyberspace.



**Virus.** A piece of **computer** code designed as a prank or malicious act to spread from one computer to another by attaching itself to other **programs**. Some viruses simply cause a humorous message to appear on the screen, some cause minor **glitches**, and some cause serious damage to a computer's **memory** or **disks**. (See *Antivirus software*.)

Voicenet. Ordinary telephone service.

WAIS (pronounced ways). See Wide-area information service.

WAN. See Network, wide area.

Web. See World Wide Web.

Web browser. Software that permits a user—with a click of a mouse—to locate, display, and download text, video, audio, and graphics stored in a host computer on the Web. The most common Web browsers now in use are HotJava, Netscape Navigator, and Microsoft Explorer.

**Webcaster.** An **application** that can be custom-tailored to satisfy an individual user's need for constantly updated information in specific areas. A Webcaster, when appropriately programmed, will automatically deliver the needed information to the user's **computer**.

Webmaster. The person who maintains a specific Web site and is responsible for what appears there.

**Web site.** One or more related pages created by an individual or an organization and posted on the **World Wide Web.** (See *Home page*.)

Wide-area information service. An Internet search system that will locate documents that contain key words specified by the user.

**Widow protection.** The ability of a **program** to avoid printing the last line of a paragraph as the first line on a page. When the last line of a paragraph does appear as the first line on a page, it is referred to as a *widow*. (See also *Orphan protection*.)

**Windowing.** The ability of a **program** to split its **display screen** into two or more segments so that the user can view several different **documents** or perform several different functions simultaneously. (See also *Split screen*.)

**Wizard.** A feature of Microsoft Word **software** that helps a user create a customized **document**; it asks the user questions about formatting and content options and uses the answers to create the document. (In WordPerfect this feature is called an *expert*.) The term *wizard* is also used to refer to the person in an organization who can quickly find and fix everyone else's **computer** problems.

Word of mouse. Gossip spread by e-mail.

**Word processing.** The electronic process of creating, formatting, **editing**, proofreading, and printing **documents**. (See *Information processing*.)

Word wrap. A software feature that detects when a word will extend beyond the right margin and automatically transfers it to the beginning of the next line.

Workstation. A desktop computer than runs applications and serves as an access point in a local area network. (See *Network*.)

World Wide Web. The component of the Internet that combines audio, video, and graphics with text. Also called the Web or WWW. Because of frequent delays in accessing the Web, some users prefer to translate WWW as World Wide Wait.

**www.** The World Wide Web. Sometimes pronounced *triple-dub* (to avoid pronouncing each W separately).

**WYSIWYG** (pronounced wizzy-wig). An acronym derived from what you see is what you get. A computer design standard that lets the user see on the screen how a page will look when it is printed.



## APPENDIX C

### **Pronunciation Problems**

The following list of terms represents common pronunciation problems that plague even highly educated people. A good part of the difficulty arises from the fact that the way a word is pronounced may have little relationship to the way it is spelled. (See, for example, the entry for *Natchitoches*.) Or the accent may fall on a syllable where you would not expect it to. (See the entry for *Willamette*.) Further complicating the problem is the existence of regional variations in pronunciation. (See the entries for *Louisville* and *New Orleans*.)

There is no national standard for pronunciation in the United States. Perhaps the nearest thing we have is the pronunciation used by the anchors of the evening news programs on the major TV networks. Thus it is not surprising that many dictionary entries show more than one way to pronounce a given word. In such cases, the first pronunciation shown is considered the preferred pronunciation, that is, the one most commonly heard or the one least likely to cause raised eyebrows. The entries in this appendix ordinarily show only the preferred pronunciation. A few entries will show two pronunciations when they appear to be equally in use.

The judgments reflected in the following entries may strike some readers as wrongheaded or totally at odds with local standards of pronunciation. If you feel confident about pronouncing a word differently from the way it is shown here, go right ahead and say it your way. When you feel less than confident, however, the following guidelines may be of some help.

**A priori.** Pronounce the a as in hah or in hay. Say ah-pree-AW-ree or ay-pree-AW-ree.

**Abdomen.** Put the accent on the first syllable. Say AB-duh-mun (NOT ab-DOE-mun).

Accessory. Say ack-SESS-uh-ree (NOT ass-SESS-uh-ree).

Across. Say uh-KRAWSS (NOT uh-KRAWST).

Ad hoc. Say ADD-HOCK.

**Affluent, affluence.** Put the accent on the first syllable, not the second. Say *AF-floo-ent* and *AF-floo-enss* (**NOT** *af-FLOO-ent* and *af-FLOO-enss*).

**Albeit.** Pronounce this word as three syllables. Say awl-BEE-it.

Alleged. Say uh-LEJD (NOT uh-LEJ-ed).

**Alumnus**, alumna. The male singular form alumnus is pronounced uh-LUM-nus. The female singular form alumna is pronounced uh-LUM-nuh. The male plural form alumni is pronounced uh-LUM-neye. The female plural form alumnae is pronounced uh-LUM-nee.

