III. Printing, practical —
Style manuals

Copy
into
Print

A DPI
STYLE
MANUAL

STATE OF IOWA
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
1971

State of Iowa
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
Des Moines, Iowa   50319

FOREWORD

This handbook has been assembled to assist members of the clerical and professional staffs of the Department of Public Instruction in preparing manuscripts for publication. It should be helpful in achieving consistency of style and clarity of expression in Department publications.

The handbook has purposely been made brief in scope and content. We hope this brevity will make possible a thorough reading by writers and committee members before they start preparation of manuscripts to be published by the DPI.

The Information and Publications Services Section has been authorized to insist on positive response to all items of the check list on page 58 as a minimum standard for accepting manuscripts. Specifications for commercial or in-plant printing cannot be prepared until this standard is met.

The authors have done their best to make this handbook accurately reflect the latest standard English usage. We urge your use of it as a constant reference in your writing for DPI publications.

PAUL F. JOHNSTON
State Superintendent of Public Instruction

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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P R E P A R A T I O N   O F   D P I   P U B L I C A T I O N S

Handbooks and other books and booklets produced by the Department of Public Instruction are brought into being in various ways.

In one method, the writing responsibility is assigned to a single author. In another method, the writing is done by a committee.

The following suggestions relate principally to the committee type of preparation.

Suggested Order of Business for Meetings of the Committee

1. Determine objectives or goals for the handbook or other publication.

2. Secure approval from appropriate authority to produce the publication.

3. Determine the number of copies to be printed by preparing an itemized list of the persons to whom the publication will be distributed. The final number should include an estimate of the copies needed for sale or replacement.

4. Conduct a free-discussion session for the purpose of listing all possible topics to be considered for inclusion in the handbook. Do not reject anyone's suggestion in this first session.

5. Refine this list by eliminating duplications and taking out other items the group now deems unnecessary.

6. Arrange the remaining items in broad classifications. This is the first step in making an outline of the content of the book.

7. Start making a formal outline by listing these broad classifications as heads and placing other suggested items in logical arrangement as subheads.

8. Determine the order in which the main topics so chosen will appear in the book.

9. Refine the outline to achieve the desired format.

10. Develop procedures for preparing and processing manuscripts. The steps outlined on the next two pages might be helpful.

Procedures in Preparing Manuscripts

1. Determine an acceptable pattern for the authors to follow in writing their first drafts. For example, here are some subdivisions that might be usable in developing typical chapters or sections in a curriculum handbook.

   Objectives

   Vocabulary

   Concepts and Understandings

   Initiatory Activities

   Developmental Activities

   Audiovisual Aids

   Teacher and Pupil References

2. Divide the subject among the authors, giving each author the units or principal divisions of the subject on which he is best qualified to write. Keep the number of writers to a minimum-- preferably not more than three.

3. Have each writer prepare a rough draft of a small portion of his assignment.

4. Submit this draft to the director or consultant in charge and to the chief of the Information and Publications Services Section.

5. After these people have examined the first draft, bring the writers back together again to discuss possible changes.

6. Have the writers make a second draft and go through the same process. (After this second consultation, the writers should be able to go ahead and complete the writing.)

7. Have the writers suggest needed illustrations as they go along. Better still, have them draw rough illustrations of their own to aid the artist in preparing finished art for the book.

8. Set deadlines for completion of the various stages of preparation, and adhere to them.

Steps in Processing Manuscripts

1. When the completed manuscript comes in, the director or
    consultant should read it carefully and correct obvious errors
    before submitting it to the Information and Publications
    Services Section.

2. The Information and Publications Services Section will copyread
    the manuscript and return it to the responsible director or
    consultant for recopying, if necessary.

3. When the entire manuscript is in, the art work finished, and
    everything in correct form as checked with Copy into Print,
    the Information and Publications Services Section will prepare
    specifications and turn the manuscript in to the State Printing
    Board for bids. If the above procedure is followed, the
    specifications can state that copy is ready immediately. Thus,
    a definite delivery date can be specified.

4. When the galley proof is returned from the printer, it should be
    read by the consultant or expert in the field. It should also
    be read by two people in the Information and Publications
    Services Section.

5. From this point on, the production of the book will be the
    responsibility of the Publications staff. The Publications staff
    will be in constant consultation with the originating section
    or division on such matters as format, color, illustrations,
    and other important elements of the production process.

6. When the book comes from the press, the section or division
    producing it will make the initial distribution of complimentary
    copies.

7. If remaining copies are to be sold, the Information and Publica-
    tions Services Section will take over the inventory and will
    account for sales and other distribution from that point on.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

A study of composition books and style manuals might lead one to conclude that the most consistent element in them is inconsistency. Apparently there is no single correct way to write a letter, compose an article, or punctuate a sentence. And this is probably as it should be if we are to encourage freedom of expression.

Nevertheless, we do need some uniformity in the general rules for expressing our thoughts in writing. Thus, with the reader in mind, we suggest three general rules for preparing manuscripts for printing: organize logically, write clearly, and punctuate and capitalize consistently.

Organize Logically

Here are a few of the many ways to organize written material:

In chronological order. One logical method is to tell about things in the order of their occurrence or development. Such treatment might consist of sketching the early history of a project or program, tracing its development over the years, and explaining its present relationship to the problems at hand.

From general to specific. Some topics can be developed logically by making a general statement of fact or principle, then bringing the discussion down to specific instances more familiar to the reader. One example might be the explanation of a new law on federal aid to education. The reader might logically wish to know the general provisions of the law, but he would also be interested in how it applies to his local situation.

From specific to general. The reverse application of the method described above also has some value. Discussion of a subject can start with its close-to-home application and expand to its implications on a general scale.

From simple to complex. Published material should frequently lead the reader through a number of easy preliminary steps to more complicated applications of the subject matter being discussed. In a sense, the writer is a teacher who begins with the assumption that the reader knows little or nothing about the subject. Even readers who have some knowledge of the field may appreciate a gradual approach which moves from familiar subject matter to that which is relatively unknown.

From most important to least important. A news story is one type of composition which proceeds from the important facts to the relatively unimportant details. For example, the traditional spot news story includes five W's in the first sentence or first paragraph. They tell Who, What, Where, When, and Why. Sometimes an H (How) is added.

Most of the Educational Bulletin copy telling about past or future events will be written in this style. If it is then necessary to shorten an article, editors can eliminate copy from the end.

Write Clearly

One ground rule for our publications might be that every sentence should be clearly understood in its first reading.

Use simple but precise words, uncomplicated sentences, and concise construction. Be direct. Make sentences work for you. Don't just put together a "word salad."

Short paragraphs also have their virtue. The usual rule is to start a new paragraph with each new topic or new idea. More frequent division is sometimes permissible if it will help make the copy more readable.

In general, the writer should sit in the reader's seat. If there is any doubt about the clarity of a sentence, he should recast it in more understandable language.

Punctuate and Capitalize Consistently

Rules for capitalization and punctuation appear in the following sections of this handbook. As suggested for use in Department of Public Instruction publications, they represent a composite of rules found in numerous contemporary style manuals. References are listed in the Bibliography on page 61.

***

Tips for Writers

(Gleaned from a recent public information conference)

• Make it simple; omit needless words.

• Use short sentences. _Time_, _Life_, and _Readers Digest_ average 18 words per sentence.

• Don't pack too many ideas into a sentence. (More than one is probably too many.)

• Avoid overuse of "There are" and "There is" as sentence beginnings. Start with the subject or the verb of the sentence.

● Read your composition aloud.

● Paragraph frequently. Avoid the dull greyness of a page of long paragraphs.

● Avoid overuse of the passive voice. It is usually better to say, "We hope you will give the matter serious consideration" than "It is hoped that the matter will be given serious consideration."

Section 3

C A P I T A L I Z A T I O N

Titles of persons. Capitalize when the title precedes the name. Do

not capitalize when the title is used in simple apposition following the name.

He talked to Superintendent J. O. Smith.

