Slavic & East European Journal: style guide

Introduction

Consult MLA for formatting of in-text citations and references, but consult the *Chicago Manual of Style* for other questions that aren't answered in this SEEJ guide. Google is quite helpful: *Chicago* has some Q&As you can access for free, and there are other websites with explanations that you can probably trust if the author cites the manual/s used. You can always email me if you're unsure of something.[1, 2]

Miscellaneous

1. Use American spellings 《 afterward, toward, in regard to 》.
2. Capitalize *Internet*. Do not include a hyphen in *email*.
3. Use a comma after *i.e.* and *e.g. Sic, ibid., passim,* etc. are always in italics.
4. Use parentheses within parentheses (usually for bibliographic purposes), not brackets within parentheses 《 (a "spiritual correlate of Russia's geostrategic situation" (Hosking 310)) 》. Brackets are only used to show an author's changes to quoted material (see section on brackets below).

Acronyms: On first mention of a term, introduce the acronym in parentheses 《 health maintenance organizations (HMOs) 》. Exception: if an acronym is better known than the spelled-out version, introduce the spelled-out version in parentheses on first mention 《 KGB (Committee for National Security) 》. Once you have introduced the abbreviation, you ought to use the abbreviation. Delete periods in acronyms and abbreviations 《 USA, CIA, USSR, NC, PhD 》.

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[1] All information for this guide may be found in, and is often quoted from, the following two works (with occasional exceptions derived from word-of-mouth or email communication related specifically to SEEJ):

> 1. *The Chicago Manual of Style: The Essential Guide for Writers, Editors, and Publishers,* 16th ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2010.

> 2. Einsohn, Amy. *The Copyeditor's Handbook: A Guide for Book Publishing and Corporate Communications,* 3rd ed. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 2011.

[2] Please note that random, specific examples of how a rule is applied are enclosed in 《 and 》. *E.g.* is used to indicate types of examples in which a rule would be applied. Example: 《 1991–1992 》 versus (e.g., ranges of years).

Capitalization: Capitalize titles and subtitles of works according to the publication. Capitalize titles and headers for original SEEJ articles (i.e., an article you are copyediting) according to title case, not sentence case.[3]

Inconsistent fonts: Be wary of mismatched fonts. They are hard to spot because usually the mismatched font only applies to one letter, the one with a diactric ⟪ ˇ, ´, ¨, ^ ⟫. Change the font to whatever the rest of the document uses. If the article contains Cyrillic, the font must be Times New Roman (for the typesetter).

Follow author's preference: serial (Oxford) commas, block quotations, original versus translation (with the alternative in parentheses directly afterward), *that* versus *which.*

Non- and restrictive modifiers: An author may use either *which* or *that* to introduce a restrictive modifier. *Who,* not *that,* modifies a person ⟪ the boy who sees ghosts ⟫.

A restrictive modifier narrows a category or identifies a particular item being discussed —it is essential to our understanding of the sentence. A restrictive modifier *is not* set off by commas.

> 1a. ⟪ The book I have just finished is due back tomorrow; the others can wait. ⟫ The modifier "[that] I have just finished" identifies which book is due tomorrow and also, by differentiation, the books that are not due.
>
> You could not write "The book is due back tomorrow; the others can wait" because (1– identification) it is unclear which book is due, and thus (2–meaning of sentence) you could not differentiate between "the" book and "the others."
>
> If you wrote "*a* book" you might be okay: *a* book means any book, while *the* book means one particular book. But *the* book doesn't clarify which book, compared to, for example, *this* book.
>
> 2a. ⟪ The suspect in the lineup who has red hair committed the crime. ⟫ The suspect is both in the lineup and has red hair. Now we know that the other suspects, who are not in the lineup, could not have committed the crime. Of the suspects in the lineup, we know the one with the red hair committed the crime.
>
> 3a. ⟪ The store honored the complaints that were less than sixty days old. ⟫ In this sentence, the store honored only the complaints that were fewer than sixty days old.
>
> 4a. ⟪ To do yoga, I need a shirt that is loose and comfortable. ⟫ The speaker does not need just any shirt—it must be loose and comfortable.

