St. Francis High School Writing and Reference Guide 2017

Introduction

Writing is one of the most crucial skills to learn while in high school. Good writing will allow you to be successful well beyond the high school classroom.

This reference guide is intended to be used while writing papers at St. Francis High School. Although it has been compiled by the English Department, the guidelines and standards apply to any paper that you write regardless of the class for which it is written.

This is not all the information you will need to write well but it is intended to assist you in writing better papers. It should be one of the tools that you use when you sit down to write a paper for any class.

Please use this guide. You will be expected to know its contents.

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FORMAT FOR PAPERS

Although there are many accepted formatting styles, the following are the standards used at St. Francis High School and are based on the Modern Language Association (MLA) guidelines.

The following specifications apply to all papers unless otherwise approved by the instructor:

- Type your name and the page number in the upper right hand corner of each page, one-half inch below the top edge. Use Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, and so on.)
- Include a name block in the upper left hand corner of the first page only. (In college you may be asked to include your professors' name directly below yours.)

Name Golden Knight
Class, Block English 9, A
Date 10/11/12

- Typed on a computer in twelve point type (maximum) and double spaced
- Times New Roman or Arial font
- Margins: one inch on sides and one-and-a-half inch top and bottom (maximum)
- Margins are unjustified and aligned on the left side of the paper (not the right)
- Typing quality paper (no lined, used, or notebook paper)
- New paragraphs should be indented with either five spaces or one ½" Tab
- New paragraphs begin one double-spaced line below the previous line (no extra spaces)
- Page numbers on each page. (The top-right following your last name.)
- Original title that refers to the content of the work and is not be the title of the work which you are discussing or the name of the assignment. Your original title should not be italicized or underlined.
- Do not use a title page.
- Folders and binders are not needed for formal papers.
- For each paper, your instructor will give you a cover sheet that is to be stapled to the front of your paper.
- If you do not turn in a paper, you will be asked to fill in an "Incomplete Assignment" form that will take the place of your paper in your writing folder.

St. Francis High School Plagiarism Policies and Turnitin.com

Plagiarism

Plagiarism refers to a form of intellectual theft that can be defined as the taking of another's wording or particularly apt phrase, ideas or line of thinking and presenting them as one's own without appropriate acknowledgement of the source. Paraphrasing another's argument is considered plagiarism because it is the presentation of another's ideas and line of thinking. In his writing, then, a student must document everything that he borrows: not only direct quotations, statistics, photographs, graphs and paraphrases but also information and ideas. "Another" can mean a professional source, such as a published writer or critic in a book, magazine, encyclopedia, or journal; an electronic resource such as material on the World Wide Web; another student at our school or anywhere else; a paper-writing "service" (online or otherwise) which offers to sell written papers for a fee. (Modern Language Association of America 1998)

For the purposes of grading and discipline, St. Francis High School considers plagiarizing one word of text no different than plagiarizing an entire paper.

Using one's own paper that has been previously turned in for credit (unless agreed to by the teacher) is also considered plagiarism. All work turned in for credit is expected to be original and written specifically for that particular assignment.

Plagiarism is dealt with like any other case of academic dishonesty as described in the Student Handbook.

Turnitin.com

St. Francis High School subscribes to Turnitin.com, which is a web-based service that helps teachers to identify possible instances of plagiarism. The site does not make the determination of what is plagiarized; it simply supplies a statistical analysis of how much of the paper appears to be original as compared to its own data base of papers and a scan of the World Wide Web. As always, the teacher alone makes the determination of plagiarism.

The website offers a comprehensive article on how it performs this task at http://turnitin.com/static/plagiarism.html. Students will be expected to turn in a digital copy of all formal papers to Turnitin.com and a hard copy of the paper in class.

Types of Writing

Most types of writing fall into one of the following three categories: narrative, expository, and persuasive.

<u>Narrative</u>: This type of writing tells a personal or fictional experience. It may be fiction or non-fiction, but its primary concern is the conveying of a story.

<u>Expository</u>: Expository writing is writing that gives information or an explanation of something. The writing is very precise with no room for interpretation.

<u>Persuasive</u>: Persuasive writing actively attempts to convince the reader of a certain perspective, observation, or opinion. It often tries to get the reader to take action.

<u>Process/Instructional</u>: This type of writing is a type of expository writing that gives the reader step-by-step technical directions on performing a specific action.

<u>Literary Analysis / Style Analysis</u>: These are used when an author attempts to explain an interpretation of one or more works of literature. Typically persuasive in nature, the topics may include: theme, imagery, character, symbols, conflict, tone, plot, point of view, setting, or a combination thereof.

<u>Compare/Contrast</u>: Similar to that of literary analysis, this type allows an author to explore two or more works (or elements of a single work) and provide some interpretation based on this juxtaposition.

<u>Research</u>: This type of writing is the academic way of presenting thoughts and ideas. The writing is heavily influenced by many sources and contains citations and a bibliography. The author typically borrows concepts from other works not to repeat them, but because they help support a new argument.

<u>Cause/Effect</u>: Cause and effect writing is a type of expository writing that helps the reader to understand a process, system, or chain of events.

<u>Biographical/Autobiographical</u>: These are usually kinds of narratives that tell stories about specific people.

<u>Creative</u>: This is a narrative writing style that encourages a writer to explore the possibilities of language.

<u>Reflective</u>: Reflective writing is a narrative that allows the writer to look back at a personal experience and reinterpret it.

