

Pioneer High School
English Department

**Grammar, Writing, Research,
and the Language of Literature**



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GRAMMAR

PUNCTUATION

Comma (,)

The comma (,) is the most frequently used punctuation mark within the sentence. The following examples show you how writers use commas.

1. Commas between Items in a Series

Three or more words, phrases, or clauses used together in a sentence make up a series. Commas are used between each item in the series. It is preferable to use a comma before the “and.”

Examples: The Great Hall was decorated with flowers, streamers, and two giant gazebos.
Jim, Jose, and Mike placed in the semi-finals competition.

2. Commas between Pairs of Items

Use a comma before the coordinating conjunction (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*) in a compound sentence.

Long independent clauses need commas. (e.g. *This arrangement would be more convenient for me, but you must consider the others in the group.*)

Short independent clauses do not need commas. (e.g. *You go ahead and I'll come later.*)

*Note -No comma is used before the “and” in compound words or phrases. (e.g. *We went swimming and hiking last weekend.*)

-**Always** use a comma if meaning is affected. (e.g. *Aunt Mary, rocking on the porch, saw the accident.*)

3. Commas after Introductory Items in a Sentence

Use a comma to set off introductory words, phrases, or clauses.

Introductory word: *Above*, the thick clouds began to disperse and let the sun peek in.

Introductory phrase: *By the way*, Jim was looking at you.

Introductory clause: *When you finish playing*, the piano needs to be dusted.

4. Commas in non-restrictive (essential) elements

- **Appositive** – is a noun or phrase that gives more information about another noun. It interrupts the flow of the sentence, as it adds needed information. Appositives are set off by commas because they are not essential to the meaning of the sentence.

Examples: (Noun): Lean Wilson, *a student*, played the flute in the concert.
(Phrase): Jackie, *skiing furiously through the storm*, reached the bottom of the slope in five seconds.

- **Non-restrictive (non-essential) Clause** – A non-restrictive clause is a dependent clause that modifies the noun it follows. It does not change (restrict) the meaning of the sentence. It simply interrupts it to add information the reader may not know.

Examples: Amy Turner, *who lives down the street*, is my best friend.
Albert Wallace, *who is my cousin*, is an artist.

*Note – The word “that” regularly introduces essential clauses. NEVER use a comma before “that.” (e.g. She is wearing the sweater *that* she received for Christmas.)

5. Parenthetical Expressions

Parenthetical expressions are words or phrases used to explain, emphasize, or qualify a statement. Parenthetical expressions are set off by commas.

Some common parenthetical expressions are:

as a matter of fact	consequently	however	for example
for instance	I believe	indeed	moreover
on the other hand	therefore		

Examples: He is, *I believe*, the only person who can do the job.
Jim did say, *however*, that he needed to think it over.

6. Speaker Tags

Speaker tags in direct quotations are set off with commas.

Example: “I’m not,” *she whined*, “your friend anymore.”

7. Commas in Certain Conventional Situations

- **Dates** – Place a comma after the day and date. Don’t forget the comma after the year when using it as an introductory phrase.

Examples: (Date used as subject): *Monday, April 5, 2008* marked the closing of the building.
(Date used as introductory phrase): *On Monday, April 5, 2008*, the building closed.

- **Addresses** – Place a comma after the street address and city.

Example: I used to live at 57 Cleveland Drive, Cheektowaga, New York 14225.

- **Friendly Letters** – Use a comma after the salutation in a friendly letter.

Examples: Dear Rashida, Dear Father,

- **Degrees and Titles that Follow Names** – Place a comma on both sides of a degree or title that follows a name.

Examples: Joseph Smith, Jr., is our speaker.
Anna Simon, Ph. D., is my professor.

Semicolon (;)

There are two primary uses for semicolons.

1. Independent Clauses without Conjunctions

Use a semicolon between two independent clauses not joined by a coordinating conjunction.

Example: Walter started walking toward the car angrily; nothing could make him turn back.

*Note – Conjunctive adverbs (*however, meanwhile, nevertheless, therefore*) are not coordinating conjunctions; therefore, you must use a semicolon before them and a comma after. (e.g. The lunch bell rings at 11:30; *however*, it has been late all week.)

2. Between Word Groups Containing Commas

Use a semicolon between items in a series if the items contain commas. (**Hint:** semicolons separate items; colons introduce.)

Example: Yesterday, I had pancakes, bacon, sausage, eggs, and juice for breakfast; a hot dog, French fries, onion rings, and an apple for lunch; and steak, pizza, a baked potato, green beans, and ice cream for supper.

Colon (:)

There are four uses for the colon in writing:

1. Introduction of a List

Use a colon at the introduction of a list of items.

Example: Our guide book recommended the following items: a knife, a compass, a small backpack, some edibles, and a camera.

2. Introduction of a Quotation

Use a colon when introducing a quotation.

Example: The world will never forget Theodore Roosevelt nor his famous words: “Speak softly and carry a big stick.”

3. After an Independent Clause

Use a colon after an independent clause (sentence) that is explained by a second clause.

Example: Clothing isn't made the way it used to be: seams tear easily, zippers break, and fabric unravels.

4. Conventional Situations

- **Salutation of a Formal Letter**

Examples: Dear Sirs: To Whom It May Concern:

- **In Noting Time**

Examples: 1:15 AM 12:30 PM

- **Biblical and Bibliographic References**

Examples: John 19:57 Boston: Scott Foresman Company

Apostrophe (')

Use the apostrophe (') to signal the possession of nouns and the omission of letters in a contraction.

1. Possession

- **Singular**

Use the apostrophe to show the possession of singular nouns and indefinite pronouns (*one, everyone, everybody, etc.*)

Example: The *teacher's opinion* was on the board.

- **Words Ending In "S"**

For words ending in "s," use the apostrophe *to show possession* in the following ways:

Example: *Chris's* taxi was waiting.

OR

Chris' taxi was waiting.

- **Plural**

If the noun is plural and *shows ownership*, place an apostrophe after the noun.

Example: The *girls'* swimming pool was empty.

*If the plural noun does not end in "s," follow the first rule (*deer's cage, children's books*).

- **Two or More Nouns**

If two or more people own one thing *collectively*, place an apostrophe after the last noun only.

Example: Colton and Jenna's store was on Liberty Street.

If two or more people each own something, place an apostrophe after each name.

Example: Colton's and Jenna's stores were busy.

2. Omission of Letters or Numbers

Examples: *We have* only just begun. *We've* only just begun.
 The blizzard of 1977 was bad. The blizzard of '77 was bad.

Dash (--)

The dash is used to create emphasis. The colon and dash are frequently interchangeable. The colon is more formal than the dash and less dramatic. *Use the dash to indicate:*

1. A Sudden Shift in Thought

I hope that the next time he has the sense to—but perhaps we should first hear what he has to say for himself.

2. An Abrupt Interruption in a Sentence

His goal—if you can call it a goal—should have been to get out of debt. I'll show you the—hey, watch out—baseball diamond.

3. Further Definition

You should use sections—the table of contents, chapters with headings, tables and graphs, and references—in your research paper.

Hyphen (-)

1. Between Syllables

Use a hyphen between syllables to divide a word at the end of a line.

2. Compound Numbers

Hyphenate fractions and compound numbers from twenty-one through ninety-nine.

Examples: *Thirty-three* years old hardly makes you old!
 A *one-fourth* portion goes to charity; the other *three-fourths* is needed to pay back expenses incurred.

3. Forming Adjectives

Use a hyphen when two or more words combine to form compound adjectives.

Examples: a *would-be* movie star a *don't-care-if-you-do* attitude

Note: If the first word is an adverb ending in “ly,” do not use a hyphen.

Examples: a neatly dressed woman a poorly worded sentence

4. Awkward Letter Combinations

Use a hyphen to avoid confusion or awkwardness.

Examples: re-collect (collect again; prevents confusion with *recollect* meaning *to remember*)

Parentheses ()

Use parentheses to set off non-essential elements, such as dates or clarifying information. *Use sparingly!*

Examples: Mayor Daley (Chicago) had a lot of political control.
Muhammad Ali (1942 to present) arguably the greatest athlete of all time, claimed he would “float like a butterfly, sting like a bee.”

All punctuation must come after the parentheses (unless there is a complete sentence within the parentheses).

Example: The ghost of Hamlet’s father commanded Hamlet’s friends to “swear by the sword” (the sword itself was, ironically, symbolic of the cross), forbidding them to tell anybody about his appearance.

*Note – Parentheses are also used when referencing sources in a parenthetical citation.

Example: Humans have been described as “symbol-using animals” (Burke 3).

Brackets []

Enclose Explanations

Use brackets to enclose explanations or to show changes within quoted material.

Examples: Mr. Smith calmly addressed the audience with these words: “I am honored by [the nomination of presidency], and if elected I will serve honorably.”

Lady Macbeth asks the “spirits” to “unsex [her].”
(The original quote from *Macbeth*, as stated by Lady Macbeth, is “unsex *me*.”)

The Period (.)

1. Statements or Commands

Use a period following any statement or command.

Examples: The tree shivered in the cold.
 Please keep the noise down.

2. After Indirect Questions

Use a period after indirect questions.

Examples: She asked whether I wanted to come.
 We wondered how much longer we should wait.

3. After Abbreviations

Use a period after most abbreviations.

Examples: Dr. Mr. Mrs. Ms. Nov. Ave.

*Note – Do not use a period after “Miss,” as it is not an abbreviation.

Example: Miss Johnson

*Note – Abbreviations (acronyms) of government agencies and organizations are NOT followed by periods.

Examples: NATO UNICEF CIA

Question Mark (?)

1. Questions

Use a question mark following a question/interrogative sentence.

Example: Do you want to play a game?

2. Use with Quotation Marks

A question mark should be placed inside quotation marks only if the quotation itself is a question.

Examples: “Do you think you’ll join the team?” Joe asked me.
 Who said, “All the world’s a stage”?

Exclamation Point (!)

Use an exclamation point after statements expressing strong, excited feeling(s). Avoid using the exclamation point in essays, research papers, and other formal writing.

Examples: Wow! What a catch!
 “Cut it out!” he yelled at me sharply. (Note the period after *sharply* and the exclamation point within the quotation marks.)

Ellipses (. . .)

1. Omitted Words in Sentences

Use **three periods** to show where words have been omitted within a quotation or sentence.

Example: I pledge allegiance to the flag. . . with liberty and justice for all.

2. Omitted Words at the End of Sentences

Use **four periods** where words have been omitted at the end of a sentence or where two or more sentences have been omitted. Ellipses are usually not needed to indicate an omission when only a word or phrase is quoted.

Examples: William Penn's main point in his passage was profound: "Be reserved but not sour. . . . cheerful, not light. . . ."

*Note- When typing there is a space between each period in the ellipse.

Quotation Marks (“ ”)

1. Before and After Exact Words

Use quotation marks before and after a person's exact words.

Examples: Sam told us to think about our attitudes.
"Think about your attitude," Sam said.

*Note- Periods and commas ALWAYS go inside quotation marks; all other punctuation follows the meaning of the quote.

