

The following is a reproduction of the “Basic Manual of Style” in *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language: The Unabridged Edition*, ed. Jess Stein and Laurence Urdang (New York: Random House, 1967), pp. 1896–1902.

In this concise manual, not every acceptable alternative has been included. Every suggestion here, however can be used with confidence. The style practices described here are those prevalent in [North America].

Punctuation

PERIOD (.)

Use a period:

1. To end a declarative or imperative sentence (but not an exclamatory sentence).
The meeting was amicable and constructive.
Please pass the salt.
Read the next two chapter before Friday.
2. To end an indirect question.
Tell us when the plane is leaving.
3. To follow most abbreviations.

ELLIPSIS (... or)

Use an ellipsis mark (three or four consecutive periods) to indicate that part of a quoted sentence has been omitted.

1. If the omission occurs at the beginning or in the middle of the sentence, use three periods in the ellipsis.
“... the book is lively ... and well written.”
2. If the last part of the sentence is omitted or if entire sentences are omitted, add a fourth period to the ellipsis to mark the end of the sentence.
“He left his home Years later her returned to find that everything had changed”

QUESTION MARK (?)

Use a question mark:

1. To end a sentence, clause, or phrase (or after a single word) that asks a question.
Who invited him to the party?
“Is something wrong?” she asked.
Who said “When?”
Whom shall we elect? Smith? Jones?
2. To indicate doubt or uncertainty.
The manuscript dates back to 560(?) B.C.

EXCLAMATION POINT (!)

Use an exclamation point to end a sentence, clause, or phrase (or after a single word) that indicates strong emotion or feeling, especially surprise, command, admiration, etc.

Go away!
What a day this has been!
“Hey, there!” he shouted.
“Wow!”

COMMA (,)

Use a comma:

1. To separate words, phrases, and clauses that are part of a series of three or more items.

The Danes are an industrious, friendly, generous, and hospitable people.

The chief agricultural products of Denmark are butter, eggs, potatoes, beets, wheat, barley, and oats.

It is permissible to omit the final comma before the *and* in a series of words as long as the absence of a comma does not interfere with clarity of meaning. The final commas in the examples above, which desirable, are not essential.

In many cases, however, the inclusion or omission of the final comma might indicate that [for example] the tanks were amphibious.

Their equipment included airplanes, helicopters, artillery, amphibious vehicles, and tanks.

Do not use commas to separate two items treated as a single unit within a series.

For breakfast he ordered orange juice, bread and butter, coffee, and bacon and eggs.

But

At the supermarket he bought orange juice, bread, butter, bacon, and eggs.

2. Do not use commas to separate adjectives which are so closely related that they appear to form a single element with the noun they modify. Adjectives which refer to the number, age (*old, young, new*), size, colour, or location of the noun often fall within this category. A simple test can usually determine the appropriateness of a comma in such instances: If *and* can not replace the comma without creating a clumsy, almost meaningless effect, it is safe to conclude that a comma is also out of place.

twenty happy little youngsters

a dozen large blue dresses

several dingy old Western mining towns

beautiful tall white birches

But commas must be used in the following cases where clarity demands separation of the items in a series:

a dozen large blue, red, yellow, and green dresses

twenty old, young, and middle-aged spectators

In a series of phrases or dependent clauses, place a comma before the conjunction.

He sold his business, rented his house, gave up his car, paid his creditors, and set off for Africa.

They strolled along the city streets, browsed in the bookshops, and dined at their favourite café.

3. To separate independent clauses joined by the coordinating conjunctions *and, but, yet, for, or, nor*.

Almost any man knows how to earn money, but not one in a million knows how to spend it.

The comma may be omitted in sentences consisting of two short independent clauses.

We missed the train but we caught the bus in time.

4. To separate a long introductory phrase or subordinate clause from the rest of the sentence.

Having rid themselves of their former rulers, the people now disagreed on the new leadership.

Although the details have not been fully developed, scientists are confident of man's reaching the moon.

5. To set off words or direct address, interjections, or transitional words used to introduce a sentence (*oh, yes, no, however, nevertheless, still, anyway, well, why, frankly, really, moreover, incidentally, etc.*).

Jim, where have you been?

Oh, here's our new neighbour.

Why, you can't mean that!

- Still, you must agree that he knows his business.
 Fine, we'll get together.
 Well, can you image that!
6. To set off an introductory modifier (adjective, adverb, participle, participial phrase) even if it consists of only one word or a short phrase.
 Politically, our candidate has proved to be inept.
 Hurt, she left the room quickly.
 Pleased with the result, he beamed at his painting.
 7. To set off a nonrestrictive clause or phrase (an element which is not essential to the basic meaning of the sentence). Place commas both before and after the nonrestrictive portion.
 Our professor did not agree that corporations should be protected as "persons" under the Fourteenth Amendment, although the Supreme Court had held that they were.
 The old hotel, which had housed visiting celebrities for almost a century, remained outwardly unchanged.
 8. To set off appositives or appositive phrases. Place commas both before and after the appositive.
 March, the month of crocuses, can still bring snow and ice.
 One of our major problems, narcotics, remains unsolved.
 Mr. Case, a member of the committee, refused to comment.
 9. To set off parenthetical words and phrases and words of direct address.
 You may, if you insist, demand a retraction.
 The use of pesticides, however, has its disadvantages.
 He knew, nevertheless, that all was lost.
 Mr. Brown, far younger in spirit than his seventy years, delighted in his grandchildren.
 You realize, Mary, that we may never return to Paris.
 10. To set off quoted matter from the rest of the sentence. (See *Quotation Marks* below.)
 11. To set off items in dates and titles of individuals.
 Both John Adams and Thomas Jefferson died on July 4, 1826, just fifty years after the Declaration of Independence.
 A comma may or may not be used when only two items are given in a date.
 Washington was born in February, 1732, in Virginia.
 or
 Washington was born in February 1732, in Virginia.
 12. To set off elements in addresses and geographical locations when the items are written on the same line.
 35 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y.
 1515 Halsted Street, Chicago, Illinois.
 He lived in Lima, Peru, for fifteen years.
 13. To set off titles of individuals.
 Dr. Martin Price, Dean of Admissions
 Mr. John Winthrop, President
 14. To set off the salutation in a personal letter.
 Dear Sam,
 15. To set off the closing in a letter.
 Sincerely yours,
 Very truly yours,
 16. To denote an omitted word or words in one or more parallel constructions within a sentence.
 John is studying Greek; George, Latin.