<u>College Application Essay</u>: This is a narrative used by colleges to determine what kind of potential student the writer is. It is an opportunity to see how an individual can express him/herself through writing. Schools look for use of organization, style, grammar, mechanics, word usage and structure of ideas.

Writing a Formal Essay

Writing Terminology for the Formal Essay

Please keep in mind that these terms are merely suggestions; each teacher's terminology may differ.

The knowledge of each of the following terms is essential. These terms are part of the nomenclature used by Jane Schaffer, Writing Teacher Extraordinaire. For additional information, please refer to:

Schaffer, Jane. *Teaching the Multi-Paragraph Essay: A Sequential Nine-Week Unit*, 3rd Edition. San Diego; Jane Schaffer Publications, 1995.

Essay: a piece of writing that gives your thoughts about a subject. Formal essays contain a minimum of four paragraphs that include an introductory paragraph, a number of body paragraphs, and a conclusion (for these definitions, see below).

Introduction: the first paragraph in an essay. It includes the thesis statement, usually in the last sentence of the paragraph.

Body Paragraphs: These paragraphs develop and support the thesis statement.

Conclusion: The last paragraph in your essay. It may sum up your ideas and reflect on what is in your essay, and adds commentary to your position. Your conclusion is essentially commentary and adds no concrete detail. It does not repeat key details nor does it repeat verbatim your thesis statement. It gives a finished feeling to your essay.

Thesis: A sentence with a subject and an opinion. It is typically placed as the last sentence of your introductory papers. In longer works, it may be in your second, or even third paragraph.

Pre-writing: the process of getting your concrete details down on paper before you organize your essay into paragraphs. Pre-writing comes in the following forms: clusters, spider diagrams and webs, outlines, line clustering, or columns.

Concrete detail (CD): specific details that form the backbone or core of your body paragraph. Synonyms for CDs include terms such as facts, specifics, examples, descriptions, illustrations, support, proof, evidence, quotations, paraphrasing, or plot references.

Commentary (CM): your opinion or comment on the CD. Synonyms include opinion, insight, analysis, interpretation, inference, personal response, feelings, or evaluation.

Topic Sentence (TS): The first sentence of a body paragraph. Like a thesis statement, your TS must have a subject and opinion. A topic sentence is to a paragraph as a thesis statement is to an essay.

Concluding Sentence (Clincher or CL): the last sentence in a body paragraph. It contains no CD, does not repeat key terms, and gives a finished feeling to the paragraph.

Shaping the Essay: The step that is done after prewriting and before the first draft of the essay; it is an outline of your thesis, topic sentences, concrete details, and commentary ideas.

First Draft: the first draft of your paper. This is also referred to as a rough draft. This draft is used to look at, consider points of your work, and revise any necessary errors in grammar, mechanics, and fallacy of your argument.

Final Draft: The final draft of your paper.

Peer Response: written response and reactions to a peer's paper.

Chunk: In English writing, a chunk is one CD followed by two CMs; in psychology, history, or economics, a chunk is two CDs followed by one CM.

Weaving: the blending of CDs and CMs. This is a common trait used by advanced writers.

Ratio: 1:2 (one CD for two CMs) in English papers.

The Writing Process

Prewriting

Prewriting is the process of finding information related to the question you need to answer. You can do this by scanning books, periodicals, and websites for pertinent information related to your topic.

As you find concrete detail in your research, you will be able to add commentary to what you find. This can easily be done by using one of the prewriting methods listed above. Make certain you acquire an adequate amount of evidence to prove your point.

Introductions

As you write, remind yourself that you are communicating your thoughts and ideas to a reader. It is your job to deliver adequately your beliefs in a methodical way. In writing an introduction, your job is to tell the reader exactly what you will be writing about. Therefore, you must include the subject of the essay plus your opinion on the topic.

Your introductory paragraph will contain a minimum of three sentences. It is all commentary and it MUST be interesting. When writing a formal literary analysis, make certain your introduction includes first and last name of the author and the complete title of the work. Look at the following formula and see how:

Sentence#1: Make a comment on the general subject of your paper.

Sentence#2: Comment on the first sentence

Sentence #3: Thesis Statement. Make certain it contains the essay's subject and your opinion (for amplification, see definition of Thesis statement).

Here is an example of an appropriate introduction:

Learning about other people and cultures requires the ability to look at the world through others' perspectives. Often, nearsightedness is the result of misunderstanding or ignorance. In Harper Lee's <u>To Kill a Mockingbird</u>, Scout, Jem, and Dill learn the importance of sensitivity, compassion, and understanding through Atticus's lessons and their encounters with Boo Radley and Tom Robinson. (You may also italicize the title of a novel.)

How to Get an Appropriate Thesis Statement from Your Subject

The subject of your essay is what you have been assigned. The first step in writing your paper is assessing the nature of the question your teacher asks you. Make sure you understand what each word in the question means. Not understanding the meaning of a word can lead to confusion in your writing, which can result in a reduced grade.

In order to create a suitable thesis statement, ask yourself the following questions:

- 1. What question is my assignment asking?
- 2. How can I answer the question and focus the answers by using facts from the text?
- 3. Can I sum up the main idea of my paper?
- 4. What particular words or ideas can I relate to my thesis?
- 5. Is my idea in adequate order and is it clear?

Good thesis statements tell the reader precisely what you want to convey—your personal opinion based upon fact.

