Chicago Manual of Style

What Is CMOS?
1. CMOS defines the editorial style of the University of Chicago Press, a major publisher of academic books and journals. The press has published its style guide in various editions since 1906.
2. Over time, other publishing organizations have adopted CMOS rules for their own work.
3. The flexibility and expansiveness of the rules make CMOS style useful for a number of contexts, including academic research papers and business reports, as well as published manuscripts.

Illustrations & Tables
1. Illustrations, also called figures, include artwork or any other presentation in images rather than in text or numbers, such as maps and charts.
A. If more than a handful of illustrations appear in a work, the illustrations should be numbered and referred to in the text by number (e.g., “as shown in figure 1”). Place illustrations soon after their first text reference.
B. Captions usually appear below illustrations and may consist of a word or two, an incomplete sentence, a complete sentence, several sentences, or a combination.
C. Source information, or a credit line, is usually placed at the end of the caption.
2. Tables are complex lists presented in columns and rows.
A. Tables are numbered separately from illustrations (figure 1, table 1, figure 2, table 2, etc.).
B. Every table should be cited in the text by number (e.g., “the last column of table 3 shows...” or “see table 6”). Place tables soon after their first text reference.
C. Column heads should be as brief as possible to minimize clutter; abbreviations and symbols are allowed.
D. Notes to tables are numbered separately from notes for the larger manuscript and appear just below the table.
E. Source information is listed in an unnumbered note before any other notes to the table.

Copyright & Fair Use
1. Copyright is a complex legal area, as are the permissions that must be obtained to reuse parts of previous works in a published book or article.
2. Most academic uses of other works are likely to fall under the fair use doctrine. Fair use allows small excerpts from other copyrighted works to be used for the purposes of criticism, analysis, or evidence.
3. Paraphrasing does not escape copyright law. Extensive paraphrasing is subject to the same copyright and fair-use limitations as direct quotation.
4. All uses, whether fair use or by permission, must be properly referenced or cited to avoid plagiarism.

Style & Usage
1. Do not confuse common usage with good usage—when in doubt, look it up!
2. This section provides a basic overview. Usage guides, such as Garner’s Modern American Usage, may also be helpful.
3. CMOS recommends Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary to resolve usage and spelling issues (see Tricky Words, p. 2).

Bias-Free Language
1. Bias-free language refers to both gender-neutral language and language that does not slight or stereotype based on race, ethnicity, disability, age, religion, sexual orientation, transgender status, or social standing.
2. The goal is not political correctness but rather avoiding unintentional judgments, preserving credibility, and achieving maximum clarity.
3. As a rule, use adjectives, not nouns (e.g., “a deaf-and-mute person,” not “a deaf-mute”; “a Jewish man,” not “a Jew”).
4. Some groups advocate the use of “person-first” language; this is rarely offensive and should be preferred where it does not create very awkward sentences (e.g., “a child with autism,” not “an autistic child”, “a person who stutters,” not “a stutterer”).

Tactics for Achieving Gender Neutrality
CMOS does not prohibit the use of the singular they as a substitute for the generic he in formal writing but recommends avoiding it. To achieve gender neutrality when making generic references to people, try these tactics:
1. Omit the pronoun.
Before: The student should carefully review the assignments when they are sent to him.
After: The student should carefully review the assignments when they are sent.
2. Repeat the noun instead of using a pronoun.
Before: The student should speak only when he is called on.
After: The student should speak only when the student is called on.
3. Use a plural noun.
Before: The teacher should update the gradebook when she receives the papers.
After: Teachers should update their gradebooks when they receive the papers.
4. Use an article instead of a pronoun.
Before: The author should review his pages carefully.
After: The author should review the pages carefully.
5. Use the neutral pronoun one.
Before: A teacher in a wealthy school is likely to have more access to computers than she will in a poorer district.
After: A teacher in a wealthy school is likely to have more access to computers than one in a poorer district.
6. Use a who construction rather than an if construction.
Before: If a student is accused of plagiarism, he must appear before the discipline board.
After: A student who is accused of plagiarism must appear before the discipline board.
7. Use the imperative mood.
Before: A manager must communicate effectively when speaking to his employees.
After: Communicate effectively when speaking to employees.
8. Use he or she, but sparingly.
Before: If a student is accused of plagiarism, he or she must appear before the discipline board.
After: If a student is accused of plagiarism, he or she must appear before the discipline board.
9. Revise the sentence.
Before: If a boy or girl is late to class, he or she will miss the introductions.
After: If someone arrives late to class, that person will miss the introductions.
**Punctuation Style & Usage**

