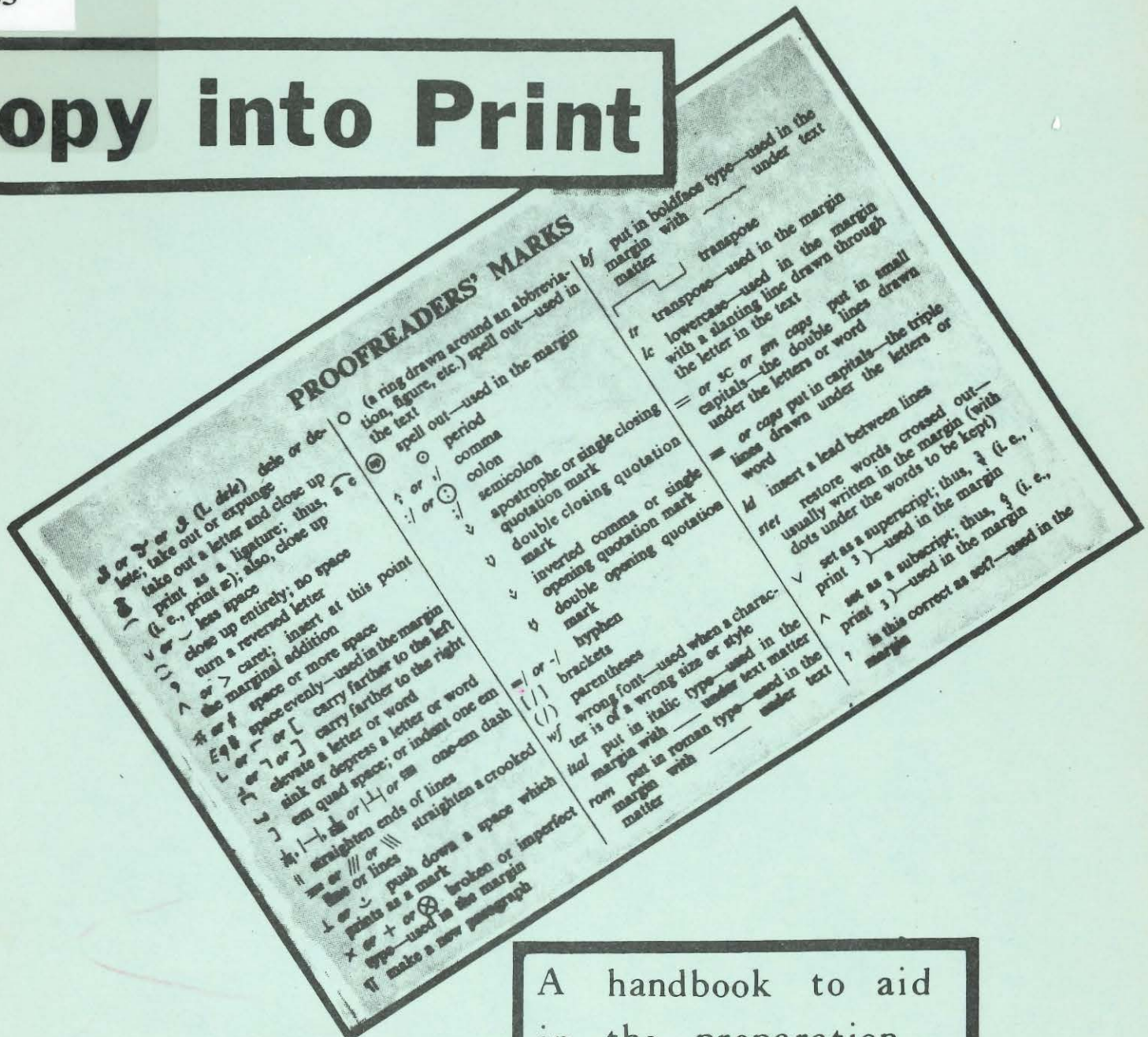


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III. Printing, practical -
Style manuals