Create two or three different versions, using different words, of the same thesis statement. This will help you shape your essay.

Before you formulate a thesis statement, make certain you identify the nature of what you need to write. For example, if an English teacher assigns an essay on the necessity of empathy in Harper Lee's *To Kill a Mockingbird*, you will not need to write a voluminous work that requires great insight and deep thoughts, as empathy is a major theme in the work. Therefore, you might want to aim for at least two pages, which roughly translates into a two to three page essay.

Look at the following examples of thesis statements for this assignment:

- 1. The kids learn lessons in Harper Lee's *To Kill a Mockingbird*.

 Notice that this not a suitable thesis as it lacks specific names of children and what exactly they learn.
- 2. The use of language in Harper Lee's *To Kill a Mockingbird* exemplifies the apex of class and racial discord, which leads to a community of intolerance. *You will see that this thesis is too broad for a short paper; it will require too many citations of concrete detail to prove and will require you to write at least seven to ten pages.*
- 3. Scout, Jem, and Dill learn the necessity and importance of compassion and empathy in Harper Lee's *To Kill a Mockingbird. This is a suitable thesis statement given the scope of your paper; you only need a few examples of empathy to prove your point.*

The thesis statement is the most important sentence in your essay; it governs the depth and weight of your writing. Make sure it is suitable for your writing level and that it fits with the idea you hope to convey.

In summary, the thesis statement is the sentence in your essay's introduction that identifies your subject and the opinion you have regarding the topic. All your research and each body paragraph in your essay must support the thesis statement, so you must limit your assertion to a workable size.

Concrete Details

Concrete details are the foundation on which your opinions are formed. A famous person once said, "Your ideas are only as good as the facts you have to back them up." Compare this to an attorney saying that his or her client is innocent, but can produce no proof. Obviously, the attorney will not be in business for very long. In short, your opinion will carry greater weight if you can support it with solid facts.

Concrete detail comes from books, fiction and nonfiction, magazine articles, newspapers, the internet, and elsewhere; they come in the form of direct and indirect quotations, paraphrasing, facts related to specific events, and descriptions.

Here are some examples:

- 1. The Green Bay Packers won both Superbowls I and II.
- 2. Atticus forces Jem to read to Mrs. Dubose.
- 3. Lance Armstrong won the Tour de France seven times.
- 4. Lady Macbeth laments, "What's done is done."

You need to include CD in your essay because it is the foundation of your thesis statement. Concrete details are observable, can be proved, and are the "What questions" related to your topic. Often times in literary analysis essays, CDs will be direct quotations from the text.

Commentary

Commentary is based on your opinion and is a response to CD. It is an interpretation of action, your insight and analysis, and the character's possible feelings in a story.

In essays for English class, it is best to write with two commentaries for every concrete detail; this is written out as a 1:2 ratio, since CDs are written before Commentary, hence One CD for every two CMs.

Here is an example of a 1:2 chunk:

Despite threats to his children, Dill, and himself, Atticus remains steadfast in his defense of Tom Robinson. (CD—this is a paraphrase of Atticus' actions—it can be seen in Lee's words) This shows that he is committed to justice and personal integrity in standing by this decision. CM—this is an initial reaction to the CD. This is important because Mr. Finch has the courage of his convictions. CM—this is an assessment of the initial commentary

Conclusions

Conclusions are meant to give your paper a finished quality. Like the introduction, the conclusion is a minimum three sentence paragraph. It is an all-commentary paragraph that restates your personal attitude towards the subject about which you have just written.

In the concluding paragraph, make certain you summarize your position without using key words or your thesis statement. In essence, your job in the conclusion is to let the reader know that you are capable of making an assessment of the question you have been assigned. As you advance as a writer, you should be able to conclude beyond a simple restatement of your main argument.

Here is a basic guideline for your conclusion:

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Sentence#1: (The writer hopes to convey that...)
Sentence #2: (because...)
Sentence #3: (as a result...)
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Here is an example of what a conclusion based on *To Kill a Mockingbird* might look like:

(Harper Lee wants us to know that...) Community relations can be improved with an understanding among its denizens.

(Because) It is important to learn from neighbors, regardless of race, social status, or gender.

(As a result,) Growth comes from the result of learning patience and tolerance by people who celebrate difference.

Rewriting

Rewriting, also called editing, is crucial to writing a good paper. Make sure to reread your writing thoroughly after some time away from it. Do not be afraid to have someone else proofread your paper before you turn it in.

Check for the following:

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Proper format
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name block original title not underlined last names and page numbers and in the top right corner of each page each page properly formatted/cited quotations

Content:

Intro paragraph:

name of author and work (if writing about literature). Clear thesis statement

Body Paragraphs:

Clear topic sentences that relate to/support your thesis one topic only per paragraph
Sufficient and appropriate concrete details (direct quotations).
Insightful commentary

Conclusion:

Avoid simply restating your thesis.

Go beyond your thesis.

Discuss the importance of your argument.

For example: Conclusions for <u>To Kill a Mockingbird</u> might include:

A discussion of whether or not Harper Lee's message is relevant today.

A comment about how Lee's personal experience led to the novel.

Commentary about racial relationships today.

A look at a secondary theme (How innocence is lost or how ignorance leads to violence.)

A review of what makes the novel a classic.

Final Checklist:

Make a final check for the following:

Your paper should:

Be free of spelling and other typographical errors.