J. O. Smith, superintendent of schools, is here.

Exception: Titles of incumbent government officials and important

officers of organizations should be capitalized when used in lieu of

the person's name.

We were greeted by the President and the Postmaster General.

We were pleased to see the Commissioner of Health and
his assistants.

BUT

Norman Erbe was attorney general before becoming governor.

College courses and school subjects. Within the body of a

paragraph, capitalize only those words that are proper nouns or

proper adjectives. When the terms refer to broad course offerings, or

when a formal listing of subjects seems to require uniformity of style,

the words may be capitalized. Numbered courses are usually capitalized.

He was a student of English literature.

He did his best work in algebra and geometry.

The College of Liberal Arts offers work in the following
areas: Fine Arts, Mathematical Sciences, Journalism,
Letters, and Social Work.

He was taking Algebra I and American History II along
with his work in sociology.

<u>Governmental bodies, state departments, and departmental subdivisions</u>.

Capitalize names of major divisions and subdivisions of federal and state government when used in exact or formal reference. Do not capitalize when used in general reference or in adjective form.

> the U. S. House of Representatives
>
> the Iowa Legislature
>
> the 64th General Assembly
>
> the Department of Public Instruction
>
> the Career Education Division
>
> the Publications Section
>
> BUT use this style for general reference:
>
> one of the divisions of our office
>
> one of the legislative or congressional committees

When the name of a major division or subdivision of government merits capitalization under the above rule, a partial title used in future reference in the same article should also be capitalized.

> The State Board of Public Instruction met last Thursday.
>
> The Board took action on the school proposal.
>
> The Iowa Legislature now meets annually. The Legislature formerly met every other year.

The various subdivisions of the DPI are identified as follows:

> Administration Branch (not Branch of Administration)
>
> Transportation Division (not Division of Transportation)
>
> Special Needs Section

The Department may be identified by several names, which are listed here from the most formal to the least formal:

State of Iowa Department of Public Instruction

Iowa Department of Public Instruction

Department of Public Instruction

the Department

DPI

The first name above is the one used on the title page of
Department publications and on other formal or official documents.
The second is less wordy and, like the first, is useful in publica-
tions and correspondence going outside the state. The third is
used for correspondence and publications circulated within the
state. The last two are used mostly for internal memos and for
correspondence and bulletins going to readers who are well
acquainted with the Department. They are also used in reference
to the Department following a more formal previous use of the name.

Political organizations vs. political ideologies. Capitalize such
words as Democratic and Republican when party affiliation is indicated.
Do not capitalize when referring to an ideology or form of government.

He was a lifelong Republican.

She conducted meetings in a democratic way.

He was opposed to both fascism and communism.

Federal, state, county, and similar words. Capitalize only when
used in combination with other words to form proper names. Do not
capitalize when used as simple adjectives modifying words that are
not proper nouns.

He got a federal loan for the project.

The various federal programs tended to increase classroom enrollment.

He worked for state aid to schools.

This is a state highway.

He addressed the Federal Communications Commission.

The town was in Jackson County.

It is the county seat.

BUT

The debate centered on the separation of Church and State. (Symbolic reference)

NOTE: When preparing grant applications for federal agencies, observe the agency style, which usually capitalizes federal, state, and similar words.

When preparing copy for legislative bills or Departmental Rules, follow the "down style" used in the Code of Iowa.

In other words, when preparing an amendment to be incorporated into an existing publication, follow the style of the publication being amended.

Geographical terms. Capitalize both the descriptive term and the identifying word when used together as the name of a particular place. Do not capitalize geographical terms when used alone or in a general descriptive sense.

Lake of the Woods

Mississippi River

the Corn Belt

a small river

<u>Buildings, schools, organizations, etc.</u> Treat in the same way as geographical terms. Capitalize if the identifying (proper) word comes first; otherwise do not. Consider names of organizations as proper names.

Jefferson High School

the high school at Jefferson

the Knoxville Community Schools

the League of Women Voters

Certain institutions and organizations capitalize the word "The" as part of the official name. Follow their style in this matter.

Please contact The Nature Conservancy.

He attends The University of Iowa.

She attends the University of Northern Iowa.

<u>Animals, birds, plants, etc.</u> Capitalize only proper nouns or words derived from proper nouns.

a Scotch terrier

a red robin and an English sparrow

an African violet

Certain words such as watt, volt, and diesel have lost their proper noun status through constant usage and are now considered common nouns. Thus they should begin with lower case letters rather than capital letters.

<u>Calendar periods</u>. Capitalize names of days and months but not seasons.

It was on a Friday in January.

It was in the fall of the year.

Points of the compass. Capitalize only when referring to large regions or geographical areas.

The storm was east of Miami.

The final vote of the South came as a surprise.

They came from the Middle West.

The town is in northeast Iowa.

The wind blew from the north.

He got his Harvard accent in the East.

Academic degrees. Capitalize when abbreviated. Do not capitalize when written out.

master of arts

doctor of philosophy

M.A.

Ph.D.

Historic epochs. Capitalize titles or names given to events or movements that have gained lasting places in history.

the Gay Nineties

the Reformation

the Great Depression

World War II

BUT

the depression of the 30's

the past century

<u>Holidays</u>. Capitalize names of commonly recognized holidays and special days.

>Labor Day

>Veterans Day

>Good Friday

<u>First word after colon</u>. Use of a capital letter following a colon is optional to some extent. The capital letter is more commonly used if the colon is followed by a complete sentence. A small (lower case) letter should be used when the material following is a subordinate element or a simple list of words or phrases.

>This is my decision: You will go to Prague at once.

>The following grains were planted: oats, wheat, rye, and barley.

See also <u>Colon</u>, p. 20.

<u>Prefixes, suffixes, and descriptive adjectives used with proper nouns</u>. Do not capitalize when used as simple prefixes and suffixes. Capitalize only when usage has given these elements status as parts of proper names or when some other rule requires capitalization.

>former President Johnson

>All-American

>un-American

>All Fools' Day

>Pan-American

>Senator-elect Jones

<u>Titles of articles, books, etc</u>. Capitalize all words in titles except articles, conjunctions, and prepositions of fewer than five letters.

Capitalize the first and last letters of a title, however.

> Learning with Zeal

> The Wreck of the Hesperus

> Cooperation Through Understanding

> A World To Live In (To is capitalized here because it is the infinitive form of the verb. In is capitalized because it is the last word in the title.)

Subdivisions of books. When referring to the Code of Iowa, capitalize chapter, and section, but not paragraph or number. (See special note on writing amendments, page 11.)

> Please refer to Chapter 257, Section 257.2, paragraph 2.

> The point in question is covered by Chapter 257, Section 257.10, number 5.

In general, capitalize chapter, part, and section when used with a number or letter to identify a special subdivision of a book. Do not capitalize when designating a less important subdivision, such as page, paragraph, or sentence.

> He will read from Chapter IV of Manhattan Transfer.

> I wish to call attention to paragraph 3 on page 4.

> Please turn to Chapter XX, "Democracy and Civil Liberties."

Do not capitalize chapter, part, or section when used in a general way.

> The book contains eight chapters.

First word in each item of a list arranged in block form. In general, capitalize the first word.

> Jane has been assigned the following duties:

> Preparing the manuscript

Checking for accuracy

Typing the manuscript

Proofreading

Collating and binding

Lower case letters are permissible if the items are single words or if lower case letters better illustrate a point.

lay out	form
cut	thread
bend	fasten
twist	

P U N C T U A T I O N

Comma

Between main clauses. Use commas before conjunctions such as _and_, _but_, _for_, _or_, _nor_, and _so_ when they connect two main clauses in a sentence. Do not use a comma if a conjunction merely connects two verbs or two phrases.

He was a good soldier, but the captain disliked him.

He planned to drive to Los Angeles and take a plane from there.

Items in a series. Use commas to separate words, phrases, or short clauses in a series. DPI style calls for a comma following the next-to-the-last item in the series.