Amicable. Say AM-ick-uh-bul (NOT uh-MICK-uh-bul).

**Analogy, analogous.** The noun *analogy* is pronounced *uh-NAL-luh-jee*. The adjective *analogous* is pronounced *uh-NAL-luh-gus*.

**Angina.** Medical professionals typically pronounce this word as *ANN-jinn-uh*. Others typically say *an-JYE-nuh*.

**Applicable.** Pronounce the first a in applicable as in apple. Say A-plih-kuh-bul (**NOT** uh-PLIH-kuh-bul).

**Apricot.** Pronounce the a as in apt (**NOT** as in ape). Say A-prih-kot.

**Arctic, Antarctic.** Do not overlook the c in these words. Say ARK-tick and ant-ARK-tick (NOT AR-tick and ant-AR-tick).

**Arkansas, Kansas.** There's no sound of *Kansas* in *Arkansas*. Kansas is pronounced *KAN-zus*. Arkansas is pronounced *ARR-kin-saw*. However, when talking about the residents of these two states—Kansans and Arkansans—say *KAN-zuhnz* and *arr-KAN-zuhnz*.

**Asterisk.** Pronounce the last syllable exactly as it is spelled—risk (**NOT** rick or rix).

**Athlete.** This is a two-syllable word. Say ATH-leet (**NOT** ATH-uh-leet).

**Aunt.** Whether you say ANT (as in can't) or ONT (as in font) will depend on where you grew up. Either pronunciation is acceptable.

Awry. Say uh-RYE (NOT AW-ree).

Bass. Rhyme this word with class when it refers to fish. Rhyme it with case in all its other meanings.

Because. Say bih-KAWZ (NOT bee-KUHZ or bee-KAWSS).

Beijing. Say bay-JEENG (NOT bay-ZHEENG).

Beirut. Say bay-ROOT (NOT by-ROOT).

**Beloit.** This city in Wisconsin is pronounced buh-LOYT.

**Berlin.** The city in Germany is pronounced *buhr-LINN*. The cities in New Hampshire and Wisconsin are pronounced *BUHR-linn*.

Binghamton. See -ham.

Birmingham. See -ham.

Boise. Residents of Idaho say BOY-see. Others usually say BOY-zee.

**Bow.** Rhyme *bow* with *how* when it refers to the front part of a ship or the act of bending or yielding. Rhyme *bow* with *hoe* in all its other meanings.

Bowdoin. This college in Maine is pronounced BOE-dun.

**Breech, breeches.** The singular form, *breech*, is pronounced exactly as it is spelled—*BREECH*. The plural form, *breeches* (referring to a pair of pants), is pronounced *BRIH-chiz*.

**Buffet.** When referring to a sideboard or table covered with food, say buh-FAY (NOT boo-FAY). When using the word in all its other meanings, say BUH-feht.

Butte. This city in Montana is pronounced like beaut in beautiful.

**Cairo.** In Egypt this city is pronounced KYE-roe. In Illinois it is pronounced KAY-roe.

Calais. In France this city is pronounced kal-LAY. In Maine it is pronounced KAL-lus. The cal in Calais rhymes with pal.

**Caribbean.** There is no clear preference for *kuh-RIB-bee-yan* over *kar-rib-BEE-yan*, so take your pick.

**Carmel.** In California this city is pronounced *car-MEL*. In Indiana it's pronounced *CAR-mel*.

**Caste.** Rhyme caste with past (**NOT** with paste).

**Cay, Cayman.** The word *cay* is pronounced *KEY* and has the same meaning as *key* (an island or reef). However, *cay* is pronounced *KAY* when referring to the Cayman Islands.

**Celtic.** When referring to the people or their language, say *KELL-tick*. When referring to a Boston basketball player, say *SELL-tick*.

Chaise longue. This French term for a long reclining chair is pronounced shayz LAWNG (NOT shayz LOWN).

**Chamois.** This French term for a type of leather or fabric has a distinctly un-French pronunciation in the United States. Say *SHAM-mee* (NOT sham-WAH).

Chaos. Say KAY-ahss (NOT CHAY-ahss).

**Chassis.** This word has the same spelling in the singular and the plural but not the same pronunciation. Say *CHASS-see* for the singular and *CHASS-see* for the plural.

**Cheyenne.** This city in Wyoming is pronounced *shy-ENN*.

Chimera. Say kye-MEER-uh.

**Clapboard.** This term for a type of house siding is pronounced *KLAB-bird* and not as the spelling might suggest.

Clique. Say KLEEK (NOT KLICK).

Coeur d'Alene. This city in Idaho is pronounced CORE-duh-LANE.

**Comparable.** Pronounce this word as three syllables. Say COM-pruh-bul (NOT com-PAIR-uh-bul).

Conch. Say KONK (NOT KONCH).

