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The Bromfield School



Writing Guide

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Writing Reference Sheet

Rules for Formatting

A. Present writing assignments on standard size paper
B. All writing assignments must be typed
    1. size 12 font
    2. Times/Times New Roman font
    3. black ink
    4. double spaced
    5. no extra spaces between paragraphs
C. Indent five spaces for each paragraph
D. Use one inch margins all around
E. Number all pages after the first with Arabic numerals (i.e. 1, 2, 3…) in the upper right-hand corner with your last name preceding the number, i.e. *Smith 4*
F. Use the correct heading as shown:

Subject/Period	Name
Assignment	Due Date
Title	

G. Staple all pages together in the upper left-hand corner
H. Have pride in your product – present it neatly and cleanly

Correction Symbols

^	add words
/	divide
. ,	incorrect punctuation
[ ]	omit
	one word
¶	paragraph
	reverse order
abb *or* w/o	write word out
ag	agreement
ant?	unclear pronoun reference
awk *or* k	awkward
C *or*	capitalize
CPR	careless proof reading
cs	comma splice
FE	format error
frag	sentence fragment
MLA	MLA form incorrect
NC	not clear
no ¶	do not paragraph
NP	not in parallel structure
NS	not a sentence
POV	point of view error
rep	repetitious
RO	run on sentence
sl	slang
sp	spelling
SS	vary sentence structure
trans	transition needed
VT *or* T	verb tense
WC	word choice
wdy	wordy
Word	do not capitalize
WW	wrong word

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Acknowledgments

The authors of this guidebook would like to thank the following local high schools for sharing their writing manuals with us:

- Brookline High School, English Department, *The Manual*
- Newton North High School, *Newton North Writing Handbook* (3rd edition)
- Wellesley High School, English Department, *Writing Lab Handbook* (revised edition 2004)

To create this guidebook, the authors also referred to several already existing guidebooks, published in print and/or on the Web. For further, more detailed, information on writing process, style, and mechanics, interested students should consult any one of these sources which proved helpful in creating this guidebook:

- *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers, Fifth edition,* Joseph Gibaldi, 1999.
- *Reader's Handbook: A Student Guide for Reading and Learning,* Laura Robb, Ron Klemp, and Wendell Schwartz, 2002.
- *Warriner's English Grammar and Composition, Third Course,* John Warriner, 1982.
- *Write for College: A Student Handbook,* Patrick Sebranek, Verne Meyer and Dave Kemper, 1997.
- *Writers Inc: A Student Handbook for Writing and Learning,* Patrick Sebranek, Verne Meyer and Dave Kemper, 2001.
- *Writing with Sources: A Guide for Harvard Students, revised edition,* Gordon Harvey, 1996.

Much of this guidebook includes material that is taken directly from, or only partially revised from, handouts and materials previously created by the authors themselves for use in their individual classrooms. While individual credit is not given in particular sections of this guidebook, the authors wish to thank them for sharing their work so generously.

The full committee of people who created this guidebook are:

English Department:	Karen Bucholc, chair; Robin Brown, Sarah Dille, Christopher Jones, Donna Lanza, Joan Larason, Michael McGarty, Miranda Miller, Peter Murphy
Social Studies Department:	Karen Deneen, chair; Steven Besold, Kathleen Doherty, Kevin Foster, Scott Hoffman, Maryellen McGarty, Peter Murphy, Amy Sciple
Special Education Department:	Davida Bagatelle, Michelle Creaven, Earl Maurer

Special thanks to our Focus Group Co-Chairs, Michelle Creaven and Christopher Jones, who coordinated and oversaw the entire process of developing the guidebook and to Kathleen Doherty who was instrumental in seeing this project to fruition.

Introduction

Writing is one of the most fundamental, but challenging aspects of many students' school careers. Good writing not only helps a student to effectively communicate his or her thoughts, but in many instances the writing process can help students understand what those thoughts are. Learning how to write and improving the craft of writing is an ongoing process. That being said, this guide is meant to serve as a reference for students, parents, and teachers alike in helping students consistently construct their best writing, across subjects and across grade levels. The guide does not replace writing instruction in the classroom but rather serves as a support, supplement, and resource.

The idea for this writing guide had been in the works for many years, but the actual work of formally putting it together began during the 2004-05 school year. The English department, the Social Studies department, and several members of the Special Education department worked together during early release professional time to develop it. Some parts of the guide drew from materials that these teachers had produced over the years while other parts were created in subcommittees. The group also drew from similar manuals used in area high schools and colleges, and consulted many of the popular writing guides available on-line and in the library. Over the summer of 2005, three of those teachers (one from each department) worked together to revise and format what the larger group had created and compiled during the previous school year.

After piloting a working draft with the class of 2009, for the 2005-06 school year, the editors took constructive feedback from community, staff, and students and implemented the feedback in what is now a polished 1st edition, first 'published' in the 2006-2007 school year. We hope it proves helpful to anyone who comes in contact with it.