2. Punctuation Inside and Outside Quotation Marks

If a person's words ask a question, state a command, or make a statement, use appropriate end punctuation INSIDE the second quotation mark; otherwise, punctuation goes outside the quotation marks.

Example: I asked, "Why don't you go along?"
Who asked, "Why don't you go along"?
Did you tell Mark, "Forget it"?
Mr. Jones said, "I don't want to discuss it at all"; unfortunately, Mr. Roberts refused to drop the matter.

3. Interruptions

When a person's words are interrupted with a quotation stem (ex. said Mother OR replied George), place a comma and quotation mark BEFORE and AFTER the stem.

Example: "How would you feel," asked Mother, "if Aunt Ruth came for dinner?"

4. Words Referred to as Words

Use quotation marks before and after words referred to as words.

Examples: Did you say “tree” or “tee”?
The word “and” is a common conjunction.

5. Titles of Short Literary Works

Use quotation marks before and after the titles of short literary works (short stories, songs, poems, essays, articles, and subheadings or chapters of books).

Example: “Georgia on My Mind” is Ray Charles’ most popular song.

6. Quotation within a Quotation

Use single quotation marks to enclose a quotation within a quotation.

Example: “What do you mean by saying, ‘Put the news peg in the upper left-hand corner of the first page?’” I asked Mrs. Weber.

7. New Paragraphs

Begin a new paragraph each time the speaker changes.

Example: “I can’t wait until summer,” said Sarah. “I think I will go to the mountains and hike.”
“I know what you mean,” said Sean.

8. Same Person for Two or More Paragraphs

When you quote the same person for more than two paragraphs, use quotation marks at the START of EACH paragraph and at the END of the final paragraph.

Example: “I’ll never forget that vacation,” said Susan. “Everything seemed to go right.
“First, the weather was perfect. The sun was out each day, the snow was fresh and powdery, just the way I like it.
“Ann and Deb came up on Sunday morning. We all went cross-country skiing.”

9. Extensive Quotations

When writing a research paper, extensive quotations (more than three lines) are tabbed twice from the left margin and double spaced. Leave an extra line above and below the indented quoted material to separate it clearly from the rest of the paper. NO QUOTATION MARKS ARE NECESSARY! (See “Research” section for further information.)

UNDERLINE

Underline titles of full-length (long) works including books, magazines, newspapers, journals, and works of art.

Examples: The Scarlett Letter (novel)
 Wall Street Journal (newspaper)

*Note – When word processing, use italics for major works instead of underlining.

CAPITALIZATION

1. First Word in a Sentence

Capitalize the first word in any sentence or in any quoted sentence or fragment.

Example: Everyone agreed that the rooms needed painting. “Do you think that we’ll have time to do them next week?” asked Ramon.

2. Poetry

Traditionally, the first word in each line of poetry is capitalized. In modern poetry, while this observation is still common, it is not a hard and fast rule.

Example: I think that I shall never see
 A poem lovely as a tree. . . .

3. Proper Nouns

Capitalize proper nouns including: names of persons, geographical names (cities, counties, states, countries, continents, bodies of water, peninsulas, straits, canals, beaches, mountains, streets, parks, specific buildings, forests, dams, canyons, valleys, etc.), and recognized parts of the country or world (the North, the Middle East, etc.).

*Note- The words *north*, *south*, *east*, and *west* are NOT capitalized when they refer to directions, but ARE capitalized when they refer to sections of the country.

Example: If you drive east from Colorado for 1,000 miles, you will be in the Midwest.

4. Transportation and Famous Monuments

Capitalize the names of ships, boats, planes, trains, awards, and monuments.

Examples: Olympic Medal Boeing 747 Statue of Liberty

5. Brand Names

Capitalize brand names of consumer products, but do NOT capitalize any common noun that may follow the brand name.

Examples: Nike sneakers IBM computer Apple computer

6. Nouns Followed by a Numeral or Letter

Capitalize the names of specific rooms and other nouns followed by a numeral or letter.

Examples: School District 12 Chapter 8 Diagram B

7. School Classes

Capitalize the names of school classes; however, the words *freshmen*, *sophomore*, *junior*, and *senior* are not capitalized when they refer to either a student or a year.

Examples: Jen Stone is the valedictorian of the *Senior Class*.
Sue is a *junior* this year.

8. Nationalities, Races, and Religions

Capitalize the names of nationalities, races, and religions.

Examples: American Jewish Native American

9. Deities and Prophets

Capitalize the names of specific deities (gods) and prophets, as well as possessive pronouns or nouns referring to those deities.

Examples: God Christ John the Baptist Buddha

10. Proper Adjectives

Capitalize proper adjectives, but not common nouns that follow them.

Examples: American people Russian dressing French fries

11. Events and Periods of Time

Capitalize the names of events, periods of time, and holidays.

Examples: World War I Memorial Day the Super Bowl
(NOT World War One)

12. Calendar Items

Capitalize calendar items including days of the week and the months of the year.

Examples: Book Week April Monday

*Note - Do NOT capitalize names of seasons unless personified.

Examples: I can't wait for spring.
There was Spring, tripping in all dressed in green with flowers in her hair.

13. Titles of Persons

- **Before a Name**

Capitalize the title of a person when used before a name.

Examples: Principal Schultz Pastor Jones President Lincoln

14. Titles of Literary Works

Capitalize the first word and all important words in titles of books, short stories, poems, songs, plays, articles, documents, films, and works of art. Articles (a, an, the), conjunctions, and prepositions of fewer than five letters are not capitalized unless they are the first word in the title.

Examples: *Buffalo News* *One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest*

15. Academic Subjects

Capitalize titles of academic subjects only if they refer to languages or specific course titles.

Examples: English Global Studies 10 American Poetry Living Environment

16. Family Relationships

Capitalize words showing family relationships when used with a person's name (or in the place of the person's name) but NOT when preceded by a possessive pronoun.

Examples: I told Mom all about it.
 I told my mom all about it.

NUMBERS

Numbers from one to nine are usually written as words; numbers 10 and over are usually written as numerals.

Examples: She ran two miles.
 She ran 15 miles.

Exception: Keep numbers being compared or contrasted in the same style.

Example: 8 to 11 years old OR eight to eleven years old

A combination of numerals and words may be used for very large numbers (1.5 million).

SYNTAX

Syntax is the way words are put together to form sentences.

Phrases and Clauses

1. Phrase

A phrase is a group of words.

2. Clause

A clause is a group of words that contains a subject **AND** a predicate.

- **The Independent Clause**

An independent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate and can stand alone (simple sentence).

Examples: We went to the café for a soda.
 I will buy you an ice cream cone.

- **The Dependent Clause**

A dependent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate but cannot stand alone (fragment).

Example: Because you are my friend

The Sentence

1. Sentence

A sentence is a group of words that has a subject and a predicate and can stand alone. It expresses a complete thought.

- **Simple**

Contains one **independent clause** (subject + verb).

Example: Doctors are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma.

- **Compound**

Contains two or more **independent clauses** joined by a coordinating **conjunction**: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so* (FANBOYS) or a semi-colon. (Refer to rules for semicolons and commas.)

Examples: Doctors are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma, **but they do not know the reasons** for it.
 Doctors are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma; **they do not know the reasons** for it.
 Doctors are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma; *therefore, they have called* for more research into its causes.

- **Complex**

Contains one independent clause and at least one dependent/subordinate clause.

Example: **Because** doctors are concerned about the rising death rate from asthma, they have called for more research into its causes.

- **Compound-complex**

Contains at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent/subordinate clause.

Examples: The package arrived in the morning, but the courier left before I could check the contents.
My parents are coming tomorrow, but I hope they won't stay very long, because I have a date tomorrow night.
After it was all over, my dad claimed he knew we were planning something, but we think he was really surprised.

2. Fragment

A fragment is a group of words or a dependent clause that does not express a complete thought.

Examples: While at the beach. (fragment – incomplete sentence)
Before I could check the contents. (fragment – incomplete sentence)

3. Run-ons

Do not fuse two or more sentences together (a run-on) without using either a conjunction or the proper punctuation.

- **Rule #1**

Join two independent clauses with a coordinating conjunction (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*) by putting a comma **before** the conjunction.

Example: The apples were green, **but** the oranges were red.

- **Rule #2**

Join two independent clauses with a semicolon.

Example: The apples were green; the oranges were red.

- **Rule #3**

Join two independent clauses with a conjunctive adverb by placing a semicolon before the adverb and a comma after it.

Example: The apples were green; **however**, the oranges were red.

4. Sentence Types

- **Declarative** – Makes a statement
Example: The book was challenging.
- **Interrogative** – Asks a question
Example: Are you going to the store?
- **Imperative** – A command
Example: Shut the door when you leave.
- **Exclamatory** – Expresses strong emotion
Example: That was great!

Parts of a Sentence

A sentence consists of a subject and predicate.

1. Subject

The subject is a noun or a pronoun about which something is being discussed or described.

The subject is in **bold** in the following sentences.

Examples: The **boy** ran fast.
The **boy** who lives in the house next to mine ran fast.
Everywhere there was **laughter**.

2. Predicate

The predicate is the part of the sentence that says something about the subject.

In the following sentences the **predicates** are in **bold**.

Examples: The boy **ran** fast.
The boy, who **lives** in the house next to mine, **ran** down the street. (*complex sentence*)

PARTS OF SPEECH

1. Noun

A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea.

Examples: **Henry** (person) gave his **farm** (thing) to his **brother** (person) in **Iowa** (place).
Justice (idea) is not always equal.

2. Pronoun

A pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun.

Examples: Henry gave his farm to his brother.
He (pronoun) gave **it** (pronoun) to **him** (pronoun).

3. Adjective

An adjective is a word used to modify/describe a noun or pronoun.

Examples: The moon peered over the boats.
The **full** moon peered over the **Chinese** boats.

The words **a**, **an**, and **the** are adjectives commonly known as articles. They always precede a noun and modify/describe it.

Example: **The** man had **an** elephant and **a** book.

4. Preposition

A preposition is a word that shows the relationship of a noun/pronoun to the rest of the sentence. They often show location or time.

Examples: A friend **of mine** lives **in** Canada.
The book is **under** the table.

5. Verb

A verb is a word that shows action or expresses a state of being.

Example: When she **is** (state of being) home, they **visit** (action) her.

6. Adverb

An adverb is a word used to modify/describe a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. (Adverbs often end in “ly.”)

Examples: The small child **ran quickly**. (The **adverb** describes the verb.)
The small child ran **very quickly**. (The **adverb** describes the adverb.)
The **very small** child ran home. (The **adverb** describes the adjective.)

7. Conjunction

A conjunction connects words, phrases, and clauses.

There are three types of conjunctions: coordinating, subordinating, correlative.

Example: Mary **and** Jim like ice cream, **but** I do not. (coordinating)
Although Mary likes ice cream, Jim does not. (subordinating)
Neither Mary **nor** Jim like ice cream. (correlative)

8. Interjection

An interjection is an exclamation that has no grammatical connection to the rest of the sentence. An interjection often expresses strong feeling.

