

Wachusett Regional School District

Language Arts Style Manual

Grades 5-8



Second Edition 2002



Holden-Paxton-Princeton-Rutland-Sterling

FOREWORD

This style manual standardizes the mechanics of writing in the form of a ready reference guide for all students. It follows closely the most current documentation forms recommended by the Modern Language Association of America (MLA).

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Using this document as a PDF file

The 5-8 Language Arts Manual is available for download as a PDF file on the District's website. A PDF file can be opened with either a PC or a Mac provided you have the free program, Adobe Acrobat Reader. It can be downloaded from their site at: <http://www.adobe.com/products/acrobat/readstep2.html>

Once you have the Language Arts Manual downloaded on the computer, you can use it in conjunction with a

SmartBoard to review how to use the manual and highlight specific lessons within the document for the entire class.

The left hand side of the PDF file has a section titled "Bookmarks." Clicking on this tab will open a listing of the major parts of the document allowing you to click on one, and it will take you to that point of the document immediately.

This is also a great way for parents to get a copy of the manual and to gain an understanding of what resources are available to their child.

If you would like any help with accessing this technology or demonstrating it to your class, please contact one of the Model Technology Teachers for the District.

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**WRSD MIDDLE SCHOOL
WRITING STANDARD**

I. MIDDLE SCHOOL WRITING STANDARD

The Wachusett Regional School District Standard requires each student to demonstrate a command of basic writing and grammar skills. In middle school, writing goes across all content areas and is an important part of the MCAS test.

In the sixth grade, each student must pass a WRSD Middle School writing and grammar test. This test will be developed and scored by teachers in the district using the MCAS long composition rubric.

The Wachusett Writing Standard requirement is one part of the WRSD writing program guided by the following philosophy: “Students learn to write and write to learn through strategies that encourage, inspire and challenge. All activities encourage a lifelong interest in writing and an appreciation of its power.”

WRSD MIDDLE SCHOOL WRITING STANDARD CRITERIA

All students at the Wachusett Middle Schools must reach a district standard in writing.

To attain the standard, all students must accomplish the following:

1. Each student in each grade must receive a passing grade for a written research report using content area notes.
 2. Each student must produce, with passing grades, at least three types of writing from the following list, one of which must be grade specific:
 - Response to literature (opinion with documented proof from single work)
 - Narrative (personal experience using first-person point of view)
 - Poetry
 - Letter (business and friendly, memos, thank-you notes)
 - Journals (writing and content area)
 - Short Story
- Grade 5 - Descriptive essay
Grade 6 - Persuasive essay
Grade 7 - Informative/Expository essay
Grade 8 - Analytical response to literature (critique)
- * See literary terms in manual
 - * Writing will be kept in a cumulative folder



II. WRITING THE RESEARCH PAPER

* Teachers may wish to use the Independent Investigation Method (IIM) in lieu of the method below.

The following pages provide specific instructions for preparing a research paper, as well as the manuscript form you should follow for all formal essay work at Wachusett Regional School District. A research paper is like any essay in that it has a position, or focus, about a particular topic, which must be adequately supported; however, the supporting evidence in a research paper comes mainly from sources outside your experience. This information may come from books, magazine articles, interviews, pamphlets, television programs, computer software, or on-line services. Remember that databases sometimes contain errors so you must verify your information against its source. The means by which you acknowledge such sources is called documentation. All references cited in your text are listed alphabetically in a section called Works Cited at the end of the paper. In-text citations (rather than footnotes or endnotes) are used to acknowledge the words or ideas of outside sources where they are used in the paper. This is called parenthetical documentation. It is very important to document accurately all information from outside sources.

The guide in this manual is based on the fourth edition of the MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers (Modern Language Association), the fourth edition of The Practical Writer (Holt), and Elements of Writing (Holt). Copies of these books are available in the school library if you need to refer to them.

CHOOSING A TOPIC

1. Whether the selection is up to you or the teacher, consider the following:
 - How much time do you have?
 - How long should the paper be?
 - What resources are available to you?
2. Brainstorm your topic to determine what you already know about it.
3. List questions that occur to you about your topic as you begin the process of gathering information.

SELECTING SOURCES

Searching Print and Electronic Resources (See page 3 for researching electronically)

1. Check an encyclopedia for an overview, cross references, and bibliography.
2. Find sources: books, periodicals, and other materials, both print and non-print.
3. Skim each new source. Ask yourself the following:
 - Is it on your reading level?
 - Is it relevant to your topic?
 - Is it a reliable source?

RESEARCHING ELECTRONICALLY

Computer searches make available huge collections of information called databases. These hold much more information than would normally be available as print resources in one location. Further, electronic searches typically take a small fraction of the time of a print-based search.

These databases are organized in various ways -- sometimes by the type of source (magazine articles, government reports, or encyclopedias, for example), sometimes by general topic (social science, geography, or others).

Evaluating an Internet source is an important first step in researching electronically. Very little of the information on the Internet is subject to editorial review before it is made available. You should check the domain name of the source and then be sure that the source is verifiable in an authoritative print source. The Internet is divided into six domains or areas, indicated by the suffixes .com, .gov, .mil, .net, .edu, and .org. Those sites represent commercial sites, government, military, network, and educational sites, and sites for organizations. Sites marked .edu or .gov in the Web address have been well researched and are frequently updated. Generally the user can have confidence in the content of a government or university site, but should be alert for bias in a commercial site. Examples of domain names in Web addresses include:

<http://www.nasa.gov>

<http://www.house.gov/floor/current.htm>

<http://www.berkeley.edu>

<http://www.ece.ucdavis.edu/~darsie/tales.html>

The last address in the example is important to understand. It may appear to be a site with well-researched information since the domain is .edu, but since there is a ~ tilde, this indicates that this page is part of a subset of the site. The tilde acts as a disclaimer in a way to show that the information on that page is not maintained by the organization; rather it's a person's personal site.

Most computer-based searches work by a method called "keyword searching" which matches the words you type in, letter for letter, with words found in the database. Careful choice of keywords and precise spelling of the terms you enter will make the difference between a successful search and no results at all.

Certain techniques will help you to focus your search only on those items most relevant to your topic. Always review the help guide in each search program to learn the special symbols and features of that program. Do not hesitate to ask your teacher or the information specialist for help.



The following computer search strategy will enable you to complete an effective electronic search.

Step 1. Analyze Your Topic

- a. Limit your topic, using words that are as precise as possible. The topic, “The Water Crisis,” is too broad. “Water Resources Versus Increasing Water Demands in California,” is better.
- b. Divide your topic into main concepts. For example, in our water topic, the concepts might be listed as:

water resources water demands California

Step 2. Select the Appropriate Resource(s)

Each electronic database covers a different subject area and contains specific types of materials. Choose the one, which is most likely to have the information you need.

Step 3. Select terms

Choose terms to describe or rename each of your main concepts. You will use these terms to search a specific electronic database. These search terms are, literally, your "keys" to unlocking the information within the database. A sampling of keywords for your topic might include:

for “water resources” aquifer, precipitation dam, water project canal, aqueduct reservoirs, conservation Los Angeles Aqueduct	for “water demands” agricultural domestic environmental recreational urban	for “California” Sierra Nevada Central Valley Sacramento River Colorado River Santa Barbara
--	---	--

Some sources for these keywords include:

- a. Your own knowledge about a topic
- b. Preliminary reading of encyclopedias, dictionaries, and atlases
- c. The subject headings list found in the electronic program you are using
 Note the “see,” and the “see also” references.
- d. The printed lists of subject headings found in such volumes as The Sears Guide or The Library of Congress Subject Headings
 Ask the information specialist about these resources.
- e. The information specialist

Step 4. Connect Concepts and Related Terms with Boolean Logic and Truncation

Specialized tools called Boolean operators or logical operators allow you to coordinate your search and to show relationships between your search terms or concepts. The Boolean operators are **AND**, **OR**, and **NOT**. They are used as you enter your keywords to begin a search.

OR retrieves items or articles containing **EITHER** term: “aquifer **OR** canal” will yield articles containing “aquifer” or “canal,” or both words.

AND retrieves articles or items which contain **BOTH** terms: “reservoirs **AND** recreational” will call up articles, each of which contains the words, “reservoirs” and “recreational.”

The **NOT** or **BUT NOT** operator is used to exclude a term or concept from the search so that the search result does not contain any occurrence of that word: “aquifer **OR** reservoir **BUT NOT** pollution” will locate any article containing either the word, “aquifer,” or the word, “reservoir,” but will **EXCLUDE** any article that contains the word, “pollution.”

A keyword combination such as “acid rain,” **OR** “Colorado River,” **OR** “Los Angeles Aqueduct” may be entered on one line.

TRUNCATION

Because the computer matches your search terms letter for letter with words in the database, you will need to address the problem of alternate word endings. For example, entering the keyword “pollution” will not yield records which contain the words “pollute,” “pollutant,” “polluted,” or “polluting.” A solution to the problem of alternate word endings is to use truncation to include word variations and plurals. Type an asterisk (*) after the root or stem of a keyword to signify that other letters or no letters will follow. For example, truncating “recreation*” after the “n” will also retrieve “recreational,” and “recreationally.”

An asterisk (*) is a common truncation symbol, but others may be used. Check the help portion of your program for the correct truncation symbol, for the wild card symbol (used to replace unknown characters), and for guidance in using Boolean operators. There are slight variations among various programs, but the logic behind the search strategy will transfer from one program to the next.

As you begin to use any electronic resource, you will need to make some early decisions about the scope of your search - the time period to be covered, or the depth of your search within the database (just the summaries, or the summaries and full text). Read each screen carefully so that you know your options.

Step 5. Perform the Search and Review Your Results

Enter your search terms. Review the resulting list of titles or citations. Select an item that seems relevant to your topic and double-click to open its text window. Using the scroll bars and arrows on the side of the text windows, scan the article to determine its usefulness.

Step 6. Modify Search Results If Necessary

If the result list has too many items, or none, or if the articles are not relevant to your topic, you will need to go back and edit your keywords, keyword combinations, or logical operators. Close any open text window and the screen listing the titles or citations by clicking on the close box in the upper left-hand corner of each window or by choosing the Close command from the File menu. Clear or alter the previous search terms and operators and begin a new search.

Step 7. Retrieve Your Results

a. Text

1. Take paper and pencil notes of useful information.
2. Save articles.
3. Print articles or relevant portions of them.
Remember that the text window of any article you wish to print must be open in order for you to print the article itself. Entire articles may be printed by selecting the Print command from the File menu. Relevant portions of an article may be selected and then printed by using the Print Selection command from the File menu if the program offers that option.

Always be discriminating in printing.

Check with your teacher or the information specialist for permission to print long articles.

b. Bibliographic Information

1. Know the format for documenting electronic sources.
Ask your teacher or the information specialist, read the help portion of the resource you are using, or see the Modern Language Association guidelines in the MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers, 4th ed.
2. Record on bibliography cards all the information you will need to document your sources. In Magazine Article Summaries database click the Display button on the Result List screen for full bibliographic information or check at the end of each article. In the SIRS program highlight the title of your chosen article and click on the SOURCE button to display full bibliographic information.

Sample bibliography card for an electronic database

OB
O'Brien, Richard and Kostya Kennedy. "Kids, it's just a game." Sports Illustrated 25 Nov. 1996: 24. Magazine Article Summaries FullText Elite. CD-ROM. EBSCO-CD Jan 96-Feb 97.

Sample bibliography card for an Internet source

CH
Chandler, David. "Alan Shepard, Nation's Space Pioneer, Dead at 74." Boston Globe 23 July 1998, A01. 23 July 1998. 24 July 1998 < http://www.boston.com/dailyglobe/globehtml/204/Alan_Shepard_nation_s_space_pionee.htm >.

3. Print selected bibliographic citations from the MAS/EBSCO Results List by checking the small boxes to the left of each desired citation, and then choosing Print Selected Items from the File menu. Print the Source window of the SIRS database by choosing Print from the File menu while the Source window is open.
4. Refer to page for the information and procedures for proper citation.

*Used at the Elmer Holmes Bobst Library at New York University.

COMPILING A WORKING BIBLIOGRAPHY AND TAKING NOTES

Once you have decided on a topic and your reading and preliminary research have led you to a possible thesis, you will start taking notes, which means recording significant information from outside sources. You may be directed to record your notes on 4 x 6 index cards, or you may be allowed to use photocopies or a combination of the two. Photocopying may seem easier, but you still have to process the material before you can incorporate it into your paper. The use of note cards is preferable to collecting notes in a notebook because of the organizational problems the latter is likely to present when the time come to write the paper. On each note card or photocopy, write and abbreviated referenced to the source. Then write a quotation, paraphrase, or summary of the material you think you may want to use. Be sure to include **page numbers** and to put quotation marks around quoted material. Use a separate card for each fact or idea. Full bibliographic information should be recorded on separate cards, usually the 3 x 5 size. Refer to the Works Cited section of this handbook before you begin, so that you will know what information you need for each source on your bibliography cards. The examples below illustrate a typical note card and a typical bibliography card, each with a bibliography code in the upper right corner.

Sample quotation note card (4 x 6)

<p>Koppel, Ted. "Media Courtesans." <u>Life Studies</u>.</p> <p>"We are losing our ability to manage ideas; to contemplate, to think. We are in a constant race to be first with the obvious. We are becoming a nation of electronic voyeurs whose capacity for dialogue is fading memory;"</p> <p style="text-align: right;">(518)</p>	Ko3
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Sample bibliography card (3 x 5)

<p>[library call number here]</p> <p>Koppel, Ted. "Media Courtesans." <u>Life Studies</u>. New York: Bedford, 1989. 517-518.</p>	Ko
--	----

Note that the code "Ko3" on the note card indicates that this is the third card made from the Koppel source on the bibliography card "Ko." Bear in mind that a note can be a summary, a paraphrase, or a quotation. When incorporating this information into your paper, give proper credit to your source. Failure to do so is plagiarism. This is a serious offense, even when it's done unintentionally. See "**Plagiarism.**"

Summary. A summary condenses original material, restating the important ideas of the original in the borrower's own words. A summary is considerably shorter than the original but contains the essential points of the writer. Be careful not to distort the meaning or the emphasis of the author. Document the source.

Paraphrase. A paraphrase is a restatement of the original material in the borrower's own words. In writing a paraphrase, you are translating the author's words into your own, usually with the purpose of simplifying or interpreting. You are not trying to condense, so a paraphrase is approximately the same length as the original. If you use any of the same phrasing as in the original, be sure you enclose those parts in quotation marks. Be careful: If you change only a word here and there, you are not paraphrasing; you are plagiarizing. Document the source.

Direct quotation. A quotation is the exact phrasing of the original, including the same punctuation and even misspellings. Integrate short quotations (three lines or shorter) into your text and enclose them in quotation marks. With quotations longer than three lines, indent ten spaces from the left margin and double-space the passage, as in the rest of the paper. Omit quotation marks with longer, set-off quoted passages. Document the source.

Poetry. The rules for quoting poetry are a bit different. A line of verse, or part of a line, should appear within quotation marks as part of your text, unless you wish to set it off for special emphasis. You may also incorporate two or three lines in this way, using a slash with a space on each side (/) to separate lines. A poetry quotation of more than three lines should be set off, as with longer quotations above. Poetry must be copied exactly as it appears in the text. In other words, you must not split a line that is not split in the original. The following example, from *Romeo and Juliet*, illustrates both ways of quoting poetry:

The friar attempts to console Romeo by saying, "The law, that threatened
death, becomes thy friend / And turns it to exile. There art thou happy"
(3.3.124-125).

[Numbers signify act, scene, and line numbers.]

The friar attempts to console Romeo by saying,

The law, that threatened death, becomes thy friend
And turns it to exile. There art thou happy (3.3.124-125).

NOTE TAKING FOR RESEARCH PAPERS

1. Notefacts

Notefacts are short and true facts written in the student's words. They are precise, complete enough to make sense, and related to goal setting questions.

Students create a bibliography card for each source the first time it is used and assign a number to that source so that the information will not have to be repeated.

Each time the student uses the source, she/he writes the assigned number on one corner of the card. The student should paraphrase the information, delete unnecessary words and avoid plagiarism. One way to achieve this is to close the book after reading, then write the notefact in simple, precise language. Students may place several notefacts from the same source on a single card.

2. Organizing

Students gather all notefacts and review them, and then sort them according to category. What question does each one answer? Does each support, illustrate, or inform the thesis statement? Is there a major heading under which many facts can be placed?

Students place related notefacts in piles and arrange them within the piles in logical order. Then arrange the individual stacks in the logical order of presentation for the final paper. Label each stack with an "umbrella" title that encompasses all the information in that stack. Using the arranged note cards, write a detailed outline with the "umbrella" terms as major sections. Use standard outline format.

A graphic organizer, such as those created with the Inspiration program, would be beneficial at this stage.

PREPARING AN OUTLINE

Using the coded note cards makes it easy to move information around as you work on the structure of your outline.

When you have completed enough reading and research on your topic, you should formulate a thesis statement. A thesis statement contains a limited subject and your opinion (reached after thoughtful research) on that subject. Following this, organize your information in such a way that your reader might be persuaded to accept your opinion. While organization may take different forms, the goal should be to bring related ideas together. Asking "How?" or "Why?" or "When?" of your thesis statement is often an effective means of organizing your research, whether you develop your topic through definition, analysis, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, classification, or some other means.

There are many different types of outlines, both formal and informal, and unless your teacher requires you to submit the outline, the choice of form is your own. What is important is careful attention to the presentation of your research. Your preliminary outline should enable you to see clearly that your argument is logically presented, carefully researched, and properly documented.

An outline is the organizational skeleton for a research paper and follows logical order, with the title of the paper at the top.

Title of Paper

I. Major topic: Roman numerals are used for all major topics. The introduction and thesis statement make up the first paragraph. The introduction sets the stage for the entire paper and should tell readers anything they need to know to understand the topic: background, history, etc. In an academic paper of this sort, do not use I or you within the pages.

- A. When mentioning subtopics under the main topic heading, use upper case letters. Each numbered or lettered category must include at least two headings.
 - 1. To list additional specific information about the subtopics, indent and use an Arabic number.
- B. If the paper is more detailed and delineates specific styles or types of costume design, create smaller divisions using lower case letters and indent even more beneath the numbers.
- C. If the information must be broken down more, indent again and place parentheses around Arabic numerals.
- D. For even more detailed information, place lower case letters in parenthesis and indent beneath the parenthetical numbers.

EXAMPLE: Costume Design in American Films, 1960-2000

I. Introduction

- A. History of costume design: theater
 - 1. Greek and Roman costume design
 - 2. Elizabethan costume design
 - a. Specific designs for Shakespeare's plays
 - b. Alterations necessary for male actors in female roles
 - (1) common gown alterations
 - (2) hats, shoes and gloves
 - (a) securing hats and head ornaments to wigs
 - (b) coordinating costume with actors' movements
 - (3) stays, straps and padding
- B. History of costume design: film
 - 1. Early film (1900-1930)
 - 2. Middle film (1931-1959)

This pattern should be followed throughout the outline. Creating a detailed and complete outline based on well-researched notefacts simplifies the first draft process.

WRITING THE ROUGH DRAFT

Follow your outline closely and use it as a guide in judging whether to maintain, eliminate, rearrange, or add information.

