

# International Policy Review - Style Guide

## Essentials:

In the International Policy Review (IPR), we will use **EB Garamond** (widely used for journals) for the main text and **Gill Sans** for headings, tables, and figures (as these two go well together). The letter size should be 11, the spacing 1.5, and ideally there should be 50-60 characters per line for optimal reading. Ultimately, we use the **17th edition of the Chicago Manual of Style (CMOS)** for both effective writing and as a citation method with its notes and bibliography system and shortened footnotes.

The IPR as a whole will use American English spelling rather than British English. When in doubt, please google both word options for an explanation. Generally, American English has fewer letters (neighbor vs neighbour and oriented vs orientated). We use the **Merriam-Webster Dictionary**.

If you have any questions, please contact write at [ipr.club@ie.edu](mailto:ipr.club@ie.edu)

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# Mission of the IE International Policy Review

**Our mission is**

- 1) **for students to study and understand current affairs and policy**
  - a) and draw implications from,
  - b) create recommendations for,
  - c) and evaluate innovative and contemporary policy,

- i) national and international,
  - ii) real and potential,
- 2) **and for students to collectively bring awareness to policy and contribute to international academic research**
- 3) **by managing a student-led and-published academic journal**
  - a) in conjunction with organizing a website, social media presence, and events.

We need the commitment and involvement of all team members. It is the responsibility of the writers to ensure the credibility and veracity of information. Together, we can provide quality, sound, and timely content.

## Purpose of a Style Guide

A style guide is a collection of guidelines and rules that standardize written works within a specific academic field or industry. “[R]eaders from any university (or other audience groups) can read a paper written in APA style and know immediately how to navigate the headings of the paper, which details will be listed in the abstract, how quotes will be introduced and marked, where to look for important citation information, and what each citation element represents.”<sup>1</sup>

Furthermore, “[s]ome journals or other publishing venues use specific in-house styles. These are usually indicated with a set of rules on the journal’s website or in a downloadable PDF — you can look for pages such as “Author Guidelines,” “Instructions for Authors,” “Submission Guidelines,” etc. In some cases, in-house style will be just a few modifications on a more widely-used style guide, like requiring APA 7th edition but asking authors to list full names for sources cited in-text rather than just the last name.”<sup>2</sup>

The 17th edition of the Chicago Manual of Style.

## The Writing Process

The writing process is made up of **six distinct stages**:

- 1) making a commitment to contribute a written work
- 2) presenting a research proposal
- 3) generating the first paragraph of the written work
- 4) developing the first draft of the work

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<sup>1</sup> “[Avoiding Plagiarism: Style Guide Overview](#),” Purdue University, accessed February 16, 2022.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid.

- 5) settling the final draft of the work
- 6) publishing the work

The six stages are elaborated below.

**1) commitment**

- All interested parties must agree to abide by the IPR Bylaws.
- Contributors will be assigned to editors.
- Editors will undergo training.

**2) research proposal (RP)**

- The RP is an essential part of the writing process, as it establishes the foundation upon which a contributor will develop their written work; it also helps the assigned editor(s) to understand where the contributor is coming from and guide any future input, comments and edits.
- The RP is made up of the following sections: (i) Title/Topic; (ii) Introduction/Background; (iii) Problem Statement/Research Question; (iv) Objectives; (v) Preliminary Bibliography and (vi) Methodology.
- How should a contributor go about selecting a topic to write about?
  - The contributor should ensure that the topic matter is both contemporary and can be tied to innovative policies. These policies should be evaluated and/or recommended, and implications should be drawn from them as well.

**3) first paragraph**

- In order to begin work on the first paragraph, the research proposal must be approved by the contributor's assigned editor.

**4) first draft**

- The first draft must be as complete as possible; in other words, it should be able to be published, but for the intervention of editors and AAB professors, who will have the opportunity to amplify its quality as necessary.
- Unreliable and open-source information should not be relied upon.
- See the section Journal Structure for more information regarding types of written works.

**5) final draft**

- In this stage, editors will standardize the written works according to the IPR Article Template, ensure that Search Engine Optimization (SEO) requirements are fulfilled and that visual content does not infringe copyright.

**6) publication**

## Essential Writing and Content Guidelines

Please always remember that the first requirement of IPR for a writer is that their work should be easily understandable. Our readers will vary from academic experts, professors, to the average IE student.

## Writing Guidelines

We follow George Orwell's six elementary rules from "Politics and the English Language", 1946:

1. Never use a metaphor, simile or other figures of speech which you are used to seeing in print.
2. Never use a long word where a short one will do.
3. If it is possible to cut out a word, always cut it out.
4. Never use the passive where you can use the active.
5. Never use a foreign phrase, a scientific word or a word of jargon if you can think of an everyday English equivalent.
6. Break any of these rules sooner than say anything outright barbarous.

## Paragraphs

Paragraphs should be coherent to an argument. Think of Fowler's definition: "The paragraph is essentially a unit of thought, not of length; it must be homogeneous in subject matter and sequential in treatment."

According to George Orwell, with every written sentence a writer should ask themselves at least four questions.

Take these steps with every sentence, argument, and paragraph you write.

1. What am I trying to say?
2. What words will express it?
3. What image or idiom will make it clearer?
4. Is this image fresh enough to have an effect?
5. Could I put it more shortly?
6. Have I said anything that is avoidably ugly?"

