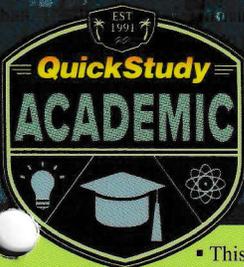


Chicago Manual of Style



▪ This is a brief guide to **Chicago style**, the rules for manuscript preparation laid out in *The Chicago Manual of Style* (CMOS).

▪ This guide is based on the rules and guidelines provided in the 17th edition. The University of Chicago Press, the publisher of CMOS, periodically releases new editions, which may include additions or adjustments.

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.

Preparing a Manuscript

The rules that follow are typical requirements. Different contexts will have different requirements. Always consult your professor or publisher for specifics.

General Document Layout

1. Use one-inch margins, set text flush left and double-spaced with no extra lines between paragraphs, and begin each new paragraph with a first-line indent of one-half inch.
2. All headings and subheadings should be set at the margin, distinguished from each other by use of type size and styling (i.e., **bold** or *italics*).
3. Titles and headings use headline-style capitalization (Initial Capitals, not ALL CAPITALS).
4. Use italics where italics are meant, not underlining.
5. Where possible, use word-processor functions to indent paragraphs and format lists. Avoid using double spaces and extra returns, and turn off automatic hyphenation.

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. Source information is listed in an unnumbered note before any other notes to the table.

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”).

The Pronoun *They*

1. *They* often refers to a plural antecedent, but *they* can also be used to refer to a singular antecedent.
2. When referring to a person who does not identify with a gender-specific pronoun such as *he* or *she*, the pronoun *they* may be used. CMOS states, “In general, a person’s stated preference for a specific pronoun should be respected.”
 3. In speech and informal writing, the pronoun *they* may be used as a substitute for the so-called generic *he* when referring to someone whose gender is unknown or unspecified. Although this usage is gaining ground, it is not considered fully acceptable in formal writing.

EX: Does anyone want their car washed?
4. The singular *they* takes a plural verb (like the singular *you*).

EX: They have a blue car.

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 under fair use or by permission, must be properly referenced or cited to avoid plagiarism.

Fair Use

1. The University of Chicago Press (UCP) makes its definition of fair use available on the web (<http://www.press.uchicago.edu/Misc/Chicago/permissions.html>). The following suggestions are adapted from both that source and CMOS. Rules of thumb such as those outlined here are not part of copyright law and have no legal force. The following are intended only to provide some guidance.
2. The key consideration in determining whether a use is fair use is whether the use in some way transforms or recontextualizes the original rather than merely appropriating it. Quotation to critique an argument, or to support an original argument, is fair use, but the same amount of quotation merely to repeat the argument may not be.
3. Fair use allows reuse of only small portions of a work and *never* a complete work, no matter how short. Quotations should be short—no more than a few paragraphs of a long work or a few lines of a poem—and should be interspersed with original text.
4. UCP’s cumulative guidelines for a work to be within the bounds of fair use state that no more than 300 consecutive words and no more than a total of 5,000 words may be quoted from a source; additionally, the quoted material must not make up more than 5 percent of the source text or more than 5 percent of the new text.

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 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. Use 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 what is called 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. After 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 a dry, hot summer.
EX: To be absolutely clear, it was very, very warm.
EX: She has many furry dogs.
8. With 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."

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 illustrates the first.
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.
EX: The menu included turkey, sweet potatoes, and green beans.
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 of 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.