Copy into Print



A handbook to aid
in the preparation
of printed materials

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STATE OF IOWA

Department of Public Instruction

1965

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

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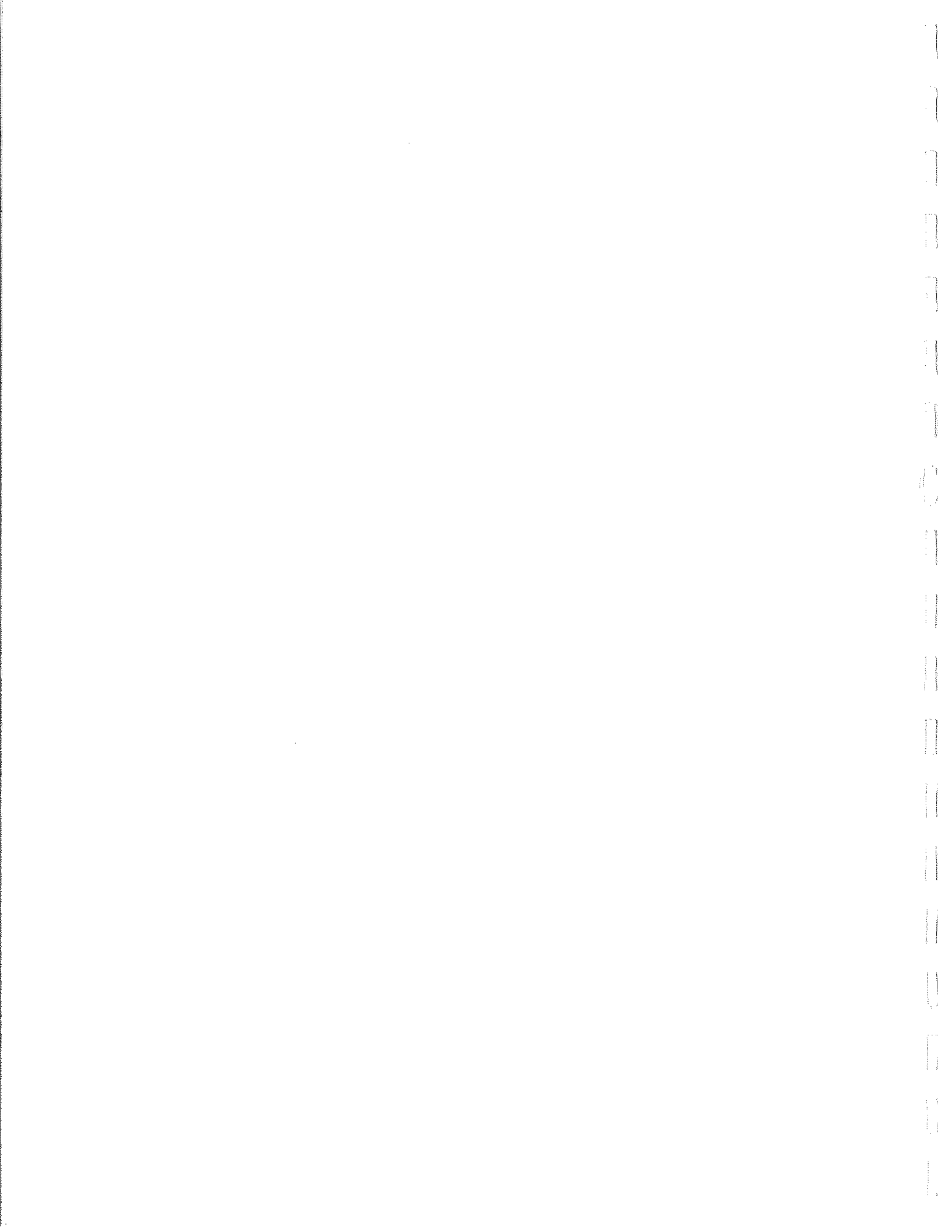
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FOREWORD

This booklet was assembled to assist you and the members of the Publications Section in the preparation of printed materials for the Department of Public Instruction. It is neither a textbook nor a set of inflexible rules, but it should be helpful in achieving consistency of style and clarity of expression in departmental publications.

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

If your preparation is under way when the handbook reaches you, we hope you will do your best to bring your manuscript into reasonable conformity with the suggestions outlined here. The Publications Section has been authorized to insist on positive response to all items of the Check List on pages 23 and 24 as a minimum standard for acceptance of manuscripts.

We do not regard this handbook as the last word in writing style. In fact, it should be only the "first word" in an effort to improve our publications. We are open to suggestions for revisions, corrections, and additions.

