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I

Basic Grammar Conventions for All Subjects

The North Carolina Testing Program bases its grammar conventions on those contained in the latest edition of *Writing: A College Handbook*, a guide to grammar and composition. Page references given in this document refer to the hardcover edition of *Writing: A College Handbook*, abbreviated in these pages as WCH.¹ Terms in **boldface** print within the running text may be found in the glossary of grammar terms at the end of this section. For correct spelling, please refer to Merriam-Webster's collegiate or unabridged dictionaries, but defer to textbooks if a particular spelling is more common in instruction. When Merriam-Webster provides two accepted plurals or spellings for the same word, the first is generally preferred by the Chicago Manual of Style.

Punctuation

- Space once after all internal punctuation (commas, semicolons, colons, periods after the initials in a proper name, periods after abbreviations) *except* after periods within an abbreviation (e.g., i.e., a.m.).
- Space twice after the terminal punctuation of a sentence (period, question mark, exclamation point), except when the sentence is contained within a longer sentence (i.e., as quoted material or an interjection).
- Space twice after colons in ratios, proportions, and analogies (e.g., wet : water :: dry : sand).

Commas

Commas are the simplest way to denote a pause in a sentence. They are used to separate adjectives or adverbs modifying the same noun, to separate items in a series, to separate **dependent clauses** from the main clause, or to separate two **independent clauses** joined by a **coordinating conjunction**. Short, introductory dependent clauses do not require the use of a comma unless misreading is likely. Similarly, short, closely related independent clauses do not require the use of a comma before the conjunction. (CMS 5.29-5.86)

Commas and Modifiers

- The teacher sipped her sweet, milky coffee. (The coffee is both sweet *and* milky.)
- The pale peach curtains billowed in the breeze. (*Peach* modifies *curtains*; *pale* modifies *peach*.)

Commas in Series

- Walter peeled apples, oranges, and pears for the fruit salad.
- Bears, salmon, white water, and evergreen trees are common sights in the Pacific Northwest.

Commas and Dependent Clauses

- I rode three rides at the fair, three of which made me feel sick.
- Although the woods were dark and damp, the cottage at the end of the trail gleamed with light.
- Before eating, the members of the committee met in the assembly room.
- On Tuesday he tried to see the mayor.

Commas and Coordinating Conjunctions

- The woods were dark and damp, but the cottage at the end of the trail gleamed with light.
- Charles played the guitar and Betty sang.

¹ Heffernan, James A. W., and John E. Lincoln. *Writing: A College Handbook, Fourth Edition*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1994.

Semicolons

Semicolons are used to separate items that contain commas in a series and to separate two **independent clauses**, including those linked by a **conjunctive adverb**. (CMS 5.89)

Semicolons in a Series that Contains Commas

- Jenny loved the beach's long, smooth, blue rollers; its white, hot, fine-grained sand; and its clusters of purple-and-white-striped umbrellas.

Semicolons Linking Independent Clauses

- I read the *New York Times* every Sunday; my brother prefers the *Wall Street Journal*.
- The woods were dark and damp; however, the cottage at the end of the trail gleamed with light.

Colons

Colons are used to separate a main **independent clause** from information that expands upon it or illustrates it. If an independent final clause illustrates the independent main clause preceding the colon, the final clause begins with a capital letter. Colons are also used to separate the items in ratios, proportions, and analogies. In these cases, the colons have two spaces on either side. In two-part analogies, double colons are used to separate the two analogies. (CMS 5.97-5.104)

Colons Linking Independent Clauses and Additional Information

- Bev went to the store and purchased five items: a stapler, a hole-punch, a highlighter, a pen, and a pencil.
- The teachers have agreed on a penalty: The student will receive a failing grade in the course.
- The terrible movie sparked only one response: nausea.
- Red, white, and blue: These are patriotic colors for the United States, England, and France.

Colons in Proportions, Ratios, and Analogies

- The proportion (salt : water) was 1 : 8.
- wet : water :: dry : sand

Hyphens, En Dashes, and Em Dashes

Hyphens (-) are used to link compound words; en dashes (–) are used to separate inclusive numbers and to denote negative signs; and em dashes (—) are used to indicate a sudden interruption in the continuity of a sentence. No spaces are used on either side of these dashes when they serve to separate the elements of a sentence.

Tests do not use hyphenation to break words at the end of lines, and hyphenated terms are kept together on the same line whenever doing so does not create a distracting amount of white space. Ranges of numbers separated by en dashes should also be kept on one line whenever possible. (CMS 5.105-5.120)

Hyphens

- The blue-green sea lapped at the shore.
- Greg was so hungry that he ate one-half of the pizza.
- The third-grader hesitated at the school-bus door.
- The chemistry teacher measured out a 3-inch piece of magnesium tape.

En Dashes

- World War I (1914–1918) killed thousands of U.S. and European soldiers.
- This is the 2004–2005 edition of the style guide.
- In science, negative signs are centered vertically in front of the number (–27 degrees Kelvin).
- In math, negative signs are raised by three points in front of the number ($-3 + 27 = 24$).

Em Dashes

- The major—he had been waiting for hours for the signal to engage the enemy—paced up and down the front lines in frustration.
- “You mean—” Emily stammered.

Periods, Question Marks, and Exclamation Points

Be sure to use the appropriate terminal punctuation for sentences: periods for declarative or imperative statements, question marks for interrogative statements, and exclamation points for exclamatory statements. Each of these types of punctuation is followed by two spaces unless they appear in the middle of a sentence, either within quotation marks or as part of an interjection. Note that periods in quotations are replaced by commas when the quotation appears within a sentence. For more information about terminal punctuation and quotations, see the next section. (CMS 5.7-5.21)

- The dog was black with white spots. The dog was purple! What color was the dog?
- It was purple—really!—with big, floppy ears.
- “What a crazy story,” said the little boy.

Quotation Marks

Double quotation marks are used to set off speech, quoted literary material, and the titles of articles, poems, and songs. Avoid the use of single quotation marks, often called “scare quotes,” except to denote quoted material within a larger quotation. When single quotation marks are opened or closed just within double quotations, place a space between the single quotation mark and the double quotation mark.

Note that final commas and periods *always* go within quotation marks, while other punctuation marks go within quotation marks *only* when they are part of the quoted material.

