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Academic Integrity Statement

Honor Code

“Which is the first of all the commandments?” Jesus replied, “This is the first: ‘Hear, O Israel! The Lord our God is Lord alone! You shall love the Lord your God with all your heart, with all your soul, with all your mind, and with all your strength.’ This is the second: ‘You shall love your neighbor as yourself.’” -Mark 12:28-31

As a member of the community, students, families, employees, and volunteers – I pledge to respect our Pius XI Catholic High School community:

· To act with self-respect, personal and academic integrity
· To respect the dignity of every person
· To strive to live out the Catholic Social Teachings:
  - dignity of the human person
  - rights and responsibilities
  - option for the poor
  - promotion of peace
  - solidarity
  - family, community and participation
  - care for creation and dignity of work and workers.

Academic Integrity

In all actions – in and out of the classroom – students are held to a standard of integrity and responsibility. Academic integrity is central to the spiritual and moral development of the individual. Academic dishonesty is an act committed by a student to distort the marking of assignments, tests, examinations and other forms of academic evaluation. Academic dishonesty is neither accepted nor tolerated by the school. Anyone found guilty of academic dishonesty is liable to severe academic sanctions. Here are a few examples of academic dishonesty:

· Engaging in any form of plagiarism or cheating
· Handing in an assignment that was not authored, in whole or in part, by the student
· Submitting the same assignment in more than one course, without the written consent of the teachers concerned
· Using resources to distort or misrepresent one’s work

Persons who have committed or attempted to commit (or have been accomplices to) academic dishonesty will be penalized. These are some examples of the academic sanctions which can be imposed:

· A grade of “F” for the assignment or course in question
· An additional program requirement of between one and three assignments
· Suspension or expulsion from the School
The purpose of this writing guide is to give staff/students the resources to refer to common questions in the writing process. While this guide does not encompass every element of writing, its purpose is to provide a general source of information while writing essays for all subjects and preparing for the ACT, SAT, and AP exams. We hope that you use this guide to enhance your writing skills and better engage in the writing process.

For additional resources, visit the Pius XI Writing Center. We have ACT and SAT writing practice prompts, self-evaluation checklists, additional DBQ guidelines, workshops, and much more!

Available Writing Center Workshops:
- Introductions and Conclusions
- IEE Paragraphs
- Formatting--MLA format, Citations, and Works Cited
- Writing College Essays
- ACT and SAT Writing
- The Writing Process--brainstorming, outlines, revising, etc.
The Pius XI Writing Center

The Writing Center is located in the back of the Learning Commons. Staffed with trained Pius XI upperclassmen, the writing tutors work through the writing process with students to dismantle prompts, organize ideas, write a thesis, and revise essays. The Writing Center is available for all students and staff throughout the school day.

Why make a Writing Center appointment:
Working with a writing tutor allows you to work through the writing process with an experienced writer who can help guide you through the process of brainstorming, creating an outline, writing the thesis, and revising a draft.

How to create an account/sign-up for an appointment:
1. Go to piusxi.mywconline.com
2. Click “register for an account” if you’re a new student or sign-in using your email and password if you’ve already made an account.
3. When you login, you’ll see the Writing Center schedule for the week. Find the day of the week that you’d like to schedule an appointment (check to see which letter day it is).
4. The white blocks indicate that a writing tutor is available that mod.
5. Blue blocks indicate an appointment has already been made for that time.
6. Find a slot that correlates with the time in the school day that you’re available. All slots are based on 20 minute mods. If you want two mods back to back (ex. 3/4 ), you need to fill out two appointments.
7. Make sure to write down your appointment so you don’t forget!
8. Bring your material with you to the appointment: paper prompt, text, any writing you have thus far, any research you’ve done, etc.

Good Questions to Ask a Writing Tutor:
- Have I proven my argument?
- Are my main points clear?
- Have I responded to the assignment?
- Is my draft well organized?
- Are my example strong?
- Is my style effective and appropriate for my audience?
- Did I answer the prompt clearly and effectively?
Research and Source Credibility

Research Using Badgerlink

While there are many places one can go to research a topic, it is important that the information you find comes from a reliable and authoritative source. Badgerlink is a free online database that houses a variety of research tools.

- Some helpful resources for locating articles from journals, magazines, newspapers, etc. include
  - Academic Search Premier
  - MAS Ultra-School Edition
  - MasterFILE premier
  - Newspaper Source Plus
  - Newswires

You can refine your search by text type, date published, and keywords. Most sources will give you the option to save a PDF, copy a citation, or copy a link for the document.

Checking for Source Credibility:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria for Evaluating Websites</th>
<th>Possible Answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Author</strong></td>
<td>Scholars and academics; user generated; journalist; varies greatly; none given; NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Publisher/ Affiliation</strong></td>
<td>Publisher is credible and takes responsibility; credible but doesn’t take responsibility; questionable publisher and does not take responsibility; takes responsibility but is not credible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bias/ Balance/ Purpose</strong></td>
<td>Sometimes, sometimes - rightist, sometimes - leftist; corporate sponsorship; is balanced; generates content to sell ad space; NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Citations &amp; Links</strong></td>
<td>Citations; citations and links; links; no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accuracy</strong></td>
<td>Yes; unknown; varies; no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Complete</strong></td>
<td>Yes; unknown; varies; no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Currency</strong></td>
<td>Yes - up to date; yes – varies; not recent; date unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Design &amp; Quality</strong></td>
<td>Good design; unprofessional design; old site; average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reproduced</strong></td>
<td>Yes with permission; yes without permission; sometimes with permission; no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Credible</strong></td>
<td>Yes; maybe; no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AUTOMATICALLY CITE YOUR SOURCES FOR FREE AT WWW.EASYBIB.COM
How to Write an Outline

The following information is an excerpt from the Outline Writing Center Workshop written by Pius XI writing tutors, Laura Wagner and Ashley Collier.

What is an outline and why do we need one?
An outline tells you what your essay will be about and how you will address the main points. However, it only gives an “overview” not in depth details. Outlines are important because they will help the writing process and drafting go smoothly. It keeps all your ideas clear and concise for not only you, but the reader as well.

*Make sure you have brainstormed ideas for the topic of your paper before making an outline.

Steps of a successful outline

1. Figure out what your thesis statement will be. This is the main idea of your essay and states your argument for the reader. You know if it is a good thesis if you can accurately explain it and support it throughout your essay. The thesis should be no longer than a sentence, and it comes at the end of your introduction.

2. The introduction explains why you are writing the paper, as well as introducing the information that will be discussed within the essay. You should always start with an attention grabber to hook the readers in. Have the introduction last for about a fourth to half a page.

3. Come up with supporting ideas that back up your thesis. The three body paragraph points will support the thesis.

4. Think of the evidence you will include to support the main points you have made. Start with your main idea and branch off of that with two or more specific ideas. Sub categories can added if points need to be more specific.

5. Briefly go over the main points you covered in your essay. This is the last “So What” of your essay. Make sure the reader knows exactly what your essay was all about. Restate your thesis (but not word for word). Tie the entire essay together with the larger, main points of your essay. The conclusion should be about the same length as the introduction. Be sure to have a pertinent title for your outline so you as well as the reader has an idea of what to expect.
The following is an example format for writing an outline.

Student’s Name

Teacher’s Name

Class Title

Outline Due Date

Title

I. Thesis

II. Arguable idea statement #1
   A. Set-up for quote and evidence with citation
      1. Analysis of evidence
   B. Set-up for quote and evidence with citation
      1. Analysis of evidence

III. Arguable idea statement #2
   A. Set-up for quote and evidence with citation
      1. Analysis of evidence
   B. Set-up for quote and evidence with citation
      1. Analysis of evidence

IV. Arguable idea statement #3
   A. Set-up for quote and evidence with citation
      1. Analysis of evidence
B. Set-up for quote and evidence with citation

1. Analysis of evidence

**Thesis Statements**

The thesis statement is the single most important sentence of your essay. If your reader were to read ONLY THIS, they should have all of the foundational information of your essay. The thesis should act as a “road map” for your reader. In other words, the thesis is the promise you make to your reader, and your essay should follow through on that promise.

- Your thesis must be a) an opinion, not a fact, and thus arguable; and b) limited in scope.
- The way you structure your thesis statement will be dictated by the prompt you’re responding to and/or the direction of your teacher.
- One way to structure your thesis statement is by stating an argument and then listing the ways your argument will be proven. The “listing” format usually indicates the number and order of body paragraphs your essay will have.
- The thesis is only **1 sentence** and is the last sentence of your introduction.

Let’s look at some examples. Here’s an essay prompt about the novel *David Copperfield* by Charles Dickens:

*Analyze the techniques that Dickens employs to characterize Miss Betsey.*

*Note that the prompt is essentially asking you to do two things in your essay: make an argument about how Dickens characterizes the characters AND what aspects of his writing reveal this characterization.*

1. Here’s a thesis statement responding to this prompt:

   *Dickens characterizes Miss Betsey as strong-willed and independent through his use of juxtaposition, diction, and repetition.*

   Given the structure of this thesis statement, the reader of the essay could reasonably expect that the essay would contain three body paragraphs: 1. addressing Dickens’ use of juxtaposition to characterize Miss Betsey; 2. his use of diction; 3. his use of repetition. All three body paragraphs will make the argument that Miss Betsey is independent and strong-willed.

2. Here’s a different prompt about the novel *Wuthering Heights* by Emily Bronte.

*Often in literature, a character’s mind can be pulled in conflicting directions by two compelling desires, ambitions, obligations, or influence. Identify the conflicting forces at work on Catherine in Wuthering Heights and explain how this conflict within her illuminates the meaning of the work as a whole.*
*Note that the prompt asks you to do two things: reveal what the conflicting forces are and how they affect the novel as a whole.

Catherine’s *inner conflict over the two young men* embodies one of the novel’s central themes: *the struggle between true love and duty.*

Unlike the previous example, there is no obvious “right way” to organize this essay. The writer might choose to devote one body paragraph to each of Catherine’s love interests and then perhaps write a third tying them together through the theme. Or, the writer might devote one body paragraph to the topic of love and one to duty, discussing both young men in each.

Example of a weak thesis vs. a strong thesis from *AVID’s High School Writing Guide:*

Prompt: Discuss the changes in the character of Scout in Harper Lee’s *To Kill a Mockingbird.*

Weak Thesis: In the book *To Kill a Mockingbird,* by Harper Lee, Scout changes a great deal.

Commentary: This thesis is vague and does not provide any unique insight into the novel. This does not provide structure for the essay, leaving it susceptible to an unorganized and poorly written essay.

