

Usage Manual

Atatürk Institute for Modern Turkish History
at Boğaziçi University

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CONTENT

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GRAPHIC DESIGN

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Preface

And all dared to brave unknown terrors, to do mighty deeds, to boldly split infinitives that no man had split before – and thus was the Empire forged.

– Douglas Adams, *Hitchhiker's Guide*

You keep using that word. I do not think it means what you think it means.

– Inigo Montoya, *The Princess Bride*

The intent of this language usage manual is to explain selected stylistic expectations of the Atatürk Institute for Modern Turkish History at Boğaziçi University, as well as to expound on commonly encountered grammatical, punctuation, and language usage errors.

The manual is a reference that authors should use prior to submitting their work for editing and includes a convenient checklist of items to be performed. Furthermore, the editor will use the manual as a set of boilerplate notes to which to refer authors, as needed.

This is an abridged manual that hones in on issues that are pertinent to theses and dissertations at the Institute. For more comprehensive information about any of these issues or other matters of style and usage, authors may refer to *The Chicago Manual of Style, 16th edition*, from which the conventions in this guide are largely drawn.

Manuscript Checklist

THIS CHECKLIST IS BEST PERFORMED AFTER A MANUSCRIPT IS otherwise complete. The order of items is significant: it accounts for the likelihood of inadvertently introducing new errors into the manuscript in the course of performing the checks.

READ THROUGH

- Read through your whole manuscript from beginning to end. In addition to making sure the text has a logical flow, be on the lookout for overly complex sentences (see § 1.1), incomplete or run-on sentences, repetition, wordiness (§ 6.2), as well as tense (§ 7.1), voice (§ 7.2), or logical issues (§ 7.3).

TYPOGRAPHIC ERRORS

- Search for and eliminate double spaces (see § 3.1).
- Search for and eliminate erroneous spaces before periods, commas, footnote references, and close parentheses and quotation marks.
- Verify that punctuation is inside of quotation marks and outside of parentheses (cf. § 3.2 and § 3.3.1 for exceptions).
- Search for “open quotation marks, (open parentheses, and [open brackets and verify that they are paired with the corresponding closing punctuation mark.
- Verify that serial commas are used before the conjunctions *and*, *or*, or *nor* in a series (see § 3.4).
- Verify that commas are used before the conjunction in compound sentences but not in compound subjects or predicates.
- Verify that that semicolons (;) and colons (:) are used correctly (see § 3.5).
- Search for commonly confused words and verify that they are used properly in each instance (see § 6.1).

DOCUMENTATION

- Verify that all paraphrased and quoted materials, concepts, and ideas are cited in the proper form (see § 5.1 and § 5.2).
- Verify that all foreign language quotations are translated and the source language version is provided (see § 5.3).
- Verify the placement of footnote reference numbers in the text (see § 5.4).
- Verify the form and punctuation of each footnote (see § 5.5). Eliminate unnecessary paragraph breaks within or between footnotes.
- Verify the completeness, form, and punctuation of each entry in the list of references, works cited, and/or the bibliography (see § 5.5).

STYLE AND GRAMMAR

- Search for pronouns to verify that the antecedent is clear and that the pronoun agrees with the antecedent in person, number, and gender. Antecedents usually precede the pronoun, but in any event, they must unambiguously refer to one, specific noun.
- Search for qualifiers, weasel words, colloquialisms and other words and phrases that are best avoided and eliminate or replace them whenever possible (see § 6.2).
- Search for and spell out contractions. Not “couldn’t” but “could not,” not “it’s” but “it is,” etc.
- Search for and verify that full dates are consistently written in one of the two acceptable forms and are properly punctuated (see § 2.1).
- Search for and verify that days of the month, years, decades, and centuries are written in the correct form (see § 2.1.2–2.1.4).
- Search for and verify that large and small numbers are written in the correct form (see § 2.2).
- Search for and verify that percentages are consistently written in one of the two acceptable forms (see § 2.2.2).
- Search for and verify that wars are written in the correct form (see § 2.3).
- Search for and verify that *italicized* text is applied correctly and consistently (see § 2.4.3 and § 2.6).

GENERAL

- Verify that the manuscript title, chapter titles, and all headers follow headline capitalization rules (see § 4.1), both in the main text and in the table of contents.
- Run your final document through Microsoft Word’s spelling checker.
- Apply Microsoft Word’s grammar checker, but use your discretion when evaluating its recommendations.

FRONT MATTER

- Verify that the items in the table of contents exactly match the titles and headings in the main text itself.
- Verify that the items in the lists of tables, figures, maps, etc. are consistent with their titles in the main text itself.
- Verify that all recurrent abbreviations, acronyms, and foreign terms are spelled out or translated in the front matter (see § 2.4 and § 2.5).
- Verify that the page numbers in the table of contents and all lists of tables, figures, maps, etc. are correct.

§ 1.1 General

1.1.1 *Usage and Style*

The language for all theses and dissertations at the Institute is English. Manuscripts should follow American spelling and usage conventions,¹ for which authors may refer to *The Chicago Manual of Style, 16th Edition* (hereafter referred to as *Chicago*) and *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, 11th Edition* (hereafter referred to as *Webster's*). With respect to style:

- ◆ Vocabulary and grammar should be simple and direct.
- ◆ Efficiency of language and argument is encouraged.
- ◆ Repetition and wordiness should be avoided.

1.1.2 *Audience*

The target audience for theses and dissertations at the Institute is international, educated, but non-specialist academics and researchers.

- ◆ Manuscripts should neither assume a general knowledge of Ottoman or Turkish history nor familiarity with specific literatures being cited.
- ◆ As with other foreign terms, Ottoman and modern Turkish terms must be thoroughly defined.
- ◆ Turkish cultural references should be avoided, but when integral to an argument, they must be explained for the non-Turkish audience.

§ 1.2 Special Forms

1.2.1 *Dates*

For comprehensive information, see *Chicago*, § 6.45 and § 9.30–37. The following guidelines are more restrictive on a few, minor points.

Full dates may be in one of two forms. In both, the month is written out in full and the space between the month and the day of the month should be non-breaking

¹ Where a distinction is drawn between formal and informal usage in *Chicago*, authors should defer to the formal form.

USAGE MANUAL

AMERICAN USAGE

The more common form in American usage is to write the date in the order of natural, spoken language.