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 specialized 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 effected many changes to the force.*)

aid; aide

- **Aid** can be a verb meaning "to assist" (*A service dog aids people with disabilities in completing daily tasks.*); as a noun, it means "means of assistance" (*The teacher frequently used audiovisual aids in the classroom.*)
- **Aide** is a noun meaning "helper"; it is only applied to a person, never an object (*The president's aide delivered the message.*)

amid; among; between

- In traditional usage, **between** indicates a one-to-one relationship (*between you and me*), whereas **among** indicates multiple or undefined relationships (*first among equals*)
- **Between** may also be used when context indicates the existence of multiple one-to-one relationships (*conversations between committee members*)
- When describing position or location, **amid** is used with nouns that cannot be counted (*amid clouds of suspicion*); **among** is used with plural counted nouns (*among the fields of barley*)
- *Amongst* and *amidst* are British forms and should be avoided in American English writing

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?*)

all right

- **All right** is always two words; do not use *alright* (*Are the children all right after their experience?*)
- **All right** may be considered colloquial and should be avoided in very formal contexts

all together; altogether

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

- **Altogether** means "entirely" (*The politician's excuse was altogether ridiculous.*)

a lot

- **A lot** is always two words; do not use *alot* (*There were a lot of dishes in the sink.*)
- **A lot** is indeterminate; consider whether a more concrete descriptor would be appropriate

cite; site

- **Cite** is a verb meaning "to reference in a paper or as evidence" (*To support her argument, she cited the prior year's statistics.*)
- **Site** is a noun meaning "place or location" (*the site of the incident*)

complement; compliment

- A **complement** is something that completes or perfects something else (*The red wine is the perfect complement to the meal.*); something that goes with something else is **complementary** (*The complementary study guide offers additional information not presented in the textbook.*)
- A **compliment** is a laudatory or flattering statement (*The food critic offered a nice compliment to the sommelier on his choice of wines.*); something that is free is **complimentary** (*Enjoy the complimentary peanuts offered by the airline.*)
- Both words may also be verbs; **to compliment** is to praise, whereas **to complement** is to complete or supplement

discreet; discrete

- **Discreet** means "circumspect, judicious" (*Naturally discreet, she was known for keeping secrets.*)
- **Discrete** means "separate, distinct, unconnected" (*The process requires five discrete steps.*)

farther; further

- **Farther** is typically used to refer to physical distances (*We drove five miles farther than the directions indicated.*)
- **Further** is reserved for figurative uses (*Let's examine the question further.*)

fewer; less

- **Fewer** should be used with counted nouns (*fewer cups of coffee*), whereas **less** is used with things that cannot be counted (*less coffee*)
- One good rule of thumb: use **fewer** with plural nouns and **less** with singular nouns

flaunt; flout

- **Flaunt** means "to show off" (*She flaunted her newly engaged status, showing everyone the flashy ring.*)
- **Flout** means "to treat with disregard" (*He showed no respect for authority, flouting the rules at every opportunity.*)

hoard; horde

- A **hoard** is a secret supply; it may also be used as a verb to indicate the act of creating such a supply (*My mother kept a hoard of cookies in the cupboard; she thought no one noticed her hoarding the sweets.*)
- A **horde** is a large group of people (*The horde of fans mobbed the singer's car.*)

lose; loose; loosen

- To **lose** something is to misplace it (*Don't lose your keys!*) or be deprived of it (*By lying about her whereabouts, she lost both her father's trust and the right to use the car.*)
- To **loose** something is to release it (*The police officer loosed the dogs, freeing them to chase the convict's scent.*)
- To **loosen** something is to make it less restraining (*They pushed back from the table and loosened their belts.*)
- The adjective forms are *lost*, *loose*, and *loosened*, respectively

stationary; stationery

- **Stationary** is an adjective describing a state of immobility (*A stationary bicycle may be used for exercising indoors.*)
- **Stationery** refers to writing materials (*She always used lovely stationery for writing her thank-you notes.*)

that; which

- **That** introduces a restrictive clause; it is not preceded by a comma (*The car that is 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.*)

who; whom

- **Who** serves as the subject of a clause (*The woman who bought the book also bought the DVD. Clifford, who bought me lunch today, has offered someone else the job.*)
- **Whom** is the object of a verb or of a preposition (*To whom am I speaking? The man whom she saw leaving the building was apparently a burglar.*)
- One quick way to check usage: **who** replaces *he* or *she*, whereas **whom** replaces *him* or *her*; replace **who** or **whom** with the equivalent pronoun in the sentence and check for sense (**NOTE:** You may need to change sentence order for this to work; *To whom am I speaking?* becomes *I am speaking to him.*)

who's; whose

- **Who's** is a contraction meaning "who is" (*Who's nervous about the exam?*)
- **Whose** is a possessive that can refer to things and people (*Joshua, whose computer isn't working, finished his paper at the library.*)