**Connecticut.** Ignore the c in the second syllable (nect). Say kuh-NET-ih-kut.

**Consummate.** When used as a verb, *consummate* is pronounced *KON-suh-MAYT*. When used as an adjective, this word is pronounced *KON-suh-muht*.

Copenhagen. Say KOE-pen-HAY-gun (NOT KOE-pen-HOG-gun).

**Corps.** When this word is singular (as in *the Marine Corps*), both the p and the s are silent. Say KAWR. When this word is plural, say KAWRZ.

Coupon. Say KOO-pon (NOT KYOO-pon).

**Croat.** Pronounce this word as two syllables. Say *KROH-aht*.

**Croatian.** Treat this word as three syllables, and pronounce the first a as in day. Say kroh-AY-shun.

Culinary. Say KUH-lih-ner-ree (NOT KYOO-lih-ner-ree).

**Cupola.** The final letter in this word is a (NOT o). Say KYOO-puh-luh (NOT KYOO-puh-loe).

Curação. This island in the Caribbean is pronounced kyoo-rah-SOE.

**Dais.** People sit or stand on the *DAY-iss* (**NOT** the *DYE-iss*).

**Data.** Pronounce the da in data as in day (**NOT** as in dash). Say DAY-tuh.

**Defendant.** Say dif-FEN-dunt (NOT dih-FEN-DANT).

**Des Moines.** This city in Iowa is pronounced dih-MOIN. (The s is silent in both parts of the name.)

**Des Plaines.** This city in Illinois is pronounced *dess-PLAINZ*. (Here the s is sounded in both parts of the name, but it is sounded differently in each case.)

**Detroit.** Say dih-TROYT (NOT DEE-troyt).

Dishevel. The dis in dishevel is not pronounced like the dis in dishearten or dishonor. Say dih-SHEV-uhl.

**Dissociate.** Say dis-SOH-see-ate (**NOT** dis-uh-SOH-see-ate).

Dour. Say DEWR (NOT DOWR).

**Draw, drawer.** Do not add an r sound at the end of draw. By the same token, do not omit the r sound at the end of drawer.

**Dubuque.** This city in Iowa is pronounced *duh-BYOOK*.

**Duquesne.** This city and university in Pennsylvania are both pronounced *doo-KANE*.

Durham, See -ham.

Eau Claire. This city in Wisconsin is pronounced oh-CLAIR.

**Edinburgh.** This city in Scotland is pronounced *EH-din-BURR-uh* (**Not** *EH-din-BURG*).

**Either, neither.** These two words are more commonly pronounced *EE-thur* and *NEE-thur*, but *EYE-thur* and *NYE-thur* are also acceptable.

El Cajon. This city in California is pronounced ell-kuh-HONE.

Err. Pronounce err as in berry.

**Espresso.** There is no x in espresso. Say ess-PRESS-oh (**NOT** ex-PRESS-oh).

**Et cetera.** There is also no x in this phrase. Say ett-SET-ter-uh (**NOT** ex-SET-ter-uh).

**Exquisite.** Put the accent on the second syllable. Say ex-KWIZ-zit.

**Extraordinary.** Say ex-STRAW-dih-ner-ree (NOT EX-truh-AWR-dih-ner-ree).

**February.** Do not ignore the first r in February. Say FEB-roo-err-ree (NOT FEB-yoo-err-ree).

**Forbade.** The bade in forbade (the past tense of forbid) should rhyme with glad (**NOT** glade). Say fur-BAD.

**Formidable.** Put the accent on the first syllable. Say FOR-muh-duh-bul (NOT for-MID-duh-bul).

**Forte.** When *forte* means "strong point" (as in *Tact is not his forte*), pronounce it as one syllable—*FORT.* When *forte* means "loud" (as in a musical direction), pronounce it as two syllables—*FOR-tay.* 

Framingham. See -ham.

**Fraternize.** Note that the second syllable is spelled ter (**NOT** tra). Say FRAT-ter-nize (**NOT** FRAT-tra-nize).

Gauge. The gau in gauge is pronounced gay (NOT gaw as in gauze). Say GAYJ.

**Genuine.** Say *JEN-yuh-win* (**NOT** *JEN-yoo-wine*).

**Gloucester.** This city in Massachusetts is pronounced *GLOSS-ter.* 

Gorham. See -ham.

**Government.** Don't overlook the *n* in *vern*. Say *GUH-vern-ment* (**NOT** *GUH-ver-ment* or *GUH-vuh-mint*).

**Greenwich.** This name, whether it refers to the town in Connecticut or the borough in England or the village in Manhattan, is pronounced *GREN-nitch*. However, the town in Rhode Island—East Greenwich—is pronounced *eest-GREEN-witch*.

**Grenada.** This island in the Caribbean is pronounced gruh-NAY-duh (NOT gruh-NAH-duh).

**Grievous.** Do not make this a three-syllable word. Say GREE-vus (NOT GREE-vee-yus).

**Groton.** This name, whether it refers to the town in Connecticut or the private school in Massachusetts, is pronounced *GROTT-uhn*.