REVISING AND EDITING

- 1. Read your rough draft carefully.
- 2. Receive Peer Response.
- 3. Eliminate or add ideas.
- 4. Change the order of ideas, if necessary.
- 5. Revise your sentence structure.
- 6. Check your spelling and punctuation.

Be prepared to edit and revise your draft several times.

WRITING THE FINAL VERSION

Follow your teacher's requirements regarding handwriting, typing, or word processing. Ordinarily, a research paper must be typed. Your teacher may or may not require that you type other formal essay work. A title page is unnecessary; a heading on the first page of the paper replaces the title page. Your teacher may want you to include either a formal outline or a sentence outline. This should precede the main text of the paper, and the pages of the outline should be numbered by Roman numeral. If you must write your paper by hand, be sure to include 1/2-inch margins on all sides. Always make two copies of your paper in case one is misplaced.

On the first page, begin your heading in the upper left corner, approximately one inch from the top and one inch from the left margin. The heading, double-spaced, comprises four lines: 1. your name, 2. your instructor's name, 3. course title, 4. date. A research paper or essay should have a title. Type your title in the center of the page, three spaces after the heading, then skip four more lines before you begin to type the text of the paper. All subsequent pages, including the Works Cited page, should include your last name and the page number in the upper right corner, approximately one half inch from the top of the page and one inch from the right edge of the paper. The entire paper is double-spaced, including all headings and the entries on the Works Cited page. See sample paper, starting on Page 24.

Student Name
Instructor Name
Course Title
Date

Title of Paper

Begin typing here...

FINAL DRAFT RULES

These rules are general rules for all content area papers that are being passed in as complete and ready to be graded.

Use the computer when possible or use white lined paper when doing work by hand.

Use the front side only of white paper.

Use black print, standard size print of 12 or 14, and standard font when working on the computer. Do not use cursive on the computer, as it is very difficult to read.

Use cursive when handwriting final papers.

Use blue or black ink only when handwriting your papers.

Use one inch margins on both sides of handwritten work. The computer automatically does this for you.

Use double space for your entire paper when using the computer.

Use the tab key to indent five spaces on the computer to begin a paragraph. All new paragraphs need to be indented.

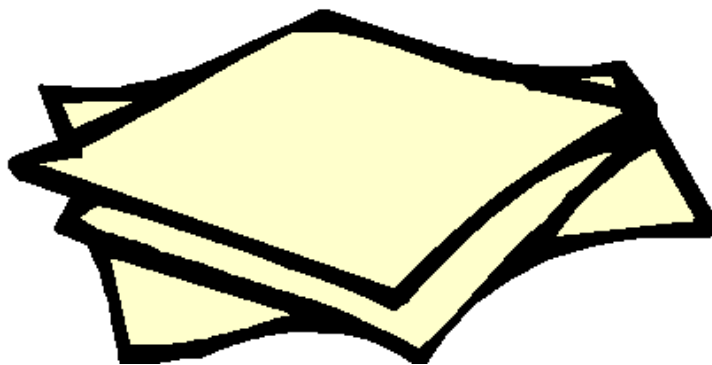
Use two spaces after a period and one space after a comma when using a computer.

Use your class heading on all work.

Use and follow any specific directions requested by the individual teacher.

Do not use contractions in formal writing.

Use your personal best effort for all writing assignments and projects.



PLAGIARISM

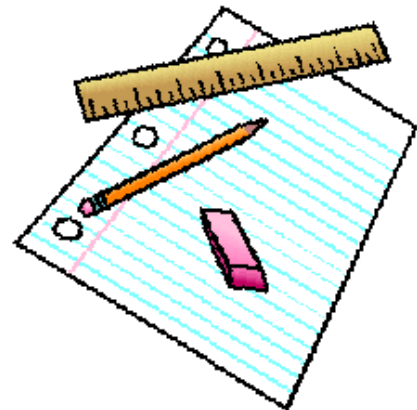
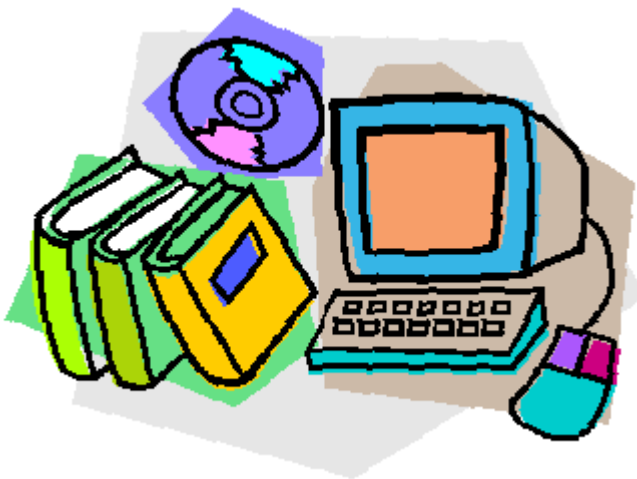
Plagiarism is the use of another person's ideas or phrasing in your writing without acknowledging the source. The word comes from the Latin word *plagiarius* ("kidnapper"). The most blatant form of plagiarism is reproducing someone else's sentences verbatim and presenting them as your own. Other forms include borrowing particularly apt phrasing without appropriate acknowledgment, paraphrasing someone else's argument as your own, introducing another's line of thinking as your own development of an idea, and failing to cite the source for a borrowed thesis or approach.

Plagiarism is usually viewed as cheating. If you plagiarize, you may receive a "zero" on a paper or fail a course. In college, penalties can be even more severe. Even without considering the penalties of plagiarism, the best scholars generously acknowledge their debts to others.

What should you document? In scholarly writing, everything taken from an outside source requires documentation—not only direct quotations and paraphrases but also information and ideas. It is not necessary to give sources for familiar proverbs ("You can't judge a book by its cover"), well-known quotations ("I have a dream"), or common knowledge ("George Washington was the first president of the United States"), but you must indicate the origin of any appropriated material that a reader might otherwise mistake for your own.

[Sources: The MLA Style Manual, MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers.]

When students are researching teachers may find it beneficial to have students take notes from the websites and/or electronic encyclopedia while on the computer rather than allowing them to print out pages.



Study the following samples—an original text (quotation) followed by a faulty paraphrase (note underlining), an acceptable paraphrase, and a summary.

Original:

Tournament

Knights trained for war by fighting each other in tournaments, or special contests that test strength, skill, and endurance. Tournaments were held in large fields. They were exciting gatherings that brought in lords, ladies, and knights who watched the events from stands. The most popular event was the **joust** (jowst). Two armored knights on horseback carrying dull lances galloped towards each other from opposite ends of the field. Each tried with all his strength and skill to knock the other to the ground with its lance.

(Glencoe/McGrawHill, p. 374)

Faulty paraphrase:

There were many ways that knights trained for war. They would do this by fighting each other in tournaments, or special contests that test strength, skill, and endurance. Lords, ladies, and knights watched the events from stands. Many people came to large fields to watch the tournaments, where the most popular event was the joust. Knights on horseback carrying dull lances raced towards each other from opposite ends of the field. They needed to use all of their strength and skill to knock the other to the ground with its lance.

**Note the underlined passages that were lifted from the original. **

Acceptable paraphrase:

During the Middle Ages, tournaments were held to help prepare knights for battle. The competition would demonstrate or illustrate the knight's dexterity, courage and perseverance. Held in wide open spaces, these events attracted nobility who viewed these contests from their seats. A favorite contest was the joust where suited knights charged at one another on horses. The object of the event was to dismount the opponent from his horse with a long, blunt wooden instrument called a lance. The first to accomplish this feat wins.

Summary:

Knights trained for military action during the Middle Ages by participating in festive tournaments where nobles would attend as spectators. In an open arena, knights would use all their might to dismount their opponent from their stead. The first person to succeed was the victor.



III. WORKS CITED

The Works Cited page(s) is an alphabetical listing of all the sources you refer to in your paper. Although this is the last page of the paper, it is probably the first page you should prepare, because this is your primary documentation source; it is the list to which your reader will refer in order to see what sources you have used. Also, you will need to refer to this list when you parenthetically document the borrowed material, which is to be incorporated into your paper, because the correct form of each in-text citation is dependent on the corresponding entry on the Works Cited page. You must be precise in recording this information, which you will copy from your bibliography cards. Each type of entry—book, magazine, journal, newspaper, pamphlet, etc., has a correct format. Below are listed specific directions for preparing your list. The following five basic elements describe a documentation entry and will help you understand the process.

1. **Person(s) [last name first] or group responsible for the material documented:** This may be an author, editor, translator, or organization. (Variations exist. Check with your teacher.)
2. **Title(s):** The title of a part of a book or an article is put in quotation marks. The title of a book or periodical is underlined.
3. **Amplifying information, to help identify or describe the work precisely:** This includes the name of editor or translator, edition, number of volumes in a multi-volume work, title of a series.
4. **Publishing information:** Include the place, publisher, and date.
For online sources include publication information for any print version of the source. Title of the database (underlined). Date of electronic publication, of the latest update. Number range of pages, if given. Name of organization sponsoring a web site. Date of access. Electronic address or URL (in angle brackets).
5. **Portion of the document you are citing:** Include the volume and page numbers if necessary.

SAMPLE WORKS CITED ENTRIES—BOOKS

One author:

Caulfield, Catherine. In the Rain forest. New York: Knopf, 1984.

Two or three authors: List authors as they appear on title page of book; only the first author's name should appear with last name first.

Bryan, Margaret B., and Boyd H. Davis. Writing About Literature and Film. New York: Harcourt, 1975.

More than three authors: Give only the first one listed and follow that with “et al.” (for “and others”).

Brown, Herbert C., et al. Organic Synthesis Via Boranes. New York: Wiley, 1975.

Group as author: Treat the group as author and list its name first.

President's Commission on Energy. Report of the President's Commission on Energy. Washington: GPO, 1980.

Author and translator:

Hesse, Hermann. Siddhartha. Trans. Hilda Rosner. New York: Bantam, 1951.

Author not given: Begin the entry with the title. (Alphabetize by the first word in the title other than an article.)

A Collection of Neapolitan Idioms. New York: Bantam, 1983.

Translator given but not author:

Mason, Herbert, trans. Gilgamesh. New York: Mentor-Penguin, 1970.

Editor(s):

Underdal, Stanley J., ed. Military History of the American Revolution.
Washington: Office of Air Force History, 1976.

Two or more entries by the same author: Give the name(s) in only the first entry; in following entries type three hyphens and a period in place of the name. The order of entries by the same author is determined by the alphabetical order of the titles.

Alexander, Charles. "Amethyst Visions" and Other Poems. New York: Macmillan,
1977.

---. Collected Poems. New York: Macmillan, 1981.

Part of a collection: The title of the piece cited precedes the title of the anthology or collection in which it appears. Normally the title of the piece will appear in quotation marks.

Anderson, Sherwood. "Sophistication." Adventures in American Literature. New
York: Harcourt, 1985. 483-86.

Series: If a book is part of a series, give the series name and the number of the work in the series.

Barrett, Arthur. The People of Mesa Verde. Studies in Anthropology, No. 5.
Albuquerque: La Madera, 1981.

Encyclopedia or reference book: Do not cite the editor. If the article is signed, list the author first. If the article is unsigned, begin with the title. If the encyclopedia is arranged alphabetically, omit volume and page numbers. With familiar reference books, do not give full publication information; list only edition and year of publication.

One author:

Chiappini, Luciano. "Este, House of." Encyclopedia Britannica: Macropaedia.
1974 ed.

Author not given:

"Graham, Martha." Who's Who of American Women. 13th ed. 1983-84.

"Kenya." Webster's New World Encyclopedia. 1 vol. New York: Prentice, 1992.

Pamphlets: Treat pamphlets as books

Hunter, Max. Selling Yourself to Industry. Washington: Spinnaker, 1982.

SAMPLE WORKS-CITED ENTRIES—PERIODICALS (journals, magazines, newspapers)

Journal with continuous pagination: Include the volume number followed by the year in parentheses, a colon, and then page numbers.

Buskirk, Judy. "Is Critical Care Nursing For You?" Critical Clinician 8 (1987): 415-38.

Journal with issues paged independently: After the volume number, add a period and the issue number.

Thompson, Lee. "Animal Symbolism in the Novels of John Irving." American Fiction 12.3 (1982): 55-81.

Monthly or bimonthly periodical: Instead of volume or issue, use month(s) and year.

Revelle, Roger. "Carbon Dioxide and World Climate." Scientific American Aug. 1982: 35-43.

Weekly or biweekly periodical: Give the complete date instead of volume or issue numbers.

Begly, Sharon, Rita Dallas, and Ron Givens. "Is Antarctica Shrinking?" Newsweek 5 Oct. 1981: 72-74.

Daily newspaper: Show newspaper's name as it appears on top of first page, omitting any beginning article (e.g., *The Wall Street Journal* becomes Wall Street Journal). Also check the pagination system of the newspaper carefully; most are paginated continuously, but some are paginated by section and the section number or title must be included in the citation.

With by-line:

Walker-Lynn, Joyce. "The Marine Corps Now Is Building Women, Too." Chicago Tribune 30 Oct. 1977: 15.

Without by-line:

"Lawmakers Unite on Mileage Rules." Detroit Free Press 21 Oct. 1975: B3.

SAMPLE WORKS CITED ENTRIES—CD-ROM AND OTHER PORTABLE DATABASES

Disc Authors:

“Hemingway, Ernest (Miller) 1899-1961 American.” 1993. Discovering Authors: Biographies & Criticism on 300 most studies writers. CD-ROM. Gale Research Inc. 1993.

Diskette:

Claris Works 4.0 for teachers. Diskette. Santa Clara, California: Claris Corporation, 1996.

Electronic Encyclopedias:

Wright, C. Conrad. “Native American Church.” The New Grolier Multimedia Encyclopedia. 1992 ed. CD-ROM. Danbury, CT: Grolier Electronic Publishing Inc., 1992.

MAS-Magazine Article Summaries:

O’Brien, Richard and Kostya Kennedy. “Kids, It’s just a game.” Sports Illustrated 25 Nov. 1996: 24. Magazine Article Summaries Full Text Elite. CD-ROM. EBSCO-CD. Jan 96-Feb 97.

Perseus:

Perseus 1.0 Interactive Sources and Studies on Ancient Greece. CD-ROM, videodisc. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1992.

SIRS:

Kerr, Kathleen. “No magic bullet: Aids researchers see little hope for vaccine in a decade.” Newsday 26 May 1997: A5+. Sirs Researcher. CD-ROM. Sirs, Inc. 1997.

Wilson (Current Biography):

“Clinton, Bill.” Current Biography Yearbook 1994. Wilson disc. CD-ROM. H.W. Wilson. 1995.

SAMPLE WORKS CITED ENTRIES-INTERNET

"Documenting Sources from the World Wide Web "

These guidelines on MLA documentation style are the only ones available on the Internet that are authorized by the Modern Language Association of America.

The recommendations in the fourth edition of the MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers on documenting online databases (sec. 4.9) have been revised to reflect evolving computer technology. The new recommendations on online sources are explained in detail in the second edition of the MLA Style Manual and Guide to Scholarly Publishing (1998). The fifth edition of the MLA Handbook, scheduled for publication in

spring 1999, will incorporate these revisions. The new guidelines that cover the World Wide Web are summarized below.

Sources on the World Wide Web that students and scholars use in their research include scholarly projects, reference databases, the texts of books, articles in periodicals, and professional and personal sites. Entries in a works-cited list for such sources contain as many items from the list below as are relevant and available. Following this list are sample entries for some common kinds of Web sources.

1. Name of the author, editor, compiler, or translator of the source (if available and relevant), reversed for alphabetizing and followed by an abbreviation, such as ed., if appropriate
2. Title of a poem, short story, article, or similar short work within a scholarly project, database, or periodical (in quotation marks); or title of a posting to a discussion list or forum (taken from the subject line and put in quotation marks), followed by the description "Online posting"
3. Title of a book (underlined)
4. Name of the editor, compiler, or translator of the text (if relevant and if not cited earlier), preceded by the appropriate abbreviation, such as Ed.
5. Publication information for any print version of the source
6. Title of the scholarly project, database, periodical, or professional or personal site (underlined); or, for a professional or personal site with no title, a description such as "Home page"
7. Name of the editor of the scholarly project or database (if available)
8. Version number of the source (if not part of the title) or, for a journal, the volume number, issue number, or other identifying number
9. Date of electronic publication, of the latest update, or of posting
10. For a posting to a discussion list or forum, the name of the list or forum
11. The number range or total number of pages, paragraphs, or other sections, if they are numbered
12. Name of any institution or organization sponsoring or associated with the Web site
13. Date when the researcher accessed the source
14. Electronic address, or URL, of the source (in angle brackets)

Website:

Fye. Life in Colonial America. 1996. 20 March 2002
 <http://www.glasgow-ky.com/fye/ms_fye/colonial_life.htm>.

Book:

Bulfinch, Thomas. Bulfinch's Mythology: The Age of Fable or Stories of Gods and Heroes. 1855. Ed. Bob Fisher. 1998. Showgate. 23 July 1998
 <<http://www.showgate.com/medea/bulfinch/bulpref.html>>.

Magazine:

Bierck, Richard. "Artificial turf takes a hit." U.S. News and World Report 3 June 1996. 24 July 98 <<http://www.sportgrass.com/news/usnews.html>>.

Newspaper Article:

Chandler, David. "Alan Shepard, Nation's Space Pioneer, Dead at 74." Boston Globe 23 July 1998, A01. 23 July 1998. 24 July 1998
<http://www.boston.com/dailyglobe/globehtml/204/Alan_Shepard_nation_s_space_pioneer.htm>.

Personal Site:

Lancashire, Ian. Home page. 1 May 1997<<http://www.chass.utoronto.ca:8080/~ian/index.html>>.

Poem:

Frost, Robert. "The Road Not Taken." The Kabbalah Institute of the Galilee. 1 Oct 1997. 24 July 98 <<http://www.kabbalah.Israel.net/road.htm>>.

Project:

Victorian Women Writers Project. Ed. Perry Willett. Apr. 1997. Indiana U. 26 April 1997
<<http://www.indiana.edu/~letrs/vwwp/>>.

SAMPLE WORKS CITED ENTRIES—OTHER SOURCES:

Audiocassette, Audiotape, compact disk, record: Begin with the person you want to emphasize (performer, composer, producer, etc.). Next list the title, and follow that with audiotape, record, etc.

Smith, Robert, and David M. Allen. The Cure. Disintegration. Audiotape. New York: Elektra/Asylum, 1989.

Constitution:

U.S. Const. Art. 2, sec. 4.

Court Cases:

Bundy v. Jackson. 24 FEP Cases 1155 (1981)
Seto v. Muller. 395 F. Sup. 811 (D. Mass. 1975).

Film, slide program, filmstrip, or videocassette: The title is listed first; show the type of medium if other than film.

Children of a Lesser God. Dir. Randa Haines. Paramount, 1986.

Hannah and Her Sisters. Videocassette. Dir. Woody Allen. HBO video, 1985.

Interview: Include the name of the person interviewed, the type of interview, and the date.

Newman, Paul. Personal interview. 19 May 1985.

Legal citation: Methods vary and rules are complicated; however, the following samples are representative of commonly used citations. Generally, the name of the case is given first, followed by identification numbers and references to courts and relevant jurisdictions. "FEP" means Federal Employment Practices Cases"; "F. Sup." means "Federal Superior Court." The most comprehensive guide is the Harvard Law Review's *A Uniform System of Citation*. Refer to this for more information.