QuickStudy

- Hyphens** join compound modifiers appearing before a noun, join some compound words, and separate words across a line. Consult a dictionary or usage guide for guidance regarding hyphenation of specific compound words.
- Hyphens** may also be used when certain prefixes are attached to words that do not usually have them (e.g., cross-functional) or for clarity when a prefixed word may have more than one meaning (e.g., recreate or re-create).
- The **en dash** is primarily used to connect ranges of numbers or dates (e.g., “The information you want can be found on pages 375–384.”). If using an en dash, do not use *from...to* or *between...and*.
EX: The years 1994–1999 were difficult ones for Silicon Valley.
EX: The years between 1994 and 1999 were difficult ones for Silicon Valley.
EX: The years from 1994 to 1999 were difficult ones for Silicon Valley.
- Em dashes** can be used instead of commas or parentheses to set off an aside or an explanation more strongly or to add emphasis; avoid using more than two em dashes in a sentence.
EX: Her best friend—at least she thought the girl was her friend—turned her in.

Parentheses

- Parentheses are used to set off material from surrounding text; they offer a stronger division than commas and are similar to dashes.
EX: The final exam (which had to be rescheduled) was administered in the professor’s dining room.
- Material within parentheses does not have to bear a close grammatical relationship to the rest of the sentence, as does material set off by commas.
EX: The school maintained three separate labs (chemistry, biology, and physics). **But** The school maintained three separate labs, one for chemistry, one for biology, and one for physics.
- Parentheses within parentheses are allowed in some publications, but CMOS prefers the use of square brackets within parentheses.
- Back-to-back parentheses may be allowed if the material they enclose is entirely unrelated. Consider whether the material can be enclosed in a single set of parentheses separated by a semicolon, or if the text can be restructured to avoid the back-to-back parentheses.
- Commas, semicolons, and colons may precede an opening parenthesis only when parentheses are used to set off numbers or letters in a run-in list.
EX: The process’s three steps, which were to (1) open the file, (2) change the file’s name, and (3) save the file, were simple enough for all but the most inexperienced computer users.
- Commas, semicolons, and colons may be used within parentheses if they are part of the parenthetical material. They may never fall just before the closing parenthesis.
EX: Once he invited us in (reluctantly, it seemed), we saw the damage to the house.
EX: We were not eager to visit (we never had been); nevertheless, we went.
 - Question marks, exclamation points, and quotation marks fall inside the closing parenthesis only if they belong to the enclosed material.
EX: You may feed the lions (carefully!).
 - A period falls inside the closing parenthesis only if the entire sentence is enclosed.
EX: The new spring line was particularly vibrant. (She loved the bright colors.)

Lists

- All items in a list should be grammatically parallel; the structure of each item in the list should be identical.
Before: He went to school, to work, and did his homework.
After: He went to school and to work and did his homework.
Or He went to school, checked in at work, and did his homework.
- Lists may be run in to a sentence or formatted vertically; reserve vertical layouts for more complex items, longer lists, or lists that require greater prominence.
- Items in run-in lists are separated by commas. Use semicolons if items are long or complex or at least one of the items contains a comma itself (see **Semicolons**, p. 2).
- Unless numbers are needed to indicate order or chronology, they may be omitted in run-in lists. If numerals or letters are used in a run-in list, they are usually enclosed in parentheses (see **Parentheses**).
- Normally, vertical lists should be introduced by a complete sentence followed by a colon.