1. All punctuation should be styled like the main or surrounding text unless it belongs to the styled matter (e.g., it is part of a title).
2. Periods and commas fall inside closing quotation marks. All other punctuation marks fall outside the closing quotation mark unless they are explicitly part of the quoted material.
3. Follow normal punctuation with URLs and email addresses.
4. The discussion that follows uses some basic grammatical terms (see An Introduction to Grammar, p. 3).

**Commas**

*Use commas:*

1. To separate items in a series or list; NOTE: CMOS style strongly encourages the use of **and** rather than the serial comma or Oxford comma—the comma between the next-to-last item in a list of three or more items and the word and—to ensure clarity.

EX: The agenda included a brief introduction, a talk by an invited speaker, and a brief question-and-answer period.

2. To set off nonrestrictive clauses introduced by **which**

EX: Her car, which is parked at the curb, was broken into last week.

3. To set off nonrestrictive appositives

EX: Jane’s husband, Daniel, carved the turkey.

4. To set off parenthetical asides

EX: The announcement was, to say the least, a shock.

5. To join two independent clauses connected by a conjunction

EX: The students didn’t protest, but they were not happy about the tuition increases.

6. For a dependent clause that precedes an independent clause

EX: If she accepts the job, she will start work on Monday.

7. To separate coordinate adjectives preceding a noun (i.e., adjectives whose order can be changed and still make sense) and to separate adjectives repeated for emphasis

EX: It was the longest, hottest night of the year, a hot, summer night.

EX: To be absolutely clear, it was very, very warm.

EX: She has many furry dogs.

8. In dates, addresses, and place names in running text

EX: Asheville, North Carolina, is near the Blue Ridge Parkway.

EX: July 4, 1776, is a date that will be long remembered.

9. To introduce a quotation, unless a conjunction is used

EX: Einstein said, “Genius is 99 percent perspiration, 1 percent inspiration.”

But Einstein said that “genius is 99 percent perspiration, 1 percent inspiration.”

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**Semicolons**

*Use semicolons:*

1. To join two independent clauses without a conjunction; the use of a semicolon rather than a period indicates a close relationship between the two clauses

EX: He stole the car; he went to jail.

2. To join two clauses using transitional adverbs such as however and therefore; the adverb should be followed by a comma

EX: The students were very unhappy about the tuition increases; however, they didn’t see that complaining would change things.

3. To separate items in a series or list when the items themselves include commas or are long or complex

EX: The agenda included a brief introduction by the head of the committee; a talk by an invited speaker, whose work had been the subject of some controversy; a brief question-and-answer period that all expected to be lively; and a reception where those attending could interact with the speaker in a more informal manner.

**Colons**

1. Colons denote amplification or illustration. A colon may function as a semicolon to emphasize that the second clause indicates a list.

EX: She couldn’t miss the parallels between his case and hers: he, too, had had his car stolen.

2. When introducing a series, a colon must be preceded by a complete independent clause, not a dependent clause

EX: The menu included turkey, sweet potatoes, and green beans.

EX: Not the menu included: turkey, sweet potatoes, and green beans.

3. When a colon is used to introduce a list or a single sentence, the word after it is lowercase unless it is a proper noun. When a colon introduces two or more related complete sentences, the word after it is capitalized.

EX: The DVD came with two extras: a poster and a booklet.

EX: She considered her options: she could leave immediately. She could hide in the bathroom until the evening was over. Or she could face down her embarrassment and stay for the end of the party.

