

GRAMMAR, WRITING, and RESEARCH HANDBOOK



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ENGLISH DEPARTMENT**

This handbook is to be used as a reference tool.

Grammar

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Summary of Capitalization Rules

Rule 1: Capitalize names and titles of people

CAPITALIZE

M. L. King, Jr.

Miss Jody Pacella

General Schwarzkopf

Uncle Karl

Dr. Greene

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a leader

a neighbor

a general

my uncle

a doctor

Rule 2: Capitalize ethnic groups, nationalities, and languages

CAPITALIZE

Maori

French

Yiddish

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

an ethnic group

a nationality

a language

Rule 3: Capitalize organizations, institutions, political parties and their members, government bodies, business firms, and teams

CAPITALIZE

Girl Scouts of America

Smithsonian Institution

Democratic Party/Democrat

Parliament

General Motors

Cleveland Indians

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

an organization

an institution

democratic theories

a governing body

an automobile manufacturer

a baseball team

Rule 4: Capitalize names of places

CAPITALIZE

Third Street

Portland, Oregon, U.S.A.

Galapagos, Islands

New England

Pacific Ocean

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a street

a city, state, or country

islands

a region

an ocean

Rule 5: Capitalize planets and other astronomical bodies

CAPITALIZE

Jupiter

Big Dipper

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a planet

a constellation

Rule 6: Capitalize monuments, buildings, bridges, and other structuresCAPITALIZE

Washington Monument
 Sears Tower
 JFK Bridge
 Eiffel Tower

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a monument
 a skyscraper
 a bridge
 a structure

Rule 7: Capitalize ships, planes, trains, and spacecraftCAPITALIZE

USS Constitution
 Enola Gay
 Apollo 13

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a ship
 a plane
 a spacecraft

Rule 8: Capitalize historical events, special events, and calendar itemsCAPITALIZE

The Civil War
 Kentucky Derby
 Inauguration Day
 July, December
 Monday

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a war
 a race
 a holiday
 summer, winter
 a day of the week

Rule 9: Capitalize religious termsCAPITALIZE

Allah
 Our Lady
 Catholicism/Catholic
 Koran
 Passover

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a deity
 a revered being
 a religion/a religious follower
 a religious book
 a holy day

Rule 10: Capitalize school coursesCAPITALIZE

French
 Advanced Calculus
 History 152

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a foreign language
 calculus
 a history course

Rule 11: Capitalize titles of worksCAPITALIZE

Fools of Fortune

“A Rose for Emily”

National Geographic

the Daily News

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a book

a short story

a magazine

a newspaper

Rule 12: Capitalize documents, awards, and lawsCAPITALIZE

The Magna Carta

Distinguished Flying Cross

Atomic Energy Act

DO NOT CAPITALIZE

a document

an award

a law

Parts of Speech

NOUNS

A **noun** is a word that names a person, a place, a thing, or an idea.

EXAMPLES	Person	uncle, doctor, baby, Luisa, son-in-law
	Place	kitchen, mountain, Web site, West Virginia
	Thing	apple, tulip, continent, seagull, amplifier
	Idea	respect, pride, love, appreciation, century

SINGULAR AND PLURAL NOUNS

Nouns can be singular or plural, depending on whether they name *one* person, place, thing, or idea or *more than one*.

EXAMPLES	Singular	girl, switch, hobby, life, goose, fish
	Plural	girls, switches, hobbies, lives, geese, fish

POSSESSIVE NOUNS

The possessive form of a noun can show possession, ownership, or the general relationship between two nouns. Add an apostrophe and –s to form the possessive of any singular noun, even one that already ends in s. Use an apostrophe alone to form the possessive of a plural noun that ends in s.

EXAMPLES	Singular Possessive	Plural Possessive
	The kitten's tail	the kittens' tails
	Her dress's collar	her dresses' collars
	The wife's speech	the wives' speeches
	The cookie's decoration	the cookies' decorations
	The story's villain	the stories' villains
	The watch's battery	the watches' batteries

COMPOUND NOUNS

A **compound noun** is a noun made of two or more words. Compound nouns may be open, hyphenated, or closed.

EXAMPLES	Open	gray fox, press secretary, line of sight
	Hyphenated	mother-in-law, tenth-grader, good-bye
	Closed	folksinger, headlight, postmaster

CONCRETE AND ABSTRACT NOUNS

A **concrete noun** names an object that occupies space or can be recognized by any of the sense.

EXAMPLES	air	melody	stone	aroma	heat
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An **abstract noun** names an idea, a quality, or a characteristic.

EXAMPLES attitude dignity loyalty sadness temperature

COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS

A **common noun** is the general—not the particular—name of a person, place, thing, or idea.

EXAMPLES	Person	artist, uncle, poet
	Place	country, lake, park
	Thing	shuttle, vehicle, play
	Idea	era, religion, movement

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

EXAMPLES	Person	Michelangelo, Uncle Louis, Maya Angelou
	Place	Mexico, Yellowstone National Park, Lake Superior
	Thing	<i>Challenger</i> , Jeep, <i>Romeo and Juliet</i>
	Idea	Industrial Age, Judaism, Romanticism

COLLECTIVE NOUNS

A **collective noun** is singular in form but names a group.

EXAMPLES family, herd, company, band, team, audience, troop, committee, jury, flock

PRONOUNS

A **pronoun** is a word that takes the place of a noun, a group of words acting as a noun, or another pronoun. The word or group of words to which a pronoun refers is called its **antecedent**.

EXAMPLE Though Georgia O’Keeffe was born in Wisconsin, **she** grew to love the landscape of the American Southwest.

PERSONAL AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

A **personal pronoun** refers to a specific person, place, thing, or idea by indicating the person speaking (the first person), the person or people being spoken to (the second person), or any other person, place, thing or idea being discussed (the third person).

	PERSONAL PRONOUNS	
	Singular	Plural
First Person	I, me	we, us
Second Person	you	you
Third Person	he, him, she, her, it	they, them

A **possessive pronoun** takes the place of the possessive form of a noun.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

	Singular	Plural
First Person	my, mine	our, ours
Second Person	your, yours	your, yours
Third Person	his, her, hers, its	their, theirs

REFLEXIVE AND INTENSIVE PRONOUNS

Reflexive and intensive pronouns are formed by adding –self or –selves to certain personal and possessive pronouns.

	Singular	Plural
First Person	myself	ourselves
Second Person	yourself	yourselves
Third Person	himself, herself, itself	themselves

A **reflexive pronoun** refers, or reflects back, to the subject of the sentence, indicating that the same person or thing is involved. A reflexive pronoun always adds information to a sentence.