SEMICOLON (;)

Use a semicolon:

1. To separate independent clauses not joined by a conjunction.
The house burned down; it was the last shattering blow.
The war must continue; we must be satisfied only with victory.
2. To separate independent clauses that are joined by such conjunctive adverbs as *hence*, *however*, *therefore*, etc.
The funds are inadequate; therefore, the project will close down.
Enrollments exceed all expectations; however, there is a teacher shortage.
3. To separate long or possibly ambiguous items in a series, especially when the items already include commas.
The elected officers are Jonathan Crane, president; Frances Glenn, vice president; Edward Morrell, treasurer; and Susan Stone, secretary.
4. To separate elements that are closely related but cannot be joined unambiguously.
Poverty is unbearable; luxury, insufferable.
5. To precede an abbreviation or word that introduces an explanatory or summarizing statement.
On the advice of his broker, after much deliberation, he chose to invest in major industries; i.e., steel, automobiles, and oil.
She organized her work well; for example, by putting correspondence in folders of different colours to indicate degrees of urgency.

COLON (:)

Use a colon:

1. To introduce a series or list of items, examples, or the like.
The three committees are as follows: membership, finance, and nomination.
He named his five favourite poets: Byron, Keats, Tennyson, Hardy, and Auden.
2. To introduce a long formal statement, quotation, or question.
This I believe: All men are created equal and must enjoy equally the rights that are inalienably theirs.
Richards replied: "You are right. There can be no unilateral peace just as there can be no unilateral war. No one will contest that view."
This is the issue: Can an employer dismiss a man simply because he laughs loudly?
Note that the first word of the sentence following the colon is capitalized.
3. To follow a formal salutation, as in a letter or speech.
Dear Mr. Chadwin:
My Fellow Americans:
To Whom It May Concern:
4. To follow the name of the speaker in a play.
Ghost: Revenge his foul and most unnatural murder.
Hamlet: Murder!
5. To separate parts of a citation.
Genesis 3:2.
Journal of Astronomy 15:261–327.
6. To separate hours from minutes in indicating time.
1:30 P.M.
7. To indicate that an initial clause in a sentence will be further explained or illustrated by the material which follows the colon. In effect, the colon is a substitute for such phrases as "for example," or "namely."

It was a city notorious for its inadequacies: its schools were antiquated, its administration was corrupt, and everyone felt the burden of its taxes.

APOSTROPHE (')

Use an apostrophe:

1. To denote the omission of letters, figures, or numerals.

- a. The contraction of a word:

nat'l	m'f'g	ne'er
ma'am	couldn't	won't
I'm	you're	he's
she's	we're	they're

Do not confuse *it's* (contraction of *it is*) with the possessive *its*, which does not contain an apostrophe.

- b. The contraction of a number, usually a date:
the Spirit of '76
the Class of '48
 - c. The omission of letters in quoting dialect:
"I ain't goin' back 'cause I'm doin' mighty fine now."
2. To denote the possessive case of nouns.
 - a. To form the possessive of most singular and plural nouns or of indefinite pronouns not ending in *s*, add an apostrophe and an *s*.
the city's industries
the women's clubs
someone's car
bachelor's degree
 - b. To form the possessive of singular nouns (both common and proper) ending in *s* or the sound of *s*, add an apostrophe and an *s* in most instances.
the horse's mane
the bus's signal light
Tennessee Williams's plays
Kansas's schools
Texas's governor
the class's average
Francis's promotion

But if the addition of an *s* would produce an awkward or unpleasant sound or visual effect, add only an apostrophe.

Socrates' concepts
Aristophanes' comedies
for goodness' sake
for old times' sake

In some cases either form is acceptable.

Mr. Jones's or Jones' employees
Keats's or Keats' poetry

- c. To form the possessive of plural nouns (both common and proper) ending in *s*, add only an apostrophe.

farmers' problems	judges' opinions
students' views	the Smiths' travels
critics' reviews	the Joneses' relatives
two weeks' vacation	three months' delay

Note, however, that plurals not ending in *s* form their possessive by adding the apostrophe and *s*.

men's clothing
women's hats

- d. To denote possession in most compound constructions, add the apostrophe and *s* to the last word of the compound.

anyone else's property
one another's books
brother-in-law's job
the attorney general's office

- e. To denote joint possession by two or more proper names, add the apostrophe and *s* to the last name only.

Brown, Ross and King's law firm
Japan and Germany's agreement
Lewis and Clark's expedition

- f. To denote individual ownership by two or more proper names, add the apostrophe and an *s* to both names.

John's and Mary's skis.

...

QUOTATION MARKS (“ ”)

Use quotation marks:

1. To distinguish spoken words from other matter, as in reporting dialogue.
“God bless us every one!” said Tiny Tim.
2. To mark single words, sentences, paragraphs, or poetic stanzas which are quoted verbatim from the original.
Portia's speech on “the quality of mercy” is one of the most quoted passages from Shakespeare. It was Shaw who wrote: “All great truths begin as blasphemies.”
3. To enclose a quotation within a quotation, in which case a single quotation mark is used.
Reading Jill's letter, Pat said, “Listen to this! ‘I've just received notice that I made Dean's list,’ Isn't that great?”
4. To enclose titles of newspaper and magazine articles, essays, stories, poems, and chapters of books. The quotation marks are designed to distinguish such literary pieces from the books or periodicals (these are italicized) in which they appear.
Our anthology contains such widely assorted pieces as Bacon's essay, “Of Studies,” Poe's “The Gold Bug,” Keats's “Ode to a Nightingale,” and an article on criticism from *The Saturday Review*.
5. To enclose titles of short musical compositions and songs as distinct from symphonies and operas which are italicized.
Our national anthem is “O Canada.”
Even the youngsters laughed at the “Figaro” aria from *The Barber of Seville*.
6. To enclose titles of works of art such as paintings, drawings, photographs, and sculpture.
Most people recognize Da Vinci's “Mona Lisa” or Rodin's “The Thinker.”
7. To enclose titles of radio and television programs.
“Quirks and Quarks”
“The Nature of Things”

8. To enclose titles of plays *only* if they are referred to as part of a larger collection. Referred to as single volumes, they are italicized.
 “The Wild Duck” is the Ibsen play included in this edition of *Modern European Plays*.
9. To enclose names of ships and airplanes. Italics may also be used for this purpose.
 Lindbergh flew across the Atlantic in the “Spirit of St. Louis.”
 We sailed on the “Queen Elizabeth.”
10. To emphasize a word or phrase which is itself the subject of discussion.
 The words “imply” and “infer” are not synonymous.
 Such Freudian terms as the “ego,” the “superego,” the “id,” and the “libido” are now considered part of the English language.
11. To draw attention to an uncommon word or phrase, a technical term, or a usage very different in style (dialect, extreme slang) from the context. Italics are often used for the same purpose.
 Teachers need not be dismayed when students smirk at “square” traditions.
 In glassblowing, the molten glass is called “metal.”
12. To suggest ironic use of a word or phrase.
 The radio blasting forth John’s favourite “music” is to his grandfather an instrument of torture.
 Bob’s skiing “vacation” consisted of three weeks with his leg in a cast.