AN INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR

Grammar is the set of rules that describes 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** name tangible or intangible things (*book, happiness*)
 - Common nouns** are generic names (*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*)

- 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:

- Conducting a web search
- Assessing the reliability of a source
- Identifying the main argument of a source
- Integrating source material into an original work

- In a bulleted 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

- 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 ends with a comma or semicolon, except the last, which terminates with a period.

EX: Students will be tested on

- their ability to conduct a web search and select appropriate sources,
- their comprehension of the main arguments of the source,
- their capacity to synthesize multiple sources into a single argument, and
- their ability to integrate source material into an original work.

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

Capitalization

- In general, CMOS prefers sparing use of capitalization, sometimes referred to as “down” style.
- Proper nouns, including names of places and geographical features, should be capitalized (e.g., the Rocky Mountains, Nellie Bly, the White House).
- 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 before 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
- The full names 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).
- Adjectives derived from proper names are typically capitalized, but consult a dictionary for specific cases (e.g., Kafkaesque, Dickensian).
- Plurals of geographic features are capitalized when they are part of a single name or used with a list of names (e.g., Rocky and Adirondack Mountains).
- Titles of works should usually be capitalized using headline-style capitalization, which follows several rules:
 - Capitalize the first and last words and all other major words in the title and subtitle.
 - Do not capitalize *a*, *an*, and *the*, unless it is the first or last word in the title or subtitle.
 - Do not capitalize prepositions unless they are used as adverbs or adjectives (e.g., *Going Down* but *Thoughts on Problem Solving*).
 - Do not capitalize *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, and *nor*.
 - Do not capitalize *to* and *as*.
 - Proper names should be capitalized as they are in general usage; this includes treatment of particles such as *de* or *von*.
 - Never capitalize the second part of a species name, even if it is the last word in a title.
 - 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/adjective (e.g., Open-Ended Questions, Anti-inflammatory Medication).
- 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 unrestrictive, 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, of, 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!*)

QuickStudy

EX: Up until his death, Christopher Hitchens wrote literary essays for both the *Atlantic* and *Vanity Fair*.

Titles of Websites & Blogs

1. Titles of blogs can be italicized; an initial “the” can be included in the title.
EX: the *Huffington Post*; “How This Native Educator Is Keeping a Tribal Language Alive,” by Sarah Ruiz-Grossman
EX: *The Passive Voice*; “Shorter Attention Spans,” in *The Passive Voice*, a blog
2. Titles of websites, even if similar to a traditionally printed work, should be set in roman and capitalized headline-style; do not use italics or quotation marks.
EX: Google Photos, Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, YouTube, Wikipedia, Project Gutenberg, Apple.com
3. Titles of websites that also have a printed counterpart (e.g., newspapers, magazines, reference works) should be in italics.
EX: *Encyclopaedia Britannica Online*, the *American Heritage Dictionary*, the *New York Times* online, *The Chicago Manual of Style Online*
4. It’s sometimes hard to distinguish between a blog and a website; in that case, treat the title like that of a website.
5. Put titles of blog posts and titled sections, pages, and features of a website in quotation marks.
EX: the “Back Up Photos and Videos” page

Numbers

1. In general, for nontechnical 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 and complex large numbers.
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 others appear in numerals.
3. Whichever rule is used, the same rules apply to ordinal numbers.
EX: He was the thousandth customer.
EX: Her office was on the 102nd floor.
4. Plurals of numerals are made by adding *s*. No apostrophe is needed.
EX: We lived in Florida during the 1990s.
5. 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.
6. 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.
7. Numerals are always used to refer to divisions of a book, including page numbers, chapter numbers, volume numbers, and part numbers.
8. Numerals always precede *percent* or %, except at the beginning of a sentence. *Percent* is preferred over %, except in scientific and technical contexts and in tables or figures where space is at a premium.
9. In some technical and scientific contexts, numerals are required with units (e.g., meters, feet, square inches).
10. Years are always given in numerals, unless they appear at the beginning of a sentence. If possible, avoid beginning a sentence with a year.
11. Simple fractions are spelled out and hyphenated (e.g., three-quarters, one-third). Mixed fractions are generally better represented in numerals (e.g., 1½).