4. A colon is used to separate the main title from the subtitle in a work; in this case, the first word after the colon is always capitalized

EX: Star Wars: A New Hope

**Hyphens & Dashes**

1. Although a variety of dashes are used in published works, writers will most often use hyphens (-), en dashes (--), and em dashes (—).

2. Do not put spaces around hyphens, en dashes, or em dashes.

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**TRICKY WORDS**

- affect: effect
  - Affect is usually a verb meaning “to influence” (The cold temperatures affected the children’s behavior); as a noun, it is a special term in psychology that means “mood” (The patient’s affect was depressed).
  - Effect is usually a noun that means “result” (The budget cuts had a noticeable effect on services); as a verb, it means “to make happen” (The new chief of police affected many changes to the force).

- aid: aide
  - Aid can be a verb meaning “to assist” (A service dog assisting people with disabilities in completing daily tasks).
  - Aide is a noun meaning “helper”; it is only applied to a person, never an object (The president’s aide delivered the message).

- among: amidst: amongst
  - Among: amidst: amongst are British forms and should be avoided in American English writing.

- both: all: all together: altogether
  - Both and all are adjectives, and together: altogether is an adverb.

- all ready: already
  - All ready refers to a state of preparation (Is the team all ready to go to the game?).
  - Already has to do with time, describing something that has happened in the recent past (Has the game already started?).

- anyone: anybody
  - Anyone is used with plural count nouns (amidst the fields of beauty).

- anyway: anywhere
  - Anyway is always two words; do not use alright (Are the children all right after their experience?).

- anybody: anyone
  - All right may be considered colloquial and should be avoided in very formal contexts.

- anybody: anyone
  - All together refers to the gathering of a group at a particular time and place (The class will be all together in the auditorium).

- who: whose
  - Who is a subject of a clause (The woman who bought the book also bought the DVD). Who belongs to a singular (He gave the book to Mary). Whose is a possessive pronoun (Who are you going to give the book to?).

- which: that
  - That is used to introduce a restrictive clause (The car that is parked at the curb belongs to Kate).
  - Which introduces a nonrestrictive clause; it is preceded by a comma (Kate’s car, which is parked at the curb, needs to be washed).

- whose: who's
  - Who’s serves as the subject of a clause (The woman who’s going to the party was not invited).

- whom: whose
  - Whom is a question word (Who do you think is the winner?).

- no: none: no one
  - None is used with plural count nouns (He ate none of the pie).

- not: no
  - No must be preceded by a form of do (I don’t like beets; No beets please.).

- not: no
  - Nor must be preceded by a form of do (She didn’t like broccoli; nor did I.; She didn’t like broccoli; nor did I like carrots.).
Parentheses

1. Parentheses are used to set off material from surrounding text; they offer a stronger division than commas and are similar to dashes.

2. Lists

5. Normally, vertical lists

6. Each item in a numbered vertical list begins with a capital letter, even if the list items are not complete sentences. However, use closing punctuation only if the list items are complete sentences.

EX: Students will be tested on their understanding of four essential skills:
   1. Conducting a web search
   2. Assessing the reliability of a source
   3. Identifying the main argument of a source
   4. Integrating source material into an original work

7. In a bullet list, each item can begin with a lowercase letter if none of the items are complete sentences.

EX: Students should bring the following items:
   - a pencil
   - a calculator
   - scratch paper
   - two forms of identification

8. An alternate structure treats the vertical list as a long sentence. In this model, the introductory phrase may be a dependent clause not ending with a colon, and each list item begins with a comma or semicolon, except the last, which terminates with a period.

EX: Students will be tested on:
   1. their ability to conduct a web search and select appropriate sources,
   2. their comprehension of the main arguments of the source,
   3. their capacity to synthesize multiple sources into a single argument, and
   4. their ability to integrate source material into an original work.

9. The same formatting and punctuation rules that apply to numbered lists also apply to bullet lists. Numbered lists should be reserved for occasions when sequence or number need to be emphasized.

Capitalization

1. In general, CMOS prefers sparing use of capitalization, sometimes referred to as "down" style.

2. Proper nouns, including names of places and geographical features, should be capitalized (e.g., the Rocky Mountains, Nellie Bly, the White House).