They packed food, drugs, and supplies.

He exercised by skipping rope, doing push-ups, and chinning himself.

Dates and addresses. In the body of a paragraph, set off all items after the first by commas.

The meeting will be held April 16, 1966, at Sioux City, Iowa.

The building at 716 Oak Street, Waterloo, Iowa, is for sale.

Exception: The rule is suspended (1) when only the month and day are given, (2) when only the month and year are given, and (3) when the items are joined by prepositions.

The meeting will be held April 16 at Sioux City.

The issue for May 1964 was missing.

The building was at 716 Oak Street in Waterloo.

Introductory words and parenthetical interruptions. Use commas to set off such elements from the rest of the sentence.

George, please come here.

Indeed, we thought you were the captain.

His mother, I am sorry to say, is not here.

That, after all, was my reason for coming.

Appositives. A group of words placed after another word or group of words to explain it more fully is called an appositive and should be set off by commas.

Sir Basil Winfrey, famed explorer and naturalist, spoke at the auditorium.

Mickey Mantle, the Yankee star, is retiring from active play.

Restrictive phrases and clauses. A restrictive phrase or clause is one which cannot be removed from a sentence without altering or destroying the meaning. Clauses beginning with that are usually restrictive. Restrictive phrases and clauses should not be set off by commas.

Film that has been exposed to light cannot be used for taking pictures.

Pupils who live in the country will ride the buses.

Nonrestrictive phrases and clauses. A nonrestrictive phrase or clause can be removed without altering or destroying the meaning. Without it, the reader merely fails to get all of the available information. Nonrestrictive phrases or clauses should be set off by commas.

Des Moines, which is the largest city in Iowa, is the county seat of Polk County.

-18-

The pupils, who had sat in their seats for two hours, suddenly stood up and cheered.

Semicolon

Between main clauses. Use a semicolon when the clauses are internally punctuated by commas.

> The colors were still flying with their red, white, and blue; but the army was tired, worn, and beaten.

Use a semicolon between two clauses not joined by a conjunction.

> The spirit was willing; the flesh was weak.

Use a semicolon when the clauses are joined by such connecting words as however, nevertheless, hence, therefore, moreover, furthermore, otherwise, accordingly, besides, then, and thus.

> He had no excuse for his absence; therefore, he was ineligible for the team.

> They were the last people to leave the fieldhouse; hence, they were the first to be questioned.

Items in a series. When elements of a sentence appear in a series and are internally punctuated by commas, separate them with semicolons. DPI style calls for a semicolon following the next-to-the-last item.

> People were there from Des Moines, Iowa; Denver, Colorado; and Fall River, Massachusetts.

Hyphen

With a word used as a modifier. If a modifier precedes a noun and is composed of two or more words, it is usually hyphenated. It is not usually hyphenated when it is in the predicate position.

> It was a clear-cut definition.

> The definition was clear cut.

<u>As a device to make meaning clear.</u>

He was a new car-salesman.

He was a new-car salesman.

Avoid excessive use of the hyphen. Omit it if the meaning is reasonably clear. The hyphen would not be used in such expressions as emotionally disturbed, visually handicapped, and partially disabled.

PLEASE NOTE this special use:

The school system enrolls both elementary- and secondary-school pupils.

These conditions are familiar to middle- and upper-middle-class Americans.

Usage varies on hyphenating words. Many words formerly hyphenated are now written as one word: teen-ager, teenager; week-end, weekend.

The general rule is: Do not hyphenate words unless necessary to avoid misreading. Misreading is likely when unusual vowel or consonant combinations occur; therefore, use the hyphen in situations like the following:

co-owner, co-worker, skill-less, bell-like

See DPI Spelling Guide in Section 7 of this booklet for DPI style. Some entries are admittedly the result of arbitrary decisions based on usage. Please note the trend toward elimination of the hyphen.

<u>Colon</u>

A colon is conventionally used after a salutation and preceding a list.

Dear John:

Gentlemen:

The records indicate that the following parts are kept in stock:

> brass pocket-bolts
> reversible edger plates
> lined and unlined lifter springs
> thrust bearings

Farmer Ziffle raised the following crops:

> asparagus peppers
> soybeans rhubarb
> sugar beets pumpkins

> The following boys will report at noon: Harry Perkins,
> Jack Long, Neil White, and David Beck.

A colon may also be used to replace a comma or a semicolon if that which follows the colon either restates or illustrates the preceding idea. See also first word after a colon, page 14.

> At camp we studied the universal language: music.

> The inductive method of teaching helps to satisfy a child:
> he is encouraged to question, to explore, and to discover.

> Geniuses are born: they are not made.

Uses of the colon in some editions of the Bible are not reliable for current writing.

Quotation Marks

The common use of quotation marks is to set off material reproduced in the exact words of a speaker or writer. Note the variations in the following examples:

> Mr. Wilson said, "Put the parcel on the table."

> "The owner," argued the attorney, "should return the contract."

> "Are you for us or against us?" asked the officer.

Quotation marks may be used to enclose titles of articles, chapters of books, and similar subdivisions of printed works.

Have you read "Book Mark" in Today's Education?

Chapter IV, entitled "Fire Power," is very important.

Use quotation marks, rather than italics, for titles of short musical compositions, short poems, brochures, leaflets, unpublished manuscripts, radio programs, and TV programs.

Use quotation marks sparingly to call attention to slang, colloquialisms, or out-of-context words or phrases.

> As the crippled vessel neared the rock coast, the order was given for each passenger to don his "Mae West."
>
> "This is a 'hatchet' knot," observed the mechanic. "You'll need a hatchet to get it loose."
>
> The hostess proudly brought out her special dish: early June peas and "double bubble sauce."

Quotation marks are usually unnecessary after such expressions as so-called and known as.

Commas and periods are placed inside quotation marks; semicolons and colons, outside. Exclamation points and question marks are placed either inside or outside, depending upon the construction and meaning of the sentence.

> Did you read the article entitled "Book Mark"?
>
> He shouted, "Hurrah! I have found it!"

Quotations within quotations are enclosed in single quotation marks.

> "I want you to read 'Book Mark' in Today's Education," said the teacher.
>
> Second witness: "I heard him say, 'Behind the church!' just before he got into the car."

Italics

Italics are indicated on the typewriter by a single underscore line.

They have at least four important uses.

- To name major works, such as books, handbooks, manuals, magazines, newspapers, motion pictures, works of art, and ships.

    Henry Miller serialized his Tourist Guide to Paris in Le Figaro.

- To indicate words referred to as words, and letters referred to as letters.

    Don't forget to change all colors to colours and each labor to labour.

- To denote foreign words and phrases.

    E Pluribus Unum appears on U.S. coins.

- To indicate emphasis.

    An increase of 300 percent in enrollment has been recorded during the past four years.

Apostrophe

The apostrophe is used to show possession and to indicate contraction. It is also used to form the plural of numerals and letters and of words referred to as words, although simply adding s is permissible for these purposes. The general rule for forming possessives is: For singular or plural nouns not ending in s, add the apostrophe and s; for singular or plural nouns ending in s, add only the apostrophe.

His 7's looked like 5's. (7s, 5s also permissible)

His loud amen's were heard throughout the church. (amens also permissible)

The children's books were all new.

They brought Inez's gift.

Mr. Willis' car was stolen.

BUT

Yours, hers, ours (correct in this form as possessive pronouns)

Veterans Memorial Hospital

Superintendents Workshop

In the latter two cases, the words ending in s are adjectives rather than possessives.

The name of a business firm or organization should, of course, be printed exactly as it appears in its letterhead or publication.

Maryland State Teachers' Association

BUT

California Teachers Association

The apostrophe in contractions indicates missing letters.

Do not becomes don't in contraction.

Cannot becomes can't.

Be sure its and it's are used correctly. It's means it is. Its is the possessive pronoun.

It's time to go.

Its leg is injured.