The battle at Bayburt on September 28, 1829, brought the seventh Russo-Turkish War to a close.

Even though the day of the month is read as an ordinal, ordinal indicators – like a period or *st*, *nd*, *rd*, or *th* – are omitted.

A comma follows the day of the month, and if the sentence continues, a comma also follows the year. (If the date does not include a day of the month, however, then there is no punctuation unless the grammar of the sentence necessitates punctuation after the year.)

CONTINENTAL USAGE

If full dates figure heavily in a manuscript, the prosaic, continental form may be appropriate.

The battle at Bayburt on 28 September 1829 brought the seventh Russo-Turkish War to a close.

There is no punctuation in the continental form unless the grammar of the sentence necessitates punctuation after the year.

1.2.1.1 Days of the month

When a day of the month stands alone in a sentence (without the month or the year), then it is spelled out in ordinal form. Numerical forms should not be used.

twenty-eighth – *not* – 28. – *not* – 28th – *not* – 28th

1.2.1.2 Years

Whether standing alone or part of a full date, years written in numerical form include the century.

1829 – *not* – '29

1.2.1.3 Decades

Decades written in numerical form include the century and are followed by the letter *s*. There is no apostrophe. Except in certain circumstances when used as an adjective, the word *the* precedes the decade.

the 1820s – *not* – the 1820's – *not* – the '20s

If consecutive decades figure heavily in a text and it is clear from context to what century they belong, they may be spelled out.

the twenties
the thirties

1.2.1.4 Centuries

Centuries are spelled out and lowercase. The prefix *mid-* is hyphenated, but *early* and *late* are not. The word *the* precedes the noun phrase.

the century
the nineteenth century
the mid-twentieth century
the early twenty-first century

When used as an adjective, the ordinal and century are hyphenated. Whether the word *the* precedes the phrase depends on the grammar of the sentence.

nineteenth-century legislation
early twentieth-century politics
mid-twentieth-century warfare
late-century agricultural practices

1.2.1.5 Hijri and Rumi Dates

Dates are indicated using the Gregorian calendar to accommodate the widest audience (see § 1.2), but if relevant, Hijri and/or Rumi years may be enclosed in parentheses immediately following the Gregorian date.

If it is consistent and clear to which calendar the parenthetical dates refer, there is no need indicate the calendar (AH or Rumi).

28 September 1829 (1245 AH, 1254 Rumi)
 September 1829 (1245 AH)
 1829 (1245)
 28 September 1829 (1254 Rumi)
 September 1829 (1254)

Where pertinent, full dates may also be indicated. Transliteration, transcription, and/or abbreviation of Hijri months is left to the author's discretion; Rumi months would logically be in Ottoman Turkish.

28 September 1829 (30 Rabi' al-awwal 1245 AH)
 September 1829 (Rebiülevvel 1245)
 23 January 1913 (10 Kânûn-ı Sâni 1328 Rumi)

1.2.2 *Numbers*

For comprehensive information on representing numbers, see *Chicago*, chapter 9. Formal usage is preferred.

In general, numbers up to one hundred are spelled out, otherwise they are given numerically. Rounded hundreds, thousands, hundred thousands, millions, etc. are spelled out if the number preceding them is from one to ninety-nine. Otherwise, the number may be written numerically or as a hybrid.

106
 three
 twenty-five
 eight hundred
 thirty-six thousand
 236,000 – or preferably – 236 thousand

As a general point of style, sentences should not begin with numbers (including years), but if necessary, they are spelled out.

If a list or other parallel structure within a given sentence or group of sentences includes both numbers above and below 100, all the numbers should be given numerically for balance.

1.2.2.1 Commas and Decimals

In English usage, commas are used to separate thousands, millions, billions, etc. If numbers figure heavily in a manuscript, commas may be omitted from numbers below ten thousand, but the chosen style should be consistent throughout the manuscript. (Years never have commas, of course).

34,236,401
6,937 – or – 6937

Likewise, decimal points are used to separate decimal fractions. If a fraction is less than one, a leading zero precedes the decimal point.

98.6
3.14159
0.25

1.2.2.2 Percentages

In general, percentages in body text are expressed numerically followed by the word *percent*, but if statistics figure heavily in a manuscript, the percent sign (%) may be used, instead. Either way, the chosen style should be used consistently throughout the manuscript. (Percentages in tables, on the other hand, always use the percent sign.)

In English usage, a percent sign follows the number (with no space). Percentages are spelled out only if the number is the first word of a sentence. When making comparisons, trailing zeros are added to give corresponding values the same number of digits following the decimal point.

22 percent – or – 22%
8.5 percent – or – 8.5%
0.48 percent – or – 0.48%
2.4–3.0 percent – or – 2.4%–3.0%

Twenty-five percent of the empire's twenty million inhabitants...

1.2.2.3 Nomenclature

Note that English uses the short scale for naming powers of ten. The term *milliard* is archaic; 10^9 is one billion. One trillion is 10^{12} .

1.2.3 *Wars and Battles*

Names of world wars are spelled out.

the Second World War – or – World War II not WWII
World Wars I and II – or – the First and Second World Wars

The space before the roman numeral should be non-breaking.

Except in certain contexts when used as an adjective, the word *the* precedes “First World War” or “Second World War.” On the other hand, except in rare grammatical circumstances, the word *the* does not precede “World War I” or “World War II.”

In contexts where World War II has yet to occur, the First World War may be poignantly referred to – as it was in the inter-war period – as:

the Great War

When the full name of a war or battle is used, most are deemed proper nouns, capitalized, and preceded by the word *the*.

the Greek War of Independence
the Cretan Uprising of 1866
the Bulgarian Rebellion of 1876
the Cold War

For comprehensive information on wars and battles, see *Chicago*, § 8.112.

1.2.4 *Foreign Terms*

1.2.4.1 Common Foreign Loanwords

English has adopted many foreign words including many Latin phrases. If they can be found in *Webster’s*, such words are not italicized.

schadenfreude
de facto
cum hoc ergo propter hoc
ibid.

[*sic*] is an exception due to its use within quotations

1.2.4.2

1.2.4.3 Foreign Terms with English Equivalents

If a foreign word or phrase has an equivalent or comparable English translation, the English should be adopted to accommodate the widest audience (see § 1.2). To make clear that there is a correspondence with a particular foreign term (e.g., to draw attention to subtle distinctions or limitations of usage), the italicized original may be included in parentheses immediately following the English.