Grovel. Say GRAH-vuhl (NOT GRUH-vuhl).

**-ham.** The suffix -ham is usually pronounced um in short place names such as Chatham, Dedham, Durham, Gorham, Hingham, Mendham, and Wareham. In longer place names, such as Birmingham and Framingham, ham is fully sounded. When ham appears within a long place name, such as Binghamton, it is typically pronounced um.

**Harass, harassment.** Some authorities say that putting the accent on the second syllable—huh-RASS, huh-RASS-ment—is more common among U.S. speakers; others say that the practice of putting the accent on the first syllable is equally common—HA-russ, HA-russ-ment (where the ha is pronounced as in hat). In short, either set of pronunciations is acceptable.

Haverhill. This town in Massachusetts is pronounced HAY-vuh-ruhl.

**Hawaii.** Say huh-WYE-yee (**NOT** huh-VYE-yee).

**Height.** Although there is an h at the end of width, there is no h at the end of height, so pronounce this word HITE (to rhyme with kite) and not as highth.

Heinous. Say HAY-nus.

Helena. The capital of Montana is pronounced with the accent on the first syllable—HEH-leh-nuh.

**Herb.** The h is silent. Say ERB.

Heterogeneous. Say heh-tuh-ruh-JEE-nyuhs.

Hiatus. Say high-ATE-us.

**Hilo.** This city in Hawaii is pronounced *HEE-low*.

Hingham. See -ham.

Hiroshima. Both HEER-uh-SHEE-muh and hih-ROE-shih-muh are commonly used by U.S. speakers.

Hors d'oeuvre. This French term (meaning "appetizer") is pronounced awr-DUHRV. The plural form hors d'oeuvres is pronounced awr-DUHRVZ.

**Houghton Mifflin.** The first part of this publisher's name is pronounced *HOE-tun*.

**Houston.** The city in Texas is pronounced *HYOO-stun*. However, the street in New York City is pronounced *HOW-stun*.

**Ian.** The Gaelic form of the name *John* is pronounced *EE-yan*.

**Illinois.** The s is silent. Say ill-lih-NOY (**NOT** ill-lih-NOYZ).

Implacable. Say im-PLACK-uh-bul (NOT im-PLAYK-uh-bul).

Imprimatur. Say im-pruh-MAH-tuhr.

**Incognito.** Say in-kog-NEE-toe (**NOT** in-KOG-nih-toe).

Indefatigable. Put the accent on fat. Say in-dih-FAT-ig-uh-bul.

**Indict, indictment.** The spelling of these words is misleading. Say *in-DITE*, *in-DITE-ment* (**NOT** *in-DIKT*, *in-DIKT-ment*).

Indigenous. Say in-DIH-jih-nus.

Inexplicable. Say in-ex-PLICK-uh-bul.

**Infamous.** Put the accent on the first syllable. Say *IN-fuh-mus*.

**Integral.** Do not misplace the r when pronouncing this word. Say *IN-tih-grul* (**NOT** *IN-ter-gul* or *IN-trih-gul*). Be sure to accent the first syllable—*IN-tih-grul* (**NOT** *in-TEH-grul*).

**International.** Be sure to pronounce the first *t* in *international*. Say *in-ter-NASH-nul* (**NOT** *in-ner-NASH-nul*).

**Introduce.** Here again, be sure to pronounce the t. Say in-truh-DOOSS (NOT in-ner-DOOSS).

Irrelevant. Say ir-REL-leh-vant (NOT ir-REV-veh-lent).

Irreparable. Pronounce this five-syllable word as four syllables. Say ir-REP-ruh-bul (NOT ir-reh-PAIR-uh-bul).

Irrevocable. Say ir-REV-vuh-kuh-bul (NOT ir-reh-VOE-kuh-bul).

**Itinerary.** Say eye-TIN-nuh-rer-ree (NOT eye-TIN-ner-ree).

Jewelry. Say JOO-well-ree (NOT JOO-luh-ree).

**Jodhpur, jodhpurs.** The city in India, Jodhpur, is pronounced *JAHD-purr*. The plural form, *jodhpurs* (referring to riding breeches), is pronounced *JAHD-purz*. (Note that the word is spelled *hp*, not *ph*. Those who fail to recognize the correct spelling may be tempted to pronounce the word incorrectly as *JAHD-furz*.)

**Junta.** Pronounce the letter j like h and the letter u like oo in wood. Say HOON-tuh.

Kansas. See Arkansas.

**Kilometer.** Most U.S. speakers say *kuh-LOM-muh-ter*, even though *KILL-luh-MEE-ter* logically follows the way in which *centimeter* and *millimeter* are accented. Either pronunciation is acceptable.

La Jolla. This community is southern California is pronounced luh-HOY-yuh.

Laboratory. Do not pronounce the first o. Say LAB-ruh-taw-ree.