In quoted material that ends a larger sentence, use only one form of punctuation to end both sentences. In this case, the punctuation in the quoted material may trump the final punctuation of the whole sentence. Exclamation points trump question marks, while question marks trump periods. Declaratory statements may thus end with exclamation points or question marks if the quoted material at the end of the sentence is exclamatory or interrogative. A question may also end with an exclamation point, if the quoted material at the end of the sentence is exclamatory. (CMS 10.26-10.35)

Quoting a Statement

- “There is no reason to inform the president.”
- “There is no reason to inform the president,” Emerson said.
- Emerson said, “There is no reason to inform the president.”
- Emerson said, “There is no reason to inform the president”; he thought the vice president could handle the situation.
- Why did Emerson say “There is no reason to inform the president”?
- I demand that you write “There is no reason to inform the president” one hundred times!
- According to Abraham Johnson’s book, “Emerson said, ‘There is no reason to inform the president,’ ” before taking the information directly to the vice president.

Quoting a Question

- “Why is the teacher crying?”
- “Why is the teacher crying?” asked the student.
- The student said, “Why is the teacher crying?”
- The student asked, “Why is the teacher crying?”; she hoped the weeping would stop soon.
- Why did the student ask “Why is the teacher crying?”
- I demand that you write “Why is the teacher crying?” one hundred times!
- According to the principal, “The student asked, ‘Why is the teacher crying?’ ” after failing her chemistry test for the fifth time.

Quoting an Exclamation

- “Help!”
- “Help!” screamed the drowning boy.
- The drowning boy screamed, “Help!”
- The boy screamed “Help!”; he was drowning.
- Why did the boy scream “Help!”
- I demand that you write “Help!” one hundred times!
- According to the bystander who rescued him, “ ‘Help!’ screamed the drowning boy.”

Ellipses

Ellipses are used either to indicate that material has been omitted from a quotation or to indicate halting, fragmented thoughts or speech. In either case, ellipses are generally composed of three dots separated from each other and from the surrounding text by single spaces.

When material is omitted between sentences but the first sentence is still grammatically complete, use four ellipses dots instead of three. The first dot is placed directly after the last word in the sentence before the ellipses, followed by the traditionally spaced three ellipses dots. This first dot denotes the period at the end of the preceding sentence, even if material before the period has been omitted.

Similarly, use four ellipses points at the end of a quoted paragraph if material has been omitted between it and the following paragraph. If material is omitted from the beginning of a paragraph (unless it is the opening paragraph of a quotation), three ellipses points should follow the usual paragraph indentation.

Ellipses are not necessary at the beginning or end of quoted material unless, in order to prevent misinterpretation, it is necessary to emphasize that the quotation begins or ends in mid-sentence. (CMS 11.51–11.66)

Ellipses to Denote Halting Speech

- “I’m not sure what to think . . . Maybe Aunt Bertha is on vacation?”
- “Unless . . . of course . . . you don’t want to come . . .” Serge’s voice trailed off into a mumble.

Ellipses to Denote Omitted Material Within a Sentence

We all had a grand time at the party, what with the horses and all, and Emily won a prize.

- “We all had a grand time at the party . . . and Emily won a prize.”

Ellipses to Denote Omitted Material Between Sentences

The train was late. It was 12:37, and the tracks were bare. Margaret checked her watch.

- “The train was late. . . . and the tracks were bare.”
- “It was 12:37, and . . . Margaret checked her watch.”

Ellipses to Denote Omitted Material Between Paragraphs

After a day of skating on the lake, all Molly wanted to do was sleep, and at her grandmother’s house, she could.

The soft feathers of Nana’s down comforter made Molly think of clouds, and she lay beneath it till morning, dreaming of soft things: pillows and sheep and puppies, and treetops dancing in the night wind.

- “After a day of skating on the lake, all Molly wanted to do was sleep. . . .
The soft feathers of Nana’s down comforter made Molly think of clouds.”
- “After a day of skating on the lake, all Molly wanted to do was sleep, and at her grandmother’s house, she could.
. . . dreaming of soft things: pillows and sheep and puppies, and treetops dancing in the night wind.”
- “After a day of skating on the lake, all Molly wanted to do was sleep. . . .
. . . dreaming of soft things: pillows and sheep and puppies, and treetops dancing in the night wind.”

Nouns and Pronouns

Be sure that pronouns and their **antecedents** always agree in number. **Collective nouns** (e.g., *team*, *audience*, *company*, *group*) may be treated as plural, if each member of the collective is acting independently, or as singular, if the collective is acting as a single, unified entity. (WCH 18.6-18.7)

<i>Always Singular</i>			<i>Always Plural</i>	<i>May Be Singular or Plural in Context</i>
another	everybody	one	both	all
anybody	everyone	somebody	few	any
anyone	everything	someone	others	each (as a modifier)
anything	neither	something	several	many
each (as a subject)	nobody	whatever		most
each one	none	whichever		some
either	no one	whoever		
	nothing			

Plurals

When Merriam-Webster provides two accepted plural forms of a word, the first is generally preferred.

Except for some irregular constructions (such as *child/children* or *deer/deer*), nouns become plural through the addition of *s* or *es*, regardless of the noun type. Plural nouns do *not* contain apostrophes, except in a very few nonstandard plural forms (such as *s’s*, *M.A.’s*, and *Ph.D.’s*). (CMS 6.7-6.18)

- one Edward/three Edwards
- one Charles/four Charleses
- the Jones family/the Joneses
- one Sunday/five Sundays
- one passerby/two passersby
- one daughter-in-law; three daughters-in-law
- one x/seven xs
- 1920/the 1920s
- in twos and threes

Possessives

The possessives of most singular nouns, including those that end in *s*, are formed by adding an apostrophe and an *s*. The possessives of most plural nouns, except irregular forms that do not end in *s*, are formed by adding only an apostrophe. These rules apply to proper nouns as well, with the exception of polysyllabic names ending in the *eez* sound (Euripides' plays, Ramses' tomb) and the traditional exceptions of Jesus/Jesus' and Moses/Moses'. (CMS 6.19-6.30)

- the horse's mouth
- the puppies' tails
- the children's books
- *exception*: for appearance' (conscience', righteousness', goodness', etc.) sake
- *exception*: the species' appearance, the series' winner
- the Joneses' house
- Kansas's corn fields
- Josquin des Prez's motets
- Dickens's novels

Verbs and Sentence Construction

Be sure that subjects and verbs agree in number. Maintain the same verb tense throughout each item, and, in items that refer to a single selection, keep the verb tense consistent across those items. When applicable, use the same verb tense used in the selection. (WCH 19.1-21.6)

Contractions

Do not use contractions (such as *can't*, *don't*, *should've*, *he's*, *we've*, *they'd*, *o'clock*) in tests unless they are present in quoted material.

Interjections

When foils begin with an interjection such as *yes* or *no*, the interjection should be followed by a comma. If the interjection is followed by a complete clause, the foil should be punctuated as a sentence, with initial uppercase and closing period. If the interjection is followed by an incomplete phrase, it should be lowercase with no closing period.