3. Titles and honorifics are capitalized when they immediately precede the person’s name but lowercased when following a name or used in place of a name. Titles used in apposition follow a person’s name (i.e., usually preceded by the or a modifier) should be lowercased.

EX: President John F. Kennedy; the president; General Pershing; the general; Margaret Thatcher, the British prime minister; former president Obama; German chancellor Angela Merkel; the secretary of the treasury Alexander Hamilton

4. The full name of administrative and legislative bodies, departments, and offices are normally capitalized (e.g., the US Congress); however, adjectives derived from full names and generic names for such bodies are usually lowercased (e.g., congressional).

5. Adjectives derived from proper names are typically capitalized, but consult a dictionary for specific cases (e.g., Kalkaesque, Dickensian).

6. Proper names of geographical regions and parts of geographic regions are capitalized when they are part of a single name or used with a list of names (e.g., Rocky and Adirondack Mountains).

7. Titles of works should usually be capitalized using headline-style capitalization, which follows several rules:
   A. Capitalize the first and last words and all other major words in the title and subtitle.
   B. Do not capitalize a, an, and the, unless it is the first or last word in the title or subtitle.
   C. Do not capitalize prepositions unless they are used as adverbs or adjectives (e.g., Going Down but Thoughts on Problem Solving).
   D. Do not capitalize and, but, for, or, and nor.
   E. Do not capitalize to and as.
   F. Proper names should be capitalized as they are in general usage; this includes treatment of particles such as de or van.
   G. Never capitalize the second part of a species name, even if it is the last word in a title.
   H. Capitalize the first part of a hyphenated compound. Capitalize the second part unless it falls under one of the above rules; however, if the first part is a prefix or combining form that could not stand by itself as a word, do not capitalize the second part unless it is a proper noun/adjunctive (e.g., Open-Ended Questions, Anti-inflammatory Medication).

8. When periodical names are mentioned in the text, a leading the is not italicized or capitalized, even if it is part of the publication’s official name.

Mass nouns, also called collective nouns, name things that cannot be counted because they are abstract (pride, evidence) or are indistinguishable aggregates (the middle class, the majority) and may take singular or plural verbs, depending on context; a singular verb emphasizes the group, while a plural emphasizes individual members within the group (The faculty protested the chancellor’s policy. The faculty are all distinguished scholars who publish in reputable journals.)

An appositive is a noun or phrase that immediately follows another noun and serves to define or more completely identify the preceding noun; it may be restrictive, in which case it is set off with commas, or restrictive, in which case it is not (Bono, U2’s lead singer, is a great philanthropist. The singer Bono spends a lot of time advocating for poor people).

Pronouns are words that substitute for nouns or other pronouns (he, it, you, this)

Adjectives modify or describe nouns or pronouns (the wooden desk, the childlike man)

Verbs indicate action, motion, or state of being (write, fly, exist)

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (She wrote fluently, although she read very slowly. We started our journey early)

Prepositions link noun elements to other parts of the sentence to show relationship (in, on, to)

Conjunctions connect words in a sentence or clause (and, or, but, however, therefore)

Interjections are words, phrases, or clauses that indicate strong feeling (Ouch! Well I never! Hey, that’s my backpack)

AN INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR

Grammar is the set of rules that describe how we construct meaningful sentences. It is concerned both with defining parts of speech (noun, verb, adjective, etc.) and with describing how they are combined to make meaning (syntax).

• The clause is the basic unit of meaning; it includes at least a noun and a verb (He drives).

• An independent clause can stand alone as a complete unit of meaning (The farmers do not complain).

• A dependent clause requires an independent clause to complete its meaning (when it rains).

• A restrictive clause is necessary to the meaning of the sentence; removing it changes or obscures the meaning (The car that was parked at the curb has been stolen).

• A nonrestrictive clause provides additional information or description, but it can be removed without changing or obscuring the meaning of the sentence (Ellen’s car, which she bought last month, was broken into last night).