NOTE: The placement of quotation marks is determined by certain arbitrary rules and varies with different marks of punctuation.

1. Use quotation marks both before and after a quoted word, phrase, or longer passage.
2. Use a comma between the quoted matter and such phrases as “according to the speaker,” “he said,” “she replied,” “they asked,” whenever these phrases introduce a quotation, are used parenthetically, or follow a quotation which, in its original form, would end with a period.
 According to the Declaration of Independence, “all men are created equal.”
 “Well,” announced John’s father, “we are going to the zoo next week.”
 John asked, “Why not this week?”
 “We’re going to visit Grandpa,” replied his father.
3. Whenever such phrases as “he said,” “he replied,” or “he asked” follow a question or an exclamation, use the corresponding punctuation before the end quotation mark.
 “Why can’t we go this week?” asked John.
 “We simply can’t. And that’s final!” replied his father.
4. Always place the end quotation mark *before* a colon or semicolon.
 He remembered that the boys had always called Tom “the champ”; he began to wonder if the reputation endured.
 There were several reasons why Tom was acknowledged as “the champ”: physical strength, intellectual superiority, and qualities of leadership.
5. Place the end quotation mark *after* a question mark or exclamation point only when the question or exclamation is part of the quoted passage.
 “Hurry, please, before it’s too late!” she cried.
 “Is there any hope of recovering the property?” he asked.
 In all other cases, place the quotation mark *before* the exclamation point or question mark.
 Did Pangloss really mean it when he said, “This is the best of all possible worlds”?
 How absurd of him to say “This is the best of all possible worlds”!
6. If a quotation consists of two or more consecutive paragraphs, use quotation marks at the beginning of each paragraph, but place them at the end of the last paragraph only.

PARENTHESES ()

Use parentheses:

1. To enclose material that is not part of the main sentence but is too relevant to omit.
Faulkner's novels (published by Random House) were selected as prizes.
Mr. Johnson (to the chairman): Will you allow that question to pass unanswered?
The data (see Table 13) were very impressive.
2. To enclose part of a sentence that, if enclosed by commas, would be confusing.
The authors he advised (none other than Hemingway, Lewis, and Cather) would have been delighted to honour him today.
3. To enclose an explanatory item that is not part of the statement or sentence.
He wrote to The Paris (Illinois) News.
4. To enclose numbers or letters that designate each item in a series.
The project is (1) too expensive, (2) too time-consuming, and (3) poorly staffed.
He was required to take courses in (a) mathematics, (b) English, (c) history, and (d) geology.
5. To enclose a numerical figure used to confirm a spelled-out number which precedes it.
Enclosed is a check for ten dollars (\$10.00) to cover the cost of the order.

BRACKETS []

Brackets are used in pairs to enclose figures, phrases, or sentences that are meant to be set apart from the context—usually a direct quotation.

Use brackets:

1. To set off a notation, explanation, or editorial comment that is inserted in quoted material and is not part of the original text.
According to the Globe critic, "This [Man and Superman] is one of Shaw's greatest plays."
Or substitute the bracketed proper name for the pronoun: "[*Man and Superman*] is one of Shaw's"
"As a result of the Gemini V mission [the flight by astronauts Cooper and Conrad in August 1965], we have proof that man can withstand the eight days in space required for a round trip to the moon."
"Young as they are," he writes, "these students are afflicted with cynicism, world-weariness, and a total disregard for tradition and authority." [Emphasis is mine.]
2. To correct an error in a quotation.
"It was on April 25, 1944 [1945—Ed.] that delegates representing forty-six countries met in San Francisco."
3. To indicate that an error in fact, spelling, punctuation, or language usage is quoted deliberately in an effort to reproduce the original statement with complete accuracy. The questionable fact or expression is followed by the Latin word *sic*, meaning "thus," which is enclosed in brackets.
"George Washington lived during the seventeenth [sic] century."
"The governor of Missisipi [sic] addressed the student body."
4. To enclose stage directions in plays. Parentheses may also be used for this purpose.
Juliet: [Snatching Romeo's dagger] ... O happy dagger! This is thy sheath; [Stabs herself] there rest and let me die.
5. To enclose comments made on a verbatim transcription of a speech, debate, or testimony.
Sen. Eaton: The steady rise in taxes must be halted. [Applause]

6. To substitute for parentheses within material already enclosed by parentheses. Although it is not seen frequently, this device is sometimes used in footnotes.

¹See “René Descartes” (M.C. Beardsley, *The European Philosophers from Descartes to Nietzsche* [New York, 1960]).

7. To enclose the publication date, inserted by the editor, of an item appearing in an earlier issue of a periodical. This device is used in letters to the editor or in articles written on subjects previously reported. Parentheses may also be used for this purpose.

Dear Sir: Your excellent article on China [April 15] brings to mind my recent experience ...
When removing old wallpaper [Homeowners' Monthly, March 1965] some do-it-yourselfers neglect to ...

EM DASH (—)

Use an em dash:

1. To mark an abrupt change in thought or grammatical construction in the middle of a sentence.
He won the game—but I'm getting ahead of the story.
2. To suggest halting or hesitant speech.
“Well—er—ah—it's hard to explain,” he faltered.
3. To indicate a sudden break or interruption before a sentence is completed.
“Harvey, don't climb up that —.” It was too late.
4. To add emphasis to parenthetical material or to mark an emphatic separation between parenthetical material and the rest of a sentence.
His influence—he was a powerful figure in the community—was a deterrent to effective opposition.
The excursions for school groups—to museums, zoos and theatres—are less expensive.
The car he was driving—a gleaming red convertible—was the most impressive thing about him.
5. To set off an appositive or an appositive phrase when a comma would provide less than the desired emphasis on the appositive or when the use of commas might result in confusion with commas within the appositive phrase.
The premier's promise of changes—land reform, higher wages, reorganization of industry—was not easily fulfilled.
6. To replace an offensive word or part of one.
Where the h— is he?
Where's that son of a —?