## Content Guidelines

**IPR contributions should be balanced.** They should spark debate among experts but also engage and inform a general reader. Articles should be driven by data, sound arguments, and original reportage.

Before starting to work on a contribution, contributors should read previously published work to see how papers should be structured and in what style they are written.

**Contributions should not be about obvious, popular topics.** Essays that analyze what thousands have spoken about or that conclude an obvious statement about a specific occurrence will likely not be published. For example, it is difficult to add value with contributions such as "Brexit is a Political Mess" or "The Inefficiency of Trade Wars." This does not mean contributions need to be perfectly new, but that they should avoid repetitive topics and arguments.

**Ensure topics are valuable to the overall international policy sphere.** If a contribution is about a political or economic situation in Madrid but does not have any relevance to someone in Paris, it probably does not belong in this journal.

**Following the previous point, contributions should not merely speak about a policy regarding ‘us’ against ‘them’.** Pieces that discuss how Spain’s interests in Morocco have changed do not appeal to a larger international audience. On the other hand, if the piece analyzes how Spain’s changing policy towards Morocco affects the political and economic relations between Northern African nations and Europe it would be considered publication-worthy.

**Contributors will be responsible for the honesty of their work.** To facilitate this, contributors need to provide appropriate citations for any facts or quotations their pieces contain.

**Search Engine Optimization (SEO).** We would like our content to be seen, and one important way to do so is by having our content be highly ranked in search engine results. Contributors should develop a key phrase that they will use multiple times in their works, including the title, in the exact same way (same words). See more information in the SEO section.

**Images.** Images should come from open-source websites to prevent the possibility of copyright infringement.

Unless otherwise informed, we assume any contribution submitted to IPR is being offered exclusively and that **no piece accepted for publication will be simultaneously published elsewhere in any form** without our knowledge. This includes previously used essays or presentations for any classes. (You can use previously submitted essays upon approval).

## **Paper Style and Usage**

In the following pages, style and usage rules are listed alphabetically.

## Abbreviations and Acronyms

### Abbreviations

Outside the area of science and technology, abbreviations and symbols are most appropriate in tabular material, notes, bibliographies, and parenthetical references. Use periods with abbreviations that end in a lowercase letter: p. (page), vol., e.g., i.e., etc., a.m., p.m., Ms., Dr..

### Acronyms

Acronyms should be spelled out in full when used for the first time.

## Addresses

When writing addresses, it is acceptable to write the numerics for a street number instead of spelling the number out. Avoid abbreviating, for example, St., Ave., Rd. should be Street, Avenue, Road.

## Ages

See Numbers.

## Capitalization

Capitalize at the start of a sentence, at the beginning of a quote (if applicable), and when using proper nouns (names, cities, monuments).

## Cities

See Names of Places.

## Contractions

Do **not** use contractions. 'Don't and can't' should be written as 'do not and cannot'. Keep in mind the exceptions such as possessives ('Daniel's book and Spain's policy' does not need to become 'Daniel his book



and Spain its policy’).

## Dates

**Days and Months:** When writing month and days spell out the month and use numbers for the day: “The symposium took place April 2.” Avoid the use of numbers for the month, as in “1/2/2011,” which could be read as either January 2 or February 1.

**Years:** When writing the month, day, and year, set off the year with matching commas. Otherwise, don’t use commas. “The morning of June 12, 1964, the sun rose early”; “February 2009 was particularly cold.”

**Decades:** When referring to a decade, do not use an apostrophe between the year and final s: “Macrame was popular in the 1970s.” If you omit the first part of the year, use an apostrophe to indicate the missing digits: “Goth music got its start in the ’80s.” If you spell out the decade, capitalize it: “The Sixties were a time of change.”

## Dimensions and Distance

When referring to dimensions and distances, spell out the unit of measurement in full. For example, write *kilometers* instead of *kms*. For consistency’s sake, please use the metric system for all units of measurement (celcius, kilometers, meters).

See Numbers for more information.

## Italic, Bold, and underline

The use of italic and bold highlights are acceptable where appropriate. But never underline.

The use of (sub) headers is encouraged.

## Names

### Personal Names and Titles

Abbreviations should not be used in personal names unless they appear thus in signatures (e.g., Benj. Franklin) or in quoted text. Civil or military titles used with the surname alone should be spelled out (e.g., General Washington); with full names, the titles may be abbreviated (e.g., Sen. Howard M. Metzenbaum). Always abbreviate Mr., Mrs., Messrs., Ms., M., MM., Mme, Mlle, and Dr.

### Names of Places

The names of states, territories, cities, countries, etc. should always be given in full when standing alone. When they follow the name of a city or some other geographical term, they should be spelled out.

## Numbers

In nontechnical contexts, Chicago always advises (besides the exception below in this section) **spelling out whole numbers from zero through one hundred** and certain round multiples of those numbers. For example:

- Thirty-two children from eleven families were packed into eight vintage Beetles.
- Many people think that seventy is too young to retire.
- The property is held on a ninety-nine-year lease.
- According to a recent appraisal, my house is 103 years old.
- The three new parking lots will provide space for 540 more cars.
- The population of our village now stands at 5,893.

When a number begins a sentence, it is always spelled out. Write out the whole number without “and” (so no one hundred and ten). For example:

- One hundred ten candidates were accepted or In all, 110 candidates were accepted.