Stronger Thesis: In Harper Lee’s *To Kill a Mockingbird,* Scout develops from a naive girl, dependent upon the ideas of others to shape her view of the world to an independent thinking individual with convictions of her own.

Commentary: This thesis is far more detailed and shows *how* Scout develops. This allows the writer to begin proving her argument with evidence to support the idea that Scout transforms into a thinking individual.
IEE Format

IEE Paragraphs
- Help structure focused and cohesive paragraphs
- Integrate textual evidence and analysis
- Can be adapted for various content areas

Structure Breakdown:

1. Idea statement
   a. Focuses the paragraph
   b. Provides the main idea/argument

2. Set-up
   a. Provides context for the quote
   b. Helps to integrate the quote smoothly into a paragraph

3. Evidence
   a. Direct quote or specific example
   b. Needs to be relevant to the argument/main idea
   c. Formatted correctly
   d. If a direct quote, it needs to be followed by an internal citation (author’s last name and page number)

4. Explanation/Analysis
   a. Explanation of how the quote connects and supports the main idea/argument
   b. Explanation as to why this concept concept is important to the paragraph
   c. Not plot summary

5. Concluding Statement
   a. Rephrases main idea from idea statement
   b. Shows a connection to the thesis statement and how this paragraph supports your overall argument
Sample 1 (using only one example): U.S. Government

Prompt: Describe the importance of limitations and responsibilities placed on the government (Congress) by the Constitution

Key:

Idea Statement
Set-Up
Example/Quote
Explanation

The Constitution of the United States can be broken down into key factors that help shape the daily lives of the American people. Limited government is an important component of the Constitution because it restricts the government from having too much power and lets the people share their viewpoints. The Constitution says in Article I, Section 9, Clause 3, “No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.” With this regulation, Congress is not able to punish a person without a judicial trial and they are not allowed to prosecute anyone prior to a law now in effect. This is critical because it gives people a fair opportunity in a court of law. The government is not able to take away the rights of the people, even if they go against the law, in order to provide an ethical court system.
Prompt: Explain how Yann Martel uses different literary devices in his novel, *Life of Pi*, to make one story more believable than the other.

**Idea Statement**

Martel uses figurative language to strengthen the effects of the relationship between Richard Parker and Pi and makes the animal story believable. Pi decides to build a raft for safety when the animals on the lifeboat become more active and aggressive. Pi recollects the feeling of “a prisoner being pushed off a plank by pirates” (Martel 154). It is evident that Pi would have needed a very good reason to build a raft and willingly put himself extremely close to the ocean’s waters. That reason is Richard Parker. This comparison of pirate and prisoner demonstrates the way Pi is visualized by Richard Parker as merely an obstacle. This view proves that the animals, especially Richard Parker, were a constant fear. Without the animals, the quick action of building a raft would seem irrelevant. Pi continues to care for Richard Parker, giving him the majority of food found and as much fresh water as possible. With a routine like this, Pi becomes indiscriminate of the food; he eats “like an animal [with] noisy, frantic, unchewing wolfing-down” of seraps, just as Richard Parker does (225). At this point, Pi has been on the lifeboat long enough to create a routine well-known to himself and even Richard Parker. Pi begins to describe himself in a quite animalistic way. This is because Richard Parker’s presence has affected every aspect of Pi and what Pi used to be and believe in. Pi continues to be very religious, however, he does stray from being a vegetarian and not killing animals, among other things. As an animal, Richard Parker does not have a religion to guide him, he eats what he finds, and kills whatever and whoever he needs to. This realization of eating in such an animalistic way frightens Pi. Without the presence of Richard Parker, one could argue that this realization would not be as scary to Pi because it would be something rather new and unseen. Pi for days and days has bore witness to the daily life of Richard Parker. Pi, while he has admired his tiger companion, now despises him. He despises Richard Parker in this moment. Pi despises himself even more so though because he allowed Richard Parker to affect his mind and therefore his actions, even in a small thing like eating.
Introduction and Conclusions

Introductions
General structure:
- Use an attention grabber to capture the reader’s attention. Use this with interesting concepts related to your topic. Avoid cliches, random quotes, and concepts that do not connect to your overall essay.
- Give the reader a sense of purpose for the essay. Why is this an important topic to discuss? What is the controversy behind it? Give some general information to provide background to what you will be discussing in your essay.
- Provide the reader with your argument. This will drive your entire essay and is essentially the most important sentence in your essay. Without a thesis, your paper has no backbone.

Conclusions
General structure:
- Restate your thesis. This means you state your thesis using different words and structure than the one in your introduction. This serves as a brief reminder to the reader that your body paragraphs have stayed on track and centrally focused around the argument of your essay.
- Provide an overview of why this information is significant to share with the reader. This is NOT a summary, but you should connect your larger points to an overall purpose.
- Finally, provide a “so what?” for the reader. What should the reader take away from your essay? How does your essay connect with a larger message that people can use as insight?

General Tips
- In your conclusion, do not use the phrases, “In conclusion” or “in summary”
- Throughout your essay, avoid statements such as “I believe” or “I think”. It should be based off of evidence, not simply your opinion.
- Your introduction and conclusion should not be too lengthy. Try to aim for half-page paragraphs.
Primary vs. Secondary Sources

Primary Sources are FROM THE TIME PERIOD you are examining. They are used to understand what some people of a time period did or thought.

*Examples:
  - Written sources—diaries, letters, documents, newspaper stories, editorial cartoons, court cases, interview transcripts, bills of sale, recipe books, blueprints, tax records,
  - Artifacts---military uniforms, ration books, photos, musical recordings, paintings, coins, maps, movie posters, baseball cards, etc.

Secondary Sources are FROM AFTER an event or time period AND EVALUATE the period using Primary sources. The key to a source as a secondary source is to identify some sort of opinion about or analysis of a time period. Usually this is based on the use and consideration of Primary sources.

*Examples-----textbooks on history, Wikipedia entries, biographies, journal articles, etc.
**Summarizing, Paraphrasing, and Quoting**

**Summarizing** is the process of providing a short version of an argument, text, or concept. When you summarize, your objective is to take a lengthy text and condense it into a short, easily understandable synopsis. Summaries should aim to present the central ideas of the original text clearly and concisely.

The term **paraphrase** has its origins in the Greek term “paraphrasis”: literally “to tell in other words.” Whereas summarizing condenses a large text or concept into a much smaller piece, when you paraphrase, you consider the writer’s words and recount them using your own. The objective is to take something complex or metaphorical and make it more approachable by putting it in terms within your own lexicon. Unlike summarizing, paraphrasing is not concerned with making something shorter. Often times when you paraphrase, your product will be the same approximate length as the original.

**Quoting** means taking words from the source material and using it in your own writing. The purpose of using quotations is often to provide evidence for an argument, illustrate a writer’s style or choices, offer differing perspectives, or simply add sophisticated flair to your own writing.

Here are the rules for effective quoting:

**Rule 1:** When you use a quotation, put quotation marks around it and INTEGRATE it into your own sentence. Be sure that the sentence with your quote inside is grammatically correct; this means you will need to have a dependent and independent clause and ensure that the sentence feels natural. Ask yourself: if you heard the sentence read aloud, would you know where the quote starts? Avoid using phrases like “the character says” or “the writer writes.”

The narrator physically describes Norman Mushari, a greedy lawyer who is plotting “the violent overthrow of the Rosewater Foundation” (Vonnegut 9).

**Rule 2:** When you quote only parts of a longer sentence or passage, indicate where words have been removed using an ELLIPSIS. Never remove words that change the meaning of the passage.

The reader learns of Heathcliff’s action to Hareton and that Nelly is “hurt that he should be despised now, because...Heathcliff has treated him so unjustly” (Bronte 400).

**Rule 3:** If you must use a quotation longer than two lines, use a BLOCK QUOTE. In a block quote, the entire quotation is indented once to denote that it is a quotation INSTEAD OF using quotation marks. Quotation marks should only be used in a block quote if there is dialogue. The quote starts on an entirely new line and the citation comes after the punctuation mark at the end of the quote.

After seeing Basil’s painting, Lord Harry argues that Dorian looks as if he was made of ivory and rose-leaves...But beauty, real beauty, ends where an intellectual expression begins. Intellect is in itself a mode of exaggeration, and destroys the harmony of the face. (Wilde 5)
**Rule 4:** Sometimes when you integrate a quotation, it will be imperative that you change certain parts, such as pronouns, verbs, or capitalization, in order to match your own sentence’s style. To make a change, OMIT the part of the quote you need to change and replace it with the new word(s), putting **BRACKETS** around the altered portion.

For instance, if you are writing about a character in the third person, but the text is written in the first person perspective, you will likely need to change the word “I” to “he” or “she.”

Ingrid has always made Astrid work for her approval, “not in the least bit curious about [her]” (Fitch 11).

Another common change is in verb tense: the text might be written in the past tense, but your essay is written in the literary present.

Often times, he “[remembers] his flock, and [decides] he should go back to being a shepherd” (Coelho 26).

**Rule 5:** To indicate **DIALOGUE** within a quotation, first use double quotation marks as usual to indicate that the quote comes from the text, followed by a single quotation mark around the dialogue.

He lives his life in a state of depression and regret, stating “‘my nights are spent in a vicious fury at the life which I’ve let slip away from me’” (Chekhov 16).

**Avoiding plagiarism:** Whether you are summarizing, paraphrasing, or quoting, it is necessary to cite your source. You cannot ever take someone’s unique idea without attribution. Refer to the section on plagiarism for more information.
As you write your draft, check to make sure that all words and ideas that are not your own have the proper citations. There are different ways to integrate research into your writing such as to paraphrase (to put in your own words) or directly quote. You must give credit to your sources when you **paraphrase and directly quote** from a source. A proper citation refers the reader to the list of works cited which is found at the end of the essay.

The following examples are taken from the Purdue Online Writing Lab:

https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/747/02/

**In-text citations: Author-page style**

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).

Both citations in the examples above, (263) and (Wordsworth 263), tell readers that the information in the sentence can be located on page 263 of a work by an author named Wordsworth. If readers want more information about this source, they can turn to the Works Cited page, where, under the name of Wordsworth, they would find the following information:

In-text citations for print sources with known author

For Print sources like books, magazines, scholarly journal articles, and newspapers, provide a signal word or phrase (usually the author’s last name) and a page number. If you provide the signal word/phrase in the sentence, you do not need to include it in the parenthetical citation.

Human beings have been described by Kenneth Burke as "symbol-using animals" (3).