Lafayette. The city in California is pronounced la-fee-ETT. The county in Arkansas is pronounced luh-FAY-ett.

**Lagniappe.** This French word (used in places like Louisiana to signify a small gift or something extra that is given to a customer who makes a purchase) is pronounced *lan-YAP*.

Laredo. This city in Texas is pronounced luh-RAY-doe.

Leavenworth. The first part of this Kansas city name rhymes with heaven.

**Length.** Be sure to pronounce the g. Say LENGTH (**NOT** LENTH).

**Liaison.** Say *LEE-uh-zahn* (**NOT** *LAY-uh-zahn* or *lee-YAY-zahn*).

**Library.** Do not overlook the first r. Say LIE-brer-ree (**NOT** LIE-ber-ree).

**Lilac.** Say *LIE-lock* (**NOT** *LIE-lack*).

**Lima.** The city in Peru is pronounced *LEE-muh*. The city in Ohio is pronounced *LIE-muh* (as in *lima bean*).

**Long-lived.** Pronounce the *i* in *lived* as in *life* (**NOT** as in *liver*).

**Los Angeles.** Pronounce the g in Angeles as a j and the es as us. Say lawss-ANN-juh-lus (**not** lawss-ANG-guh-leez).

Louisiana. Residents of the state say loo-zee-YAN-nuh. Others usually say loo-wee-zee-YAN-nuh.

Louisville. Residents of Kentucky say LOO-uh-vul. Others usually say LOO-wee-vill.

**Mackinac.** The spelling for this island in Michigan does not reveal the correct pronunciation. Say MACK-in-naw (NOT MACK-in-nack).

Marseilles. The city in France is pronounced mar-SAY. The city in Illinois is pronounced mar-SAILS.

**Memento.** Note that this word begins with me (NOT mo). Say meh-MEN-toe (NOT moe-MEN-toe).

**Metairie.** This suburb of New Orleans is pronounced *MET-uh-ree* (**NOT** *meh-TAIR-ree*).

Minuscule. Say MIH-nus-kyool (NOT MINE-nus-kyool).

**Minute.** When referring to a small period of time, say *MIN-nit*. When referring to something extremely small, say *my-NOOT*.

Mischievous. Say MISS-chiv-vus (NOT miss-CHEE-vee-yus).

Misled. Do not be misled by the spelling of this word. Say miss-LED (NOT MYZ-zuhld).

**Mobile.** The city in Alabama is pronounced *moe-BEEL*. The adjective (meaning "movable") is pronounced *MOE-bul*. The common noun referring to a type of sculpture that moves is pronounced *MOE-beel*.

Moscow. The city is Russia is pronounced MAHSS-kow. The city in Idaho is pronounced MAHSS-koe.

**Mount Desert.** This island in Maine is pronounced mount-deh-ZERT (**not** mount-DEZ-zert).

**Nacogdoches.** This city in Texas is pronounced *nack-kuh-DOE-chez*.

**Natchitoches.** You might think this city in Louisiana was pronounced much like *Nacogdoches*, but you'd be wrong. Ignore the spelling and say *NACK-kuh-tish*.

Neither. See Either.

**Nevada.** When residents of Nevada pronounce this name, they typically sound the first *a* like the *a* in *man: neh-VAA-duh.* Outsiders typically pronounce this name as *neh-VAH-duh.* And residents of Nevada County in Arkansas pronounce this name *nuh-VAY-duh.* 

**New Orleans.** Residents of Louisiana typically say *noo-WAH-linz*; some even say *noo-wah-LEENZ*. Outsiders typically say *noo-ARR-linz*.

Newark. The city in New Jersey is pronounced NOO-erk. The city in Delaware is pronounced NOO-ARK.

Newfoundland. This Canadian province is pronounced with the accent on New. Say NOO-finned-lund.

Nuclear. Say NOO-klee-ur (NOT NOO-kyoo-lur).

**Often.** Ignore the t. Say AWF-fen (NOT AWF-ten).

**Oregon.** Many residents of this state pronounce the name as two syllables—AWR-gun. Others (including most outsiders) say AWR-ruh-gun. There seems to be substantial agreement that the or in Oregon should not be pronounced ahr and that gon should not be pronounced as in Gone With the Wind.

**Paradigm, paradigmatic.** The opening syllables para are pronounced as in parachute. The g is silent in the noun paradigm; say PAR-uh-dime. The g is pronounced in the adjective paradigmatic; say par-uh-dig-MAT-tick.

Parliament. Ignore the i. Say PARR-luh-ment.

Patronize. Pronounce the pa as in pay (NOT as in pat). Say PAY-truh-nyze.

**Peabody.** This town in Massachusetts is pronounced *PEA-buh-dee* (**NOT** *PEA-bah-dee*).

Pecan. Say pih-KAN (NOT pih-KAHN). However, pronounce the phrase pecan pie as PEA-kan PIE.