EN DASH (–)

Use an en dash to indicate a range of three or more numbers or letters that designate each item in a series.

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HYPHEN (-)

The hyphenation of compound nouns and modifiers is often arbitrary, inconsistent, and subject to change. Practices vary. To determine current usage as well as traditional forms, it is best to consult [a recently published] dictionary.

Use a hyphen:

1. To spell out a word or name.
r-e-a-s-o-n
G-a-e-l-i-c

2. To divide a word into syllables.
hal-lu-ci-na-tion
3. To mark the division of a word of more than one syllable at the end of a line, indicating that the word is to be completed on the following line.
It is difficult to estimate the damaging psycho-
logical effects of poverty.
4. To separate the parts (when spelling out numerals) of a compound number from twenty-one to ninety-nine.
thirty-six inches to the yard
Fifty-second Street
nineteen hundred and forty-three
5. To express decades in words.
the nineteen-twenties
the eighteen-sixties
6. To separate (when spelling out numerals) the numerator from the denominator of a fraction, especially a fraction which is used as an adjective.
One-half cup of milk
a two-thirds majority

While some authorities avoid hyphenating fractions used as nouns, the practice is not uncommon.

Three fourths (or three-fourths) of his constituents
One fifth (or one-fifth) of the class

Do not use a hyphen to indicate a fraction if either the numerator or denominator is already hyphenated.

one thirty-second
forty-five hundredths
twenty-one thirty-sixths

7. To form certain compound nouns
 - a. Nouns consisting of two or more words which show the combination of two or more constituents, qualities, or functions in one person or thing.
secretary-treasurer city-state
teacher-counselor AFL-CIO
 - b. Nouns made up of two or more words, including other parts of speech.
cease-fire editor-in-chief
coat-of-arms fourth-grader
court-martial hand-me-down
cure-all has-been
do-gooder jack-in-the-pulpit
do-it-yourselfer post-mortem

Do not hyphenate compound nouns denoting chemical terms, military rank, or certain governmental positions.

hydrogen sulfide	sergeant at arms
sodium chloride	brigadier general
carbon tetrachloride	lieutenant junior grade
vice admiral	attorney general
lieutenant governor	private first class
justice of the peace	

8. To connect the elements of a compound modifier when used *before* the noun it modifies. In most cases, the same modifier is not hyphenated if it *follows* the noun it modifies.

They engaged in hand-to-hand combat.
 They fought hand to hand.
 They endured a hand-to-mouth existence.
 They lived hand to mouth.
 a well-known expert
 an expert who is well known

Do not hyphenate a compound modifier which includes an adverb ending in *ly* even when it is used before the noun.

his loose-fitting jacket
 his loosely fitting jacket
 a well-guarded secret
 a carefully guarded secret

9. To distinguish a less common pronunciation or meaning of a word from its more customary usage.

COMMON FORM:	HYPHENATED FORM:
a recreation hall	re-creation of a scene
to recover from an illness	re-cover the couch
to reform a sinner	re-form their lines

10. To prevent possible confusion in pronunciation if a prefix results in the doubling of a letter, especially a vowel.

anti-inflationary	co-op
co-ordinate	pre-empt
pre-eminent	re-enact
re-election	re-entry

11. To join the following prefixes with *proper* nouns or adjectives.

<i>anti</i>	anti-American, anti-British
<i>mid</i>	mid-Victorian, mid-Atlantic, mid-August
<i>neo</i>	neo-Nazi, neo-conservative
<i>non</i>	non-European, non-Asian, non-Christian
<i>pan</i>	Pan-American, Pan-Slavic, Pan-African
<i>pro</i>	pro-French, pro-American
<i>un</i>	un-American, un-British

With few exceptions, these prefixes are joined to common nouns without hyphenation:

anticlimax	midsummer	proslavery
nonintervention	neoclassical	unambiguous

12. To join the following prefixes and suffixes with the main word of a compound.

<i>co-</i>	co-chairperson, co-worker, co-author
<i>ex-</i>	ex-sergeant, ex-mayor, ex-wife
<i>self-</i>	self-preservation, self-defeating, self-explanatory, self-educated
<i>-elect</i>	president-elect, prime-minister-elect

13. To form most compound nouns and adjectives which begin with the word elements listed below. For words not listed, it is best to consult the dictionary.

<i>cross-</i>	cross-examine	cross-fertilize	cross-purposes	cross-stitch
<i>double-</i>	double-breasted	double-edged	double-jointed	double-park
<i>great-</i>	great-grandfather	great-grandchild	great-hearted	
<i>heavy-</i>	heavy-handed	heavy-hearted	heavy-duty	(but heavyweight)
<i>ill-</i>	ill-disposed	ill-organized	ill-timed	
<i>light-</i>	light-fingered	light-footed	light-hearted	light-year

<i>single-</i>	single-breasted	single-handed	single-minded	
<i>well-</i>	well-behaved	well-balanced	well-preserved	well-wisher

Division of Words

The division of a word at the end of a line should be avoided. If it is necessary to divide a word, follow the syllabification shown in the dictionary.

Do not syllabify a word so that only one letter stands alone at the end or beginning of a line. Do not divide a one-syllable word, including words ending in *-ed* (such as *walked, saved, hurled*). Avoid the division of a word that carries only two letters over to the next line. The following terminal parts of words should never be divided: *-able, -ible, -cial, -sial, -tial; -cion, -sion, -tion, -gion; -ceous, -cious, -tious; -geous*.

If a word that already has a hyphen must be broken, hyphenate only at the hyphen.

mother-	mother-in-
in-law	law

but not

moth-
er-in-law

Abbreviations

In standard academic, scientific, business or other organizational reports and correspondence, abbreviations are generally avoided unless they are the commonly required ones and are specifically known and accepted terms within a particular discipline or trade.

Some abbreviations that are acceptable in journalistic or business writing may not be appropriate in extremely formal announcements or invitations in which even dates are spelled out.