Publications Section

State Department of Public Instruction

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Publications Section has received valuable assistance in the preparation of this handbook from Mrs. Georgia Burge, English consultant for the Department of Public Instruction. Mrs. Burge contributed the copy for the section on "Usage" and made a number of other helpful suggestions.

The compilers of the handbook also acknowledge valuable background help obtained from reference materials collected by Dr. Wayland W. Osborn, consultant, Planning and Development; and Dr. Harold Dilts, former DPI staff member.

CONTENTS

Foreword.	v
Acknowledgments	vi
Section 1 General Suggestions	1
Section 2 Capitalization.	4
Section 3 Punctuation	7
Section 4 Abbreviations	11
Section 5 Outlining	13
Section 6 Usage	15
Section 7 Footnotes	19
Section 8 References.	21
Section 9 Bibliographies.	22
Section 10 Check List.	23
Bibliography.	25

SECTION 1

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 one correct way to write a letter, compose an article, or punctuate a sentence. A good test might be "What will do the best job of getting the message across to the reader?"

With the reader in mind, we suggest "three things a man should do" to prepare a manuscript for printing: (1) Organize logically. (2) Write clearly. (3) Punctuate and capitalize consistently.

1. Organize Logically

There are many ways to organize written material. Here are a few of them:

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

From general to specific. Some topics can be developed logically by describing the general application of a law 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 should be written in inverted-pyramid style. Then, if it is necessary to shorten an article, copy can be eliminated from the end.

2. 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 constructions. Be direct. Avoid "deadwood" and "gobbledygook."

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.

3. Punctuate and Capitalize Consistently

A number of rules for punctuation and capitalization appear in a later section of this handbook. As suggested for use in Department of Public Instruction publications, they represent a composite of rules found in a number of

contemporary style manuals. References include A Manual of Style published by the University of Chicago Press,¹ W. G. Campbell's Form and Style in Thesis Writing published by Houghton Mifflin Company,² the NEA Style Manual published by the National Education Association,³ and the Iowa Newspaper Desk Book published by the University of Iowa School of Journalism.⁴

Two textbooks which agree closely with the suggested rules are Warriner's English Grammar and Composition⁵ and Perrin's Writer's Guide.⁶

¹(Chicago, 1949).

²(Boston, 1954).

³(Washington, 1962).

⁴(Iowa City, 1961).

⁵John E. Warriner and Francis Griffith, English Grammar and Composition, Complete Course (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1965).

⁶Peter G. Perrin and others, Writers Guide and Index to English (Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1965).

SECTION 2

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

Titles of persons. Capitalize when the title precedes the name. Otherwise use lower case (small letters).

He talked to Superintendent J. O. Smith.

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

Exception; Titles of high government officials may be capitalized to show special respect. Reference to the head of a nation always calls for capitalization.

We were greeted by the President and the Secretary of State.

Names of college courses and school subjects. For the most part, capitalize only those words that are proper nouns or adjectives derived from proper nouns. Numbered courses are usually capitalized.

English literature

algebra

History II

Governmental bodies, state departments, and department sub-divisions.

Capitalize when used in exact or formal reference--not in general reference.

the House of Representatives

the state legislature

the Department of Public Instruction

the Vocational Education Division

one of the divisions of our office

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

He was a lifelong Republican.

He was opposed to both socialism 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 they are

used as simple adjectives modifying non-proper words.

He got a federal loan for the project.
We worked for state aid to schools.
He quoted from the Federal Constitution.
She was employed by the State of Iowa.
The town was in Jackson County.
It is the county seat.

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
a small river

Names of organizations, buildings, schools, etc. Treat in the same general way as geographical terms. Capitalize if the identifying (proper) word comes first; otherwise do not. Capitalize names of organizations as proper names.

Jefferson High School
the high school at Jefferson
the League of Women Voters

Animals, birds, plants, etc. Capitalize only proper nouns or words derived from proper nouns.

a Scotch terrier
a red robin and an English sparrow

Calendar periods. 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 regions or localities.

The storm was east of Miami.
They came from the Middle West.
The town is in northeast Iowa.
The wind came 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
M.A.

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

the Reformation
World War II

Holidays. Capitalize names of commonly recognized holidays.

Labor Day
Good Friday

First word after a colon. Capitalize when it introduces a complete sentence.

This is my decision: You will go to Paris at once.
The following grains were planted: oats, wheat, corn, and barley.