The **exception** is when writing million and billion: Always use numbers and spell out the words million and billion (so not seven billion but 7 billion). This does not apply to hundred or thousand.

### Percentages

When using percentages: always use numbers and when possible, the word percent. In space-constrained contexts such as tables, the % symbol can be used.

## Pitfalls

### Redundancy

A **redundancy** is any kind of repetition. Some common redundancies are:

- Actual fact – A fact is by definition something that has already been confirmed to have happened.
- Forever and ever – Ever is completely unnecessary as it just serves as a duplicate of forever.
- Major breakthrough – A breakthrough is already major and significant.

A redundancy can happen with two words as shown above but also within phrases, sentences, paragraphs, and entire books. For example, when in sentence A you explain that the United States is the world's hegemon and then continue to explain in sentence B that no other country is as powerful as the United States. This would be a redundancy across sentences. Overall, these are more tricky but can be tackled by editing your sentences to only say something new and valuable.

### Tautology and Pleonasm

**Tautology** and **pleonasm** are redundancies within phrases.

A **tautology** refers to phrasing that repeats a single meaning in identical words: "They followed each other one after the other in succession". A tautology repeats something that means exactly the same (A equals A). Another example is the famous phrase by Bon Jovi: "I want to live while I am alive".

A **pleonasm** is the use of more words than is necessary for clear expression. For example: "I saw it with my own eyes" or "I ate a tuna fish". I saw implies you used your eyes to see and tuna is the name of a fish. Thus my own eyes and fish are pleonastic.

### Oxymoron

An **oxymoron** is a figure of speech in which two opposite ideas are joined to create an effect. For example, "bright darkness" or "deafening silence". Some are used often such as "original copies", "liquid gas", and "open secret". Some oxymorons have become figures of speech such as "love-hate relationship", "old news", or "alone in the crowd". Watch out with using oxymorons and highlight them as a figure of speech if you do.

### Paradox

A **paradox** is a statement or proposition which, despite sound (or apparently sound) reasoning from acceptable premises, leads to a conclusion that seems logically unacceptable or self-contradictory. For example:

- Waking is dreaming
- Less is more
- This is the beginning of the end

Avoid using paradoxes in your writing unless the paradox is part of a quote.

## Words and Phrases

There should be modern English usage of words and phrases. Examples are below. For more examples and guidance, please see the CMOS.

**ability; capability; capacity.** **Ability** refers to a person's physical or mental power or skill to do something {the ability to ride a bicycle}. **Capability** refers more generally to power or ability to do something challenging {she has the capability to play soccer professionally} or to the quality of being able to use or be used in a certain way {a jet with long-distance-flight capability}. **Capacity** refers especially to a vessel's ability to hold or contain something {a high capacity fuel tank}. Used figuratively, capacity refers especially to a person's physical or mental power to learn {an astounding capacity for mathematics}. It can also be used as a synonym for ability {capacity for love}, as a formal word for someone's job, position, or role {in an advisory capacity}, as a word denoting an amount that can be produced or dealt with {full capacity}, or as a means of denoting size or power {engine capacity}.

**all (of).** Delete the **of** whenever possible {all the houses} {all my children}. The most common exception occurs when all of precedes a non possessive pronoun {all of us} {all of them}.

**and/or.** Avoid this Janus-faced term. It can often be replaced by and or or with no loss in meaning. Where it seems needed {take a sleeping pill and/or a warm drink}, try... or..., or both {take a sleeping pill or a warm drink, or both}. But think of other possibilities {take a sleeping pill, perhaps with a warm drink}.

**by means of.** Often verbose. Use by or with if either one suffices.

**compare.** To **compare with** is to discern both similarities and differences between things. To **compare to** is to liken things or to note primarily similarities between them, especially in the active voice {Are you comparing me to him? I hope not!}.

**differ from; differ with.** **Differ from** is the usual construction denoting a contrast {the two species differ from each other in subtle ways}. **Differ with** regards differences of opinion {the state's senators differ with each other on many issues}.

**humanitarian.** This word means "involving the promotion of human welfare" {humanitarian philanthropy}. Avoid using it in a phrase such as the worst humanitarian disaster in decades, where it really means just "human."

**in order to; in order for.** Often these expressions can be reduced to to and for. When that is so, and rhythm and euphony are preserved or even heightened, use to or for.

**irregardless.** An error. Use regardless (or possibly irrespective).

**less; fewer.** Reserve **less** for singular mass nouns or amounts {less salt} {less soil} {less water}. Reserve **fewer** for plural count nouns {fewer calories} {fewer people} {fewer suggestions}.

**that; which.** These are both relative pronouns. In polished American prose, **that** is used restrictively to narrow a category or identify a particular item being talked about {any building that is taller must be outside the state}; **which** is used nonrestrictively—not to narrow a class or identify a particular item but to add something about an item already identified {alongside the officer trotted a toy poodle, which is hardly a typical police dog}. Which is best used restrictively only when it is preceded by a preposition {the situation in which we find ourselves}. Nonrestrictively, it is almost always preceded by a comma, a parenthesis, or a dash. (In British English, writers and editors seldom observe the distinction between the two words.) Is it a useful distinction? Yes. The language inarguably benefits from having a terminological as well as a punctuational means of telling a restrictive from a nonrestrictive relative pronoun, punctuation often being ill-heeded. Is it acceptable to use **that** in reference to people? Is *friends that arrive early* an acceptable alternative to *friends who arrive early*? The answer is yes. **Person that** has long been considered good idiomatic English. Even so, **person who** is nearly three times as common as **person that** in edited English.