EXAMPLES Jim uses a stopwatch to time **himself** on the track.
 She taught **herself** to play the piano.
 We imagined **ourselves** dancing in a forest glade.

An **intensive pronoun** adds emphasis to another noun or pronoun in the same sentence.

EXAMPLES He **himself** delivered the flowers.
 You must sign the application **yourself**.
 Mariko **herself** made the bridesmaids' dresses.
 Pepe, Jaime, and Cesar designed the float **themselves**.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

A **demonstrative pronoun** points out specific persons, places, things, or ideas.

Singular	this	that
Plural	these	those

EXAMPLES **This** is your locker.

INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

An **interrogative pronoun** is used to form questions.

EXAMPLES who, whom, whose, what, which, whoever, whomever, whatever, whichever

Who is at the door?

Whom would you prefer?

Whose is this plaid coat?

A **relative pronoun** is used to begin a special subject-verb group called a subordinate clause.

EXAMPLES who, whoever, which, that, whom, whomever, whichever, what, whose, whatever

The driver **who** arrived last parked over there.

The meal **that** you prepared was delicious.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

An **indefinite pronoun** refers to persons, places, things, or ideas in a more general way than a noun does.

SOME INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

all	both	everything	nobody	others	another
each	few	none	several	any	either
many	no one	some	anybody	enough	most
nothing	somebody	anyone	everybody	much	one
someone	anything	everyone	neither	other	something

VERBS

A **verb** is a word that expresses action or a state of being and is necessary to make a statement.

EXAMPLES The bicyclist **grinned**.
The right gear **is** important.
A spectator **cheered** loudly.

ACTION VERBS

An **action verb** tells what someone or something does.

EXAMPLES **Physical Action** Ted **waved** the signal flag.
Mental Action He **hoped** for success.

A **transitive verb** is followed by a direct object—that is, a word or words that answer the question what? Or whom?

EXAMPLE The batter **swung** the bat confidently.

An **intransitive verb** is not followed by a direct object.

EXAMPLE The batter **swung** wildly.

LINKING VERBS

A **linking verb** links, or joins, the subject of a sentence (often a noun or a pronoun) with a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective that identifies or describes the subject. A linking verb does not show action. *Be* in all its forms—am, is, are, was, were—is the most commonly used linking verb.

EXAMPLES The person behind the mask **was** you.
 The players **are** ready.
 Archery **is** an outdoor sport.
 They **were** sports fans.

OTHER VERBS THAT CAN BE LINKING VERBS

look	remain	seem	become	stay	grow
sound	taste	smell	feel	turn	appear

For a list of irregular verbs and their four principle parts, visit the following link:

http://www.myenglishteacher.net/irregular_verbs.html

VERB PHRASES

The verb in a sentence may consist of more than one word. The words that accompany the main verb are called **auxiliary**, or helping, **verbs**.

A **verb phrase** consists of a main verb and all its auxiliary, or helping, verbs.

AUXILIARY VERBS

Forms of Be am, is, are, was, were, being, been

Forms of Have has, have, had, having

Other Auxiliaries can, could may, might must do, does, did shall, should will, would

EXAMPLES We **will weed** the vegetable garden this morning.
 Sandra **has** already **weeded** the peppers and the tomatoes.
 We **were weeding** the flower beds when rain started.

ADJECTIVES

An **adjective** is a word that modifies a noun or pronoun by limiting its meaning. An adjective tells what kind, which one, how many, or how much.

EXAMPLES **red** barn, **that** notebook, **seven** apples, **interesting** poem, **romantic** story

FORMS OF ADJECTIVES

Many adjectives have different forms to indicate their degree of comparison. The **positive form** indicates no comparison. The **comparative form** compares two nouns or pronouns. The **superlative form** compares more than two nouns or pronouns.

EXAMPLES	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
	smooth	smoother	smoothest
	happy	happier	happiest
	thin	thinner	thinnest
	beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful

ARTICLES

Articles are the adjectives *a*, *an*, and *the*. *A* and *an* are called **indefinite articles**. They can refer to any one of a kind person, place, thing, or idea. *A* is used before consonant sounds, and *an* is used before vowel sounds. *The* is the **definite article**. It refers to a specific person, place, thing, or idea.

EXAMPLES	He found a ring.
	I ate an egg.
	I have the used computer.

PROPER ADJECTIVES

A **proper adjective** is formed from a proper noun. It begins with a capital letter.

EXAMPLES	Vancouver is a Canadian city.
	We visited the London Zoo.

ADVERBS

An **adverb** is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb by making its meaning more specific. Adverbs modify by answering these questions: When? Where? How? To what degree?

EXAMPLES	Never swim alone.
	The movie was very scary and too long.
	She almost always waited quite patiently.

NEGATIVE WORDS AS ADVERBS

The word *not* and the contraction *n't* (as in *don't* and *won't*) are adverbs. Other negative words can function as adverbs of time and place.

EXAMPLES	The bell has not rung.
	She is scarcely awake.
	The toy is nowhere to be seen.
	I have never danced with her.

ADVERBS THAT COMPARE

Like adjectives, some adverbs have different forms to indicate their degree of comparison. The comparative form of an adverb compares two actions. The superlative form of an adverb compares more than two actions. For most adverbs of only one syllable, add *-er* to make the comparative form and *-est* to make the superlative form.

EXAMPLES	<u>Positive</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
	runs fast	runs faster	runs fastest
	pays soon	pays sooner	pays soonest
	works hard	works harder	works hardest

Most adverbs that end in *-ly* or have more than one syllable use the word *more* to form the comparative and *most* to form the superlative.

EXAMPLES	<u>Positive</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
	eats healthfully	eats more healthfully	eats most healthfully
	checks often	checks more often	checks most often
	snores loudly	snores more loudly	snores most loudly

Some adverbs form the comparative and superlative irregularly.

EXAMPLES	<u>Positive</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
	swims well	swims better	swims best
	dives badly	dives worse	dives worst
	cares little	cares less	cares least
	sees far	sees farther	sees farthest
	researches far	researches further	researches furthest

For a list of common adverbs, visit the following link:

http://www.myenglishteacher.net/irregular_verbs.html

PREPOSITIONS

A **preposition** is a word that shows the relationship of a noun or a pronoun to another word in a sentence.

A **prepositional phrase** is a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun that is called the **object of the preposition**.

COMMONLY USED PREPOSITIONS

aboard	as	but (except)	in	out	to
about	at	by	inside	outside	toward
above	before	concerning	into	over	under
across	behind	despite	like	past	underneath
after	below	down	near	pending	until
against	beneath	during	of	regarding	up
along	beside	except	off	respecting	upon
amid	besides	excepting	on	since	with
among	between	for	onto	through	within
around	beyond	from	opposite	throughout	without

A **compound preposition** is a preposition that is made up of more than one word.

COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS

according to	because of	instead of
ahead of	by means of	next to
along with	except for	on account of
apart from	in addition to	on top of
aside from	in front of	out of
as to	in spite of	owing to

CONJUNCTIONS

A **conjunction** is a word that joins single words or groups of words.

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

A **coordinating conjunction** joins words or groups of words that have equal grammatical weight in a sentence.

EXAMPLES and, but, or, so, nor, yet, for

One **and** six are seven.

Merlin was smart **but** irresponsible.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

Correlative conjunctions work in pairs to join words and groups of words of equal grammatical weight in a sentence.

EXAMPLES both...and, just as...so, not only...but also, either...or, neither...nor,
whether...or

Both he **and** I were there.

Either she will sew new curtains, **or** I will put up the old blinds.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

A **subordinating conjunction** joins two clauses, or thoughts, in such a way as to make one grammatically dependent on the other.

COMMON SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

after	as though	since	until
although	because	so long as	when
as	before	so (that)	whenever
as far as	considering (that)	than	where
as if	if	though	whereas
as long as	inasmuch as	till	wherever
as soon as	in order that	unless	while

For additional subordinating conjunctions visit the following link:

<http://grammar.yourdictionary.com/parts-of-speech/conjunctions/subordinating-conjunctions.html>

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

A **conjunctive adverb** is used to clarify the relationship between clauses of equal weight in a sentence.

Conjunctive adverbs are usually stronger, more precise, and more formal than coordinating conjunctions. Notice that only a comma is used with a coordinating conjunction to separate the clauses. When a conjunctive adverb is used between clauses, a semicolon precedes the conjunctive adverb and a comma follows it.

EXAMPLES

Coordinating Conjunction The civilization of the Incas was advanced, but they never invented the wheel.

Conjunctive Adverb The civilization of the Incas was advanced; **however**, they never invented the wheel.

INTERJECTIONS

An **interjection** is a word or a phrase that expresses emotion or exclamation. An interjection has no grammatical connection to other words.

EXAMPLES

Oh, my! What is that?

Yikes, I'll be late!

FOUR KINDS OF SENTENCES ACCORDING TO FUNCTION

A **declarative sentence** makes a statement.

EXAMPLES

I have four pets.

Two of my pets are dogs.

An **imperative sentence** gives a command or makes a request.

EXAMPLES

Get off the table.

Zelda, please leave the cats alone.

An **interrogative sentence** asks a question.

EXAMPLES

How many pets do you have?

Do you like Poodles?

An **exclamatory sentence** expresses strong emotion.

EXAMPLES

She is such a beautiful dog!

FOUR KINDS OF SENTENCES ACCORDING TO FORM

A **simple sentence** contains only one main clause and no subordinate clauses. A simple sentence may contain a compound subject, a compound predicate, or both.

EXAMPLES Stories entertain.
 Stories and riddles entertain and amuse.
 Stories about the Old West entertain adults and children alike.

A **compound sentence** contains two or more main clauses.

1. Usually they are joined by a comma and a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, so, nor, yet, for).

EXAMPLES Stories about the Old West are entertaining, **and** stories set in foreign countries are interesting.
 Stories entertain me, **and** riddles amuse me, **but** poems are my favorite.

2. Main clauses in a compound sentence may be joined by a semicolon used alone.

EXAMPLE Talented oral storytellers are rare; Spalding Gray is exceptional.

3. Main clauses in a compound sentence may be joined by a semicolon and a conjunctive adverb (such as however, therefore, nevertheless).

EXAMPLE Stories entertain and amuse; **however**, poems are delightful.

4. Main clauses in a compound sentence may be joined by a semicolon and an expression such as *for example*.

EXAMPLE Many authors write stories and poems; **for example**, Sherman Alexie is known for both his stories and his poems.

A **complex sentence** has one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

EXAMPLES I like Toni Cade Bambara's stories because they have good characters.
 When I read her stories, I enjoy them because they are believable.

A **compound-complex sentence** has two or more main clauses and at least one subordinate clause.

EXAMPLE I read *Frankenstein*, which Mary Shelley wrote, and I reported on it.

TYPES OF AND RULES FOR PUNCTUATION

All sentences should contain one of the following end punctuations: period, exclamation point, and question mark.

THE COLON: COLONS TO INTRODUCE

Use a colon to introduce lists, especially after statements that use such words as *these*, *namely*, *the following*, or *as follows*.

EXAMPLES Friday's test will cover **these** areas: the circulatory, the digestive, and the nervous systems.
 He requested **the following**: a screwdriver, a level, and wood screws.

Use a colon to introduce material that illustrates, explains or restates the preceding material.

EXAMPLES I often wish my parents had more than one child: They worry too much about me.
 The epidemic grew ever more serious: now children as well as adults were being affected.
 Caution: Do not enter until car has come to a complete stop.

Use a colon to introduce a long or a formal quotation. A formal quotation is often preceded by such words as *this*, *these*, *the following*, or *as follows*.

EXAMPLE Mrs. Hoskins asked us to write an essay on **the following** African saying:
 "It is the rainy season that gives wealth."

THE COLON: OTHER USES OF COLONS

- Use a colon between the hour and the minute of the precise time.
- Use a colon between the chapter and the verse in biblical references.
- Use a colon after the salutation of a business letter.

EXAMPLES 12:30 Genesis 7:20-24 Sir:

THE SEMICOLON: SEMICOLONS TO SEPARATE MAIN CLAUSES

Use a semicolon to separate main clauses that are not joined by a comma and a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, nor, so, yet, for).

EXAMPLES Paul Robeson was a talented singer and actor, **and** he was also a famous football player.
 Paul Robeson was a talented singer and actor; he was also a famous football player.

Use a semicolon to separate main clauses that are joined by a conjunctive adverb (such as *however, therefore, nevertheless, moreover, furthermore, and subsequently*) or by an expression such as *for example* or *that is*.

EXAMPLES Robeson appeared in many plays and musicals; **for example**, he starred in *Othello* and *Porgy and Bess*.
 Robeson appeared in *Show Boat* in 1928; **subsequently**, he acted in the films *Jericho* and *Song of Freedom*.

SEMICOLONS AND COMMAS

Use a semicolon to separate the items in a series when one or more of the items already contain commas.

EXAMPLE Some of the powerful African kingdoms that flourished before the sixteenth century were Kush, which dominated the eastern Sudan; Karanga, which was located around Zimbabwe in southern Africa; Ghana, Mali, and Songhai, which successively controlled the Niger River in West Africa; and Benin, which had its center in what is now Nigeria.

Use a semicolon to separate two main clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction when one or both of the clauses already contain several commas.