Prefixes and suffixes used with proper nouns. Do not capitalize when used as simple prefixes and suffixes. Capitalize when usage has given them status as proper names.

former President Truman
un-American
Senator-elect Jones
All-American

Titles of articles, books, etc. Capitalize all words in titles except articles, conjunctions, and prepositions of fewer than five letters. Capitalize the first and last words of a title, however.

The Wreck of the Hesperus
Cooperation Through Understanding
A World To Live In (To is capitalized here because it is an infinitive.)

First word in each item of a list arranged in block form. In general, capitalize the first word. Lower case letters would be permissible if the items were single words or if lower case letters would better illustrate a point.

Preparing the manuscript
Checking for errors
Typing it carefully

SECTION 3

P U N C T U A T I O N

Comma

Between main clauses. Use before conjunctions such as and, but, for, or, nor, and so when they connect two main clauses in a sentence. Do not use if a conjunction simply connects two verbs.

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 to separate words, phrases, or short clauses in a series. DPI publications will use the comma following the next-to-the-last item.

They packed food, drugs, and camping supplies.

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

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

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

George, please come here.

Apposition. Use commas to clarify meaning or to set off nonrestrictive appositives.

My sisters Jane and Mary (I have more sisters)

My sisters, Jane and Mary, (I have only two sisters)

The fact that he had been over the road before gave him an advantage.

The fact, that he had been over the road before, gave him an advantage.

Dates and addresses. 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 not for sale.

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

The issue for May 1964 was missing.

The building was at 716 Oak Street in Waterloo.

Restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses. Use commas to set off nonrestrictive clauses but not to set off restrictive elements.

The center fielder, who had injured his ankle, missed the fly.

The player who has the most home runs is Willie Mays.

Rule of thumb: If interrupter designates "which one," do not use commas.

The man sitting in that office is the person to see.

If interrupter follows a proper noun, use commas.

Mr. Brown, sitting in that office, is the person to see.

Clauses beginning with "that" are restrictive; hence, no commas are required.

The one that pays the piper calls the tune.

Semicolon

Between main clauses. Use a semicolon when the clauses are internally punctuated by commas or when they are not joined by conjunctions (and, but, or, for, etc.). Use a semicolon also when clauses are joined by such words as however, nevertheless, hence, etc.

The doctor, by the way, was not injured; but his wife was seriously hurt.

The doctor was not injured; his wife was seriously hurt.

The doctor was not injured; however, his wife was seriously hurt.

Semicolons are used in compound sentences when the clauses are balanced--that is when they are grammatically and logically parallel. Most constructions are more accurately stated in simple or complex sentences.

Hyphen

As a modifier. When a modifier is composed of two or more words, it is usually hyphenated if it precedes the noun. It is not hyphenated when it is in the predicate position.

The clear-cut definition....

The definition was clear cut.

As a device to prevent ambiguity. Use a hyphen to make meaning clear.

He was a new car-salesman.

He was a new-car salesman.

There are divided opinions on hyphenated words. Many words that were hyphenated are now one word: teen-ager, teenager; week-end, weekend. If you are in doubt about accepted usage, use a good, contemporary dictionary.

Colon

The colon is more widely used than in the past. In addition to its conventional uses, the colon may be used to replace a comma or a semicolon if that which follows the colon either restates or illustrates that which precedes it.

At camp we studied a universal language: music.

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

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:

Dr. Jones said, "The human body is one of the marvels of creation."

"The owner," argued the attorney, "should possess the house."

"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 the NEA Journal?

Chapter IV entitled "Fire Power" is very important.

Quotation marks are also used to enclose slang expressions and words used in a sense different from their usual meaning.

David "rocked" Goliath to sleep.

They "welcomed" him with jeers.

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, "Eureka! I have found it!"

Quotations within quotations are enclosed in single marks.

"I want you to read 'Book Mark' in the NEA Journal," said the teacher.

Italics

Italics are shown in typing by a single underscore line. They have at least four important uses: (1) to indicate titles of books, magazines, newspapers, and works of art; (2) to indicate words referred to as words, and letters referred to as letters; (3) to denote foreign words; (4) to indicate emphasis.

The Daily Sentinel urged us to mind our p's and q's.

She waved her au revoir.

An alarm that doesn't work is worse than none.