**toward; towards.** The preferred form in American English is **toward**: this has been so since about 1900. In British English, **towards** predominates. The same is true for other directional words, such as upward, downward, forward, and backward, as well as afterward. The use of **afterwards** and **backwards** as adverbs is neither rare nor incorrect (and is preferred in British English). For the sake of consistency, many American editors prefer the shorter forms without the final s.

**unique.** Reserve this word for the sense “one of a kind.” Avoid it in the sense “special, unusual.” Phrases such as **very unique**, **more unique**, **somewhat unique**, and so on—in which a degree is attributed to **unique**—aren’t the best usage.

**unlawful; illegal; illicit; criminal.** This list is in ascending order of negative connotation. An **unlawful** act may even be morally innocent (for example, letting a parking meter expire). But an **illegal** act is something that society formally condemns, and an **illicit** act calls to mind moral degeneracy {illicit drug use}. Unlike **criminal**, the first three terms can apply to civil wrongs.

**whether.** Generally, use **whether** alone—not with the words **or not** tacked on {they didn’t know whether to go}. The **or not** is necessary only when you mean to convey the idea “regardless of whether” {we’ll finish on time whether or not it rains}.

## Possessives

See Apostrophe.

## Prefixes

Compounds formed with prefixes are normally closed, whether they are nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. A hyphen should appear, however,

- (1) before a capitalized word or a numeral, such as sub-Saharan, pre-1950;
- (2) before a compound term, such as non-self-sustaining, pre-Vietnam War (before an open compound, an en dash is used);
- (3) to separate two i's, two a's, and other combinations of letters or syllables that might cause misreading, such as anti-intellectual, extra-alkaline, pro-life';
- (4) to separate the repeated terms in a double prefix, such as sub-subentry;
- (5) when a prefix or combining form stands alone, such as over- and underused, macro- and microeconomics.

[Spellings should] conform largely to Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary. Compounds formed with combining forms not listed here, such as auto, tri, and para, follow the same pattern.

Prefix <sup>3</sup>	Guidance	Example
anti-	Use a hyphen with: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Letters;</li> <li>• Names;</li> <li>• Words beginning with "i";</li> <li>• Two-words compounds used as adjectives</li> </ul>	anti-HBs, anti-Bitis-Echis-Naja serum, anti-icteric, anti-gas gangrene serum
co-	A hyphen can be used as an aid to reading if the following word starts with a vowel. Do not insert a hyphen into well-established words. See examples.	co-ordinate, co-author, co-exist, co-intervention  comorbidity, coincidence, coalesce, coercion
inter-	Use a hyphen for compounds that are not used commonly. Otherwise, do not use a hyphen, even if the following word starts with 'r'.	inter-group, international, interrelate
intra-	Use a hyphen if following word starts with 'a'.	intra-abdominal, intra-acinar
meta-	Use a hyphen if following word starts with a vowel	meta-analysis, metastasis
micro-	Either joined to the word it modifies or uses a hyphen (it does not stand alone)	microbiology, microcirculation, microfilaria, micro-organism (UK spelling),

<sup>3</sup> "[Cochrane Style Manual](#)," Cochrane Community, accessed February 22, 2022.

		microorganism (US spelling)
mid-	Use a hyphen for all words that have 'mid-' as a prefix, except for common words that are never hyphenated (e.g. midnight)	mid-urethral, mid-term, mid-treatment  midnight, midwif
mini-	Either joined to the word it modifies or uses a hyphen (it does not stand alone)	minitracheostomy, mini-mental state examination
multi-	Either joined to the word it modifies or uses a hyphen (it does not stand alone)	multicentre, multi-agency
non-	Hyphenate if 'non' qualifies more than one word.  Use of hyphen is optional if 'non' qualifies only one word.  Do not use a hyphen with Latin phrases.  Note: Latin phrases should be avoided where possible	non-insulin dependent, non-profit making  non-smoker, nonviolent  materia non medica, non sequitur
post-	Either joined to the word it modifies or uses a hyphen if the following word starts with 't' (it does not stand alone)	postgraduate, postorbital, postoperative, post-treatment
pre-	A hyphen is normally used when the following word starts with 'e' or 'i'.  Established combinations are generally one word (except when the word begins with an 'e' or an 'i').  In other combinations, the hyphen is not necessary but is freely used if the compound is one made for the occasion (might be better to rephrase), or if any peculiarity in its form might prevent its elements from being instantly recognized.	pre-eclampsia, pre-embryo, pre-exist, pre-exposure, pre-install, pre-industrial  prearranged, prenatal, preoccupy, preschool, pre-empt  pre-medication, pre-tax, pre-war
re-	Use a hyphen if the following word starts with 'e'.  Rephrase when there would be confusion with another word.	re-edit, re-educate, re-establish, re-enter, re-enlist  re-cover (cover again) and recover (get better)
self-	All compound words with 'self' as a prefix should be hyphenated	self-limited self-confidence
semi-	Use a hyphen if the following word starts with 'i'.	semi-independent, semicolo

sub-	Use a hyphen if the following word starts with 'b'.	sub-basal, sub-breed (note: sub-Saharan is one exception)
un-	Words starting with 'un-' are generally one word.  Rephrase or use a hyphen when there would be confusion with another word.	unnoticeable, unopened, unpaid, unpick  unionized (with a union) and un-ionized (without ions)

## Punctuation

### Apostrophe

An apostrophe is used with contractions and also to indicate possession. Add an s to all single nouns and names, even if they already end in an s: “My boss’s vacation begins tomorrow.” The **exception** is if the noun or proper name itself is a plural: “The *Pentagon Papers*’ release was controversial.”