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

These examples must correspond to an entry that begins with Burke, which will be the first thing that appears on the left-hand margin of an entry in the Works Cited:


In-text citations for print sources with no known author

When a source has no known author, use a shortened title of the work instead of an author name. Place the title in quotation marks if it's a short work (such as an article) or italicize it if it's a longer work (e.g. plays, books, television shows, entire Web sites) and provide a page number if it is available.

We see so many global warming hotspots in North America likely because this region has "more readily accessible climatic data and more comprehensive programs to monitor and study environmental change . . ." ("Impact of Global Warming").

In this example, since the reader does not know the author of the article, an abbreviated title of the article appears in the parenthetical citation which corresponds to the full name of the article which appears first at the left-hand margin of its respective entry in the Works Cited. Thus, the writer includes the title in quotation marks as the signal phrase in the parenthetical citation in order to lead the reader directly to the source on the Works Cited page. The Works Cited entry appears as follows:


Citing authors with same last names

Sometimes more information is necessary to identify the source from which a quotation is taken. For instance, if two or more authors have the same last name, provide both authors' first initials (or even the authors' full name if different authors share initials) in your citation. For example:

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

Citing a work by multiple authors

For a source with two authors, list the authors’ last names in the text or in the parenthetical citation:

Best and Marcus argue that one should read a text for what it says on its surface, rather than looking for some hidden meaning (9).

The authors claim that surface reading looks at what is “evident, perceptible, apprehensible in texts” (Best and Marcus 9).

For a source with three or more authors, list only the first author’s last name, and replace the additional names with et al.

According to Franck et al., “Current agricultural policies in the U.S. are contributing to the poor health of Americans” (327).

The authors claim that one cause of obesity in the United States is government-funded farm subsidies (Franck et al. 327).

Citing multiple works by the same author

If you cite more than one work by a particular author, include a shortened title for the particular work from which you are quoting to distinguish it from the others. Put short titles of books in italics and short titles of articles in quotation marks.

Citing two articles by the same author:
Lightenor has argued that computers are not useful tools for small children ("Too Soon" 38), though he has acknowledged elsewhere that early exposure to computer games does lead to better small motor skill development in a child's second and third year ("Hand-Eye Development" 17).

*Citing two books by the same author:*

Murray states that writing is "a process" that "varies with our thinking style" (*Write to Learn* 6).

Additionally, Murray argues that the purpose of writing is to "carry ideas and information from the mind of one person into the mind of another" (*A Writer Teaches Writing* 3).

Additionally, if the author's name is not mentioned in the sentence, you would format your citation with the author's name followed by a comma, followed by a shortened title of the work, followed, when appropriate, by page numbers:

Visual studies, because it is such a new discipline, may be "too easy" (Elkins, "Visual Studies" 63).

*Citing the Bible*

In your first parenthetical citation, you want to make clear which Bible you're using (and underline or italicize the title), as each version varies in its translation, followed by book (do not italicize or underline), chapter and verse. For example:

Ezekiel saw "what seemed to be four living creatures," each with faces of a man, a lion, an ox, and an eagle (*New Jerusalem Bible, Ezek.* 1.5-10).

If future references employ the same edition of the Bible you’re using, list only the book, chapter, and verse in the parenthetical citation.

*Citing non-print or sources from the Internet*

With more and more scholarly work being posted on the Internet, you may have to cite research you have completed in virtual environments. While many sources on the Internet should not be used for scholarly work (reference the OWL's *Evaluating Sources of Information* resource), some Web sources are perfectly acceptable for research. When creating in-text citations for electronic, film, or Internet sources, remember that your citation must reference the source in your Works Cited.
Sometimes writers are confused with how to craft parenthetical citations for electronic sources because of the absence of page numbers, but often, these sorts of entries do not require any sort of parenthetical citation at all. For electronic and Internet sources, follow the following guidelines:

- Include in the text the first item that appears in the Work Cited entry that corresponds to the citation (e.g. author name, article name, website name, film name).
- You do not need to give paragraph numbers or page numbers based on your Web browser’s print preview function.
- Unless you must list the Web site name in the signal phrase in order to get the reader to the appropriate entry, do not include URLs in-text. Only provide partial URLs such as when the name of the site includes, for example, a domain name, like CNN.com or Forbes.com as opposed to writing out http://www.cnn.com or http://www.forbes.com.

**Multiple citations**

To cite multiple sources in the same parenthetical reference, separate the citations by a semi-colon:

. . . as has been discussed elsewhere (Burke 3; Dewey 21).


***Be sure to put your sources in alphabetical order, indent all lines except the first, follow grammatical format and standards for MLA citations, make the title of the document: Works Cited.***

*Cite your sources at easybib.com. If you need help with format, ask your teacher or visit the Writing Center.*
MLA Format

MLA (Modern Language Association) Format

Formatting a Paper:
- 12-point font
- Times New Roman or Times font
- Everything throughout the paper is double-spaced
- Margins are set to 1” on all sides of the paper
- Indent the first line of a paragraph by ½ inch
- Heading is on the top left side of the page
  - Student’s Name
  - Instructor’s Name
  - Course Name
  - Date the paper is due---Day Month Year--Ex. 12 March 2017
- Center the title of the paper
  - Not in bold
  - Not underlined
  - Not in Italics (unless you include the title of a particular text)
- Pages need to be numbered in the header
  - Top right side of the page
  - Last name and page number
  - No pg. or p. before the page number
  - Looks like this: Burzynski 3

Example Page 1

Maggie Burzynski
Mrs. Collins
AP English
9 September 2016

Conditions of Invisibility

It is the fate of the majority of humanity to live an unremarkable life. Few people will become famous, create a world-changing invention, or make a lasting mark on thousands of people in the world. It is, in fact, the destiny of most to be invisible, whether it be because of society or some fault of their own. Invisible Man by Ralph Ellison gives insight into the fact that despite all humans experiencing stereotyping and oppression, making them invisible, all must

Example Page 2

Burzynski 2

their place and of themselves. Later on in the novel the narrator angular Enuel The Outsider, and in order to evade Eli’s rule, he disguises himself. After venturing out in his disguise, the narrator is repeatedly mistaken for a man named Raintree, and he thinks, “If dark glasses and a white hat could hint out my identity so quickly, who actually was who?” (49). Identity can be fluid. Each person does not have to fit one specific mold all hours of every day. Though this makes it simpler for humans to reshape their personalities and lives into one better suited to them, it also allows for slips and falls into a gray area of confusion. If one person can put on different clothes and practically become a different person, then identity is just as changeable as the weather. This
General APA Guidelines

Your essay should be typed, double-spaced on standard-sized paper (8.5" x 11") with 1" margins on all sides. You should use a clear font that is highly readable. APA recommends using 12 pt. Times New Roman font.

Include a page header (also known as the "running head") at the top of every page. To create a page header/running head, insert page numbers flush right. Then type "TITLE OF YOUR PAPER" in the header flush left using all capital letters. The running head is a shortened version of your paper's title and cannot exceed 50 characters including spacing and punctuation.

Major Paper Sections

Your essay should include four major sections: the Title Page, Abstract, Main Body, and References.

Title Page

The title page should contain the title of the paper, the author's name, and the institutional affiliation. Include the page header (described above) flush left with the page number flush right at the top of the page. Please note that on the title page, your page header/running head should look like this:

Running head: TITLE OF YOUR PAPER

Pages after the title page should have a running head that looks like this:

TITLE OF YOUR PAPER

Type your title in upper and lowercase letters centered in the upper half of the page. APA recommends that your title be no more than 12 words in length and that it should not contain abbreviations or words that serve no purpose. Your title may take up one or two lines. All text on the title page, and throughout your paper, should be double-spaced.

Beneath the title, type the author's name: first name, middle initial(s), and last name. Do not use titles (Dr.) or degrees (PhD).

Beneath the author's name, type the institutional affiliation, which should indicate the location where the author(s) conducted the research.

Abstract

Begin a new page. Your abstract page should already include the page header (described above). On the first line of the abstract page, center the word “Abstract” (no bold, formatting, italics, underlining, or quotation marks).

Beginning with the next line, write a concise summary of the key points of your research. (Do not indent.) Your abstract should contain at least your research topic, research questions, participants, methods, results, data analysis, and conclusions. You may also
include possible implications of your research and future work you see connected with your findings. Your abstract should be a single paragraph double-spaced. Your abstract should be between 150 and 250 words. You may also want to list keywords from your paper in your abstract. To do this, indent as you would if you were starting a new paragraph, type *Keywords* (italicized), and then list your keywords. Listing your keywords will help researchers find your work in databases.

Please see our Sample APA Paper resource to see an example of an APA paper. You may also visit our Additional Resources page for more examples of APA papers.

**How to Cite the Purdue OWL in APA**

**Individual Resources**

Contributors’ names and the last edited date can be found in the orange boxes at the top of every page on the OWL.

Contributors’ names (Last edited date). *Title of resource*. Retrieved from http://Web address for OWL resource

PRE-PLANNING FOR TIMED WRITING

1. Dissect the Prompt
   a. Read the entire prompt twice to ensure understanding.
   b. Underline/circle key words phrases.
   c. Highlight the verbs in the prompt: ex. analyze, compare, explain, etc.

2. Cluster ideas
   a. Brainstorm ideas that will support your argument.
   b. If it is an argumentative essay, you’ll want to also think of ideas that counter your argument so you can prove those wrong.

3. Provide examples
   a. Provide specific examples to support each point.
   b. You should have at least 2 examples per paragraph.

4. Write your argument/position (thesis)
   a. Write a well-thought out thesis before you start writing the essay.
   b. This should be one sentence and very clear that it is the position of your paper.

5. Reread prompt to ensure that you will answer all parts of it in your essay
   a. Refer back to the highlighted verbs in your prompt to ensure that you answered the entirety of the prompt.
The AP Psychology exam will have two free-response questions and you will have 50 minutes to complete both questions. There is no specific organized structure to write your free response. You have to show that you are able to understand and analyze the question and then clearly and logically respond. The questions will pose a problem or scenario and then have terms (from various units) that you will have to apply to the problem or scenario.

Unlike other AP exams, you do not need to write a formal essay with an introduction and a conclusion. You also may not just bullet point your answer. You will need to write complete sentences that provide specific information that answers the questions. Bullet points and dashes will not score.

An acronym to remember when answering the free response question is to keep in mind: SODAS.

- **SPACE:** Leave spaces (one or two lines) between the various paragraphs. This is easier on the reader and allow space if you think of more later.

- **ORDER:** Answer the parts of your response in the order asked for. If you do not know one of the parts, leave lines to remind yourself that you need to fill in later.