The state (*devlet*) was responsible for...

A term need only be identified once in the manuscript, and the English may be used thereafter.²

1.2.4.4 Foreign Proper Nouns

The names of foreign institutions, titles, geographical locations, and other proper nouns are capitalized but not italicized.

Upon boarding the train to leave Istanbul for the last time,
Sultan II. Abdülhamid Han famously asked for a glass of water
from the Taşdelen Water Foundation (Vakıf Taşdelen Su).

Again, the term need only be identified once in the manuscript, and the English may be used thereafter.²

1.2.4.5 Titles of Foreign Works

The method of providing the translation of the title of a foreign work depends on whether an English translation of the work has been published.

If a published translation is broadly known by the English title, the original title may be omitted. (There is no reason to indicate that Dante's *Divine Comedy* was originally titled *Divina Commedia*).

Otherwise, when a published English translation exists, the choice of which title is placed in parentheses is subjective and a matter of consistency.

² If there is a compelling, subjective reason to use a foreign term or proper noun (or corresponding acronym or initialism) in lieu of the English equivalent, the foreign term should be in the main text and the unitalicized English in parentheses. The italicization of foreign terms then follows the guidelines outlined in § 1.2.4.5. Foreign proper nouns, on the other hand, are always capitalized and never italicized.

Both titles should use headline capitalization and are italicized or enclosed in quotation marks according to the type of the work.

“Türkiye’nin İnsan Hakları İki Yüzlülüğü” (“Turkey’s Human Rights Hypocrisy”)

The Time Regulation Institute (Saatleri Ayarlama Enstitüsü)

If no translation exists, the English should be placed in parentheses. It should neither be in quotation marks nor italicized, and only the first word and proper nouns should be capitalized.

“Türk Edebiyatı’nın En İyi 100 Romanı” (The 100 best novels of Turkish literature)

Bir Düğün Gecesi (A wedding night)

1.2.4.6 Foreign Terms with no English Equivalents

If the translation of a foreign term is unsatisfactory or an author wishes to distinguish it from its English equivalent, the term may be introduced into the lexicon of a manuscript. The first instance is italicized and must be thoroughly defined, either in the text or parenthetically.

A yurtluk-ocaklık sancak was an Ottoman administrative unit the governorship of which was hereditary. In contradistinction with *hükümet sancaks* (largely autonomous administrative units that owed no more than military allegiance to the empire), the Ottoman State collected taxes within yurtluk-ocaklıks.

Subsequent occurrences of the term are handled as follows:

- ◆ If the foreign term is used only a few times in the manuscript, each instance is italicized.
- ◆ If the term will be used repeatedly, generally only the first instance is italicized (as with *yurtluk-ocaklık* in the example above).
- ◆ But, if there is a gap between the first mention and subsequent instances of the term (e.g., a term mentioned off-hand in the Introduction is more thoroughly explored in chapter 3), then the first reappearance of the term may also be italicized.

Foreign terms introduced into the lexicon of the manuscript warrant a list of foreign terms in the front matter of the manuscript.

1.2.5 Abbreviations and Acronyms

1.2.5.1 Abbreviations

Standard abbreviations are not generally defined in the main body text, but if they would not be known to a international, non-specialist audience, then they warrant a list of abbreviations in the front matter of the manuscript.

Paul Rycout, Esq.

Kr. Plt. Kur. Alb. Ahmet Mehmet³

Abbreviations created by an author for the purpose of footnote references (e.g., the names of commonly cited sources or archives) are also included in the list of abbreviations; indeed, they may comprise the bulk of such a list.

1.2.5.2 Acronyms (and Initialisms)

Acronyms are introduced into the lexicon of the manuscript in much the same manner as foreign terms (see § 2.4.3). The full name appears in the main body text and the acronym in parentheses. Just the acronym may be used thereafter.

In 1952, Turkey and Greece joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), which forced other NATO members into the uncomfortable role of mediating among its own members.⁴

If the full name would require an indefinite article in the sentence, then the acronym will also be preceded by the article.

Acronyms are defined [only] once in the main body text, and all acronyms introduced into the lexicon of a manuscript warrant a list of acronyms in the front matter of the manuscript.

Invented acronyms are discouraged.

³ On its own, the first of these examples is sufficiently common in English that it would not need to be in a list of abbreviations. The second would definitely need clarification. But a list of abbreviations in a single manuscript that included both of these examples may include *Esquire*, as well, for the purposes of balance.

⁴ At an author's discretion, the typographic convention of using small caps may be applied to acronyms and initialisms, as it is here.

1.2.5.3 Acronyms (and Initialisms) for Foreign Proper Nouns

In the case an acronym is based on a foreign proper noun, the original language is given in the main text and both the acronym and English translation in parentheses. Just the acronym may be used thereafter.

Few Istanbul urbanites were aware of the Cumhuriyetçi Köylü Millet Partisi (CKMP, or Republican Villagers Nation Party). But then in 1962, the CKMP was offered participation in İnönü's government.

By definition, acronyms are proper nouns and therefore never italicized.

In some cases, for the purposes of consistency or balance, you may wish to base the acronym on the English translation, in which case the original language version would be placed in parentheses.

The Republican People's Party (RHP, or Cumhuriyet Halk Partisi) is a Kemalist, social-democratic political party in Turkey. The RHP was the party of Atatürk and İnönü.

1.2.6 Italicization

In addition to some foreign terms (see § 2.4.2 and § 2.4.3), the titles of books, performance pieces, and artworks are italicized.

Suraiya Faruqi followed *Approaching Ottoman History with Artisans of Empire*, a much more focused work.

Words or letters specifically referred to as words or letters may be italicized or enclosed in double quotation marks, but the chosen style should be applied consistently throughout the manuscript.

The etymology of *infidel* links together those who have no faith with those who are not worthy of trust.

The use of italicization for emphasis or for named terms in the main text is discouraged, but it may be used for added emphasis in quoted material, in which case it must be noted (see § 5.2).

“[T]hose producers who sold part of their crop in local markets received higher prices *during periods of inflation*.” (emphasis added)

1.2.7 *Bold Type*

Bold type is *not* permitted anywhere in the manuscript.

1.2.8 *Numbered and Bulleted Lists*

Numbered lists should be used only when either the order or the total number of items is relevant. Otherwise, bulleted lists are sufficient.