- Yes, I went to the bank.
- yes, the bank
- No, $3 + 4 = 7$.
- no, because three plus four equals seven

Passive Voice

Avoid passive constructions, in which the subject of a sentence is acted upon by an agent rather than performing the action itself. Whenever possible and appropriate, exchange passive voice for active voice, in which the subject performs the action directly. (WCH 22.1-22.5)

- not "The directions were written on the board" but "The teacher wrote the directions on the board."
- not "The barn was struck by a bolt of lightning" but "A bolt of lightning struck the barn."
- not "Students were given paper by the teacher" but "The teacher gave the students paper."

Split Infinitives

Whenever possible, keep the parts of a verb or verb phrase together. Avoid splitting infinitives and verb phrases; move adverbs to the beginning or end of such constructions unless doing so creates an awkward sentence. (WCH 12.13)

- not “to boldly go” but “boldly to go”
- not “when she had quickly kissed the cat” but “when she had kissed the cat quickly”

Confusing Words and Their Usage

This section defines the usage of three sets of terms that are often confused and used improperly. For more information on confusing words and their usage, consult the usage glossary in *Writing: A College Handbook*. (WCH pp. 643-671)

Lay vs. Lie

The verb “to lay” (*lay, laying, laid*) is a **transitive verb** meaning “to put in a certain position.” As a transitive verb, it requires an object to receive the action.

- **Present:** She lays the postcard on the table; They lay bricks for a living; I lay down my weapons; The chickens are laying eggs today; He has been laying the table.
- **Past:** She laid the postcard on the table; They laid bricks for a living; I laid down my weapons; The chickens were laying eggs that day; The chickens laid eggs; He had been laying the table.

The verb “to lie” (*lie, lying, lay, lain*) is an **intransitive verb** meaning “to rest, recline, or stay.” As an intransitive verb, it requires no object to receive the action.

- **Present:** I lie on the beach all day; She lies down for a nap; The books are lying on the table; We have lain here all day.
- **Past:** I lay on the beach all day; She lay down for a nap; The books were lying on the table; We had lain there all day.

That vs. Which

The pronoun “that” always introduces **restrictive modifiers**, or phrases that contain information that is vital to the meaning of the sentence. The use of “that” in this context does not require a comma.

- The cat that disappeared last week was prowling my porch this morning. (Distinguishes the particular cat that returned.)

The pronoun “which” is most often used to introduce **nonrestrictive modifiers**, or phrases that contain information that is not essential to the meaning of the sentence. The use of “which” in this context requires a comma.

- The cat, which has been shedding dreadfully, is hiding from the vacuum cleaner under the bed. (Provides extra information about the cat. Removing the phrase does not prevent a reader from understanding the main clause.)

Who vs. Whom and Whose vs. Who’s

The pronouns “who” and “whoever” are the subjects of verbs; use them whenever the pronoun performs an action. (Other pronouns in subject case are *I, he, she, you, we, they*, etc.)

- Who wrecked my car?
- The people who survived the flood were lucky.
- The teacher gave gumdrops to whoever wanted them.

The pronouns “whom” and “whomever” are the objects of verbs or prepositional phrases; use them whenever the pronoun is an object. (Other pronouns in object case are *me, him, her, you, us, them*, etc.)

- Whom did my car hit?
- They rescued the children whom kidnappers had abducted.
- For whom did you vote in the last election?
- I will vote for whomever my party nominates.

The pronoun “whose” is a possessor and indicates ownership or close connection with an object; use it whenever the pronoun is possessive. (Other pronouns in possessive case are *my, his, her, your, our*, and *their* for subjects; and *mine, his, hers, yours, ours*, and *theirs* for objects.)

- Whose gloves are these?
- The man whose wife survived breast cancer wears a pink ribbon in his lapel.
- The dog, whose feet are as big as dinner plates, loves to climb into bed with me.

The contraction “who’s” stands for “who is” or “who has.” Please note that contractions are not used in test items unless they are being quoted from a selection.

- Who’s shaking the ladder?
- Who’s been stealing my candy?
- Who’s your daddy?

Glossary of Grammar Terms

Antecedents are the word or word group to which a pronoun refers.

Collective nouns refer to individual animals, people, or things gathered into a single unit (e.g., group, organization, company, team, flock, army) and may be treated as singular or plural depending on whether the sentence emphasizes the actions of the individuals making up the group or the action of the group as a whole.

Coordinating conjunctions are *and, but, for, nor, or, so*, and *yet*. They join two independent clauses and generally take a comma before the conjunction.

Conjunctive adverbs include *accordingly, also, anyway, besides, certainly, consequently, finally, further, furthermore, hence, however, incidentally, indeed, instead, likewise, meanwhile, moreover, namely, nevertheless, next, nonetheless, now, otherwise, similarly, still, then, thereafter, therefore, thus*, and *undoubtedly*. They link two independent clauses and require a semicolon before the adverb.

Dependent clauses rely upon the main clause for their meaning and cannot be read as complete sentences.

Independent clauses may be read “independently” as complete sentences.

Intransitive verbs name actions that have no direct impact on anyone or anything; they do not take an object (e.g., *he lies on the battlefield; she shouts*).

Nonrestrictive modifiers, usually set off by commas, do not restrict or limit the meaning of the word to which they refer. They convey meaning that is not necessary to the meaning of the sentence.

Restrictive modifiers, which are not set off by commas, restrict or limit the meaning of the word to which they refer. They convey meaning that is essential to the meaning of the sentence.

Transitive verbs name actions that have a direct impact on someone or something; they require an object (e.g., *He lay a bunch of petunias upon the table; she placed napkins beside the plates*).

II General Style Rules for All Subjects

The North Carolina Testing Program bases its style conventions on those contained in the latest edition of the *Chicago Manual of Style*, which may be consulted for further discussion of a given style. Section references given in this document refer to the hardcover *Chicago Manual of Style: Fourteenth Edition*, abbreviated in these pages as CMS.²

Abbreviations

Whenever possible, spell out common terms rather than abbreviating them, particularly for Social Studies and English/Language Arts. In Science and Mathematics, the abbreviations for measurements or chemical compounds are always acceptable and interchangeable with the spelled-out versions. In any subject, the months of the year or days of the week may be abbreviated on charts or graphs to save space.

Acronyms

Acronyms and the abbreviations of names of organizations are written in all caps without periods. The first time such an acronym is used, the spelled-out name of the organization should be provided in parentheses if it is not common knowledge.

If the acronym may be pronounced aloud as a word (e.g., NASA, HUD) no article is required before the acronym. If the acronym is pronounced aloud as a string of letters (e.g., IRA, IRS, NCDPI), use an article before the acronym.