Examples: **Wow!** That was terrific! (Strong emotion uses an exclamation point.)
Oh, that was nice. (Less emotion uses a comma.)

COMMON USAGE

Verb Tense

1. Present Tense

Present tense indicates action that is taking place at the present time.

Examples: The singer **plays** the piano.
The group **is going** to the film.

2. Past Tense

Past tense indicates action that took place in the past and does not continue into the present.

Examples: The group **went** to the film last night.
The singer **played** the piano yesterday.

3. Future Tense

Future tense indicates action that will happen in the future.

Examples: The group **will go** to the film tomorrow.
The singer **will be playing** the piano soon.

4. Perfect Tense

Perfect tense indicates passive voice. (Hint – look for the helping verbs *have, has, and had.*)

- **Present Perfect** – expresses action occurring at no definite time or occurring in the past and continuing into the present.

Example: I **have been reading** awesome books.

- **Past Perfect** – expresses action completed in the past before other past action.

Example: I **had walked** to the store before I went to the movies.

- **Future Perfect** – expresses action which will be completed in the future before some other action.

Example: By the time school starts, I **will have worked** there eight weeks.

Voice

1. Active Voice

In active voice the subject is doing the action.

Examples: The **dog chased** the cat.
Henry ate his food quickly.
Sandra carried the whole load of firewood.

2. Passive Voice

In passive voice the subject is the receiver of the action.

Examples: The cat **was chased by the dog**.
The food **was eaten quickly by Henry**.
The whole load of firewood **was carried by Sandra**.

*Note - It is preferable to write in the active voice.

Tense Shift

A piece of informational writing should remain in one tense throughout (usually past or present), unless a writer specifically signals a change in tense (see third example below).

Examples: After he **had broken** his arm, he **is** home for two weeks. (incorrect)
After he **had broken** his arm, he **was** home for two weeks. (correct)

About noon the sky **darkened**, a breeze **sprang** up, and a low rumble **announces** the approaching storm. (incorrect)
About noon the sky **darkened**, a breeze **sprang** up, and a low rumble **announced** the approaching storm. (correct)

Subject-Verb Agreement

A verb must agree in number (singular or plural) with its subject. A singular subject takes a singular verb; a plural subject takes a plural verb.

Examples: That **man owns** the store. (singular subject and singular verb)
Those two **women own** the store. (plural subject and plural verb)
There **seem** to be several volumes of this set missing. (In sentences that begin with “there,” look after the verb to find the subject – *Several volumes seem to be missing.*)

Pronoun Agreement

Pronouns must agree in number and person.

1. Agreement in Number

There is no gender-neutral singular pronoun in English, so we often incorrectly use the word “they” to refer to a single person when we do not know the gender of the person, even though “they” should only refer to more than one person.

Examples: If **a student** parks a car on campus, **they** have to buy a parking sticker. (incorrect)
If **a student** parks a car on campus, **he** has to buy a parking sticker. (correct)

“Student” is singular, so the corresponding pronoun should also be singular (“he or she”). If you are uncertain of the gender, use “he” or “s/he.”

2. Agreement in Person

If you are writing in the “first person” (I), do not confuse your reader by switching to the “second person” (you) or “third person” (he, she, they, it, etc.). Similarly, if you are using the “third person,” do not switch to “first” or “second.”

Example: When **a person** comes to class, **you** should have **your** homework ready. (incorrect—switches from third to second person)
When **a person** comes to class, **he** should have **his** homework ready. (correct – remains in third person)

Parallelism

Parallelism is using the same pattern of words to show that two or more ideas have the same level of importance. This can happen at the word, phrase, or clause level.

Series and Pairs

Examples: Abused children will commonly exhibit one or more of the following symptoms:
(*series*) ***withdrawal, rebelliousness, restlessness***, and they are ***depressed***. (not parallel)

Abused children will commonly exhibit one or more of the following symptoms:
withdrawal, rebelliousness, restlessness, and depression. (parallel – all nouns)

(*pairs*) At Pioneer High School, vandalism can result in ***suspension*** or ***being expelled*** from school. (not parallel)

At Pioneer High School, vandalism can result ***in suspension*** or ***in expulsion*** from school. (parallel – both are prepositional phrases)

Placement of Modifiers (words that describe)

Avoid “dangling” introductory phrases and clauses that do not clearly modify/describe a word in the main clause.

Examples: ***Overcooked and tough***, **the meat** was inedible. (correct)
Overcooked and tough, **I** could not eat the meat. (dangling)

COMMONLY CONFUSED WORDS

The following words are commonly confused. Sometimes the problem is with the spelling; sometimes it is with meaning. Below are examples that show the proper use of each word.

1. A vs. AN

a – use when the first letter of the word following has the *sound* of a consonant

an – use when the first letter of the word following has the sound of a vowel

Examples: a finger an honor (h is silent here) an unusual idea

2. ACCEPT vs. EXCEPT

accept – to agree with

except – but, with the exception that

Examples: I accept your invitation.
 I want all of those shirts **except** that one.

3. AFFECT vs. EFFECT

affect -use this as a **verb** when you mean *to influence* rather than to cause
 -use as a **noun** to mean *emotional expression*

effect -use when you mean *bring about* or *brought about*, *cause* or *caused*
 -use when you mean *result*
 -use whenever any of these words precede it: *a, an, any, the, take, into, no*.
 These words may be separated from *effect* by an adjective.

Examples: How do the budget cuts **affect** your staffing?
 She showed little **affect** when told she had won the lottery.
 What **effect** did that speech have?
 That book had a long-lasting **effect** on me.

4. ALREADY vs. ALL READY

already – prior to a specific or implied time

all ready – everything is completely prepared.

Examples: She has **already** graduated.
 The children were **all ready** and bundled up for the cold.

5. ALTOGETHER vs. ALL TOGETHER

altogether – to a complete degree or to the full and entire extent

all together – all at the same time

Examples: That was a different table **altogether**.
 The books lay **all together** in a heap.

6. AMOUNT vs. NUMBER

amount – use when something cannot be counted

number – use when something can be counted

Examples: The **number** of students going on the fieldtrip was the largest ever.
The **amount** of sugar used in that recipe was excessive.

7. CITE vs. SITE vs. SIGHT

cite – to make a reference to

site – a piece of land or location

sight – visual perception

Examples: Make sure to **cite** your sources.
The building's new **site** is next to the old one.
I can't believe the **sight** I saw!

8. CONSUL vs. COUNCIL vs. COUNSEL

consul – a diplomat appointed by the government

council – a meeting of people

counsel – guidance or advice

Examples: The president gave power to the **consul**.
The **council** met after school yesterday.
The defendant asked for the right to **counsel**.

9. DESERT vs. DESSERT

desert – an area of dry land or to abandon

dessert – the last part of a meal

Examples: I would love to visit the **desert** in the Middle West someday.
The **dessert** you made was very good.

10. FARTHER vs. FURTHER

farther- related to physical distance

further – additional or more

Examples: Tom ran **farther** than Bill.
Do you have any **further** ideas?

11. ITS vs. IT'S

its – possessive pronoun

it's – contraction for it is or it has

Examples: The cat hurt **its** paw.
It's for a good cause.

12. LOSE vs. LOOSE

lose – failing to keep or maintain

loose – not compact or dense

Examples: The team was going to **lose** the game.
My belt was too **loose**.

13. PAST vs. PASSED

past – a time that has elapsed

passed – moved or proceeded

Examples: In the **past** I would have ran away, but now I have more courage.
The parade just **passed** by.

14. PRINCIPAL vs. PRINCIPLE

principal – an administrator at a school

principle – a rule or standard

Examples: The **principal** called a meeting in her office.
He will not violate his **principles**.

15. QUIET vs. QUITE

quiet – free of noise

quite – to the greatest extent, completely

Examples: The little boys were told to be **quiet**.
I was **quite** impressed with his drawing.

16. THAN vs. THEN

than – used for comparison

then – indicates time, answers when

Examples: John is taller **than** Greg.
I went to work and **then** went home.

17. THERE vs. THEIR vs. THEY'RE

there – location

their – possessive pronoun

they're – contraction for they are

Examples: I went over **there**.
It's **their** turn to clean the dishes.
They're coming over today.

18. TO vs. TOO vs. TWO

to – in the direction of, toward

too – also, to a broad degree

two – the number after one

Examples: I went **to** the store.
He is going **too**.
I have **two** pencils.

19. WEATHER vs. WHETHER

weather – atmospheric conditions

whether – if

Examples: The **weather** today is supposed to be quite cold.
I don't know **whether** to bring an umbrella or not.

20. WHOLE vs. HOLE

whole – including all components

hole – an opening into or through something

Examples: I have a **whole** bunch of homework to do.
The **hole** in the wall was hard to cover up.

21. WHOM vs. WHO

who- use if you can substitute he or she

whom- use if you can substitute him or her

Examples: **Who** (he) is going to the store?
The tickets belong to **whom** (her)?

*Note – When referring to people use “who,” not “that.” (e.g. They were the ones **who** wanted to sing.)

22. WHOSE vs. WHO'S

whose – the possessive form of who

who's – who is

Examples: **Whose** tickets are these?
Who's coming with me?

23. WOMAN vs. WOMEN

woman – an adult female (singular)

women – more than one adult female (plural)

Examples: The **woman** left the store happy with her purchase.
The **women** knew they were not going to see each that day.

24. YOUR vs. YOU'RE

your – the possessive pronoun form of “you”

you're – you are

Examples: What is **your** name?
 You're angering me right now.

SPELLING RULES

1. Rule #1 – “I” Before “E”

“I” before “e” except after “c,” or when sounding like “ay” as in “neighbor” and “weigh.”

- “ie” is used in piece, niece, lie, believe, achieve, chief, and thief
- after “c,” “ei” is used: receive, ceiling, conceited, receipt
- when sounding like “ay,” “ei” is used: eight, sleigh

Exceptions: ancient caffeine foreign forfeit seize

2. Rule #2 – Words that End in “Y”

If the letter before the “y” is a vowel, simply add “s.”

alley → alleys essay → essays

If the letter before the “y” is a consonant, drop the “y” and add “ies.”

baby → babies country → countries

3. Rule #3 – Words that End in “F”

If the word ends in a single “f,” usually change it to “v,” and then add “es.”