§ 1.3 Punctuation

1.3.1 *Spaces Between Sentences*

A single space is used between sentences and after colons and semi-colons, not two spaces.

1.3.2 *Quotations Marks*

In American usage, double quotation marks are preferred. Single quotation marks are used only for quotes within quotes.

“Excuse me,” the errand boy called after the Sultan, “I heard you say ‘I want some water.’”

In general, closing punctuation is inside of quotation marks (but for exceptions, cf. *Chicago*, Table 6.1).

Titles of articles and book chapters follow headline capitalization rules (see § 4.1) and are enclosed in quotation marks.

In the chapter “Multiculturalism in the Ottoman Empire: The Alevi Community,” Turkologist Dimitri Kitsikis argues...

Words or letters specifically referred to as words or letters may be enclosed in double quotation marks or italicized, but the chosen style should be applied consistently throughout the manuscript.

The etymology of “infidel” links together those who have no faith with those who are not worthy of trust.

The use of so-called scare quotes is discouraged in formal writing, but when necessary they should also be double quotation marks.

The “success” of the Young Turks is debated.

1.3.3 Commas, Parentheses, & Dashes

The degree to which supplementary information is integral to the main content of a sentence is indicated through punctuation:

When the assembly abolished the Caliphate, on March 3, 1924, Abdülmecid II went into exile.

When the assembly abolished the Caliphate (March 3, 1924), Abdülmecid II went into exile.

When the assembly abolished the Caliphate – it was March 3, 1924 – Abdülmecid II went into exile.

In the first example, the date is integral to the sentence, but not overly emphasized. In the second, the date is provided as a convenience, almost as a point of trivia. And the final sentence draws attention to the date.

1.3.3.1 Parentheses

Parentheses are used for asides, clarification, or commentary that are tangential to the flow of text, but sufficiently significant not to be relegated to a footnote.

In general, punctuation follows the close parenthesis unless the full sentence is parenthetical (but for exceptions, cf. *Chicago*, Table 6.1).

In 1914 the Ottoman Empire conducted yet another census (its last).

Yet another census was conducted. (It would be the empire's last.)

1.3.3.2 Dashes

Dashes are used to interject and emphasize a point, and they often interrupt the flow of the main grammar of the sentence.

Bruno Taut's interment in the *Edirnekapı Şehitliği* – and to be clear, the cemetery is still considered sacred ground reserved for Muslims – was a controversy indeed.

In any event, a proper en dash (–) should be used to indicate a dash, not a single or double hyphen.⁵

5 At the author's discretion, the typographic convention of using an en dash surrounded by thin spaces (–) may be used instead of the unwieldy em dash (—).

1.3.4 *Serial Commas*

In accordance with formal, American usage, the serial or Oxford comma should be used.

The documentary controversially portrayed Mustafa Kemal as a loner, womanizer, and alcoholic.

1.3.5 *Semicolons (and Colons)*

In English, the use of semicolons is rare, specific, and stylistic. In most cases, it should be avoided. In English usage, semicolons are never preceded by a space.

Semicolons may be used to couple two otherwise fully independent clauses. It is used in place of a period (where a period would work without any other change to the grammar), but a semicolon links the ideas more closely by a degree.

Atatürk adopted Ulku in 1932; until his death six years later, she remained a media darling.

The independent clauses may be connected by transitional phrases or conjunctive adverbs, as well, but not by coordinating conjunctions.

Mustafa Kemal delivered his frank assessment of the war to Kaiser Wilhelm II; nevertheless, the emperor pushed ahead with his plans.

Semicolons may also be used in place of commas to separate items in a series when the individual items are long and/or have internal punctuation.

İsmet İnönü subsequently met with Franz von Papen, the German Ambassador to Turkey who would later be acquitted at the Nuremberg trials; Hughe Knatchbull-Hugessen, the British diplomat whose Albanian valet regularly passed along his correspondence to the Germans; and René Massigli, who had apparently been “exiled” to Turkey for his outspokenness at the Quai d’Orsay.

Semicolons are neither used to precede elaborations or enumerations nor to separate titles from subtitles; these are the functions of colons.

Only one individual had the pâdişâh's ear: Ahmet Tevfik Paşa.

Many Tazminat reforms addressed the issue: the reorganization of the criminal codes, the establishment of a Ministry of Healthcare, and the decriminalization of homosexuality.

Turkey Before and After Atatürk: Internal and External Affairs

§ 1.4 Case

1.4.1 *Headline Capitalization*

In titles and headings, all words except articles (a, an, & the), certain coordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, for, nor), and prepositions (of, on, at, to, from, by, between, through, etc.) are generally capitalized.

A colon separates titles from subtitles. The first and last word of the title or heading and the first and last word of subtitles are capitalized, irrespective of the rules above.

The Ottomans and the Balkans: A Discussion of Historiography

For extenuating circumstances, see *Chicago*, § 8.157.

1.4.2 *Names of People*

The first letter of people's names, surnames, and initials are capitalized, with the exception of some participles that must be independently determined. In English, surnames are not given in all capital letters.

Levi P. Morton

Maurits H. van den Boogert – but – Marc Van den Reek

Abd al-Madjeed al-Thâni

Caroline Finkel – not – Caroline FINKEL

§ 1.5 Citing and Documenting Sources

1.5.1 *Materials to be Cited (Avoiding Plagiarism)*

In addition to university policy (see § 5.1.1), “[e]thics, copyright laws, and courtesy to readers require authors to identify the sources of direct quotations or paraphrases and of any facts or opinions not generally known or easily checked.”⁶

Students should take great care to distinguish their own ideas and knowledge from information derived from sources. Not only must all sources be cited, but quotations of even a few words must be placed within quotation marks if the wording is borrowed from a source.⁷

In general, the following require citation and documentation:

- ◆ Direct quotations, from both primary and secondary sources
- ◆ Paraphrased material
- ◆ Summaries of others’ arguments, ideas, or conclusions
- ◆ Appropriation of others’ concepts, phraseology, or terms⁸
- ◆ Data and facts that are not generally known⁹
- ◆ Others’ novel opinions

If an author has any question about what must be cited, they should consult with their academic advisor, any professor or instructor at the Institute, and/or the in-house editor.

6 *Chicago*, § 14.1.

7 In this case, citation alone is insufficient. If the wording belongs to the source but there are no quotation marks, this is plagiarism even if the source is indicated. If quotation marks are absent, the text must be the author's own paraphrase.