A non-restrictive modifier adds something (inessential) about an item already identified —if we remove it, the basic meaning of the sentence does not change. In other words, a

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[3] Here is an online tool for automatic capitalization: http://titlecapitalization.com.

non-restrictive modifier explains something, but that something is beside the point. A non-restrictive modifier *is* set off by commas (sometimes em dashes or parentheses).

> 1b. 《 *Ulysses*, which I finished early this morning, is due back on June 16. 》(1—identification) It is already clear which book is due because *Ulysses* is named. (2–meaning of sentence) When or that you finished *Ulysses* does not change the fact that it is due on June 16.

> 2b. 《 The suspect in the lineup, who has a red car, committed the crime. 》 "In the lineup" tells us that of all the possible suspects in the world, the one who committed the crime is in the lineup. But, though "who has a red car" tells us something about the suspect, it does not identify which suspect committed the crime—it is possible that more than one suspect owns a red car.

> 3b. 《 The store honored the complaints, which were less than 60 days old. 》 Here, the store honored all complaints, all of which were fewer than sixty days old (compare above).

> 4b. 《 When I do yoga, I wear my favorite shirt, which is really old. 》 The fact that the writer's favorite shirt is old does not change the meaning of the word *shirt*. It is just a detail s/he decided to add.

Numbers

Always spell out a number if it begins a sentence.

Spell out all numbers under 101 and all large numbers that can be expressed in two words, except for pages, dates, and percentages (do not use the percentage sign (%)).

Where many numbers occur within a paragraph or series of paragraphs, maintain consistency in the immediate context. If according to rule you must use numerals for one of the numbers in a given category, use them for all in that category.

In the same sentence or paragraph, however, items in one category may be given as numerals and items in another spelled out. All numerical values of the same class or type are treated similarly in the text: when you have two types of numbers in close vicinity, use words for one type and numerals for the other.

Inclusive numbers: The rule of thumb "two or more digits as needed" means always using more than one digit but no more digits than you need: 145–155 uses more digits than you need, and 125–9 uses only one digit. Examples: 3–10, 71–72, 96–117, 100–104, 803–33. Include all digits for ranges of years.

Punctuation

Apostrophes: For proper names ending in *-s* in the singular, add 's for the possessive 《 Jones's 》. Apostrophes are rarely used to indicate something in the plural 《 ifs and buts, thank yous 》. Plurals are formed without an apostrophe for letters, abbreviations, and numerals: capital letters used as words 《 the three Rs, URLs 》, abbreviations 《 IRAs 》, and numerals used as nouns 《 the 1990s 》. The only exception is the plural form of lowercase letters 《 *x*'s and *y*'s 》. When making an italicized term plural, the *s* is not italicized 《 too many *sic*s 》.

Semicolons: Semicolons (1) join independent clauses more closely together than a period would, or (2) separate syntactical elements more definitely than a comma would.

Colons: Colons (1) introduce a quotation, (2) join two independent clauses to form one sentence, or (3) append a list to an independent clause.

> (1) Types include formal quotations, lengthy quotations, especially block quotations, and quotations whose introductory tag contains *the following, as follows,* or equivalent.

> (2) Do not capitalize what follows the colon unless multiple sentences are modifying the independent clause that precedes the colon. Examples:

>> The watch came with a choice of three bands: stainless steel, plastic, or leather.

>> They even relied on a chronological analogy: just as the Year II had overshadowed 1789, so the October Revolution had eclipsed that of February.

>> The book fulfills three aims: First, it draws together a variety of neglected texts in interesting and careful readings. Second, it examines the ways these texts and the lives of their authors instantiate conceptions of sisterhood. Third, it points out how the three authors can be understood as striving for a kind of historiography.

> (3) Do not use a colon if the words that precede the list do not form an independent clause—you might choose to allow stylistic exceptions.

Colons by definition introduce an element or series of elements illustrating or amplifying what has preceded the colon. Semicolons, however, join two more or less "equal" independent clauses. Authors will often use a semicolon when a colon is needed.