- **DEFINE:** Define the terms. Even though the definitions will not score on their own, they may support or may be necessary for a complete answer.

- **APPLY:** Apply your answer to the scenario provided. The answer must be specific and relate to the situation (scenario) provided. For each term, you must go back and apply it specifically to the scenario (situation).

- **SYNONYMS:** Check for synonyms. You cannot define or explain the term with the term itself.
Before beginning to solve the free-response questions, it is a good idea to read through all of the questions to determine which ones you feel most prepared to answer. You can then proceed to solve the questions in a sequence that will allow you to perform your best.

Monitor your time appropriately on the free-response section. You want to ensure that you do not spend too much time on one question that you do not have enough time to at least attempt to answer all of them.

Show all the steps you took to reach your solution on questions involving calculations. If you do work that you think is incorrect, simply put an "X" through it, instead of spending time erasing it completely.

Many free-response questions are divided into parts such as a, b, c, and d, with each part calling for a different response. Credit for each part is awarded independently, so you should attempt to solve each part. For example, you may receive no credit for your answer to part a, but still receive full credit for part b, c, or d. If the answer to a later part of a question depends on the answer to an earlier part, you may still be able to receive full credit for the later part, even if that earlier answer is wrong.

Organize your answers as clearly and neatly as possible. You might want to label your answers according to the sub-part, such as (a), (b), (c), etc. This will assist you in organizing your thoughts, as well as helping to ensure that you answer all the parts of the free-response question.

You should include the proper units for each number where appropriate. If you keep track of units as you perform your calculations, it can help ensure that you express answers in terms of the proper units. Depending on the exam question, it is often possible to lose points if the units are wrong or are missing from the answer.

You should not use the "scattershot" or “laundry list” approach: i.e., write as many equations or lists of terms hoping that the correct one will be among them so that you can get partial credit. For exams that ask for TWO or THREE examples or equations, only the first two or three examples will be scored.

Be sure to clearly and correctly label all graphs and diagrams accordingly. Read the question carefully, as this could include a graph title, x and y axes labels including units, a best fit line, etc.
AP ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE

WRITING A FREE RESPONSE FOR A.P. ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE

The Free Response section has 4 problems (1 data, 1 document-based, 2 synthesis) worth 40% of the exam. The Multiple Choice section has 100 problems worth 60% of the exam. Calculators are not allowed and no Formula Sheets are provided. 90 minutes is given for this section.

Before answering any questions
- Read the question twice.
- Underline (highlight, outline, etc.) what the question is asking for.
- Begin answering the question in the order it is written; DO NOT restate the question or write an introductory paragraph!

If the question says to ‘discuss’ or ‘describe’
- Define the topic
- Describe or elaborate on the topic State an example of that topic

If the question says to ‘compare and contrast’
- Clearly state what the items have in common
- Clearly state how items are different

If the question asks for a graph to be made
- Label each axis with a name and with units
- Title the graph
- Scale and number the axes correctly
- Use the correct type of graph (2 sets of numbers = line graph, 1 set of numbers & 1 set of words = bar graph)

If the question asks a mathematical problem, (especially APES)
- Show every single step of all work
- Set up problems so that labels cancel out (dimensional analysis)
- Write answers with labels
- If numbers are very large or very small, use scientific notation if at all possible

If the question asks for lab design
- State a hypothesis in the “If, then” format
- Describe each step of a planned experiment in detail
- State exactly what the controls are
- Make sure to mention that the experiment uses multiple samples (50+) or is repeated multiple times Describe expected results
For ALL questions

- Answer in complete sentences; do NOT use lists, charts, outlines, etc.
- Label each section as it is labeled in the question (e.g. a, b, c or i, ii, iii)
- Add a clearly labeled diagram to support your answer, but it cannot be the entire answer
- For every statement you write, ask yourself “WHY.” If there is an answer to that ‘why’ keep on writing!!!!!
- Do not answer more than what is asked for; e.g. If the questions says to choose 3 out of 5 topics, ONLY answer three out of 5; e.g. If the question asks specifically about RNA, don’t discuss DNA duplication.

Remember - time is of the essence. You have 22.5 minutes per question.
AP US HISTORY

Free Response Essay (FRQ)

Preparation---Approximately 5 minutes.

You will have two to choose. Read both carefully. Reread both carefully. Choose the question you feel you can best answer with supporting evidence.

- Determine which historical thinking skill it incorporates. (*Change and continuity, comparison, causation, periodization.*) You will need to emphasize this in your answer.
- Underline the parts of the question. Be clear about whether there are two or three or four aspects to include.
- List as many examples and ideas as you can that are related to the question.
- Organize your ideas and examples into three categories.
- Try to include “counter examples”. (Examples that seem to oppose your position on the question. Can you find a way to include these too?)

Writing --Approximately 35 minutes

Thesis

- Make your best effort at a clear specific thesis. Include a sentence of context--who, what, when, where--what do we need to know to place this question in time? Don’t get carried away. Keep this short and clear. Leave a bit of space so that you can edit or add to this after you’ve written everything else.
- **Establish your argument clearly.** If the question is about *change and continuity* be clear about what changed (and why) and what stayed continuous (and why)--patterns matter for this. If the question is *comparison* focused be clear about what similarities and differences you identify and what about these is important about history. If the question is about *causation*, be clear about what exactly contributed to causing whatever it is. And if it is about *periodization* be clear about what makes the issues or events significant historical turning points--how did this issue or event push technology or foreign policy or reform efforts or whatever it is in a new direction and why is that important?
- Finish your introductory paragraph with a clear “set up” sentence. What three categories will you be using to support your argument? How will these “prove” your point?

Body Paragraphs

- Include specific examples! Try to include 3-5 per paragraph. USE these to support your argument. Do NOT describe them--you do not have the time.
- Refer to your examples as you use them to support your argument.
- Finish each paragraph with a connection to your thesis.
Conclusion

- Focus on pulling your examples together with the theme (change and continuity, comparison, causation, periodization) and your argument.
- Attempt to make a connection to another place and time. Did we learn a lesson from this and apply it in another era? Were there other eras that were similar but less successful? Are we still seeing the effects of it today?

Proofread

- Compare your conclusion and thesis. Can you make your thesis any clearer?
- Did you answer all the parts of the question?
- Are there overgeneralizations you can make more specific?
- Did you include everything you could from your initial list of ideas?

Other Do’s and Don’ts

- Be specific! Don’t say “the war” when you can say WWII, don’t say “colonists” when you can say New Englanders supporting the Revolution, Don’t say “women” when you can say educated reformers or enslaved women or young urban women or ……
- Use last names! You are not on a first name basis with ANY historical figure. They are ALWAYS known by last name and or title “President Washington, General Eisenhower, First Lady Abigail Adams, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Chavez, etc.
- DO NOT PERSONALIZE! Never write “I think….”, “We believed…..” “My opinion…..”
- Get as close as you can if you can’t remember dates. If you can’t remember 1607, can you narrow it to early in the 1600s? Or before Plymouth? Or even “long after Columbus…..”
- Think A C O R N----Consider African Americans, Class, Opposition, Region, Natives……
- and Women, and immigrants, and urban and rural and …….DO NOT overgeneralize! All women were not middle class. All New Englanders did not support the American Revolution. Native American tribes were radically different based on geography. All African Americans in the 1830s were not slaves. Catholic Irish immigrants of the 1840s faced different issues than Polish immigrant Jews of the 1950s. Make it clear you are not ignoring large parts of the story.
- Trust your instincts. You know more than you realize. You will not be penalized for incorrect information. You will be given points for including appropriate examples and supporting your thesis.

Document Based Question (DBQ)

Scoring:

25 % of test score---scoring based on:
1. **Thesis**--1 point
2. **Document use, outside information inclusion, support of argument in thesis**--4 points
3. **Contextualization**--1 point
4. **Synthesis**--1 point

**Time:**

You have about 10 minutes of reading and planning time. Use it!

**Brainstorming/Prewriting:**

- Read Question carefully. Underline the parts!
- Brainstorm information. List 10-15 terms, names, laws, events, dates, people, places…..that are related to the question.
- DON’T look at the documents yet!
- Organize your list. Can you see three clear areas to examine?
- NOW look at the docs. Carefully note the sources as well as the content. Where do these fit in your organization?
- You MUST include **one** of the HAPPY components for EACH doc, but will not be penalized for incorrect use. That means you should use more than one in case you aren’t as clear or accurate as you'd like. Note one or two in the margin quickly.
  - **H**: Historical context? What would have led to the creation of this document?
  - **A**: Audience? Who was supposed to hear or see or read this document when it was first created?
  - **P**: Purpose? What was the message in the document? How was it useful when it was created?
  - **Y**: Why is this document helpful in answering the question? What does it show about the time?

**Writing the Essay:**

- Be sure to answer the question.
- Use a clear thesis. Set up your body paragraphs.
- Include ALL of the docs, try to incorporate TWO of the HAPPY for each, work in your outside information
- DO NOT quote or describe the contents of the docs! The readers know these inside out. Simply refer to them by author or subject matter (“Historian Richard Hofstadter pointed out….” Or “As the Lewis and Clark expedition’s map shows….”) and make the argument you need to with it.
- Conclude. Connect it all together and connect to another place or time.
- Proofread! Is your thesis clear? Did you use all the docs? Is there another name or date or event or law or…..that you can work in?
AP ENGLISH

The AP English Literature and Composition exam consists of a multiple choice section and three essays. Each of the essays assesses mastery of a different type of literary analysis. There is an essay on prose, poetry, and a free-response essay. AP students will receive all prompts at once, and will have two hours to complete all three essays in whichever order they choose. Plan to spend roughly 40 minutes on each essay. By the time you take the test, you will likely know where your strengths lie, but it’s a good idea to look over the prompts and texts before ultimately deciding on the order in which you will tackle the essays. Always write the essays in the order you feel most confident. (If you run out of time, you want it to be on the one that you would have likely done poorest on anyway.)

The Prose and Poetry Essays

These are separate essays, but are grouped together in this document because they call for similar approaches.

About the Essay:

- The test will give you a poem and an excerpt from a short story, novel, or, rarely, a play to analyze.
- Poems are typically 20 lines or fewer.
- Prose excerpt lengths vary, but they are usually in the ballpark of 75 lines.
- Occasionally, test-makers will present you with two prose pieces or poems to compare and contrast.