Use a varied vocabulary that is appropriate for a formal paper. (Avoid simplistic, stilted, or overly formal diction.)

Use present tense, active verbs whenever possible.

Use proper punctuation.

Use proper capitalization.

Use proper subject-verb and pronoun agreement.

Have an appropriate tone for the audience and setting.

Have a clear introduction that includes a clear thesis statement.

Include specific and relevant concrete detail.

Include insightful commentary

Be sufficiently concluded.

Be logically organized.

Be done in good taste.

Your paper should not contain:

slang, clichés, nor nonstandard vocabulary

abbreviations

contractions

personal references (I, you, we, etc.)

repetitive words nor phrases

information nor commentary not directly related to central topic and thesis

unsupported assertions

overly obvious statements (Many authors make points in their writing.)

verb tense shifts

passive voice

sentence fragments

run-on sentences

unnecessary words (the fact that, by way of, etc.)

Remember: Your paper is a reflection of the pride that you take in your work. You alone are responsible for the quality of the final product you submit.

Using Quotations

- Use quotations to support your assertions as often as possible.
- Quote only words, phrases, lines, and passages that are particularly interesting, vivid, unusual, or apt.
- Keep all quotations as brief as possible.
- Use an ellipsis (...) when you leave out information that is not crucial to your point.
- Avoid overuse of quotations.
- In general, a quotation should correspond exactly to its source in spelling, capitalization, and interior punctuation.
- Use [brackets] if you change any word for agreement or clarification.
- Whenever possible, integrate the quotation into your own text.

Good:

Atticus tells Jem, "I wanted you to see what real courage is, instead of getting the idea that courage is a man with a gun in his hand" (112).

Better:

Atticus explains that he "wanted [Jem] to see what real courage is, instead of getting the idea that courage is a man with a gun in his hand" (112).

Punctuation and Citing of Quotations According to the MLA:

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. Provide the specific page citation (in the case of verse, provide line numbers) in the text. Punctuation marks such as periods, commas, and semicolons should appear after the parenthetical citation.

Atticus explains that he "wanted [Jem] to see what real courage is, instead of getting the idea that courage is a man with a gun in his hand" (112).

Question marks and exclamation points should appear within the quotation marks if they are a part of the quoted passage but after the parenthetical citation if they are a part of your text. For example:

Upon Dill's arrival, Jem asks him, "How'd you get here?" (140).

Was Miss Maudie correct when she tells Jem, "Things are never as bad as they seem" (215)?

Mark breaks in short quotations of verse (poetry) with a slash, /, at the end of each line of verse. Remember to use line numbers instead of page numbers:

Cullen concludes, "Of all the things that happened there/ That's all I remember" (11-12).

Long Quotations

If a quotation is longer than five typed lines set it in a free-standing block of text, and omit quotation marks. Start the quotation on a new line, with the entire quotation indented one inch (or ten spaces) from the left margin; maintain double-spacing. Your parenthetical citation should come after the closing punctuation mark. When quoting verse, maintain original line breaks. For example:

Miss Maudie maintains her positive approach to life even after her house burns down:

Only thing I worried about last night was all the danger and commotion it caused. This whole neighborhood could have gone up. Mr. Avery'll be in bed for a week—he's right stove up. He's too old to do things like that and I told him so. Soon as I can get my hands clean and when Stepahnie Crawford's not looking, I'll make him a Lane cake. That Stephanie's been after my recipe for thirty years, and if she thinks I'll give it to her her just because I'm staying with her she's got another think coming. (73).

In literary analysis, citations from multiple authors should be cited with the author's last name and the page number (*Lee*, 191). Any paper that relies on research from multiple sources requires either end notes, footnotes, or a works cited page.

Footnotes and Endnotes

Because long explanatory notes can be distracting to readers, most academic style guidelines (including MLA) recommend limited use of footnotes/endnotes.

MLA discourages extensive use of explanatory or digressive notes.

Numbering Endnotes and Footnotes

Footnotes in MLA format are indicated by consecutively-numbered superscript arabic numbers in the main text **after** the punctuation of the phrase or clause the note refers to:

Some have argued that such an investigation would be fruitless.⁶

Scholars have argued for years that this claim has no basis, ⁷ so we would do well to ignore it.

However, note references appear **before** dashes:

For years, scholars have failed to address this point⁸—a fact that suggests their cowardice more than their carelessness.

Do not use asterisks, daggers, or other symbols for note references. The list of endnotes and footnotes (either of which, for papers submitted for publication, should be listed on a separate page, as indicated below) should correspond to the note references in the text.

Formatting Endnotes and Footnotes

The MLA recommends that all notes be listed on a separate page titled Notes (no quotation marks or italics), which should appear before the Works Cited page. This is especially important for papers being submitted for publication. The notes themselves are listed by consecutive superscript arabic numbers and appear double-spaced in regular paragraph format (a new paragraph for each note) on a separate page under the word Notes (centered, in plain text without quotation marks).

In the case that you need to format footnotes on the same page as the main text, footnotes should begin four lines (two double-spaced lines) below the main text. Single-space notes formatted as footnotes on the page, but double-space between individual notes.

Works Cited Page: Basic Format

According to MLA style, you must have a Works Cited page at the end of your research paper. Works Cited page preparation and formatting is covered in chapter 5 of the MLA Handbook, and chapter 6 of the MLA Style Manual. All entries in the Works Cited page must correspond to the works cited in your main text.