EXAMPLE The rule of Mansa Musa, the Muslim emperor of the African kingdom of Mali from 1312 to 1337, is remembered for military success, trade expansion, and Muslim scholarship; but this period is probably most noteworthy as a golden age of peace and prosperity.

THE COMMA

*As you study the rules for comma usage, keep in mind that to **separate** elements means to place a comma between two equal elements. To **set off** an element means to put a comma before it and a comma after it. Of course, you never place a comma at the beginning or the end of a sentence.*

COMMAS IN A SERIES

Use commas to separate three or more words, phrases, or clauses in a series.

EXAMPLES A chair, a table, a lamp, and a sofa were the room's only furnishings.
 The cat ran into the room, across the floor, and up the curtain.

COMMAS AND COORDINATE ADJECTIVES

Place a comma between coordinate adjectives that precede a noun.

EXAMPLES Popeye is a playful, affectionate, intelligent cat.

COMMAS AND COMPOUND SENTENCES

Use a comma between the main clauses in a compound sentence.

EXAMPLES I am not going to the concert, **for** I am too busy.
 Many prospectors searched for years, **but** others found gold at once.

COMMAS AND NONESSENTIAL ELEMENTS

Use commas to set off participles, infinitives, and their phrases if they are not essential to the meaning of the sentence. These nonessential elements are also known as non-restrictive elements.

EXAMPLES She watched, **puzzled**, as the man in the yellow convertible drove away.
 A customer, **complaining loudly**, stepped up to the counter.

Use commas to set off a nonessential adjective clause.

EXAMPLES Atlanta, **which is the capital of Georgia**, is the transportation center of the Southeast.
 The paramedics first attended the victims, **who were badly hurt**.

Use commas to set off an appositive if it is not essential to the meaning of a sentence.

EXAMPLES Nelson Mandela, **the former president of South Africa**, was freed from a South African prison in 1990.
 An insurance executive, Charles Ives wrote music in his spare time.

COMMAS WITH INTERJECTIONS, PARENTHETICAL EXPRESSIONS, CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS, AND ANTITHETICAL PHRASES

Use commas to set off the following:

- Interjections (such as *oh*, *well*, *alas*, and *good grief*)
- Parenthetical expressions (such as *in fact*, *on the other hand*, *for example*, *on the contrary*, *by the way*, *to be exact*, and *after all*)
- Conjunctive adverbs (such as *however*, *moreover*, *therefore*, and *consequently*)

EXAMPLES **Well**, we'd better hit the road.
 Oh, I don't know.

Use commas to set off an antithetical phrase.

EXAMPLES You, **not I**, deserve this honor.
 Bicycles, **unlike cars**, produce no pollution.

COMMAS WITH OTHER ELEMENTS

Set off two or more introductory prepositional phrases or a single long one.

EXAMPLE **On the afternoon of the day of the game**, we made a banner.

Use commas to set off introductory participles and participial phrases.

EXAMPLES **Purring**, the kitten curled up in my lap.
 Sitting in a tree, my little sister called down to us.

Also use commas to set off internal adverb clauses that interrupt the flow of a sentence.

EXAMPLE Evan, **after he had thought about it awhile**, agreed with our conclusion.

ADDITIONAL USES OF COMMAS

Use commas to set off a title when it follows a person's name.

EXAMPLE Alicia Wong, **M.D.**, will speak after Jorge Gonzalez, **Ph. D.**, has spoken.

Set off the name of a state or a country when it's used after the name of a city. Set off the name of a city when it's used after a street address. Don't use a comma after the state if it's followed by a ZIP code.

EXAMPLE Anaheim, California, is the home of Disneyland.

In a date, set off the year when it's used with both the month and the day. Don't use a comma if only the month and the year are given.

EXAMPLE March 17, 2000, was the day I got my driver's license.

Use commas to set off the parts of a reference that direct the reader to the exact source.

EXAMPLE Odysseus becomes reunited with his son, Telemachus, in the *Odyssey*, Book 16, lines 177-219.

Use commas to set off words or names in direct address.

EXAMPLE **Nathaniel**, do you know where Katie is?

Use commas to set off tag questions.

EXAMPLE You've already seen this movie, **haven't you?**

Place a comma after the salutation of an informal letter. Place a comma after the closing of all letters. In the inside address, place a comma between the city and state and between the day and year.

EXAMPLE Dear Dolores,

THE DASH: DASHES TO SIGNAL CHANGE

Use a dash to indicate an abrupt break or change in thought within a sentence.

EXAMPLE A small stand sells sugar loaves-the gift to bring when invited to dinner-sugar for the mint tea and for the sweet pastry, so flaky and light, that they bake.

DASH TO EMPHASIZE

Use a dash to set off and emphasize extra information or parenthetical comments.

EXAMPLE It was a shiny new car-the first he had ever owned.

PARENTHESES

Use parentheses to set off supplemental, or extra, material.

EXAMPLE Many contemporary women's fashions (business suits and low heels) show the influence of Gabrielle "Coco" Chanel.

PARENTHESES WITH OTHER MARKS OF PUNCTUATION

Place a comma, a semicolon, or a colon after the closing parentheses.

EXAMPLE Despite the simple clothes that Chanel designed and wore (the little black dress became her uniform), she became wealthy.

Place a question mark or an exclamation point inside the parentheses if it is part of the parenthetical expression.

EXAMPLES Chanel believed that simplicity and practicality were more important than obviously expensive, complicated-looking clothes (who would not agree today?).
Chanel exerted only a little influence on fashion during World War II (1939-1945), but she reopened her fashion house in 1954 (When she was seventy!).

Place a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point outside the parentheses if it is part of the entire sentence.

EXAMPLE Did you know that Chanel introduced many of today's fashion classics (sweaters, costume jewelry, sling-back shoes)?

QUOTATION MARKS

Use quotation marks to enclose a direct quotation.

EXAMPLE A famous poster asks, "What if they gave a war and nobody came?"

When a quotation is interrupted by explanatory words such as he said or she wrote, use two sets of quotation marks.

EXAMPLE "A thing of beauty," wrote John Keats, "is a joy forever."

Use quotation marks to enclose unfamiliar slang and other usual or original expressions.

EXAMPLE My cousin uses the expression “the cat’s meow” to describe things she likes.
 The 1920 were known as the “Roaring Twenties.”

Use quotation marks to enclose a definition that is stated directly.

EXAMPLE The German noun *Weltanschauung* means “world view” or “philosophy of life.”

THE APOSTROPHE: APOSTROPHES TO SHOW POSSESSION

Use an apostrophe and –s for the possessive form of a singular indefinite pronoun.

EXAMPLE everybody’s problem each other’s parents

Use an apostrophe and –s to form the possessive of a singular noun, even one that ends in s.