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:

- A. With abbreviations ending in a lowercase letter: Dr., pp., et al., a.m., p.m.
- B. For initials within names: E. B. White, T. S. Eliot
- C. With traditional abbreviations for states: Ill., N.C.
- D. With US units of measure in nonscientific contexts: lb., sq. mi., in., fl. oz., gal.
7. Do *not* use periods:
 - A. With abbreviations appearing in all capitals: VP, CEO, UK
 - B. With academic degrees, even if they end in a lowercase letter: BA, PhD, MDiv
 - C. With an entire name replaced by initials: JFK, MLK
 - D. With two-letter postal abbreviations for states and provinces (CMOS’s recommendation): VT, NC, US
 - E. With any SI symbols for units: K, kg, mol
8. Choose the indefinite article preceding an abbreviation based on the sound of the abbreviation when read aloud (e.g., “a health maintenance organization,” but “an HMO”; “an unidentified flying object,” but “a UFO”).

Quotations

1. In academic papers and other scholarly texts, quotations provide verifiable evidence so that others can see the building blocks of your argument and follow your train of thought.
2. It is important to give explicit credit to quotation sources in order to avoid plagiarism and give credibility to your work.
3. Proofread carefully to be sure quotations are accurately transcribed. Do not extract quotations in such a way as to misrepresent the position of the original.
4. Common knowledge or verifiable facts, proverbs, and familiar expressions need not be quoted unless the exact wording is taken from another work.
5. Some minor changes—in punctuation, capitalization, and other small details—are allowed to make the quotation fit grammatically into the new context.
6. Quotations are set off by double quotation marks (“ ”); quotes within quotes use single quotation marks (‘ ’).
EX: “When, in the course of human events . . .”
EX: “He has waged cruel war against human nature itself. . . . This piratical warfare . . . is the warfare of the Christian King of Great Britain.”
7. An ellipsis, or three spaced periods, may be used to indicate material omitted from a quotation. In using ellipses, great care must be taken to avoid skewing the meaning of the original quotation.
EX: “When, in the course of human events . . .”
EX: “He has waged cruel war against human nature itself. . . . This piratical warfare . . . is the warfare of the Christian King of Great Britain.”
8. The use of a comma to introduce a quotation depends on its relationship to the surrounding sentence.
EX: Sarah said she was “extremely disappointed” in the fundraiser’s outcome.
EX: He said he would “make amends immediately.”
EX: The students wrote “Get well soon!” on a large banner.
EX: George Washington said, “Liberty, when it begins to take root, is a plant of rapid growth.”
9. The first letter of a quotation that is an integral part of the surrounding sentence is not capitalized.
EX: John F. Kennedy believed in an ethic of service that required that a citizen “ask not what your country can do for you—ask what you can do for your country.”
10. A quotation presented with only an introductory clause will begin with a capitalized letter and be set off with a comma or colon.
EX: John F. Kennedy said, “Ask not what your country can do for you—ask what you can do for your country.”
Or John F. Kennedy expressed his ethic of service in this way: “Ask not what your country can do for you—ask what you can do for your country.”
11. Longer quotations, of several lines or more, may be set off as block quotations. Shorter quotations that bridge paragraphs or that require special formatting, such as poems, plays, or lists, may also be set off as block quotations.
12. Introduce a block quotation with a complete sentence ending in a period or a colon. Begin the quotation on a new line and indent it from the left margin. Do not use quotation marks to set off the block quotation, but use double quotation marks for quotations within block quotations.
EX: Gogol describes how the artist produces a string of portraits depicting conventional people in conventional poses:
If a man insisted that Mars was to appear in his face, Mars appeared; those who wanted to look like Lord Byron, he painted in Byronic pose and attitude. If the ladies wanted to be shown as Corinne, Undine, Aspasia, he avidly agreed and imaginatively supplied an adequate measure of good looks, which as everyone knows can do no harm, and for the sake of which an artist may even be forgiven for any lack of resemblance. (Gogol 1842)
13. For multiparagraph quotations, always format as a block quotation and use an additional first-line indent for all paragraphs other than the first.
14. For in-line quotations, parenthetical citations fall outside the closing quotation mark but inside closing punctuation; periods and commas follow the parenthetical citation.
EX: The “struggle between the Red Men and White on the American frontier” became “the archetype and precedent for the worldwide struggle between ‘progressive’ and ‘savage’ or ‘regressive’ races that shaped the modern world” (Slotkin 1993).
15. For block quotations, parenthetical citations follow closing punctuation.