• Although there is some disagreement among grammarians, English grammar is traditionally built on eight parts of speech:

  Nouns
  - Common nouns are names of something (a car, a dog, a fairy tale), whereas proper nouns name specific people, places, things, or titles of works (Anne Sexton, Mount Vernon, Wall Street Journal)
  - Count nouns name things that can be counted and have singular and plural forms (idea, ideas)

  Adjectives
  - Describe nouns or other nouns (the wooden desk, the childlike man)

  Verbs
  - Indicate action, motion, or state of being (write, fly, exist)

  Adverbs
  - Modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (She wrote fluently, although she read very slowly. We started our journey early)

  Prepositions
  - Link noun elements to other parts of the sentence to show relationship (in, on, to)

  Conjunctions
  - Connect words in a sentence or clause (and, or, but, however, therefore)

  Interjections
  - Express strong feeling (Ouch! Well I never! Hey, that’s my backpack)

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I t.

Abbreviations

1. Abbreviations

11. Numbers

4. It's

2. The

9. In

8. Numerals always require citations.

4. It's preferred to use the abbreviation when spelled out or restructure the text.

1. In general, for non-technical contexts, zero through one hundred should be spelled out, as should whole numbers followed by hundred, thousand, hundred thousand, million, billion, etc.; use numerals for numbers larger than one hundred.

EX: The church is 104 years old. It holds the land for the building on a ninety-nine-year lease from the city.

EX: The history of the empire covers two thousand years.

EX: The population of the city was 1,542,000.

2. In scientific and technical contexts, single-digit numbers are spelled out and all numbers appear in numerals.

EX: He was the thousandth customer.

EX: Her office was on the 102nd floor.

3. Plurals of numerals are made by adding s. No apostrophe is needed.

EX: We lived in Florida during the 1990s.

4. A sentence may not begin with numerals. Spell out the number or restructure the sentence.

EX: Two hundred and seventeen students made the trip.

Or In the end, 217 students made the trip.

5. When several numbers appear within a paragraph, maintain consistency within categories. If one item in a category requires numerals, use numerals for all occurrences of that category.

EX: The three hundred residents of the apartment building had a wide variety of pets, including 165 dogs, 120 cats, 13 gerbils, and 2 rabbits.

6. Numerals are always used to refer to divisions of a book, including page numbers, chapter numbers, volume numbers, and part numbers.

7. Numerals always precede percent or %, except at the beginning of a sentence.

EX: Percent is preferred over %, except in scientific and technical contexts and in tables or figures where space is at a premium.

8. In some technical and scientific contexts, numerals are required with units (e.g., meters, feet, square inches).

9. Years are always given in numerals, unless they appear at the beginning of a sentence.

EX: The year 2023 will see a significant increase in renewable energy.

10. Simple fractions are spelled out and hyphenated (e.g., three-quarters, one-third).

Mixed fractions are generally better represented in numerals (e.g., 1/5).

Abbreviations & Acronyms

1. Acronym refers to terms drawn from the first letters of their full names and read as single words (e.g., NASA, laser, scuba, AIDS). Initialism refers to terms constructed as acronyms but read as a series of letters (e.g., HTML, UFO, NHL).

Contraction refers to terms created from the first and last letters of the full word (e.g., Dr., Mr., amt.). This guide uses abbreviation as an umbrella term for all of these, except where specificity is required to ensure clarity.

2. Except in contexts where particular abbreviations are common, abbreviations should be avoided in running text, although they may be used to avoid excessive repetition or visual clutter if no better solution is available; they are acceptable in tables and figures.

3. In all cases, keep the number of abbreviations to a minimum, as readers will quickly lose track of a large number of abbreviations. If several abbreviations are used repetitively, consider adding a list of abbreviations.

4. The abbreviations e.g. (“for example”) and i.e. (“that is”) are always followed by a comma. The abbreviation etc. is not followed by a comma unless the surrounding syntax requires it.

5. Spell out less familiar abbreviations, and if used more than five times in a text, follow the first instance of the full term with the abbreviation in parentheses; the abbreviation may be used in all instances thereafter.

6. Use periods:

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Documentation

Source Citations Overview

1. Citation is required by copyright law, by ethical obligations to avoid plagiarism, and by courtesy to readers who may wish to reconstruct your argument.