### Brackets

Square brackets (often simply called brackets) are used mainly to enclose material—usually added by someone other than the original writer—that does not form a part of the surrounding text. Specifically, in quoted matter, brackets enclose editorial interpolations, explanations, translations of terms from other languages, or corrections. For example:

- “Many CF [cystic fibrosis] patients have been helped by the new therapy.”
- Satire, Jebb tells us, “is the only [form] that has a continuous development.”

### Colons

A colon introduces an element or a series of elements illustrating or amplifying what has preceded the colon. Between independent clauses it functions much like a semicolon, and in some cases either mark may work as well as the other; use a colon sparingly, however, and only to emphasize that the second clause illustrates or amplifies the first. For example:

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

Capitalize the first word after a colon only if it is followed by a complete sentence: “The fact was undeniable: He was the only person still at work.” Otherwise, the first word is lowercase: “She loved only one thing: copyediting.”



## Commas

Comma: In lists of three or more items, use a comma before and or or: “The recipe called for flour, butter, and foie gras.” When there are only two items, do not use a comma: “He doesn’t eat anything but pizza and Twizzlers.”

## Hyphens

Hyphenate compound adjectives only if required for clarity: “fastest-growing company”; “high-level discussion.” Don’t use hyphens with commonly understood terms, adverbs that end in ly, and between figures and units of measure: instead use a space “greatly exaggerated claims”; “2 percent rule.”

## Parentheses

Parentheses—stronger than a comma and similar to the dash—are used to set off material from the surrounding text. Like dashes but unlike commas, parentheses can set off text that has no grammatical relationship to the rest of the sentence. For example:

- He suspected that the noble gases (helium, neon, etc.) could produce a similar effect.

## Periods

Period: Use only one space after the end of a sentence. Period.

## Question marks and exclamation points

The **question mark**, as its name suggests, is used to indicate a direct question. It may also be used to indicate editorial doubt or (occasionally) to express surprise, disbelief, or uncertainty at the end of a declarative or imperative sentence.

An indirect question never takes a question mark. For example:

- He wondered whether it was worth the risk.
- How the two could be reconciled was the question on everyone’s mind.

An **exclamation point** (which should be used sparingly to be effective) marks an outcry or an emphatic or ironic comment.

A sentence in the form of a direct question may be marked as rhetorical by the use of an exclamation point in place of a question mark. For example:

- How could you possibly believe that!
- When will I ever learn!

## Semicolons

In regular prose, a semicolon is most commonly used between two independent clauses not joined by a conjunction to signal a closer connection between them than a period would. For example:

- She spent much of her free time immersed in the ocean; no mere water-resistant watch would do.
- Though a gifted writer, Miqueas has never bothered to master the semicolon; he insists that half a colon is no colon at all.

## Slashes

A slash most commonly signifies alternatives. In certain contexts it is a convenient (if somewhat informal) shorthand for or. It is also used for alternative spellings or names. Where one or more of the terms separated by slashes is an open compound, a space before and after the slash can make the text more legible.

he/she

Hercules/Heracles

his/her

World War I / First World War

## Quotation marks

Periods and commas go inside the quote marks. “Reginald, your hairstyle makes me nervous,” she said.” The position of exclamation and question marks depends on what’s being questioned or exclaimed: “Was she right to say, ‘Your shoes are a joke?’”

## Race, Religion, Politics and Gender

To be determined.

## Pronouns

Refrain from using pronouns.

## Spelling

We will use the American version of English. Please refer to the Merriam-Webster dictionary. If in doubt about a word, visit <https://www.merriam-webster.com/>. (Please note the dictionary will still have an entry for British spelling but will merely state it is the British spelling and refer you to the appropriate American entry.)

## Time

Use lowercase a.m. and p.m., with periods. Always use numbers, with a space between the time and the a.m. or p.m. If it's an exact hour, no ":00" is required. "By 6:30 a.m. she was long gone." If a time range is entirely in the morning or evening, use a.m. or p.m. only once: "6:30–10 p.m." If it goes from the morning into the evening (or vice versa), you need both: "10 a.m.–2 p.m."

## Titles of Books, Poems, Etc.

Chicago prefers italics to set off the titles of major or freestanding works such as books, journals, movies, and paintings. This practice extends to cover the names of ships and other craft, species names, and legal cases. Quotation marks are usually reserved for the titles of subsections of larger works—including chapter and article titles and the titles of poems in a collection. Some titles—for example, of a book series or a website, under which any number of works or documents may be collected—are neither italicized nor placed in quotation marks.

## Voice: Active v Passive

**Active voice** means that a sentence has a subject that acts upon its verb. **Passive voice** means that a subject is a recipient of a verb's action. You may have learned that the passive voice is weak and incorrect, but it isn't that simple. When used correctly and in moderation, the passive voice is fine.