8 This is a sliding scale. To illustrate, it would be unnecessary to credit a casual mention of the lumpen proletariat to Marx, as the term and its source are well-known, both in and outside of academia; but Foucault should be identified as the originator of the specialized, modern concept of the *épistème*, at least in passing, if not with reference to *The Order of Things*. On the other hand, a reference to relatively unsung concepts like operative, derogative, and objective *démarches* in contemporary historiography would necessitate a specific citation of the relevant pages of Panayotis Tournikiotis’ *The Historiography of Modern Architecture*.

9 That Sultan II. Abdülhamid Han was deposed on April 27, 1909, and left for Thessaloníki the following day needs no citation. That upon boarding the train he requested a glass of water from *Vakıf Taşdelen Su*, paid the gofer thirty *koruş*, and thereby caused a delay of one hour fifty minutes would need to be cited.

1.5.1.1 Ethical and Legal Issues

The following is extracted from BOĞAZIÇI UNIVERSITY'S *Student Rights and Responsibilities*, which all students are obliged to uphold:

Students must adhere to principles of academic honesty and refrain from plagiarism and other types of academic misconduct defined below:

- ◆ In all disciplines the student's academic performance is assessed by the work the student has done himself or herself. The student must be aware that it is unlawful to partially or completely copy or translate another person's ideas, proposals, and views without attribution, and that such misconduct will result in disciplinary action (excerpted from the *Yükseköğretim Kurumları Öğrenci Disiplin Yönetmeliği*).
- ◆ The student must cite the source of any published or unpublished material (such as articles, books, reports, another student's work, Internet, etc.) he or she has made use of in preparing his or her work.
- ◆ The student must not submit work prepared by someone else.

1.5.2 Quotations

Quotations of roughly 40 or more words of prose or more than two lines of verse are set off as block quotations and do not take quotation marks. Otherwise, quotations are differentiated only by open and close quotation marks.

Quotations are not italicized regardless of whether they are in-line or block quotations and regardless of whether they are in English or another language. That said, original emphasis should be maintained and emphasis may be added using italics.

Quoted material must reproduce the exact spelling, capitalization, and punctuation of the original.

- ◆ Grammatical and spelling errors in quoted material are indicated with *[sic]* immediately following the error.
- ◆ Added emphasis must be noted.
- ◆ Double and single quotation marks within a quotation may be invisibly transposed as appropriate.

- ◆ When it is necessary to make slight changes to the grammar or tense of quoted material to fit with the main text; to substitute a pronoun for its antecedent or vice-versa; or to make a brief, clarifying addition – the change is enclosed in brackets. But the content of the original must remain clear.

“Evidently wondering what changes to Ataturk’s [sic] purported speech *Campbell* had made, [Igdemir] wrote: ‘I shall be grateful should you send ... a photograph [...] of the metal plaque.’”
(emphasis added)

For more information about permissible changes, additions, or omissions in quoted material and their punctuation, see *Chicago*, Chapter 13.

1.5.2.1 Introducing Quotations

There are three ways to introduce quotations which apply to both in-line and block quotations.

- ◆ The quotation may be a grammatical continuation of the sentence that introduces it, in which case there is no punctuation at the end of the introduction unless a comma naturally occurs there. The first word of the quotation would not generally be capitalized unless it happens to be a proper noun.
- ◆ If the lead-in sentence and the quotation are independent, self-sufficient clauses, then the introductory sentence would be followed by a period and the first word of the quotation would be capitalized.
- ◆ If the lead-in sentence uses a formal introductory phrase like “as follows” then it should be followed by a colon rather than a period. Again, the first word of the quotation would be capitalized.

The capitalization of the first word of any quotation may be changed from the original as necessary (that is, made uppercase or made lowercase) without indicating that a change has been made.

See *Chicago*, § 13.13–13.19 for further information and exceptions.

1.5.2.2 Ellipses in Quotations

Neither block nor in-line quotations should start with ellipses, even if the beginning of the quotation does not correspond to the beginning of a sentence in the quoted material.

Quotations should also not end with ellipses, even if the end of the quotation does not correspond to the end of a sentence in the quoted

material. The exception would be if the quotation is cut in such a way that it results in a sentence fragment. This would almost never occur in an in-line quotation and would occur only rarely in a block quotation.

With respect to ellipses added by the author to indicate material cut from the original quotation:

- ◆ Such omissions must not misrepresent the meaning.
- ◆ Author-added ellipses should not be in parentheses or brackets unless there are ellipses in the original quotation which need to be distinguished from those of the author.
- ◆ If author added-ellipses fall in the middle of a sentence, there should be a space before and after the ellipses character.
- ◆ If author added-ellipses fall between independent sentences, a period should precede the ellipses and a space should follow it (which means there will be four dots followed by space). Other punctuation (commas, question marks, colons, etc.) may precede or follow the ellipsis depending on from where the material was omitted.

See *Chicago*, § 13.48–13.56 for further information.

1.5.3 *Translated Materials*

To facilitate a non-specialist audience, all foreign quoted material must be translated into English in the main text (see § 1.2). But to allow specialists to corroborate the translation, the source language version must also be included.

- ◆ For foreign terms, the original is included in parentheses immediately following the English (see § 1.2.4.2 – § 1.2.4.2 for further formatting guidelines).
- ◆ The source language version of translated quotations may be in parentheses immediately following the English (without quotation marks) or in the corresponding footnote (in quotation marks).¹⁰
- ◆ If the source language version of the quotation is placed in a footnote, the bibliographic citation follows the original quotation.¹¹

¹⁰ If there is a compelling, subjective reason to emphasize the source language quotation in lieu of the English translation, their relative placement may be switched while all other formatting would remain the same.

¹¹ If it is the English translation rather than the source language version of the quotation that appears in the footnote, it would follow rather than precede the bibliographic citation.

- ◆ Unlike for foreign terms, the source language version of translated quotations are not italicized whether in-line or in the footnote.
- ◆ The source language versions of longer materials or of formatted verse may be collected in an appendix to avoid overlong footnotes.

1.5.4 *Footnote References*

Footnote reference numbers immediately follow quoted material and are otherwise placed at the end of sentences or clauses such that they do not interrupt the flow of the sentence. They generally follow punctuation marks with the exception of dashes.