EXAMPLE the woman’s briefcase the class’s election

Use an apostrophe alone to form the possessive of a plural noun that ends in s.

EXAMPLE the two countries’ treaty the Joneses’ picnic

Use an apostrophe and –s to form the possessive of a plural noun that does not end in s.

EXAMPLE women’s clubs children’s videos

Put only the last word of a compound noun in the possessive form.

EXAMPLE my sister-in-law’s office an attorney general’s job

If two or more persons (or partners in a company) possess something jointly, use the possessive form for the last person named.

EXAMPLE Barbara and Andy’s children

If two or more persons (or companies) possess an item (or items) individually, put each one’s name in the possessive form.

EXAMPLE Tina Turner’s and the Rolling Stones’ songs

Use a possessive form to express amounts of money or time that modify a noun.

EXAMPLE one dollar’s increase five minutes’ drive

APOSTROPHES IN CONTRACTIONS

Use an apostrophe in place of letters that are omitted in contractions.

EXAMPLE you'd you're who's

Use an apostrophe in place of the omitted numerals of a year.

EXAMPLE the class of '99 the '96 presidential campaign

THE HYPHEN: HYPHENS WITH PREFIXES

Use a hyphen after any prefix joined to a proper noun or a proper adjective. Use a hyphen after the prefixes all-, ex- (meaning “former”), and self- joined to any noun or adjective.

EXAMPLE mid-Atlantic post-Elizabethan

Use a hyphen after the prefix anti- when it joins a word beginning with i. Also use a hyphen after the prefix vice-, except in vice president.

EXAMPLE anti-icing vice-mayor

Use a hyphen to avoid confusion between words beginning with re- that look alike but are different in meaning and pronunciation.

EXAMPLE re-cover the couch re-lease the apartment

HYPHENS WITH COMPOUNDS AND NUMBERS

Use a hyphen in a compound adjective that precedes a noun.

EXAMPLE dark-green eyes a fifteen-year-old aunt a well-liked reporter

Hyphenate any spelled-out cardinal number (such as twenty-one) or ordinal number (such as twenty-first) up to ninety-nine or ninety-ninth.

EXAMPLE sixty-four eighty-two eighty-second

Hyphenate a fraction that is expressed in words.

EXAMPLE one-eighth teaspoon one-quarter cup

Hyphenate two numerals to indicate a span.

EXAMPLE pages 30-56 1986-1996

HYPHENS TO DIVIDE WORDS AT THE END OF A LINE

In general, if a word contains two consonants occurring between two vowels or if it contains double consonants, divide the word between the two consonants.

EXAMPLE mar-gin sup-per

If a suffix has been added to a complete word that ends in two consonants, divide the word after the two consonants. Remember, the object is to make the hyphenated word easy to read and understand.

EXAMPLE pull-ing spelunk-er

NUMBERS AND NUMERALS: NUMBERS SPELLED OUT

In general, spell out cardinal numbers (such as twenty) and ordinal numbers (such as twentieth) that can be written in one or two words.

EXAMPLE New Hampshire is one of the original **thirteen** colonies.

Spell out any number that occurs at the beginning of a sentence. (Sometimes, it is better to revise the sentence to move the spelled-out number.)

EXAMPLE **Sixteen hundred seventy** delegates attended the conference.

NUMERALS

In general, use numerals to express numbers that would be written in more than two words.

EXAMPLE Mount Mitchell, the highest mountain in the eastern United States, is **6,684** feet high.

Use numerals to express amounts of money, decimals, and percentages. Spell out the word *percent*, however.

EXAMPLE \$897 million 1.2 kilograms

Use numerals to express the year and day in a date and to express the precise time with the abbreviations A.M. and P.M.

EXAMPLE The USSR launched *Sputnik I* on October **4, 1957**.

To express a century when the word century is used, spell out the number. Likewise, to express a decade when the century is clear from the context, spell out the number.

EXAMPLE The **twentieth** century saw great technological advances.

Use numerals for numbered streets and avenues above ninety-nine and for all house, apartment, and room numbers. Spell out numbered streets and avenues of ninety-nine and below.

EXAMPLE **1654** West **347th** Street

Four Forms of Verbs

Every verb has four principle forms—present, past, present participle, and past participle. This is not to be confused with tense. The forms of the verb are used to form the different tenses of present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect.

Verbals

A verbal is a verb used as an adjective (participle), a noun (gerund), or an infinitive (ex. To run).

Participle

A participle is a verb used as an adjective. The past participle or the present participle form of the verb is used as an adjective in a sentence. Participles end in *-ing*, *-ed*, *-t*, *-en*, *-s*.

For example: Principal parts of the verb—present (write), past (wrote), present participle (writing), past participle (written).

Sentence example using a participle:

While writing the essay, Susan experienced a high level of euphoria.

John's written essay earned him positive comments from the teacher.

Gerund

A gerund is a verb used as a noun. Gerunds use the *-ing* form of the verb.

For example: Principal parts of the verb—present (write), past (wrote), present participle (writing), past participle (written).

Sentence example using a gerund:

Writing helps students deepen their understanding of academic lessons.

Infinitive

An infinitive can be used as a noun (subject and direct object), adverb, or an adjective. An infinitive is the present form of the verb preceded by the preposition *to*.

For example: Principal parts of the verb—present (write), past (wrote), present participle (writing), past participle (written).

Sentence example using an infinitive:

To write well provides opportunities for advancing a student's education.

Sarah accepted the challenge to write the essay.

Practicing writing makes Dillon happy to write.

Students have an innate ability to write.

Modifier Placement

Place modifiers as close to the word modified as possible.

For example:

Misplaced modifier—Dented and scratched, Marta found her bicycle.

Dangling modifier—Watching television, the screen suddenly went blank.

Correctly used modifier—Marta found her bicycle dented and scratched.

Watching television, Yoshiko saw the screen suddenly go blank.