Abbreviations are often used in ordering and billing, catalogues, tabulations, telephone books, classified advertising and similar cases where brevity is essential.

In some cases, the decision to use an abbreviation is a matter of individual preference. When in doubt, it is usually prudent to use the spelled-out form. Do not, however, spell out a word in one sentence or paragraph only to use the abbreviated form elsewhere. As in all writing, it is most important to maintain consistency of usage within any single written document, whether it be a letter or a treatise.

Use abbreviations in writing:

- The following titles and forms of address whenever they precede a proper name: *Mr., Ms., Mrs., Dr., Mme., Mlle., M.* Do not spell out these titles even in the most formal situations.

Mlle. Modiste	Dr. Kildare
Mr. Carl Sandburg	Mme. Currie
- Except in an extremely formal context, titles of the clergy, government officials, officers of organizations, military and naval personnel, provided that the title is followed by a first name or initial as well as a surname. If the title is followed only by a surname, it must be spelled out.

Gen. Colin Powell	General Powell
Sgt. Leon Greene	Sergeant Greene
Prof. Samuel Page	Professor Page
Gov. Nelson Rockefeller	Governor Rockefeller
Rev. John McDermott	The Reverend John McDermott or The Reverend Dr. (or Mr.) McDermott

Rt. Hon. Paul Martin

The Right Honourable Paul Martin
or The Right Honourable Mr. Martin

Note above that in very formal writing, the title (*Right*) *Honourable* or *Reverend* are spelled out and are preceded by *The*. When the first name or initial is omitted, the title Mr. or Dr. is substituted.

3. *Jr.* or *Sr.* following a name. These abbreviations should be added only when the names preceding them include a first name or initial.
4. *Esq.* following a name. Not a common usage in [North America], this abbreviation should not be used with any other title.

James Grant, Esq. *not* Mr. James Grant, Esq.

5. Academic degrees: *B.A.* (Bachelor of Arts); *B.Sc.* (Bachelor of Science); *M.A.* (Master of Arts); *M.Sc.* (Master of Science); *Ph.D.* (Doctor of Philosophy); *M.D.* (Doctor of Medicine), etc. When a name is followed by a scholastic degree or by the abbreviations of religious or fraternal orders (BPOE) it should not be preceded by *Mr.*, *Miss*, *Dr.*, or any other title.
6. The terms used to describe business firms (*Co.*, *Corp.*, *Inc.*, *Bro.* or *Bros.*, *Ltd.*, *R.R.*) only when these abbreviations are part of the legally authorized name. In all other cases (except for brevity in tables, etc.), *Company*, *Corporation*, *Incorporated*, *Brothers*, and *Limited* should be spelled out.
7. Except in formal writing, the names of [provinces,] states, territories, or possessions that immediately follow the name of a city, mountain, airport, or other identifiable geographic locations. Check the dictionary for all such abbreviations.

Ottawa, Ont.

Whitehorse, Yuk.

8. Certain foreign expressions:
 - i.e. (*id est*), that is
 - e.g. (*exempli gratia*), for example
 - et al. (*et alii*), and others
 - etc. (*et cetera*), and so forth

Do not abbreviate:

1. Names of countries, except:
 - a. The U.S.S.R. (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) and the D.R.C. (Democratic Republic of the Congo) because of their exceptional length.
 - b. The U.S. (United States) when preceding the name of an American ship. The abbreviation U.S. may also be used in tables, footnotes, etc., when modifying a Government agency:
U.S. Congress, *U.S. Post Office*, etc.
2. The words *street*, *avenue*, *boulevard*, *drive*, *square*, *road*, *court*, and *crescent*, except in lists requiring brevity.
3. The days of the week and the months of the year except in the most informal situations or in tables.
4. Weights and measures except in lists of items, technical writing, etc.

She had hoped to lose ten pounds.

We used ten yards of cloth.

Do not use a period after the following abbreviations or shortened forms:

1. After a contraction, which is not to be confused with an abbreviation. Contractions contain apostrophes which indicate omitted letters; they never end with a period.

sec't'y or sec'y

sec.

nat'l

natl.

2. After chemical symbols.

H₂O NaCl

3. After *per cent*

4. After initials of military services and specific military terms.

RCAF Royal Canadian Air Force
USMC United States Marine Corps
MP military police
POW prisoner of war

5. After the initials of certain governmental agencies or call letters of television and radio stations.

NATO, UNICEF, CIA, CARE, OECD, CBLT, WNED

6. After letters that are used as symbols rather than initials.

Let us assume that A and B are playing opposite C and D.

7. After listed items (as in catalogues, outlines, or syllabi), if none of the items is a complete sentence. If the list includes only one complete sentence, use a period after this and all other items on the list, including those which are not complete sentences. Consistency is essential: a period after each item or no end punctuation whatever.

8. Points of the compass.

NE SW
ESE E by NE

Capitalization

Many writers have a tendency to use capitals unnecessarily. When in doubt, one can usually learn whether a particular word is generally capitalized by consulting the dictionary. A safe guideline is to capitalize only when there is specific need or reason to do so.

Capitalize the first word of a sentence. Capitalize, also, any word (or the first word of a phrase) that stands independently as though it were a sentence.

He is the new president of the club.

Where is the chess set?

Hurrah! No school!

Capitalize the first word of each line of poetry (unless the poet specifically avoided capitals in such instances).

Her pretty feet

Like snails did creep

A little out, and then,

As if they started at Bo-Peep,

Did soon draw in again.

Capitalize the first word of a direct quotation within a sentence (unless the quotation is a fragment).

He replied, "He prefers to enter in the fall."

"George," she asked, "don't you want to join us for dinner?"

He denied that he was "a neurotic editor."

Always capitalize the interjection *O* or the pronoun *I*. None of the other pronouns are capitalized unless they occur at the beginning of a sentence or refer to the Deity.

Here I am. Exult, O Shores!

Capitalize all proper nouns and adjectives:

Italians Scottish
Emily Dickinson Edwardian

the Cabot family	Germanic
Australia	Shavian
Chicago	Chaucerian

The German *von* and the Dutch *van* in proper names are commonly not printed with a capital when part of a name, but usage varies.

Paul von Hindenburg	Vincent van Gogh
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The French particles *de* and *du* and the Italian *di* and *da* are commonly written in lower case when they are preceded by a first name or title. Without title or first name, the particle is sometimes dropped, sometimes capitalized.