Writing Reference Sheet

Writing Checklist

A. Organization

- ❑ Did you grab your reader's attention?
- ❑ Did you clearly state your topic?
- ❑ Did you support your main idea with sufficient details?
- ❑ Did you arrange your details in a logical order?
- ❑ Did you use effective transitions within and between paragraphs?
- ❑ Did you summarize your point?
- ❑ Did you leave your reader with something to think about?

B. Mechanics

- ❑ Have you spelled all words correctly?
- ❑ Have you used all homonyms correctly?
- ❑ Have you used proper punctuation?
- ❑ Have you checked for proper capitalization?
- ❑ Have you used the same verb tense consistently?
- ❑ Have you eliminated all run-on sentences and sentence fragments?
- ❑ Have you spelled out numbers under 10 and abbreviations?

C. Word Choice

- ❑ Have you varied your vocabulary?
- ❑ Have you avoided clichés, slang, and casual language?
- ❑ Is your word choice appropriate for the assignment?
- ❑ Is your word choice specific?

D. Polishing

- ❑ Have you proofread your paper by reading it aloud?
- ❑ Have you eliminated all awkward and confusing sentences?
- ❑ Have you used a variety of sentence structures and lengths?

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Constructing an Essay

All formal essay writing should contain three essential sections:
the Introductory Paragraph, the Body or Central Paragraphs, and the Concluding Paragraph.

Introductory Paragraph ***STATING YOUR CASE***

- Begins with a hook or "grabber"
- Introduces the topic, moves from a general to a specific topic (gets more focused)
- States *thesis*
  - A *thesis* gives the main idea or focus of an essay
  - Should be one or two sentences that clearly states an original case, argument, slant or perspective in thought
  - Should be the last sentence(s) in the introductory paragraph

Body or Central Paragraphs ***ORGANIZING YOUR EVIDENCE***

- Sustain the thesis with a variety of evidence and supporting details
- Include three components: the Topic Sentence, Supporting Details, and a Concluding Sentence

  Topic Sentence
  - Connects to and helps support the thesis
  - Contains the main idea(s) of a body paragraph

  Supporting Details
  - Follow the topic sentence and are logically or sequentially presented
  - Help prove or explain the topic sentence
  - Should be varied
  - Can include but are not limited to the following: examples, facts, anecdotes, quotes, statistics, textual evidence, and/or citations

  Concluding Sentence
  - Summarizes, reaffirms, evaluates or ties back to the topic sentence of the body or central paragraph
  - Reinforces the thesis
  - May transition to the next paragraph or topic

Concluding Paragraph ***DELIVERING YOUR SUMMATION***

- Rephrases the thesis or central argument
- Summarizes the main points
- Connects to a larger picture

  Suggestions:
  - Leave a lasting image for the reader, "a clincher"
  - Speculate, evaluate, judge, place an idea in relationship to other ideas
  - Link the paper to today and tomorrow: make a historical or literary connection to past, present, and or future events

Writing Process Reference Sheet

Writing Process for Formal Essay Writing	Suggestions
1. Brainstorm/Prewrite	→*Think about your piece: try mapping, webbing, or using templates.*
2. Identify the Topic/Subject/Thesis	→*Move your topic to a specific subject, then develop your thesis.* →*Verify that your argument satisfies the assignment.*
3. Organize	→*Carefully arrange your ideas, materials, and notes; make an outline.*
4. Write First Draft	→*Organize your ideas and draft your essay.* →*Confer with teacher, peer, or other reader.* →*Review assignment requirements.*
5. Revise (for content)	→*Evaluate content: identify strengths, target weaknesses, eliminate redundancies.* →*Add information: try an anecdote, strengthen with additional supporting details.* →*Delete information: is this necessary? Does this support my topic sentence?* →*Rearrange information: does this belong here; is there a more appropriate paragraph for this information?*
6. Write Second Draft	→ *Have a writing conference.* → *Review assignment requirements.*
7. First Edit (edit for organization and mechanics)	→ *Refer to* ***Writing Checklist*** **on the back cover** *(organization and mechanics section).*
8. Oral Reading check	→*Read or have someone read your paper aloud to you so that you can hear and recognize the errors in your writing.*
9. Second Edit (edit for word choice and polishing)	→ *Refer to* ***Writing Checklist*** **on the back cover** *(word choice and polishing sections).*
10. Publish Final polished essay*****	

<u>Note</u>: reading <u>ALOUD</u> throughout the writing process is strongly encouraged.

Answering an Open Response Question

READ the question quickly, then re-read looking for specific key words to help you construct your answer.

HIGHLIGHT specific key words and ideas in the question. Circle or underline the "direction word" or verb in the question. This will tell you what to do with the information: analyze, compare, describe, etc.