Writing the Essay:

- Read and annotate the prompt first.
- Know what you should be looking for, so when you read the text, you can annotate the passage purposefully, indicating clearly passages which will support your eventual argument.
- Before you begin drafting your essay, spend a few minutes pre-writing.
- Give your future self a break by jotting down a brief outline of what you intend to say, in what order.
- Do not spend more than 8-10 minutes on reading, annotating, and pre-writing. If nothing comes to you in that period of time, start writing anyway and trust that your ideas will come.
- As you write, refer back to the prompt regularly to ensure that you are still on track.
- As with any essay, attention should be paid to organization, varying sentence structures, integration of quotes, and avoiding redundancies and other “fluff.”

The Free-Response Essay

About the Essay:

- The test will provide you with a prompt and a list of texts which could be used to respond to the prompt.
- The prompt will usually contain a quotation or broad statement about literature (the portrayal of a character, an element of plot, or the exploration of a theme are common topics).
- You can be assured that the list of books they suggest are safe choices and will work well for the prompt. If you choose to write about a book which is not on the list, ensure that it is of comparable literary value (do not write about a book below your level or inappropriate for school).
Writing the Essay:

- Unlike in the poetry and prose essays, you will not have access to the source material, so quotations or the use of “micro terms” (diction, syntax, etc) are not expected.
- It is likely that you will have some discussion of “macro terms” (symbolism, characterization, etc), however.
- Be sure to pre-write and refer back to the prompt often to make sure you are on track.
- As with any essay, think about how to present your information, vary your sentence structure and word choices, and avoid “fluff.”
The written free-response section of the AP Spanish Language & Culture Exam lasts approximately 70 minutes and consists of two parts: 1) an e-mail response and 2) a persuasive essay. For both writing tasks, be sure to write legibly and to proofread your work for verb conjugations and other grammatical conventions, capitalization, punctuation, and spelling (including accent marks).

**Interpersonal Writing: Email reply (1 prompt; 15 minutes)**

a) Be sure to include a greeting (salutation) and a closing to your e-mail response.
b) Decide if you should address the person receiving your e-mail as “tú” (informal, familiar) or “Ud.” (formal, unfamiliar). Use the corresponding verb forms and greetings/closings in your e-mail response.
c) Identify all of the questions that appear in the original e-mail. Be sure to answer all of them in your response.
d) Include questions to the recipient of your e-mail asking for more details and/or clarification about the topic of the original e-mail.
e) Use varied vocabulary and advanced grammar structures whenever possible.

**Presentational Writing: Write a persuasive essay based on three sources, including an article, a table or graphic, and a related audio source (played twice), that present different viewpoints on a topic (~55 minutes total: 15 minutes to review materials plus 40 minutes to write). You will have access to the print sources and any notes you may take on the audio during the entire 40-minute writing period.**

a) Clearly state your opinion on the essay topic and persuade your reader accept your viewpoint.
b) Cite ALL THREE SOURCES in your essay. Use phrases like “Según la fuente número tres...” (“According to source number three...”) and “La fuente número uno afirma que...” (Source number one affirms that...”).
c) Include an introduction, body paragraphs, and a conclusion.
d) Use rich and varied vocabulary, including idiomatic expressions.
e) Include connector/transition phrases in your writing in order to help the flow of your essay. Examples of these are “Primero”, “Entonces”, “Cabe agregar que...”, “En resumen”, “Por un lado”, etc.
f) Incorporate a variety of sentence types in your essay, including both simple and complex sentences.
g) Try to incorporate advanced structures, such as the subjunctive mood, wherever possible in your essay.
**ACT Writing Guidelines**

**Description:** It is an optional 40 minute test with prompts that address contemporary issues. You will be given 3 different perspectives where you need to develop your own unique perspective and explain the relationships among the varying points of view.

**Time Breakdown:**
Planning: 8-10 mins

- Choose one of the three sides (write your thesis)
- Brainstorm 2 or 3 reasons/examples to support your thesis
- Brainstorm counterarguments and analysis of all three perspectives
- Organize your essay—make sure to order your points in a way that makes sense
- Check your time! You should have 30 mins left to write the essay

Writing: 25-28 mins

Revising: 2-4 mins

- Correct mistakes
- Replace dull words

**Essay Setup:**

**Intro:**
- Start with a topic sentence that restates the central issue
- Clearly state your position on the issue

**Body paragraph 1:**
- Start with a transition/topic sentence that discusses the OPPOSING SIDE of your argument.
- Try to think of a first sentence that refers back to the 1st paragraph.
- “In contrast to my perspective, Perspective [X] claims that…..”
- Discuss the given perspective(s) that would support the opposing argument.
- Give a specific example that could be used to support the opposing argument.
- Explain why you disagree with the opposing perspective.

**Body paragraph 2:**
- Start with a transition/topic sentence that discusses YOUR POSITION on the central issue
- Explain your position including any of the given perspectives that support your position
- Give an example that supports your position
- End the paragraph by restating your position

**Conclusion:**
- Recap your discussion
- Restate your perspective and arguments
- Provide a final overarching thought on the topic
Like the ACT, the SAT writing portion is optional, however, it is once again recommended to take because it is helpful and some colleges will want to see it. Unlike the ACT though, the SAT writing is not asking you to pick a side of a controversial issue. You simply have to read a text and discuss how the author effectively builds an argument. The SAT is scored differently than the ACT. Two people will read and score your essay. Each scorer will award a number of points from 1-4 for each dimension: reading, analysis, and writing. The scores from each dimension are then added, so you will receive a score ranging from 2-8 on each dimension. The scores are not added, so there is no composite SAT essay score. You will have 50 minutes to complete the essay.

Before writing the essay:

- Read the prompt and the passage carefully, making note of what the author is arguing and the stylistic and persuasive techniques the author uses to appeal to the audience.
- Identify the claims the author is making so you can use them as evidence in your essay.
- Outline what you want to say in your essay.
- Use about 10-12 minutes to do your planning.

Writing the essay:

- Introduction
  - Keep the intro short and to the point.
  - Identify the central idea of the passage.
  - Write a thesis that identifies how the author builds their argument.
- 1st body paragraph
  - Discuss the first point that you want to make.
  - Relate it back to your thesis.
  - Use concrete examples from the passage--it’s okay to quote the passage directly, taking care to integrate the quotes.
  - Restate your claim at the end of the paragraph.
- 2nd body paragraph
  - Start with a transition to introduce the new idea.
  - Discuss the second point you want to make.
  - Explain how it relates back to the thesis.
○ Again, use concrete examples from the passage to support your claim.
○ Restate your claim at the end of the paragraph.
● 3rd body paragraph
  ○ Begin with a transition that introduces the final idea.
  ○ Discuss the last point you want to make.
  ○ Relate it back to your thesis.
  ○ Use concrete examples from the text to support your claim.
  ○ Restate the claim at the end of the paragraph, using different words.
● Conclusion
  ○ Restate what was said in your introduction.
    ■ Recap what point the author is making in the passage.
    ■ Restate your thesis using different words.
● Spend 36-38 minutes writing.

Revision:

● Take time to read over what you have written.
● Correct any mistakes you may find in your writing.
● Replace any dull words you come across with more exciting ones.
● Spend 2-4 minutes editing and revising.

Other helpful tips:

● The SAT writing wants you to identify how the author uses persuasive techniques. Each of the body paragraphs should focus on three main categories. Make sure that you touch on these points or other persuasive methods.
  ○ How the author ethically appeals to an audience to show that they are a credible source,
  ○ How the author persuades the audience by appealing to their emotions, and
  ○ How the author uses logic and reason to appeal to the audience.
● Keep your essay focused. Don’t fill your essay with fluff to distract from the points you are trying to make.
● Keep it organized. Don’t bounce back and forth from idea to idea. Focus on one idea at a time and express what you want to say.
● Use precise language. It’s okay to use sophisticated vocabulary, but it’s better to get your point across using simple language than to get caught up trying to think of a word.
● Give your writing some fluency by mixing up the types of sentence structure that you
● Avoid using first person.
LAB REPORT WRITING CRITERIA

Problem/Experimental Question/Objective:
- Problem stated in correct format
- Purpose stated clearly in your own words

Hypothesis:
- Hypothesis stated in proper format
- Experiment and prediction statement clearly relates to performed experiment

Procedure:
- Experiment described as completed including any changes made from the given directions
- Directions written clearly and concisely
- All materials listed

Results/Data:
- Accurate Title
- All data accounted for
- Proper units in the correct place in data table
- Lines separate data to make it easier to read
- Computer generated

Graphs:
- Graphs include properly labeled title, axes, and legends
- Graph to scale, design conveys information appropriately
- Applicable statistics included
- All data represented

Calculations:
- All calculations included
- Appropriate units and significant figures for numerical data
- All work shown follows logical sequence
- All answers accurate and clearly identified

Analysis:
- All questions answered in complete sentences
- All answers clear and concise
- Answers clear and concise
- Observations clearly documented

Conclusion:
- Conclusion answers objective(s) clearly and concisely
- Explains evidence through numerical data with units
- Accounts for error and its effect on results

Format:
- Typed and proofread using standard English
- Follows correct sequence
- Sensible use of space and ink
- Font appropriate
When writing a conclusion on a lab report, it is very similar to an IEE paragraph. Provide the idea, support it with an example, and then explain it for the reader to understand how this impacted your experiment.

There are two parts to a lab report conclusion, which will make an IEEIEE paragraph.

1. First part:
   - Idea(s) = Answer/address the objective(s) of the lab exercise
   - Example/Explanation = Use data collected from your lab to support your answer to the objective.

2. Second part:
   - Idea(s) = Describe a source of error that occurred during your lab
   - Example/Explanation = Explain exactly how that error affected your results

Here’s an example showing the 2 parts:

In the Copper Stoichiometry lab, my percent yield of copper was 90.3% and my percent error was 9.7%. I calculated the theoretical yield of copper to be 5.46g and experimentally I obtained 4.93g of copper. One source of error in this lab was leftover copper in the beaker that I was unable to filter. This caused my mass of copper to be too low which is why my percent yield is less than 100%.
As in all classes at Pius XI, students are expected to do their own work on all assignments and assessments for French and Spanish classes. Academic dishonesty (cheating/plagiarism) is an act committed by a student to distort the marking of assignments and assessments, such as daily homework, projects, essays, tests, quizzes, and other forms of academic evaluation.