Apostrophe

The apostrophe is commonly used to show possession and to indicate contraction. It may also be used to form the plural of numerals and letters and of words referred to as words.

He crossed his t's, but his 7's looked like 5's.

His loud amen's were heard throughout the church.

Dash

A dash is indicated by typing two hyphens in succession with no space before or after. It should be used sparingly. Its principal use is to indicate abrupt changes in continuity.

The man in the street--and I don't mean the alley--usually has an answer.

SECTION 4

ABBREVIATIONS

Except in customary instances (Mr., Mrs., 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.

• Except in tables, charts, and similar material, use per cent rather than percent or %. Do not confuse the meanings of per cent and percentage. Check your dictionary.

• Spell out numbers under 10, except in enumerations, tabulations, and similar material. Use figures for numbers of two digits or more.

Exceptions: Always spell out the 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.

Special emphasis: In legal writing and in other situations where emphasis or exactness is desired, numbers can be spelled out and followed with figures in parentheses.

The board shall publish a notice eight (8) days in advance of the election.

Note: The formal style illustrated in the example above should be limited, for the most part, to legal writing. Avoid the use of shall when summarizing legislation in your own words.

●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: Spell out the title if it is used only with the surname.

Professor Smith

●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.

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

Assn. (Association) rather than Ass'n

Dept. (Department) rather than Dep't

●In referring to legislative bills, use HF to denote House File and SF to denote Senate File.

He supported HF 140.

●Be sure to use the following common abbreviations in their proper context:

e.g.	for example
et al.	and others
etc.	and so forth
i.e.	that is
viz.	namely

SECTION 5

O U T L I N I N G

Use the style below when treatment of the subject calls for complete outline form:

- | | | <u>Rule</u> |
|----|-----|-------------------------------------|
| I. | | |
| | A. | |
| | 1. | |
| | 2. | Never use I without II; never use A |
| | a. | without B. In other words, there is |
| | b. | no point in subdividing if you only |
| | (1) | |
| | (2) | |
| | (a) | |
| | (b) | have one subdivision. |
| | B. | |

II.

When only one or two degrees of sub-division 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.

If your manuscript, or any major portion of it, is prepared in outline form, be consistent in grammar and punctuation. Warriner says, "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 a noun and its modifiers. Sub-topics need not be parallel with main topics."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. Evaluates programs.

End punctuation for elements of the outline is determined by the construction. If enumerated or lettered parts are complete sentences, use periods or other end punctuation marks. (In the examples above, the subject is understood.) If the elements of the outline are only phrases or word combinations, use no end punctuation.

1. Cooperating agencies

- a. Police department
- b. Fire department
- c. Service clubs

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

SECTION 6

U S A G E

Here are some of the more common problem situations in usage. Preferred usage is indicated for each.

1. agree to - with. Agree to a plan and with a person.

2. 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.

3. all right - alright. Although alright is seen in many instances, it has not yet moved into the acceptable classification. The words should be written all right.

4. apt, likely, liable. When the meaning to be conveyed is "expected" or "probably," use likely.

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

As I was baking a cake, he decided to go to the football game.

(As could convey all three meanings: "because," "in spite of...", and "during the time that.")

6. at - about. Use either at or about, not both.

He will be here at four o'clock.

He will be here about four o'clock.

7. 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.

8. cannot - can not. Usage is divided, but cannot is more common.

9. catalog - catalogue. Usage is divided, but catalog is gaining preference.

10. collective nouns. Either singular or plural verbs and pronouns may be used with collective nouns. If the group as a whole is intended, the singular forms are

used; if the individuals of the group are intended, the plural forms are used.

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

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

11. contractions. Avoid contractions in formal writing.

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

12. 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.

13. each. In formal writing each is followed by a singular verb.

Each of the teachers was assigned a homeroom.

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.)

14. 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.

15. fractions. Although usage is divided, use a hyphen when a fraction is used as a modifier but not when a fraction is used as a noun.

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

Only three fourths of the students could hear the speaker.

16. 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.

He was in a demoralizing position, to say the least.

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

18. irregardless - regardless. The only acceptable form is regardless. Irregardless is still considered non-standard, not only in writing but in speaking.

19. judgment - judgement. The first spelling is more commonly used by American writers. When in doubt about spelling, use the American in preference to the British spelling (glamor in place of glamour; traveling in place of travelling).