Writing

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WRITING RESOURCES

TRANSITIONAL EXPRESSIONS:

TRANSITIONAL EXPRESSIONS ARE FOLLOWED BY A COMMA.

above	eventually	now
about	even though	near
at	finally	next week
across	first	outside
against	for example	on the contrary
along	for instance	over
among	further	otherwise
afterward	for this reason	on top of
around	furthermore	onto
away from	for this purpose	opposite
accordingly	here	on the other hand
across from	hence	put another way
adjacent to	however	second
after	in short	similarly
again	instead	still
also	if this proves true	such
although		today
another	in addition to	tomorrow
as a result	in fact	too
as soon as	in the same fashion	to sum up
at first	inside	to the left/right
at least	in other words	to repeat
as	in review	to illustrate
additionally	in retrospect	thus
at the same time	in back of	therefore
all in all	in front of	then
as well	in the same way	throughout
along with	into	third
but	immediately	truly
besides	in fact	to emphasize
between	in due time	under
beyond	lastly	until
behind	likewise	when
by	looking back	yet
before	last	yesterday
consequently	meanwhile	
down	moreover	
during	namely	
despite	next	
evidently	nevertheless	
equally important		

STRONG VERBS

WHEN REVISING WRITING, ELIMINATE MUNDANE VERBS BY LOOKING AT THE IDEA CONVEYED BY THE SENTENCE, AND THEN CHOOSE A STRONGER, MORE SOPHISTICATED VERB TO REPLACE IT.

classify	analyze	stress
convey	jeopardize	include
produce	protect	proceed
detail	verify	protect
preserve	guide	clarify
investigate	reveal	consider
portray	judge	attack
identify	review	explain
recognize	alienate	charge
generate	impress	envision
pose	prove	challenge
safeguard	organize	endanger
possess	destroy	cherish
imagine	confirm	adjust
defend	present	prohibit
outline	undergo	support
differ	frame	direct
explore	question	determine
plot	flock	reason
imply	discard	infer
advise	argue	explode
elevate	evolve	design
contribute	advance	receive
endorse	weigh	arrange
evoke	develop	organize
interpret	inspire	focus
calculate	examine	exert
diminish	shelter	resonate
participate	improve	maintain
predict	prosper	disregard
affect	necessitates	involve
prepare	require	demand
specify	create	exonerate

HELPFUL IDEA WORDS**USE THESE WORDS TO STIMULATE AND EXPRESS IDEAS IN WRITING.**

participation
technological
necessities
personal growth
advantage
situation
preparation
equipment
benefits
essential
social
spiritual
creation
psychological

mechanical
environment
necessary
prediction
disadvantage
organization
materials
generous
ideal
physical
emotional
mental
determination

improvement
healthy
maintenance
involvement
socialization
circumstances
generosity
location
prosperous
opportunity/ies
effort
effects
biological

ERRORS TO AVOID WHEN WRITING

1. incorrect tenses, weak verbs
2. abbreviations
3. numbers
4. incorrect capitalization
5. incorrect punctuation
6. no paragraph indent

EXPRESSIONS TO AVOID WHEN WRITING

7. you
8. there are, there is, it is
9. alot of, lots of
10. colloquialism (I love you bunches, cool, fun)
11. I think; I feel; I believe
12. sort of, kind of
13. gonna, would of, wanna, coulda
14. could, would, should
15. got, ain't
16. This supports the quote because...
17. He/She is saying this because...

QUESTIONS FOR GENERATING EXPANDED INFORMATION IN PARAGRAPHS**USE THE FOLLOWING GUIDE QUESTIONS TO EXPAND PARAGRAPH INFORMATION.**

How does the writer know the information?

Why is the writer writing about this information?

So what?

Such as?

How so?

What does the writer mean?

What else?

Why is it so?

Why is it not so?

How is it so?

For example?

Other information?

More information?

Who?

What?

When?

Where?

Why?

How?

SENTENCE WRITING REQUIREMENTS

Do not use forms of the verb “be” (am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been) in formal writing. In order to avoid this, understand the meaning of your sentence and choose a strong verb to express your idea.

Do not use the following personal pronouns (I, me, my, we, our, us, you, your) in formal writing.

Do not use the following personal pronouns (he, she, him, her, it, they them) without an antecedent. An antecedent is the noun in the sentence to which the pronoun refers.

When writing vocabulary sentences, the following information should be contained in each sentence: who, what, when, where, how, or why

Do not use the verbs get, got, gotten or have, has, had.

Do not use contractions.

Name _____ Date _____ Period _____

RAGE READING RESPONSE FLOW MAP

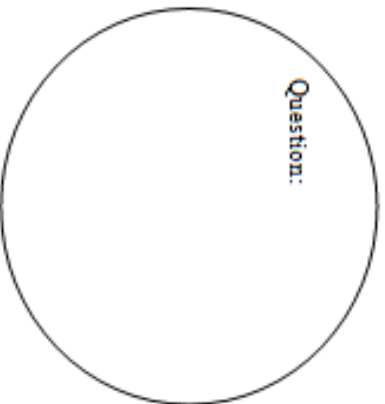
(Restate the question, Answer in complete sentence, Give evidence or quote, Explain, Closing Statement)

R = Restate the question as a statement.**A** = Answer the question- this is the "why" or the "because".**G** = Give an example- this may be a direct quote from the text or a specific example. Your example MUST SUPPORT YOUR ANSWER.**E** = Explain the example- read between the lines. Tell what is happening in the character's mind, what his/her motivation is, what s/he is thinking. Use this to expand on your answer and further prove it.**Closing statement** = This is the final statement to prove your point.

A well-written RAGE is like a circle; it all connects in the end. Use the graphic organizer to help you organize your ideas for a RAGE constructed response.

R- Repeat the question as a statement.

Closing Statement



A- Answer the question

E- Explain the example.

G- Give an example

R _____

A _____

G _____

E _____

Closing- _____

Name _____ Date _____ Period _____

RAGE READING RESPONSE FLOW MAP

(Restate the question, Answer in complete sentence, Give evidence or quote, Explain, Closing Statement)

1. Restate the question. (Turn it around in the form of a statement.)

2. Answer the question in a complete sentence. This is the because/why you have your opinion in the R.

3. Give evidence from the text to support your answer. (This may be a direct quote or an example from the story.)

4. Explain the quote or the example you used. (Why is it relevant to your answer?) What is the character thinking or feeling? What is the motivation? What is happening that we don't see in the R or A?

5. Restate your answer in different words. Prove your point one last time, but with different wording.

Question:

Research

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RESEARCH RESOURCES

MLA FORMAT

MLA is the official format of all English classes. This includes format for heading papers, in-text citations, and research papers. All MLA formatted papers are double spaced. The last name and page number appear on every page in the top right corner. Nothing should be written on the back of the paper.

MLA Heading

Last Name Page Number

Student's Name

Teacher's Name

Class/Period

Date (Day Month Year *Example: 2 February 2012*)

Title (centered)

MLA FORMAT COMPUTER SETUP

In a new document, always check the computer for the following:

1. Under "Page Layout" click "Margins." Margins should be set at 1" all around.
2. Font should be set at "Times New Roman" 12 point.
3. Under "Paragraph" Top and Bottom number should be 0" and Line Spacing should be set at "Double."
4. To insert page number and last name, click "Insert," "Page Number" and select the option for the page number to be located at the top right hand corner. Type student's last name next to page number; a space should be between the last name and page number.