2. Direct quotations, paraphrases, and sources of facts not generally known or easily found are all required citations.

3. Different disciplines have different conventions for citing sources. The primary objective should be to provide sufficient information either to lead readers directly to the source or, for sources not readily available, to clearly identify the sources used.

4. CMOS offers two citation systems: author-date and notes and bibliography.

A. The author-date system tends to be used in the sciences and social sciences and for shorter works. It uses parenthetical author-date references and a
**The Reference List**

1. The reference list appears at the end of the work and is titled References or Works Cited.
2. Each entry should begin on a new line and be assigned a hanging indent.
3. The reference list entry includes full publication information, with the year immediately following the author's name.
4. City of publication should always be given; state, province, or country should be added if there are multiple cities with the same name (Cambridge). If the city is well known (New York) or the publisher name includes the state (University of Georgia Press), the state abbreviation is not necessary.
5. Titles of works are capitalized headline-style. Titles of complete, self-contained works such as books and journals are italicized. Titles of shorter works or parts of larger works (articles, book chapters, folktales, fairy tales) are enclosed in quotation marks.
6. Authors' names should match how they appear on the title page or at the head of the article or chapter. Only the first author's name is inverted.
7. Reference lists entries are alphabetized by the last name of the author. Single-author entries precede multiauthor entries starting with the same name.
8. Multiple entries by the same author(s) are organized by date of publication, from earliest to latest. After the first entry, the author's name is replaced by a 3-em dash. Multiple entries for the same year are differentiated by the addition of a, b, etc. to the year of publication. For works published with and without publication date (n.d.) follow all dated works.

**Examples**


Multiple entries with the same first author but different second and subsequent authors are alphabetized by the coauthors' last names.

**Examples**


**In-Text Citations**

1. An in-text citation immediately follows quoted or cited material. It includes only the last name of the author(s) and the year of publication with no internal punctuation. If the citation is to a direct quotation, the parenthetical note may also include a comma just after the year, followed by a page number (Herson 2004, 23) or other locator.

2. For up to three authors, all authors' last names are included in the citation (Smith, Jones, and Doe 2002). For four or more authors, the first author's last name is included, followed by et al. and the year of publication (Smith et al. 2006).

3. To cite additional works by the same author, simply separate the years with a comma (Riemer 2002, 2005).

4. Multiple references may be included in a single parenthetical citation. They should be separated by semicolons and may be ordered either alphabetically or chronologically as long as the ordering is consistent throughout the work.

**The Notes & Bibliography System**

1. The notes and bibliography system provides citation information in either footnotes or endnotes, which may be supplemented by a bibliography.

2. When a bibliography is used, notes may use a shortened citation, giving only enough information (typically the author’s last name, short title, and locator information such as a page or chapter number if necessary) to point readers to the corresponding entry in the bibliography. When no bibliography is given, the notes must include full citation information at the first mention of the work, with shortened citations allowed thereafter.

**Citations in Notes**

1. In the footnote or endnote, the elements are separated by commas. Publication information is enclosed in parentheses, and the author's name is not inverted. The note ends with a period.

2. In the text, the corresponding note number is superscripted.

3. Note numbers appear at the end of a sentence or clause. They follow all punctuation except the dash, which they precede.

**EX:** Dramatizing what Leland Person calls "the limitations of a radically-idealistic vision," these stories betray a fundamental tension between the communicative function of art and the Romantic extirpation of the artist.

4. Except in rare cases, note numbers generally follow closing parentheses.

5. Notes may also be used to provide additional commentary or peripheral discussion, but such substantive notes should be carefully regulated to avoid overloading the text.

**The Bibliography**

1. The bibliography appears at the end of the work and is typically titled Bibliography.

2. The elements of each entry are separated by periods, and publication information is not in parentheses.

3. Organization of the bibliography follows the same rules as the reference list in the author-date system, including the use of the 3-em dash to replace author names when there are several entries by the same author(s).