Thief → thieves shelf → shelves

Exceptions: chiefs roofs reefs

4. Rule #4 – Dropping the “E”

If a word ends in a silent “e,” drop the final “e” when adding suffixes that begin with a vowel, like “ing” or “able.”

make → making believe → believing

Exception #1: Do not drop the final “e” when adding a suffix that starts with a vowel IF the word ends in “ce” or “ge.”

courage → courageous change → changeable

Exception #2: Do not drop the final “e” when adding a suffix that begins with a consonant, like “ful” or “ment.”

hate → hateful arrange → arrangement

5. Rule #5 – Double Consonants

Double final consonants when adding “ing” if there is *only one* vowel before it.

drop → dropping stoop → stooping

If adding a prefix that has a consonant at the end, keep both consonants.

mis + step = misstep dis + similar = dissimilar

COMMONLY MISPELLED WORDS

absence	absolutely	acceptance	accidentally	accommodate
accompany	accomplish	accurate	accustomed	achievement
acquaintance	actually	administration	affectionate	agriculture
amateur	ambassador	analysis	analyze	anticipate
apology	apparent	appearance	approach	approval
arguing	assurance	attendance	authority	available
basically	beginning	benefit	benefited	boundary
Britain	calendar	campaign	capital	category
certificate	characteristic	chief	circuit	circumstance
civilization	column	commissioner	committees	comparison
competent	competition	conceivable	conception	confidential
conscience	conscious	consistency	constitution	continuous
control	cooperate	corporation	correspondence	criticism
criticize	cylinder	debtor	decision	definite
definition	deny	description	despise	diameter
disappointment	discipline	disgusted	distinguished	dominant
duplicate	economic	efficiency	eighth	elaborate
eligible	embarrass	emergency	employee	encouraging
environment	equipped	essential	evidently	exaggerate
exceedingly	excellent	excessive	excitable	exercise
existence	expense	extraordinary	fascinating	fatal
favorably	fictitious	financier	flourish	fraternity
frequent	further	glimpse	glorious	grabbed
gracious	graduating	grammar	gross	gymnasium
happiness	hasten	heavily	hindrance	humorous
hungrily	hypocrisy	hypocrite	icy	ignorance
imagination	immediately	immense	incidentally	indicate
indispensable	inevitable	innocence	inquiry	insurance
intelligence	interfere	interpretation	interrupt	investigation
judgment	knowledge	leisure	lengthen	lieutenant
likelihood	loneliness	magazine	maneuver	marriage
marvelous	mechanical	medieval	merchandise	minimum
mortgage	multitude	muscle	mutual	narrative
naturally	necessary	negligible	niece	noticeable
obligation	obstacle	occasionally	occurrence	offense

official	omit	operation	opportunity	oppose
optimism	orchestra	organization	originally	paid
paradise	parallel	particularly	peasant	peculiar
percentage	performance	personal	personality	perspiration
persuade	petition	philosopher	picnic	planning
pleasant	policies	politician	possess	possibility
practically	precede	precisely	preferred	prejudice
preparation	pressure	primitive	privilege	probably
procedure	proceed	professor	proportion	psychology
publicity	pursuit	qualities	quantities	readily
reasonably	receipt	recognize	recommendation	referring
regretting	reign	relieve	removal	renewal
repetition	representative	requirement	residence	resistance
responsibility	restaurant	rhythm	ridiculous	sacrifice
satire	satisfied	scarcely	scheme	scholarship
scissors	senate	sensibility	separate	sergeant
several	shepherd	sheriff	similar	skis
solemn	sophomore	source	specific	sponsor
straighten	substantial	substitute	subtle	succeed
successful	sufficient	summary	superior	suppress
surprise	survey	suspense	suspicion	temperament
tendency	thorough	transferring	tremendous	truly
unanimous	unfortunately	unnecessary	urgent	useful
using	vacancies	vacuum	varies	

Editing Symbols

- Dev - Your idea needs to be developed with specific information.
- / - Lowercase
- ~ - Switch the order of the letters or words.
- R.O. - You have two or more complete thoughts stuck together without proper punctuation.
- Awk - Your sentence structure is awkward and needs revision.
- WO - Write out the word or number. Do not abbreviate.
- Ex - Your ideas need more support – use specific ideas or details. Show me; don't tell me.
- VT - Your verb tense should be consistent throughout your paper.
- Sp - Incorrect spelling. Check it in a dictionary.
- Frag - This is not a complete sentence.
- ^ - Something is missing; add letter/word/information here.
- Coh - Your sentence structure does not sound right.
- ¶ - Start a new paragraph.
- ≡ - Capitalize
- WC - Your word choice is childish, vague, inaccurate, or slang.
- ? - I'm confused. Help me.
- || str - Use parallel structure
- s/v - Subject/Verb Agreement
- OU - Over use of word
- PA - Pronoun Agreement
- PR - Pronoun Reference

ELEMENTS OF WRITING

WRITING TERMS

Paragraph

A paragraph consists of several sentences that discuss a single idea. The basic elements include unity, coherence, and adequate development. All paragraphs must include a topic sentence, transitions, and a clincher.

- unified – all sentences relate to the same idea
- coherent – thought process must proceed logically from sentence to sentence
- developed – contains enough information to convey the idea thoroughly

Topic Sentence

A topic sentence is a sentence that captures the meaning of the paragraph. It is the first sentence of a paragraph and provides a focus for the paragraph.

Characteristics of a good topic sentence are:

- include a subject and a controlling idea
- limited enough to be developed in one paragraph
- lends itself to development

Evidence/Supporting Details

These sentences clarify, illuminate, explain, describe, expand, and illustrate the main idea of your paragraph.

Transitions

Transitions are words and phrases that provide flow, fluency, and coherence from one thought to another.

Clincher

A clincher is the last sentence of a paragraph; it wraps up or finalizes the main purpose of the paragraph.

Essay

An essay is a piece of writing that endeavors to prove a central point and requires the student to develop ideas and concepts. Essays are concise and require clarity in purpose and direction. This means that there is no room for the student's thoughts to wander or stray from his/her purpose.

Introduction Paragraph

An introduction is the first paragraph of your essay. It begins with a general statement about the main topic, includes relevant (important) background information on the topic, and ends with a solid thesis statement.

Thesis/Controlling Idea

The thesis states the point of your essay; it is what you want your reader to know, believe, or understand. It is the last sentence of your introduction.

Body Paragraph(s)

These are paragraphs between the introduction and conclusion. They develop points the writer wants to make about the thesis. Each body paragraph develops a specific point that supports the thesis and ties back to the focus throughout. Each body paragraph includes a topic sentence, evidence (supporting detail), transitions, and a clincher.

Conclusion Paragraph

It is the last paragraph of your essay. It begins with a sentence that reflects your original thesis statement. It concludes your final thoughts regarding the topic. These thoughts may be statements of analysis or summary points. It ends with a final clincher that reflects the general (over-riding) topic. Great ending clinchers wow the reader and leave them thinking.

- **Statement of Analysis**

This is a sentence that blends previous facts presented in your body paragraphs and offers a concluding thought/observation about them.

STRATEGIES AND TECHNIQUES

Writing an Introduction Paragraph

There are a variety of techniques one can use to build strong and interesting introductions; a writer needs to consider the purpose for the piece, the type of writing, and the audience being addressed.

1. Use a quote that introduces the topic and takes a clear stand either for or against the thesis statement.
2. If the piece is based on a particular literary work, chose a quote or metaphor from that work that represents the topic or theme.
3. Create a metaphor, simile, hyperbole, or image that captures the essence of the main topic or theme and use it to establish a support structure for the piece.
4. Establish relevance to one's life with a personal anecdote (story).
5. Create physically active and descriptive language that "shows" rather than "tells."
6. Create a definition that will help the reader enter the topic or establish a foundation for the thesis.
7. Use statistics or facts that dramatically introduce the topic.

Warnings

Read the following list of warnings before you make a decision as to which technique you will use.

1. Think carefully about the paper's intent, the class/course, the audience for the piece and the style that would be the most appropriate.

2. Use metaphors, quotes, description, etc. sparingly. If they are used well every once in awhile they can be very effective, but if overused, they become annoying.
3. Avoid clichés “like the plague!” Your writing should reflect your unique perspective and voice.
4. **NEVER** write, “This essay will be about...” or “In this essay I will prove....”

Thesis Statements

A thesis statement presents the writer’s reason for writing, and tells the reader what the writer plans to prove or explain. The purpose of the thesis is to identify the topic (reason for writing) and the position (your opinion—what you plan to prove or explain).

What do I need to remember about thesis statements?

1. Thesis statements are used in expository writing.
2. Thesis statements can be written in any tone: serious, humorous, threatening, encouraging, inspiring, etc.
3. The tone of the thesis statement depends on the purpose of the paper, as well as the audience.
4. Thesis statements can be very short.
Example: Volleyball challenges the mind and the body.
5. Thesis statements can be long and elaborate.
Example: Although players may be short or uncoordinated, passion for the sport contributes to success.
6. **Writing assignments in all subject areas require strong, clear thesis statements.**

Body Paragraphs

A thesis statement presents the writer’s reason for writing and tells the reader what the writer plans to prove or explain throughout the whole paper. Body paragraphs should provide evidence to support the thesis statement.

A topic sentence provides the focus of the paragraph. It is the first sentence of the body paragraph, and it must tie/connect to the thesis. All body paragraphs must have a topic sentence.

Explanations

Always make sure that you have done your very best job of explaining the evidence you have chosen to support your thesis and ideas. The more detail you add to the argument, the more convincing it will be, or the clearer the image will be, for your reader.

Ask Yourself:

1. Have you kept your audience in mind? Have you given them the information they need to understand your point?
2. Have you gone beyond just simply “listing” examples? Have you taken the time to fully explain each one?
3. Have you developed your essay in a way that thoroughly explains your rationale for your reader, or is he left having to “fill in the gaps”?
4. Have you made sure that every example and idea you mention is relevant to the thesis statement?
5. Have you organized your thoughts, facts, and details in a logical order?
6. If you are writing about literature or an author’s use of literary terms, have you used the best examples from the literature and explained their relevance to your thesis? Have you used the language of literature in writing about literature? *For example*, Harper Lee’s use of the mockingbird as a symbol highlights the major themes of the novel.

Using Transitions

Transitions should be used throughout your writing to provide flow, fluency, and coherence. There are a variety of transitions you can use; avoid overusing the same transitions.

Types of Transitions

Illustration

Examples

thus, for example, for instance, namely, to illustrate, in other words, in particular, specifically, such as

Contrast

on the contrary, contrarily, notwithstanding, but, however, nevertheless, in spite of, in contrast, yet, on one hand, on the other hand, rather, or, nor, conversely, at the same time, while this may be true

Comparison

similarly, likewise, in like fashion, in like manner, analogous to

Addition

in addition to, furthermore, moreover, besides, than, too, also, both-and, another, equally important, first, second, etc., again, further, last, finally, not only-but also, as well as, in the second place, next, likewise, similarly, in fact, as a result, consequently, in the same way, for example, for instance, however, thus, therefore, otherwise

Time

after, afterward, before, then, once, next, last, at last, at length, first, second, etc., at first, formerly, rarely, usually, another, finally, soon, meanwhile, at the same time, for a minute, hour, day, etc., during the morning, day, week, etc., most important, later, ordinarily, to begin with, afterwards, generally, in order to, subsequently, previously, in the meantime, immediately, eventually, concurrently, simultaneously

Space

at the left, at the right, in the center, on the side, along the edge, on top, below, beneath, under, around, above, over, straight ahead, at the top, at the bottom, surrounding, opposite, at the rear, at the front, in front of, beside, behind, next to, nearby, in the distance, beyond, in the forefront, in the foreground, within sight, out of sight, across, under, nearer, adjacent, in the background

Concession

although, at any rate, at least, still, though, even though, granted that, while it may be true, in spite of, of course

Emphasis

above all, indeed, truly, of course, certainly, surely, in fact, really, in truth, again, besides, also, furthermore, in addition

Details

specifically, especially, in particular, to explain, to list, to enumerate, in detail, namely, including

Examples

for example, for instance, to illustrate, thus, in other words, as an illustration, in particular

Result

so that, with the result that, thus, consequently, hence, accordingly, for this reason, therefore, so, because, since, due to, as a result, in other words, then

Summary

therefore, finally, consequently, thus, in short, in conclusion, in brief, as a result, accordingly

Suggestion

for this purpose, to this end, with this in mind, with this purpose in mind, therefore

Writer's Voice

Every writer has a different “writing style.” This style, or “voice,” is the personality of the writer coming through on the page. It is what gives the writing a sense of flavor, distinctiveness, and a feeling that the writer is talking directly to the reader. A strong sense of voice demands that the writer write with conviction. Voice is dependent on audience and the nature of the assignment.