In the case that more than one source is cited in a single sentence, multiple references should be combined into a single footnote.

For exceptions and extenuating circumstances, see *Chicago*, §14.19–23.

1.5.5 *Citation and Documentation Style*

Preferred practices for citing and documenting sources vary among academic disciplines. Authors at the Institute should confer with their academic advisors and select an appropriate, standard style for citing sources from the list below:

- ◆ The *Chicago* “Notes-Bibliography” (NB) citation system is the standard for history, anthropology, the arts, and other humanities. It is also widely used in the publishing industry outside of academia.
- ◆ The American Psychological Association (APA) style is the standard for sociology, business, economics, international relations, medicine, and education.
- ◆ The Modern Language Association (MLA) style is the standard for literature, literary criticism, philosophy, and other humanities.

The citation style chosen must be consistent throughout the manuscript and must conform to the latest version of the respective style guide. The format of entries in the list of references, works cited, and/or the bibliography must correspond to the citation style. Hybrid or improvised documentation styles are *not* permitted.

Authors should pay particular attention to subtleties such as:

- ◆ Bibliographic form used in footnotes vis-à-vis the bibliography.
- ◆ Shortened citation form.¹²
- ◆ Consecutive references to the same source.

Numerous online sources that explain each of these systems in detail – of course, none as comprehensively as the manuals themselves:

- ◆ In *The Chicago Manual of Style, 16th Edition*, Chapter 14 describes and illustrates the NB system in detail.
- ◆ In the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 6th Edition*, Chapter 6 describes the mechanics of citation and documentation, while Chapter 7 provides an exhaustive list of annotated examples.
- ◆ In the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers, 7th Edition*, Chapter 5 explains the list of works cited, while Chapter 6 explains how to reference those sources in the text.

§ 1.6 Word Choice

1.6.1 Commonly Confused Words

- ◆ ACCEPT: to receive, affirm, or tolerate
EXCEPT: to exclude; or as a conjunction – points to something excluded
- ◆ AFFECT: to influence or induce; or rarely as a noun – an observed emotion
EFFECT: a result or consequence; or rarely as a verb – to accomplish
- ◆ CRITIC: a judge or commentator, often one with a negative assessment
CRITICISM: a careful, specific or general evaluation; also faultfinding
CRITIQUE: a careful interpretation or evaluation
- ◆ ECONOMIC: relating to the economy or the study of economics
ECONOMICAL: prudent or thrifty

12 Authors at the Institute using the *Chicago* NB style must include information in full for all cited sources in the bibliography, so the shortened citation form may be used in notes, even at the first mention of a source. See § 14.18 of *Chicago*.

- ◆ EXTEND: to enlarge, to lengthen, or to prolong
EXTENT: a limit or amount
- ◆ ITS: third person, neuter, singular possessive determiner and pronoun
IT'S: contraction of *it is*. Should be spelled out in formal writing.
- ◆ PASSED: to go by, to undergo, or to have completed successfully
PAST: time gone by; or as an adjective – something no longer existing
- ◆ THEIR: third person, plural possessive determiner
THERE: a place or position
THEY'RE: contraction of *they are*. Should be spelled out in formal writing.
- ◆ TO: generally a preposition
TOO: also, in addition, very
TWO: the number, 2
- ◆ YOUR: second person, plural possessive determiner.¹³
YOU'RE: contraction of *you are*. Should be spelled out in formal writing.

1.6.2 *Language to Avoid*

1.6.2.1 Qualifiers

Qualifiers subtly express the extent of an author's certainty with regard to a given phenomenon, which when done deliberately is called hedging. In addition to certainty, qualifiers can convey degrees of necessity, possibility, quantity, quality, and time.

If qualified modifiers (like *some* or *many*) are overused or compounded, they leave the reader with the impression that the author lacks confidence in his or her argument and is shirking responsibility. If absolute qualifiers (like *every* or *never*) are used without supporting evidence, the reader may think the author is bluffing. On the whole, qualifiers can render a text tedious and inappropriately informal; indeed, many writers advise against them altogether.¹⁴

Some of the qualifiers listed in figure 6.1 are best omitted, while others can be better expressed with tighter language. Authors will need to evaluate them case by case.

¹³ As a general point of style, second person is not typically used in academic writing.

¹⁴ In *The Elements of Style*, E. B. White contends: "Rather, very, little, pretty – these are the leeches that infest the pond of prose, sucking the blood of words."

FIGURE 6.1 Qualifiers.

absolutely ‡	infrequently	quite*
abundantly	kind of †	rarely
actually*	likely	rather*
all ‡	literally*	really*
always ‡	a little †	repeatedly
appears	a lot †	roughly
barely	many	seem*
basically*	may*	seldom
best ‡	may be*	should
a bit †	may have been*	simply*
commonly	maybe	slightly
completely ‡	might*	some
conceivably	might be*	somehow*
could	might have been*	sometimes*
countless	most ‡	somewhat*
currently	mostly	sort of †
definitely ‡	much*	specific
doubtful	must ‡	sporadically
entirely ‡	never ‡	surprisingly*
essentially*	none ‡	tend*
excessively	now and again	theoretically*
extremely*	numerous	totally †
fairly*	occasionally	undoubtedly*
few	often	unique*
frequently	ought ‡	unlikely
fundamentally*	perfect ‡	usually*
generally	perhaps	utterly*
hardly †	physically*	various
have to ‡	possible	vastly*
immensely	possibly	very*
impossible ‡	practically*	virtually*
improbable	pretty †	wholly*
in a way*	probable	worst ‡
individual	probably	

* Overused; best eliminated altogether

† Too colloquial for academic writing

‡ Absolute; needs corroborating evidence to support the claim

Intensifiers, in particular, are best communicated in English using lexicon – selective word choice – rather than an adverb. Consider:

very dirty squalid
rather small slight
fairly funny bemusing

That said, authors are urged to be prudent with the thesaurus and not to choose a word if they are unfamiliar with its meaning and usage.

1.6.2.2 Adverbs and Adjectives

Adjectives and adverbs are not necessarily problematic, but their over-use can both tire a reader and send a signal that the author did not bother to carefully select nouns and verbs.

- ♦ Eliminate modifiers that do not add value to a sentence.
- ♦ Select strong, descriptive nouns and verbs.

big house mansion
strong horse steed
ran quickly sprinted

- ♦ Choose precise rather than banal modifiers.

economic policy fiscal policy
bad ruler ineffective ruler
fast swordsman nimble swordsman

Again, authors are urged to be prudent with the thesaurus and not to choose a word if they are unfamiliar with its meaning and usage.