In World Language classes, examples of cheating/plagiarism include but are not limited to:

- copying a classmate’s homework, essay, project, etc.
- copying a classmate’s test or quiz.
- using a smartphone or other device during a paper-based test or quiz without permission.
- allowing a classmate to copy one’s homework, essay, project, test, quiz etc.
- completing another student’s Schoology assignment using his/her login information.
- using an online translator such as Google Translate to translate entire sentences or paragraphs.
- receiving help from a family member, friend, or classmate on an assignment to the extent that the work that is submitted is no longer his/her own.
- copying information from a source (website, book, etc.) word-for-word, and submitting it as one’s own work.
- paraphrasing information from a source (website, book, etc.) and incorrectly citing that source or not citing the source at all.
- not giving credit to images used in essays and presentations.

***These above actions are NOT permitted, as they constitute academic dishonesty.***

Essays written for French and Spanish classes that contain information from outside sources must include citations and bibliography in **MLA format**.

The following online dictionaries are acceptable to look up individual words and short phrases in context:
- wordreference.com
- linguee.com
FRENCH GRAMMAR

Punctuation

· Quotation marks when showing a direct citation in text are written like this in French: « »
· The long dash — is commonly used in books and short stories to show dialogue.
  —Comment ça va? — elle m’a demandé. “How are you?” she asked me.

· In French, commas and periods go outside of quotation marks.
· When writing a list or a series, the last comma is omitted in French.

· In French, commas are used as decimal points.
  French: $2. 107.44  English: $2, 107.44
  French: 4.555.087 English: 4,555,087

French accents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accent</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L’accent aigu: é</td>
<td>Only appearing above the letter e, it changes the letter’s pronunciation to ay—for example:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>médecin (doctor)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>parlé (past participle of speak)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>marché (market)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L’accent grave: è à ù</td>
<td>It can appear over any vowel, but it only changes pronunciation when over the letter e. E’s with accent grave are always pronounced ehh, like the e in English. Examples:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>très (treh, meaning very)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>deuxième (doo-zee-ehm, meaning second, as in second place).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Le circonflexe: ê à ô</td>
<td>It doesn’t change pronunciation, but it must be included in written French. It indicates a spelling change from Latin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>forêt (for-ay, meaning forest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hôtel (owe-tel, meaning hotel)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La cédille: ç</td>
<td>It’s used to give the c an s sound instead of a hard k sound—for example:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>garçon (gahr-sohn, meaning boy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>français (frahn-say, meaning the French language)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Le tréma: ë à ï | It’s usually placed above the second of two consecutive vowels when both vowels should be pronounced separately.  
| Jamaïque (jam-eh-eek, meaning Jamaica)  
| coïncidence (ko-ehn-see-dahns, meaning coincidence) |
| û | In words like sœur, the o and e will be connected. When you have an û in your word, you will not pronounce the o and the e separately. |

**Capitalization**

- Days of the week and months of the year are NOT capitalized in French.
  - Le 3 mai – *the 3rd of May*  
  - samedi dernier – *last Saturday*

- Words for nationalities, languages, and religions are NOT capitalized in French.
  - la nourriture italienne *Italian food*
  - le français *French (language)*
  - une église catholique *a Catholic church*

- The French DO capitalize names and cities.
  - Jacques
  - le Paris

- The first word in titles of books, stories, etc. is always capitalized, along with the second word if the first word is an article.
  - *Les Misérables*
  - *Les Fleurs du mal*  
  - *Flowers of Evil*

- If another word in a title has the same weight or importance as the first capitalized word, than that would be capitalized, too.
  - *Crime et Chatiment*  
  - *Crime and Punishment*
SPANISH GRAMMAR

Punctuation

• When writing questions, an upside-down question mark is used at the beginning and a standard question mark is used at the end of the sentence.

  Ex.  ¿Cómo te llamas?  What is your name?

• When writing an exclamatory sentence or interjection, an upside-down exclamation mark is used at the beginning and a standard exclamation mark is used at the end of the sentence.

  Ex.  ¡Voy a Costa Rica!  I’m going to Costa Rica!
       ¡Qué fantástico!  How fantastic!

• Quotation marks when showing a direct citation in text can be written in two ways in Spanish: “ ” or « »

  Un refrán bien conocido es «Al que madruga Dios lo ayuda».
  A well-known saying is “The early bird catches the worm.”

• The long dash — is commonly used in books and short stories to show dialogue.

  —¿Cómo estás?— me preguntó.  “How are you?” she asked me.

• In Spanish, commas and periods go outside of quotation marks.

  “No se puede obtener la perfección, pero si buscamos la perfección, podemos conseguir la excelencia”.
  – Vince Lombardi

  “Perfection is not attainable, but if we chase perfection we can catch excellence.” – Vince Lombardi

• When writing a list or a series, the last comma is omitted in Spanish.

  Spanish: México, Puerto Rico y España  English: Mexico, Puerto Rico, and Spain

• In most Spanish-speaking countries, commas and decimal points are used in an opposite fashion from English when expressing quantities with thousands, millions, and cents.

  Spanish: $2, 107.44  English: $2, 107.44
  Spanish: 4,555.087  English: 4,555,087

Accent Marks

Accent marks on letters are part of the spelling of a word. Without the accent mark, the word is spelled incorrectly. The presence or absence of an accent often changes the meaning of the word.

Examples of words in Spanish that change in meaning according to the use of accent marks:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>With an accent</th>
<th>Without an accent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sí – yes</td>
<td>si - if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dé – give (as an informal command)</td>
<td>de – of, from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mi – me</td>
<td>mi - my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tú – you (as the subject of a sentence)</td>
<td>tu - your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>él – he</td>
<td>el - the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sé – I know (1st-person conjugation of the verb “saber”)</td>
<td>se – himself, herself, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>té – tea</td>
<td>te – you (as the direct or indirect object of a sentence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¿Por qué? – Why? el porqué – the reason</td>
<td>porque - because</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hablo. - I speak.</td>
<td>Habló. - He or She spoke.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caminé. - I walked.</td>
<td>¡Camine! - Walk! (as a formal command)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- All question words are written with an accent mark:
  ¿Quién(es)? ¿Qué? ¿Dónde? / ¿Adónde? ¿Cuándo? ¿Cuál(es)?
  ¿Cuánto/os/as? ¿Cómo? ¿Por qué?

**Capitalization**
- Days of the week and months of the year are NOT capitalized in Spanish.
  el 3 de mayo – the 3rd of May
  el sábado pasado – last Saturday

- Words for nationalities, languages, and religions are NOT capitalized in Spanish.
  la comida italiana – Italian food
  el francés – French (language, man)
  una iglesia católica – a Catholic church

- Only the first word in titles of books, stories, etc. is capitalized.
  Cien años de soledad – One Hundred Years of Solitude
  De ratos y hombres – Of Mice and Men

**Miscellaneous**
- When referring to centuries, Spanish uses Roman numerals.
  el siglo XX – the twentieth century, the 1900s

47
Finding Subjects and Verbs

It is important to be able to find the subject and main verb in any sentence.

\textit{Example: The list of items is/are on the desk.} * If you know that list is the subject, then you will choose is for the verb.

Definitions:

- **Noun** – A word or set of words for a person, place, thing or idea.
- **Compound Nouns** – Nouns with more than one word (tennis court, gas station)
- **Subject** - The noun or pronoun that performs the verb.
- **Predicate** - The part of a sentence or clause containing a verb and stating something about the subject (e.g., went home in John went home).
- **Verb** – A word or set of words that shows action, feeling or state of being. Examples are:
  - Action - runs, is going to, has been painting
  - Feeling – loves, likes, envies
  - State of Being – am, are, is, have been, was, seem
- **Linking Verbs** (State of Being) include all forms of the verb to be plus verbs to look, to feel, to appear, to act, to go. They are then followed by an adjective.
- **Phrasal Verbs** are usually two-word phrases consisting of verb + adverb or verb + preposition. (Examples: break out, ask out, fall down)
- **Helping Verbs** are verbs that help the main verb in a sentence by extending the meaning of the verb. (Examples: be, including am, is, are, was, were, been, have, has had, do, does, did, can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must, ought to)

Some Rules:

1) If a verb follows to, it is called an infinitive phrase and is not the main verb. You will find the main verb either before or after the infinitive phrase.

\textit{Example: I like to walk.}

2) A subject will come before a phrase beginning with of.

\textit{Example: A bouquet of yellow roses will lend color and fragrance to the room.}
3) To find the subject and verb, always find the verb first. Then ask who or what performed the verb.

   Example: The jet engine passed inspection. *Passed is the verb. Who or what passed? The engine, so engine is the subject.

4) Any request or command such as ‘‘Stop!’’ or ‘‘Walk quickly.’’ has the understood subject you because if we ask who is to stop or walk quickly, the answer must be you.

   Example: (You) Please bring me some coffee. * Bring is the verb. Who is to do the bringing? You understood.

5) Sentences often have more than one subject, more than one verb, or pairs of subjects and verbs.

   Example: I like cake and he likes ice cream.*Two pairs of subjects and verbs-- He and I like cake. Two subjects and one verb
   Example: She lifts weights and jogs daily. *One subject and two verbs

Subject – Verb Agreement
A singular subject (He, John, a bus) takes a singular verb (is, gives, runs), while a plural subject takes a plural verb.

   Example: The politician is expected shortly.

1) A subject will come before a phrase beginning with of. This rule helps to understand subjects.

   Example: A bouquet of yellow flowers lends color and fragrance to the room.

2) Two singular subjects connected by or, either/or, or neither/no require a singular verb.

   Example: My aunt or uncle is arriving by train today.
   Example: Either Mary or John is helping decorate the stage.

3) The verb in an or, either/or sentence agrees with the noun or pronoun closest to it.

   Example: Neither the plates nor the serving bowl goes on that shelf.
   Example: Neither the serving bowl nor the plates go on that shelf.
   Example: Neither she, I, nor my friends are going to the festival.
4) Use a plural verb with two or more subjects when they are connected by *and*.

*Example:* A care and a bike are my means of transportation.  BUT
*Example:* Breaking and entering is illegal. (When the two subjects are part of an expression and considered as one. – Compound nouns)

5) When using words that indicate part or portion (percent, fraction, majority, some, all, etc.), use the noun after the *of*.

*Example:* Fifty percent of the pie has been eaten.
*Example:* Fifty percent of the pies have been eaten.

6) When using *here* or *there*, the subject follows the verb.

*Example:* There are four bananas.
*Example:* Here is your key.

7) Distances, periods of time, sums of money, etc. use a singular verb.

*Example:* Three miles is too far.
*Example:* Twenty dollars is too expensive.  BUT
*Example:* Five dollars were scattered all over the table. (Dollar bills)

8) Some collective nouns can take either a singular or plural verb depending on their use.