Speech: Use speech title if known. Otherwise, designate the type of speech or occasion. For the latter, use no quotation marks.

King, Martin Luther, Jr. "I Have a Dream." Washington, 28 Aug. 1963.

Television program: Name the program title, network, local station, and city and state where it was viewed. If there is an episode title, it should appear in quotation marks at the beginning of the entry.

"Forgive Us Our Debts." Miami Vice. With Don Johnson, Edward James Olmos, and Olivia Brown. NBC. WBZ, Boston. 20 April 1987.

WORKS CITED PAGE FORMAT

This is the final page of your paper. Your last name and the page number are typed in the upper right corner, as you have done throughout the paper. The title Works Cited is centered at the top of the listing; notice that only the first letter of each word is capitalized. The entire page is consistently double spaced—no extra spaces. Therefore, it is probably easier if you are using a word processor to type the entire page in single space and then double space the page when you have completed typing all entries. **Do not number entries.**

This list is alphabetized according to the first word in each entry. If an entry is longer than one line, the second and subsequent lines are indented five lines or one tab stop. Pay particular attention to the punctuation in the samples. Most sections of an entry are separated by periods, but each mark—comma, period, colon, quotation mark, etc.—has a particular function, and the misplacement of punctuation marks may result in confusion and/or a lower grade. **If you are not certain how to mark titles of books, periodicals, articles, and other sources, see rules for using quotation marks and underlining/italics in the "Punctuation" section of this handbook.**

An annotated bibliography is an organized list of sources (references cited), such as books, journals, newspapers, magazines, Web Pages, etc., each of which is followed by an annotation or description of each item.

Some students find it helpful to type the Works Cited page before typing the body of the paper, so that the information for in-text citations is readily available.

Special rules for listing publishers' names:

- a. Omit articles *a, an, the*.
- b. Omit business designators like *Co., Inc.*, or labels such as *Books, Press, Publishers*.
- c. Generally use only one name. (e.g. *Alfred A. Knopf* becomes *Knopf*, or *Holt, Rinehart, and*

Winston becomes *Holt*. Note that many publishing companies have merged. For example, HarperCollins is now one company and one word, with capital H and capital C.

IV. PARENTHETICAL DOCUMENTATION

This is one way of acknowledging the sources that have been used in your paper. Simply, these brief in-text citations are very short references to the entries on the Works Cited page. Their purpose is to let your reader know the source of borrowed information.

Whenever you use information from an outside source, you must give credit to that source in a reference in the text of the paper itself. This reference, called an in-text citation, usually includes only the author's name and the page number of the source. This information is enclosed in parentheses, following the cited material. Complete information on each source is located on the Works Cited page. Between the information provided in each parenthetical in-text citation and the corresponding full bibliographic information on the Works Cited page, your reader should be able to locate every source you have used. Sometimes this system is referred to as name-page documentation.

EACH PARENTHETICAL REFERENCE SHOULD INCLUDE:

1. **A reference to the opening of the corresponding entry in Works Cited.** In most cases this is the author's last name. It could also be the name of a group, a shortened version of a title, or one person's name with "et al." Simply include authorial information, which will clearly identify the specific work in Works Cited to which you are referring.
2. **The precise location within that work.** Usually this is the exact page or pages from which you have borrowed material. For a multi-volume work, you may have to include the volume number. For a classical prose work, such as a novel or play, that is available in several editions, the page number may be followed by a semicolon and then additional information such as chapter, book, act, scenes, and line numbers. In citing classic verse plays and poems, omit the page number altogether. Obviously, if the source is only one page long, or if it is a tape, interview, live performance, CD diskette, videocassette, or Internet source, no place reference is necessary.
3. **Only identifying information not indicated in the lead-in that introduces the borrowed material.** In other words, if you mention the author's name or the title of the article in your lead-in, you need to include only a page number.

Examples (note the underlined section):

Kurt Vonnegut has been described as "a popular artifact which may be the fairest example of American cultural change" (Klinkowitz 16).

According to James Lundquist, each of Vonnegut's "novels is a warning" (15).

BASIC FORMS OF PARENTHETICAL DOCUMENTATION:

Work with one author listed--general: (Morris 483).

Work with one author listed--classical poem: (Homer 64; bk.4, 2-15).

Work with one author listed--classical verse play: (Shakespeare 1.1.179-186).

Work with two or three authors listed: (Weider and Hapgood 72); (Smith, Belgrave, and Hopper 551).

Work with one author and "et al.": (Baugh, et al. 573).

Work with group as author: Treat the group as author. (President's Commission on Energy 315).

Work listed by title: Use the title or a reasonably shortened version of it. A reference for *A Reader's Companion to the Plays of William Shakespeare* might become (Reader's Companion 540).

Multi-volume work: Normally, the volume number is included unless only one volume is listed in the Works Cited. (Morrison and Commager 2: 325).

Online and other non-print materials: Follow the same rules as print materials. Omit page numbers when citing unpaginated sources. (Chandler).

Subsequent references, if they follow immediately, require only the page number. See sample paper.

REMINDER FOR THE CRITIQUE:

In-text citations for critiques are basically the same as those for research papers. Both are essays. Usually, but not always, in a critique there is only one source: the poem, novel, story, or play that you are writing about. When citing a literary source, you ordinarily need to include only the author's last name and page number. Subsequent references require only the page number.

LEAD-INS:

Integrate the researched information from your notes smoothly and concisely. Your reader should be able to tell where a quotation, paraphrase, or summary begins. Use lead-ins to indicate that you are including borrowed material. Examples:

Researchers found that . . .

General Westmoreland asserted . . .

In The True Confessions of Charlotte Doyle . . .

According to . . .

Morris notes that . . .

In an interview with . . .

PLACEMENT IN TEXT:

Integrate in-text citations as smoothly as possible. Place parentheses as close as possible to the end of the documented material, but always at the end of a clause or phrase. Ordinarily, parenthetical references are placed at the ends of sentences. Note that it is not necessary to include "p." or any other abbreviation for "page" or "pages."

PARENTHESES IN RELATION TO PUNCTUATION:

Always place your parenthetical references before the comma, semicolon, or period, which ends the phrase, clause, or sentence. After a direct quotation, place the parenthetical reference between the ending quotation mark and the comma, semicolon, or period.

V. SAMPLE RESEARCH PAPER (Size of paper, typing, and margins slightly reduced.)

Elle Student
Mrs. Gregory
February 10, 2002

Humpback Whale

There are many creatures that live in the ocean. Some of them are fish, sharks, and whales. Whales are very big mammals. There are at least six different species of them (Enchanted Learning). One of them is the Humpback Whale. They have many special physical characteristics, eat a variety of different foods, and have many ways of communicating.

The Humpback Whale has many unique physical characteristics. It can grow to 52 feet long. The colors of its skin range from white, gray, black, and a mottled color. The top of its body is black and the stomach is white. Covering their skin are scars and areas covered with diatoms. Its large flippers have very rough edges. They breathe out of blowholes that are on the top of their heads (Nagel 12). Their head is covered with wart like knobs and tubercles each with a bristle.

They eat a variety of different foods. The average Humpback Whale eats 4,400-5,500 pounds of food every day. Humpback Whales have different ways of getting their food. They filter feed, skim, and bubble net feed. These whales eat twice a day. Baby calves nurse for almost a year or more. Grown Humpback Whales eat krill, small fish, plankton, and crustaceans (Nagel 14). Humpbacks are a type of baleen whale.

Humpback Whales communicate in many different ways. They sing amazing songs, to inform others of danger or to find a mate (World Book). The songs are made up of moans, cries, grunts, snores, and different chirps. This whale also communicates by doing acrobatic leaps and jumps. They breach, dive, syhop, lobtail, and do spectacular spins.

Humpback Whales have a variety of unique physical characteristics, eat many different foods, and communicate in many different ways. Whales are the largest mammals in the ocean (World Book). There are big and small animals and sea creatures all over the planet. Whales are the biggest mammals in the ocean.

Glossary

breaching	to leap out of the water
krill	planktonic crustaceans and larvae that constitute the principal food of baleen whales
migration	regular journeys between one region and another
plankton	the passively floating or weakly swimming usually minute animal and plant life of a body of water
pod	a coordinated group of crustaceans
tubercle	a small knobby prominence or excrescence especially on a plant or animal

Works Cited

“Humpback Whales”. Online posting. 1996-2001. Enchanted Learning. 1 January 2002
<<http://www.enchantedlearning.com/subjects/whales>>.

Nagel, Rob. Endangered Species. Detroit: UXL, 1999.

Scott Fetzer Company. “Whales”. World Book Encyclopedia. 2000 ed.

IV. WRITING A CRITIQUE

Definition: A critique is the analysis of a work of art from a specific point of view, known as the thesis statement. A thesis, which supports an idea with facts derived from a work cited, might discuss characterization, symbolism, theme, irony, and other such literary/artistic elements.

Suggested Format for Critique Writing

Formulate a thesis statement and develop a plan. Review the book for evidence in the form of direct quotations.

Write your paper as follows:

- a. In paragraph one, make your thesis statement. Be sure to include three strong points that you wish to prove. The title and the author of the book must be included as well as any other important background information.
- b. In paragraph two, prove your **first** point, using a quote from the book.
- c. In paragraph three, prove your **second** point and use a second quote from the book.
- d. In paragraph four, prove your **third** point and again, include a quote from the book.
- e. Paragraph five is the concluding paragraph, which restates your thesis statement and the major points in your paper. It should end with your general view of the book.

Identify your quotations by placing the page number or numbers from the book in parentheses. Close with the end punctuation mark after the last parenthesis.

Example: "...in his mind" (29). Be sure that your quotation is copied accurately.

Use the present tense. Avoid the use of the pronouns I, you, and we in your paper.

Avoid the use of contractions in the writing of the critique.

Create a precise title, which should be brief and express the idea your paper examines.

The paper should either typed or written on white composition paper in black or blue pen with margins, one side only.

Title Page: One-third the way down, write the title.

Half way down, write your name.

Two-thirds the way down write:

Literature

Teacher's Name

Date

VII. SAMPLE CRITIQUES (*The title page has been eliminated in order to fit the story on the page*)A Ghostly Change

“Bah Humbug!” Everyone recognizes these two words frequently said by an old, melancholy character known as Scrooge. Just those two words reflect his personality. He was a miserable, depressed, and irritable man. Although some people thought of him as being so irritable, others saw him as just a man who was in need of care. Scrooge had money and wealth, but his life was miserable. He was unkind to innocent people, and he didn’t pay his poor workers the money they deserved. The author allows Scrooge to step out of his body and truly analyze his personality. In the novel, A Christmas Carol, Charles Dickens presents the reader with a dynamic character that changes his perspective on life after seeing images of his past, present, and future.

The first instance of Scrooge demonstrated as a dynamic character occurred in chapter three. In Scrooge’s present life, he is perceived by many different people. Different people talk about Scrooge when the Ghost of Christmas Present takes him to various scenes. Mrs. Cratchit is definitely one that is not fond of Scrooge. She has many strong feelings against him. In the third chapter of the novel, she expresses these feelings while toasting before a feast. Bob Cratchit brings up Scrooge, and his wife immediately replied, “The Founder of the Feast indeed. I wish I had him here. I’d give him a piece of my mind to feast upon, and I hope he’d have a good appetite for it. It should be Christmas Day, I am sure, on which one drinks the health of such an odious, stingy, hard, unfeeling man as Mr. Scrooge.” (75).

The Ghost of Christmas Past brought Scrooge to a devastating scene that brought back vivid memories. This scene shows Scrooge as a young boy in the view of him and the spirit. They instantaneously entered Scrooge’s childhood at a time when he was alone at school. The school was dark, dreary, and devastating. This time in his life may be the reason for Scrooge’s present attitude and behavior. He was neglected by his friends, family, and teachers. Scrooge was sitting in a corner, shivering like an electric blanket. Scrooge observed this awful sight, he sobbed. The spirit brought Scrooge to his childhood to remind him of what it was like, and how he hated being treated badly, so he shouldn’t do it to others. As they approached the school the Ghost of Christmas Past said, “The school is not quite deserted. A solitary child, neglected by his friends, is left there still.” (37).

One particular part of A Christmas Carol displayed the perspective of three ordinary businessmen toward Scrooge. These three men were situated on the sidewalk in the city discussing the death of poor Scrooge. They didn’t know him, but they sure knew of him. The Ghost of Christmas Yet To Come brought Scrooge to this scene to show how his future would turn out if he didn’t change his ways. The ghost wanted Scrooge to see what people would be saying about him, even if they did not know him. One man said, “I don’t know much about it, either way. I only know he is dead.” (95). Another man replied, “Why, what was the matter with him? I thought he would never die.” (95). The third man said, (referring to the funeral) “I don’t mind going if lunch is provided” (95).

Scrooge eventually learned what Christmas really means by learning the errors of his ways taught by the spirits. We are able to see Scrooge in different ways and perspectives by the way Charles Dickens presents the character. By showing Scrooge in different images of his life, he made it possible to see what he was like growing up, in the present, and in the time yet to come. As it states in the last chapter, “Scrooge became as good a friend, as good a master, and as good a man, as the good old city knew, or any other good old city, town, or borough, in the good old world” (125). Scrooge totally changed his attitude toward life in the last chapter. He actually became a kind and forgiving man. As we saw him in different images, we had the opportunity to imagine what he and his life were like. “A very merry Christmas to you,” slowly replaced Scrooge’s old saying, “Bah Humbug!”

Jamie Student

Becoming a Man

“Being a man means doing what’s got to be done.” Robert’s father explained to Robert that being a man is all about getting things done when they have to be done. In the novel, A Day No Pigs Would Die, Robert Newton Peck exhibits a conflict between Robert and himself becoming a man. He does this by giving the reader a character faced with many challenges when he has to become a man. Robert helps his father kill his pig to support the family. Haven Peck explains to Robert the responsibilities he will have after he dies, and Robert shows how he becomes a man later in the novel. He does this when he tells Ira Long to kill the dog after she had a big clash with a weasel inside a barrel.

Robert Peck slowly makes his way changing throughout the novel from a boy to a man. He received a pig named Pinky in the beginning of the narrative, and he took care of her and loved her with all of his heart. Robert was in such dismay when his father told Robert that Pinky wasn’t going to have babies, and she was way too big to be kept as a pet. Haven was unable to shoot any deer that day so he and Robert had to kill the pig. When Robert felt so upset, Haven Peck stated, “That’s what being a man is all about. It’s just doing what’s got to be done” (129). Robert helped his father kill Pinky on that cold winter day. He ended up doing it because he knew it had to be done for the good of his family. This was a very hard thing for Robert to do, but it was a massive step for him in becoming a man.

One day, Robert’s father told Rob that he was going to weasel a dog. Haven wanted Robert to help him and Ira Long put a weasel and a dog into one barrel. Robert’s father wanted to see if Hussy would be able to survive alone in the wilderness. Robert thought that this would probably be very exciting being a part of this. He ended up hating the whole idea of it, and he thought it was so senseless. Robert saw the dead weasel torn into pieces, and he saw the dog sinking in a giant pool of blood in the very bottom of the barrel. “Kill her, she’s dying, and if you got any mercy at all in you, Ira Long, you’ll do her in. Right now. She’s crazy with hurt. And if you don’t kill her, I will” (104). Robert stood up to Ira Long and addressed him like he was a man and not a boy. Robert’s father agreed with what Robert said, and he made sure Hussy was killed. Rob was becoming a man because he was getting a say in this happening and was gaining certitude from his father.

Later in the story, Robert’s father had a very important talk with Robert. He explained to Robert the responsibilities he will have after he dies. Haven Peck got an infection and was going to have his last winter. He said Rob’s mother and Aunt Carrie cannot take care of him anymore. Haven Peck declared, “It’s got to be you, Rob. Come spring, you aren’t the boy of the place. You’re the man. But no less a man. And whatever has to be done on this land, it’s got to be did by you, Rob” (115). Robert and his family would own the entire farm in just five years Robert would have to do all the responsibilities his father had all of his life. This would become the final step Robert Peck would have to take before he became a man. Robert’s father would soon die in the beginning of May. This time was the end for Robert’s father, but it was a new beginning for him as he changed from being a simple twelve-year-old boy to a man leading the family, animals, and entire farm.

In conclusion, Robert Newton Peck showed the reader the conflict between Robert and himself slowly through the story of becoming a man. He was able to overcome many difficult challenges. Robert stood up against his elders and made sure Hussy was killed right away after she fought the weasel in a massacre. Robert would soon have to own the farm, take care of his mother and Aunt Carrie, and be the one with all the responsibilities that his father used to have. Robert then found out Pinky could not have babies, and she had to be killed. Robert had to help his father slaughter the pig so the family would have something to eat that day. Robert Peck had to do many things to become a man, and he was able to overcome many things. He became a man because he did what had to be done. Robert had thirteen good years with his father, but now he was the man of the family. Robert Newton Peck showed the reader the contention and adventure of his childhood leading up to the years of his adulthood. Have you ever had to do many things in your lifetime that made you grow up?

Tom Student

VIII. THE FRIENDLY LETTER & BUSINESS LETTER

LETTER STYLES: The heading, the date, the closing, and the writer’s name begin at the center of the page. Paragraphs are indented five spaces. All other letter parts begin at the left margin. Some teachers and employers prefer the **modified block** style without indented paragraphs. Some prefer the **block** style, in which all letter parts begin at the left margin.

MARGINS: Unless your teacher directs otherwise, leave margins of 1 to 1 1/2 inches on both sides, 1 1/2 to 2 inches at the top, and 1 to 2 inches at the bottom. Your letter should be centered both horizontally and vertically.

The Friendly Letter

Heading

Address

Date

Skip 1 Line

Salutation

Skip 1 Line

Body

1749 Plympton Street

Cansada, WI 57412

December 16, 2001

Dear Rachel,

I can’t believe you’re coming to visit in February! The weather here is very cold then. We’re already getting lots of snow. My dad says that by February we usually have a solid six feet of snow pack.

My sister has boots that will fit you. Mom said that you can stay in my room as long as we don’t talk all night! You’re really going to like my school. We have a winter carnival every year and people make a Victorian village out of ice. My mom’s company is building a copy of a candy store and “sweet” shop. I’m going to be inside selling ice cream, candy, and hot chocolate. Maybe you could help. My class is building something too. We’re still deciding between a stable and a schoolhouse. I want to make a stable with horses inside. Wouldn’t that be amazing? I’ll let you know what we pick before you get here.

How long will it take to get here from Hawaii? What is the weather like there in February? Could you bring some pictures of where you live? My teacher wants you to do a report on Hawaii, or make a slide show on the computer and send it to us before you come. Could you send your email address?

Mrs. Hanson assigned the class a friendly letter for a project. I think I’ve followed all the directions. I hope I get a good mark on it. I’m glad I can write to you because we’ve been friends so long. I remember how sad I was when you moved, but I guess our moms were talking and maybe I can go and stay with you next February. That would be awesome!

Please write back soon. I have to put my letter in my folder when I get it. I can hardly wait for February!

Skip 1 Line

Closing

Sincerely,

Signature

Mary

LETTER STYLE: The example below illustrates the block business letter style: the heading, the date, the closing, and the writer’s name begin at the left margin.

SPECIAL NOTATIONS: The example below illustrates the placement of two common notations (enclosure and copy). Your teacher will explain how to use these and other special notations, if they are needed.