The MLA Style Manual provides extensive examples of source citations in chapter six; the MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers provides extensive examples covering a wide variety of potential sources in chapter six. If your particular case is not covered here, use the basic forms to determine the correct format, consult one of the MLA books, or talk to your instructor.

Basic Rules

- Begin your Works Cited page on a separate page at the end of your research paper. It should have the same one-inch margins and last name, page number header as the rest of your paper.
- Label the page Works Cited (do not underline the words Works Cited or put them in quotation marks) and center the words Works Cited at the top of the page.
- Double space all citations, but do not skip spaces between entries.
- List page numbers of sources efficiently, when needed. If you refer to a journal article that appeared on pages 225 through 250, list the page numbers on your Works Cited page as 225-50.
- If you are citing an article or a publication that was originally issued in print form but that you retrieved from an online database, you should provide enough information so that the reader can locate the article either in its original print form or retrieve it from the online database (if they have access).

Capitalization and Punctuation

- Capitalize each word in the titles of articles, books, etc, but do not capitalize articles, short prepositions, or conjunctions unless one is the first word of the title or subtitle: *Gone with the Wind, The Art of War, There Is Nothing Left to Lose*
- Use italics or underlining for titles of larger works (books, magazines) and quotation marks for titles of shorter works (poems, articles).

Listing Author Names

Entries are listed by author name (or, for entire edited collections, editor names). Author names are written last name first; middle names or middle initials follow the first name:

Burke, Kenneth Levy, David M. Wallace, David Foster

Do not list titles (Dr., Sir, Saint, etc.) or degrees (Ph.D., M.A., D.D.S., etc.) with names. A book listing an author named "John Bigbrain, Ph.D." appears simply as "Bigbrain, John"; do, however, include suffixes like "Jr." or "II." Putting it all together, a work by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. would be cited as "King, Martin Luther, Jr.," with the suffix following the first or middle name and a comma. For additional information on handling names, consult section 3.8 of *The MLA Handbook* and sections 6.6.1 and 3.6 of the *MLA Style Manual*.

Works Cited Page: Books

Books

First or single author's name is written last name, first name. The basic form for a book citation is:

Lastname, Firstname. Title of Book. Place of Publication: Publisher, Year of Publication.

Book with One Author

Gleick, James. Chaos: Making a New Science. New York: Penguin Books, 1987.

Henley, Patricia. The Hummingbird House. Denver: MacMurray, 1999.

Other Print/Book Sources

Certain book sources are handled in a special way by MLA style.

The Bible (specific editions)

Give the name of the specific edition, any editor(s) associated with it, followed by the publication information

The New Jerusalem Bible. Susan Jones, gen. ed. New York: Doubleday, 1985.

Your parenthetical citation will include the name of the specific edition of the Bible, followed by an abbreviation of the book and chapter:verse(s), e.g., (*The New Jerusalem Bible* Gen. 1:2-6).

Works Cited: Periodicals

MLA style is slightly different for popular periodicals, like newspapers, and scholarly journals, as you will learn below.

An Article in a Newspaper or Magazine

Basic format:

Author(s). "Title of Article." Title of Periodical Day Month Year: pages.

When writing the date, list day before month; use a three-letter abbreviation of the month (e.g., Jan., Mar., Aug.). 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.).

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

Trembacki, Paul. "Brees Hopes to Win Heisman for Team." Purdue Exponent 5 Dec. 2000: 20.

Works Cited: Electronic Sources

Some Tips on Handling Electronic Sources

It is always a good idea to maintain personal copies of electronic information, when possible. It is good practice to print or save Web pages or, better, using a program like Adobe Acrobat, to keep your own copies for future reference. Most Web browsers will include URL/electronic address information when you print, which makes later reference easy. Also learn to use the Bookmark function in your Web browser.

Basic Style for Citations of Electronic Sources

Here are some common features you should try and find before citing electronic sources in MLA style. Always include as much information as is available/applicable:

- Author and/or editor names
- Name of the database, or title of project, book, article
- Any version numbers available
- Date of version, revision, or posting
- Publisher information
- Date you accessed the material
- Electronic address, printed between carets (<, >).
- Web Sources

Web sites (in MLA style, the "W" in Web is capitalized, and "Web site" or "Web sites" are written as two words) and pages are arguably the most popular form of electronic resource today. Below is the basic format for citing from a Web site. For more specifics, see the MLA Manual.

An Entire Web Site

Basic format:

Name of Site. Date of Posting/Revision. Name of institution/organization affiliated with the site (sometimes found in copyright statements). Date you accessed the site. <electronic address>.

It is necessary to list your date of access because web postings are often updated, and information available on one date may no longer be available later. Be sure to include the complete address for the site. Here are some examples:

The Purdue OWL Family of Sites. 26 Aug. 2005. The Writing Lab and OWL at Purdue and Purdue University. 23 April 2006. http://owl.english.purdue.edu/.

Felluga, Dino. *Guide to Literary and Critical Theory*. 28 Nov. 2003. Purdue University. 10 May 2006 http://www.cla.purdue.edu/english/theory/>.

Treat entire Weblogs or "blogs" just as you would a Web site.

Selected Highlights of Punctuation

When beginning a review of punctuation it is important to remember that punctuation in not an exact science: therefore, a writer has considerable, but NOT unlimited, latitude in the choices he makes. Most of the following rules are NOT arbitrary.