### Active Voice

When the subject of a sentence performs the verb's action, we say that the sentence is in the **active voice**. Sentences in the active voice have a strong, direct, and clear tone. For example:

1. Monkeys adore bananas.
2. The cashier counted the money.
3. The dog chased the squirrel.

## Passive Voice

A sentence is in the passive voice, on the other hand, when the subject is acted upon by the verb. The passive voice is always constructed with a conjugated form of *to be* plus the verb's past participle. Look how the same examples change their form:

1. Bananas are adored by monkeys.
2. The money was counted by the cashier.
3. The squirrel was chased by the dog.

## When to use active and passive voice

Using the active voice conveys a strong, clear tone and the passive voice is subtler and weaker. For papers in the International Policy Review don't use the passive voice just because you think it sounds a bit fancier than the active voice.

That said, there are times the passive voice is useful and called for. Take "The last remaining ISIS fighters were chased out of Northern Syria", for example. That sentence construction would be helpful if the ISIS fighters were the focus of your writing and not whomever chased them out. Another would be that "Some Ukrainian officials were harassed by US Democrats wanting to find more information for their impeachment inquiry." This use could make more sense if you are writing about the Ukrainian officials rather than the democrats.

Generally, for any of the papers, a good rule of thumb is to try to put the majority of your sentences in the active voice, unless you truly can't write your sentence in any other way.

## Citations

IPR will continue to follow the Chicago Manual of Style for footnotes, a bibliography system, and shortened notes, but with a slight difference: hyperlinks will be added to the titles in the citations in the footnotes.

A footnote is a number after the end of a sentence, in which someone's information or citation is given, that refers to the same number at the bottom of the page where the source is used. Once contributors have used a source, they can re-use it without having to give all the detailed information again by creating shortened notes. The bibliography includes all sources used in alphabetical order at the end of the paper.

Tip: **Microsoft Word** has a [built in bibliography and citation tool](#). **Google Docs** [as well](#).

## Use and examples of Chicago Style Citations

In Chicago style, footnotes or endnotes are used to reference pieces of work in the text.

- To cite from a source a superscript number is placed after a quote or a paraphrase. a. In Word go to “Insert -> Insert Footnotes” (Show screenshot).
- Citation numbers should appear in sequential order.
- Each number then corresponds to a footnote, appearing at the bottom of the page. a. Screenshot Word Example

Example: Cole found that “The bones were very fragile”<sup>4</sup>

It then refers to a numbered citation in the footnotes (check the bottom of this page).

### Footnotes

The first time the in-text reference is cited you must include, author’s first name, author’s last name, title, place of publication, publisher name, year and referenced pages.

- (1) James Smith, The first and last war, (New York, Hamilton, 2003),
- (2) Insert a hyperlink in the title of the referenced source. You can insert a hyperlink by copy and pasting the link, clicking on the link, pressing edit link (the little pencil), then changing the text of the link to the title of the referenced source.

### Shortened note

If the citation has already been cited it may be shortened to author’s last name, shortened title, and page referenced number.

Smith, The first, 220-221.

If the citation has been referenced immediately prior, the note may be shortened even further to *ibid* with the page number. e.g.

*Ibid.*, 786.

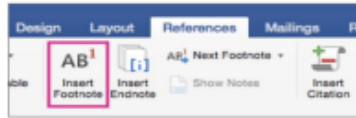
Tip: This is how to insert footnotes in Microsoft Word:

---

<sup>4</sup>Footnote appears here

## Add a footnote

1. Click where you want to add a footnote.
2. Click **References > Insert Footnote**.



Word inserts a reference mark in the text and adds the footnote mark at the bottom of the page.

3. Type the footnote text.

**Tip:** To return to your place in your document, double-click the footnote mark.

## Bibliography entries

At the end of the paper, you need to include a bibliography stating all sources used in alphabetical order by last name:

### Bibliography

Grazer, Brian, and Charles Fishman. *A Curious Mind: The Secret to a Bigger Life*.

New York: Simon & Schuster, 2015.

Smith, James. *The first and last war*. New York: Hamilton, 2003.

Smith, Zadie. *Swing Time*. New York: Penguin Press, 2016.

Using different sources require different citations. Follow these examples and guidelines to properly cite each different source: [https://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/tools\\_citationguide/citation-guide-1.html](https://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/tools_citationguide/citation-guide-1.html).

## Case Law, Legislation and Jurisprudence

Please note that if you have included case law within your analysis it must be cited in Chicago style according to the following examples and must only be present within footnotes (in addition to the general bibliography at the end of the paper):

1. COURT CASE: Name of the case, Volume Number, Publisher, Page Number, Year of Publication  
Herring v New York, 422 U.S 853 (1975)

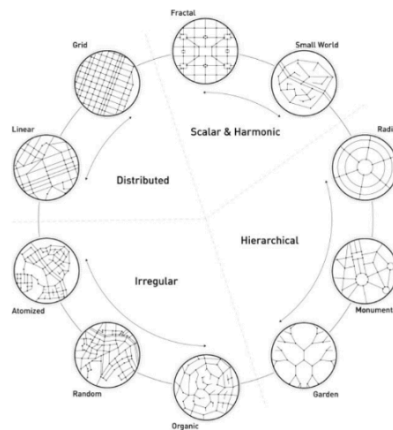
2. LEGISLATION, ENACTED BILLS, STATUTES: Name of the Bill, Volume Number, Publisher, Series, Date of Publication  
Homeland Security Act of 2002, 6 U.S.C 101 (2012)
  