Marquis de Lafayette	Count de Mirabeau
(De) Lafayette	(De) Mirabeau

In English names these particles are commonly capitalized in all positions:

William De Morgan	Lee De Forest
De Morgan	De Forest

Do not capitalize words derived from proper nouns but now having a special meaning distinct from the proper name:

antimacassar	china
pasteurize	macadam

Capitalize recognized geographical names:

St. Lawrence River	Strait of Juan de Fuca
Rocky Mountains	Persian Gulf

Capitalize the following when they follow a single proper name and are written in the singular:

Butte	Gap	Peninsula
Canyon	Glacier	Plateau
Country	Harbour	Range
Creek	Head	River
Delta	Ocean	Valley

For example, the *Ottawa River*, but the *Don and Humber rivers*.

Capitalize the following in the singular and plural when they follow a proper name:

Hill	Mountain
Island	Narrows

Capitalize the following in the singular whether placed before or after the name. Capitalize in the plural when they come before the name and sometimes following a single name:

Bay	Cape	Lake
Point	Desert	Mount
Strait	Gulf	Peak
Sea	Isle	Plain

For example, *Lakes Victoria and Tanganyika* but *Malheur and Goose lakes*.

Capitalize compass directions when they designate particular regions. Capitalize also the nicknames or special names for regions or districts:

Ottawa South	the West
Middle Atlantic States	the Near East
the New World	the Prairies

Exception: Do not capitalize merely directional parts of provinces, states or countries.
northern Canada southern Alberta

Capitalize the names of streets, parks, buildings, etc.:

Fifth Avenue	Central Park
National Arts Centre	Parliament Buildings

Exceptions: Do not capitalize such categories of buildings as *library*, *post office*, or *museum*, written without a proper name, unless local custom makes the classification equivalent to a proper name.

Capitalize the various names of God or the Christian Trinity, both nouns and adjectives, and all pronouns clearly referring to the Deity. Capitalize also words that refer to the Bible or other sacred writings.

the Word	Holy Bible
the Saviour	the Koran
the Messiah	Ten Commandments
the Almighty	the Virgin Mary

Capitalize all personifications.

Come, gentle Death!

Capitalize the names of organizations, institutions, political parties, alliances, movements, classes, religious groups, nationalities, races, etc.:

Liberal party	Royalist Spain
Labour party	Axis powers
Republicans	Soviet Russia
Protestants	University of British Columbia
United Nations	Lutherans
Canadian Legion	Club of Rome
Blacks	Caucasians

Capitalize divisions, departments, and offices of government, when the official name is used. Do not capitalize incomplete or roundabout designations:

Department of Justice
Supreme Court
Statistics Directorate
Parliament
Senate
House of Windsor
Canadian Armed Forces
the council
the lower house (of Parliament)
the bureau
the legislature

Capitalize the names of wars, battles, treaties, documents, prizes, and important periods or events:

The Battle of Vimy Ridge
Declaration of Independence
Nobel Prize
Revolutionary War
Congress of Vienna
Black Death
War of 1812
Golden Age of Pericles
Middle Ages
Treaty of Versailles

Do not capitalize *war* or *treaty* when used without the distinguishing name.

Capitalize the numerals used with kings, dynasties, or organizations. Numerals preceding the name are ordinarily spelled out; those following the name are commonly put in Roman numerals:

Second World War	World War II
Nineteenth Amendment	Third Army
Forty-eighth Congress	Henry IV

Capitalize titles, ranks of honour, military or civil, academic degrees, decorations, etc., when written with the name, and all titles of honour or rank when used for specific persons in place of the name:

General Dallaire
the Senator from Ohio
the Earl of Rochester
King George
the Archbishop of Canterbury
Your Highness

Capitalize the main words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) of the titles of books, articles, poems, plays, musical compositions, etc., as well as the first word:

The House of Seven Gables
All's Well That Ends Well
The Kreutzer Sonata

Titles of chapters in a book are usually capitalized. Capitalize also any sections of a specific book, such as *Bibliography*, *Index*, *Table of Contents*, etc.

In expressions of time, *A.M.*, *P.M.*, *A.D.*, and *B.C.* are usually written or typed in capitals without space between them.

9:40 A.M. 6:10 P.M.
12 P.M. A.D. 1491
42 B.C.

It is equally acceptable to show *a.m.* and *p.m.* in lower-case letters. When *A.M.*, *P.M.*, *A.D.*, and *B.C.* are to be typeset, ... small capitals [should] be used.

Italics

Italics ... are occasionally used to emphasize a particular word, phrase, or statement. Done with restraint, this use of italics can be effective. Done to excess, it reduces the text to a flickering mass.

Italics are used when referring to the titles of books, magazines, newspapers, motion pictures and plays, longer musical compositions, works of art, ships, aircraft, and book-length poems.

<i>Catcher in the Rye</i>	<i>Mona Lisa</i>
<i>Maclean's Magazine</i>	<i>Rodin's The Thinker</i>
<i>the Globe and Mail</i>	<i>the Titanic</i>
<i>The Usual Suspects</i>	<i>the Zeppelin</i>
<i>Hamlet</i>	<i>Paradise Lost</i>
<i>Beethoven's Ninth Symphony</i>	<i>The Faerie Queen</i>

Foreign words and phrases that are used in English texts should always be italicized.

In his younger days he was quite a *bon vivant*.

I'll be there, *deo volente*.

Use italics when referring to a letter, number, word, or expression as such. Quotation marks are sometimes used instead of italics.

The word *fantastic* is her favourite adjective.

Do not pronounce the final *e* in *Hecate*.

She drew a large *4* on the blackboard.

Use italics for parenthesized stage directions in a play.

HEIDI (*turning to ANITA*): Did he call me?

ANITA: I didn't hear him. (*She picks up a magazine.*)

Numerals

In general, numbers that can be stated in only one or two words are spelled out.

There were twelve girls and twenty-six boys there.

The sweater cost twenty-five dollars.

He gave one-tenth of his income to charity.

Other numbers are usually shown in figures.

There are 392 members in the association.

The radio cost him \$136.50.

The population of Chicago in 1950 was 3,620,962.

[A] numeral at the beginning of a sentence is usually spelled out. If this is awkward or difficult to read, rewrite the sentence to avoid beginning with a numeral.

Three hundred and sixty students attended the dance.

Twenty-six million votes were cast for him.