AVOIDING PLAGIARISM

Plagiarism is using another writer's ideas or words as if they were your own, without giving credit. This includes **QUOTING, PARAPHRASING AND SUMMARIZING**. When you write a research paper, be certain to avoid plagiarism.

Using New Information

You should give credit in your paper (list an author and page number) for the following kinds of information:

- Information that is copied directly from another source.
- Information that is written in your own words but contains key words or ideas taken from another source.

Using Common Knowledge

It is not necessary to list an author and a page number for information that is considered common knowledge—knowledge already known by most people. When you are unsure whether your information is common knowledge, it is best to give the author credit.

Giving Credit in the Body (In-Text Citations/Paraphetical Citations)

MLA format follows the author-page method of in-text citation. This means that the author's last name and the page number(s) from which the quotation or paraphrase is taken must appear in the text, and a complete reference should appear on your Works Cited page. The author's name may appear either in the sentence itself or in parentheses following the quotation or paraphrase, but the page number(s) should always appear in the parentheses, not in the text of your sentence. For example:

Wordsworth stated that Romantic poetry was marked by a "spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (263).

Romantic poetry is characterized by the "spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (Wordsworth 263).

Wordsworth extensively explored the role of emotion in the creative process (263).

WORKS-CITED PAGE

A works-cited page (also called a bibliography) lists in alphabetical order the books and materials you have used in your report. Double-space the information you include in your works-cited page. The second line of each entry should be indented ½ inch (5 typed spaces). Underline titles and other words that would be italicized in print.

PLEASE NOTE: Regarding the format of a works-cited page: when handwritten, titles (books, plays, epics, magazines, CDs, newspapers, movies) should be underlined; when typed, these things should be italicized.

General Format

-Books—A typical listing for a book

Author (last name first). *Title of the book*. City where book is published: Publisher, copyright date. Medium of Publication. (Print or web)

-Magazines—A typical listing for a magazine

Author (last name first). "Title of the article." *Title of the magazine* day month year: page numbers. Medium of Publication. (Print or web)

Sample Works-Cited Entries

One Author

Gravett, Christopher. *The World of the Medieval Knight*. New York: Peter Bedrick Books, 1996.
Print.

Two or Three Authors

McKissack, Patricia C., and Fredrick McKissack, Jr. *Black Diamond: The Story of the Negro*

Baseball Leagues. New York: Scholastic, 1994. Print.

More Than Three Authors or Editors

Busbey, Arthur B., et al. *Rocks and Fossils*. San Francisco: Time-Life Books, 1996. Print.

*With four or more authors on the works cited page, you may put et al. after the first author. In a parenthetical citation, you must put author's last name, comma, et al.

Single Work from an Anthology

Bradbury, Ray. "The Pedestrian." *McDougal Littel Literature*. Ed. Janet Allen, et.al. Illinois:

McDougal Littell, 2008. Print.

One Volume of Multivolume Work

McMahon, Thomas, ed. *Authors and Artists for Young Adults*. Vol. 20 Detroit: Gale Research,

1997. Print.

Encyclopedia Article

Barr, William. "Northwest Passage." *World Book Encyclopedia*. 1998 ed. Print.

Signed Article in a Magazine

Safer, Barbara. "Secret Messages." *Cricket* Sept. 1998: 29-33. Print.

Unsigned Article in a Magazine

"Deadly by Nature." *World* June 1998: 20-23. Print.

Signed Newspaper Article

Salemy, Shirley. "Plan Will Aid Children." *Des Moines Register* 2 Sept. 1998, sec. M: 1. Print.

Unsigned Editorial or Story

"Russia on the Verge." Editorial. *New York Times* 1 Sept. 1998, sec. A: 25. Print.

Note: For an unsigned story, simply omit "Editorial."

Government Publication

United States, General Services Administration. *Consumer Information Catalogue*. Pueblo, CO: GPO, 1997. Print.

Reference Book on CD-ROM

Grolier Multimedia Encyclopedia. CD-ROM. Danbury, CT: Grolier Interactive, 1998. Print.

Signed Pamphlet

Grayson, George W. *The North American Free Trade Agreement*. New York: Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 1993. Print.

Filmstrip, Slide Program, DVD

Island of the Giant Bears. DVD. National Geographic, 1995. 59 min. Film.

Television or Radio Program

“Crime and Punishment.” *Nightline in Primetime*. ABC. WKOW, Madison, WI. 3 Sept. 1998. Television.

Sample Internet Entries**Items in an On-Line Entry**

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

Article

Bernstein, Mark. "10 Tips on Writing the Living Web." *A List Apart: For People Who Make Websites*. A List Apart Mag., 16 Aug. 2002. Web. 4 May 2009.

eBook

Roush, Chris. *Inside Home Depot: How One Company Revolutionized an Industry through the Relentless Pursuit of Growth*. New York: McGraw, 1999. ebrary. Web. 4 Dec. 2005.

Web Site

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

A Page on a Web Site

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

Article from an Online Database

Langhamer, Claire. "Love and Courtship in Mid-Twentieth-Century England." *Historical Journal* 50.1 (2007): 173-96. *ProQuest*. Web. 27 May 2009.

Works Cited

- "Blueprint Lays Out Clear Path for Climate Action." *Environmental Defense Fund*.
Environmental Defense Fund, 8 May 2007. Web. 24 May 2009.
- Dean, Cornelia. "Executive on a Mission: Saving the Planet." *New York Times*. New York
Times, 22 May 2007. Web. 25 May 2009.
- GlobalWarming.org*. Cooler Heads Coalition, 2007. Web. 24 May 2009.
- Leroux, Marcel. *Global Warming: Myth Or Reality?: The Erring Ways of Climatology*. New
York: Springer, 2005. Print.
- Milken, Michael, Gary Becker, Myron Scholes, and Daniel Kahneman. "On Global Warming
and Financial Imbalances." *New Perspectives Quarterly* 23.4 (2006): 63. Print.*
- Shulte, Bret. "Putting a Price on Pollution." *Usnews.com. US News & World Rept.*, 6 May 2007.
Web. 24 May 2009.

For further clarification or to answer any other questions not addressed in these examples, refer to The Owl at Purdue (<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/747/01/>).

TRANSITIONS TO INCORPORATE QUOTATIONS OR PARAPHRASES

If you get tired of stating over and over again that “Jones says, ‘.....’”, try some of the following variations. They work equally well with direct quotations or paraphrases, and when combined with a bit of basic information about the source of your material, they serve two purposes by both introducing and crediting your information.

Example: Jones notes in the November 1971 issue of *Psychology Today* that “...