4. Unlike in the author-date system, the year of publication appears at the end of the bibliography entry.

**Sample References**

In the following examples, an in-text citation and reference list entry are provided, followed by a note, short-form note, and matching bibliography entry.

**Books**

1. Citations to books should include the full name(s) of the author(s); the full title of the book, as well as the edition referred to (if not the first); volume number, and total number of volumes, if applicable; names of editors, compilers, or translators. In this example, the title page: series title and volume number; publication data (place, publisher, date); and page numbers, if referring to a chapter of a book.

2. For electronic books, construct the note or reference list entry like the following examples, adding the format (Kindle, PDF, iBooks, etc.) at the end of the entry for reference list entries or just after the page number or locator information in a note.

**Single-Author Book**


2. Brown, Tokyo Cyberpunk, 11.

MULTIAUTHOR BOOK
(Christensen, Roth, and Anthony 2004)
2. Christensen, Roth, and Anthony, *Seeing What’s Next*, 120.

EDITED BOOK
(Kaplan and Pease 1993)

TRANSLATED BOOK
(Gippius 1989)

CHAPTER IN AN EDITED BOOK
(Pease 1998, 54)

NOTE: For a chapter in a single-author book, as opposed to an edited volume, use the same format but omit the editor information.

E-BOOK
(Chow 2012, chap. 3)

PERIODICALS
1. References to articles appearing in periodicals should include the full name(s) of the author(s); title and subtitle of the article; the title of the periodical; information about the issue in which the article appeared (volume and issue numbers, if the periodical uses them); the date of publication; and if appropriate, page number(s).
2. For online periodicals, include the URL or name of the database.
3. Newspaper and magazine articles may be cited in running text instead of a note. If included in the reference list, repeat the year of publication with the month to avoid confusion.

JOURNAL ARTICLE
(Keinonen 2008, 35)

NEWS OR MAGAZINE ARTICLE
(Schulz 2015)
2. Schulz, “The Really Big One.”

WEBSITES
1. Websites that are merely mentioned need not be cited or included in the reference list, although they may be included in notes. Include in the reference list only websites whose content provides support for your argument.
2. When citing website content, include as much of the following as possible: the title or a description of the page or site; the owner or sponsor of the site; the publication date or date of revision or modification, and if no date can be found, include the access date; and the URL. If the nature of the source could be unclear, put website or web page, as appropriate, in parentheses after the title or description of the site.

WEBSITE
(Portland State University n.d.)

BLOGS
1. Blog posts are cited like newspaper articles.
2. The word blog may be added in parentheses after the title of the blog for clarity.

BLOG ENTRY
(Brown 2017)

SOCIAL MEDIA
1. Include the following elements when citing publicly available social media content:
   A. The name of the author of the post, followed by the author’s screen name in parentheses; if the author’s real name is not known, the screen name takes the place of the author’s name.
   B. The text of the post (up to the first 160 characters, including spaces); match the capitalization of the original.
   C. The name of the social media platform and a description of the post if relevant (e.g., photo, video).
   D. The month, day, and year of the post; timestamps can be included to differentiate a post from comments on the same day.
   E. The URL to the specific post.

   1. Social media content can often be cited in text, but if it’s important to include a link, use a note. An account or thread that is cited extensively can be included in a bibliography or reference list.

TWITTER POST
(Musk 2017)
Musk, Elon (@elonmusk). 2017. “Wanted to say thanks to all that own or ordered a Tesla. It matters to us that you took a risk on a new car company. We won’t forget.” Twitter, July 3, 2017, 3:44 p.m. https://twitter.com/elonmusk/status/882007043472728064.
1. Elon Musk (@elonmusk), “Wanted to say thanks to all that own or ordered a Tesla. It matters to us that you took a risk on a new car company. We won’t forget.” Twitter, July 3, 2017, 3:44 p.m. https://twitter.com/elonmusk/status/882007043472728064.
Musk, Elon (@elonmusk). “Wanted to say thanks to all that own or ordered a Tesla. It matters to us that you took a risk on a new car company. We won’t forget.” Twitter, July 3, 2017, 3:44 p.m. https://twitter.com/elonmusk/status/882007043472728064.