Business Letter

<i>Heading</i>	25 Maple Avenue Balderdash, MA 87013 December 20, 2001
<i>Skip 1 Line Address</i>	Customer Service Manager Getaway Industries 1 Speed Way Columbia, NC 60492
<i>Skip 1 Line Salutation</i>	Dear Customer Service Manager:
<i>Body</i>	<p>In early November of this year, I purchased a Getaway bicycle helmet with chin guard and extra padding after seeing the product advertised on Channel 14. I enclosed the required head measurements, listed a color and style choice, and enclosed that information with my check. When the helmet arrived, not only was it bright pink with glow-in-the-dark stars, but it would not fit on my head. Perhaps the orders were mixed up?</p> <p>I am returning the helmet along with a copy of the invoice. As you see by the returned invoice, the color choice I had checked is black and the helmet size is adult/large. Please send the correct helmet as soon as possible.</p> <p>Thank you for your prompt attention to this matter.</p>
<i>Closing Line</i>	Sincerely,
<i>Signature</i>	Roberto Guizerra
<i>Typed name</i>	Roberto Guizerra
	<p>enc. copy of invoice cc: Better Business Bureau</p>

IX. LANGUAGE HANDBOOK
PUNCTUATION

PERIOD

Use a period at the end of a sentence, which makes a statement or expresses a command.

- We met Jeff at the library after school.
- Meet Jeff at the library after school.

Use a period after every part of an abbreviation and after initials.

- The U. S. A. won many gold medals in the Olympics.
- Gary Paulsen wrote Hatchet.

QUESTION MARK

Use a question mark at the end of every request for information.

- Have you seen any good movies this summer?

EXCLAMATION POINT

Use an exclamation point to give a sentence or expression unusual or forceful emphasis.

- Shut the door! It's freezing in here.
- Ouch! I slammed the door on my finger.

COMMA

Use a comma to separate words, phrases, and short clauses in a series.

- I need to buy soap, toothpaste, and tissues at the store.
- Lisa went to Portugal, to Spain, and to England.
- John cleared the table, Mike washed the dishes, and Cindy put the dishes away.

Use a comma to separate independent clauses joined by the conjunctions and, but, or, not, for, yet, so

- I love to eat at restaurants, but it is less expensive to eat at home.
- Bill didn't finish his homework, so he couldn't go to the movies with us.

Exception: The comma may be omitted between two very short clauses.

- She laughed and he cried.

No comma needed:

- Bill didn't finish his homework and couldn't go to the movies with us.

Use a comma after two or more introductory prepositional phrases.

- At the top of the mountain, we planted a flag.
- Before the beginning of the play, the director gave a brief introduction.

Exception: After a single prepositional phrase at the beginning of a sentence, you don't usually need a comma. You may put one to avoid confusion or if the phrase is very long.

Use a comma after a long introductory phrase or adverb clause. As a guideline, a phrase or clause of four words or more usually needs a comma.

- After finishing the dishes, I can go out.
- After I finish my homework, I can go out.
- **No comma:** At noon I can go out.

Use a comma after an introductory participial phrase. This is a phrase built around a verb form known as a participle. Present participles end in "ing." Past participles are often found after the helping verbs have or has.

- Whipping in the breeze, the flag caught the morning sun.
- Given no chance to survive, he made a miraculous recovery.

Use a comma before and after a parenthetical expression. Parenthetical expressions are words used to explain or qualify a statement. These same words may also be used as basic parts of a sentence, in which case they are not parenthetical.

- The author, I believe, was unclear.
- **No comma:** I believe that the author was unclear.

- Cindy, after all, is in no condition to drive.
- **No comma:** Cindy is in no condition to drive after all the alcohol she drank.

- Tractors, unlike horses, need gas to run.
- **No comma:** Tractors are unlike horses because they need gas to run.

Use a comma between adjectives if you would use the word "and" between them instead of a comma.

- a warm, friendly person
- a clear, cold, sunny morning

Use a comma before and after nonrestrictive phrases or clauses, which are not essential to the flow of the sentence.

- **nonrestrictive phrase:** Lucy, carrying her violin, vaulted onto the stage.
- **nonrestrictive clause:** The mail, which is nearly always late, was early today.

Use a comma before and after an appositive. An appositive is a word or phrase that identifies in different words a preceding noun or pronoun.

- Ms. Smith, the school principal, spoke to the seventh grade.

- Spot, my dog, had to go to the vet.

Use a comma after the salutation and the closing of a friendly letter.

- Dear Emily,
- Sincerely yours,

Use a comma with dates and addresses. The last item is followed by a comma, unless it is the end of a sentence.

- On Tuesday, September 1, 2000, we will begin a new school year.
- Wachusett Regional High School is located at 1401 Main Street, Holden, Massachusetts.

Use a comma to separate a direct quotation from the speaker.

- Tom said, "I want to go to lunch."
- "I can't go to lunch right now," answered Jill, "but I can go in an hour."

Use a comma before and after a word or words that addresses directly the reader or some specific person in the text.

- I asked you, Barbara, to pass me a pencil.
- Sean, please be quiet.

Use a comma before and after words, phrases, or clauses that interrupt the main thought of the sentence.

- You can, for example, ask a neighbor for help.

Use a comma after a mild interjection that begins a sentence.

- No, I can't go out tonight.
- Stop, that road is closed.

Use a comma to separate the digits in a number in order to distinguish hundreds, thousands, millions, etc.

- 7,500,000

Use a comma to enclose a title, name, or initials, which follow a person's name.

- Susan Smith, M.D.
- Henry Jones, Ph.D.

APOSTROPHE

Use an apostrophe to show that one or more letters have been omitted in a contraction.

- | | | | | | |
|---------|-----|---------|-------------|-----|------------|
| • can't | for | cannot | • shouldn't | for | should not |
| • we'll | for | we will | • I'll | for | I will |

- | | | | | | |
|----------|-----|---------|---------|-----|--------|
| • we're | for | we are | • it's | for | it is |
| • you're | for | you are | • who's | for | who is |

Use an apostrophe and s to form the possessive case of a noun (singular or plural) not ending in s. Use an apostrophe to form the possessive case of a plural noun ending in s.

word	singular	plural
cat	cat's	cats'
man	man's	men's
student	student's	students'

Use an apostrophe alone or an apostrophe and s to form the possessive of singular nouns ending in s.

- | | | |
|------------------------|-----------|-------------------------|
| • James' book | OR | • James's book |
| • the rhinoceros' horn | OR | • the rhinoceros's horn |

Use an apostrophe and s to indicate the plurals of letters used as words. Most writers use an apostrophe and s or italics to form the plurals of numerals, symbols, abbreviations and words named as words.

- I got all A's on my report card. **OR** • I got all A's on my report card.
- You shouldn't use &'s in place of and's in formal writing **OR** • You shouldn't use &s in place of *ands* in formal writing.

QUOTATION MARKS

Use quotation marks to enclose every direct quotation and each part of an interrupted quotation.

- "I'm hungry," complained Sam.
- "Just a minute," said his mother. "I'll fix you some lunch."

Place quotation marks correctly with reference to other punctuation. The comma and period are always placed inside quotation marks.

- "I'm hungry," cried Sam.
- "Just a minute," said his mother. "I'll fix you some lunch."
- Recently, I read "Noon Wine," "The Secret Life of Walter Mitty," and "The Bet."

The semicolon and colon are generally placed outside quotation marks.

- I just read "The Black Cat"; it was bizarre.
- There were two victims in "The Black Cat": the narrator's cat, Pluto, and the narrator's wife.

The question mark or exclamation point is placed inside the quotation marks if the quotation is a question or an exclamation.

- Mark asked, "Is it time to go home yet?"
- Mom yelled, "Get out of the way!"

Note: This rule applies even if the sentence is also a question or an exclamation.

- Did you ask, "Where is the office?"

A question mark or exclamation point is placed outside the quotation marks if the sentence is a question or an exclamation but the quotation is not.

- What did he mean when he said, "You're the first to go"?
- When did you read "The Raven"?
- I get angry when he says, "I don't care"!

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

- "I appreciate your saying 'please' when you ask for money," said Dad.
- "Did you hear 'The Star Spangled Banner' being played at the Olympics?" asked our teacher.

Use quotation marks to enclose the titles of magazine articles, short stories, short poems, songs, chapters of books, and essays.

- "The Black Cat"
- "The Road Not Taken"
- "Stairway to Heaven"

SEMICOLON

A semicolon may be used between two independent clauses that are closely related, including clauses that are joined by conjunctive adverbs.

- You should read A Tale of Two Cities; it is a good novel.
- Tom's favorite food is pizza; Sue's favorite is spaghetti.
- Tom's favorite food is pizza; however, Sue's favorite is spaghetti.

Use a semicolon in a series of groups of words that already contain commas.

- Jane skied at Sugarloaf, in Maine; Waterville, in New Hampshire; and Killington, in Vermont.
- Mary took Spot, her dog; Susan, her mother; Tim, her brother; and Karen, her friend, on vacation with her.

COLON

Use a colon to introduce a list or description that has already been mentioned in a more general way.

- We ate a large lunch: soup, salad, sandwiches, and cake.
- There were three members in the band: a singer, a guitar player, and a drummer.

Use a colon to separate introductory words from a long or formal quotation which follows.

- The first words of his speech were: "Congratulations to the class of 1993. It's been a long, difficult journey, but you've made it."

Use a colon after the salutation in a business letter.

- Dear Mr. Miles:
- Dear Sirs:
- To Whom It May Concern:

Use a colon to separate hour and minute figures.

• 10:30 A.M.

• 4:45 P.M.

Use a colon to separate chapters and verses of the Bible.

• Genesis 1:4

• John 2:10

Use a colon to separate a publisher's location and name in a list of works cited.

• New York: Bantam

• Boston: Houghton Mifflin

HYPHEN

Use a hyphen to show the division of a word at the end of a line (syllabication). The hyphen is placed only at the end of the line, never at the beginning of the next line.

Never divide a word of only one syllable

Use a hyphen only at the end of a syllable of more than one letter.

Consult a dictionary when in doubt.

Two or more words used as a single adjective before a noun are usually hyphenated.

• stop-and-go traffic

• up-to-date system

NO HYPHEN: Your account is up to date.

Use a hyphen in a compound number from twenty-one to ninety-nine.

• seventy-five

• eighty-three

• forty-two

Use a hyphen with a fraction used as a modifier.

• The stadium was only one-third full.

• This vote requires a two-thirds majority to pass.

Use a hyphen between words in a compound noun.

• mother-in-law

• cloak-and-dagger

• father-to-be

ITALICS / UNDERLINING

In longhand and typewritten manuscripts, underlining is used to indicate italic type, the slanted type used in printed materials. (*This is a sample of italic type.*)

Underline titles of books, magazines, and newspapers.

• The Catcher in the Rye

• Time

• The New York Times

*** The titles or names of certain very well-known works and documents are not underlined.**

• the Bible

• the Koran

• the Magna Carta

• the Declaration of Independence

Underline titles of plays, operas, musical compositions, long poems, motion pictures, television programs, and works of art.

- All My Sons
- Madame Butterfly
- Star Wars
- The Cosby Show
- The Last Supper

Underline names of ships, trains, aircraft, and spacecraft.

- Queen Elizabeth II
- Orient Express
- Air Force One
- Challenger

Underline foreign words and phrases that are likely to be unfamiliar to the reader. (Consult a dictionary to be sure.)

- She graduated magna cum laude.
- Many of the works of the fin de siecle judged so sensational when they were written now seem utterly innocent.

Underline scientific terms which are also foreign words.

- homo sapiens
- sciurus carolinensis

Underline a word or words for specific reference or emphasis.

- I think you'll find the information you're looking for in the ninth chapter.
- You should always study hard for an important exam.

Underline words, letters, and figures used as words.

- That sentence has too many ands in it.
- He signed the document with an X.
- Do you often mistake the number 5 for the letter s?

CAPITALIZATION

Capitalize the first word of every sentence.

- **We** spent the summer at the beach.
- **During** the winter we often go skiing.

Capitalize the first word of a direct quotation if it begins the sentence. The second part of a divided quotation does not need a capital letter unless a new sentence begins.

- "I know," said John, "that you have time to help me."
- "I need to finish this job," said John. "Can you help me?"

Capitalize proper nouns and adjectives. Do not capitalize common nouns.

common nouns

country
philosopher
poet

proper nouns

France
Socrates
Shakespeare

proper adjectives

French toast
Socratic method
Shakespearean sonnet

Capitalize common nouns that are part of proper nouns.

common nouns

a park on Elm Street in Worcester
a city in the state of New York
the harbor in Boston

proper nouns

Elm Park
New York City
Boston Harbor

Do not capitalize a word modified by proper adjectives unless it is part of a geographical name.

- the English Channel
- the Florida Keys
- English setter
- Florida oranges

Capitalize the first word, the last word, and every important word in the titles of books, stories, articles, poems, works of art, musical compositions, movies, and television programs. As a rule, all words of five letters or more should be capitalized.

- The Old Man and the Sea
- “The Flight of the Bumblebee”
- Bill and Ted's Excellent Adventure

Capitalize the names of days of the week, of months, and of holidays. Do not capitalize the names of the seasons.

- Monday
- January
- Christmas
- Passover
- summer
- winter

Capitalize the word I.

- I wish we could go to the beach.
- Tom and I took a bus to the mall.

Capitalize the words Mr., Mrs., Ms., Miss, and words that show rank, office, or profession when followed by a person's name or used in place of the name.

- Captain Hook
- Lieutenant Jones
- Mr. Smith
- Senator Kennedy
- Dr. Roberts
- Mrs. Smith

NO CAPITAL: • Paul Roberts is a doctor. • Ted Kennedy is a senator.

Capitalize the title of a high official when it is used in place of the official's name.

- The President of the United States addressed the nation.
- The Secretary of State is meeting with the Secretary of Defense.

NO CAPITAL: • The president of the club called a meeting.
 • My secretary will meet next week with your secretary.

Capitalize degrees and titles after a name.

- Leo Lane, M.D.
- Mary Smith, Attorney at Law

Capitalize the title of a relative when it is followed by the relative's name or used in place of the name.

- Cousin John
- my cousin
- Grandmother
- his grandmother
- Uncle Brian
- her uncle
- Dad
- my dad

Capitalize the first letter of each word, except prepositions, in a geographical name.

- Strait of Gibraltar
- Stratford upon Avon

Capitalize names of sections of the country but not of directions of the compass.

- We vacationed in the East.
- Florida is in the South.
- We drove east for several days.
- Florida is south of Massachusetts.

Capitalize the names of languages, races, nationalities, and religions. Capitalize words formed from them.

- Caucasian
- African-American
- Christianity
- Islam
- Japanese
- Jewish

Capitalize important words in the names of organizations, buildings, firms, schools, and churches. (Capitalize the only when it is part of the name.)

- the Board of Education
- The New Yorker
- the Empire State Building
- Wachusett Regional School District
- General Motors
- the Boy Scouts

Capitalize the names of historical events, periods, and documents.

- the Constitution
- the French Revolution
- the Renaissance

Capitalize all words referring to the Deity, the Holy Family, and sacred books.

- God
- Christ
- the Bible
- the Talmud
- the Koran

Capitalize school subjects when they name specific courses, not just general areas. Always capitalize languages.

- My parents want me to take honors French and history.
- Next year I will take U.S. History C1.

GLOSSARY OF USAGE

above (preceding)	Prefer <i>the passage above</i> to <i>the above passage</i> or <i>the above</i> .
accept/except	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I accept your invitation. • All freshmen were accepted (received or admitted). • All seniors were excepted (excluded). • All students, except seniors, must report early. • No one passed the exam except John.
advice/advise	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My guidance counselor gave me excellent advice (noun) when she advised (verb) me to finish high school.
affect/effect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of study can affect (influence) a student's grades. • The principal effected (made) changes and their effect (result) was astounding
aggravate/irritate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The extreme cold aggravated (made worse, intensified) Mary's bronchitis. • Bill's outrageous appearance irritated his mother.
altar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The altar (A table for a religious ceremony) was banked with lilies.
alter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The outcome of the election altered (To change) the mayor's plan.
a lot/alot/allot	<i>Alot</i> is an unacceptable spelling of <i>a lot</i> . <i>Allot</i> means to allocate.
all ready/already	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The boys are not all ready (all prepared) to leave; however, the girls have already left.
all right/alright	Alright is an unacceptable spelling for all right.
altogether/ all together	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You might just as well ignore that assignment altogether (<i>entirely, completely</i>). • The students were all together in the gym.
anxious/eager	<p>Anxious is used to imply worry or uncertainty.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He was anxious about the weather. <p>Eager is used to imply enthusiasm and impatience.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She was eager to purchase the concert tickets.
a.m./p.m. A.M./P.M.	<p>CORRECT: 10 a.m., 10 p.m.</p> <p>CORRECT: 10 A.M., 10 P.M.</p>
among/between	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mary sits between John and Eileen. • The students have a rest period between classes. • We had only six dollars among the ten of us.
amount/number	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The books cost a large amount of money (singular). • The number of books (plural) purchased must not exceed ten.

ampersand (&)	The ampersand should be used only in the names of firms or groups that use it themselves, or in abridged matter. Otherwise, write <i>and</i> .
awhile/a while	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stay awhile (adverb). • Stay for a while (noun in adverbial phrase). • Never <i>Stay for awhile</i>.
beside/besides	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The same person sits beside (next to) me on the bus each day. • Besides (in addition to) winning an academic award, she also earned an athletic award.
behind/in back of	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The soccer field is behind (not in back of) the gymnasium.
capital	A city; the seat of a government
capitol	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Olympia is the capital of Washington. building; statehouse • Where is the capitol in Albany?
cavalry/Calvary	Cavalry consists of troops trained to fight on horseback or in armored vehicles. Calvary, the hill outside Jerusalem where Christ was crucified, is an important religious site for Christians.
choose	to select
chose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Will you choose speech or civics as your elective? selected • Janet chose to play in the band rather than in the orchestra,
climatic/climactic	<p>Climatic means pertaining to climate.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The <i>climatic</i> changes at the top of Mt. Everest are quite rapid. <p>Climactic means pertaining to or constituting climax</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The most climactic scene was when Harry defeated Lord Voldemort.
coarse	rough; crude
course	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The beach is covered with coarse brown sand. path of action; planned program or route • The wind blew the ship slightly off its course.
compare with/ compare to	<p><i>She compared me with Lincoln</i> means that she made a detailed comparison, pointing out the ways in which I resemble and fail to resemble Lincoln.</p> <p><i>She compared me to Lincoln</i> suggests that the I am comparable to Lincoln or can be placed in the same class as Lincoln.</p>
compound modifiers	<p>When two or more words precede a noun and together form a single idea modifying the noun, they should be hyphenated; they are usually not hyphenated if they follow the noun.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The white-and-green uniform was attractive. • Her uniform was white and green.