3. JURISPRUDENCE:  
Footnote: Author Last name, Shortened title, Page Number  
Bibliography: Author Last Name, First Name, Article Title, Journal Name, Volume

## Tables and Figures

When including images in your paper, label them as fig. 1 and fig. 2. Tables are labelled table 1 table 2. Ensure that your figures and tables are placed as close as possible to their reference in the text. This means placing a figure either immediately after the paragraph that first mentions it (on the same page or the next) or just before the first mention (but on the same page). Please make sure you do the following:

- (1) Place the caption below the figure in cursive. The caption must first introduce the label with its title, and then add the source on a separate row.
- (2) In terms of formatting, single-space the caption, and leave at least one blank line between the caption and any text below it.
- (3) Please use a font size of 8 points or smaller for the caption.

Example:



*Fig.1. List of Pure City Typologies  
Source: Burke et al. (2022)*

When reproducing an image created by someone else in your work always include the copyright status or creative commons license details in the caption as required by the source. When using a table from a source please refer to who made the table and where it was extracted from.

Finally, when figures and tables are used, please add a “Notes” page at the end of your paper where the figures and tables are listed properly by source.

## Examples

For examples of in-text citations, please look at the footnotes of this Style Guide and please also refer to this source: [https://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/tools\\_citationguide/citation-guide-1.html](https://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/tools_citationguide/citation-guide-1.html).

For an example of a written work in Chicago Style, please refer to this source:

[https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research\\_and\\_citation/chicago\\_manual\\_17th\\_edition/cmos\\_formatting\\_and\\_style\\_guide/cmos\\_nb\\_sample\\_paper.html](https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/research_and_citation/chicago_manual_17th_edition/cmos_formatting_and_style_guide/cmos_nb_sample_paper.html).

## Using LaTeX

For preparing tables/figures under the TeX typesetting system, writers are free to choose the LaTeX editor of their choice. The most common LaTeX editors include TeXworks, Overleaf, LyX, and TeXstudio. The IPR highly recommends the use of Overleaf due to its simple interface, sharing capabilities and ease of use. Usage of R Markdown is encouraged for projects with R code.

### Tables

In Overleaf, to build a table from scratch, an Overleaf account is first necessary to open the environment. Once the account is created, press the *New Project* button in the Home menu and select the *Blank Project* template. In the blank project, the package `graphicx` is automatically loaded, although other packages are strongly recommended such as `float`, `booktabs`, & `array`. With all the packages duly loaded, the table can be created following the code below. This template is not mandatory, but recommended for new users:

```
\documentclass{article}
\usepackage{graphicx}
\usepackage{float}
\usepackage{booktabs}
\usepackage{array}

\begin{document}

\begin{table}[H]
\centering
\resizebox{\textwidth}{!}{
```



```

\begin{tabular}{>{\raggedright\arraybackslash}m{0.25\textwidth}
               >{\centering\arraybackslash}m{0.35\textwidth}
               >{\centering\arraybackslash}m{0.35\textwidth}}
\toprule
\textbf{COLUMN1} & \textbf{COLUMN2} & \textbf{COLUMN3} \\
\midrule
ROW1 &
Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nunc facilisis, tellus eget facilisis scelerisque, nisl odio fringilla nisl, vitae convallis turpis metus a nunc. & Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nunc facilisis, tellus eget facilisis scelerisque, nisl odio fringilla nisl, vitae convallis turpis metus a nunc. \\
\midrule
ROW2 &
Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nunc facilisis, tellus eget facilisis scelerisque, nisl odio fringilla nisl, vitae convallis turpis metus a nunc. & Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nunc facilisis, tellus eget facilisis scelerisque, nisl odio fringilla nisl, vitae convallis turpis metus a nunc. \\
\bottomrule
\end{tabular}}
\end{table}

\end{document}

```

The output from the code is shown below as a model of how LaTeX should look in the document. Note that no caption is included, as the captions are manually introduced following the IPR format.

<b>COLUMN1</b>	<b>COLUMN2</b>	<b>COLUMN3</b>
ROW1	<p>Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nunc facilisis, tellus eget facilisis scelerisque, nisl odio fringilla nisl, vitae convallis turpis metus a nunc.</p>	<p>Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nunc facilisis, tellus eget facilisis scelerisque, nisl odio fringilla nisl, vitae convallis turpis metus a nunc.</p>
ROW2	<p>Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nunc facilisis, tellus eget facilisis scelerisque, nisl odio fringilla nisl, vitae convallis turpis metus a nunc.</p>	<p>Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetur adipiscing elit. Nunc facilisis, tellus eget facilisis scelerisque, nisl odio fringilla nisl, vitae convallis turpis metus a nunc.</p>

## Regression Tables

Regression analysis usually requires software support from Excel, R, Stata or any other software with regressive tools. For swift integration to TeX, the IPR recommends the use of R Markdown alongside the stargazer R package.