Capital Letters:

Use a capital letter with:

proper nouns or adjectives: substantives relating to God or the Bible

Mr. Edward Liner, Exodus, Mark 2:8-25,

first word of a sentence, line of poetry, direct quotation

Please close the door. "How do I love thee, let me count the ways."

pronoun I, interjection Oh, many abbreviations (not i.e., etc., a.m.)

I wish to study more.

first word of salutation and complimentary close in letters

Sincerely yours,

John Smith

north, south, east, west, and their combinations ONLY when referring to specific sections of the country or world

The South will rise again.

words in titles EXCEPT articles, propositions, coordinating conjunctions

The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn

in school subjects ONLY languages or course subjects followed by numbers and/or letters

Algebra 2, Latin 1

Apostrophes

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Use an apostrophe with:

plurals of letters, numbers, figures or word/letter names

B's, 10's

a contraction

don't, I'll, they're

possession: 1) singular: add 's 2) plural: add 'to plural: if not ending in s, add s

Mary's, the students' schedules, people's attitudes
```

Period

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Use a period:
    after declarative or imperative sentences
    Go to bed.
    after many abbreviations (not AAA, WPA, etc.)
    U.S. History
    with three (ellipsis) to show omission in quoted material (four if omission is at end of a sentence)
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Dash

Use a dash:

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to show a sudden change of thought

John – James, I mean – will present the next poem.

to set off repetition

to emphasize an appositive

in place of parentheses when material is as important as the rest of the sentence
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Question Mark

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Use a question mark:
    after interrogative sentence or quote
    in parentheses to show doubt or uncertainty, e.g. He was born in 1206. (?)
    in closely-knit questions, e.g. have you dated Mary? Ann? Alice?
    when in doubt about quoted material, put question mark in brackets [?]
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Exclamation Point

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Use an exclamation mark:
    after exclamatory sentence
    That film was terrible!
    after strong interjection
    Stop it!
```

Quotation Marks

Use quotation marks:

around a direct quotation or any part of one

before each paragraph of quoted material: close quotes only at end

around unusual nicknames, slang, new or unusual terms, foreign words (in printed material, italics are usually used.)

for titles of compositions LESS than books or magazines (chapters, poems, articles, bulletins, lectures, etc.)

in quotations within quotations - alternate double and single quotes

Underlining

Underline titles of books, magazines, very long poems, ships, planes, and works of art.

The Yearling

Hyphen

Use a hyphen:

to divide syllables at end of line

to join two or more words serving as a single unit (two-in-one-shampoo)

Parenthesis

Use a parenthesis to enclose parenthetical, supplementary, or explanatory material

Brackets

Use brackets to enclose comments, explanation, or correction or change in QUOTED material

Colon

Use a colon:

before words, phrases, or clauses used as appositives or restatements

before an enumeration or formal question or quotation

after the salutation in a business letter

to separate mathematical rations, hours and minutes, chapter and verse, title and subtitle, values and page

Semicolon

Use a semicolon:

to replaced a coordinating conjunction in a compound sentence

when needed for clarity because of an abundance of commas

before an adverbial conjunction joining clauses in a compound sentence, e.g. <u>moreover</u>, nevertheless, in fact, for example, however, etc.

Comma

Use a comma:

in series of words, phrases, clauses, numbers, figures, letters

to set off non-restrictive clauses, direct quotations, appositives of more than one word, direct address, parenthetical expressions, salutation

after <u>yes</u>, <u>no</u>, direct address, nominative absolute, introductory verbal phrases, adverbial clauses which begin a sentence

before the coordinate conjunction in a compound sentence to show ellipsis or contrast. (e.g. I chose the large gift and Harry, the small.)

Selected Highlights of Formatting and Style

Paragraph

Is indented; deals with one point; the beginning of a new paragraph signals a new step in the development of your subject.

• Sentence Fragment

is not a complete thought; lacks a subject or a verb or both.

The principal laid great stress upon courteous behavior. The mark of a gentleman.

• Run-on Sentence

Two or more independent clauses joined by conjunctions.

Use periods or semicolons to separate into smaller segments.

Poe wished to convey a melancholy mood and he even wrote an essay on the subject and he was successful when he wrote "The Raven."

• Comma Splice

Two independent clauses joined by a comma.

Join with a semicolon instead or divide into two separate sentences.

He heard the shouts of the bystanders, now he knew why his father was late.

Agreement

If the subject of a sentence is singular, the verb needs to agree with it.

He has a dream. - Singular

They have a dream. - Plural

• Essential Clauses

Use *who* or *whom* in referring to persons and to animals with names; use *that* to refer to an inanimate object.

An essential clause cannot be eliminated without substantially changing the meaning of a sentence.

An essential clause must <u>not</u> be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Students who read the handbook should know the rules.

• Nonessential Clauses (Nonrestrictive)

Use who or whom in referring to persons; use which to refer to an inanimate object.

Can be eliminated without changing the basic meaning of the sentence.

A nonessential clause must be set off by commas.

• Newspaper, Magazine, and Book Titles

Capitalize the first word, the last word, and words of four or more letters.

Underline or italicize the title of a long work.

The Los Angeles Times; Time magazine; Of Mice and Men

• Poem, Song, Television Program Titles

Put quotation marks around the names of short works.