- AFL-CIO, CD-ROM, NRA, NOAA

Place Names

In general, use abbreviations for place names only in tabular material or in mailing addresses.

States

Spell out the names of states in running text. It is always acceptable to use “D.C.” rather than “District of Columbia.” Use the postal code abbreviations for states when necessary in tables and other artwork:

AL	CO	HI	KS	MA	MT	NM	OK	SD	VA
AK	CT	ID	KY	MI	NE	NY	OR	TN	WA
AZ	DE	IL	LA	MN	NV	NC	PA	TX	WV
AR	FL	IN	ME	MS	NH	ND	RI	UT	WI
CA	GA	IA	MD	MO	NJ	OH	SC	VT	WY

Countries

Spell out the names of countries in running text. One exception is the United States, which is spelled out when used as a noun but abbreviated as U.S. when used as an adjective.

- U.S. History, U.S. House of Representatives; He represents U.S. trade interests in Asia.
- He represented the United States at the Olympic Games.

Designations of Time

In general, use abbreviations for designations of time only in tabular material. The use of a.m. and p.m. with the time of day is an exception to this rule.

² *Chicago Manual of Style, Fourteenth Edition*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993.

Time of Day

When using abbreviations with time, use a.m. and p.m., lowercase. Do not pair the use of a.m. or p.m. with any other time designations such as *o'clock*, *morning*, *noon*, *afternoon*, *evening*, *night*, or *midnight*.

- 10:45 a.m.
- 10:45 in the morning
- noon
- three o'clock in the afternoon
- 4:57 p.m.
- 5:00 in the evening
- 10:30 at night
- midnight

Days of the Week

Abbreviations for the days of the week (to be used only in charts and tables):

Sun. Mon. Tues. Wed. Thurs. Fri. Sat.

Months of the Year

Abbreviations for the months of the year (to be used only in charts and tables):

Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June July Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec.

Versus/v./vs.

The word “versus” is never used in its spelled-out form. In legal cases, “versus” is abbreviated as “v.” and the name of the legal case is italicized except for the “v.” and the date: *Miranda v. Arizona* (1966). The word versus in other uses is written as “vs.”: time vs. money, man vs. nature.

Common Abbreviations and Their Meanings

- e.g., *exempli gratia*, “for example”
- *ibid.*, *ibidem*, “in the same place [as the previous reference]”
- i.e., *id est*, “that is”
- N.B., *nota bene*, “take careful note”

Treatment of Proper Names, Terms, and Titles

In general, the proper names of people and things and the titles of works should be kept together on one line, unless doing so creates an unusual amount of white space.

Personal Names

In general, spell out a person’s full name upon first reference: George Washington, Emily Dickinson.

If a name contains initials, each initial should be followed by a period and a single space: U. S. Grant, J. E. B. Stuart, C. S. Lewis. *Exceptions*: W.E.B. Du Bois; Harry S Truman (no period after S), Malcolm X (no period after X). (CMS 7.6)

If a name is commonly abbreviated to three initials alone, do not use periods or spaces: JFK, LBJ (CSM 14.4)

If a name contains an abbreviation for Jr., Sr., III, etc., do not use commas to set off the abbreviation: Martin Luther King Jr., Adlai E. Stevenson III. (CMS 8.55)

Personal Titles and Offices

In general, personal titles for those in public, private, or religious office, government service, or the military are capitalized only when used immediately before the name of the person holding the office (i.e., President George Washington; President Washington; the president of the United States; George Washington, president of the country; the presidency; the Washington administration). (CMS 7.16-7.27)

Exceptions: The following terms are always capitalized, regardless of usage:

Speaker of the House, Speaker	General of the Army	Prince of Wales	Princess Royal
Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff	Fleet Admiral	Queen Mother	Dame of Sark

Names of Geographical Regions

Capitalize geographical terms that are commonly accepted as proper names. Do not capitalize geographical terms that are taken to apply to more than one geographical entity or that have not become commonly regarded as proper names.

- the North, the South, the Southwest, the Northwest, the Midwest (United States)
- Northerner (during Civil War only); northerner
- Southerner (during Civil War only); southerner
- the West; the Western world; westerner; the East; the Far East; easterner; east; eastward
- North America; West Africa; Southeast Asia
- eastern Europe (geographical); Eastern Europe (political)

Titles of Works

The North Carolina Testing Program duplicates titles of printed works in two ways: in running text and as the titles of reading selections. In either case, regardless of how a title originally appeared in the quoted work, titles in tests should adhere to the following conventions:

- Articles (a, an, the), coordinating conjunctions (and, but, for, nor, or, so, yet), and prepositions, regardless of length, are lowercased unless they are the first or last word of the title or subtitle. The “to” in infinitives is also lowercased unless it begins the title (e.g., To Be or Not to Be).
- Only in acronyms should each letter of the word be capitalized (e.g., WAC, UNICEF, or FORTRAN).
- In hyphenated words, the first elements are always capitalized; subsequent elements are capitalized unless they are articles, prepositions, coordinating conjunctions, or modifiers such as *flat*, *sharp*, and *natural* following musical key symbols.
- The original spelling of titles should be retained, but change “&” to “and” and spell out the names of centuries (“12th Century” becomes “Twelfth Century”).

Titles to Be Italicized

Titles for the following types of works should always be italicized in running text:

- epic poems that have been published as standalone works
- dramas, operas, and musicals, regardless of length or previous publication
- books, including poetry collections
- newspapers and magazines
- movies
- sculptures, paintings, and other pieces of fine art
- music albums
- continuing series on radio or television

Titles to Be Put in Quotation Marks

Titles for the following types of works should always be put in quotation marks in running text:

- poems
- songs
- newspaper and magazine articles
- individual episodes of a radio or television program

Titles of Ships, Trains, Aircraft, and Spacecraft

Names of specific vessels or satellites are italicized, but not abbreviations such as HMS or USS that may precede them. (CSM 7.99-7.100)

- HMS *Frolic*
- USS *Maine*
- *Spirit of St. Louis*
- USS *SC-530*
- *Sputnik II*
- CSS *Shenandoah*

Treatment of Numbers

Treatment of numbers varies widely between English/Language Arts and Social Studies on the one hand and Mathematics and Science on the other. General rules for number usage in humanistic subjects and technical or scientific subjects are provided below. For more specific treatment of numbers, measurements, and significant figures, see the section of this guide for the subject in question.