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 all require 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

corresponding reference list and may be used in conjunction with substantive endnotes or footnotes.

- B. The **notes and bibliography** system tends to be used in literature, history, and the arts and particularly for longer works.

Special Considerations for Citing Online Sources

1. Sources published electronically have the same copyright protections as printed works.
2. Electronic sources may raise special concerns with regard to authority and permanence; you should consider the authority and likely permanence of a source when deciding to use it.
3. Citations for electronic sources should include enough information for a reader to positively identify and, if possible, access the source. This will include much of the same information required by print sources, as well as additional electronic identifiers such as the uniform resource locator (URL, or web address) or the digital object identifier (DOI).
4. Although many publishers no longer require access dates for electronic resources, student writers may be required to include that information.
5. For works available both in print and online, cite the version consulted.

The Author-Date System

1. The author-date system uses parenthetical references in the text, citing the author's last name, the date of publication, and page number(s) if necessary. The source's full details appear in the reference list.
2. There must be a reference list entry for every in-text citation and vice versa.

IN-TEXT CITATIONS

In depression, the Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II) has been widely used as a self-report instrument (Hersen 2004), although it was not intended to be used in this way (Piotrowski 1996).

REFERENCE LIST ENTRIES

Hersen, Michel. 2004. *Comprehensive Handbook of Psychological Assessment: Personality Assessment*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
Piotrowski, Chris. 1996. "Use of the Beck Depression Inventory in Clinical Practice." *Psychological Reports* 79:873-74.

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 of the work or at the head of the article or chapter. Only the first author's name is inverted.
7. Reference list entries are alphabetized by the author's last name. Single-author entries precede multi-author entries starting with the same name.
8. Multiple entries by the same author or team of authors 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. Forthcoming works and works with no publication date (*n.d.*) follow all dated works.

EXAMPLES

Martí, José. 1946. *Obras completas: Edición conmemorativa del cincuentenario de su muerte*. Vol. 1. Prologue by M. Isidro Méndez. Havana, Cuba: Editorial Lex.
———. 1954a. "Our America." In *The America of José Martí: Selected Writings*, translated by Juan de Onís, 138-51. New York: Funk & Wagnalls.
———. 1954b. "William F. Cody: 'Buffalo Bill.'" In *The America of José Martí: Selected Writings*, translated by Juan de Onís, 96-101. New York: Funk & Wagnalls.

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

EXAMPLES

Krueger, Robert F. 1999. "The Structure of Common Mental Disorders." *Archives of General Psychiatry* 56:921-26.
Krueger, Robert F., and Michael S. Finger. 2001. "Using Item Response Theory to Understand Comorbidity among Anxiety and Unipolar Mood Disorders." *Psychological Assessment* 13 (1): 140-51.
Krueger, Robert F., P. E. Nichol, Brian M. Hicks, Kristian E. Markon, Christopher J. Patrick, and William G. Iacono. 2004. "Using Latent Trait Modeling to Conceptualize an Alcohol Problems Continuum." *Psychological Assessment* 16 (2): 107-19.
Krueger, Robert F., and Thomas M. Piasecki. 2002. "Toward a Dimensional and Psychometrically-Informed Approach to Conceptualizing Psychopathology." *Behaviour Research and Therapy* 40 (5): 485-99.