"The Raven," "The Star Spangled Banner," the "CBS Evening News"

• Use of Words or Numerals (MLA section 3.5.2)

If you are writing about literature or another subject that involves infrequent use of numbers, you may spell out numbers written in one or two words and represent other numbers by numerals (one, thirty-six, ninety-nine, fifteen hundred, two thousand, three million, but $2\frac{1}{2}$, 101, 137, 1,275).

Do not begin a sentence with a numeral (spell it out). *Nineteen ninety-two began with good omens*.

Common Usage Errors

```
a, an
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a- before consonant sounds

an- before vowel sounds (a, e, i, o, u,)

accept, except

accept- to receive

except- "leaving out" or "other than"

adapt, adopt

adapt- to change (adapting to the weather)

adopt- to take as one's own (adopting a child)

advice, advise

advice- noun, the subject of the sentence

The advice you gave me worked.

advise- verb, an action

I advise you to seek medical help.

affect, effect

affect- verb meaning "to influence"

effect- noun: "result"

all right, alright

all right- agreed or O.K., formally written as TWO words

allot, a lot, alot

allot- to divide in parts

a lot- great amount (Try to avoid.)

alot- NEVER USED

all ready, already

all ready- everyone ready

already- by or before this time, even now

all together, altogether

all together- all at once altogether- completely

allude, elude

allude- an indirect mention (you allude to a book) elude- avoid somebody (you elude a pursuer)

allusion, illusion

allusion- an indirect reference

illusion- unreal image, false impression

among, between

among- preposition implying three or more

between- preposition implying TWO items

beside, besides

beside- at the side of, close to

Beside him was his dog.

besides- in addition to

Besides him, Patty and Nick were at the gathering.

bring, take

bring- to carry from a distant place to a nearer place

Bring us a souvenir from New York.

take- to carry from a near place to a more distant place

Take this note to the office.

different from is the preferred form and not different than.

The summer heat of Arizona is different from that of Utah.

emigrate, immigrate

emigrate- to leave a country for a new residency

My teacher emigrated from the Philippines.

immigrate- to enter a country to establish a residency.

My Filipino teacher immigrated to the U.S. in 1986.

farther, further

farther- distance

further- in addition

fewer, less

fewer- objects that can be counted

fewer marbles, fewer calories

less- qualities and quantities that cannot be counted.

Less miserable, less pain

former, latter

former- first of two persons

latter- the other person (2nd of 2)

He gave two opinions. The former the students approved; the latter was opened for debate

it, its, it's

it- pronoun

its-possessive

On its maiden voyage, the Poseidon sank.

It's- contraction for it is

It is my desire to see her.

It's my desire to see her.

lay, lie

lay is a transitive verb (takes an object) that means to put or set something down.

lay, laid, laid, laying

Please lay the blankets on the shelf. (present)

He laid the book on his desk before he left. (past)

He is laying the foundation of this building. (present participle)

He has laid his keys on the night stand. (past participle)

lie is an intransitive verb (no object needed) and means to recline or rest on a surface.

lie, lay, lain, lying

Lie on the grass. (present)

After mowing the lawn, he lay in the hammock. (past)

Grandfather is lying on the sofa. (present participle)

These towels have lain on the floor since yesterday. (past participle)

loose, lose

loose- adjective- not tight; to "cut loose"

lose- verb- to miss from one's possession (lost)

principle, principal

principle- a fundamental law

principal- most important; chief

quote, quotation

quote- verb (William quoted Shakespeare.)

quotation- noun (The quotation that William used was from Bacon.)

regardless, irregardless

regardless- does not matter

irregardless- NEVER USED

than, then

than-used in comparisons

then- refers to passage of time

that, which, who

that- may refer to people but usually to things

which- usually refers to things

who- refers only to people

Here is the tool that (or which) you will need.

He is a man who (or that) works very hard.

their, there, they're

their- possessive pronoun, always modifies a noun

there-direction, location

they're- contraction for they are

to, too, two

to-preposition

too- also

two- number

whether, weather

whether- if it is so that, if either

weather- climate

Literary/Poetic Terms

allegory - a story in which the people, places and things represent general concepts or moral qualities.

alliteration - the repetition of the same or similar consonant sounds in words that are close together.

allusion - a brief reference to someone or something that is known from literature, history, or some other branch of culture that is assumed to be recognized by the reader. e.g. *The old man was a Scrooge*. (Charles Dickens' *A Christmas Carol*)

analogy - a comparison between two things to show how they are alike, e.g. Life at school can be a roller coaster ride.

anecdote - a short entertaining account of some happening, frequently personal.

antagonist - the opponent who struggles against the hero of a story.

aphorism - a brief, cleverly worded statement that makes a wise observation about life.

apostrophe – when a writer addresses an inanimate object, an idea, or a person who is dead or absent.

assonance - the repetition of vowels sounds in words that are close together.

caesura - a pause or break in a line of writing, poetry or in a speech.

cliché - a word or phrase that has lost its power due to overuse, e.g. pretty as a picture.

colloquialism - word or phrase used in everyday speech but avoided in formal writing. e.g. He got "burned out" from working too hard.

conceit - an elaborate metaphor that compares two startlingly different things.

connotation - the associations and emotional overtones that have become attached to a word or phrase, in addition to its strict dictionary definition.

consonance - the repetition of consonant sounds at the end of words, e.g. tic-tock, ping-pong.

denotation - the strict dictionary definition of a word.

diction - an author's choice of words.

elegy - a poem of mourning written in honor of someone who has died.