1.6.2.3 Anonymous Authority

So-called *weasel words* and phrases gloss over the weakness of an argument by making reference to a unnamed or abstract authoritative source. This list is not exhaustive.

arguably...	famous...
award-winning...	it is known...
clearly...	it is said...
common sense has it...	it stands to reason...
everyone knows...	it turns out...
evidence shows...	more than ...
experience shows...	most people agree...

official...	reportedly...
popular wisdom has it...	the vast majority...
questions have been raised...	up to...
reason dictates...	well-known...

If supported with evidence, argumentation, and clarification, some of these turns of phrase may be acceptable for stylistic purposes.

1.6.2.4 Colloquialisms and Casual Speech

Colloquial and casual expressions are rarely appropriate for the tone of academic writing. Moreover, such expressions become farcical when used frequently. This list is not exhaustive.

above board	it a nutshell
all intents and purposes	on the agenda
bear fruit	part and parcel
easier said than done	pave the way
explore every avenue	pay lip service
find out	shadow of a doubt
get out of hand	stuff
get through	stumbling block
got	thing(s)
happy medium	would of
in recent years	and so on

1.6.2.5 Metalinguage

Stylistically, it is best to keep metalinguage (references to the structure of your text or to other, relative locations in your own text) to a minimum in English academic writing, although it is fine in that part of an introduction where the chapters are outlined.

When it is absolutely necessary to refer to other locations in your own text, there is a choice to either a) consistently use the present tense or b) consistently use the past tense for things mentioned previously in the text and the future tense for things that will be mentioned later in the text. Consistently using the present tense is preferable because for the reader, the text exists in their present.

1.6.2.6 Personal Language

In general, it is convention to keep all personal (first person) language to a minimum in English academic writing.

Since theses and dissertations are not coauthored, the first-person plural is not appropriate to indicate the author. Moreover, using the first-person plural to “include” the reader is too informal for academic writing.

If the first person cannot be avoided, the singular form is used.

1.6.2.7 Other Words to Avoid

- ◆ ATTEMPT: with respect to one’s own work, an author who writes “this thesis attempts to...” betrays a lack of confidence. Moreover, authors should use this construction with regard to other academics’ works only if they intend to cast doubt about the other scholars’ conclusions.
- ◆ DWELL: to dwell on something means to obsess about it at length and negatively – not something a thesis or dissertation ought to do.
- ◆ HERE: as in “the issue here is.” Filler.
- ◆ IN ORDER TO: the preposition *to* suffices.
- ◆ JUST: as in “if one just considers.” Filler.
- ◆ NOW: as in “the argument now turns to...” Filler.
- ◆ IT/THERE: as in sentences starting with “there is,” “it is,” or “there are.” The basic structure of such sentences should be reconsidered.
- ◆ INTERESTING: unverifiable, and therefore uninteresting.
- ◆ SERVES TO/HELPS TO: likely some form of reification (see § 73).

1.6.3 *Language to Use*

The Academic Word List (AWL) developed by linguist Averil Coxhead is maintained online at the Simple English Wiktionary. It is an ordered list of English words commonly used in academic contexts.

Figure 6.2 is a set of words authors may use to precisely discuss or report on the work of other academics.

FIGURE 6.2 Reporting Verbs for Academic Use.

accentuates	considers	guesses	proves
accepts	contends	highlights	questions
accuses	contradicts	holds	realizes
acknowledges	contrasts	hopes	reasons
adds	convinces	hypothesizes	recognizes
admits	criticizes	identifies	recommends
advises	critiques	ignores	refutes
advocates	debates	illustrates	rejects
agrees	declares	imagines	remarks
alerts	defines	implies	reminds
alleges	denies	infers	reports
analyses	describes	informs	requests
announces	disagrees	insists	restates
apologizes	discards	instructs	reveals
applauds	disclaims	interprets	scrutinizes
appraises	discounts	intimates	shows
argues	discovers	investigates	speculates
articulates	discusses	justifies	states
asserts	dismisses	knows	stresses
assesses	disputes	lists	studies
assures	disregards	maintains	subscribes to
attacks	doubts	mentions	suggests
believes	emphasizes	negates	supports
blames	encourages	notes	tells
boasts	estimates	objects to	theorizes
challenges	evaluates	observes	thinks
claims	examines	opposes	threatens
clarifies	exhorts	outlines	underscores
comments	explains	persuades	understands
compares	explores	points out	upholds
complains	expresses	posits	urges
concedes	extols	postulates	uses
concludes	feels	praises	warns
concurs	finds	presents	wonder
confirms	forbids	professes	
confuses	forgets	promises	
congratulates	guarantees	proposes	

§ 1.7 Grammar and Argument

1.7.1 *Verb Tenses*

1.7.1.1 Simple Past

The simple past tense is used to describe the author's research methods and results (but present tenses are used to discuss the implications of those results).

I consulted archives in Çanakkale and New Zealand but found no conclusive evidence for the common belief among scholars that Atatürk penned the line about “the Johnnies and the Meh-mets.” This suggests that the standards of scholarship for the historiography of the Republican Period have been lax.

Experiments, surveys, and other research practices are referred to in the past tense, but also consider the second set of examples in § 1.7.1.2.

After he analyzed the methods by which Hilmi Paşa collected his data, Justin McCarthy ...

In a survey he conducted in 1982, Bourdieu ...

The past tense is used for the contents, findings, and conclusions of scholars that are the *subject* of your research – that is, those contemporaneous with the historical period about which you are writing. (Indeed, verb tense is the way to distinguish between your subjects and your own contemporaries in an intellectual history.)

“Faroghi claims...” – but – “Ahmed Cevdet Pasha wrote...”

For historians narrating events in the past, the simple past is of course the appropriate tense.

The Grand National Assembly convened on April 23, 1920, and ushered in a provisional regime that would govern through the end of the Turkish War of Independence.

1.7.1.2 Simple Present

The present tense is used for background information, generalization, interpretation, and discussion.

The fact that many within the Young Turk government fought for a treaty with the Triple Entente suggests that the alliance with the Central Powers was no *fait accompli*.