**Pedagogue.** Pronounce the go as in got (Not as in goat). Say PEH-duh-gahg.

**Pedagogy.** Unlike the go in pedagogue (pronounced as in got), the go in pedagogy is pronounced as in goat. Moreover, the gy is pronounced jee. Say PEH-duh-goe-jee.

**Perspiration.** Say PER-spuh-ray-shun (NOT PRESS-per-ray-shun).

**Phoenix.** Pronounce this city in Arizona FEE-nicks.

**Pianist.** *Pee-ANN-ist* is the preferred pronunciation, but *PEE-uh-nist* is also acceptable.

Picture. Say PIHK-chur (NOT PIT-chur).

**Pierre.** This two-syllable French name (pronounced *pee-YAIR*) is pronounced as only one syllable—*PEER*—when it refers to the capital of South Dakota.

**Poignant.** Do not pronounce the g. Say POY-nyent (NOT POYG-nant).

Poinsettia. Ignore the second i. Say poyn-SET-tuh.

**Posthumous.** The po in posthumous is pronounced as in pot (NOT as in post). Say POSS-chum-mus.

**Potpourri.** This French word (meaning "mixture" or "medley") is pronounced *poe-puh-REE*.

**Poughkeepsie.** This city in the state of New York is pronounced *puh-KIPP-see*.

**Precedent.** Put the accent on the first syllable. Say *PRESS-uh-dent* (**NOT** *pruh-SEE-dent*).

**Prerogative.** Note that the first syllable is spelled *pre* (**NOT** *per*). Say *prih-ROGG-uh-tiv* (**NOT** *per-ROGG-uh-tiv*).

**Preventive.** Do not insert an extra syllable in this word. Say prih-VEN-tiv (NOT prih-VEN-tuh-tiv).

**Primer.** When referring to a very basic book, say *PRIM-mer.* For all other meanings of the word, say *PRYE-mer.* 

**Probably.** Pronounce this word as three syllables. Say *PRAH-buh-blee* (**NOT** *PRAH-blee*).

**Pronunciation.** Unlike the *ounce* sound in the verb *pronounce*, there is no *ounce* sound in the noun *pronunciation*. Say *pruh-nun-see-YAY-shun* (**NOT** *pruh-noun-see-YAY-shun*).

**Pseudo.** The p is silent. Say SOO-doe.

**Puerto Rico.** PWAIR-toe-REE-koe is preferred, but POR-toe-REE-koe is also acceptable.

**Pulitzer.** The name of the prize is pronounced *PULL-uht-suhr* (**Not** *PYOOL-uht-suhr*).

**Puyallup.** This city in Washington is pronounced *pyoo-AL-up* (**NOT** *poo-YAL-up*).

Quay. Say KEE (NOT KAY or KWAY).

Quincy. The city in Illinois is pronounced KWIN-see. The city in Massachusetts is pronounced KWIN-see.

**Re.** The Latin preposition *re* (whether used alone or in the phrase *in re*) is usually pronounced *RAY*, but many lawyers say *REE*.

**Reading.** As an ordinary common noun, *reading* is pronounced *REE-ding*. However, as a proper noun referring to the city in Pennsylvania or the town in Massachusetts, *Reading* is pronounced *RED-ding*.

**Realtor.** This word is commonly mispronounced *REE-luh-ter*, as if the word were spelled *Relator*. Either pronounce the word correctly—*REE-uhl-ter*—or say real estate agent and avoid the problem altogether.

**Recognize.** Do not overlook the g. Say REH-kug-nyze (NOT REH-kuh-nyze).

Recur. Say ree-KURR (NOT ree-uh-KURR).

Reputable. Accent the first syllable. Say REH-pyuh-tuh-bul.

Respite. Say RESS-pit (NOT re-SPITE).

**Row.** This word rhymes with *how* when it means "uproar." *Row* rhymes with *hoe* in all its other meanings.

Sacrilege, sacrilegious. Pronounce the sa as in sack. Say SA-kruh-lihj, sa-kruh-LIH-juhs.

Sagacious. Say suh-GAY-shus (NOT suh-GASH-us).

Salisbury. When referring to the city in Maryland or North Carolina, say SAWLZ-ber-ree.

**San Jacinto.** The "proper" pronunciation of this town in California is *san-huh-SIN-toe*. Nevertheless, the pronunciation most commonly heard today is *san-juh-SIN-tuh*.

San Joaquin. When referring to the river or the county in California, say san-wah-KEEN.

San Jose. When referring to the city in California, say san-uh-ZAY or san-hoe-ZAY.

**San Juan.** The capital of Puerto Rico is pronounced san-WAHN.

San Rafael. This city in California is pronounced san-ruh-FELL.

**Sandwich.** Don't overlook the d. Say SAND-witch (**NOT** SAN-witch or SAM-witch).

**Schedule.** U.S. speakers say *SKED-jyool*; Canadian and British speakers say *SHED-jyool*.

Schism. Say SIH-zum (NOT SKIH-zum).