Six thousand dollars was stolen from the safe.

It is important to be consistent in the treatment of numbers when they appear in the same series or in the same sentence or paragraph. Do not spell some out and use figures for others.

The three chairs are 36, 72, and 122 years old.

He spent \$100 on rent, \$30 on food, and \$265 on clothes.

Use figures (generally) for dates, pages, dimensions, decimals, percentages, measures, statistical data, exact amounts of money, designations of time when followed by A.M. or P.M., and addresses.

June 24, 1945	0.9631	96.8°
124 B.C.	23 per cent	86%
p. 263	75 grams	8:30 A.M.
p. xxvi	93 kilometres	3:20 P.M.
2' × 4'	\$369.27	1125 Colonel By Drive

Spell out ordinal numbers whenever possible.

sixteenth century	Fifth Avenue
Thirty-second Parliament	Third Republic
Twenty-third Psalm	

...

Footnotes

Footnotes serve a variety of purposes: to indicate the source of a fact, opinion, or quotation; to provide additional or explanatory material which, although relevant, would interrupt the smooth flow of the main text; and to cross-refer the reader to another part of the text. Excessive use of footnotes, however, is usually distracting; it is the sign, generally, of spurious scholarship and pedantry.

Material in the text to which footnotes are to be keyed should be numbered with superscript Arabic numerals (¹, ², ³, etc.). These numerals are usually placed without intervening space at the close of the sentence, quotation, or paragraph, unless doing so would cause confusion or ambiguity (in which case the numeral is placed after the specific word, phrase, or name to which it refers). The superscripts should be free of periods, slashes, parentheses or other unnecessary marks.

Footnote numbers should continue consecutively throughout an article or chapter, usually numbering anew in each chapter.

... [S]ome writers prefer to use special symbols (*, †, ‡, §, ¶, etc.) instead of superscript numerals. Because this system of symbols is limited and confusing, it ... is preferably avoided.

Footnotes are placed at the bottom of the page under a straight line that extends [an inch and a half] in from the left margin. ... The footnote, which begins with the appropriate superscript number ..., is usually typed single-space. ... Avoid carrying footnotes onto a following page, if at all possible.

BOOKS: FIRST FOOTNOTE REFERENCES

When a book is first mentioned in a footnote, the bibliographical information should be as complete as possible. The information should appear in the following order:

1. AUTHOR'S NAME OR AUTHORS' NAMES. The given name or initials are given first, using the form in which the name is generally encountered, the surname being followed by a comma.
2. TITLE OF THE CHAPTER OR PART. When reference is made to an article in a collection, symposium, or the like, the title of the article appears within quotation marks, the final quotation mark being preceded by a comma.
3. TITLE OF THE BOOK. The title is italicized and followed by a comma unless the next information is in parentheses; in such a case, the comma follows the closing parenthesis. If the title is exceptionally long, it may be shortened by omissions (indicated by three periods in each case). The title should be taken as it is shown on the title page.
4. EDITOR'S OR TRANSLATOR'S NAME. The name of the editor or translator, given in its full and normal form, is preceded by "ed." or "trans." It is followed by a comma unless the next material is in parentheses (in which case the comma follows the closing parenthesis).
5. EDITION USED. If the edition is other than the first one, the edition is identified in Arabic numerals, followed by a comma unless the next material is in parentheses (in which case the comma follows the closing parenthesis).
6. SERIES TITLE. The name of the series is shown without italicizing (or underlining) or quotation marks. It is followed by the specific number of the work in the series, preceded and followed by commas. If the next material is in parentheses, the second comma is placed after the closing parenthesis.
7. NUMBER OF VOLUMES. If there is more than one volume in the work and it appears relevant to indicate this fact, the number is shown in Arabic numerals.
8. PLACE OF PUBLICATION. This information, plus the name of the publisher and date of publication, is shown within one set of parentheses. The place of publication is usually found on the title page; if more than one city is shown, it is necessary only to show the publisher's main place of activity. If the city is not well known or if it might be confused with another of the same name, add the state/province or nation. It is followed by a colon.
9. NAME OF THE PUBLISHER. The name of the company, institution, etc., that published the work is shown next, followed by a comma.
10. DATE OF PUBLICATION. The date of publication is usually found on the copyright page. If no date is shown on the title page or copyright page, write "n.d." (without quotation marks) to indicate "no date." The parentheses containing the place of publication, publisher's name, and date of publication is followed by a comma.
11. VOLUME NUMBER. If there are two or more volumes in the work, give the volume number in capital Roman numerals, enclosed by commas. If this information is followed by the page number, omit "Vol." and give the volume number only, followed by a comma.

12. PAGE NUMBER OR NUMBERS. The page number (preceded by “p. ”) is shown in Arabic numerals (unless the original uses Roman numerals), followed by a period. However, if the volume number has been given, the “p. ” may be omitted.

ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS: FIRST FOOTNOTE REFERENCES

When a magazine or newspaper article is referred to in a footnote for the first time, the bibliographical information is given in the following order:

1. AUTHOR’S OR AUTHORS’ NAMES. The name is given in normal order and usual form, followed by a comma.
2. TITLE OF THE ARTICLE. The title is given in full, enclosed by quotation marks, a comma preceding the closing quotation mark.
3. NAME OF THE PERIODICAL. The name of the periodical, in italics, is followed by a comma. If there is a familiar abbreviation of the name of the periodical, it may be used.
4. VOLUME NUMBER. The volume number in capital Roman numerals is followed by a comma unless the next material is within parentheses (in which case the comma follows the closing parenthesis).
5. ISSUE NUMBER OR NAME. If the pagination of each issue is separate and the issue is not designated by month, give the issue number or name.
6. YEAR AND MONTH. The month (if necessary) and year of the volume are enclosed by parentheses followed by a comma.
7. PAGE NUMBER OR NUMBERS. The page number (preceded by “p. ”) or numbers (preceded by “pp. ”) are given in Arabic numerals (unless the original text uses Roman numerals) and terminated with a period. However, if the volume number has been given, the “p. ” [or “pp. ”] may be omitted.

SUBSEQUENT FOOTNOTE REFERENCES

After the first footnote reference to a book, article, or the like, it is unnecessary to repeat all the bibliographical information in each reference to the same work.

If a footnote reference is the same work as the preceding footnote, use *ibid.* (Latin: *ibidem* “in the same place”) in place of all bibliographical information. If a different volume or page of the same work is to be indicated, this information follows *ibid.* and a comma.