comprise	<p>CORRECT: The encyclopedia comprises (includes) twenty-six volumes.</p> <p>WRONG: The encyclopedia is comprised of twenty-six volumes.</p> <p>WRONG: Nine players comprise (make up) a baseball team.</p>
consensus of opinion	Do not follow <i>consensus</i> with <i>of opinion</i> . Since a consensus is a generally held opinion, you should avoid this redundancy.
contact	The use of <i>contact</i> as a verb meaning <i>to get in touch with</i> , or <i>to communicate with</i> is unacceptable to many good speakers and writers.
continual(ly)/ continuous(ly)	<p>The continual recurs at short intervals . The continuous has no breaks between the beginning and the end.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Our phone seems to ring continually. • For two weeks after her accident she was continuously in pain.
convince/ persuade	<p>One <i>persuades</i> someone to act, but <i>convinces</i> someone of the truth of a statement or proposition.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Although the teacher convinced the student that he should study harder, she was unable to persuade him to do so.
consul	a representative of a government in a foreign country Who is the American consul in Nigeria?
council	a group of people who meet together
councilor	a member of a council <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The king called a meeting of the council and informed the councilors that the royal treasury was nearly empty.
counsel	advice; to give words for advice
counselor	one who advises <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When choosing a career, seek counsel from your teacher. • Who is your guidance counselor?
critique/criticize	<p><i>Critique</i> is a noun meaning a critical review or commentary.</p> <p><i>Criticize</i> is a verb meaning to judge the merits and faults of something.</p>
dash/colon	<p>A dash consists of two hyphens (--) and like a colon may be used after the last independent clause in a sentence to point to some more useful information about what was just said. The dash usually represents a pause; the colon usually implies "the following" and often comes after <i>follows</i> or <i>following</i>. Use the dash sparingly.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He studied feverishly for one reason--grades. • He studied feverishly for one reason: grades.

desert (des' ert)	a dry, sandy region The Sahara is the largest <i>desert</i> in Africa
desert (de sert')	to abandon; to leave Most dogs will not <i>desert</i> a friend in trouble.
dessert (des sert')	the final course of a meal Fruit salad is my favorite <i>dessert</i> .
dieresis (¨)	The dieresis consists of two dots placed over the second of two adjacent vowels to indicate that the two vowel sounds are to be pronounced separately, as in <i>coöperate</i> .
different from/ different than	<i>From</i> is the preposition commonly used to follow <i>different</i> . <i>Different than</i> may be used when a clause follows. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Your courses are different from mine. • My opinion is no different than it was before.
due to/because of	<i>Due to</i> means <i>caused by</i> or <i>attributable to</i> and usually follows the verb <i>to be</i> . <i>Due to</i> should not serve as an adverb to replace <i>because of</i> . <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • His academic achievement was <i>due to</i> his great effort and determination. • <i>Because of</i> (not <i>due to</i>) the inclement weather, school was delayed.
ellipsis (. . .)	The ellipsis is three spaced periods used to indicate that material has been omitted from a quoted text. It may also indicate a pause in speech or in the passage of time.
enthused/ enthusiastic	<i>Enthused</i> should be avoided in formal writing and speech. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He is enthusiastic (not <i>enthused</i>) about entering college.
envy/jealousy	Envy implies both resentment and greed. Jealousy can imply a principled protectiveness, as well a principled intolerance. An envious person not only wishes to see another deprived of his possession, but also wishes to obtain the possession for himself. A jealous person is greatly concerned about what he himself owns or claims, and fears losing it. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mary envies Andrew because of intelligence and high grades. • Andrew, jealous of his (own) high rank in class, studies long hours.
everyday/ every day	Everyday is an adjective; Every day is an adverbial phrase <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Riding the bus is an everyday event. • She rides the bus to school every day.
fewer/less	Fewer (plural) books would cost less (singular) money.
flaunt/flout	<i>Flaunt</i> means to boast or to show off. <i>Flout</i> means to mock, to defy, or to treat with contempt.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A wealthy woman might flaunt her jewelry. • A person who shows contemptuous disregard for the law flouts the law.
formally	<p>with dignity; following strict rules or procedure</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •The Governor delivered the speech <i>formally</i>.
formerly	<p>previously; in the past</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •<i>Formerly</i>, I knew the Zubalsky family very well.
hear	<p>to perceive sounds by ear</p> <p>Dogs can <i>hear</i> some sounds that are inaudible to people.</p>
here	<p>in this place</p> <p>The campsite is right <i>here</i>.</p>
hopefully	<p>This adverb means <i>in a hopeful manner</i> or <i>full of hope</i>.</p> <p>CORRECT: The student hopefully awaited the return of the test.</p> <p>WRONG: <i>Hopefully</i>, this class will end soon.</p>
in terms of	<p>Do not use this phrase as a synonym for about.</p> <p>CORRECT: The teacher instructed the students to express the relationship <i>in terms of</i> an algebraic equation.</p>
imply/infer	<p>To <i>imply</i> is to hint at or suggest. To <i>infer</i> is to surmise or deduce.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A speaker <i>implies</i>; his audience <i>infers</i>.
irregardless	<p><i>Irregardless</i> is not a word, regardless of how many use it.</p>
its	<p>possessive of the noun it</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mount Fuji is noted for <i>its</i> beauty
it's	<p>contraction for the words it is or it has</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>It's</i> an extinct volcano. • <i>It's</i> been a long time.
kindly/please	<p>Avoid <i>kindly</i> when no kindness or benevolence is involved in the request.</p> <p><i>Please</i> is a better term.</p>
lend/loan	<p><i>Lend</i> is a verb, and <i>loan</i>, in formal English, is a noun.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The bank <i>lends</i> money. • A person makes a <i>loan</i>.
liable/likely/apt	<p>These overlap in meaning to express probability. Prefer <i>apt</i> for naturally inclined. Choose <i>likely</i> to mean that which is expected or probable. Select <i>liable</i> when the probable consequences are unpleasant or the possibility of legal action exists.</p>

- She is apt to dance when she hears music.
- The weatherman says it is likely to rain today.
- If you turn in a false fire alarm, you will be liable to arrest.

loose not securely attached; not fitting tightly
 • If a tourniquet is too *loose*, it will not serve its purpose.

lose to suffer loss
 • Vegetables *lose* some of their vitamins when they are cooked.

myself/yourself/himself, etc. These reflexive or intensive pronouns turn the action back on the subject or serve to emphasize or intensify. Never use them for *I, me, us*, and so on.

CORRECT: Send the bill to Jack and me.
WRONG: Send the bill to Jack and myself.

nauseous/nauseated
 • The prison food was a *nauseous* (disgusting, unappetizing, inducing sickness) mixture of stale bread and tough meat.
 • Some people become *nauseated* (feeling queasy, inclined to vomit) by riding on buses.

numbers/numerals
 Numbers are best spelled out if less than one hundred and if they can be expressed in one or two words. Numbers are best expressed in numerals if above one hundred. If two numbers follow each other, spell out the shorter word.
 • My teacher is sixty-five years old.
 • There are 110 students in my class.
 • I need 25 ten-cent stamps.
Figures should never begin a sentence.
 • Twenty-five students attended the rally.)
Spell out large, round numbers.
 • fifteen hundred

OK/O.K./okay All three spellings are permissible.

oral/verbal *Oral* pertains to the mouth. An oral contract is an agreement made through spoken words. *Verbal* means pertaining to words, spoken or written. Because *verbal* can be ambiguous and is often misused, use *oral* when you mean spoken, and use *written* when you mean in writing.

- Frank received an *oral* reprimand. Later, he received a written copy of the reprimand.
- In English 9 we work to improve students' *verbal* (both oral and written) skills.

passed went by
 • Our airplane *passed* over the Grand Canyon.

past	<p>that which has gone by; beyond</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some people live in the <i>past</i>. • They moved <i>past</i> the dozing sentry
peace	<p>security and quiet order</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We are striving for a world of <i>peace</i> and prosperity.
piece	<p>a part of something</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some people can catch fish with a pole, a <i>piece</i> of string and a bent pin.
percent/ percentage	<p>The word <i>percent</i> is preceded by a specific figure and may be singular or plural. The word <i>percentage</i>, usually not preceded by a figure, may also be singular or plural.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Twenty <i>percent</i> of the stock is owned by the students. • Twenty <i>percent</i> of the students are stock owners. • The <i>percentage</i> of unprepared students is small. • A small <i>percentage</i> of the students are unprepared.
personal/ personnel	<p><i>Personal</i> [adjective] means pertaining to a particular person. <i>Personnel</i> [noun] means persons employed in a business or some other enterprise. It may be used with either a singular or a plural verb, depending on whether it is conceived as a group or as a collection of individuals.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Her decision was based on <i>personal</i> experience. • The <i>personnel</i> available is insufficient for the job. • The administrative <i>personnel</i> are away on vacation.
plain	<p>simple, common, unadorned; a flat area of land</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A <i>plain</i> jackknife is often as useful as one with several blades.
plane	<p>a tool; an airplane; a flat surface</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The <i>plane</i> is useful in the carpenter's trade. • Four single-engine <i>planes</i> are in the hangar. • Rhoda says she likes <i>plane</i> geometry.
possessives/ plurals of names/ pluralizing with an apostrophe	<p>Use possessives only for people, animals, and other forms possessing life. Exceptions are made for expressions denoting time, space, or measure.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a <i>week's</i> vacation; an <i>hour's</i> time; a <i>dollar's</i> worth; <p>Possessive singular nouns are generally formed by adding 's</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a <i>student's</i> privilege; a <i>child's</i> toy; a <i>business's</i> donation; Pete <i>Thomas's</i> car; <p>Plural nouns ending in <i>s</i> need only an apostrophe.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the <i>students'</i> rights <p>Plural nouns not ending in <i>s</i> need an 's.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the <i>children's</i> books; the <i>men's</i> coats; the <i>people's</i> ideas <p>Possessive pronouns do not take apostrophes.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The books are June's and the pens are <i>hers</i> too.

The possessive of a compound noun is formed by adding an *apostrophe* and *s* to the last element.

- the **attorney general's** code of ethics; the **editor in chief's** policies

Plurals of compounds are constructed by pluralizing the main word.

- the **sisters-in-law's** houses

Proper names should be pluralized in the same way as other nouns.

- Alice and Tom Howe becomes • the two Howes.
- Alice and Tom Jones becomes • the two Joneses.
- Alice and Tom Fox becomes • the two Foxes.

A sign identifying a family residence should be in the possessive plural or just the plural, depending on the meaning.

CORRECT: The Howes' (House) or The Howes
The Joneses' (House) or The Joneses

WRONG: The Howe's, The Jones', The Jone's

Use *apostrophe* and *s* to form the plurals of letters.

- Wachusett is spelled with two **t's**.

Most writers use 's or italics to form plurals of numbers, abbreviations, symbols, and words referred to as words.

- Instead of a 3 and a 5 he had written two **3's** (or **3s**).
- How many **+'s** in this exercise?
- Count the number of **and's** (or **ands**) in that paragraph.
- There were three **EMT's** (or **EMTs**) at the accident scene.

**principal/
principle**

Principal means chief or main and can be either an adjective or a noun.

- Cost is the principal factor.
- Ms. Rayfield is our principal.

Principle means a general or fundamental truth, or money, and is always a noun.

- We will not compromise our **principles**.
- Your loan payment, including **principle** and interest, is \$100 per month.

proved/proven

Proved is the preferred past participle of prove.

- He has **proved** his worth.

quiet

still and peaceful; without noise

- A **quiet** room is needed for concentrated study.

quite

wholly or entirely; to a great extent

- Winters in New England can be **quite** severe.

stationary/ stationery	<i>Stationary</i> is an adjective meaning not movable. <i>Stationery</i> is a noun that means writing paper.
than	<i>than</i> is a conjunction I am taller than she is.
then	<i>then</i> is an adverb Then we read the chapter.
the reason is because/that	Avoid the reason is because in formal English. In a sentence beginning The reason is, the clause following the verb is a noun clause used as a predicate nominative. A noun clause may begin with that but not with because, which usually introduces an adverb clause. The that construction is correct but often wordy. CORRECT: He refused to go because he had no money. WORDY: The reason he refused to go was that he had no money WRONG: The reason he refused to go was because he had no money.
their/there/they're	Their car was stolen from the parking lot. We are moving over there . They're going to the movie with their friends.
uninterested/ disinterested	An <i>uninterested</i> person is simply without interest, as from boredom or indifference. A <i>disinterested</i> person is aloof or impartial and does not stand to profit by the way he acts in a particular situation.
until/till/'til	<i>Until</i> and <i>till</i> are equally acceptable terms in any form of speech and writing. Avoid the clipped form 'til.
usage/use/utilize	<i>Usage</i> and <i>use</i> have the meaning of habitual or customary practice. In matters of language, <i>usage</i> refers to a standard use in the meaning and pronunciations of words; However, in almost all instances outside reference to language, the word <i>use</i> serves adequately. <i>Utilize</i> (which means to use profitably, or make use of something ready to be discarded or something not designed for the purpose) is not a synonym for <i>use</i> and should usually be avoided. WRONG: We have posted rules for the usage of the swimming pool. WRONG: We will utilize the computers in the Writing Center.
were/we're/where	<i>Were</i> is the past subjunctive of the verb <i>be</i> . <i>We're</i> is the contraction of <i>we are</i> . <i>Where</i> means at or in what place. • <i>Were</i> you at the game last night? • <i>We're</i> going to go get ice cream after school. • <i>Where</i> in the world did you find that?
who/whom/	<i>Who</i> and <i>Whoever</i> are nominative-case forms.

**whoever/
whomever**

Whom and *Whomever* are objective-case forms.

CORRECT: Who should I say is calling?

WRONG: Whom should I say is calling?

Who is the subject of is calling. The sentence may be reworded as follows: I should say that **who** is calling?

CORRECT: Tom knows a man **who** he believes is a good teacher.

WRONG: Tom knows a man **whom** he believes is a good teacher.

Who is the subject of is a good teacher. He believes is essentially parenthetical and can be omitted.

CORRECT: **Whom** did you give the assignment to?

WRONG: **Who** did you give the assignment to?

The preposition *to* requires an objective-case form. (You did give the assignment **to whom**?)

CORRECT: Give the assignment **to whoever** needs it.

WRONG: Give the assignment **to whomever** needs it.

The pronoun is the subject of the verb needs, not the object of the preposition *to*, and therefore must be in the nominative-case form. (The object of the preposition is the entire noun clause whoever needs it.)

whose/who's

Whose is the possessive form for *who* or *which*.

Who's is the contraction of *who is* or *who has*.

- **Whose** sneakers are these?
- That is the car **whose** paint was damaged.
- **Who's** going to the movies tonight?

GLOSSARY OF GRAMMAR

Sentence A sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought and containing a subject and a predicate.

PARTS OF A SENTENCE

There are several elements or parts that may be in a sentence. They are **subject, predicate, complement, phrase, modifier, and clause**. The two necessary parts of sentence are the subject and the predicate.

Subject The subject of the sentence is that part about which something is being said. The subject is the doer of the action. (Exception: passive voice)

- The green **book** is worth ten dollars.
- The little **boy** fell to the floor.

Predicate The predicate is that part which says something about the subject. The predicate expresses the action of the sentence or a state of being.

I read that book last week.
John was going to the store.

Compound Predicate

The compound predicate is a predicate which consists of two or more verbs that are usually connected by **and**.

- John **ran** the relay **and threw** the shot put.
- He **reads, writes and speaks** French fluently.

Complement

The complement is a word that completes the meaning or action of the predicate. There are several types:

Objects

Direct objects

Indirect objects

Subject complements

Predicate nominatives

Predicate adjectives

Object

An object is a complement that completes the action of a transitive verbs. An object never follows a linking or intransitive verb.

- He used the **book** last.
- She gave a **present** to the teacher.

Direct Object

The direct object of a verb receives the action of the verb or shows the result of the action. It answers the question **what** or **whom** after an action verb.

- He used the **book** yesterday. (He used **what**?)
- John liked **her** very much. (John liked **whom**?)

Indirect Object

The indirect object of a verb precedes the direct object and usually tells **to whom** or **for whom** the action of the verb is done. There can be a direct object without an indirect object, but there cannot be an indirect object without a direct object. Indirect objects are usually found with verbs like gave, brought, took, offer, showed, etc.

- She gave **John** the paper.
- The teacher showed **him** his grade.

Subject Complement

A subject complement is a complement that refers back to the subject. It follows a linking verb and never follows action or a transitive verbs. Two kinds of subject complements are the **predicate nominative** and the **predicate adjective**.

Clause

A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate and forms part of a compound or complex sentence. In general, there are two kinds of clauses: main and subordinate. Main clauses are sometimes called principal or independent clauses. Subordinate clauses are sometimes called dependent clauses.

Main clause

A main clause can stand alone as a simple sentence. A main clause does not modify anything.

- **Time passes rapidly** when one is busy.
- **I know a boy** who was born in France.

Subordinate Clause

A subordinate clause is a clause that is introduced by a subordinate element. A subordinate clause depends on the rest of the sentence for its meaning. A subordinate clause does not express a complete thought and cannot stand alone. It must always be attached to the main clause as a part of a sentence.

I remember **what she said**.
He will go **if he feels like it**.

Kinds of Subordinate Clauses

There are three kinds of subordinate clauses: **noun clauses**, **adjective clauses** and **adverb clauses**.

Noun Clause

A noun clause is a subordinate clause used as a noun. Noun clauses may be used as:

- a. subject of a verb- **What you do** is your business.
- b. object of a verb- He took **whatever he wanted**.
- c. object of a preposition- She could not see the game from **where she sat**.
- d. predicate nominative- Your life is **what you make of it**.

Adjective Clause

An adjective clause is a subordinate clause that modifies a noun or pronoun. Adjective clauses are frequently introduced by the relative pronouns who, which, or that. The relative pronoun sometimes serves as the subject of the subordinate clause.

The answer **that Bill got** was different from mine.

I am grateful to the boy **who helped me**.

Adverb Clause

An adverb clause is a subordinate clause that is used as an adverb. An adverb clause tells how, when, where or why.

Time passes rapidly **when one is busy**.

He will go **if he feels like it**.

SENTENCES

Sentences are classified according to use or purpose:

Declarative Sentence

A declarative sentence is one that states a fact.

- English is a required subject.

Interrogative Sentence

An interrogative sentence is one that asks a question.

- Who is it?

Imperative Sentence

An imperative sentence is one that makes a request or gives a command. The subject is usually understood to be the pronoun “you.”

- Please sign here.

Exclamatory Sentence

An exclamatory sentence is one that expresses a strong feeling.

- It's a beautiful evening!

Sentences are classified according to form or structure:

Simple Sentence

A simple sentence is one with one main clause and no subordinate clause.

- Jack plays on the baseball team.

Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is one with two or more main clauses but no subordinate clause.

- Mother believes everyone, but father has to have proof.

Complex Sentence

A complex sentence is one that contains one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

- We agree with what you said.

Compound – Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence is one that contains two or more main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses.

- The visitors from Peru, who landed at Midway Airport, were met by the Mayor, and he escorted them through town.

TYPES OF PRONOUNS

Personal Pronoun

A personal pronoun indicates the person or persons speaking or spoken to, or one or more persons or things spoken of.

	<i>Nominative Case</i>	<i>Singular Possessive Case</i>	<i>Objective Case</i>
1 st Person	I	my, mine	me
2 nd Person	you	your yours	you
3 rd Person	he	his	him
	she	her hers	her
	it	its	it
		<i>Plural</i>	
1 st person	we	our ours	us
2 nd Person	you	you yours	you
3 rd Person	they	their theirs	them

Interrogative Pronoun

An interrogative pronoun is one that is used to ask a question. They are **who, whose, whom, which** and **what**.

Relative Pronoun

A relative pronoun is one that stands for some word in the principal clause and connects that clause to the subordinate clause. The relative pronouns are **who, whose, whom, which** and **that**.