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, do not repeat the author's name; 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.

EX: A growing body of research has shown that a reliable patient-reported assessment and tracking system can also have direct clinical benefits (Lambert and Brown 1996; Wasson et al. 1999; Brodey 2005; Sapyta, Riemer, and Bickman 2005), particularly as part of a system of patient-centered care initiatives.

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, shortened 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. Leland Person, *Aesthetic Headaches: Women and a Masculine Poetics in Poe, Melville, and Hawthorne* (Athens: University of Georgia Press, 1988), 24.
2. Person, *Aesthetic Headaches*, 132.

BIBLIOGRAPHY ENTRY

Person, Leland. *Aesthetic Headaches: Women and a Masculine Poetics in Poe, Melville, and Hawthorne*. Athens: University of Georgia Press, 1988.

The 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,"¹ these stories betray a fundamental tension between the communicative function of art and the Romantic exaltation 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 the order listed on 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, eBooks, etc.) at the end of the entry for reference list entries or just after the page number or locator information in a note.
 - A. Because e-books do not have fixed pages, it's best to cite a chapter number, section heading, or similar marker rather than a page number or location number.
 - B. If a location number is needed, include the specific location and the total number of locations (loc. 324 of 4253, Kindle).
3. When citing the online version of a book also available in print, add the URL or name of the database at the end of the full citation.

SINGLE-AUTHOR BOOK

(Brown 2010)

Brown, Steven T. 2010. *Tokyo Cyberpunk: Posthumanism in Japanese Visual Culture*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

1. Steven T. Brown, *Tokyo Cyberpunk: Posthumanism in Japanese Visual Culture* (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2010), 124.
2. Brown, *Tokyo Cyberpunk*, 11.

Brown, Steven T. *Tokyo Cyberpunk: Posthumanism in Japanese Visual Culture*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2010.

MULTIAUTHOR BOOK

(Christensen, Roth, and Anthony 2004)

Christensen, Clayton M., Erik A. Roth, and Scott D. Anthony. 2004. *Seeing What's Next: Using the Theories of Innovation to Predict Industry Change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

1. Clayton M. Christensen, Erik A. Roth, and Scott D. Anthony, *Seeing What's Next: Using the Theories of Innovation to Predict Industry Change* (Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 2004), 112–21.
2. Christensen, Roth, and Anthony, *Seeing What's Next*, 120.

Christensen, Clayton M., Erik A. Roth, and Scott D. Anthony. *Seeing What's Next: Using the Theories of Innovation to Predict Industry Change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 2004.**EDITED BOOK**

(Kaplan and Pease 1993)

Kaplan, Amy, and Donald E. Pease, eds. 1993. *Cultures of United States Imperialism*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

1. Amy Kaplan and Donald E. Pease, eds., *Cultures of United States Imperialism* (Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1993).
2. Kaplan and Pease, *Cultures of United States Imperialism*.

Kaplan, Amy, and Donald E. Pease, eds. *Cultures of United States Imperialism*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1993.**TRANSLATED BOOK**

(Gippius 1989)

Gippius, V. V. 1989. *Gogol*. Translated by Robert A. Maguire. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

1. V. V. Gippius, *Gogol*, trans. Robert A. Maguire (Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1989), 51.
2. Gippius, *Gogol*, 137.

Gippius, V. V. *Gogol*. Translated by Robert A. Maguire. Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1989.**CHAPTER IN AN EDITED BOOK**

(Pease 1998, 54)

Pease, Donald E. 1998. "José Martí, Alexis de Tocqueville, and the Politics of Displacement." In *José Martí's "Our America": From National to Hemispheric Cultural Studies*, edited by Jeffrey Belnap and Raúl Fernández, 27–57. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

1. Donald E. Pease, "José Martí, Alexis de Tocqueville, and the Politics of Displacement," in *José Martí's "Our America": From National to Hemispheric Cultural Studies*, ed. Jeffrey Belnap and Raúl Fernández (Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1998), 29.
2. Pease, "José Martí," 43.