**Sean.** The Irish form of the name *John* is pronounced *SHAWN*.

**Sieve.** Say SIV (**NOT** SEEV).

**Similar.** Say SIH-mill-er (**NOT** SIM-yoo-ler or sih-MILL-yer).

Sioux City, Sioux Falls. Pronounce Sioux as SOO.

**Solder**, **soldier**. Pronounce solder as SOD-der and soldier as SOUL-jer.

**Spokane.** This city in Washington is pronounced *spoe-KAN* (**not** *spoe-KAIN*).

**Spontaneity.** Say spon-tuh-NAY-uh-tee (**NOT** spon-tuh-NEE-uh-tee).

**St. Augustine.** When referring to the city in Florida, pronounce *Augustine* as *AW-guh-steen*. When referring to the saint himself, say *uh-GUS-tin*.

St. Louis. When referring to the city in Missouri, pronounce Louis as LOO-wiss (NOT LOO-wee).

**Status.** The sta in status may be pronounced as in stay or in stack. In the expression status quo, sta is more commonly pronounced as in stack. Say STA-tuhs KWOE.

**Strength.** Do not overlook the q in this word. Say STRENGTH (**NOT** STRENTH).

Suave. Say SWAHV (NOT SWAYV).

Subpoena. Say suh-PEE-nuh.

**Subtle, subtlety.** Say SUT-uhl and SUT-uhl-tee.

**Superfluous.** Put the stress on the second syllable. Say soo-PER-floo-us (NOT SOO-per-FLOO-us).

**Tempe.** This city in Arizona is pronounced tem-PEE (**NOT** TEM-pee).

**Temperament, temperature.** Ignore the second e in these words. Say TEM-pruh-ment and TEM-pruhchoor.

**Terre Haute.** This city in Indiana is pronounced ter-ruh-HOAT. (Haute rhymes with boat.)

**Tucson.** This city in Arizona is pronounced *TOO-sahn*.

**Tête-á-tête.** Pronounce this French phrase TET-uh-TET (NOT TATE-uh-TATE).

**Uranus.** The planet Uranus is pronounced YUR-uh-nus (NOT yuh-RAY-nus).

**Valparaiso.** When referring to the city in Chile, say val-puh-RYE-zoe. When referring to the city in Indiana, say val-puh-RAY-zoe.

**Vanilla.** Say vuh-NIL-luh (**NOT** vuh-NEL-luh).

**Vegan**, **vegetarian**. Although a vegan is a vegetarian, the q is pronounced differently in these words. Say VEE-gun and veh-juh-TAIR-ree-yan.

**Versailles.** When referring to the palace in France, say *ver-SIGH*. When referring to the town in Ohio, say ver-SAILS.

**Veterinarian.** Say veh-tuh-ruh-NAIR-ree-yun (NOT veh-tih-NAIR-ree-yan).

**Vichyssoise.** Say vih-shee-SWAHZ (NOT vih-shee-SWAH).

**Waco.** This city in Texas is pronounced WAY-koe (**NOT** WACK-koe).

Wareham. See -ham.

Warwick. This city in Rhode Island is pronounced WAR-rick.

Waukegan. This city in Illinois is pronounced waw-KEE-gun.

Waukesha. This city in Wisconsin is pronounced WAW-kuh-SHAW.

**Width.** Don't overlook the d. Say WIDTH (**NOT** WITH).

Wilkes-Barre. This city in Pennsylvania is pronounced WILKS-bar-ruh (NOT WILKS-bar-ree). Pronounce the a in Barre as in bat.

Willamette. This river in Oregon is pronounced will-LAM-met (NOT WILL-luh-met).

**Worcester, Worcestershire.** The *Wor* in these words is pronounced *woo* as in *wood*. When referring to the city in Massachusetts, say WOO-ster. When referring to the sauce or the city in England, say WOO-stuh-shirr.

**Ypsilanti.** This city in Michigan is pronounced *ip-sil-LAN-tee*.

This index contains many entries for individual words. If you are looking for a specific word that is not listed, refer to ¶719, 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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#### **Proofreaders' Marks**