Hyphens (-): Hyphens (1) join some compound words 《 mass-produced, kilowatt-hour, English-speaking 》, and (2) attach prefixes (generally any expression not included in your dictionary). Generally when a compound functions as an adjective, it is hyphenated.[4]

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[4] If you're unsure whether you should use a hyphen, consult the *Chicago* hyphenation table: http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/16/images/ch07_tab01.pdf

Em dashes (—): Em dashes are used to set off an amplifying or explanatory element and can function as an alternative to parentheses, commas, or a colon—especially when an abrupt break in thought is called for. Comparison: commas enclose information without emphasis, parentheses with de-emphasis, and em dashes with emphasis. There are no spaces before or after em dashes.[5,6]

En dashes (–): En dashes are used (1) in compound terms when one element of the compound is a non-hyphenated two- or three-word element 《 post–World War II, New York–New Jersey highway 》, (2) as a substitute for the word *through* in a range of inclusive numbers or times (e.g., range of years, months, pages), or (3) to report scores or tallies 《 the Mets won, 5–3 》.
>Incorrect: between x–y, from x–y. Correct: between *x* and *y*, from *x* to *y*.

Single quotation marks (' '): Single quotation marks can be used (1) to set off a word the author is using in a special sense—a piece of slang, technical jargon, or neologism, or (2) to indicate that a word or phrase is being used ironically.
>(2) These are called "scare quotes." They imply, "This is not my term" or "This is not how the term is usually applied." They are not used to enclose *so-called* or cliches.

Punctuation with closing quotation marks:
>(1) periods and commas go *inside* the closing quotation mark;
>(2) colons and semicolons go *outside*;
>(3) exclamation points, question marks, and dashes go *inside* if the mark belongs to the quoted material, but *outside* if the mark is not part of the quotation.

Punctuation with closing parentheses:
>(1) the period goes *inside* when the parenthetical comment is its own complete sentence, but otherwise goes *outside*;
>(2) punctuation marks that are part of the parenthetical comment go *inside* (e.g., exclamation point, question mark);
>(3) since a parenthetical comment cannot end with a comma or a semicolon, these always go *outside* the closing parenthesis.

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[5] You can insert en and em dashes by inserting a "symbol" (Windows) or "special character" (Mac). I recommend that you add a shortcut so when you type two hyphens (--), they automatically become an em dash. I also recommend that you find or add a shortcut for the en dash (Mac's is [option]+[-]).

An en dash with a space on each side (–) and two hyphens without spaces on either side (--) become em dashes during the typesetting stage of production.

[6] Em dashes are often used instead of quotation marks in Russian dialogue (usually in the context of a block quote). They may enclose the quote or information about the speaker, or they may introduce direct speech.

Stronger and weaker punctuation marks: When two punctuation marks are called for at the same location, only the stronger is retained (e.g., a question mark or exclamation point is stronger than a comma or period). Clarity, however, sometimes demands that the rule be waived.

> Examples: (1) Her best-selling books include *Who Was That Man?*, *Here We Go Again!*, and *Don't Be Late.* (2) "Do You Have a Future in Banking?," the latest pamphlet in the series, is now available.

Spacing and punctuation:

> (1) one space follows a sentence-ending punctuation mark, a comma, colon, or semicolon;
> (2) there is no space before or after an em or en dash;
> (3) there is no space before or after a hyphen, excepting suspended compounds 《 a two-, three-, or four-day delay 》;
> (4) there is no space between enclosures (quotation marks, parentheses, brackets) and the words enclosed;
> (5) one space precedes and follows a slash that indicates the end of a line of poetry, or when one or both elements before/after the slash has more than one word 《 and/or; high altitude / low temperature 》.

Translation

Translations are provided according to the linguistic ability of the readers. We try to translate everything that is not a common term 《 *perestroika* is a common term 》 because the typical SEEJ reader will know certain but not all Slavic languages. An article might concern, for example, Russian literature—some readers will be interested in the literary content but not have a knowledge of Russian.

Translations follow the original text in parentheses, or the original may follow a translation. Quotation marks are usually repeated in or added to the parenthetical translation/original, unless the parenthetical material is a single unit (word, term, or phrase).

Published translations must, of course, be cited. Authors providing their own translation should so state, in parentheses following the translation, in a footnote, or in introductory material 《 following a quotation, "(Original author ###; my translation)"; footnote early in article, "Unless otherwise noted, all translations are my own." 》.

Brackets are used to translate a particular term within a quotation 《 The differences between society [Gesellschaft] and community [Gemeinschaft] will now be analyzed 》.