In R Markdown, first include the pertinent packages under the header-includes section (graphicx, float, booktabs, array). After that, open an R chunk with the command `include = FALSE`. Inside the R chunk, load the stargazer package and create the dataframe that its utilized for the regression analysis. Capture the output from the `stargazer()` command and save the `paste()` inside an object. Finally, call the object inside the TeX table outside the R chunk. The full procedure is shown in the code below:

```
---  
title: "Your Title"  
author: "Your Author"  
date: "YYYY-MM-DD"  
output: pdf_document  
header-includes:  
- \usepackage{graphicx}  
- \usepackage{float}  
- \usepackage{booktabs}  
- \usepackage{array}  
---  
  
``{r setup, include=FALSE}  
library(stargazer)  
  
df <- data.frame(  
  Variable1 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100),  
  Variable2 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100),  
  Variable3 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100),  
  Variable4 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100),  
  Variable5 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100),  
  Variable6 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100),  
  Variable7 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100),  
  Variable8 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100),  
  Variable9 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100),  
  Variable10 = runif(40, min = 0, max = 100)
```

)

```
regression1 <- lm(formula = Variable1 ~ Variable2 + Variable3 + Variable4 + Variable5 +  
  Variable6 + Variable7 + Variable8 + Variable9 + Variable10, data = df)
```

```
regression2 <- lm(formula = Variable2 ~ Variable1 + Variable3 + Variable4 + Variable5 +  
  Variable6 + Variable7 + Variable8 + Variable9 + Variable10, data = df)
```

```
regression3 <- lm(formula = Variable3 ~ Variable1 + Variable2 + Variable4 + Variable5 +  
  Variable6 + Variable7 + Variable8 + Variable9 + Variable10, data = df)
```

```
stargazer_output <- capture.output(stargazer(regression1, regression2, regression3, type = "latex", header =  
FALSE, title = "", label = "", table.placement = "!h", single.row = TRUE, omit.table.layout = "n"))
```

```
start <- which(grepl("^\\\\\\begin\\\\\\{tabular\\\\\\}", stargazer_output))
```

```
end <- which(grepl("^\\\\\\end\\\\\\{tabular\\\\\\}", stargazer_output))
```

```
tabular_content <- stargazer_output[(start + 1):(end - 1)]
```

```
tabular_content <- paste(tabular_content, collapse = "\\n")
```

'''

```
\begin{table}[H]
```

```
\centering
```

```
\resizebox{\textwidth}{!}{
```

```
\begin{tabular}{@{}l c c c@{}}
```

```
\toprule
```

```
`r tabular_content`
```

```
\bottomrule
```

```
\end{tabular}
```

```
}
```

```
\end{table}
```

The output from the code knitted in PDF format is shown below as a model of how LaTeX should look in the document. Similar to regular tables, no caption is included in LaTeX, as the captions are manually introduced following the IPR format.

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>		
	Variable1	Variable2	Variable3
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Variable2	0.058 (0.190)		0.044 (0.185)
Variable1		0.053 (0.175)	-0.051 (0.178)
Variable3	-0.054 (0.187)	0.042 (0.180)	
Variable4	-0.322 (0.193)	0.194 (0.191)	-0.399** (0.183)
Variable5	-0.398* (0.226)	0.302 (0.221)	-0.289 (0.225)
Variable6	-0.013 (0.178)	-0.102 (0.170)	-0.083 (0.173)
Variable7	0.113 (0.172)	0.038 (0.166)	0.128 (0.167)
Variable8	-0.089 (0.182)	-0.159 (0.173)	-0.162 (0.175)
Variable9	0.060 (0.177)	0.063 (0.170)	-0.045 (0.172)
Variable10	0.367** (0.177)	-0.163 (0.179)	0.106 (0.183)
Constant	71.051** (26.895)	27.841 (28.238)	89.446*** (24.072)
Observations	40	40	40
R <sup>2</sup>	0.263	0.141	0.267
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.042	-0.117	0.047
Residual Std. Error (df = 30)	29.046	27.910	28.296
F Statistic (df = 9; 30)	1.191	0.546	1.216

Utilization of regression outputs from the stargazer R package must be properly cited with the author's corresponding stargazer version as follows:

Hlavac, Marek (2022). stargazer: Well-Formatted Regression and Summary Statistics Tables. R package version 5.2.3. <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=stargazer>.

## Search Engine Optimization (SEO)

“SEO stands for ‘search engine optimization.’ It’s the practice of increasing both the quality and quantity of website traffic, as well as exposure to your brand, through non-paid (also known as “organic”) search engine results

“Despite the acronym, SEO is as much about people as it is about search engines themselves. It’s about understanding what people are searching for online, the answers they are seeking, the words they’re using, and the type of content they wish to consume. Knowing the answers to these questions will allow you to connect to the people who are searching online for the solutions you offer.

“Organic search results cover more digital real estate, appear more credible to savvy searchers, and receive way more clicks than paid advertisements. For example, [of all US searches, only ~2.8%](#) of people click on paid advertisements.

“In a nutshell: [SEO has ~20X more traffic opportunity than PPC on both mobile and desktop.](#)

“SEO is also one of the only online marketing channels that, when set up correctly, can continue to pay dividends over time. If you provide a solid piece of content that deserves to rank for the right keywords, your traffic can snowball over time, whereas advertising needs continuous funding to send traffic to your site.

“Search engines are getting smarter, but they still need our help.”<sup>5</sup>

For more information, please refer to <https://moz.com/beginners-guide-to-seo>.

---

<sup>5</sup> [“SEO 101: The Beginner’s Guide to SEO,”](#) MOZ, accessed February 23, 2022.