Dash

A dash is indicated by typing two hyphens in succession with no space before or after. The dash should be used sparingly. Its principal

use is to indicate an abrupt change in continuity or to add emphasis to parenthetical elements.

> If it rains--perish the thought--we will have the picnic indoors.
>
> The original Jimmie Rogers--not the current Nashville singer of the same name--gave country and western music its present popular appeal.

The dash can also be used in listing "following material" in place of a colon.

> He was interested in these sports: aquatics--swimming, diving and boating; snow games--skiing and snowmobiling; ice sports--hockey and figure skating.

Parentheses

Parentheses should be used sparingly to enclose material which cannot be set off satisfactorily with commas or dashes. The following illustrations show some of the common uses and indicate placement of other punctuation marks with parentheses.

> (This is the way to punctuate a complete parenthetical sentence.)
> His hero was George Herman (Babe) Ruth.
> His parents (both of them are living) will be notified.
> His lawyer will appeal the sentence (10 years).
> Before calling his client (Jackson), he made some plans.

Ellipses

Ellipsis marks are used to show omission of words or groups of words in a sentence. The marks consist of three spaced periods placed at the point of omission. Periods, commas, and other punctuation marks should be added to the ellipsis marks where appropriate.

> "The superintendent . . . , his wife, and his mother . . . moved to Chicago and retired . . . ."

A B B R E V I A T I O N S

General Rules

Except in customary instances (Mr., Mrs., Rev., Dr., etc.), avoid extensive use of abbreviations. The following general rules will be in effect for abbreviations used in Department publications:

• If the name of a widely known organization is frequently abbreviated, spell out the complete name in the first reference and abbreviate it in subsequent references

National Education Association (NEA)

Department of Public Instruction (DPI)

• Department publications will usually eliminate periods in capital letter abbreviations of names of organizations and governmental agencies. See examples above.

• Abbreviations for United States, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and similar national names will contain periods.

U.S.   U.S.S.R.   U.A.R.

• Except in tables, charts, and similar material, use <u>percent</u> rather than <u>per cent</u> or %. <u>Note that this is a change in DPI policy.</u>

• Do not confuse the percent sign (%) with the abbreviation for "in care of" (c/o).

• Do not say percent when you mean percentage.

• In general, spell out numbers under 10, except when dealing with enumerations, tabulations, time, measurement, money, and other similar material. Use figures for numbers of two digits or more.

• Spell out a number when it is the first word in a sentence.

Seventeen members were present.

They burned 17 books.

• Write numbers either as words or figures to keep style consistent within a sentence or paragraph.

The score was 17 to 5.

• Abbreviate an academic title when it precedes the full name but not when it follows the name.

Prof. George H. Smith

George H. Smith, professor of history

• Exception: In formal writing, spell out the title if it is used only with the surname.

Professor Smith

Doctor Jones

NOTE: DPI writers must deal with several special situations regarding the use of the academic title, "Doctor." Professional journals as a whole seem to play down the use of the title both in by-lines and in references within an article.

The most commonly observed style for by-lines is to list the full name of the author without the "Dr." preceding it, using a footnote or bottom-of-the-page reference in distinctive type to give information on the writer.

One special situation in DPI publications is the listing of members of the Board of Public Instruction and DPI administrative staff in the early

pages of the book. When a member of the board is a practicing doctor or dentist, the listing should use the abbreviation, "Dr.," preceding the name. The rationale is that the doctor's degree is the distinguishing mark of this person's profession. A man cannot practice medicine or dentistry without the appropriate degree.

While a doctor of philosophy or doctor of education degree is a mark of respect and distinction in educational circles, such a degree is not a requirement for practicing one's profession as a member of the DPI staff. For that reason, and for reasons of compliance with general practice in educational publications, the DPI "Board Page" will not carry the academic titles of staff members. The same general style is recommended for listings on programs and brochures.

References within a handbook or other DPI publication may follow one of the following styles provided the style is consistent throughout the publication:

> First mention: David E. Jones, professor of history, was the speaker ....
>
> Second and succeeding references: Jones said that....
>
> <div align="center">* * *</div>
>
> First mention: David E. Jones, professor of history, ...
>
> Succeeding references: Dr. Jones said....
>
> <div align="center">* * *</div>
>
> First mention: Dr. David E. Jones, professor of history, ...
>
> Succeeding references: Dr. Jones said that ....
>
> <div align="center">or</div>
>
> <div align="center">Jones said that ....</div>

<center>***</center>

For by-lines, the following style is recommended:

<center>THE CHALLENGE OF HISTORY</center>

<center>by David E. Jones</center>

A bottom-of-the-page reference can then state that

> Dr. Jones is professor of
> history at Center College.

> or

> David E. Jones is professor
> of history at Center College.

● In writing the time of day in headlines and other prominent listings, use capital letters with periods to denote morning or afternoon hours. When the reference is made as a part of a complete sentence, use lower case letters with periods.

> Opening Ceremonies ....9:15 A.M

The program will begin at 9:15 a.m.

There is no a.m. or p.m. when speaking about noon or midnight. It is 12 noon or 12 midnight, or 12 o'clock noon or 12 o'clock midnight. Do not use o'clock when using a.m. or p.m.

Except for reasons of consistency, omit the colon and "00" when indicating time on the hour (9 a.m. to 11 a.m. but 9:00 a.m. to 11:35 a.m.)

● In abbreviating words like <u>association</u> and <u>department,</u> use a period rather than an apostrophe, never both.

> Assn. (Association) rather than Ass'n (never Ass'n.)

> Dept. (Department) rather than Dep't (never Dep't.)

<center>-29-</center>

● In referring to bills in the Iowa Legislature, use HF to denote House File and SF to denote Senate File.

He supported HF 140

● For bills in Congress, use the following forms:

HR 514 (House of Representatives bill)

S 228 (Senate bill)

● Certain abbreviations used in the metric and English systems of measurement are written in lower case letters without periods. For example: 35mm (millimeter), 12 cc (cubic centimeters) ips (inches per second), mph (miles per hour), rpm (revolutions per minute) and x meaning by, as in 2 x 2.

● The following Latin abbreviations should be used sparingly. The English equivalent is usually better.

e.g. (exempli gratia)	for example
et al. (et alii)	and others
i.e. (id est)	that is
viz. (videlicet)	namely
etc. (et cetera)	and so forth (avoid excessive use of this expression)

● Addresses should be written with a minimum of abbreviation. However, when two compass points are part of an address, they are usually abbreviated. Incorporated and limited should be abbreviated.

Heller Iron Works   Straw Tick Mattress Co., Inc.
811 Capital Avenue S.E.   1212 West Cotrell Street
Columbus, Minnesota 61807   Three Corners, Vermont 10920

• In referring to large sums of money, beginning with $1 million, use the following style:

$1 million

$1.5 million

$10 billion

$3.4 billion

> Congress appropriated $10.5 billion for the coming fiscal year for the purpose of eliminating air and water pollution.

• Except for special circumstances, round figures are sufficient for sums of this magnitude.

OUTLINING AND SUMMARIZING

<u>Complete Form</u>

Use the style below when treatment of the subject calls for complete

outline form:

I.

    A.   <u>Rule</u>

        1.   Never use I without II; never
        2.

              a.   use A without B. In other
              b.   words there is no point in

                  (1)   subdividing if you only have
                  (2)

                      (a)   one subdivision.
                      (b)

    B.

II.

<u>Simpler Forms</u>

When only one or two degrees of subdivision are necessary, it is

permissible to use a simpler form:

    1.

        a.
        b.
        c.
        d.

    2.

        a.
        b.
        c.
        d.

A simple enumeration may be indicated by arabic numbers alone:

    1.
    2.
    3.
    4.

Or this form may be used: The speaker made five important points:

    (1)_____,   (2)_____,

    (3)_____,   (4)_____,

    and (5)_____.

Punctuate as you would if numbers were not used.