*Example:* The staff is in a meeting. (Staff = a unit)
*Example:* The couple disagree about the house. (Couple = two people)

**NOTE:** Be consistent: The staff are deciding how they want to vote.

9) Subjunctive mood: *Were* replaces *was* in sentences that express a wish or are contrary to fact.

*Example:* If Joe were here, you’d be sorry.
*Example:* I wish it were Friday.
Example: She requested that he raise his hand. (And singular subject with plural verb when expressing a wish)

*The pronouns each, everyone, everyone, everybody, anyone, anybody, someone, and somebody are singular and require singular verbs. Do not be misled by what follows of.

Clauses and Phrases

Definitions:
- **Clause** is a group of words containing a subject and a verb.
- **Independent clause** is a single sentence that can stand on its own.

*Example:* The house is large.

- **Dependent clause** cannot stand on its own and needs an independent clause to complete it.

  *Example:* Although she is hungry
  *Example:* Because I finished the test

  **Dependent**  Independent
  Although she is hungry, she will not eat.

- **Phrase** is a group of words without a subject verb component and is used as a single part of speech.

  *Example:* Best friend (noun phrase)
  *Example:* Needing help (adjective phrase)
  *Example:* For three hours (prepositional phrase)

Pronouns

Definitions:
- **Pronouns** take the place of a noun. There are three types of pronouns (**subject** = he, **object** = him, **possessive** = his)

  **Pronoun Examples:** (I, me, he, she, herself, you, it, that, they, each, few, many, who, whoever, whose, someone, everybody, etc.)

Key Points:
1) Subject pronouns are used when the subject of the sentence is the pronoun.

*Example:* ___ did the job. (I, he, she, thay, whoever, etc, can be inserted)
2) Subject pronouns are used to rename the subject. They follow the verb to be.

   Example: This is she speaking.

3) When who refers to a personal pronoun, it takes the verb that agrees with that pronoun.

   Example: It is I who am sorry. (I am)
   Example: It is you who are mistaken. (You are)

4) Object pronouns are used everywhere else. (Direct object, indirect object, object of a preposition)

   Example: Jean saw him. (direct object)
   Example: Give her the book. (indirect object)
   Example: Are you talking to me? (object of the preposition)

5) Pronouns who, that, and which are singular or plural depending if the subject is singular and use a singular verb. If it is plural, use a plural verb.

   Example: He is the only one of those men who is always on time. (Who = one)

6) Pronouns that are singular require singular verbs. (I, he, she, everyone, anyone, anybody, no one, nobody, someone, each, either, neither, etc)

   Example: Each of the boys plays well.
   Example: Either of us is available. BUT
   Example: The women each gave her approval. (When each follows a noun or pronoun)

7) After than or as, mentally complete the sentence to determine whether to use the subject pronoun or the object pronoun.

   Example: Mary is as smart as she (is).
   Example: Danny would rather talk to her than me (to me). BUT
   Example: Danny would rather talk to her than I (would).

8) Possessive pronouns never need apostrophes. (His, hers, its, ours, theirs, whose)

9) The only time it’s has an apostrophe is when it is a contraction of it is.

10) Pronouns that end in -self or -selves are called reflexive pronouns. There are nine reflexive pronouns: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, themselves, ourselves, yourselves.
Example: Tom helped himself.
Example: They bought the car for themselves.
Example: Help yourself. (You is understood to be the subject)

11) In a sentence with a pronoun linked to a noun by and, mentally match the pronoun with the verb.

Example: She and her friend came over.
Example: I invited him and his wife.
Example: Bill asked my sister and me.

Who vs. Whom

Key Points:
He = who
Him = whom

Example: Who wrote the letter? (He wrote the letter.)
Example: Whom should I vote for? (I should vote for him.)
Example: We all know who did it. (We all know he did it.)
Example: We wondered whom the story was about. (The book was about him.)

Whoever vs. Whomever

Key Points:
He = whoever
Him = whomever

1) Dependent clauses use whoever or whomever to agree with the verb.

Example: Give it to whoever asks for it first. (He asks for it first.)
Example: You will hire whomever we recommend. (We recommend him.)

2) The whoever/whomever clause is the subject of the verb that follows the clause.

Example: Whoever is elected will serve for two years. (He will serve.)
Example: Whomever you elect will serve for four years. (You elect him. Whomever you elect is the subject of will serve)

Who, That, Which
Key points:

1) **Who** and sometimes **that** refer to people. **That** and **which** refer to groups or things.

   *Example*: Mary is the one **who** ate the bread.
   *Example*: LeBron is on the team **that** won the championship.
   *Example*: She attends Pius XI Catholic High School, **which** is considered a good school for the arts.

2) **That** is used to introduce an essential clause used to add information that is vital to understanding the sentence.

   *Example*: I do not trust products **that** claim to have “all natural ingredients” because this phrase is used too easily.

3) **Which** introduces a nonessential clause providing supplementary information.

   *Example*: The product claiming “all natural ingredients,” **which** appeared in the paper, is on sale.

**NOTE:** Essential clauses do not have commas introducing or surrounding them. Nonessential clauses are introduced or surrounded by commas.

**Adjectives and Adverbs**

**Definitions:**
- **Adjective** is a word or set of words that modify a noun or pronoun. Adjectives come before the word they modify or sometimes follow it.

   *Example*: That is a **cute** puppy.
   *Example*: She is a **high school** senior.
   *Example*: The puppy is **cute**.

- **Adverb** is a word or sent of words that modify the verb, adjectives or other adverbs.

   *Example*: He speaks **slowly**, (modifies the verb speaks)
   *Example*: He is **especially** clever. (modifies the adjective clever)
   *Example*: He speaks all too **slowly**, (modifies the adverb slowly)

An adverb answers how, when, where, how often, how much.

   *Example*: He speaks **slowly**, (answers how)
   *Example*: He speaks **very slowly**, (answers how slowly)

**Key Points:**
1) Many adverbs end if –ly (an adjective with an –ly added to it)

   *Example:* She thinks *quickly.* (answers how)
   *Example:* She thinks *fast.* (answers how)

2) Adjectives instead of adverbs with linking verbs such as *taste,* *smell,* *look,* *feel,* etc.

   *Example:* Roses smell *sweet.*
   *Example:* The woman looked *angry.*
   *Example:* He feels *bad.*

3) The word *good* is an adjective, whose adverb equivalent is *well.*

   *Example:* You did a *good* job. (*good* describes *job*)
   *Example:* You did the job *well.* (*well* answers *how*)

4) The word *well* can be an adjective, too. We use *well* when talking about health.

   *Example:* You do not look well today.

5) There are three degrees of adjectives. There is a positive degree adjective. And there are comparative degrees and superlative degrees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sweet</td>
<td>Sweeter</td>
<td>Sweetest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>Worse</td>
<td>Worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficient</td>
<td>More efficient</td>
<td>Most efficient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Example:* She is the cleverest of the two women. (comparing two things)
*Example:* She is the cleverest of them all. (comparing three or more)
*Example:* She spoke more quickly than he did.
*Example:* Talk more quietly.

6) When this, that, these and those are followed by a noun, they are adjectives. Without a noun, they are pronouns.

   *Example:* *This* house is for sale. (*this* = adjective)
   *Example:* *This* is for sale. (*this* = pronoun)

**Prepositions**
Definitions:

- **Preposition** is a word that indicates location (in, near, beside) or some other relationship (about, after, besides) between a noun or a pronoun and other parts of the sentence. A preposition goes with a related pronoun or noun and is called the **object of the preposition**.

  *Example:* Let’s meet **before** noon. (**before** is the preposition; **noon** is the noun)  
  *Example:* We’ve never met **before**. (there is no object; **before** is an adverb modifying **met**)

**Key Points:**

1) Generally, a preposition goes before its noun or pronoun. (It is a myth that you cannot end a sentence with a preposition.)

  *Example:* That is not something I cannot agree with.  
  *Example:* Where did you get this?  
  *Example:* How many of you can I depend on?

2) **Like** means similar to or similarly to. It should be followed by the object of the preposition (noun, pronoun, noun phrase), not by a subject and verb.

  *Example:* You look **like** your mother. (meaning similar to)

3) Use of **as, as if, as though, or the way** when following a comparison with a subject and verb.

  *Example:* You look the **way** your mother does.  
  *Example:* You look **as if** you’re angry.  
  *Example:* They are considered **as** any other English words would be.  
  *Example:* I, **like** most people, try to use good grammar.

4) The preposition **of** should never be used in place of the helping verb **have**.

  *Example:* I should **have** done it.

5) Follow **different** with the preposition **from**.

  *Example:* You’re different **from** me.

6) Use **into** instead of **in** to express motion toward something.

  *Example:* I swam **in** the pool.  
  *Example:* I walked **into** the house.
Section 2: Punctuation

Periods
1) A period is used at the end of a complete sentence.
2) If the last item in the sentence is an abbreviation that ends in a period, do not add another period.
3) Question marks and exclamation points replace and eliminate periods at the end of a sentence.

Commas
1) Commas indicate a brief pause in the sentence.
2) Commas separate words and word groups in a series of three or more items.

Example: My estate goes to my husband, son, daughter-in-law, and nephew. (Oxford comma for clarity)
Example: We had coffee, cheese and crackers. (common for lists)
3) Use a comma to separate two adjectives when the adjectives are interchangeable.
   Example: He is a strong, healthy man.
   Example: WE stayed at an expensive summer resort.
4) Do not combine two independent clauses together with a comma. It results in a run-on sentence.
   Example: He walked all the way home, he shut his door. (No good)
   Example: He walked all the way Home. He shut the door. (good)
5) Where there are two independent clauses joined by connectors (as, or, but, etc), use a comma at the end of the first clause.
   Example: He walked all the way home, and shut the door.
6) Use commas to set off expressions that interrupt the sentence flow. (nevertheless, after all, by the way, on the other hand, however, etc.)
   Example: I am, by the way, very nervous about this.
7) Use commas to set off the name, nickname, or title of a person directly addressed.
   Example: Will you, John, turn in that assignment?
8) Use commas in date that include the year.
9) Use a comma to separate a city from a state and after the state as well.

   Example: I’m from the Milwaukee, Wisconsin, area.

10) Use a comma with a person’s name when it is followed by Jr. or Sr. The comma follows the last name.

   Example: Martin Luther King, Jr.
   Example: Joe Smith Sr. is here. (is now considered okay) OR
   Example: Joe Smith, Sr., is here.

11) Use a comma when you start a sentence with a dependent clause, but not necessary when you start a sentence with an independent clause.