Indefinite Pronoun

An indefinite pronoun is one that is used to give a general or indefinite impression. Examples are **one, some, everyone, somebody, each**.

Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is one that compounds a personal pronoun with – **self** or **selves**. (*myself, ourselves*)

Demonstrative Pronoun

A demonstrative pronoun is one that points out an object definitely. Examples are **this, that, these, those**.

NOTE: The following list is intended as a reference to help students with questions about basic terms and constructions in English grammar. It is not meant to be a teaching device. For more detailed explanations, see *Elements of Writing* (Holt, 1993) or any other recent grammar book.

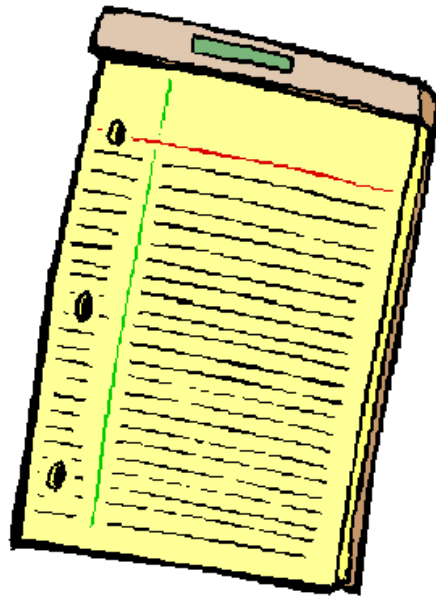
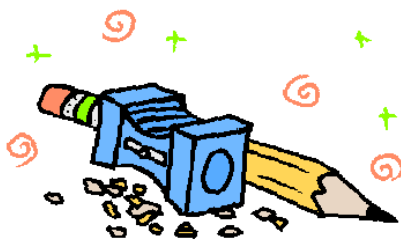
- Active voice** This verb form expresses action performed by the subject. Active phrasing is usually clearer and more forceful than passive phrasing.
- STRONG, CLEAR PHRASING:** Sue won the game.
WEAKER PHRASING: The game was won by Sue.
- Adjective** An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun.
- Adverb** An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. It usually answers the question when, where, how, or to what extent.
- Agreement** See **Subject-Verb Agreement** or **Pronoun-Antecedent Agreement**.
- Antecedent** An antecedent is a word, phrase, or clause to which a pronoun refers and which gives the pronoun its meaning.
- Frank closed his *book* [antecedent] and put *it* [pronoun] down.
 - After phoning my *sister-in-law*, I wrote a letter to *her*.
- Case** The case is the form of a noun or pronoun that shows its use in a sentence. There are three cases: nominative, objective, and possessive.
- Collective noun** This is singular in form but refers to a group of people or things such as committee or team. If the collective noun is regarded as a unit, it takes a singular verb.
- The *jury has* come to a decision.
- If the members are regarded individually, a plural verb is needed.
- The *jury are* disagreeing among themselves.
- Comma splice** A comma splice occurs when complete sentences are separated by a comma. See *Fused Sentence*.
- Compound subject** A compound subject consists of two or more subjects that share the same verb. Subjects joined by *and* take a plural verb.
- Mary, Beth, and Cory *are joining* the Navy.
- Singular subjects joined by *or* or *nor* take a singular verb. When a singular subject and a plural subject are joined by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with the subject closest to the verb.
- Paul *or* Gabriel *is* likely to be the next team captain.

Conjugation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Howard <i>or</i> the <i>Carson brothers</i> are expected to drive next week. <p>A conjugation is a presentation of the complete set of inflected forms of a verb.</p>
Conjunction	<p>A conjunction is a word used to join words or groups of words. Common coordinating conjunctions are and, but, or, and nor. Common correlative conjunctions are <i>both . . . and</i>, <i>either . . . or</i>, and <i>neither . . . nor</i>. Common subordinating conjunctions are <i>although</i>, <i>because</i>, and <i>if</i>.</p>
Consistency of tense	<p>Do not change needlessly from one tense to another.</p> <p>NONSTANDARD: He stands on the mound and stared at the batter. STANDARD: He stands on the mound and stares at the batter. STANDARD: He stood on the mound and stared at the batter.</p>
Dangling modifier	<p>This is a modifying word, phrase, or clause that does not clearly modify any word or group of words in the sentence.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Jogging on Main Street</i>, a red minivan nearly hit me.
Doesn't	<p>This is the contraction of the words does not, a singular construction.</p>
Don't	<p>This is the contraction of the words do not, a plural construction.</p>
Fused sentence	<p>A fused sentence occurs when complete sentences have no punctuation at all between them. See <i>Comma Splice</i>.</p>
Gerund	<p>A gerund is a verb ending in –ing that functions as a noun in a sentence. Be careful not to confuse gerunds with present participles, which function as adjectives.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Swimming</i> is good exercise.
Idiom	<p>An idiom is a phrase that means something different from the literal meaning of the words.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I tried to call you, but you were <i>on the phone</i>.
Infinitive	<p>An infinitive is a verb form, usually preceded by <i>to</i>, that can function as a noun, adjective, or adverb.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I don't want <i>to spend</i> the weekend studying.
Interjection	<p>An interjection is a word used to express emotion but with no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence. Examples are: <i>Oh! Hey! Alas!</i></p>
Intransitive verb	<p>This is a verb with no direct object. It expresses action without passing the action from a doer to a receiver.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The poet <i>wrote</i> beautifully. • Mark <i>studied</i> very late.

Misplaced modifier	<p>This is a modifying word, phrase or clause that sounds awkward because its placement in the sentence makes it appear to modify the wrong word or group of words. A modifier should be placed as near as possible to the word(s) it modifies.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I read about the drug dealer who was arrested <i>in this morning's newspaper</i>.
Nominative case	<p>Subjects and predicate nominatives are always in the nominative case.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She</i> was glad that <i>he</i> was elected • This is <i>he</i>.
Noun	<p>A noun is a word that names a person, place, or thing. A proper noun names a particular person, place, or thing. For example, <i>city</i> is a noun and <i>Boston</i> is a proper noun.</p>
Objective case	<p>Direct objects, indirect objects, and objects of prepositions are always in the objective case.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She kissed <i>him</i>. • She gave <i>him</i> a kiss. • She gave the book to <i>him</i>.
Participle	<p>A participle is a verb form that can be used as an adjective. Past participles often end in -d or -ed. Past participles of irregular verbs take other forms.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I added <i>peeled</i> cucumbers to the salad. • Shirley has a <i>broken</i> ankle. <p>Present participles end in -ing. Be careful not to confuse present participles with gerunds, which function as nouns.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We ran to get out of the <i>pouring</i> rain. • The <i>howling</i> dog kept us awake.
Parts of speech	<p>There are eight parts of speech: noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. See individual definitions for more details.</p>
Parallelism	<p>(Parallel Structure) Parallelism is consistency or balance in the phrasing of a sentence, achieved by using the same form or part of speech to express each idea.</p> <p>NOT PARALLEL: I like skiing, movies, and to play racquetball. PARALLEL: I like skiing, movies, and racquetball.</p>
Passive voice	<p>This verb form expresses action performed <u>upon</u> the subject. It consists of some form of the “be” verb and a past participle. Use this construction sparingly, as it can result in dangles and vague, unclear phrasing.</p> <p>STRONG, CLEAR PHRASING: I painted my house last week. WEAKER PHRASING: My house was painted last week.</p>

Past participle	The past participle is one of the four principal parts of a verb. This form requires the use of an auxiliary verb and indicates action in the past. It may end in –ed, -d, -t, -en, or –n.						
Past tense	The past tense expresses action or a state of being that occurred in the past but does not continue into the present. It is formed with regular verbs by adding –Ed to the verb.						
Phrase	A phrase is a group of related words not containing a verb and its subject but Functioning as a single part of speech.						
Appositive phrase	Renames the noun or pronoun it immediately follows. Usually set off by commas. • Phil, <i>my dog</i> , is nine years old.						
Prepositional phrase	Begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun. There are two types: the adjective phrase which modifies a noun or pronoun; the adverb phrase, which modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb.						
Verb phrase	Made up of a main verb and one or more helping verbs. • I have been thinking about buying a car.						
Verbal phrase	Made up of a verbal—a word formed from a verb, having some qualities of a verb, but acting as another part of speech. There are three types: <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>Participial phrase</td> <td>• I saw a man chasing <i>his hat</i>.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Gerund phrase</td> <td>• <i>Mowing the lawn</i> is not fun.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Infinitive phrase</td> <td>• I want to <i>see that movie</i>.</td> </tr> </table>	Participial phrase	• I saw a man chasing <i>his hat</i> .	Gerund phrase	• <i>Mowing the lawn</i> is not fun.	Infinitive phrase	• I want to <i>see that movie</i> .
Participial phrase	• I saw a man chasing <i>his hat</i> .						
Gerund phrase	• <i>Mowing the lawn</i> is not fun.						
Infinitive phrase	• I want to <i>see that movie</i> .						
Possessive case	The possessive case of a noun or pronoun indicates ownership or relationship. <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>• He is a teacher in <i>Mary's</i> school</td> <td>• I met <i>your</i> cousin last week.</td> </tr> </table>	• He is a teacher in <i>Mary's</i> school	• I met <i>your</i> cousin last week.				
• He is a teacher in <i>Mary's</i> school	• I met <i>your</i> cousin last week.						
Predicate adjective; predicate nominative	Both usually follow linking verbs. A predicate adjective modifies the subject of the verb. A predicate nominative explains or identifies the subject. <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>• This room is very <i>hot</i>.</td> <td>• A Mercedes is an expensive <i>car</i>.</td> </tr> </table>	• This room is very <i>hot</i> .	• A Mercedes is an expensive <i>car</i> .				
• This room is very <i>hot</i> .	• A Mercedes is an expensive <i>car</i> .						
Preposition	A preposition is a word that expresses a relationship between a noun or pronoun and some other word in the sentence. <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>• My dog sleeps <i>near</i> my bed.</td> <td>• Everyone <i>except</i> Ruth is happy.</td> </tr> </table>	• My dog sleeps <i>near</i> my bed.	• Everyone <i>except</i> Ruth is happy.				
• My dog sleeps <i>near</i> my bed.	• Everyone <i>except</i> Ruth is happy.						
Present participle	The present participle is a verb form ending in –ing that may be used with a helping verb to form a verb phrase. • I <i>was watching</i> the clock.						

Pronoun	A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. It may stand for a person, place, or thing. Types of pronouns are <i>personal, relative, interrogative, demonstrative, indefinite, and reflexive</i> .
Pronoun-antecedent agreement	A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number and gender.
Redundancy	Superfluous wording.
Subject-verb agreement	A verb must agree in number (singular or plural) with its subject.
Syntax	Syntax is the part of grammar concerned with the arrangement of words in sentences.
Verb	A verb is a word that expresses action or state of being.
Verb tense	Tense refers to the time expressed by a verb—present, past, or future. In English there are six tenses: <i>present, present perfect, past, past perfect, future, and future perfect</i> .
Verbal	See Gerund, Infinitive, and Participle.
Voice	See Active Voice and Passive Voice
Who/whom	Nominative and objective case pronouns. See <i>GLOSSARY OF USAGE</i>



X. WRSD CORRECTION SYMBOLS

agr	agreement (pronoun-antecedent, subject-verb)	sp	spelling
amb	ambiguous	sp	no-excuse spelling
awk or K	awkward	t	verb tense
cap	capital	tr	transition
cl	clarity	u	lack of unity
cf	comma fault	wc	word choice
coh	coherence	ww	wrong word
cs	comma splice	^	caret (insert a word, phrase, sentence)
d	diction		close up/delete space
dng or dm	dangling modifier		paragraghing error
doc	documentation	¶	
frag	fragment	//	faulty parallelism
fs	fused sentence	?	Is this correct?
gr	grammar error		transpose (reverse order)
illeg or leg	illegible handwriting	/	virgule/slash (insert/separate/omit)
lc	lower case		
mm	misplaced modifier		
p	punctuation		
pos	error in possessive case		
pv	inconsistency in point of view		
red	redundancy		
ref	error in pronoun reference		
rep	weakening repetition		
ro or ros	run-on sentence		
shift	unnecessary tense shift		

XI. WRSD NO-EXCUSE SPELLING LIST

a lot (not alot)	consensus	harass	occurred	reminisce
absence	consistent	hear / here	occurrence	repetition
accept / except	convenience	height	occurring	rhythm
accessible	continuous	hoping	omitted	rhyme
accidentally	cooperate	humorous	opinion	
accommodate	correspondence	hypocrisy	opportunity	sacrilegious
acquainted	criticism	hypocrite	optimism	scissors
acquit	criticize		optimistic	seize
acquitted		immediately		sentence
affect / effect	deceive	impostor	paid	separate
all right (not alright)	definite	incidentally	parallel	sergeant
allot	definition	inconsistent	particularly	sheriff
allotted	dependent	independent	passed/past	siege
already / all ready	describe	indispensable	pastime	similar
amateur	description	inevitable	performance	sincerely
ambulance	desirable	inoculate	permanent	sophomore
among	despair	insistent	permissible	subtle
analysis	desperate	interfere	persistent	succeed
apparent	develop	interrupt	persistence	sufficient
appearance	development	irrelevant	personal/personnel	supersede
appropriate	different	irresistible	picnicking	suppress
argument	dilemma		planning	surprise
asylum	dining	jeopardy	playwright	sympathy
basically	disappoint	judgment	possess	
beginning	disaster	knowledge	practically	temperament
believe	disastrous		precede	than/then
benefit	discipline	laboratory	prefer	their/there/they're
benefited	doesn't	leisure	preferable	thoroughly
benefiting	dominant	lead/led/lead	preference	to/too/two
bureau		library	preferred	tournament
business	economical	license	preferring	traffic
buy / by	efficiency	lieutenant	prejudice	transfer
	eighth	lightning	preparation	transferred
calendar	eliminate	loneliness	prerogative	transferring
campaign	embarrass	losing	prevalence	tremendous
cannot	environment	luxury	privilege	tragedy
category	equipped		procedure	truly
cemetery	essential	maintenance	proceed	
changeable	exaggerate	maneuver	prominent	unanimous
character	excellent	marriage	pronunciation	unnecessary
characteristic	existence	meant	psychology	until/ till (not 'til)
chief	explain	medieval	publicly	urgent
choose / chose	explanation	mischievous	pursue	useful
coarse / course	extraordinary	misspell		vacuum
college		mortgage	questionnaire	vengeance
coming	fascinating		quiet	weird
commit	fatal	naive		weather/ whether
commitment	February	naivete	receipt	which/ witch
committed	finally	narrative	receive	woman/ women
committing	forth/ fourth	necessary	recognize	writing
committee	forty	niece	recommend	
comparative	friend	ninth	refer	your/ you're
compel		noticeable	reference	
competition	government		referral	
conscience	grammar	obedient	referred	
conscientious	grateful	occasion	referring	

XII. LITERARY TERMS

anecdote - A brief story told to illustrate a point

antagonist - The person or thing fighting against the hero of a story; the villain or “negative force”.

article - A piece of nonfiction writing (i.e. a newspaper article)

autobiography - The story of a person’s life, written by that person

ballad - A narrative poem that tells a story about ordinary people who have had unusual adventures or have performed daring deeds. Most ballads have four-line stanza and are often meant to be sung.

biography - The story of a person’s life written, written by someone else.

cause and effect essay - This essay describes how one event or series of events leads to another.

There are four steps in the process:

1. identify the causes (events)
2. arrange the causes in sequential order
3. identify the effects of the events
4. prove that one event happened because of another

character - Characters are the people who carry out the action in literature.

chronological sequencing - placing events in the order in which they occurred.

climax - It is the highest point (turning point) in the action of the story.

compare/contrast - When comparing two subjects similarities are pointed out; when contrasting two subjects differences are pointed out.

conflict - A struggle between opposing forces It can be *internal* (inside a character) or *external* (with a person or force outside the character)

criticism - The act of interpreting and/or evaluating a literary work

critique - A critical dissertation or essay; a careful and thorough analysis of any subject

description - A type of writing that has as its purpose presenting a picture, in words, of some subject.

drama - Literature that develops plot and characters through dialogue and action; drama is literature in play form.

epic - A long story, often in verse, involving heroes and gods and providing a portrait of a culture, of its legends, beliefs, value, laws, arts and ways of life.

essay - A short written treatment of a particular subject. It may be either personal recollections and experiences, or objective, research-based explorations of a specific topic.

expository writing - Factual writing that presents information about a topic. It is designed to instruct, clarify, explain or define a concept. Expository writing never includes opinions.

expressive writing - Descriptive writing about personal feelings, attitudes, ideas, values or beliefs.

fable - A brief story with animal characters told to illustrate a moral.

fiction - A literary work, in prose, that tells about imaginary people, places and events.

flashback - A conversation, scene or an event that happened before the beginning of a story, or at an earlier point in the narrative.

folk tale - A brief story passed by word of mouth from generation to generation.

free verse - Poetry that avoids the use of regular rhyme, rhythm, meter, or division into stanzas.

genre- A kind or type. Literary genres include short story, poetry, nonfiction, novel, and drama.

image - A word or phrase that names something that can be seen, heard, touched, tasted or smelled.

irony - A word or phrase to mean the exact opposite of its normal meaning.

legend - A story, which may be partially or wholly true, about a hero or heroine.

lyric poem - A short, highly musical verse that expresses the thoughts and emotions of a speaker.

mood - This is the feeling a reader gets from a story.

moral - This is the lesson an author is trying to teach in his story.

myth - This story tries to explain a certain belief, especially a belief about nature or religion.

narrative - Any work of prose, poetry, or drama, fictional or non-fictional that tells a story.

nonfiction - Any literary work, generally prose, that presents factual information or that presents actual people, places and events.

novel - A long work of prose fiction.

parable - A short story which explains a certain belief or moral.

paraphrase - This means to restate, usually in clear, simple words that are easily understood.

parody - A literary work that imitates another work for humorous, often satirical purposes.

periodical - a magazine, newsletter or of the publication that is issued on a regular basis.

persuasive writing - Writing that has as its purpose convincing others to adopt some belief or take some action. Persuasive writing presents opinions.

plot - This is the action of the story. It is usually made up of a series of events called the plot line.

point of view - The position or angle from which a story is told.

protagonist - This is the hero/heroine of the story.

proverb - A short, memorable statement that is passed by word of mouth from person-to-person usually over generations.

Purpose - The aim or goal of a piece of writing.

satire - A humorous literary work, in prose or poetry, in which a writer pokes fun at something in order to point out errors.

setting - The time and place of a story.

short story - A brief fictional work dealing with a single conflict. The four main elements of a short story are setting, character, plot and theme.

suspense - A feeling of curiosity, expectation, or anxiety created in the reader by questions about the outcome of the events in literary work.

symbol - A person, place, object or idea that stands for something beyond itself.

tall tale - A story containing wildly exaggerated characters and events.

theme - This is the subject or message being written about or discussed.

thesis statement - A statement of the main idea of an essay. The thesis statement appears in the introduction.

tone - This is the author's attitude or feeling about a piece of writing.

tragedy - A type of drama in which actions and events turn out disastrously for the main character or characters.