Another form, frequently used when numbering is not important, is illustrated here:

Five points were presented for discussion and approval:

    ● _____

    ● _____

    ● _____

    ● _____

    ● _____

Numerical or decimal outlining is another useful form, which has a number of special advantages.   The NEA Style Manual listed in the bibliography on page 61 and the DPI publication, Certification and Approval Handbook, use this method.

If your manuscript, or any major portion of it, is prepared in strict outline form, be consistent in grammar and punctuation. Warriner and Griffith say, "As a rule, main topics should be parallel in form, and sub-topics under the same topic should be parallel in form. If, in a list of

topics, the first is a noun, the others should be nouns; if it is an adjective, the others should be adjectives, etc. Topics in the form of phrases should not be mixed with topics in the form of nouns or nouns and their modifiers."[1]

    B. The director

        1. plans the program

        2. represents the executive board

        3. serves as administrative officer

    C. The supervisor

        1. establishes procedures

        2. interprets policy for staff members

        3. programs are evaluated [Wrong: Breaks parallel pattern.]

Here is an example in which complete sentences are used:

    A. Here are your tasks:

        1. Lock all exit doors.

        2. Turn automatic dial to VII.

        3. Remove all LDV caps.

As a general rule, end punctuation for the formal outline should be determined by the construction. If numbered or lettered parts are complete sentences, you may logically use periods or other end punctuation marks. If the elements of the outline are only phrases or word combinations, you will probably use no end punctuation.

---

[1] John E. Warriner and Francis Griffith, <u>English Grammar and Composition</u>, Complete Course (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1965), p. 350.

1. Cooperating agencies

    a. Police department

    b. Fire department

    c. Service clubs

Rules for end punctuation may be adjusted to achieve consistency throughout the publication.

Using capitals or lower case letters for the first words in the numbered items is optional. The important thing is to be consistent throughout the manuscript.

Section 7

USAGE

Common Problems

Listed in this section are some of the more common problems of usage. Correct or preferred usage is indicated in each case.

Spelling and hyphenating situations not covered in this list should be checked in Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary or its source, Webster's Third New International Dictionary, Unabridged.

***

• affect – effect. Affect is a verb; it means to impress or to influence. Effect can be a noun or a verb. As a verb, it means to accomplish, to bring about.

Did the defeat affect the team?

Several changes were effected.

The effect of heat on steel is a molecular change.

• agree to – with. Agree to a plan and with a person.

• almost. If you can substitute the word almost for most, use almost.

Almost (not most) anybody can be wrong part of the time.

Almost (not most) all of the students were confused.

• all right – alright. Although alright is sometimes seen, it is not standard usage. The word should be written all right as the opposite of all wrong.

• apt, likely, liable. When the meaning to be conveyed is expected or probably, use likely. Apt and liable have other meanings.

• as, although, while. These words may be interchanged, but the writer must be careful to avoid an ambiguous construction.

Ambiguous: As I was baking a cake, he left for the football game.

In the above example as could convey different meanings: "because" and "during the time that."

• at – about. Use either at or about, not both.

He will be here at 4 o'clock.

He will be here about 4 o'clock.

Wrong: He will be here at about 4 o'clock.

• biannual – biennial. See "DPI Spelling Guide" page 42.

• bible. When referring to the Christian scriptures, capitalize the word but do not underline. In the sense of an authoritative book, the word is not capitalized.

They read the Bible every evening.

The English Journal is my bible.

• cannot – can not. Usage is divided, but cannot is preferred.

• capital – capitol. Capital refers to the city which is the seat of government. Capitol is the building in which a state or federal legislative body meets. It is redundant to say capitol building: capitol with the o is the building.

• Code of Iowa. Italicize when considered as a publication. Write without italics when used as the general body of laws for the state.

• collective nouns. Either singular or plural verbs and pronouns may be used with collective nouns. If the group as a whole is intended, use the singular form; if the individuals of the group are intended, use the plural form.

The team was to have its picture taken. (A group picture.)

The team were to have their pictures taken. (Individual pictures.)

• contractions. Avoid contractions in formal writing.

The investigators were not (not weren't) able to reach a satisfactory conclusion.

● dates. For a span of years, repeat only the last two digits except when those digits span two or more centuries.

1964-68

1899-1900

1620-1970

● different from - different than. Unless the construction becomes wordy and awkward, use different from.

His ideas are different from mine.

BUT

The campus was different than I remembered.

● farther - further. Use further to denote abstract relationships of degree or quantity and farther to express physical distance.

He wandered farther into the forest as his mind probed

further into the problem.

● foreword - forward. Foreword is the opening statement of a publication, similar to a preface. Forward means to move ahead. Do not confuse the two words.

● fractions. Use a hyphen when a fraction is used as a modifier but not when it is used as a noun or part of a noun.

A three-fourths majority was required to correct the proposal.

Only three fourths of the students could hear the teacher.

● in - into. Into generally shows direction, whereas in shows place or condition.

He drove his ball into (not in) the rough.

He found his ball in a gopher hole.

● infer - imply. The recipient (listener, reader) infers, whereas the communicator (speaker, writer) implies.

● irregardless - regardless. The only acceptable form is regardless. Irregardless is nonstandard.

- <u>lay</u> - <u>lie</u>. <u>Lay</u> takes an object; <u>lie</u> does not. Difficulty comes in using past and perfect tenses. Here are examples of correct usage.

Please lay the book on the table.

He laid the book on the table.

He has laid the book on the table.

I lie down every morning at 10.

I lay there yesterday for an hour.

I have lain here for 40 minutes.

Laying eggs: lay, laid, laid

BUT

The egg is lying on the stove.

- <u>lead</u> - <u>led</u>. Led is the past tense of the verb <u>to lead</u>.

- <u>less</u> - <u>fewer</u>. When referring to things that can be counted, use fewer; when referring to amount or quantity, use less.

We have fewer pupils than we had last year.

We used less fuel this month.

- <u>lighted</u> - <u>lit</u>. Either form is in good usage.

I <u>lighted</u> my pipe.

I <u>lit</u> my pipe.

- <u>like</u> - <u>as</u>. In formal writing, <u>like</u> is properly followed by a word or a word and its modifiers; <u>as</u> is properly followed by a clause.

He looks like a loose-jointed giraffe.

He worked in the mines as his father had done many years ago.

- <u>number</u>. <u>Number</u> is a collective noun. Ordinarily <u>a</u> number takes a plural verb; <u>the</u> number takes a singular verb.

A number of shoppers were on hand.

The number of casualties was high.

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• <u>proved</u> - <u>proven</u>. Proved is preferred in Department publications.

• <u>reason</u> ... <u>is because</u>. Do not use this combination. Follow "the reason is..." with a noun or noun clause, or simply omit <u>reason</u> and use <u>because</u>.

> The reason for my investigation was my personal interest
>
> in the problem.
>
> The reason for my investigation was that I had a personal
>
> interest in the problem.
>
> I investigated the problem because I was personally interested.
>
> WRONG: The reason was because I was personally interested.

• <u>whether</u> - <u>if</u>. In formal writing, <u>whether</u> is used with the correlative <u>or</u> to indicate an alternative. <u>If</u> is used to express conditions.

> He asked whether or not he should go.
>
> He planned to go if his brother arrived on time.
>
> In informal speech <u>whether</u> and <u>if</u> may be used to express doubt.
>
> He wondered if it was worth the trouble.

Agreement of Subject and Verb

Be sure that the subject of a sentence agrees with the verb in person and number.

> A <u>box</u> of coins <u>was</u> on the table.
>
> The <u>men</u> of the club <u>were</u> rewriting the bylaws.

CAUTION: Do not let intervening words cause you to make an error.

> <u>Wrong</u>: The contract, consisting of hundreds of big words, <u>were</u> too difficult for them to understand.
>
> The verb should be <u>was</u> instead of <u>were</u>.

Special examples and exceptions are found on pages 27 and 28 of the NEA Style Manual.

Possessive pronouns should agree with their antecedents in number.

The boy lost his gloves.

The men were waiting for their orders.