Spelled-Out Usage vs. Numeral Usage

With the exception of the special cases listed at the end of this section, the following numbers should be spelled out in running text, whether cardinal (e.g., eight) or ordinal (e.g., eighth):

English and Social Studies

- whole numbers from zero through one hundred (e.g., seven, twenty-three, eighty-four, etc.)
- any whole numbers followed by *hundred*, *thousand*, *hundred thousand*, *million*, etc.
- common fractions (e.g., one-half, two-thirds, three and seven-eighths, etc.)
- numbers at the beginning of sentences

Mathematics and Science

- whole numbers from zero to nine that do not represent precise measurements and are grouped for comparison with numbers below 10
- numbers at the beginning of sentences

All other number references should be expressed as numerals. If numbers that would usually be spelled out are clustered in the same sentence or paragraph, it is often preferable to write them as numerals to avoid confusion (e.g., Her children are aged 8, 10, 13, and 15, and her husband is 47). (CMS 8.3)

Numbers belonging to the same category should all be expressed in the same manner. If according to rule you must use numerals for one of the numbers in a given category, then for consistency's sake use numerals for them all:

- There are 25 graduate students in the philosophy department, 56 in the classics department, and 117 in the romance languages department, making a total of 198 students in three departments. (CMS 8.8)

Special Cases

Although most numbers will fall into the categories listed above, refer to these special cases when deciding whether numbers should be spelled out or expressed as numerals.

Centuries and Decades

The names of centuries are spelled out, lowercase: the fifth century, the twenty-first century.

The names of decades may be spelled out or expressed in numerals without apostrophes, depending on usage (e.g., during the eighties and nineties, the 80s and 90s, the 1880s and 1890s).

Numbers Always Expressed as Numerals, Regardless of Subject

In the following cases, numbers are always expressed as numerals, regardless of quantity. (CMS 8.11-8.50)

- for quantities that express both whole numbers and fractions (e.g., 8¹/₂-by-11-inch paper)
- when an abbreviation is used for the unit of measure accompanying the number (e.g., 12 V, 50 lb, 137 km)
- when a symbol is used for the unit of measure accompanying the number (e.g., 3", 65°)
- for percentages and decimal fractions, including scores (e.g., 45 percent, 3.14, a score of 95, \$7.15)
- for years and exact days of the month (e.g., Today is April 8, 2004, and I am happy.)
- for exact times of day (e.g., "the show is at 2:30" vs. "the show is at half past two")
- for numbers that denote a specific place in a numbered sequence, parts of books and tables, and each number in a list of four or more numbers (e.g., grade 8, eighth grade, eighth-grader, Trial 3, the third trial, Chapter 5, Scene 2, Act 4, Canto 1, stanza 3, line 4)

Mathematical and Scientific Usage of Numerals

In math and science, physical quantities (numbers paired with units of measurement) are always expressed as numerals, whether they are whole numbers or fractions. Physical quantities include distance, length, area, volume, mass, pressure, voltage, weight, temperature, pH, etc. When these quantities are less than one, they are expressed using a zero before the decimal point. When symbols are used to express the measurement of angles and degrees, there is no space between the numeral and the symbol; otherwise, there is one space after the numeral before the unit of measurement.

- a 5-g sample; 5 g of magnesium
- 0.5-inch-long worm; 0.5 inch; 0.5 in.
- 7 inches; 7 in.; 7-in. sample
- 45 miles; 45 mi; 45 mph
- 3.3 feet; 3.3 ft; 3.3 cubic feet; 3.3 ft³
- 21 hectares
- 10 picas
- 10°C, 10.5°C

Treatment of Foreign Words and Phrases

Familiar foreign words and phrases should be in normal (plain) type (e.g., *effendi*, *fait accompli*, *mea culpa*, *a priori*). Such words should be common in English usage and familiar to the reader. (CMS 6.69)

Isolated words and phrases in a foreign language may be set in italics if they are likely to be unfamiliar to readers (e.g., *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, motto of the Order of the Garter). (CMS 6.65)

Treatment of Registered Trademark Names

Avoid using trademark names. Generic terms such as soda, aspirin, facial tissue, blue jeans, etc., are preferred. It is not necessary to use the symbols ® and ™ in running text.

III Computer Skills

The North Carolina Testing Program is in the process of merging its multiple-choice and performance computer-skills tests to produce one unified test that measures both students' technical knowledge and their skills at computer usage.

Terminology and Language Usage

- Use *card* or *slide* rather than *screen*.
- Use *search* rather than *query*.
- The words *search* and *sort* do not appear in quotation marks.
- Students should *key in* a document, not *key* a document.
- Context determines capitalization. If terms such as *Edit*, *Cut*, and *Paste* refer to menu commands or field names (nouns), use uppercase. If they refer to functions, keys, or are listed in a group of words as part of a process (verbs), use lowercase.
- Specific spreadsheet function names are in all caps. For example, AVERAGE, SUM, MINIMUM.

Commonly Used Terms and Their Spelling

- a LAN, WAN, USB, NIC
- clip art
- CD-ROM
- double-click
- e-mail
- Internet
- laser disc
- login as a noun (one word), log in as a verb (two words)
log-in as adjective (log-in button, log-in information)
- multimedia
- nonlinear
- online
- read-only CD
- single-click
- storyboard
- videoconferencing
- web address
- webpage, webpages
- website
- World Wide Web

IV English/Language Arts

The North Carolina Testing Program currently produces four types of English/Language Arts tests: end-of-grade, competency, and high school comprehensive tests of reading comprehension and an end-of-course test for English I that measures both reading comprehension and composition skills. For details on formatting these tests, see the Formatting Guide section of this document.

Establishing Consistency among Selection, Stem, and Foils

In general, items refer to “the author” or “the poet” rather than using the author’s given name.

Items should refer to characters using the standard established in the selection (i.e., by nickname, by first name only, by first and last name, by last name only). Items that relate to the same selection should be consistent in how they refer to specific characters, authors, etc.

If a stem questions the *effect of* an element in a literary work, the foils consist of complete sentences. If a stem questions the *purpose of* an element in a literary work or begins with the word “Why,” the foils consist of incomplete “to” phrases.

- Q: What is the *effect of* the symbolism in this poem?
A: It creates a sense of foreboding.
- Q: What is the *purpose of* the symbolism in this poem?
A: to create a sense of foreboding
- Q: *Why* does the author use symbolism in this poem?
A: to create a sense of foreboding

Terminology and Language Usage

Capitalize *book*, *canto*, *chapter*, *act* and *scene* when referring to specific pieces of a book, poem, or play. Do not capitalize them when referring in general to parts of a literary work. Never capitalize *line*, *sentence*, or *stanza* except when the word begins a sentence.

- What happened in Act 2?
- In Scene 7, how did the protagonist respond to the antagonist?
- In which chapter did Dorothy find the Cowardly Lion?
- How many cantos are in *The Inferno*?
- What is the best way to correct the problem in sentence 5?