XII. SCOPE AND SEQUENCE CHART FOR GRADES K-10

Parts of Speech & Related Forms	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Nouns, Personal Pronouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Conjunctions			I	M	R	R	R	R			
Adverbs				I	M	R					
Singular/Plural Noun Forms				I	M	R					
Comparative/Superlative Forms of Adjectives				I	M	R					
Helping Verbs				I	M	R					
Simple Verb Tense				I	M	R					
Prepositions & Interjections						I	M	R			
Perfect Verb Tense & Conjugation of Verbs						I	M	R			
Possessive & Reflexive Pronouns						I	M	R			
Nominative, Objective Pronouns, Case							I	M	R		
Relative, Demonstrative, Indefinite, Interrogative Pronouns							I	M	R		
Predicate Adjectives								I	M	R	
Antecedent Agreement								I	M	R	
Predicate Nominatives & Predicate Adjectives								I	M	R	
Gerund, Participles, Infinitives									I	M	R
Punctuation	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Use of Period		I	M	R							
Commas for Series, Dates, Places		I	M	R							
All Punctuation End Marks			I	M	R						
Apostrophe				I	M	R	R	R	R		
Commas (Appositive & Direct Address) & Quotation Marks						I	M	R	R		
Colon, Semi-Colon, & Hyphen							I	M	R		

Grammar Skills & Structure	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Manuscript	I	M	R								
Recognize & Identify Vowels & Consonant and Demonstrate Phonemic Awareness	I	M	R								
Recognize Sentence Fragment	I	I	M	R							
Use of Capitals for Sentences & Proper Nouns	I	M	R								
Write a Sentence, Space Words Appropriately			I	M	R						
Produce 3-5 sentences that express complete thoughts and tell a story.			I	M	R						
Combining Sentences			I	M	R						
Cursive Writing			I	M	R	R					
Subject Verb Agreement				I	M	R	R	R			
Avoid Overuse of “so, and, then”					I	M	R				
Prepositional Phrase & Appropriate Use of Punctuation							I	M	R		
Compound Sentence & Appropriate Use of Punctuation							I	M	R		
Paragraph Format					I	I	M	R			
Parallel Sentence Structure								I	M	R	
Complex Sentence Structure								I	M	R	
Clauses & Appropriate Use of Punctuation								I	M	R	
Verbals									I	M	R
Active & Passive Voice										I	M

SECTION TWO:**PREPARATION FOR THE MCAS (*Massachusetts Comprehensive Assessment System*)****I. EXPLANATION AND REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MCAS**

MCAS was implemented in response to the Education Reform Law of 1993, which required that MCAS be designed to measure student performance on the Commonwealth of Massachusetts Curriculum Frameworks learning standards. Presently, students take tests in English Language Arts, Mathematics, Science & Technology, and History and Social Studies. All content areas use multiple choice questions and open-response questions. Additionally, the Mathematics test has short-answer questions, and the English Language Arts test requires students to write a composition based on a writing prompt. Scorers use a rubric to evaluate both open-response questions and compositions.

II. WRITING PROMPT TERMS

analyze - To break something into its parts, describe the part and show how the parts are related to each other and to the whole.

categorize - To put items into categories; to classify them.

cite - To refer to or mention as an example or proof.

coherent - To make a piece of writing coherent, one organizes the ideas and uses transitions to connect them.

compare - To show the similarities between two or more subjects.

contrast - To explain the differences between two or more subjects.

convey - To show or illustrate.

describe - To tell about something in detail.

effect - The result or consequence of something. For example, the images and events in a horror story might have the effect of creating suspense.

evaluate - To judge the merits of something.

evidence - Facts given in support of an opinion or argument. These include quotations, paraphrases, summaries and descriptions.

excerpt - A section from a longer work.

explain - To tell why or how something is the way it is.

express - To make a statement that reveals thoughts or feelings.

generalization - A broad statement, one that implies but does not itself mention specific instances or particulars.

illustrate - To give an example.

inference - A conclusion that can be drawn from a set of facts.

interpret - To explain the meaning or significance of something.

judgment - An opinion as to the value or worth of something.

key idea - A part of a piece of writing that is central to its meaning.

literary element - A part of literary work, such as plot, setting, mood or theme.

literary technique - A special device used in a literary work such a metaphors, alliterations, surprise endings.

main idea - The most important, key, or central idea in a piece of writing.

objective - Based on fact not opinion.

opinion - A judgment, belief, prediction or other statement that cannot be proved, absolutely, by observation but that can, if the opinion is sound, be supported by facts.

organize - To arrange ideas so that they follow logically from one another and so that relationships among the ideas are clear to the reader.

paraphrase - A restatement in other words.

passage - A short selection from a piece of writing, ranging in size from a couple of sentences to a few paragraphs.

prose - The ordinary language in speaking or writing.

relationship - A connection or association between two people, things or ideas.

relevant - Related to the matter or issue being discussed.

review - To examine something carefully and make a judgment about it based on the examination.

selection - A part of a literary work or other piece of writing; a complete work that is part of a collection or anthology.

specific - Particular, not vague or general. When an essay prompts you to be specific, you are being asked to give precise, detailed facts or evidence in your answer.

structure - The form and organization of a piece of writing. For example, an essay might have a five-paragraph structure, consisting of an introduction, three body paragraphs and a conclusion.

subjective - Based upon the opinions or experiences of an individual rather than upon observable facts that can be verified by others.

support - To provide evidence to back up a statement of fact or an opinion. In a paragraph, the sentences in the body support the topic sentence. In an essay, the paragraphs of the body support the thesis statement.

III. VOCABULARY AND COMMON TERMS FOR MCAS GRADES 7 & 8

Composition/Language and Literature

<u>Composition</u>	<u>Standards 19-22</u>
Writing Prompt	
Composition	19-22
Informational	
Descriptive	
<u>Language and Literature</u>	<u>Standards 4-17</u>
To show, To illustrate, To indicate	12
Onomatopoeia, Alliteration	15
Irony, Personification, Metaphor	15
Simile, Theme, Tone, Flashback	15
Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Adjective	5
Adverb, Interjection, Conjunction	5
Preposition	5
Almanac, Thesaurus, Atlas, Dictionary	7
Dictionary Use	7
Theme, Genre, Tone, Imagery	11
Poetry, Stanza	9
Autobiography, Biography	10
Nonfiction, Fiction	10
True-to-Life Adventures	10
Science Fiction, Fantasy, Suspense	10
Explain, Describe, Evidence	12
Motivation	9
Writer's Purpose:	
To instruct, persuade, entertain, inform	10
Exclamation point, Semicolon, Comma	5
Legend, Myth	10
Characteristics	9
Letter Formats	10
"Main purpose..."	13
"Most likely..."	9
"Which of the following quotes..."	13
"Reference to..."	11
"Use information in the story to..."	13

IV. GRADE 7 LONG COMPOSITION WRITING PROMPT FROM 2001

WRITING ASSIGNMENT

Age has a funny way of making changes. It is probably easy for you to look back and see that you and your friends have made some major changes since you left the elementary grades. Your teachers and friends may be different, your school may be different, and some of your interests are probably different. Think back to fourth grade and describe how school has changed for you as a seventh grader.

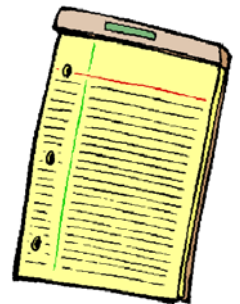
Topic/Idea Development 6 Points

I have numerous memories of Elementary School. How many things have changed since then? Maybe a hundred, or a thousand, possibly a million? All this I know is for a fact is that many aspects of my live are different now, yet I can't say if this is for 'better or for worse.'



The curriculum has differed, the teachers are not so "easy going" as they were back in the fourth grade. I remember, how if I was absent in Elementary School, I'd use the absence as an excuse for not having the work, and !Poof!, like a magician had waved his wand there was one less labor to perform. When in Middle School though this could not be done. My sixth grade teacher would chase after me to remind me of the duties I had missed; and it was essential for the sake of my grade that they were done. Slowly, because of authority always keeping me in line, the habit of always completing my work, every assignment we did, even those I had to make-up, to the best of my earthly ability, was instilled in my mind. Jumping forward to this year in seventh grade, no one chases after you to make-up work. They seem to trust us to do the right thing towards your grade, make-up work, just try your best. . . This trust I believe will cause us to mature even more with our schoolwork in the following years to come.

Another "change" is the teachers. They seem to have different personalities every year. The professors get more severe in class as the grades rise in succession, yet their personalities are more animated (at least the side of them they let us see,) than the everlasting, almost sickening sweetness of the fourth grade teachers. (Though my teacher was an exception to this.) They seem to play a very predictable role in a play of a kind adult. That was fine then, but now it is delighting when a teacher is truly interested in your opinion, or when you can tell they respect your ideas. I don't ever remember having that happen when I was younger. Back then it was just us children dutifully learning, and proclaiming our opinions which were supposedly insufficient to hold an adult's interest. As I've



already mentioned this respect is one of the things we go to school to learn how to earn.

Lastly, I want to point out that my whole reason for going to school has changed. I don't strive everyday to better my work, just because someone told me to. The small accomplishments now, will help me intensify rewards later. (Like getting into a great college.) Working for my future is what I like to do. Just like if you want someone to love your writing, you have to put your own passion into it: if you need something to do your best for. . . I'd say just do it for yourself and your future. No longer like in the 4th grade do I go to school out of necessity! . . . I go for my life.

School is unmeasurably different for me now. I go to earn trust, and respect for my work from my teachers. I go for a promise of a fantastic future, that I will build for myself. Who knew such a change could come in just a few years?

Topic/Idea Development 3 Points

Changes

There have been changes since elementary grades. There have been changes in my feeling. There have been changes in my subjects. And there have been changes in the size.

At _____ I felt happy. It was easy to get around. About everybody knew me there. I felt safe there too. I was nervous. I didn't know what it will be like. The size of the building was complicated to get around _____. There were too many doorways and corridors.

In both schools we have the same subjects. The subjects Math, Science and English are the same. Both schools have good people and teachers. The help is the same.

Finally, _____ Middle school has become easier for me. I feel more comfortable at _____. I feel I know more now and have more things and skills. I know more now.

Topic/Idea Development 2 Points

In the grade I went to The _____ School. The _____ School is up the street from the school I now attend. The _____ Middle School. There have been good change and bad change in three years.

In 5 grade Was Different than 7 grade because in 4 grade We have recess and lunch Mother Children in fourth grade treat each other kindly. My favorite teacher was _____ because she taught us lot.

In 7 grade is very different from 4 grade because We Don't have recess. The day is broken up Differently we go home earlier We do harder work my favorite Teacher in middle school is _____. She is Always Nice I feel like she really care about me.

Standard English Conventions 4 Points

There are numerous amounts of changes from fourth grade to seventh grade. I am more advanced with school work. I am wiser, and more prepared for life. Teachers now, expect more of me. I am more devoted to school and more concerned with working than playing. Assignments and classes are more difficult and there are more strategies to completing an assignment. The school is larger and filled with kids form all over the city.

One significant change during my schools years of fourth grade to seventh is I am more advanced with school work and life. I accept my responsibilities as a seventh grader and I am more prepared for what is to become of me. I am wiser and more confident with myself. I believe that I can achieve my goal as a student and not give up.

Another change is there is more expected of me. My teachers expect me to do my best, and I do. I am no longer a child. I can do a numerous amount of things without struggle or hesitation. I am expected to complete my assignments and play my role as an accelerated student. I can achieve more than I could in the past. I have grown up to be a smart and intelligent person in life. I am an academic achiever and will continue to be as the years pass me by.

Devotion is one of the main things that have changed for me over the years. I am devoted to my work, my teachers and myself. I am more connected with school work rather than playing and not taking life as seriously as when I was in the fourth grade. I realize that I have standards to reach and they are to fulfill my place in school. I put more effort into my place as a student who goes to school to learn. I accept my job as a student and a person who is devoted to life and school

As a student in middle school, many different assignments are given and the originality of the class is shown clearly. I use different strategies to do my work. I use different steps and make different actions to get started. I am more responsible to prepare what I want done before I do it. There are certain challenges I have to take with school. I am older now and I think with an older mind. I work out my thoughts and ideas before I start

assignments. I start one way but I may imply to change my mind. I make them as important as they can be and without a doubt, complete them.

One very obvious change is the school is larger and filled with many more students. There are different minds all over where everyone thinks differently. We're all different whether it is physically or emotionally. The classes are bigger and more is done in them. All over the school there are different faces, smiles and sizes. Everyone uses different steps and reacts differently to situations we all go through. We all came from different parts of the city, but we come together at school. In junior high we meet new people. We make new friends and keep the old. School brings us closer and into a group than may change the aspect of our lives.

In conclusion, those are the changes for me in school from the fourth grade to seventh grade. I am more advanced, wise and prepared for life and what's ahead of me. More is expected of me from myself and teachers. I am more devoted and concerned with my school work and achievements. There are different classes and assignments along with different reactions and steps for them. The school is larger and filled with kids from all over. Over the past three years, school has changed, and so have I.

Standard English Conventions 2 Points

Some things that have changed for me from the fourth to seventh grade are things like my behavior, teachers and classes.

When I was in fourth grade I got in a lot of fights. I was always suspended. I also always had bad grades in seventh it all got better.

With the teachers it was a lot more different in fourth grade the teachers were nicer. But the teachers are meaner in seventh grade.

In classes at seventh grade we have wood working and electry and I love that so classes are fun, in fourth grade they were really easy. So I guess it's a big difference. I have gone to different schools & met different people. I know a lot changed with the time but people that would notice more are my teachers. I've tried harder to do good in school, not to be the one to start a fight and more. I'm also getting better grades. But can't get to change more to do my best.

Standard English Conventions 1 Point

I can only remember back in third grade when I would always ask my teacher when was it the end of the day because I was on a soccer team. I believe the team was called the blizzards. We as in the team won about nine out of eleven wim practically all, I can think of except the work.

V. SCORING RUBRIC FOR LONG COMPOSITION

Terms used in this rubric

Topic development: the overall effect of the paper.

Organization: the degree to which the paper is focused, clearly and logically ordered, and clarified by paragraph.

Details: the degree to which the paper includes examples that develop the main point.

Language/Style: the degree to which manipulation of language, including vocabulary, word choice, word combinations, and sentence variety is effectively achieved.

CONTENT: Six is the highest score and one is the lowest score.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Little topic/ idea development, organization, and/ or details	Limited or weak topic/ idea development, organization, and/ or details	Beginning level topic/ idea development and/ or organization	Good control of topic/ idea development and organization	Full topic /idea development	Rich topic/ idea development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Little or no awareness of audience and/ or task 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Limited awareness of audience and/ or task 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Basic supporting details •Some variety in language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Adequate, relevant details •Some variety in language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Logical organization •Strong detail •Appropriate use of language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Careful and clever organization •Effective /rich use of language

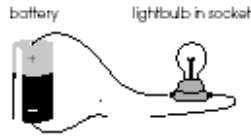
GRAMMAR AND USAGE: Four is the highest score and one is the lowest score.

1	2	3	4
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Errors seriously interfere with communication •Little control of sentence structure, grammar and usage, and mechanics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Errors interfere somewhat with communication •Too many errors relative to the length of the essay or complexity of sentence structure, grammar and usage, and mechanics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Errors do not interfere with communication •Few errors relative to length of essay or complexity of sentence structure, grammar and usage, and mechanics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Control of sentence structure, grammar and usage, and mechanics (length and complexity of essay provides opportunity for student to show control of standard English conventions.)

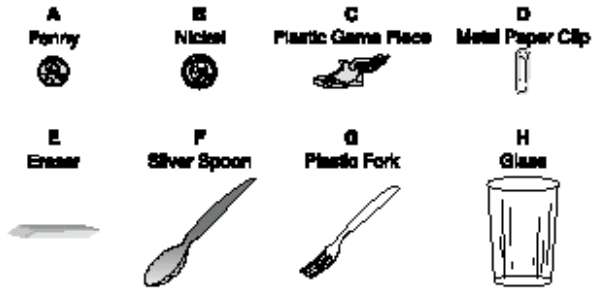
VI. SAMPLE MCAS OPEN RESPONSE QUESTIONS 2001

Grade 5 Science and Technology/Engineering

Use the picture below to answer question 10.



10. Siobhan gathered the materials shown above for a science experiment. She is going to use the equipment to test different objects to see if each object is a conductor or an insulator. The objects she plans to test are shown below.



- Define "conductor" and "insulator."
- Create a chart to show which objects will be conductors and which will be insulators.

Reporting Category/Subcategory for Item 10: *Physical Sciences (Physics and Chemistry)/Electrical Energy (p. 307)*

Grade 5 Science and Technology/Engineering Question 10; Score Point 4

A conductor is something that lets electricity go through easily.

An insulator is something that doesn't let electricity go through easily.

Conductor	Insulator
penny	plastic game piece
nickel	eraser
metal paper clip	plastic fork
silver spoon	glass

Grade 5 Science and Technology/Engineering Question 10; Score Point 3

Conductor - something energy will flow through
 Insulator - something energy won't flow through

Conductor	Insulator
A. penny	C. plastic game piece
B. nickel	D. metal paper clip
F. silver spoon	E. eraser
	G. plastic fork
	H. glass

Grade 5 Science and Technology/Engineering

Grade 5 Science and Technology/Engineering Question 10; Score Point 2

I think the metal paper clip is the best one to use because it will let the electricity flow through the metal cords that are hooked up onto the batteries and paper clip. Because the metal goes through the other types of metal and I think out of all of them the paper clip is the best one to try to make something work like that.

Conduct - A part of the system this is used to conduct electricity.

Insulator - A part of the system that is used to make electricity go through the metal cord or wire.

Conductors, silver spoon, paperclip, nickel

Insulators - penny, plastic game piece, fork, eraser, glass

Grade 5 Science and Technology/Engineering Question 10; Score Point 1

A) Conductor means to have something that's work. Insulators means to have something that does not work for a long wire. Conductor means to have something that works and when you put the battery in it will work. If you keep pushing the battery probably the battery will run out. Then you might have to put a new battery in the product you were doing. I think the teacher would get made at you. You have to be careful when you work with electricity. You should never use water.

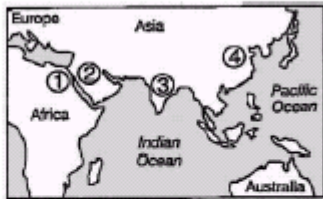
conductors	Insulators
plastic	eraser
penny	silver spoon
water	plastic fork
dime	glass
nickel	
metal paper clip	
ring	
neckless	

Grade 5 Science and Technology/Engineering Question 10; Score Point 0

- Define conductor and insulator are little germs but are not germs like atoms they have more then one atom put together.
- Conductor and insulator plastic is conductor and hard store like stial like paper chips chage a sponds are insulator

Grade 5 History and Social Science

14. The map below shows where the ancient civilizations of China, Egypt, India, and Mesopotamia developed.



Choose ONE civilization to answer parts a and b.

- a. Write the name of the civilization you have chosen. Write the number from the map that shows where that civilization was located.
- b. Describe TWO important things for which this civilization is known.

Reporting Category/Learning Standard for Item 14: *World History/Historical Understanding* (p. 401)
Core Knowledge Topic: *Human Beginnings and Early Civilizations (Prehistory to 1000 B.C.)* (p. 406)

**Grade 5 History and Social Science
Question 14; Score Point 4**

Silk robes and bowls of rice is what I think whenever the country China is in my mind. China is one of 4 beginning civilizations in the world and is number 4 on your map.