Confusion is likely to arise with such pronouns as everyone, every one, everybody, no one, none, somebody, each and similar pronouns. These pronouns should always be considered singular.

Everyone must have his pencil. (Not their pencil.)

Somebody has lost his tickets. (Not their tickets.)

Each of the teachers must have his Social Security number. (Not their Social Security number.)

Each of the teachers was assigned a homeroom.

BUT

Each of the teachers who were assigned homerooms met today.

In this illustration who is the subject of the restrictive clause, and its antecedent is teachers, not each.)

Tired Words and Phrases Needing a Rest
(Use Sparingly)

very	implement
at this point in time	implementation
overview	take a hard look at
approximately	beef up
utilize (use use)	and the like
dissemination	ongoing
meaningful	rationale
significant	relevant
finalize	unique
as good as or better than	it should be remembered that
rule of thumb	and/or (Usually or will do.)
nouns with wise added:	
Moneywise, it was	
a good investment.	

acknowledgment	employee	nonacademic
audiovisual	ex-president	nonadministrative
biannual (twice a year) better use semiannual	extracurricular	nonathletic
	feebleminded	nonbasic
biennial (once every two years)	full-time (adj.)	noncredit
bimonthly (once every two months) If you mean twice a month, use semimonthly.	full-tuition (adj.)	nondegree
	hard-of-hearing (adj.)	nonfederal
biweekly (once every two weeks) If you mean twice a week, use semiweekly.	inhouse (adj.)	nongraded
	inner city*	non-high school
bylaw	in-school (adj.)	nonprint
by-product	inservice	nonprofessional
catalog	instate	nonpublic
co-curricular	intercity*	nonresident
coed	intern	nontaxable
coeducational	internship	nonteaching
cooperate	interoffice	nonvocational
co-sponsor	interracial	nonwhite
courthouse	interrelated	offset
co-worker	intramural	ongoing
disk (sometimes disc) Use disk in reference to data processing.	judgment	out-of-school (adj.)
	lunchroom	out-of-state (adj.)
dropout	multimedia	overall

*Note the difference in meaning.

overuse

part-time (adj.)

percent

per-pupil (adj.)

policy-making (adj.)

postcard

postdate

postgraduate

post-high school

postmaster

post office

postpaid

postsecondary

predate

pre-elementary

prekindergarten

prepay

preschool

preservice

president-elect

pretest

prevocational

prewar

program

programmer

programming

reeducate

reevaluate

schoolhouse

secondary-school (adj.)

semiannual (twice a
                year)

semimonthly (twice a
                month)

semiweekly (twice a
                week)

socioeconomic

statehouse

statewide

T square

teenage

ungraded

upgraded

up-to-date (adj.)

weekend

vice-president

Vice-President

Plurals and Compounds of Frequently Used Words

adjutants general

assistant commissioners

assistant directors

attorneys-at-law

attorneys general

brothers-in-law

commanders in chief

ghettos

notaries public

rights-of-way

twos

vice-chairmen

vice-presidents

zeros

Singular	Plural
agendum	agenda (also accepted as singular)
alumnus (man)	alumni (also plural for men and women together)
alumna (woman)	alumnae
appendix	appendixes (also appendices)
basis	bases
criterion	criteria
curriculum	curricula (also curriculums)
datum	data
index	indexes (also indices)
medium	media
memorandum	memorandums (also memoranda)
parenthesis	parentheses
syllabus	syllabi (also syllabuses)

C O P Y R E A D I N G   A N D   P R O O F R E A D I N G

Copyreading involves the careful editing of a manuscript prior to sending it to the printer. Usually the manuscript will be retyped after copyreading; but, if corrections can be made in a "language" the printer understands, the retyping may sometimes be avoided.

Proofreading is a similar process, which takes place after the copy has been set in type. Its main purpose is to correct errors that have occurred in setting the type. Corrections are usually designated by proof-reading symbols that are readily recognizable by printers.

In both copyreading and proofreading, corrections are noted where they occur within the line, but in proofreading some sign or "signal" must also be entered in the margin to call attention to the correction. If this is done, the printer will need only to scan the proof to determine which lines must be reset.

Example

Following is an example of how a short block of copy might be changed by copyreading:

"It is the intent of the General Assembly," the legislators said in 1967, "that an educational radio and television facility be established to serve the entire state. And the Board, currently pursuing an ambitious program of development, plans to see that intentions becomes realty. The board has gone through the process of letting contracts for all of the elements that will be necessary to put Channel 12 on the air near Iowa City by January, 1970. It's area will extend to Waterloo, Grinnell, Oskaloosa, Ottumwa, Burlington, and beyond to all major cities along the Mississippi.

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The manuscript will then go to the printer or to the Word Processing Center. The copy will be set in type, and two or three copies of the typeset material will be returned in proof form. The proof will be carefully read to find typographical errors, which will be identified by proofreading marks (see page 48).

The example below shows the proof as it might come from the printer (a very careless one).

"It is the intent of the General assembly," the Legislators said in 1967, that an educational radio and television facilitey be established to serve the entire state." And the Board currently pursuing and ambitious program of development, plans to see that intention becomes reality.

The Board has let contracts for all of the elements necessary to put Chanel 12 on the air near Iowa City by January 1970. It's area will extend to Waterloo, Grinnell, Oskaloosa, Ottumwa and Burlington.

The proofreader will mark the copy as follows:

"It is the intent of the General assembly," the Legislators said in 1967, that an educational radio and television facilitey be established to serve the entire state." And the Board currently pursuing and ambitious program of development, plans to see that intention becomes reality

The Board has let contracts for all of the elements necessary to put Chanel 12 on the air near Iowa City by January 1970. It's area will extend to Waterloo, Grinnell, Oskaloosa, Ottumwa and Burlington.

The printer will make the corrections and send back a revised
proof that will hopefully look like this:

> "It is the intent of the General Assembly," the legislators said in 1967, "that an educational radio and television facility be established to serve the entire state." And the Board, currently pursuing an ambitious program of development, plans to see that intention becomes reality.
>
> The Board has let contracts for all of the elements necessary to put Channel 12 on the air near Iowa City by January 1970. Its area will extend to Waterloo, Grinnell, Oskaloosa, Ottumwa, and Burlington.

The material on the following pages illustrates the use of some
of the common proofreading marks. DPI writers will not be expected
to use all of these marks, but some of them will be helpful, even in
copyreading.

PROOFREADING MARKS

(Some of these marks are also useful in copyreading)

Meaning	Marginal Marks	Marked Copy	Reset Copy
Insert comma.	⅄	We have pears, peaches⋀ and apples.	We have pears, peaches, and apples.
Insert apostrophe.	⌄	It was Jack⌄s car.	It was Jack's car.
Insert quotation marks.	⌄	He said, ⌄That's the place."	He said, "That's the place."
Insert space.	#	This is too⋀much.	This is too much.
Take out space	⌃#	This is too⋀much.	This is too much.
Insert period.	⊙	He's right⋀ We're late.	He's right. We're late.
Delete.	ℓ	His name is is Jones.	His name is Jones.
Change to lower case.	lc	He is the Øwner.	He is the owner.
Close up space.	⌒	It's a day time job.	It's a daytime job.
Delete and close up.	ℓ⌒	It's a day-time job.	It's a daytime job.
Start new paragraph.	¶	...to the end. ¶Now we	...to the end. Now we
No paragraph.	no ¶	...to the end.⌐Now we ...	...to the end. Now we...
Transpose	tr	recieve. He always will	receive. He will always
Move right.	]	]The first one is...	The first one is ...
Move left.	[	[The first one is ...	The first one is ...