In creative writing, students are often encouraged to experiment with different literary styles and techniques in order to better develop their “voice.”

In expository writing, students are expected to take a “professional” approach to writing. This means no informal language (slang, personal pronouns, contractions, abbreviations, etc.). Sophisticated vocabulary enhances the professional voice.

The Conclusion

The overall goal of a strong conclusion is to bring the journey of the paper to an end by stressing the importance of the thesis statement. It should give the essay a sense of completeness and leave a final impression on the reader.

Suggestions

1. Follow this simple framework – First, revisit your thesis without restating the exact wording of your original thesis. Secondly, synthesize (offer concluding thoughts about) the arguments you used to prove your thesis. Finally, end with a strong concluding insight. Leave the reader spellbound by your brilliance.

2. Answer the question “So What?”

In preparing your conclusion, consider the question “So What?” What ideas/insights do you want to leave with your reader?

3. Synthesize, don't summarize

Don't simply repeat things that were in your introduction or body. The reader has already read it. Show how your evidence was not random but logical and relevant.

4. Redirect your readers

Give your reader something to think about, perhaps a way to use your paper in the “real” world. If your introduction went from general to specific, make your conclusion go from specific to general. Think globally!

5. Offer an observation

You don't have to give new information to create an observation. By synthesizing your ideas, you can make your reader think and/or agree with your position.

RESEARCH

WHAT IS RESEARCH

Research is the process of learning more about a particular subject by reviewing a variety of sources. There are many steps included in the research process, all of which are detailed throughout this packet.

Types of Research

Informative Research Papers thoroughly inform the reader about a topic and include background information, details/statistics, and provide the various arguments about the subject. It is an unbiased account of the topic.

Persuasive Research Papers are often about a controversial topic and are meant to convince the reader to take the same viewpoints of the author. These papers also include background information, details/statistics supporting the author's viewpoints.

Note: There are also different types of citations in the research process. We will focus MLA citations.

THE PROCESS

1) Determine your topic

2) Establish a working thesis statement

It is important to create a thesis statement at the start of the research process so you have a focus, but please know this may change as you navigate your resources.

3) Search for materials and number your sources

How do you find reliable sources?

- Online databases, magazines, and newspapers are reliable sources.
- If using an Internet site, be sure it meets the following criteria:
 - The URL should end in .gov, .org, or .edu
 - The website should have an author and publication information
 - Wikipedia and personal blogs are not considered good sources, so don't use them; however, they may be a good starting point if you don't know much about the topic. They also offer links to reliable sources which you will be able to use for your paper.
- Make sure the source provides new and fantastic information that fits your topic, is interesting, and relates to your thesis statement.

NOTE: Be sure to label your sources so it is easier to cite the facts correctly.

What sources am I looking for?	Where and how do I find them?
Database Sources	
Encyclopedia Articles	
Full-length texts on the topic	
Magazine or Newspaper Articles	

What do I do when I find an article I think will be helpful?

4) Make bibliography cards for each source

Source #

All the sources you use in your paper **must be cited on your Works Cited page**. By creating a bibliography card for each source, it saves time from having to write out the bibliographic information on each note card. **There are different formats** for citing different sources; be sure to use the information in this packet to find the correct format for your source.

Punctuation is critical! If you miss any punctuation (commas, periods, quotation marks, etc.), your entry is incorrect!

3

Strickland, Jonathan. "What are the Pros and Cons of Social Networking Sites?" *How Stuff Works*. A Discovery Company, n.d. Web. 21 March 2012.

Note: This is an example → Please refer to the Citations page to determine the proper format for your source.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC FORMAT

These are MLA citations that will help you create your bibliography (citation) cards and your Works Cited page. If you use a source not listed here, or you need to use APA citations, please refer to OWL (Online Writing Lab at Purdue University). You can also generate citations on websites such as www.citationmachine.net and www.easybib.com, but please note these are not always accurate.

NOTE: Please note your works cited should be double spaced, using a hanging indent. Some of the examples below do not represent these techniques.

Book with One Author

Format: Author's Last Name, First Name. *Title of the Book*. City of publication: Publisher, Year. Print.

Example: Gleick, James. *Chaos: Making a New Science*. New York: Penguin, 1987. Print.

Book with More Than One Author

Example: Gillespie, Paula, and Neal Lerner. *The Allyn and Bacon Guide to Peer Tutoring*. Boston: Allyn, 2000. Print.

Book with No Author

Begin the citation with the title of the book and continue as noted above.

A Work Prepared by an Editor

Format: Cite the book as you normally would, but add the editor after the title.

Example: Bronte, Charlotte. *Jane Eyre*. Ed. Margaret Smith. Oxford: Oxford UP, 1998. Print.

Poem or Short Story Examples:

Format: Author's Last Name, First Name. "Title of the Poem." *Name of Anthology the Poem or Short Story originated*. Ed. Editor's Name. City of Publication: Publisher, Year of Publication. Page Number. Print.

Example: Burns, Robert. "Red, Red Rose." *100 Best-Loved Poems*. Ed. Philip Smith. New York: Dover, 1995. 26. Print.

NOTE: If the specific literary work is part of an author's collection (all of the works have the same author), then there will be no editor to reference.

Article in a Reference Book (e.g. Encyclopedias, Dictionaries)

Format: For entries in encyclopedias, dictionaries, and other reference works, cite the piece as you would any other work in a collection, but do not include the publisher information. If the reference book is organized alphabetically, as most are, do not list the volume or the page number of the article or item.

Example: "Ideology." *The American Heritage Dictionary*. 3rd ed. 1997. Print.

Government Publication

Format: Cite the author of the publication if the author is identified. Otherwise, start with the name of the national government, followed by the agency (including any subdivisions or agencies) that serves as the organizational author. For congressional documents, be sure to include the number of the Congress and the session when the hearing was held or resolution was passed. US government documents are typically published by the Government Printing Office, which MLA abbreviates as GPO.

Example: United States. Cong. Senate. Committee on Energy and Natural Resources. *Hearing on the Geopolitics of Oil*. 110th Cong., 1st sess. Washington: GPO, 2007. Print.

Pamphlet

Format: Cite the title and publication information for the pamphlet as you would a book without an author.

Example: *Women's Health: Problems of the Digestive System*. Washington: American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, 2006. Print.

Article in a Magazine

Cite by listing the article's author, putting the title of the article in quotations marks, and italicizing the periodical title. Follow with the date of publication. Remember to abbreviate the month.

Format: Author(s). "Title of Article." *Title of Periodical* Day Month Year: pages. Medium of publication.

Example: Poniewozik, James. "TV Makes a Too-Close Call." *Time* 20 Nov. 2000: 70-71. Print.

Article in a Newspaper

Format: Cite a newspaper article as you would a magazine article, but note the different pagination in a newspaper. If there is more than one edition available for that date (as in an early and late edition of a newspaper), identify the edition following the date (e.g., 17 May 1987, late ed.).

Example: Brubaker, Bill. "New Health Center Targets County's Uninsured Patients." *Washington Post* 24 May 2007:

LZ01. Print.



NOTE: If the newspaper is a less well-known or a local publication, include the city name and state in brackets after the title of the newspaper.

Example: Behre, Robert. "Presidential Hopefuls Get Final Crack at Core of S.C. Democrats." *Post and Courier*
[Charleston, SC] 29 Apr. 2007: A11. Print.

Editorial & Letter to the Editor

Format: Cite as you would any article in a periodical, but include the designators "Editorial" or "Letter" to identify the type of work it is.

Example: "Of Mines and Men." Editorial. *Wall Street Journal* east. ed. 24 Oct. 2003: A14. Print.

Anonymous Articles

Format: Cite the article title first, and finish the citation as you would any other for that kind of periodical.

Example: "Business: Global Warming's Boom Town; Tourism in Greenland." *The Economist* 26 May 2007: 82.
Print.

Article in a Scholarly Journal

Format: Author(s). "Title of Article." *Title of Journal* Volume. Issue (Year): pages. Medium of publication.

Example: Bagchi, Alaknanda. "Conflicting Nationalisms: The Voice of the Subaltern in Mahasweta Devi's *Bashai Tudu*." *Tulsa Studies in Women's Literature* 15.1 (1996): 41-50. Print.

Basic Style for Citations of Electronic Sources (Including Online Databases)

These are common features you should find before citing electronic sources in MLA style. Not every Web page will provide the following information; however, collect as much of the following information as possible.

- Author and/or editor names
- Article name in quotation marks
- Title of the Website, project, or book in italics. Remember, some print publications have Web publications with slightly different names. They may include additional information or modified information, like domain names such as .com or .net
- Publisher information, including the publisher name and publishing date
- Page numbers
- Medium of publication
- Date you accessed the material

NOTE: Remember to use n.p. if no publisher name is available and n.d. if no publishing date is given. If there is no author, begin the citation with the title.

Citing an Entire Web Site

Format: Editor, author, or compiler name (if available). *Name of Site*. Name of institution/organization affiliated with the site (sponsor or publisher), date of resource creation (if available). Medium of publication. Date of access.

Example: *The Purdue OWL Family of Sites*. The Writing Lab and OWL at Purdue and Purdue U, 2008. Web. 23 Apr. 2008.

Page on a Web Site

Format: For an individual page on a Web site, list the author or alias if known, followed by the information covered above for entire Web sites.

Example: "How to Make Vegetarian Chili." *eHow*. Demand Media, Inc., n.d. Web. 24 Feb. 2009.

Article in an Online Scholarly Journal

Format: For all online scholarly journals, provide the author(s) name(s), the name of the article in quotation marks, the title of the publication in italics, all volume and issue numbers, and the year of publication.

Article in an Online-only Scholarly Journal

Format: MLA requires a page range for articles that appear in Scholarly Journals. If the journal you are citing appears exclusively in an online format that does not make use of page numbers, use the abbreviation *n. pag.* to denote that there is no pagination for the publication.

Example: Dolby, Nadine. "Research in Youth Culture and Policy: Current Conditions and Future Directions." *Social Work and Society: The International Online-Only Journal* 6.2 (2008): n. pag. Web. 20 May 2009.