Incorporating Quotations

For general rules on using quotations correctly, see the section on quotation marks in General Grammar Rules for All Subjects. Use the following guidelines when quoting from selections in individual items.

- Quotations may be incorporated in two ways: integrated into the text and enclosed in quotation marks or set off from the text in an indented block quotation without quotation marks.
- Only as much of the source as is necessary should be quoted, and the incorporating sentence should be phrased in such a way that the quoted words fit logically and grammatically into it. As a result, ellipses are rarely used when quoting text unless they are necessary for the context.

Quoting Poetry

- Running-text quotations of poetry incorporating line breaks should denote each line break using a backslash with a single space on either side: “formed from this soil, this air, / Born here of parents . . .”
- Quotations of two or more complete lines of poetry are usually set off from the text in an indented block quotation without the use of quotation marks. The indent of the quotation should match the indent of the original poem as much as is possible.

Editing Quoted Material to Match House Style

The following changes may be made to quoted material without infringing on copyrights permissions.

- The initial letter of a quotation may be changed to a capital or a lowercase letter to fit the context of the surrounding sentence. This modification does not require the use of ellipses or brackets.
- The final period of a quotation may be omitted or changed to a comma as required, and punctuation marks may be omitted where ellipsis points are used.
- In a selection quoted from a modern book, journal, or newspaper, an obvious typographical or grammatical error may be corrected.
- Words set in full caps in the original text may be set in small caps for improved readability.
- An ampersand (&) may be changed to “and.”
- Titles may be set in normal title case instead of full caps.
- The typesetting of a drama may be changed to match the house standard (see Formatting Guide for details).

V Mathematics

The North Carolina Testing Program currently produces the Grade 3 Pretest of Mathematics, end-of-grade tests in mathematics as well as end-of-course tests in Algebra I, Algebra II, and Geometry. For more information on formatting items containing fractions, decimals, equations, charts, graphs, etc., please consult the formatting section of this document.

Terminology and Language Usage

Avoid mixing metric and English measures in an item.

- **Incorrect:** John Sullivan won the 10-kilometer race by 100 yards.
- **Correct:** John Sullivan won the 10-kilometer race by 106 meters.

Commonly Used Terms and Their Spelling

- associative property of addition
- binomial theorem
- box-and-whisker plot
- commutative property of addition
- commutative property of multiplication
- distributive property
- identity property of one
- multiplication property of zero
- Pythagorean Theorem
- scatterplot
- skip counting
- stem-and-leaf plot
- Venn diagram

Abbreviations

The only abbreviation to take a period after it is the abbreviation for inches: “in.” This is so that it is not mistaken for the preposition.

Abbreviations for units of measurement are the same whether the quantity denoted is plural or singular.

- 1 lb, 24 lb (not 24 lbs)

In most cases, abbreviations and spelled-out versions for the same units of measurement are equally acceptable in mathematics and in science, since students need practice with all variations:

- inches, in.; square inches, square in., sq in., in.²
- feet, ft; square feet, square ft, sq ft, ft²
- yards, yd; square yards, square yd, sq yd, yd²
- miles, mi; square miles, square mi, mi²
- ounces, oz
- pounds, lb
- millimeters, mm; square millimeters, square mm, sq mm, mm²
- centimeters, cm; square centimeters, square cm, sq cm, cm²
- meters, m; square meters, square m, sq m, m²
- kilometers, km; square kilometers, square km, sq km, km²

VI Science

The North Carolina Testing Program currently produces four end-of-course tests in Biology, Chemistry, Physical Science, and Physics. It is also developing end-of-grade science tests for grades 5 and 8. For details on formatting science items with fractions, decimals, equations, charts, and graphs, please see the formatting section of this document.

Terminology and Language Usage

Refer to the following standards when writing, revising, or proofing science items.

Astronomical Terms

Names of asteroids, planets and their satellites, stars, and constellations are capitalized (e.g., Halley's Comet, Ursa Major, Betelgeuse). The names *earth*, *sun* and *moon* are often lowercased when preceded by the definite article (e.g., the earth), but are capitalized when referring to the specific planet or heavenly body.

Chemical Names, Symbols, and Equations

Names of chemical elements and compounds are lowercased when written out (e.g., carbon monoxide), and the names must be kept together on the same line. Chemical symbols, however, are capitalized and set without periods (e.g., CO).

When the nuclear symbol is given for an element, the atomic mass and atomic number positions are reversed from those shown on the periodic table. The mass number is written under the element symbol and name on the periodic table.

Orbitals

Orbitals, which indicate an electron's probable location, are designated as follows, with *s*, *p*, *d*, and *f* in italics: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$.

Oxidation Numbers and Oxidation States

Oxidation numbers express the "charge" associated with atoms and molecules. Oxidation numbers immediately follow chemical symbols for atoms or molecules and are expressed as superscript numbers followed by charge symbols (e.g., SO_4^{2-}). In running text describing oxidation numbers (e.g., "the oxidation number of copper is +2") the charge goes in front of the number with no space between.

Oxidation states are given in roman numerals, without any space between the element name and its oxidation state [e.g., copper(II) oxide].

States of Matter

Abbreviations for states of matter (*s* for solid, *aq* for aqueous, *g* for gas) are given in italics and enclosed in non-italicized parentheses [e.g., $\text{Cu} (s) + \text{O}_2 (g) \rightarrow \text{CuO}_2 (s)$].

Taxonomic Classification

Avoid mixing English and Latin taxonomic classifications in the same item. When referring to classifications at the kingdom level, the English term comes before the word “kingdom” and is lowercase while the Latin term follows it and is uppercase.

- **Incorrect:** My dog is of the kingdom Animalia, but my flowers are from the plant kingdom.
- **Correct:** My dog is of the kingdom Animalia, but my flowers are from the kingdom Plantae.

Scientific names at the genus and species level are always italicized. The genus name is always capitalized, and the species name is always lowercase. When genus and species names are both given to indicate a specific organism, the two names should be kept together on one line whenever possible (e.g., *Homo sapiens*, *Pinus palustris*).

When the genus name only is used, it is still capitalized and italicized. The genus name may be followed by a lowercase “sp.” to indicate a single species or by a lowercase “spp.” to indicate several species (e.g., *Escherichia* spp.).

Commonly Used Terms and Their Spelling

Only the proper name associated with a law or phrase is capitalized.