Meaning	Marginal Marks	Marked Copy	Reset Copy
Indent from both sides.	] [	T]he most important prin- c]iples in the educatio]n...	The most important principles in the education ...
Spell out.	*spell out*	He bought (7) films	He bought seven films.
Abbreviate or write as a figure.	◯	He bought (twenty-three) films.	He bought 23 films.
Correct the spelling.	*led*	He (lead) the class.	He led the class.
Set in italics.	*ital*	They read <u>Midland Schools</u>.	They read *Midland Schools*.
Set in bold face.	*bf*	They <u>must</u> do it now.	They **must** do it now.
Set in capital letters.	*cap*	He is in <u>des</u> Moines.	He is in Des Moines.
Insert hyphen.	/-/	He is vice ∧ president.	He is vice-president.
Insert dash.	/—/	Now ∧ right now ∧ get going.	Now--right now--get going.
Check damaged type.	✕	They are goi̶n̶g home.	They are going home.
Let it stand. Restore crossed out copy.	*stet*	The day was ~~very~~ hot.	The day was very hot.
Insert words, marks, or sentence elements at this point.	∧	The day was ∧*very* hot.	The day was very hot.

Section 9

ORDER OF PAGES

The order of pages in DPI publications should follow a fairly common pattern for the benefit of the reader, but no ironclad formula will be enforced. Following is a recommended sequence, which is in line with the general style of present-day publications.

Cover. The cover design and color specifications are usually decided in conference with the artists in the Information and Publication Services Section.

Inside front cover. The back side of the front cover, or the inside front cover as it is called, is usually left blank; but there is no "law" against using it for important copy or as a part of an artistic design.

Inside title page. The inside title page, usually the first right hand page after the front cover, is not actually numbered; but a number should be allowed for it. It will be counted as page i if small Roman numerals are used and as page 1 if arabic numbers are used.*

Back of inside title page (page 2). On the rare occasion when a DPI publication is to be copyrighted, the copyright notice will be printed here. Otherwise the space can be used for listing the price of the publication and giving instructions for ordering additional copies.

State board page. This page should identify the publication as a production of the Department of Public Instruction. It should list the members of the State Board of Public Instruction, the DPI administration, and the staff personnel involved in the preparation of the publication.

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*The use of small Roman numerals for front-of-the-book material is optional. If they are used, they will extend through the table of contents and possibly through the introduction.

The latter listing usually will include the associate superintendent of the branch and the staff members of the section or division directly responsible for the preparation. If authors or editors outside the DPI have had a major responsibility, they may be listed here with the proper identification.

Preface or foreword. This statement, usually signed by the state superintendent of public instruction, explains the general purpose of the publication and suggests ways in which it can be used to the advantage of the reader.

Acknowledgments. This page, if it is used, should recognize the persons who have made contributions to the publication. Staff members who have worked on the preparation as a part of their regular DPI responsibilities would not be included here. They could, however, be listed as ex officio members of a committee if the complete list of committee members were printed.

Table of contents. Titles of chapters, sections, parts, or whatever the main divisions of the book are called, should be listed in the table of contents exactly as they appear in the body of the book. Subdivisions may be listed in smaller type or "hung in" under the main division heads. Illustrations, tables, graphs, and figures may be listed as a separate section of the table of contents under a proper heading.

Introduction. If an introduction is needed, it should follow the table of contents. The introduction should present any explanatory material not actually a part of the body of the work but necessary for proper understanding of it.

<u>Main body of the book</u>.　This part of the book or handbook will vary greatly in length, depending upon the subject covered.　Titles of chapters or other subdivisions should agree exactly with those in the table of contents.

<u>End matter</u>.　Depending on the scope of the book, DPI publications may include one or more of the following types of reference matter at the end of the book:

Appendix

Notes

Glossary

Bibliography

Vocabulary

Index

Every page is considered as having a number, starting with the first right hand page inside the book.　Therefore, if a page is left blank or the number is omitted for style or makeup purposes, the writer should be sure to make allowance for the missing number when resuming the numbering of following pages.

It is very important to remember that right hand pages take odd numbers and left hand pages take even numbers.

Layout Chart

Here is a suggested layout for facing pages involving the front-of-the-book elements discussed in the foregoing paragraphs.

Front Cover	Inside Front Cover (Usually blank)	Inside Title Page

| | | i |

Optional numbering: 1

Copyright or Instructions for Ordering	State Board Page		Preface or Foreword

| ii | iii | iv | v |

| 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Acknowledgments	Table of Contents	Table of Contents Continued (or Blank)	Introduction	Introduction Continued (or Blank)	Chapter I	

| vi | vii | viii | ix | x | 1 | 2 |

| 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |

FOOTNOTES, REFERENCES, AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Footnotes

Footnotes are necessary in formal presentations to give credit for quoted materials and ideas gleaned from the writings of others. Credit should be given even though the ideas may be rewritten in one's own words.

A footnote is indicated by placing a raised numeral immediately after the end of the statement for which credit is given. In preparing a manuscript for publication, the writer should insert a footnote immediately following the cited material, separating the footnote from the body of the manuscript by two horizontal lines. Copy for the footnote may be typed single spaced within the lines:

---

[1]T. R. McConnell, A General Pattern for American Public Higher Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962) p. 134

In the printed work, the footnote will usually appear at the bottom of the page. It will be keyed to the material referred to by a superior number placed in front of the copy which lists author, publisher, and other information.

When referring to the information taken from a book, a footnote gives the name of the author, first name first; the title, underlined; the city, publisher, and year of publication all within parentheses; and the page reference.

A footnote referring to information in a periodical gives the author; the title of the article, in quotation marks; the name of the periodical, underlined; the volume number; the date of publication in parentheses; and the page number:

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[1]Charles S. Weatherby, "Blondes, Redheads, and Other Distractions," Life, XXXI (June 17, 1964), p. 72.

Footnote uses of ibid., op. cit., loc. cit., and other abbreviations
are discussed on pages 39 to 44 of Campbell's style book.[1] All of these
Latin abbreviations are used to direct the reader's attention to previous
references.

Ibid. refers to the footnote immediately preceding. If the reference
is to the same page the word ibid. is sufficient. If the reference is to
another page, or to a number of pages, the appropriate page number or
numbers should be given.

[21]John Stone, The Lost Cause (New York: Random House, 1964), p.130

[22]Ibid.

[23]Ibid. pp. 135-139

Op. cit. refers to a previously cited author or publication other than
the one immediately preceding. It calls attention to a different page from
the one previously cited. Usually the author's surname appears first.

[27]Jones, op. cit., p. 160

Loc. cit. is used when a second but not consecutive reference is made
to the exact material previously cited. The author's name appears first
in the footnote followed by loc. cit. Page numbers are unnecessary because
the reference is to the exact information previously listed.

[29]Jones, loc. cit.

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[1]William G. Campbell, Form and Style in Thesis Writing (Boston: Houghton
Mifflin Company, 1969).

References

(Other than Footnotes)

An alternate method of giving credit omits footnotes entirely.
Citations are merely numbered consecutively, within parentheses,
throughout the chapter. At the end of the chapter, the detailed
references are listed in the numerical order in which they appear
in the manuscript.

In the body of the text, the notation appears this way:

> The first step was the establishment of some
> form of state aid (1).

At the end of the chapter, the credit will appear as follows:

> 1. Elwood P. Cubberly, The History of Education
>   (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920) p. 687

One publication using this style is Development of the Iowa
Department of Public Instruction 1900-65 by Dr. Richard N. Smith.

Bibliographies

A bibliography is printed at the end of a formal publication.
All footnotes or other references cited in the manuscript are listed.
Other related reading may also be included.

Bibliography items are listed alphabetically either by the author's
name or by the first significant word in the title of a publication for
which no author's name is given. Names of co-authors follow that of
the principal author, with given names first. Other information to be
included is illustrated in the following paragraph.

An "underhung" style is used in the typed or printed copy. The

first line is flush with the left-hand margin. Continuing lines are indented four or five spaces. Further identification of the publication can be inserted immediately after the title. (See third illustration below.)

Jelinek, Henry Jr. and Ann Pinchot. On Thin Ice. New York:
    Prentice Hall, 1965, Pp. xii + 375.

Lerner, Max. America As a Civilization. New York: Simon and Schuster,
    1937. Pp. xiv + 1037.