Article from an Online Database (or Other Electronic Subscription Service)

Format: Cite articles from online databases (e.g. LexisNexis, ProQuest, JSTOR, ScienceDirect) and other subscription services just as you would print sources. Provide the title of the database italicized, the medium of publication, and the date of access.

Example: Junge, Wolfgang, and Nathan Nelson. "Nature's Rotary Electromotors." *Science* 29 Apr. 2005: 642-44. *Science Online*. Web. 5 Mar. 2009.

E-mail (including E-mail Interviews)

Format: Give the author of the message, followed by the subject line in quotation marks. State to whom the message was sent, the date the message was sent, and the medium of publication.

Example: Kunka, Andrew. "Re: Modernist Literature." Message to the author. 15 Nov. 2000. E-mail.

A Listserv, Discussion Group, or Blog Posting

Format: Editor, screen name, author, or compiler name (if available). "Posting Title." *Name of Site*. Name of institution/organization affiliated with the site (sponsor or publisher). Medium of publication. Date of access.

Example: Salmar1515 [Sal Hernandez]. "Re: Best Strategy: Fenced Pastures vs. Max Number of Rooms?"

BoardGameGeek. BoardGameGeek, 29 Sept. 2008. Web. 5 Apr. 2009.

Personal Interviews

Format: Personal interviews refer to those interviews you conduct yourself. List the interview by the name of the interviewee. Include the descriptor Personal interview and the date of the interview.

Example: Purdue, Pete. Personal interview. 1 Dec. 2000.

Anonymous Work/Author Unknown

Format: If the work you are citing has no author, use an abbreviated version of the work's title. For non-print sources, such as films, pictures, or electronic sources, include the name that begins the entry in the Works Cited page.

Example: An anonymous Wordsworth critic once argued his poems were too emotional ("Wordsworth Is a Loser" 100).

RESEARCH STEPS CONTINUED

5) **Note Cards should be written as you read your sources.** This will save you time because you won't have to sift through your sources to find the notes you want.

Subtopic – This will help you organize your notes	Source #
Fact – If you copy words EXACTLY from the source, be sure to put quotation marks around the words; otherwise, you paraphrase or summarize notes from the document. ONLY list ONE fact per note card!	
Web or Page #	

Benefits of Social Networking	3
According to Strickland, social networking websites can help users create event invitations so gathering with friends is easier.	
Web	

6) Organize your note cards: Once you have created note cards for each fact you'll need for your paper, organize your note cards into separate piles based on the subtopics. This type of organization will lead to a more coherent paper, and the citation information will be readily available.

NOTE TAKING

If you are unsure if the information you have found in a source is worthy of a note card, ask yourself the following questions:

- Is it related to your thesis?
- Does it connect to one of your sub-topics?
- Is it something new and fantastic?
- Was this information covered in a different source?
- Is the information common knowledge?

QUOTING, PARAPHRASING, AND SUMMARIZING

Quotations must be identical to the original, using a narrow segment of the source. They must match the source document word for word and must be attributed to the original author.

Paraphrasing involves putting a passage from source material into your own words. A paraphrase must also be attributed to the original source. Paraphrased material is usually shorter than the original passage, taking a somewhat broader segment of the source and condensing it slightly.

Summarizing involves putting the main idea(s) into your own words, including only the main point(s). Once again, it is necessary to attribute summarized ideas to the original source. Summaries are significantly shorter than the original and take a broad overview of the source material.

Why use quotations, paraphrases, and summaries?

Quotations, paraphrases, and summaries serve many purposes. You might use them to:

- Provide support for claims or add credibility to your writing.
- Refer to work that leads up to the work you are now doing.
- Give examples of several points of view on a subject.
- Call attention to a position you wish to agree or disagree with.
- Highlight a striking phrase, sentence, or passage by quoting the original.
- Distance yourself from the original by quoting it in order to cue readers that the words are not your own.
- Expand the breadth or depth of your writing.

PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism is the deliberate taking of someone else's ideas or work as your own. You must give credit to the author(s) in the way of citations.

HOW TO AVOID PLAGIARISM:

- **Be careful when you are paraphrasing/summarizing material: Slight changes do not make the work yours. Document your source!**
- **If you do copy material exactly, make sure you have used quotation marks. Document your source!**
- **New and fantastic information may need to be verified later, so make sure have documented your source!**

NOTE: If you are having a hard time rephrasing facts from your sources, please see your teacher.

Turnitin.com: This website is an online tool to verify how much of your paper is taken from other sources. It is imperative the work you submit to your teacher is yours, not that of another student, website, or print source. You will be **required** to create an account and upload your research papers to this website.

QUOTATIONS

A quotation is a reference to an authority or a citation of an authority and does not have to be dialogue. There are two types of quotations: direct and indirect.

Direct Quotations use the exact words of an authority and must be identified in your paper with quotation marks and parenthetical documentation.

Indirect Quotations, or paraphrases, are a restatement of a thought expressed by someone else that is written in your style and needs parenthetical documentation.

Know when/how to use quotations:

- Use quotations when the **specific language** of a quote is important
- Use quotations when accuracy is essential—to indicate the **writer’s position**
- Use quotations to **support** your argument, rather than relying upon someone else’s words
- Look for the most **important part** of the quotation and extract it
- **Paraphrase** a quotation into your words when possible
- Do **not** use an abundance of quotes
- You must **introduce the quote** with some sort of transition; you cannot simply plop the quote within a paragraph and have it work.
- **Discuss** your quotations: What does it mean? How does it help establish your point? What is your interpretation or opinion of the quote?

Short Quotations:

To indicate short quotations (fewer than four typed lines of prose or three lines of verse) in your text, enclose the quotation within double quotation marks (“ ”). Punctuation (periods, commas and semicolons) should appear **after** the parenthetical citation.

Example: It is possible that dreams may express “profound aspects of personality” (Foulkes 184).



Long Quotations:

Place quotations longer than four typed lines in a free-standing block of text, and **omit quotation marks**. Start the quotation on a new line, with the entire quote indented one inch from the left margin; maintain double-spacing. Your end punctuation should come **before** the parenthetical citation.

Example:

Nelly Dean treats Heathcliff poorly and dehumanizes him throughout her narration: They entirely refused to have it...so, I put it on the landing of the stairs, hoping it would be gone on the morrow. By chance, or else attracted by hearing his voice, it crept to Mr. Earnshaw's door, and there he found it on quitting his chamber. Inquiries were made as to how it got there; I was obliged to confess, and in recompense for my cowardice and inhumanity was sent out of the house.

(Bronte 78) ← Notice the difference in location of the end punctuation. →

Adding or Omitting Words in Quotations:

If you add a word(s) to a quotation, you should put [brackets around the words] to indicate they are not part of the original text.

If you omit a word(s) from a quotation, you should indicate the deleted word(s) by using ellipsis marks (...) preceded and followed by a space.

OUTLINE

An outline is meant to help you organize your facts cohesively and to ensure you have enough information for each main point. The Roman numerals are your reasons while the capital letters will contain your evidence, details, and statistics. You can write in full sentences or not, but be consistent throughout.

NOTE: Below is a brief example of an outline to visually show you what yours should look like. Please know you may have to add Roman numerals and numbers to fit your topic and information.

- I. Introduction
 - A. Topic Sentence
 - B. Background information
 - C. Thesis Statement

- II. Background Information
 - A. What is it?
 - B. How does it work?
 1. If you add details here, you must have at least two supporting details
 - 2.
 - C.

- III. Benefits of Social Networking
 - A. Professional
 - B. Personal
 1.
 - a. This is where even more specific details would go
 - b.
 - c.
 - 2.

- IV. Disadvantages of Social Networking
 - A. Security
 - B.

- V. Conclusion
 - A. Revisit the idea of your thesis (do not restate)
 - B.

IN-TEXT PARENTHETICAL CITATIONS

In MLA style, citing others' works in your text is done by using parenthetical citations, or in-text citations. **Immediately following** a quotation from a source or a paraphrase of a source's ideas, you place the author's name, a space, and the page number, if known. If no author is known, use the title of the source.

When should I use a parenthetical citation?

- **When you have a statistic**
- **When you use direct quote**
- **When you have paraphrased the author's ideas**

Examples:

Human beings have been described as “symbol-using animals” (Burke 3).

Pay attention to the placement of punctuation.

“The best reason to join any social networking site is that it lets you make connections with other people” (Strickland).

NOTE: Do not cite common knowledge!

Citing Authors with Same Last Names

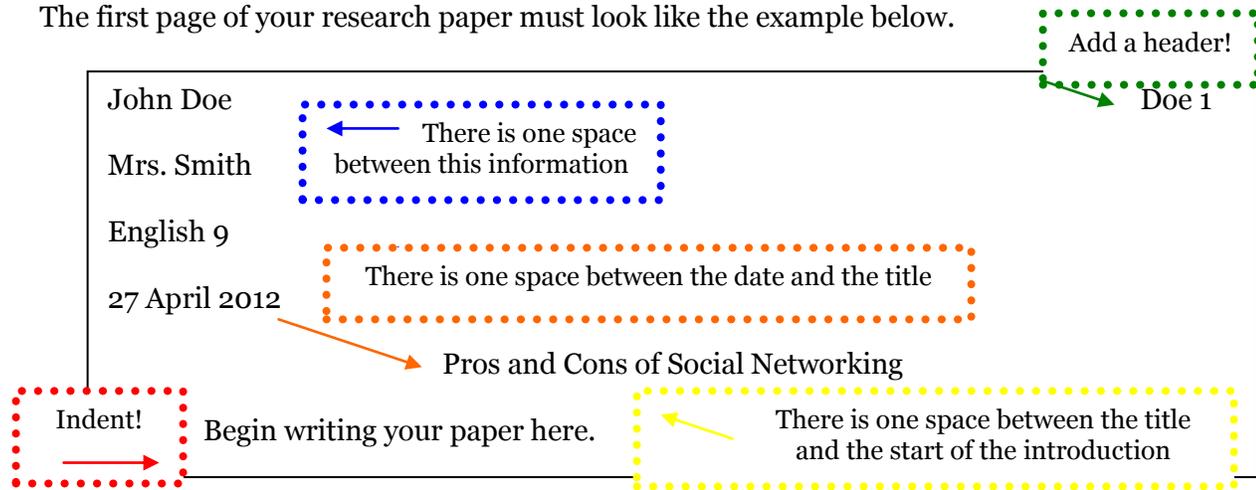
Format: If two or more authors have the same last name, provide both authors’ first initials and the authors’ full name if different authors share the same initials.

Example:

Although some medical ethicists claim that cloning will lead to designer children (R. Miller 12), others note the advantages for medical research outweigh this consideration (A. Miller 46).

FIRST PAGE FORMAT

The first page of your research paper must look like the example below.



WORKS CITED

All entries in the Works Cited page must correspond to the works cited in your main text.