- Ampere’s law
- Archimedes’ principle
- Avogadro’s number
- Bernoulli’s principle
- beta rays
- Boyle’s law
- carbon-14 (hyphen); C-14
- Celsius scale
- Charles’ law
- color blindness; color-blind
- cosmic rays
- Coulomb’s law
- cystic fibrosis
- Doppler effect
- Down syndrome (trisomy-21)
- ear lobe
- Edison effect
- Einstein’s photoelectric equation
- floodplain
- freshwater (noun and adjective)
- gamma rays
- Geiger tube
- headwaters
- Hooke’s law
- house-breaking
- Huygens’ principle
- Joule’s law
- Kelvin temperature scale
- landform
- Law of Superposition
- law(s) of thermodynamics (first, second, third)
- Lenz’s law
- Lenz’s law
- light bulb
- lightning
- mountainside
- Newton’s laws of motion
- Newton’s law of universal gravitation
- nonpoint
- Ohm’s law
- overturned
- Pascal’s principle/triangle
- Planck’s constant
- runoff
- rainfall
- rain forest
- salt water (noun); saltwater (adjective)
- sea floor
- [lab] setup (noun); set up (verb)
- sex-linked
- Snell’s law
- storm water
- Tay-Sachs disease
- test tube (noun); test-tube (adjective)
- trisomy-21 (Down syndrome)
- Turner’s syndrome
- undertow
- underwater
- uranium-235 (hyphen); U-235 (hyphen)
- Van de Graaf generator
- van der Waals forces
- wastewater
- Wheatstone bridge
- x rays (noun); x-rays (verb or adjective)
- Young’s modulus
- Zeeman effect

Abbreviations

Abbreviations of all units of measurement are the same in the singular and the plural. When numbers and their units of measurement are an adjective modifying a noun, then they are hyphenated (e.g., a 40-lb block of wood, a 50-mL beaker, a 3-ft lever). When they are not directly modifying a noun, they are not hyphenated (e.g., a block of wood that weighs 40 lb, a beaker with 50 mL of fluid, a lever 3 ft long).

A, Ampere	$g^{\circ}C$ or $g^{\circ}C$, grams-degree Celsius	<i>M</i> , Molarity (<i>M</i> is italicized)
AC, alternating current	h, hour	m, meter
$^{\circ}C$, degrees Celsius (e.g., $30^{\circ}C$)	Hz, Hertz	mg, milligram
cm, centimeter	in., inch	min, minute
cps, cycles per second	J, Joule	mL, milliliter
dB, decibel (specify scale)	K, Kelvin (e.g., 70K)	mmHg, millimeters of mercury
DC, direct current	kg, kilogram	mol wt, molecular weight
deg/s, degrees per second	km, kilometer	N, Newton
<i>E. coli</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i>	km/h, kilometers per hour	pH, pOH
$^{\circ}F$, degrees Fahrenheit (e.g., $72^{\circ}F$)	kW, kilowatt	s, seconds
g, gram	L, liter	V, volt
<i>g</i> , gravity (<i>g</i> is italicized)	<i>m</i> , molality (<i>m</i> is italicized)	W, watt

Scientific Treatment of Numbers

In science courses, numbers are always accompanied by units of measurement, even if the numbers are in foils and the units have already been designated in the stem. The following types of number references are the only exceptions to that rule:

- pH
- number of particles from an atom (e.g., the number of protons, electrons, or neutrons)
- oxidation number or charge (see section on Oxidation Numbers)
- refractive index (Physics/Physical Science)
- equilibrium constant (Chemistry)
- ratios

Scientific Notation

In scientific notation, very large or very small numbers are expressed as coefficients raised to a power of ten (e.g., 1.23×10^{11}). The coefficient (1.23 in this example) must be greater than or equal to 1 and less than 10. If scientific notation is used for one foil, it should be used for all four. It is not necessary to decimal-align numbers in scientific notation. As always, foils should be ordered in ascending or descending order of magnitude.

Significant Figures

Significant figures are used to indicate the amount of precision with which a quantity is measured or reported. When measuring a quantity, the significant figures are “all you know for sure plus one that you estimate,” so the last significant digit is the rounded, or estimated value. There are six basic rules for significant figures:

1. All non-zero numbers are significant (e.g., 2 has one sig fig; 44 has two).
2. All zeros between non-zero numbers are significant (e.g., 204 has three sig figs; 1004 has four).
3. Zeros to the right of a non-zero number that are not followed by a decimal point are NOT significant (e.g., 200 has one sig fig; 40 has one; and 24 has two).
4. Zeros to the right of a non-zero number that ARE followed by a decimal point are significant (e.g., 200.4 has four sig figs; 10. has two; 100. has three).
5. If a zero precedes the decimal point as a placeholder, it is not significant, and any zeros to the right of the decimal point that are not preceded by a non-zero number are also not significant (e.g., 0.01 has one sig fig; 0.002 has one sig fig; 0.0340 has three sig figs).
6. Zeros to the right of BOTH a decimal point AND a non-zero number are significant (e.g., 1.00 has three sig figs; 0.0300 has three; 1.100 has four).

Calculating with Significant Digits

If two numbers are used in a mathematical function, the calculated result cannot be known with more precision than the numbers used in the calculation. In addition and subtraction, the result must be rounded to the least number of decimal places. When calculating with measurements, significant digits can be gained or lost because the measurements may have different levels of precision.

- $100.0 - 99.0 = 1.0$
- $999.0 + 1.0 = 1000.0$
- $102 + 10. = 112$ Because 102 and 10. are significant to the ones place, the result of the addition problem can be known to the ones place.
- $102 + 10 = 110$ Because 10 is only significant to the tens place, the result of the addition problem can only be known to the tens place.
- $1.003 + 1.02 = 2.02$ The result of the equation can only be known to the hundredths place since 1.02, the least precise value, is known only to the tenths place.

In multiplication and division, the calculated result can have no more significant digits than the number used in the calculation that had the least number of significant digits.

- $6.0 \times 2.000 = 12$ (two significant digits \times four significant digits = two significant digits)
- $100.0 \div 4.0 = 25$ (four significant digits \div two significant digits = two significant digits)

Counted and defined numbers are exact and do not affect the number of significant digits in any calculated result. Only measured values affect significant digits.

- $6.000 \text{ feet} \times 12 \text{ inches} = 72.00 \text{ inches}$ (4 significant digits \times conversion factor = 4 sig figs)

Note to chemistry teachers: Students in a general course should not be expected to follow different significant digit rules for pH or for logs. Students in advanced chemistry courses may be expected to use the pH and log rules. The conventions used for significant digits in pH and logs are slightly different. Only the numbers after the decimal place are included in the significant digit count, since the numbers in the tens and ones places have a real meaning—they are exact numbers. AA. 13.0 has 1 significant digit; BB 7.02 has 2 significant digits; CC 7 has no significant digits!