Ross, John L. and others. Dropouts and the Poverty Program. Report
    of the Committee on Educational Research. Detroit: Board of
    Education, 1965. Pp. 136.

Please consider Campbell's style book as a source of further information on footnotes, references, and bibliographies that involve special situations.[2] The Department of Public Instruction publication, Education Beyond High School Age: The Community College, can be used as a model for bibliography and footnote style.[3]

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[2]Ibid.

[3](Des Moines: State of Iowa, 1962), pp. 108-113 for bibliography style; earlier pages for footnote style.

Section 11

A CHECK LIST

Before submitting copy for publication, the writer should check to make sure that:

1. <u>All words are spelled correctly.</u> If this checking process requires correspondence, research, or telephone calls, such tasks should be completed before submitting the manuscript.

2. <u>All technical language, technical terms, equations, and formulas are checked for correctness.</u> The people who read proof on the printed material may not have the special background or training necessary to make corrections.

3. <u>All quoted material is cleared for publication.</u> If authors or publishers request credit lines, be sure that these lines are correctly worded.

4. <u>Footnotes, references, and bibliographies are complete and in accord with the style illustrated elsewhere in this handbook.</u>

5. <u>Copy is clearly and cleanly typed--double spaced on one side of 8 1/2 x 11 white paper.</u> Margins should be set to produce finished copy approximately 6 3/4 inches wide and 9 inches deep. If the manuscript is to go to a commercial printer, do not try to fit copy into columns or boxes. Type it full width and indicate any special arrangement on a simple layout sheet the size of the proposed printed publication. May we repeat: Double space everything.

6. <u>Illustrations are clearly drawn and in a form that will be understood by the artists who will prepare the finished art work</u>. If a picture or a piece of art is borrowed from another publication, be sure that written permission has been secured for its use and that credit lines have been prepared in accordance with the previous publisher's request.

7. <u>Diagrams, pictures, and drawings are provided in uniform size insofar as that is possible</u>. The dimensions of the typed page mentioned in number 5 above are suggested for easy handling of diagrams and charts. All such illustrations should be numbered consecutively or identified by reference to a page number of the manuscript.

8. <u>Capitalization and punctuation conform as closely as possible to the style outlined elsewhere in this handbook</u>.

9. <u>Outlined material conforms as closely as possible to the outline style illustrated elsewhere in this handbook</u>.

10. <u>Divisions and subdivisions of the manuscript are uniform</u>. If the major divisions are to be called <u>chapters</u>, <u>parts</u>, or <u>sections</u>, use those terms consistently. Use equal care with the subdivisions of each of these divisions.

11. <u>Pages are numbered consecutively with soft pencil from the beginning to the end of the manuscript</u>. If necessary to insert pages after the original numbering, indicate by using a combination of numbers and letters, such as 18a, 18b, etc. Numbering of pages in the final printed book or booklet will be arranged with the printer by the Information and Publications Services Section.

12. <u>Cover, title, and introductory pages are complete and in accord</u> <u>with the form established for Department of Public Instruction publications</u>. See Section 9 of this manual, or check with the Information and Publications Services Section for allowable variations.

13. <u>A table of contents is provided, showing, in reasonable detail,</u> <u>how material is to appear in the finished publication</u>. Table of contents page numbers should be written with pencil and keyed to the original manuscript. Page numbers in the printed copy will usually be different.

14. <u>The finished size of the printed work is suggested</u>. Sample publications are on display in the Information and Publications Services Section, and the artist there will make suggestions regarding size and format.

15. <u>All retyping is complete before the manuscript is submitted</u> <u>for printing</u>. If the publication is to be printed commercially, the Information and Publications Services Section will write specifications and make final arrangements with the State Printing Board. Specifications must be complete at least 10 days before the State Printing Board meeting at which bids are to be opened. The usual meeting date is the second Thursday of each week.

Section 12

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Campbell, William Giles. Form and Style in Thesis Writing. Boston:

Houghton Mifflin Co., 1969. Pp. vi + 138. This book contains

detailed information on many style situations.

Education Beyond High School Age: The Community College. Des Moines:

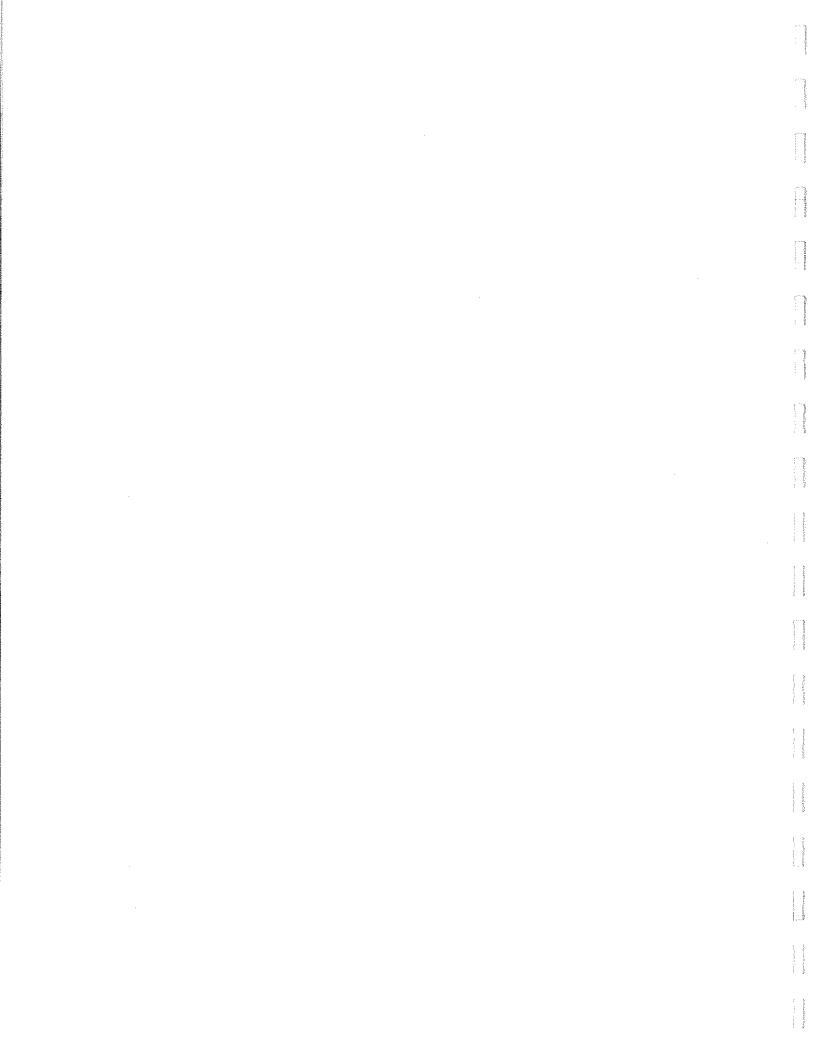State of Iowa, Department of Public Instruction, 1962. Pp. x + 115.

(This is not a stylebook, but its style is a model to follow.)

Iowa Newspaper Desk Book. Iowa City: University of Iowa, School of

Journalism, 1961. Pp. 40

A Manual of Style. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968. Pp. x + 534.

NEA Style Manual. Washington: National Education Association, 1962, 1966.

Pp. 76.

Perrin, Peter G., and others. Writer's Guide and Index to English. Chicago:

Scott, Foresman and Company, 1965. Pp. xiv + 907.

Skillin, Marjorie E., Robert M. Gay, and others. Words into Type.

New York: Meredith Publishing Company, 1964. Pp. xx + 596.

Strunk, William, Jr., and E. B. White, The Elements of Style. New York:

The Macmillan Co., 1968. Pp. xiv + 71.

United States Government Printing Office Style Manual, Abridged.

Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1967.

Pp. viii + 286.

Warriner, John E., and Francis Griffith. English Grammar and Composition,

Complete Course. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1965.

Pp. xii + 788.