Pease, Donald E. "José Martí, Alexis de Tocqueville, and the Politics of Displacement." In *José Martí's "Our America": From National to Hemispheric Cultural Studies*, edited by Jeffrey Belnap and Raúl Fernández, 27–57. Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1998.**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**

(Cron 2012, chap. 3)

Cron, Lisa. 2012. *Wired for Story*. New York: Ten Speed Press. Kindle.

1. Lisa Cron, *Wired for Story* (New York: Ten Speed Press, 2012), chap. 3, Kindle.
2. Cron, *Wired for Story*, chap. 4.

Cron, Lisa. *Wired for Story*. New York: Ten Speed Press, 2012. Kindle.**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)

Keinonen, Turkkka. 2008. "Design in Business: Views from the Nucleus and the Periphery." *Design Management Review* 19 (3): 30–36.

1. Turkkka Keinonen, "Design in Business: Views from the Nucleus and the Periphery," *Design Management Review* 19, no. 3 (2008): 33.
2. Keinonen, "Design in Business," 31.

Keinonen, Turkkka. "Design in Business: Views from the Nucleus and the Periphery." *Design Management Review* 19, no. 3 (2008): 30–36.**NEWS OR MAGAZINE ARTICLE**

(Schulz 2015)

Schulz, Kathryn. 2015. "The Really Big One." *New Yorker*, July 20, 2015. <https://www.newyorker.com/magazine/2015/07/20/the-really-big-one>.

1. Kathryn Schulz, "The Really Big One." *New Yorker*, July 20, 2015, <https://www.newyorker.com/magazine/2015/07/20/the-really-big-one>.
2. Schulz, "The Really Big One."

Schulz, Kathryn. "The Really Big One." *New Yorker*, July 20, 2015. <https://www.newyorker.com/magazine/2015/07/20/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.)

Portland State University. n.d. "About Portland State University." Accessed October 10, 2017. <https://www.pdx.edu/about-portland-state-university>.

1. "About Portland State University," Portland State University, accessed October 10, 2017, <https://www.pdx.edu/about-portland-state-university>.

Portland State University. "About Portland State University." Accessed October 10, 2017. <https://www.pdx.edu/about-portland-state-university>.**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)

Brown, Kristen. 2017. "An FDA Panel Just Greenlit a Breakthrough Gene Therapy to Cure Blindness." *Gizmodo*. October 12, 2017. <https://gizmodo.com/an-fda-panel-just-greenlit-a-breakthrough-gene-therapy-1819412787>.

1. Kristen Brown, "An FDA Panel Just Greenlit a Breakthrough Gene Therapy to Cure Blindness," *Gizmodo*, October 12, 2017, <https://gizmodo.com/an-fda-panel-just-greenlit-a-breakthrough-gene-therapy-1819412787>.

Brown, Kristen. "An FDA Panel Just Greenlit a Breakthrough Gene Therapy to Cure Blindness." *Gizmodo*, October 12, 2017. <https://gizmodo.com/an-fda-panel-just-greenlit-a-breakthrough-gene-therapy-1819412787>.**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; time stamps can be included to differentiate a post or comment from others on the same day
 - E. The URL to the specific post
2. Social media content can often be cited in the 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>.

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Note to Student: This guide is intended to be an annotated outline/review of key rules within the *Chicago Manual of Style* (17th edition) and is intended for informational purposes only. Due to its condensed format, this guide cannot cover every aspect of the CMS guidelines to which it refers. BarCharts, Inc., its writers, editors, and design staff are not responsible or liable for the use or misuse of the information contained in this guide.

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