VII Social Studies

The North Carolina Testing Program currently produces two end-of-course tests in social studies: Civics and Economics and U.S. History.

Terminology and Language Usage

Refer to the following standards when writing, revising, or proofing social studies items. Recall that, as for all subjects, items should not feature hypothetical individuals designated by proper names (i.e., Sam, Fran, etc.). Instead, utilize generic labels such as “the student,” “the teacher,” “the historian,” etc.

Constitutional References

- Constitutional amendments should be spelled out and capitalized (e.g., the Fourth Amendment, the Twenty-First Amendment).
- Constitutional clauses should be capitalized (e.g., the Necessary and Proper Clause, the Full Faith and Credit Clause).
- “Constitution” is capitalized only when referring to a specific document (e.g., the U.S. Constitution, the North Carolina Constitution, the state constitution, the constitution).

Legal Writs

Do not italicize the Latin phrases that designate writs:

- habeas corpus
- a certiorari
- writ of mandamus

Political, Governmental, and Economic Organizations

In general, terms are capitalized if they are used in a restrictive, official sense and are lowercase if used in a more generic sense.

- Terms such as “movement,” “platform,” and “bloc” are lowercased when used with organizational terms (e.g., the Communist bloc, the Democratic platform).
- The word “party” is capitalized when used with a specific party name but not when used alone (e.g., the Democratic Party, the party).
- “Colony” is capitalized only when used with a specific colony name (Plymouth Colony, the colony, colonial).
- “Congress” is capitalized when it refers to a specific governmental body (e.g., the U.S. Congress, Congress, the legislature, congressional).

Race and Ethnicity

Do not use the term “race.” Use “ethnicity” in its place. When referring to ethnic categories, use the following guidelines:

- Avoid using ethnic categories as nouns (e.g., “an African American man rode the bicycle,” not “the African American rode the bicycle”).
- Use the “African American” ethnic category rather than “black.”
- Use the “white” ethnic category, but capitalize the word only when used as a noun.
- Use the “American Indian” ethnic category rather than “Native American.”

Common Court Cases and Their Subjects

- *Marbury v. Madison* (1803): Supreme Court can declare acts of Congress illegal
- *McCulloch v. Maryland* (1819): federal bank established
- *Gibbons v. Ogden* (1824): interstate commerce
- *State v. Mann* (1830): North Carolina Constitution supreme
- *Dred Scott v. Sandford* (1857): Supreme Court ruled that slaves were not citizens and could not sue in court. Also, Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional.
- *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896): segregation
- *Schenck v. United States* (1919): limitation of free speech in cases of “clear and present danger”
- *Schechter v. United States* (1935): National Industry Recovery Act established
- *Betts v. Brady* (1942): conditional right to an attorney
- *Korematsu v. United States* (1944): internment of Japanese Americans during World War II
- *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* (1954): integration
- *Mapp v. Ohio* (1961): established evidence from illegal search and seizure as inadmissible in court
- *Engel v. Vitale* (1962): prayer in public school
- *Abington School District v. Schempp* (1963): Bible reading in public school
- *Gideon v. Wainwright* (1963): unconditional right to an attorney
- *Escobedo v. Illinois* (1964): established illegal confessions (no attorney) as inadmissible in court
- *Reynolds v. Sims* (1964): representational reapportionment; one person, one vote
- *Miranda v. Arizona* (1966): right to remain silent
- *Tinker v. Des Moines School District* (1969): free speech in school
- *Swann v. Board of Education of Charlotte-Mecklenburg, North Carolina* (1971): integration and busing
- *Furman v. Georgia* (1972): declared death penalty unconstitutional (cruel and unusual)
- *Roe v. Wade* (1973): abortion
- *United States v. Nixon* (1974): Supreme Court overrules executive privilege
- *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* (1978): established affirmative action
- *New Jersey v. TLO* (1985): public school property searches
- *Hazelwood School District v. Kuhlmeier* (1988): censorship of school-sponsored publications
- *Texas v. Johnson* (1989): flag-burning as free speech

Commonly Used Terms and Their Spelling

A. Philip Randolph	founding fathers
abstract expressionism	freedom march
African American	Freedom Ride
Age of Louis XIV	Gilded Age
Age of Reason	golden age
Alien and Sedition Acts	gold rush; California gold rush
American Indian	Good Neighbor policy
ancient Greece	Gothic
Anti-Federalist papers (not italicized)	Great Depression; the depression
Asian American	Great Society
Augustan Age or Age of Augustus	gross domestic product
baroque period	Hellenism; Hellenistic period
baby boom	homeless
Beats, Beatniks	House of Representatives, House
big stick diplomacy (no hyphen)	houses of Congress
Bill of Rights	Hudson River school
Black Power movement, Black Power salute	humanism
black power (in search of black power)	Ice Age
Boston Tea Party	imagism
Bronze Age	imperial Rome
Charles de Secondat, Baron de Montesquieu	impressionism
Christian Era	Industrial Revolution
Civil Rights movement, fight for civil rights	inter-American
classical period	island hopping
Cold War (exception to Chicago Manual)	Jazz Age
Colonists (with original 13 U.S. colonies)	John Locke
Colonial Period (with orig. 13 U.S. colonies)	judicial branch
Constitutional Convention	laissez-faire
consumer price index	legislative branch
Corn Laws	Levittowns
cubism	“Lost Generation”
Cynic(ism)	Manifest Destiny
dada(ism)	Mayflower Compact; the compact
Dark Ages	Middle Ages; High Middle Ages; late Middle Ages
domino theory	middle class
Due Process Clause	mother country
dust bowl	Nation of Islam
Enlightenment	naturalism
Epicurean	natural rights
Era of Good Feelings	Necessary and Proper Clause
European Recovery Plan (ERP)	Neolithic; Paleolithic Times
executive branch	New Deal
existentialism	Open Door Policy
ex post facto	Pacific theater of war
<i>Federalist Papers</i>	panic of 1837
	Parliament (specific body)

Pleistocene
popular sovereignty
Pre-Raphaelite
Progressive Era; Progressives
Prohibition
Non-Aggression Pact of 1939
realism
Red Scare
Reformation; Counter Reformation
Reign of Terror
Renaissance; High Renaissance
Restoration
rise and fall theory
Roaring Twenties
Romanesque period
romantic period
second war
self-government
Senate
slash and burn theory
Stoic(ism)
Stone Age; Old Stone Age
street people
Supreme Court
surrealism
symbolism
Ten Percent Plan
theater of the absurd
Third World
Three-fifths Compromise
transcendentalism
Truth in Lending Act
Victorian era
Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions
War on Poverty
westward movement
white-collar worker
working class
XYZ Affair