Other suggested word variations:

Jones found in ...
 demonstrates in
 reports in
 suggests in
 observes in
 asserts in
 emphasizes in
 declares in
 holds in
 maintains in

Another example: In his controversial book, *The Naked Ape*, Desmond Morris

argues that...
 demonstrates...
 maintains...
 suggests...

Other examples for lead-ins:

In a 1976 (book, “article,” or whatever) entitled... (author’s name) examines the subject of catfish and observes that...

According to Jones, ...
 In Jones’ view, ...
 opinion...
 estimation...

Jones contradicts this view in a 1973 *Saturday Review* essay in which he argues that ...

However, Jones maintains that ...

Although Jones opines that ..., Smith suggests another theory...

A (book, “article,” essay, speech, etc.) by Jones, which is (summarized, referred to, alluded to, mentioned, included in a discussion) in one of Joe Moholzer’s *New York Times*’ editorials makes the point that...

As reported by Jones in the October 22, 1943 *Seattle Post-Intelligencer*...

QUOTING, PARAPHRASING, AND SUMMARIZING

What are the differences among quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing?

These three ways of incorporating other writers' work into your own writing differ according to the closeness of your writing to the source writing.

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 that you wish to agree or disagree with
- Highlight a particularly 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

Writers frequently intertwine summaries, paraphrases, and quotations. As part of a summary of an article, a chapter, or a book, a writer might include paraphrases of various key points blended with quotations of striking or suggestive phrases as in the following example:

In his famous and influential work *The Interpretation of Dreams*, Sigmund Freud argues that dreams are the "royal road to the unconscious" (page #), expressing in coded imagery the dreamer's unfulfilled wishes through a process known as the "dream-work" (page #). According to Freud, actual but unacceptable desires are censored internally and subjected to coding through layers of condensation and displacement before emerging in a kind of rebus puzzle in the dream itself (page #).

How to use quotations, paraphrases, and summaries

It might be helpful to follow these steps:

- Read the entire text, noting the key points and main ideas.
- Summarize in your own words what the single main idea of the essay is.
- Paraphrase important supporting points that come up in the essay.
- Consider any words, phrases, or brief passages that you believe should be quoted directly.

There are several ways to integrate quotations into your text. Often, a short quotation works well when integrated into a sentence. Longer quotations can stand alone. Remember that quoting should be done only sparingly; be sure that you have a good reason to include a direct quotation when you decide to do so. You'll find guidelines for citing sources and punctuating citations at our documentation guide pages.

PARAPHRASE: WRITE IT IN YOUR OWN WORDS

Paraphrasing is one way to use a text in your own writing without directly quoting source material. Anytime you are taking information from a source that is not your own, you need to specify where you got that information.

A paraphrase is...

- Your own rendition of essential information and ideas expressed by someone else, presented in a new form.
- One legitimate way (when accompanied by accurate documentation) to borrow from a source.
- A more detailed restatement than a summary, which focuses concisely on a single main idea.

Paraphrasing is a valuable skill because...

- It is better than quoting information from an undistinguished passage.
- It helps you control the temptation to quote too much.
- The mental process required for successful paraphrasing helps you to grasp the full meaning of the original.

6 Steps to Effective Paraphrasing

1. Reread the original passage until you understand its full meaning.
2. Set the original aside, and write your paraphrase on a note card.
3. Jot down a few words below your paraphrase to remind you later how you envision using this material. At the top of the note card, write a key word or phrase to indicate the subject of your paraphrase.
4. Check your rendition with the original to make sure that your version accurately expresses all the essential information in a new form.
5. Use quotation marks to identify any unique term or phraseology you have borrowed exactly from the source.
6. Record the source (including the page) on your note card so that you can credit it easily if you decide to incorporate the material into your paper.

Some examples to compare

The original passage:

Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final [research] paper. Probably only about 10% of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes. Lester, James D. *Writing Research Papers*. 2nd ed. (1976): 46-47.

A legitimate paraphrase:

In research papers students often quote excessively, failing to keep quoted material down to a desirable level. Since the problem usually originates during note taking, it is essential to minimize the material recorded verbatim (Lester 46-47).

An acceptable summary:

Students should take just a few notes in direct quotation from sources to help minimize the amount of quoted material in a research paper (Lester 46-47).

A plagiarized version:

Students often use too many direct quotations when they take notes, resulting in too many of them in the final research paper. In fact, probably only about 10% of the final copy should consist of directly quoted material. So it is important to limit the amount of source material copied while taking notes.

A note about plagiarism: This example has been classed as plagiarism, in part, because of its failure to deploy any citation. Plagiarism is a serious offense in the academic world. However, we acknowledge that plagiarism is a difficult term to define; that its definition may be contextually sensitive; and that not all instances of plagiarism are created equal—that is, there are varying “degrees of egregiousness” for different cases of plagiarism.

SUMMARIZING

In many situations, you will not have to provide the level of detail that the original writer did. At such times, you should summarize, or remove minor details. Here’s an example:

Example: Overall, the first two quarters of 2008 have been profitable to the company. Nineteen of twenty departments report cutting costs at least twenty percent, and sales from fifteen departments have risen five percent, or about \$5 million. Despite these positive developments, most department heads believe that they will not be able to maintain these levels for the remainder of the year.

Revision: The first two quarters of 2008 have been profitable, but the rest of the year is not expected to be as good.

Unlike paraphrasing, the basic order of the original text is maintained. However, some words have been changed to close synonyms. When summarizing, avoid cutting too much important information.

MAKING INFERENCES

Take information from the story
Connect it to what you already know
Draw a conclusion

Writers make implications; readers draw conclusions (inferences) based on the implications.

Example:

A man gets on a bus. What might be implied by each of the following?

- He ran to catch the bus. (The man was trying to make an appointment.)
- He is carrying a suitcase. (The man is traveling.)
- He asks the driver for change of a \$100 bill. (The man has no bills less than the \$100 bill.)

CORNELL NOTETAKING/SPLIT-PAGE NOTES

Consists of three components: Column 1, Column 2, summary area at bottom of page.

**COLUMN 1:
(Key words/questions)**

Should be about 2 ½ inches in width.

As you are completing Column 2, write down relevant questions or key words based on the notes you are taking in Column 2.

COLUMN 2: (notes)

Should be about 6 ½ inches in width.

This is where your actual note taking takes place. Of course, as you are taking notes, you can write in shorthand, using abbreviations, symbols, etc.

LEAVE ABOUT 2 INCHES AT THE BOTTOM OF THE PAGE. Within 24 hours of taking notes, write a brief summary at the bottom of the page.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The information in this booklet was taken from the following sources:

Grammar for Writing. McDougal Littell, a division of Houghton Mifflin Company. 2008.

Sebranek, Patrick. *Write Source 2000*. D C Heath and Company. 1995.

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