- Begin typing the Works Cited on a separate page at the end of your research paper
- It should have one-inch margins and the same header as the rest of your paper
- Label the page: Works Cited
- Make sure the page title is centered
- Double-space all citations, but do not skip spaces between entries
- It must be in alphabetical order
- Every source referenced in the Works Cited page must appear in the body of the paper

PAPER FORMAT – GENERAL GUIDELINES

- Double space the text of your paper.
- Use Times New Roman font, 12-pt.
- Leave only one space after periods and punctuation marks.
- Set the margins to 1-inch.
- Indent the first line of each new paragraph.
- Create a header with your last name and page number in the upper right corner of the paper.
- Use italics throughout your essay for the titles of longer works and, only when absolutely necessary, providing emphasis.

Check:

Times New Roman, 12-point font

Double-space (Click Format, “Paragraph,” line spacing, scroll down to “double”)

Create a header (Click “View,” Select “Header and Footer,” click right align, type last name and add a space, click “Insert page number.” Your teacher may ask you to omit the number on the first page of your essay; please follow your instructor’s guidelines)

1” margins (File, Page Set-up, Change left and right margins to 1”)

Leave only one space after periods or other punctuation marks

Double-check your GPS (Grammar, Punctuation, Spelling): Don’t always trust Spell Check!

NOTE: The following is an example of a research paper so you can see how all the elements discussed above fit together in a unified product.

John Miller

Mrs. Smith

English 11-Honors

05 September 2012

Stem Cell Debate: Federal Funding

The rapid growth in scientific technology has led to the discovery of many cures and treatments for diseases and illnesses. Amidst this rapidly developing field, scientists have found a new avenue that has the potential to treat patients suffering from an array of serious sicknesses that have yet to find cures. This path is stem cell research. Stem cells are cells that have no specialized function but have the ability to form into many different types of cells that do have jobs. Because of the potential these cells offer to help people all around the world, scientists feel that their research should be subject to federal funding; however, they have not been given access to it. There are two main types of stem cells: adult stem cells and embryonic stem cells. Adult stem cells are not an issue; but the embryonic stem cells have raised controversy and thus questions pertaining to the effectiveness of and the ethical use of embryonic stem cells have risen. The limited amount of evidence relating to the effectiveness of embryonic stem cell treatment, in addition to the ethical controversy over the treatment itself, leaves the government with no choice: Congress cannot pass a bill to federally fund stem cell research.

Funding for adult stem cells is not the issue. Adult stem cells, at present, are understood enough to be used in clinical trials (“What”). Stem cell research began in the mid-1960s when scientists discovered these unique cells in animals (“What”). Over the years the research advanced in depth when stem cells were found in the embryos of animals (“What”).

In November 1998, two separate groups of scientists reported they had been successful in extracting human embryonic stem cells from unborn fetuses (“What”). Anxious to find use

for the stem cells, researchers put in a request for federal funding but the government hesitated.

The government's reluctance to make a decision was due to the information found so far with respect to the embryonic cells effectiveness. The scientists claimed the embryonic stem cells were more promising than the adult cells; however, a successful experiment has yet to be performed. Daniel McConchie, the Director of Public Relations and Public Policy for The Center for Bioethics and Human Dignity has been very much involved in the findings of stem cell research (McConchie). In experiments performed on animals, adult cells have been more successful in reversing the effects of diabetes (McConchie). Adult stem cells have also been used to treat furry patients with Parkinson's disease, which, after injection, showed an 80% recovery of disease related symptoms (McConchie). Adult stem cells have not been successful in every test though. As reported by researchers at the University of Chicago, the matured cells failed in regenerating tissue on the lining of the heart (Magnus and Caplan). However, adult stem cells few failures are acceptable when compared to embryonic cells multiple mishaps. Embryonic stem cells have repeatedly killed animals injected with them (McConchie). Tumors forming from stem cell division have consistently been the cause of death in the animals (McConchie). Scientists believed that embryonic cells would be more versatile but they have not lived up to the expectations made over six years ago ("Senate").

Ethical issues have been the main argument against funding for stem cell research.

Clashing opinions between organizations such as the Coalition of the Advancement of Medical Research (CAMR) and the National Association for the Advancement of Pre-born Children (NAAPC) forced the government to make a compromise (Jackson). President Bush, the final decision maker on the subject, sides with conservative groups with the opinion that embryonic stem cell research is related to abortion. In a quote from his speech on the topic he stated, "I also believe human life is a sacred gift from our Creator" ("Remarks"). Each embryo is unique in its genetic

make-up and has the potential to form an individual human being (“Remarks”). Mankind has no business toying with life, given by God, simply for the advancement of science. Taking a stem cell out of an embryo at two to seven weeks kills it (“Remarks”). Killing something is not possible unless it was once alive. The liberal opinion on the issue is the sick have the right to do everything in their power to find a cure for the disease that they have in order to live a better life (Magnus and Caplan). This statement, however, is contradictory to other statements made in the past. They are focused so much on the rights of individuals but they overlook the “right to life” that the unborn children are entitled to. Stem cell research is the deliberate loss of life, also known as murder.

In conclusion, embryonic stem cell research should not be federally funded due to the lack of information on the effectiveness of the treatment and the ethical issues that surround it. No successful experiment with the cells has been performed thus far and it is morally wrong for human life to be lost for the sake of scientific advancement.

Works Cited

Magnus, David and Arthur Caplan. "Stem Cell Research Will Now Proceed; The Issue Is How."

Mercurynews.com. San Jose Mercury News, 13 Dec. 2004. Web. 16 Dec. 2004.

McConchie, Daniel. "Adult Stem Cells- 3, Embryonic Stem Cells- 0." *chbd.org*. Trinity International University, 17 June 2004. Web. 16 Dec. 2004.

"Remarks by the President on Stem Cell Research." *WhiteHouse.gov*. The United States Government, 9 Aug. 2001. Web. 16 Dec. 2004.

"Senate Panel Probes Stem Cell Debate." *FoxNews.com*. Fox News Network, 15 July 2004. Web. 16 Dec. 2004.

"What Are Embryonic Stem Cells?" *nih.gov*. National Institutes of Health, 11 June 2004. Web. 16 Dec. 2004.

THE LANGUAGE OF LITERATURE

Literary Elements

Setting: the time and place of the action

1. Time: The setting usually establishes when action takes place, such as the historical period (past, present, or future), or a specific year, season, or time of day.
2. Place: Place involves where the action occurs, such as a region, country, state, or town, or may even be more specific.
3. Setting also refers to the social, economic, or cultural environment of the action. This includes moral patterns, class distinctions, ancestral attitudes, religious and other beliefs.

Plot: the plan of events by which conflict is introduced, developed, and resolved

1. Exposition: the part of the play or story that helps the reader understand the background information or situation in which the work is set. The exposition brings the conflict or problem to the reader's attention.
2. Inciting Incident: The first event or character, not necessarily the protagonist, that triggers the conflict.
3. Rising Action (development or complication): the conflicts develop and grow through the action in the story. This is the major portion of the story.
4. Climax (crisis): the point of no return; the point in the story where the battling forces meet head-on and a final showdown takes place. (Minor climaxes may take place during the story too.)
5. Falling Action: the action of a play or story that works out the decision arrived at during the climax.

6. Resolution (Denouement): this is the point at which the conflict is finally settled. The resolution is achieved when one force succeeds, fails, or gives up, and is meant to bring the story to a satisfactory ending.
7. Foreshadowing: The use of clues to suggest what will happen later in the story.
8. Flashback: is an interruption in a sequence of events to relate an event from an earlier time.
Hint: in movies/TV shows, the screen gets blurry or voices get muffled when a flashback occur.
9. Conflict: the struggle between opposing forces (two people, two groups, or two ideas)
 - In an external conflict, the protagonist struggles against an outside force.
 - In an internal conflict, the protagonist is in a psychological struggle with himself or herself.
 - The basic conflicts in fiction are:
 - ⇒ Person versus (vs.) self
 - ⇒ Person vs. society / society's institutions
 - ⇒ Person vs. nature / environment
 - ⇒ Person vs. person
 - ⇒ Person vs. fate / supernatural

Characterization: an author's creation and development of a character

1. Direct Characterization: when an author states directly a character's traits
2. Indirect Characterization: when an author forces the reader to infer what a character is like through the following ways:
 - What the character **says**
 - What the character **does (actions)**
 - How the character **reacts to others**
 - How the other characters **talk about and react to the character**
 - How the character **relates to his surroundings**
 - What the character **thinks and feels**
3. Motivation: a reason that explains or partially explains a character's thoughts, feelings, actions, or behavior, which is the result of the character's personality and the circumstances he or she must deal with in a conflict.

4. Point of View: the writer's choice of narrator for a work, which determines the type and amount of information the writer reveals to the reader. In literature, **this does NOT refer to a character's perspective.**

- *First Person Subjective*: The narrator is a major or minor character that reports the events as if they have just happened. This narrator appears to be unaware of the full meaning of the events. (The reader knows more than the narrator does.)
- *First Person Detached*: The narrator is a major character in the story who recalls the events from the vantage point of maturity. S/He has had time to reflect on the meaning of the events.
- *First Person Observer*: The narrator is a minor character in the story who has the role of eyewitness and confidant. His/Her sources of information are what s/he hears and sees and what the main character tells him/her.
- *Second Person*: Use of the imperative/command mood and the pronouns *you*, *your*, and *yours* to address a reader or listener directly. "You have brains in your head. You have feet in your shoes. You can steer yourself any direction you choose. You're on your own. And you know what you know. And YOU are the guy who'll decide where to go." (Dr. Seuss, *Oh! The Places You'll Go!* 1990) This point of view is used in tweets and blogs.
- *Third Person Objective*: The narrator is an anonymous person outside the story who reports only what the characters do and say.
- *Third Person Limited*: The narrator is an anonymous person outside the story who reports what the characters do and say AND can get inside the mind of one particular character to report what that character is thinking and feeling. (Imagine a mind-reading parrot perched on one character's shoulder.)
- *Third Person Omniscient*: The narrator is an anonymous person outside the story who plays an all-knowing role. S/He not only reports what the characters do and say, but also enters the minds of the characters (more than one of them), reveals their thoughts and feelings, and comments on their actions.

Theme: a central message or insight into life revealed in the literary work and is transferable

1. The theme may be stated directly or implied.
2. When it is implied, readers think about **what the work seems to say about the nature of people or about life.**
3. The literary work can be viewed as a specific example of the generalization the writer is trying to communicate.

Irony: using a word or phrase to mean the exact opposite of its literal or normal meaning

1. Dramatic Irony: The reader or audience sees a character's mistakes or misunderstandings, but the character himself does not. For example, in *Romeo and Juliet*, we know that Juliet isn't really dead at her own funeral...but Romeo doesn't.
2. Verbal Irony: The writer says one thing but means another. For example, one could say, "What a beautiful day!" while looking out the window at the blizzard.
3. Situational Irony: There is a great difference between the purpose of a particular action and the result. The cause of this difference is a force (or forces) that operates beyond human control, which could be social, political, environmental, or fate.

Tone: The author's attitude, stated or implied, toward a subject

1. Some possible attitudes are pessimism, optimism, earnestness, seriousness, bitterness, humorous, and joyful.
2. An author's tone can be revealed through choice of words and details. Think DIDLS (diction, imagery, details, language, and syntax).