ellipsis - 1) the sign (...) indication that something has been left out of a quotation. 2) in grammar, the omission of words necessary for complete construction but understood in context, e.g. If (it is) possible, (you) come early for dinner.

euphemism - a mild or inoffensive phrase used in place of a harsher one. e.g. "He passed away" in place of "He died".

fable - a very short story that teaches a practical lesson about life.

figure of speech - a word or phrase that describes one thing in terms of another and is not meant to be taken literally. e.g. He's a pain in the neck.

foil - a character who is used in contrast to or to inspire another character

foreshadowing - the use of hints to suggest what might happen later

hyperbole - an exaggeration used for effect

imagery - the use of language to evoke a picture or to appeal to our senses

irony - 1) verbal irony - saying one thing but meaning something else. 2) situational irony - an unexpected twist in a plot. 3) dramatic irony - when the audience knows more than the characters involved

metaphor - a figure of speech that compares two unlike things without the use of such specific comparison words as *such*, *like*, or *resembles*. e.g. He ran out of gas near the end of the workout.

metonymy - a figure of speech in which a person, place, or thing is referred to by something closely associated with it, e.g. the President as "the White House" and a monarch as "the crown"

onomatopoeia - the use of words whose sounds echo their senses, e.g. "buzz" or "hum"

oxymoron - a figure of speech that combines opposite or contradictory terms in a brief phrase, e.g. "deafening silence"

parable - a short story from which lessons may be drawn; Christ used the parable to teach his followers moral truths.

paradox - a statement that appears self-contradictory but reveals some kind of truth. e.g. He was alone in the crowd of people.

parody - a work that makes fun of another work by imitating some aspect of its style

parallel structure - using the same part of speech or syntactic structure in a series. e.g. *Over the river, through the woods* to grandma's house we go. That vegetable is both *low in calories* and *rich in vitamins*.

personification - a figure of speech that gives human qualities to nonhuman objects

point of view - the vantage point form which a writer tells a story

protagonist - the central character in a story who initiates or drives the action

satire - a type of writing that ridicules the shortcomings of society in an attempt to bring about a change

simile - a figure of speech that makes a comparison between two unlike things, using a word such as like, as, than, or resembles. e.g. He runs as fast as the wind.

symbol - something that stands for another thing; frequently used to represent an idea. e.g. The dove is a symbol of peace.

synecdoche - a figure of speech in which a part represents a whole, e.g. "wheels" in place of car

theme - a central idea or insight of a work of literature

tone - an attitude a writer takes toward the reader, a subject, or a character

understatement - deliberately representing something as much less than it really is

vernacular - the language spoken by the people who live in a particular place.

How to Write a Timed Essay

- 1. Organize- Even though this is a timed essay, you need to take time to organize your thoughts. Briefly list your ideas and make a rough outline of your essay. Decide in what order you will present your ideas. You should take at least one fourth of your allotted time to organize your essay.
- **2.** Thesis statement-Make sure that you state your argument clearly in your introductory paragraph. Whether you are listing facts or proving a point, you need a thesis that clearly indicates what you are going to write.
- **3. Paragraphs-** Use separate paragraphs for each idea or point you wish to convey. Indent clearly at the beginning of each paragraph.
- **4. Examples-** Use examples wherever possible. You should use as many facts as possible from whatever subject you are covering. Try to include your own analysis that explains what each example is intended to show.
- **5. Grammar and spelling-** You are not expected to write error-free on a timed essay but your use of proper grammar and spelling are crucial to the overall quality of your essay. Regardless of the class for which you are writing, rules of style and grammar are important.
- **6. Edit-** If you have time, review. Reread and correct any mistakes that you see. Everything you correct will not need to be corrected by your teacher and will not be counted against your grade. Feel free to cross out neatly or add words. As long as you are neat, corrections and additions will help your paper, not hinder it.
- **7. Length-** Answer all parts of the question thoroughly. Remember that paragraphs are made up of a combination of sentences—not single sentences. An average test essay will be at least four or five complete paragraphs.

Ten Steps for Writing a Research Paper:

- 1. Choose a topic that can be adequately covered in the number of pages required.
- 2. Find relevant sources. The library is a good place to start.
- 3. Read and evaluate the sources
- 4. Keep track of where the information came from. Start the bibliography here.
- 5. Develop a thesis. Make sure you have a point that you are going to prove.
- 6. Work up an outline.
- 7. Write a rough draft first. (Notice that the actual writing begins in step 7 of 10.)
- 8. Revise and then revise again. Correct your paper as a teacher would.
- 9. Provide documentation in the notes, bibliography, and works cited page.
- 10. Type the final draft and proofread. Make your paper immaculate.

St. Francis High School English Department Correction Symbols

Begin a new paragraph here

No new paragraph needed.

Spelling error.

Wrong word - this word is used incorrectly.

Word choice - choose a more appropriate word.

Awkward - reword this sentence or phrase.

Sentence fragment - this in not a complete sentence.

Transition - this is a poor transition from one topic to another.

Insert - there is something missing here.

Repetitious - you use this word or phrase too often.

Run-on - this sentence needs to be divided into smaller sentences.

Agreement - the subject doesn't fit with this form of the verb in this sentence

Unclear - it is not obvious what this is intended to mean.

Inversion - these need to be switched.

Delete - leave this out.

Non-parallel structure

Comma splice - this should be two separate sentences.

Colloquial statement- Use a more formal style