   Example: If you are happy, let me know it. (dependent clause)
   Example: Let me know now if you are happy. (Independent clause)

12) Use a comma to offset any nonessential words, phrases, etc. Appositives that occur mid-sentence should be offset with commas, too.

   Example: Tom, who is my brother, teaches math.
   Example: The three items, a pen, a cup, and a pencil, were on the table.

13) Use commas to introduce or interrupt direct quotations.

   Example: He said, “I don’t care.”
   Example: “Why,” I asked, “don’t you care?”

14) Use a comma to separate contrasting ideas.

   Example: That money is mine, not yours.

**Semi-colons**

**Definition:**

- The **semicolon** indicates an audible pause. It is a bit longer than that of a comma, but less shorter than a period.

1) A semicolon can replace a period if the two independent clauses are connected ideas.

   Example: Call me tomorrow; you can give me your answer then.
2) Use a semicolon before transition words and terms as namely, however, therefore, that is, i.e., for example, e.g., for instance, etc.

   **Example:** You should bring any two items; however, sleeping bags are in short supply.

3) Use a semicolon to separate units in a series when one or more items contain commas.

   **Example:** The conference includes people who have come from Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Chicago, Illinois; and other places as well.

**Colons**

**Definition:**
- The colon means “that is what I meant to say” or “here’s what I mean.”

1) Use a colon to list a series of items. Do *not capitalize the first item after the colon (unless it’s a proper noun).*

   **Example:** You should buy many items: drinks, dessert, meat, and vegetables.

2) Avoid using a colon directly after a verb when making a list.

   **Example:** I want: candy, chips, and a soda.
   **Example:** I want the following: candy, chips, and a soda. (Better)

3) A colon can be used instead of a semicolon when connecting two independent phrases when one clause explains the other.

   **Example:** He got what he worked for: he really earned that promotion.

4) A comma can be used to introduce a long quotation. Quotation marks aren’t used.

   **Example:** John F. Kennedy, wrote in Profiles in Courage:
   The Chinese use two brush strokes to write the word 'crisis.' One brush stroke stands for danger; the other for opportunity. In a crisis, be aware of the danger--but recognize the opportunity.

5) After formal salutations in a letter.

   **Example:** Dear Mr. Jones: (formal)
   **Example:** Dear Mr, Jones, (informal)
Quotation Marks

1) Use double quotation marks to set off a direct word-for-word quotation.

Example: “When will you be here?” he asked.

2) Either quotation marks or italics are customary for titles: magazines, books, plays, films, songs, poems, article titles, etc.

3) Periods and commas always go inside the quotation marks.

Example: He yelled, “Hurry up.”

4) Use single quotations marks for quotation marks within quotations.

Example: He said, “Dan cried, ‘Don’t treat me that way.’”

NOTE: The period and comma go inside both the single and double quotation marks. Also, ample space is needed between the single and double quotation marks.

5) Quotation marks are used to highlight technical terms, terms used in an unusual way or other expressions that vary from standard use and you want to emphasize.

Example: I had a visit from my “friend” the tax man.

Example: It’s a method known as “fracking.”

Parentheses and Brackets

*Parentheses and brackets cannot be used interchangeably.

1) Use Parentheses to enclose information that clarifies or is used as an aside.

Example: He finally answered (after taking five minutes to think) that he didn’t understand the question.

Example: He gave me a nice bonus ($600). (notice the period is outside the parentheses.

Example: (You will be amazed.) (notice the period is inside because it is a complete sentence inside the parentheses)

2) Brackets are used in special cases like single quotation marks exclusively within quoted material. Brackets are used as interruptions. They are used to add information to a quote.
Example: “Four score and seven years ago [today we’d day eighty-seven] years ago…”

3) When quoting something that has an error or presents material in a confusing way, insert the term sic in italics and enclose it with a non italic bracket. *Sic* means “thus” in Latin and is shorthand for what the original material or author said.

Example: She wrote, “I would rather die then [sic] be seen wearing my sister’s old clothes.”

**Apostrophes**

- **Apostrophes** are used to show possession.

**Examples:** a woman’s hat, the boss’s wife, Mr. Chang’s house, the class’s hours, Mr. Jones’ cars, Texas’ weather, the guys’ night out, two actresses’ roles, child’s toy, children’s toy, the Hastings’s’ dog, the Jones’ car, my mother-in-law’s hat, my mother-in-laws’ hats, Tom and Jerry’s cat, A’s or As, three M.D.s or three M.D.’s, the 1990’s or 1990s, ’08 or ’09,

**Hyphens**

*Hyphens* must not be used interchangeably with dashes. Also, there should be no spaces on either side of a hyphen. The purpose of the hyphen is to glue words together. They also indicate where two or more elements in a sentence are linked.

- **Hyphens between words**

  1) A compound adjective – two or more words coming before a noun they modify to act as a single idea.

  **Examples:** state-of-the-art design, an off-campus apartment

  **NOTE:** Some compound adjectives are established and, therefore, use hyphens after the noun.

  **Example:** The design is state-of-the-art.

  2) New, original or unusual compound words should be written out with hyphens to avoid confusion.

  **NOTE:** Adverbs like very and adverbs ending in –ly are not hyphenated. (Not correct: the finely-tuned watch)

  **Example:** I changed my diet and became a no-meater
Example: A friendly-looking dog
Example: A family-owned café
Example: We have a two-year-old child.

3) Use a hyphen to avoid confusion.

Example: I have a few more-important things to do.
Example: He turned in the stolen-vehicle report.

4) With numbers.

Example: 1999-2001
Example: thirty-two people
Example: more than two-thirds of voters

- Hyphens with prefixes and suffixes

Definition:
- Prefix is a letter or sent of letters placed before a root word. (a-, un-, de-, ab-, sub-, post-, anti-, etc.)

1) Hyphenate prefixes before proper nouns or proper adjectives

Example: trans-America, mid-July

2) For clarity.

Example: ultra-ambitious, semi-invalid, re-elect

3) Hyphenate all words beginning with self-, ex-(i.e., former), and all-.

Example: self-assured, ex-mayor, all-knowing
Example: I have re-covered the sofa.
Example: I must re-press the shirt.
Example: de-ice, co-worker, Mayor-elect Smith, graffiti-ism, dance-athon

Dashes

Dashes are used to add emphasis or a change in thought, or tone.

Example: You are the friend—the only friend—who offered to help me.
Example: I pay the bills—she has all the fun.

1) Words or phrases between dashes are not usually part of the subject.
Example: Joe—and his trusty dog—was always welcome.

2) Dashes replace mandatory punctuation, such as commas after Wisconsin and 2017.

Example: The man—he was from Milwaukee, Wisconsin—arrived.
Example: The newspaper—dated May 26, 2017—arrived late.

Ellipses

Definition:
- Ellipse (ellipses) is a punctuation mark consisting of three dots. It is used when omitting a word or phrase.

Example: “Today, after hours of careful thought, we vetoed the bill.”
Example: “Today… we vetoed the bill.”

1) Use ellipses in the beginning, the middle or the end of a sentence.

Example: “…[A]fter hours of careful thought, we vetoed the bill.”

2) Use ellipses to express hesitation, change of mood, suspense or thoughts trailing off.

Example: I don’t know…I’m not sure.
Example: Pride is one thing, but what if she…?
Example: He said, “I…really don’t…understand this.”

Question Marks

1) Use a question mark only after a direct question.

Example: What time is it?
Not correct: I’m asking you what time it is?

2) The question mark replaces the period at the end of the sentence.

Example: Will you go with me?

3) Therefore, capitalize the word that follows the question mark.

Example: Will you go with me? He needs some medicine.

4) After indirect question, use a period.

Example: I wonder if he would go with me. (no question mark)
Example: I wonder: Would he go with me? (question mark)

5) Rhetorical questions can be written either with a question mark or without.

Example: Why don’t you take a break.
Example: Would you kids knock it off.
Example: What wouldn’t I do for you?

Exclamation Points

1) Use an exclamation point to show emotion, emphasis, or surprise.

Example: I’m shocked by your behavior!
Example: Yah! We won!

2) An exclamation point replaces the period at the end of the sentence.

Section 3: Capitalization

NOTE: There are many examples to cover for capitalizations. These are the most common.

1) Capitalize the first word in a sentence and the first word after a period/

2) Proper nouns—and adjectives from proper nouns.

Example: the Golden Gate Bridge, a Russian song

3) Some examples of things needing a capital letter at the beginning: brand names, companies, days of the week, months of the year, governmental matters, historical episodes, holidays, institutions, nicknames and epithets, organizations, races, nationalities, religions, streets and roads, etc.

4) Capitalize titles when they are used before names unless the title is followed by a comma. Do not capitalize the title if it is used after a name or instead of a name.

Example: The president will speak today.
Example: Chairman of the Board Jim Beam will speak.
Example: General Washington became president.

5) Occupations are not titles, They do not need capitalization as a rule.

Example: teacher Mary Smith
Example: coach Ryan
6) Capitalize the job title when directly addressing the person or when talking about family members.

   *Example:* What should I do, Doctor?
   *Example:* Is Mom coming to pick you up?
   *Example:* My mom is here. (no capital after possessive pronouns)

### Section 4: Writing Numbers

**NOTE:** There are many examples to cover for writing numbers. These are the most common.

1) Spell out numbers at the beginning of a sentence.
   *Example:* Twenty-three people were hospitalized.
   *Example:* Two-thousand seventeen was a difficult year.

2) Hyphenate all compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine.

3) Hyphenate all written-out fractions.

   *Example:* We covered about two-thirds of the chapter.

4) With figures of four or more digits, use a comma.

   *Example:* 1,525 people

5) It is not necessary to write out the dollar sign or decimal point when writing numbers.

   *Example:* He had only fifty cents.
   *Example:* He had five dollars.

6) Use can numeral for the time of day. Or you can write it out.

   *Example:* The flight leaves at 6:22 a.m.
   *Example:* She will catch the four-thirty train

7) Mixed fractions should be written out at the beginning of a sentence, but can be expressed in figures inside the sentence.

   *Example:* We expect a 4.5% raise.
   *Example:* Five and one-half percent is a good return.
8) Time – there are several ways to write out time.

*Example:* 8 AM, 3:09 P.M., 12:30 p.m., 9:00 PM or 9 PM

9) Write decimals using figures.

*Example:* The plant grew 0.5 inches over the last week.

10) When writing out numbers of three or more digits, the word and is not necessary. However, when writing out decimals (money), use and to represent the decimal.

*Example:* one thousand three hundred fifty-five

*Example:* two thousand five hundred fifty-five and seventy-five cents

**Resources**


*For more resources on grammar, check out https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/section/1/5/*