Mood: The *climate of feeling* in a literary work

The choice of setting, objects, details, images, and words all contribute towards creating a specific mood. For example, an author may create a mood of mystery around a character or setting but may treat that character or setting in an ironic, serious, or humorous tone.

Imagery: the words or phrases a writer selects to create a certain picture in the reader's mind

1. Sight...
2. Hearing...
3. Touch...
4. Taste...
5. Smell...

Suspense: a feeling of uncertainty about the outcome of events in a literary work. Writers create suspense by raising questions in the minds of their readers.

Literary Techniques

What is figurative language? A *figure of speech* is a rhetorical device that achieves a special effect by using words in distinctive ways. Whenever you describe something by comparing it with something else, you are using figurative language. Any language that goes beyond the literal meaning of words in order to furnish new effects or fresh insights into an idea or a subject is considered to be figurative.

Common Figurative Techniques:

1. **Metaphor** - A figure of speech which involves a *direct or implied comparison* between two relatively unlike things. Example: The road was a ribbon of moonlight.
2. **Simile** - A figure of speech in which *like* or *as* is used to make a comparison between two basically unlike subjects. Example: Claire is as flighty as a sparrow. (Claire = sparrow)
3. **Metonymy** – (mə-TOŋ-ə-mē) - A figure of speech in which *one word or phrase* is substituted for another with which it is closely associated, as in the use of *Washington* for *the United States government* or of *the sword* for *military power*.
4. **Synecdoche** (si-NEK-di-key) - A figure of speech in which *a part is used to represent the whole* (for example, *ABCs* for *alphabet*) or the whole for a part ("*England* won the World Cup in 1966").
5. **Personification** - A figure of speech which gives the qualities of a person to an animal, an object, or an idea. It is a comparison which the author uses to show something in an entirely new light, to communicate a certain feeling or attitude towards it and to control the way a reader perceives it. Example: a brave handsome brute fell with a creaking rending cry--the author is giving a tree human qualities. **Apostrophe** is talking directly to an inanimate object. Example: "Twinkle, twinkle, little star, / How I wonder what you are. / Up above the world so high, / Like a diamond in the sky." (Jane Taylor, "The Star," 1806)
6. **Symbol (Symbolism)**: a symbol is anything that stands for or represents something else. An object that serves as a symbol has its own meaning, but it also represents abstract ideas. Symbols also can be related to the theme of a literary work.
7. **Hyperbole** - An exaggerated statement used to heighten effect. It is not used to mislead the reader, but to emphasize a point. Example: She's said so on several million occasions.
8. **Understatement** - A figure of speech in which a writer or speaker deliberately makes a situation seem less important or serious than it is. Contrast with hyperbole. Example: •"I have to have this operation. It isn't very serious. I have this tiny little tumor on the brain." (Holden Caulfield in *The Catcher in the Rye*, by J. D. Salinger)
9. **Paradox** is a contradiction that proves to be true. Example: "War is peace. Freedom is slavery. Ignorance is strength." (George Orwell, 1984)
10. **Oxymoron** - a figure of speech in which words of opposite meaning or suggestion are used together. Examples: fiery ice, bittersweet, pleasing pain, wise fool

Rhetorical Techniques (unusual but *literal* uses of language)

(**Rhetoric** is the art of oral and written communication, an art that aims to improve the facility of speakers or writers who attempt to inform, persuade, or motivate particular audiences in specific situations.)

1. **Antithesis** – a strong contrast between two ideas
2. **Parallelism** – the use of similar grammatical forms (words, phrases, clauses) to give items equal weight
3. **Repetition** – the use, again, of any element, such as a sound, word, phrase, clause, or sentence
4. **Rhetorical Question** – a question asked for effect but not meant to be answered because the answer is clear

Techniques Involving Sound

(commonly but not exclusively found in poetry)

1. **Alliteration** - Repeated consonant sounds occurring at the beginning of words or within words. Alliteration is used to create melody, establish mood, call attention to important words, and point out similarities and contrasts. Example: wide-eyed and wondering while we wait for others to waken.
2. **Assonance** – The repetition of vowel sounds in nearby words. It is used to reinforce the meanings of words or to set the mood. Example: "Hear the mellow wedding bells" by Edgar Allan Poe
3. **Consonance** - The repetition of the same consonant two or more times in short succession, as in "pitter patter" or in "all mammals named Sam are clammy."
4. **Onomatopoeia** - The use of words that mimic sounds. They appeal to our sense of hearing and they help bring a description to life. A string of syllables the author has made up to represent the way a sound really sounds. Example: Caarackle!
5. **Rhythm** – the pattern of beats, or stressed or unstressed syllables, in a line

Some Literary Elements Unique to Poetry

1. Rhyme Scheme (the pattern of rhymes in a poem)

- **Rhymed verse** is poetry with a regular rhyme scheme.
- **End rhyme** is rhyming at the ends of lines.
- **Internal rhyme** is rhyming within lines, as in "I see a bumblebee."
- **Slant rhyme** is a near rhyme, as in "What did the wind/ Seek to find?"

2. Meter (the rhythmical pattern in a poem)

Meter in poetry is the pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables. Stressed syllables are signified by / and unstressed syllables by u. There are multiple meter patterns but the four most prevalent are:

- **iambic:** u / Example: hello
- **trochaic:** / u Example: under; most nursery rhymes
- **dactylic:** / u u Example: canopy
- **anapestic:** u u / Example: understand

Poetry examples:

- u / u / u / u / u / Iambic: Shall I compare thee to a summer's day
- / u / u / u / u Trochaic: Mary had a little lamb whose fleece was white as snow
- / u u / u u Dactylic: Take her up tenderly
- u u / u u / u u / u u / Anapestic: So I walk by the edge of a lake in my dream

3. **Free verse** is poetry that does not have a set pattern of rhythm or rhyme.

4. **Blank verse** is poetry written in unrhymed iambic pentameter lines.

5. **Metrical verse** is poetry with a regular rhythmical pattern such as a sonnet or a ballad.

6. Stanza Form

- A **stanza** is a group of lines
- A **couplet** is a two-line stanza.
- A triplet or a **tercet** is a three-line stanza.
- A **quatrain** is a four-line stanza.
- A **quintain** is a five-line stanza
- A **sestet** is a six-line stanza.
- An **octave** is an eight-line stanza.
- A **sonnet** is a poem with fourteen lines having any of a number of different standard rhyme schemes.

9th Grade ELA CORE Vocabulary Words

1. **anecdote:** (n) short, usually funny account of an event
2. **benevolent:** (adj) friendly and helpful
3. **condescending:** (adj) snobby: behaving toward other people in a way that shows you consider yourself superior
4. **conformist:** (n) person who complies with accepted rules and customs
5. **demagogue:** (n) leader, rabble-rouser, usually appealing to emotion or prejudice
6. **diligent:** (adj) careful and hard-working
7. **disdain:** (v) to regard with scorn or contempt
8. **empathy:** (n) identification with the feelings of others
9. **emulate:** (v) to imitate, follow an example
10. **frugal:** (adj) thrifty, cheap
11. **hedonist:** (n) person who pursues pleasure as a goal
12. **impetuous:** (adj) rash, impulsive, acting without thinking
13. **inevitable:** (adj) certain, unavoidable
14. **novice:** (n) apprentice, beginner
15. **parched:** (adj) dried up, shriveled
16. **precocious:** (adj) unusually advanced or talented at an early age
17. **reclusive:** (adj) preferring to live in isolation
18. **reconciliation:** (n) the act of agreement after a quarrel, the resolution of a dispute
19. **resilient:** (adj) quick to recover, bounce back
20. **spontaneity:** (n) impulsive action, unplanned events
21. **submissive:** (adj) tending to meekness, to submit to the will of others
22. **subtle:** (adj) hard to detect or describe; perceptive
23. **superficial:** (adj) shallow, lacking in depth
24. **tactful:** (adj) considerate, skillful in acting to avoid offense to others
25. **wary:** (adj) careful, cautious

10th Grade ELA CORE Vocabulary Words

1. **aesthetic:** (adj) pertaining to beauty or the arts
2. **amicable:** (adj) friendly, agreeable
3. **arid:** (adj) extremely dry or deathly boring
4. **assiduous:** (adj) persistent, hard-working
5. **digression:** (n) the act of turning aside, straying from the main point, esp. in a speech or argument
6. **enervating:** (adj) weakening, tiring
7. **ephemeral:** (adj) momentary, transient, fleeting
8. **evanescent:** (adj) quickly fading, short-lived, esp. an image
9. **exasperation:** (n) irritation, frustration
10. **haughty:** (adj) arrogant and condescending
11. **impute:** (v) to attribute an action to particular person or group
12. **integrity:** (n) decency, honesty, wholeness
13. **intrepid:** (adj) fearless, adventurous
14. **intuitive:** (adj) instinctive, untaught
15. **jubilation:** (n) joy, celebration, exultation
16. **ostentatious:** (adj) showy, displaying wealth
17. **provocative:** (adj) tending to provoke a response, e.g., anger or disagreement
18. **prudent:** (adj) careful, cautious
19. **rancorous:** (adj) bitter, hateful
20. **scrutinize:** (v) to observe carefully
21. **substantiate:** (v) to verify, confirm, provide supporting evidence
22. **superfluous:** (adj) extra, more than enough, redundant
23. **suppress:** (v) to end an activity, e.g., to prevent the dissemination of information
24. **transient:** (adj) temporary, short-lived, fleeting
25. **vindicate:** (v) to clear from blame or suspicion

11th Grade ELA CORE Vocabulary Words

1. **adulation:** (n) high praise
2. **camaraderie:** (n) trust, sociability amongst friends
3. **censure:** (v) to criticize harshly
4. **circuitous:** (adj) indirect, taking the longest route
5. **clairvoyant:** (adj) exceptionally insightful, able to foresee the future
6. **convergence:** (n) the state of separate elements joining or coming together
7. **divergent:** (adj) separating, moving in different directions from a particular point
8. **exemplary:** (adj) outstanding, an example to others
9. **extenuating:** (adj) excusing, lessening the seriousness of guilt or crime, e.g., of mitigating factors
10. **fortuitous:** (adj) happening by luck, fortunate
11. **incompatible:** (adj) opposed in nature, not able to live or work together
12. **inconsequential:** (adj) unimportant, trivial
13. **mundane:** (adj) ordinary, commonplace
14. **nonchalant:** (adj) calm, casual, seeming unexcited
15. **opulent:** (adj) wealthy
16. **orator:** (n) lecturer, speaker
17. **pretentious:** (adj) pretending to be important, intelligent or cultured
18. **prosaic:** (adj) relating to prose; dull, commonplace
19. **querulous:** (adj) complaining, irritable
20. **reverence:** (n) worship, profound respect
21. **sagacity:** (n) wisdom
22. **spurious:** (adj) lacking authenticity, false
23. **surreptitious:** (adj) secret, stealthy
24. **tenacious:** (adj) determined, keeping a firm grip on
25. **venerable:** (adj) respected because of age

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