Italics are used for foreign words and phrases that are likely to be unfamiliar to readers. If a foreign word becomes familiar through repeated use throughout a work, it needs to

be italicized only on its first occurrence. If it appears only rarely, however, italics ought to be retained.

Quotations, citations, and references

Brackets: Brackets are used to enclose material that the quoter wishes to add to the quotation. Examples: 《 [*sic*] 》, ellipses 《 […] 》, capitalization 《 "[S]he 》, clarification of what something refers to (e.g., personal pronouns, abbreviations), grammar alteration (e.g., enclosing a verb to change tense from past to present). Ellipses added by the author to compress the quoted text appear in brackets; ellipses that exist in the original text being cited are not enclosed in brackets.

Ellipses: Ellipsis points are not used (1) before the first word of a quotation, even if the beginning of the original sentence has been omitted, or (2) after the last word of a quotation, even if the end of the original sentence has been omitted, unless the sentence as quoted is deliberately incomplete.[7]

Smart quotes: Use curly "smart" quotes (" " and ' '). The straight quote (') is used only as a diacritical mark in foreign languages (especially Russian).[8]

Parts of a book: Use Arabic numerals for chapters 《 chapter 1, 2, or 3 》 and Roman numerals for parts 《 part I, II, or III 》. Do not capitalize parts of a book 《 introduction, chapter, appendix A, page 》. Only enclose parts of a book in double quotation marks when the author is referring to a specific title (i.e., "Chapter 1" and "Introduction" are incorrect when used generally).

In-text citations: When there is only one work by an author, cite in the format (Author ###)—notice there is no comma. When there are multiple works by the same author, use (Author, *Title ###*) or (Author, "Title" ###) depending on the type of work.

When citing a multi-volume work, use the format (Author #: ###) 《 (Daiches 2: 776–77) 》. If the reference, in the list of works cited, only lists one volume ("Vol. #."), you do not need to include the volume number in the citation. Do include the volume number if the author cites more than one volume in his/her article (reference will list "# vols.").

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[7] Russian fiction and poetry often include ellipses for creative purposes. When you see many ellipses in the same text, do not assume they were added by the author of the article—add a comment so Irene and Helen can ask the author.

[8] Ensure your word processing software automatically uses smart quotes. When you need to make a curved apostrophe a diacritic, simply "undo":
    Windows [control]+[z]
    Mac [command]+[z]

When an author needs to cite something quoted from another work, use the format (qtd. in Author ###). If the author wishes to cite a footnote, use the format (Author ###fn).

Separate independent elements of an in-text citation with a semicolon: common examples include citation of more than one work (especially when both original and translation are included), claim of emphasis or translation, or a general comment.

When the author's name is in a sentence, do not repeat it in the parenthetical citation (provided you are clearly citing that author). If there are multiple citations of the same work in close vicinity, and there are no citations of other works nearby, cite only the page number(s). Always include the author, title, and/or volume (if applicable) when starting a new paragraph or upon first mention in a footnote.

Author-year style is only allowed for strictly linguistics articles. Examples:

> (Remneva et al. 1999: 77; Krivčik and Možejko 1974: 141)

> (Firth 1957, Harris 1970, Hanks 1996, Geeraerts et al. 1999, Speelman et al. 2003, Divjak and Gries 2006, Gries and Divjak 2009)

Worked cited: If there is more than one entry by a given author, use three em dashes followed by a period to replace the author's name in all entries after the first (———.)—except when there are different entries for the same author ⟪ Pushkin, Aleksandr; Pushkin, Aleksandr Sergeevich; Pushkin, A. S. ⟫.

> *Journal article:* Lednicki, Wacław. "Literaturnye zametki i vospominaniia." *Opyty* 2 (1953): 152–74.

> *Book:* Korolenko, V. G. *Dnevnik. Pis'ma. 1917–1921*. Ed. V. I. Losev. Moscow: Sovetskii pisatel', 2001.

> *Book chapter:* Prusin, Alexander Victor. "The Russian Military and the Jews in Galicia, 1914–15." *Military and Society in Russia, 1450–1917*. Ed. Eric Lohr and Marshall Poe. Boston: Brill, 2002. 525–44.