Statements, claims, and findings by academics with whom your work is in dialogue (those still considered valid and open to debate) should be referred to in the present tense, even though their research practices are referred to in the past tense (see the second set of examples in § 1.7.1.1).

After he analyzed the methods by which Hilmi Paşa collected his data, Justin McCarthy determines that the word *census* is a misnomer.

In a survey he conducted in 1982, Bourdieu finds...

1.7.1.3 Present Perfect

The present perfect tense is used to report previous research generally, as well as to indicate change over time.

Hagiographies have postulated that Atatürk's charisma alone was sufficient to mobilize the Ottoman forces in Anatolia. Recent sociological studies, by contrast, have improved our understanding of how he leveraged key, weak links in his social network.

Historians should note, this is a present tense and is not used when narrating events in the past.

1.7.1.4 Past Continuous (for Historians)

When narrating events in the past, the past continuous is used to describe action that was ongoing (i.e., not yet complete) when some other event took place.

He was addressing the National Assembly when a clerk brought the news of Enver Paşa's death.

1.7.1.5 Past Perfect (for Historians)

When narrating events in the past, the past perfect is used to relate events that took place even earlier than the general time frame of the narration.

By the time Mustafa Kemal landed at Samsun, the Greeks had already landed in Smyrna and the Italians in Antalya.

1.7.2 *Passive Voice*

The passive voice often conceals the agent of the action in a sentence, which is counter to the task of academic writing to bring the agency and mechanisms of causation within a chain of events to light.

As a general rule, authors should knowingly choose when to employ the passive voice, keeping in mind that the passive voice:

- ◆ is de facto indirect; from the point of view of style, its overuse is tedious to read, as if an author is avoiding making a concrete statement.
- ◆ can be ambiguous, leaving the reader to guess which among a set of actors is responsible for the action.
- ◆ confounds the clear understanding of agency and causation that is provided by sentences in the active voice.
- ◆ suggests a deficiency in an author's research or theory when a sentence is vague about the agent responsible for the action.
- ◆ can inadvertently introduce subtle [political] biases into a text.

By way of example, consider the following examples:

The ANZACS stormed Gallipoli's shores, initially mowing down the out-manned Ottoman forces. Countless Allied troops were killed on the beaches, as well.

The grammar of this passage makes clear that the ANZACS are directly culpable for the routing Ottoman forces, but the reader is left to infer the agent responsible for the equally unpleasant gunning down of Allied troops. The grammatical construction leads the reader to question why the author does not deal with the issue directly. Is the matter unresolved or controversial? Has the author simply not done the research? Or is the author biased toward the Ottoman soldiers and hiding their complicity?

During truces, Turkish soldiers shared their cigarettes and drinks. They accepted magazines and calling cards in return.

In this passage, Turkish soldiers actively share and accept gifts; the ANZACS are not commended for anything. The use of the passive voice is both ambiguous (it is unclear if the Turkish soldiers shared gifts only amongst themselves or with their counterparts from Australia and New Zealand, as well) and also biased (the ANZACS were active participants in the horrors of war in the previous passage, but they are passive during moments of humanity; the mere choice of grammatical voice places the Ottomans in a favorable light).

1.7.2.1 Appropriate Uses of the Passive Voice

UNKNOWN OR IRRELEVANT ACTORS

When the specific agent in a sentence is not known or is tangential to the point of the sentence, the passive voice is employed.

Oil had been discovered in the Ottoman vilayets of Mosul and Baghdad decades before several, large German and British conglomerates joined to form the Turkish Petroleum Company.

The exact parties that originally discovered the oil are perhaps unknown and – more importantly – inconsequential to the discussion of the international company formed to exploit those petroleum deposits.

EMPHASIS

If an author has reason to emphasize the object or recipient of the action, the passive voice may be employed.

The conspiratorial treaty was signed behind closed doors by Hans von Wangenheim, the German Ambassador to Istanbul, and İsmail Enver Paşa, the Ottoman Minister of War.

Note that the actors are mentioned in the prepositional phrase, so the sentence is not vague with regard to the agents of the action. Nevertheless, this type of passive construction is tedious when overused; authors should apply it judiciously.

CONVENTION

Conventional practice in some scientific disciplines has been to describe work undertaken by the authors themselves in the passive voice, though this practice is falling out of favor. Authors should choose to use either the active or passive voice for this purpose and be consistent.

In the case the passive voice is used, the context must make clear whether the author or some other scholar is responsible for the work. In other words, a statement like:

Archival research was conducted at the Imperial Ottoman Bank...
must never leave open the question: by whom? The present author?
Or some other academics?

1.7.3 *Reification and Metonymy*

1.7.3.1 Reification (and Anthropomorphism)

Reification is a logical fallacy whereby an abstraction, concept, or theory is taken for granted in the context of an argument.

Religion upholds negative liberty, while modern democracy believes in the positive exercise of freedom.

Local politics and gerrymandering aside, globalization and gentrification have wreaked havoc on Beyoğlu's urban development over the last decade.

Late capitalism has brought about antagonism between Istanbul's old, urban elites and recent immigrants from the hinterlands.

In each case, a social or theoretical construct (religion, democracy, globalization, gentrification, and "late" capitalism) is treated as real and is the actor in the sentence, masking actual agents and mechanisms of causation and leading the reader to question the author's objectivity.¹⁵

While reification is a type of metaphor often used in natural language and literature for stylistic purposes, in academic writing it is

¹⁵ In the first example, democracy is doubly reified: the word *believe* anthropomorphizes the concept (i.e., the verb supplies the inanimate concept with an exclusively human characteristic or capability).

considered a lapse in the logic of an argument. Statements such as those above are only justified if the theoretical constructs are concurrently defined in terms of demonstrable, really-existing causal mechanisms.

1.7.3.2 Metonymy

A metonym is a figure of speech wherein a concept or institution is called by the name of an associated object or place.

René Massigli ruffled feathers at the Quai d'Orsay, so his superiors subsequently reassigned him Turkey.¹⁶

When a metonym is the actor in a sentence, it may conceal actual agents and oversimplify the machinery driving the action of the sentence.

The metonym *Sublime Porte* can stand in for diverse, sometimes contentious bureaucratic organs of the Ottoman government. But to argue that the Sublime Porte took this or that action may obfuscate the complexity of the institutions and processes for which the metonym stands in, suggesting a deficiency in an author's research or theory.

16 Quai d'Orsay being the physical address of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Paris.

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