20. less, fewer. 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.

21. lighted - lit. Either form is in good usage.

I lighted my pipe.

I lit my pipe.

22. like. Seemingly, both in educated and uneducated speech, like is used as a conjunction ("Winstons taste good like a cigarette should"). In formal writing, however, as is preferred.

Mother's cooking tastes good, as we knew it would.

23. number. Number is a collective noun. Ordinarily a number takes a plural verb; the number takes a singular verb.

A number of shoppers were on hand.

The number of casualties was high.

24. affect - effect. Affect is always a verb; it means to impress or to influence. Effect as a verb means to accomplish, to bring about.

Did the defeat affect the team?

Several changes were effected.

25. proved - proven. Proved is preferred for Department publications.

26. reason ... is because. Do not use this combination. Follow "the reason is ..." with a noun or noun clause, or simply omit reason and use because.

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.

SECTION 7

FOOTNOTES

Footnotes are necessary in formal presentations to give credit for quoted materials and for ideas gleaned from the writings of others. This is true even though the ideas may be rewritten in your own words.

A footnote is indicated by placing a raised numeral immediately after the end of the statement for which credit is to be 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.

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 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.

²T. R. McConnell, A General Pattern for American Public Higher Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1962), p. 134.

A footnote referring to information in a periodical gives the author (unless the article is anonymous); the title of the article, in quotation marks; the name of the periodical, underlined; the volume number, date of publication (in parentheses), and page number.

³Charles 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

¹William G. Campbell, Form and Style in Thesis Writing (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1954).

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 page number(s) should be changed.

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

²²Ibid.

²³Ibid., 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.

²⁷Jones, 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.

²⁹Jones, loc. cit.

SECTION 8

REFERENCES (Other Than Footnotes)

Short, informal papers and articles for journals frequently omit footnotes. In such cases, citations are merely numbered consecutively, within parentheses, throughout the paper or chapter. At the end of the paper, the references are listed in the numerical order in which they appear in the manuscript.

In the article:

The mental photography of words was discussed by
Horn in a recently published article (3).

At the end of the chapter:

3. Ernest Horn, "The Incidental Teaching of
Spelling," Elementary English Review, XIX (February,
1964), p. 65.

SECTION 9

B I B L I O G R A P H I E S

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 last 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 below.

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. ix + 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.¹ 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.²

¹William G. Campbell, Form and Style in Thesis Writing, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1954).

²(Des Moines: State of Iowa, 1962), pp. 108-113 for bibliography style; earlier pages for footnote style.

SECTION 10

A C H E C K L I S T

(A "final filter" before submitting the manuscript to the Publications Section for printing.)

Before submitting copy, committee chairmen, directors, or consultants should make sure that:

1. All names (in fact, all words) are spelled correctly. If this checking process requires correspondence, research, or telephone calls, please complete that work before submitting the manuscript.

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

3. All quoted material is cleared for publication. If authors or publishers request credit lines, be sure that these lines are correctly worded. *Be sure to include the name of the publisher.*

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

5. ^{Copy} Copy is clearly and cleanly typed--double spaced on one side of 8½ x 11 white paper. Margins should be set to produce finished copy approximately 6 3/4 inches wide and 9 inches deep. 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. Check with the Publications Section.

6. Illustrations are clearly drawn and in a form that will be understood by the artists who will prepare the finished art work. 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. Diagrams, pictures, drawings, etc. are provided in uniform size insofar as that is possible. The dimensions of 8 x 10 or 10 x 8 are suggested for easy

handling. All diagrams, pictures, drawings, and graphs should be numbered consecutively (e.g., Figure 16).

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

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

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

11. Pages are numbered consecutively with soft pencil from the beginning to the end of the manuscript. 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 Publications Section.

12. Cover, title, and introductory pages are complete and in accord with the form established for Department of Public Instruction publications. See State Printing Board regulations and DPI Handbook for Clerical Personnel.

13. A table of contents is provided, showing, in reasonable detail, how material is to appear in the finished publication. Table of contents page numbers should be left blank in the original manuscript.

14. The finished size of the printed work is suggested. Recent state publications are either 8 1/2 x 11 or 5 3/4 x 8 5/8.

15. References to appendixes and bibliographies are as specific as it is possible to make them.

16. All typing or retyping is complete before the manuscript is submitted to the Publications Section for printing.

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