If *ibid.* might be used if it were not for the intervention of references to other works, some writers use *loc. cit.* (Latin: *loco citato* “in the passage already cited”) after the author’s surname to avoid restatement of all the bibliographical data when the volume and page is the same as that of the first footnote reference to the work.

Many writers prefer to avoid *op. cit.* [Latin: *opere citato* “in the work already cited”] and *loc. cit.* as well as *ibid.* by simply giving the author’s surname (followed by a comma) and the page number. If there are several works by the same author that have been referred to, the author’s surname is followed by a comma and the title of the work. The title of the work in such cases may be abridged for easy reference.

COMMON ABBREVIATIONS IN FOOTNOTES

The following abbreviations are commonly encountered in footnotes:

anon.	anonymous
ch. (chs.)	chapter (chapters)
chap. (chaps.)	chapter (chapters)
comp.	Compiled

ed.	editor; edition
f. (ff.)	and the following page (pages)
n.d.	no date
no. (nos.)	number (numbers)
p. (pp.)	page (pages)
rev.	revised
ser.	series
tr., trans.	translator; translation; translated by
vol. (vols.)	volume (volumes)

SAMPLE FOOTNOTES: FIRST REFERENCE

A book by one author, first edition:

⁴ Chester G. Starr, *The Origins of Greek Civilization* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1961), p. 263.

A book by one author, revised or later edition:

³ Harry Schwartz, *Russia's Soviet Economy*, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1954), p. 37.

A book by two or more authors:

² John Goodlad and Robert Anderson, *The Non-graded Elementary School* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1959), p. 127.

³ P.F. Lazarfeld, B. Berelson, and H. Gaudet, *The People's Choice* (New York: Duell, Sloan, and Pearce, 1944), pp. 61–3.

A book with one or more editors:

⁴ Peter Russell, ed., *An Examination of Ezra Pound* (Norfolk, Conn.: New Directions, 1950), pp. 14–23.

⁵ William Van O'Connor and Edward Stone, eds., *A Casebook on Ezra Pound* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1959), p. 137.

A book with an author and an editor:

³ Thomas Robert Malthus, *On Population*, ed. Gertrude Himmelfarb (New York: The Modern Library, 1960), p. xxvii.

A book with a translator:

⁴ Simone de Beauvoir, *The Ethics of Ambiguity*, trans. Bernard Frechtman (New York: Philosophical Library, 1948), pp. 14–21.

A book in several volumes:

³ Newman Ivey White, *Shelley* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1940), II, 66.

A book in a series:

³ Arthur S. Link, *Woodrow Wilson and the Progressive Era, 1910–1917*, New American Nation Series (New York: Harper, 1954), pp. 16–31.

An article in an edited collection of contributions:

² Herbert H. Rowen, "Kingship and Republicanism in the Seventeenth Century: Some Reconsiderations," in *From the Renaissance to the Counter-Reformation*, ed. Charles H. Carter (New York: Random House, 1965), p. 430.

An unsigned article in an encyclopedia:

³ "Adobe," *Encyclopedia Britannica*, 1956, I, 175.

A signed article in an encyclopedia:

² Edgar Frederick Carritt, "Aesthetics," *Encyclopedia Britannica*, 1956, I, 265–67.

An unsigned article in a magazine or newspaper:

⁵ "Controversies in Education: The American High School," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XL (November, 1958), 26.

A signed article in a magazine or newspaper:

¹² Theodore Caplow, "Urban Structure in France," *American Sociological Review*, XVII (October, 1952), 544–49.

A bulletin report or pamphlet:

¹³ United Nations, *Measures for the Economic Development of Under-Developed Countries* (New York: United Nations, 1951), pp. 8–9.

¹⁴ *Education: An Answer to Poverty*, The Office of Education and the Office of Economic Opportunity (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1965), pp. 68–70.

An unpublished thesis or dissertation:

³ L.S. Yorick, "The Myth of Anchises in Shakespeare's *Hamlet*" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Department of English, University of Chicago), p. 1000.

A private communication:

¹⁰ Information in a letter to the author from Professor Daniel Boorstin of the University of Chicago, June 23, 1963.

SAMPLE FOOTNOTES: SUBSEQUENT REFERENCE

General:

¹⁷ Starr, p. 296.

¹⁸ Schwartz, pp. 43–62.

¹⁹ Goodlad and Anderson, p. 212.

(*Alternative*) Same work and page as in footnote immediately preceding:

²⁰ *Ibid.*

(*Alternative*) Same work as in footnote immediately preceding but different page:

³ *Ibid.*, p. 321.

(*Alternative*) Same work and page as previously cited but not in footnote immediately preceding:

⁷ Schwartz, *loc. cit.*

(*Alternative*) Same work as previously cited but not in footnote immediately preceding:

⁶ Starr, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

Bibliographies

Bibliographies may be organized by subject, types of publications cited, chronological sequence, or alphabetical order. The alphabetical arrangement is, by far, the most common one.

The bibliography should be typed so that the first line of each item begins flush with the left margin and succeeding lines begin several spaces in. The material is usually single-spaced (but double-spaced between items).

The content of bibliographical entries is the same as that of footnotes with only the following major differences:

1. AUTHOR'S NAME. The surname comes first, followed by a comma; then the given name, followed by a period.
2. TITLE. The title is closed by a period.
3. PUBLICATION DATA. The place of publication, name of the publisher, and date of publication are not enclosed by parentheses; a period is placed after the date.

SAMPLE ENTRIES

"Controversies in Education: The American High School," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XL (November, 1958), pp. 3–126.

Crane, Stephen. *The Red Badge of Courage*. Ed. Robert Wooster Stallman. New York: The Modern Library, 1951.

Goodlad, John, and Robert A. Anderson. *The Non-graded Elementary School*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1959.

Johnson, E.L. "Cooperation in Higher Education," *Liberal Education*, XLVIII (December, 1962).

Russell, Peter (ed.). *An Examination of Ezra Pound*. Norfolk, Conn.: New Directions, 1950.

Schwartz, Harry. *Russia's Soviet Economy*. 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1954.

Starr, Chester G. *The Origins of Greek Civilization*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1961.

White, Newman Ivey. *Shelly*. 2 vols. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1940.

When writing for a specific publication or publisher, the author should inquire whether there is a preferred style or style manual to be followed. ...