PRO	OFREADERS' MARK	DRAFT	PRO	OFREADERS' MARK	DRAFT
ss⊏	Single-space	I have heard	^	Drop below the line	A A H2SO4
	SS	he is leaving	0	Insert a period	MroHenry Grenada
ds□	Double-space ds	When will you	3	Insert a comma	a large, old house
		have a decision?	₹	Insert an apostrophe	my childrens car
+12#>	Insert 1 line space +18	Percent of Change	<b>∜</b> ₹	Insert quotation marks	he wants a loan
-12#>	Delete (remove) 1 line space -I&		=	Insert a hyphen	a first=rate job ask the coowner
0	Delete space	regional sales	i M	Insert a one-em dash or change a hyphen to a one-em dash	SuccessMat last!  Here it is acash!
*	Insert space	Itmay be		Insert italics	Do it now, Bill!
3	Move as shown	it is not true	no ital	Delete italics	Do it now!
S	Transpose	beleivable	~~~~	Change to boldface	CONFIDENTIAL
0	Spell out	Oyears ago	2 no bf	Delete boldface	Ship by June 19 no bf
0	Spell out	16 Elm St		Insert underline	an issue of Time
^ OR /	Insert a word	How much it?	53	Delete underline	a very long day
9 OR -	Delete a word or a punctuation mark	it may not be true.	()	Insert parentheses	left today(May 3)
∧ on ⋌	Insert a letter	a temperture	9	Start a new paragraph	¶If that is so
3 OR 7		committment to buy	2	Indent 2 spaces	Net investment in tangible assets
0	Add on to a word	a real good day	1/2"	Indent 0.5 inch	As a general rule, leave a top margin
9 OR /	Change a letter	this superredes		Move to the right	\$38,367,000
& OR -	Change a word	bute and if you won't		Move to the left	Anyone can win!
	Stet (don't delete)	I was very glad		Center	Table A-15
/	Lowercase a letter (make it a small letter)	Federal Covernment	=	Align horizontally	Bob Muller
Ξ	Capitalize	Janet L. greyston	11	Altala constants	
~	Raise above the line	in her new book ₂	11	Align vertically	Jon Peters Ellen March

For further information about proofreaders' marks, see pages 318-319.

#### Abbreviations of States and Territories of the United States

Alaska American Samoa Arizona	  Ariz.	KS KY LA	Kansas Kentucky Louisiana	Kans. Ky.	ОН	Mariana Islands Ohio	
Samoa Arizona		LA	,	Ky.	OH	Ohio	
Arizona			Louisiana				
	Ariz.		Lociolatia	La.	OK	Oklahoma	Okla.
m		ME	Maine		OR	Oregon	Oreg.
2	Ark.	MH	Marshall Islands		PW	Palau	
•	Calif.	MD	Maryland				
	Colo.	MA	Massachusetts	DF 1	479	.B87 S23 2	1001
	Conn.	MI	Michigan	FD 1	217		
	Del.	MN	Minnesota	1		177 - m 7	
	•	MS	Mississippi	Sabi	n, W	illiam A.	
THE PARTY OF THE P	D.C.	MO	Missouri				
		MT	Montana	mho	Cred	a reference	ce manu
48.		NE	Nebraska	The	Greg	9 10101	
	Fla.	NV	Nevada				
	Ga.	NH	New Hampshire				
		NJ	New Jersey			virginia	Va.
··· ··· III.		NM	New Mexico	N. Mex.	WA	Washington	Wash.
		NY	New York	N.Y. NAC	HWWH	www.West-Vitdinierry	W. Va.
	HI.	NC	North Carolina	N.C	VA/I	Wisconsin	Wis.
	Ind.	ND .	North Dakota	N. Dak. 30	U EVAL.	2MAgmud150	Wyo.
	hus, letter abbreve	Colo. Conn. Del.  D.C Fla. Ga Ill. Ind.	Colo. Conn. Del.  MI Del.  MN MS D.C.  MO MT NE Fla. RV Ga. NH NJ NY III. INC Ind.  NA MA MA MA MA MI MA MI MN MS NY MI MI MI NC Ind.  NA MI MA MI MA MI MI MI MI MI MI MI MI MI NC Ind.  NA MI	Colo. Conn. Del. MI Michigan Minnesota MS Mississippi MO Missouri MT Montana NE Nebraska Fla. NV Nevada Ga. NH New Hampshire NJ New Jersey NM New Mexico NY New York III. NC North Carolina Ind. ND North Dakota	Colo. Conn. Del. MA Massachusetts PE 1  MI Michigan MI Minnesota MS Mississippi Sabi  D.C. MO Missouri MT Montana The Nebraska Fla. NV Nevada Ga. NH New Hampshire NJ New Jersey NM New Mexico N. Mex. NY New York NY NASK III. NC North Carolina N.C. N. Dak 300	Colo. Conn. Del.  MI Michigan MN Minnesota MS Mississippi MO Missouri MT Montana ME Nebraska Fla. NV Nevada Ga. NH New Hampshire MI New Mexico MY New Mexico MY New York	Colo. Conn. Del. MA Massachusetts PE 1479 .B87 S23 2  MI Michigan MN Minnesota MS Mississippi Sabin, William A.  D.C. MO Missouri MT Montana The Gregg reference NE Nebraska Ga. NH New Hampshire NJ New Jersey NH New Mexico N. Mex. WA Washington NY New York NY NASA HAMIQUALTER YELDOWNY NY NEW YORK NY NY NY NEW YORK NY

Use the two-letter abbreviation on the left when abbreviating state names in addres #33 H #370 h #4 it #470 h at calls for abbreviations of state names, use the abbreviations on the right; if no abbreviation is given, spell the name out.

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