China has invented many fabulous materials for the world, here are two of them:

Paper was invented in China, but it is not in the shape as it is now. There used to be long sheets, and it was thin, crisp and easy to wrinkle or torn. But if paper wasn't invented, what would this test be made of? Wood? Stone?

The Compass was invented in China, but like the paper, it wasn't as creative as the compasses now. But one difference was that it pointed south and now it pointed north. But, without the compass, many explorers would be lost and died out at sea.

**Grade 5 History and Social Science
Question 14; Score Point 3**

Egypt 1

Egypt was known for its pyramids wich were used as tombs for pharos. Egypt is widly known for it's mummification ritoal wich involves cleaning the body oiling the body. Then finally the body wrapped in the tomb with its belongings.

**Grade 5 History and Social Science
Question 14; Score Point 2**

China

Number: 4

China is known for ther holidays and richuals. Like the Chinese dragon and in your are born in different months or spiret. Im a Leo. They are also known for fire crackers.

**Grade 5 History and Social Science
Question 14; Score Point 1**

A. China is what I chose it is a number 4 on this map The civilization is located in chine town (I think)

**Grade 5 History and Social Science
Question 14; Score Point 0**

For mine I picked #4 this is a place that was found by Pargo Polar on this land he found many good stuff like sugar, gold, and lots of more And alno he know where this place was and he was not going to tell anyone about it until the day he dies. Another thing it is know for its land they have very nice land that is easy to grow stuff on that is #2 things that Asia is known for

Grade 6 Mathematics

Use the picture below to answer question 9.



- 9 Marion wants to rent a canoe to go out on a lake. The cost is \$2.00 plus \$1.50 for each hour.
- Make a table showing how much it would cost to rent a canoe for 1, 2, 3, and 4 hours.
 - Using numbers, symbols, and the variable n , write an expression for how much it would cost to rent the canoe for n hours.
 - Marion has \$14.00. What is the greatest number of hours she can rent the canoe? Show your work or explain how you found your answer.

Reporting Category for Item 9: Patterns, Relations, and Algebra (p. 214)

Grade 6 Mathematics
Question 9; Score Point 4a

a)

hours	1	2	3	4
cost	3.50	5.00	6.50	8.00
\$				

b) n $\$1.50 + \$2.00 =$ cost to rent the canoe for n hours

c) $\$14.00 - \$2.00 = \$12.00$ (8 hours)

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1.50 \overline{) 12.00} \\
 \underline{12.0} \\
 0
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 1.5 \\
 \underline{8} \\
 12.0
 \end{array}$$

Grade 6 Mathematics
Question 9; Score Point 3

start with \$2.00 for the cost

a.

Hrs.	1	2	3	4
Cost	\$1.50	\$3.00	\$4.50	\$6.00
Total	\$3.50	\$5.00	\$6.50	\$8.00

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \$1.50 \\
 \underline{\times 2} \\
 \$3.00
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 \$1.50 \\
 \underline{\times 3} \\
 \$4.50
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{r}
 \$1.50 \\
 \underline{\times 4} \\
 \$6.00
 \end{array}$$

b. cost to rent canoe for n hours

as an expression = $\$2.00 + n \times \1.50

c.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \$14.00 \\
 \underline{-2.00} \\
 \$12.00
 \end{array}$$

← cost for canoe

$$\begin{array}{r}
 8 \\
 1.50 \overline{) 12.00}
 \end{array}$$

↑

(8 hours)

Marion has \$2.00 left, so you divide \$1.50 (cost per hour) into \$12.00 to see how many hours she can rent it for.

Grade 7 Language Arts-Language & Literature

Grade 6 Mathematics
Question 9; Score Point 1

1 hour	2 hour	3 hour	4 hour
\$3.50	\$7.00	\$10.50	\$14.00



canoe for rent
←

1 hour cost \$ 3.50
2 hour cost \$ 7.00
3 hour cost \$10.50
4 hour cost \$14.00

I got my answer by adding \$3.50 to 2 hours, 3 hours, and 4 hours.

Grade 7 Language Arts – Language & Literature

I Ask My Mother To Sing

She begins, and my grandmother joins her.
 Mother and daughter sing like young girls.
 If my father were alive, he would play
 his accordion and sway like a boat.

I've never been in Peking, or the Summer Palace,
 nor stood on the great Stone Boat to watch
 the rain begin on Kuen Ming Lake, the picnickers
 running away in the grass.

But I love to hear it sung;
 how the water lilies fill with rain until
 they overrun, spilling water into water,
 then rock back, and fill with more.

Both women have begun to cry.
 But neither stops her song.
 -Li-Young Lee

13 Why do you think the women continue to sing their song even though they have begun to cry? Use information from the poem to support your answer.

Reporting Category: Learning Standard for Item 13: Literature Learning Standard 14 (p. 123)

**Grade 7 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
 Question 13; Score Point 4**

The women in this poem continue singing even though they are crying for a few reasons. First of all, because they might be thinking of the dead father (line 3) and they could be crying over that. The girl telling the story says if he were alive, he would be playing his accordion. When the poet explains the scene with the waterlilies filling themselves with water, and draping “water onto water,” that might be a metaphor for the mother and the grandmother crying together. Also, maybe they love the song very much because it brings back good, but painful memories. In the second stanza the poet explains that she’s never been to the Summer Palace or any place important of beautiful like that. Maybe the women are sad but do not want to stop thinking of those memories of the late father.

**Grade 7 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
 Question 12; Score Point 3**

I think the women do not stop singing because the tears are tears of joy. They could be tears of joy and happiness because they are singing about fond memories of places that they have been before, so they do not wish to stop singing. They are singing of their past times that the little girl has never been to, and wish for her to know about Peking, the Summer Palace, etc.

**Grade 7 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
 Question 12; Score Point 2**

The continued to sing because it reminds them, and brings back fond memories, also the place where they are singing about maybe beautiful. Also they are singing for the child.

**Grade 7 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
 Question 12; Score Point 1**

I think they continue to sing even though they have begun to cry because they are crying about memories that they are thinking about.

**Grade 7 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
 Question 12; Score Point 0**

Their father is dead.

Grade 8 Language & Literature

- 23** Explain why the gods were so pleased with Baucis and Philemon's treatment of them. Use specific details from the story to support your explanation.

Reporting Category/Learning Standard for Item 23: *Literature/Learning Standard 11 (p. 157)*

**Grade 8 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
Question 23; Score Point 4**

The Gods were extremely pleased with Philemon and Baucis's show of generosity. They were amazed and pleased to see how poor folk, with very little for themselves, were so caring and generous to strangers while rich folk, who had plenty to give, refused to show some hospitality. The Gods were pleased with the nature of Baucis and Philemon. In the story Baucis and Philemon had little food which was very plain yet they presented it to their guests graciously. They lit their fire ablaze and warmed the house. They brought their finest cloth and placed it on the mattress for the travelers. The gods realized that these people, so poor and so plain, were more caring than anyone they encountered. The gods were shocked how poor people would give their best material and do their best to entertain strangers, while rich people would dismiss the strangers cold heartedly. The gods were pleased to find that there was a balance of good. People were faithful to their gods and justice did prevail. The Gods were pleased that good will towards men still existed and people still were caring for others.

**Grade 8 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
Question 23; Score Point 3**

The Gods were so pleased of Baucis and Philemons generosity. When they visited the rich houses, no one bothered with them because they were mere strangers. When they reached the cabin and were let in, they knew the old couple was different. The gods were pleased with the treatment because the couple gave them the best that they had to offer. The generosity from the old couple pleased the gods very much, than what the others did to them.

**Grade 8 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
Question 23; Score Point 2**

1. I think the gods were so pleased because Baucis and Philemon didn't know that there visitors were god's until the end and even before that they greeted Zues and Hermes like good friends even though they were total strangers. So Zues and Hermes were pleased because of their generosity to strangers.

**Grade 8 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
Question 23; Score Point 1**

Because people who had would not give but people who did not have that much would give.

**Grade 8 English Language Arts (Language and Literature)
Question 23; Score Point 0**

the god's were pleased becas Brucis and Philemon got along in the storry so that is way the gods are happy. Becase they were Life Long friend's.

Grade 8 Mathematics

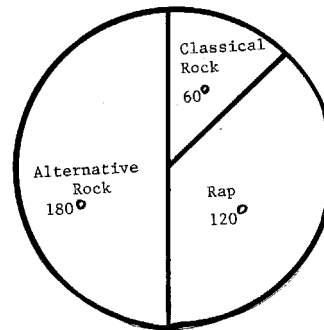
23 An eighth-grade class took a survey and found that the most popular types of music in their school were alternative rock, rap, and classic rock. They took a second survey to find out the students' preference among these three types of music. These are the results for 120 students.

Favorite Types of Music		
Alternative Rock	Rap	Classic Rock
60	40	20

- Make a rough sketch of a circle graph displaying these data. Tell how many degrees should be in each sector of the graph.
- Explain how you found the number of degrees for each sector.

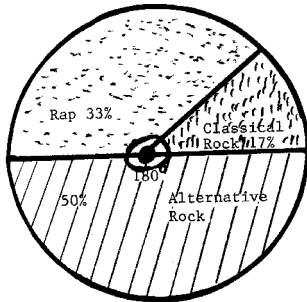
Reporting Category for Item 23: Data Analysis, Statistics, and Probability (p. 288)

**Grade 8 Mathematics
Question 23; Score Point 3**



First, I divided the amount of boys that like Alternative Rock into 120, and saw that it was half of 120. So I then divided that into 360°, because that is the amount of degrees in a circle, and saw that there should be 180° for alternative rock. I then went back and did the same thing for the Classical Rock and Rap.

**Grade 8 Mathematics
Question 23; Score Point 4**



$$\frac{40}{120} = \frac{x}{360}$$

$$360 \times 40 \div 120 = 120$$

$$\frac{20}{120} = \frac{x}{360}$$

$$360 \times 20 \div 120 = 60$$

boys who like alternative rock

how many degrees?

$$\frac{60}{120} = \frac{x}{360}$$

total number of boys

degrees in a circle

$$\frac{40}{120} = \frac{x}{360}$$

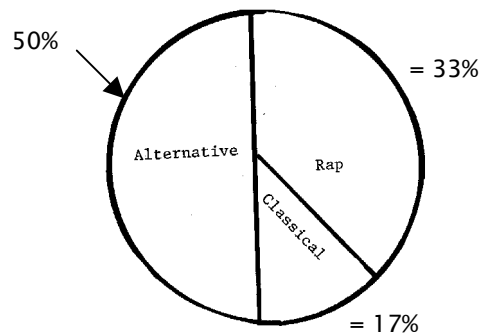
Cross multiply,
 $360 \times 60 \div 120 = 180^\circ$

$$360 \times 40 \div 120 = 120^\circ$$

$$\frac{20}{120} = \frac{x}{360}$$

$$360 \times 30 \div 120 = 60^\circ$$

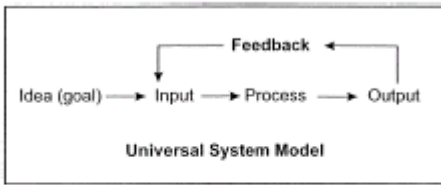
**Grade 8 Mathematics
Question 23; Score Point 2**



You take the number of boys and put them into a fraction so say alternative rock you were trying to figure out you would put 60 over 20.

Grade 8 Science & Technology/Engineering

Use the Universal System Model below to answer question 10.

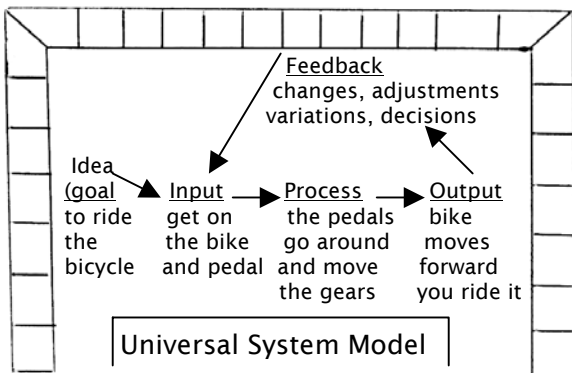


10 Using the parts of the Universal System Model, describe how a bicycle operates. Be sure to identify each of the parts of the system. You may use a diagram to help explain your answer.

Reporting Category/Subcategory for Item 10: Technology/Engineering / Engineering Design (p. 381)

**Grade 8 Science
Question 10; Score Point 4**

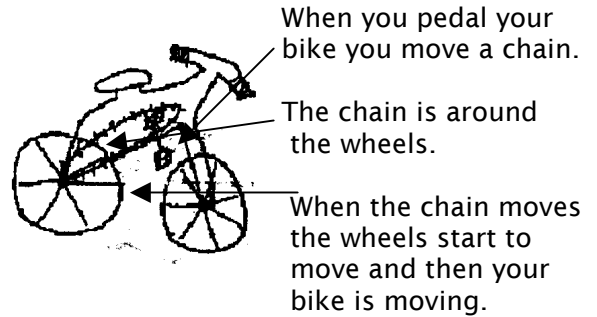
Using the Universal System Model, I can describe how a bicycle operates. First, the goal or idea is to ride the bicycle. The input is to get on the bike and pedal. The process is that the pedals go around, moving the gears. The output is when the bicycle moves forward, and you are riding it. The feedback is any changes or adjustments that you find necessary to make as you ride the bicycle. If you see a puddle, it is probable you will steer the bicycle around it. If you get to an intersection, you know to stop. The feedback is all of the variations, timing, and decisions you make when riding your bicycle. This is how the Universal System Model is used to describe how a bicycle operates.



**Grade 8 Science
Question 10; Score Point 3**

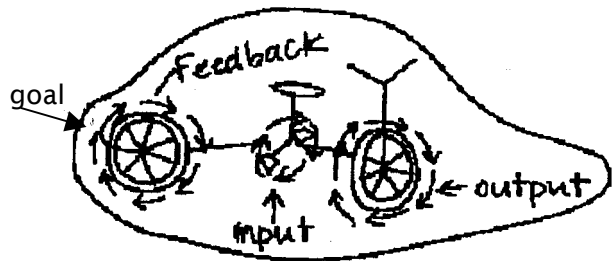
A bicycle operates by:

Idea (goal)	Input	Process	Output
get the bike moving	pedals to make the bike go handles to steer	pedal bike keep your balance	bike starts to move



**Grade 8 Science
Question 10; Score Point 2**

A bicycle operates by a person pushing on the pedals, making the input and the output is the front wheel turns. The feedback is the wheel turning and reaching our goal. Our goal being our destination where we plan on going. In other words a bike works just like universal system model.



**Grade 8 Science
Question 10; Score Point 1**

By using the Universal System Model a bicycle operates by pushing down on the pedals and rotating them with your feet, while rotating the pedals you have to steer the bike with the handle bars. By using the Universal System Model you start out as your goal to ride a bicycle then a tire pops or the bracks don't work then you have to go back and fix them. This is how you use the Universal System Model.

Grade 8 History & Social Science

14. Although the Declaration of Independence states that “all men are created equal,” at the time those words were written all people living in the American colonies were **not** treated equally.
- Identify and explain three examples of inequality in colonial American society.
 - Explain how **one** of those examples of inequality was addressed in the United States Constitution or through amendments to the Constitution.

Reporting Category/Learning Standard for Item 14: U.S. History/Society, Diversity, Commonality, and the Individual (p. 430)
 Core Knowledge Topic: The American Revolution: Creating a New Nation (1750 to 1816) (p. 432)

**Grade 8 History and Social Science
 Question 14; Score Point 4**

Even through the Declaration of Independence states that all men are created equal, they were not. All African Americans were not even close to being equal with other citizens of the United States, for the obvious reason that most were slaves. African Americans were treated closer to animals than equal human beings. During colonial times most women were not permitted to leave their house let alone have the same rights as an equal citizen. The Native Americans during colonial times were killed and pushed off their rightful land without a thought. Throughout colonial times many people living in America were hardly given respect let alone human rights.

After time, the issue of African American’s rights were dealt with, with amendments to the Constitution. During the Civil War, the Emancipation Proclamation was proclaimed, giving an end to slavery. After the Emancipation Proclamation was issued it was put into the Constitution as an amendment to end slavery. Then, after the mistreatment of African Americans, an amendment was added, stating African Americans have equal protection under the law. Finally the amendment was added giving African Americans the right to vote.

**Grade 8 History and Social Science
 Question 14; Score Point 3**

A. Although the Declaration of Independence states that “all men are created equal,” all people were not created equal. This statement did not apply to African Americans who held as slaves and could not vote, learn or even be near white people sometimes. This also excluded people who were poor and uneducated. Hastly, this statement did not include women. Women could not vote, speak in public, or even make decisions for themselves. All of these were changed through amendments in the constitution. Women were given suffrage, or the

right to vote in amendment 19 of the constitution in the year 1919.

**Grade 8 History and Social Science
 Question 14; Score Point 2**

- Three examples of inequity in colonial American society were rights of blacks, women, and poor white people.
- The rights of blacks eventually earned three amendments to the constitution in defense for the blacks. Those amendments include the 13th, 14th and 15th. These amendments allowed blacks their freedom, and the right to vote. In conclusion, after many hard years for rights, they finally got what they deserved.

**Grade 8 History and Social Science
 Question 14; Score Point 1**

- 1 - African Americans = Slaves. They were beaten and such.
 2 - Indians = Indians were forced off their land and moved west.
 3 - Immigrants = Most immigrants were not killed by companies, even if the company needed work.
- Something about life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

**Grade 8 History and Social Science
 Question 14; Score Point 0**

- Three examples of inequity in Colonial American Societies was one that just because they were living in American colonial societies didn’t mean they shouldn’t be treated equal. Another example is that they couldn’t be treated equal different. Lastly, they didn’t treat them equally because they may have done or lived their lives and different way.
- Just because the Colonial American Society was different did mean that they couldn’t be treated equal. This applies to the amendment that everyone is treated equally not matter what they look like.

OPEN-ENDED RESPONSE SCORING RUBRIC

Note: All question-specific scoring guides are based on the General Scoring Guide.

SCORE POINT 4

You respond effectively and accurately to all important components of the question.
You demonstrate in-depth understanding of the relevant concepts and/or processes.
Where appropriate, you offer insightful interpretations or extensions
(generalizations, application, analogies).

SCORE POINT 3

You respond effectively and accurately to most important components of the question.
You demonstrate an understanding of major concepts even though you overlook or
misunderstand some less important ideas or details.

SCORE POINT 2

You respond effectively and accurately to some important components of the question.
You demonstrate that there are gaps in your conceptual understanding.

SCORE POINT 1

You show minimal understanding of the question.
You address only a small portion of the question.

SCORE POINT 0

Your answer is totally incorrect or irrelevant.

BLANK

You did not give any answer at all.

VII. Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT 8)

Mission Statement: The Metropolitan Achievement Test is a test used in the elementary and middle schools as a measure of the academic competency of its students as well as a prognosticator of possible achievement at the high school level.

The following areas are covered by the MAT 8 in language:

1. Knowledge of the following resources and their components: newspaper, dictionary, thesaurus, atlas, telephone book, encyclopedia, and almanac.
2. Identification of fragments, run-ons, and unnecessary information in paragraph writing, as well as adding information to a paragraph for fluency.
3. Capitalization
4. Verb tense
5. Combining sentences
6. Punctuation
7. Syllabication
8. Skills in letter writing
9. Spelling
10. Vocabulary: definitions, homographs, homophones, and multiple meanings
11. Semantic webs, topics and subtopics