READ EVERYTHING ELSE you are given before starting to answer. Don't just look at the question. Read any introductory statements, charts, diagrams, maps, reading passages, and/or any background information that is provided.

IDENTIFY EACH PART of the question. Look for signals such as A and B or the word "and." Put a number beside each part to check later if you have done all you were asked to do.

QUICKLY ORGANIZE your thoughts to answer the question. Think like the teacher: what will the person grading your answer expect you to know and say?

NOTE any key words or ideas you want to include. When appropriate, use specific terms that show you know the subject matter.

SUPPORT your answer with facts, figures, statements from what is provided, as well as prior knowledge. Show any problem-solving steps you take such as calculations, charts, and graphs. Make sure you also explain in correct terms what you have done.

EDIT and revise your answer. Ask yourself:

- Did I take the time to identify (mark) information in the reading that will support my answer?
- Does my answer cover all parts of the question?
- Am I using quotes or direct evidence right from the reading sample as part of my answer? (when applicable)
- Does my answer "flow" – are the ideas and evidence organized?
- Does the answer come to a conclusion?

Essay/Writing Question Terms

Good answers to essay questions depend in part upon understanding the meaning of the important words in the questions. A paper is satisfactory only if it directly answers the question that is asked. The words that follow are frequently used in essay examinations and writing assignments:

ANALYZE:	separate something (a work, an item, an issue) into parts or elements and examine parts thoroughly as they contribute to the whole
COMPARE:	identify and explain the points of similarity **and/or difference**
CONTRAST:	identify and explain the differences
CRITICIZE:	state your opinion on the merits of an item or issue; criticism may approve or disapprove
DEFINE:	give the meaning of a word or concept; place it in the class to which it belongs and set it off from other items in that class
DESCRIBE:	create a picture in words; tell about; give an account of
DISCUSS:	consider from various points of view; present different sides
EXPLAIN:	interpret; make clear; tell how and/or why
EVALUATE:	give the good points and the bad ones; appraise; give an opinion regarding the advantages and/or limitations or value of something
ILLUSTRATE:	use a concrete example to clarify a point
INTERPRET:	translate; make plain; give the meaning of or your thinking about
JUSTIFY:	show good reasons for; give evidence; present facts to support your position
PROVE:	establish the truth of something by giving factual evidence or logical reasons
SUMMARIZE:	give the main points briefly; condense
TRACE:	follow the course of or progress of

Basic Guidelines For An Outline

What is an outline? An outline is a point-by-point organization of the topics a paper will address, including supporting details. Think of an outline as "the skeleton" of your paper. In an outline, you decide what information you plan to present and in what order.

Some writing guides indicate that you should only use short phrases in an outline and not complete sentences. These are known as *topic outlines* and have the advantage of being brief. Other guides prefer the use of *sentence outlines*, in which the ideas are expressed in complete sentences. Sentence outlines give the reader a clearer idea of what you will argue. Still other guides suggest that you should feel free to mix sentences and phrases as needed. Unless your teacher indicates otherwise, **in your outlines, you may use a mixture of sentences and phrases**.

Whichever format you choose, be clear and concise. When using phrases, be careful that your phrases are not so brief that your meaning is vague or unclear to the reader. Similarly, when you use sentences, use only one at a time – do not write consecutive sentences or paragraphs under any heading or subdivision. When you write your outline, you are writing the PLAN for your paper; you are not writing the paper itself.

Why write an outline? An excerpt from the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*:

> For research papers, outlining can be a particularly useful intermediate activity between researching and writing…**An outline will help you to get an overall view of your paper and, perhaps more important, to figure out how each section of the paper relates to the others. Thus, developing an outline can help you to see the logical progression of your argument**… help you organize your ideas and the accumulated research into a logical, fluent, and effective paper…
>
> **Keep your thesis statement and your audience in mind**. Include only the ideas and information that will help you accomplish what you have set out to do and that will lead your readers to care about your investigation, your presentation, and your conclusions…
>
> It is also a good idea to indicate in the outline, specifically and precisely, the quotations and reference sources you will use. All this planning will take a good deal of time and thought, and you may well make several preliminary outlines before arriving at the one you will follow. But the time and thought will be well spent. The more planning you do, the easier and more efficient the writing will be. **(34-37)**

An outline shows relationships, distinguishing between major parts of the essay and the supporting details. **Major parts are indicated by capital roman numerals.** [I, II, III, etc.] These parts should clearly relate to the thesis. **Chief divisions within a major part are indicated by indented capital letters.** [A, B, C, etc.] **Subdivisions within these divisions are indicated by arabic numerals, further indented.** [1, 2, 3, etc.] **Smaller subdivisions are indicated by lowercase letters, indented still further.** [a, b, c, etc.] Still smaller subdivisions – although they are rarely needed because they are apt to provide too much detail for an outline – are indicated by smaller roman numerals, again indented. [i, ii, iii, etc.]

Sample of indentation format

(**Note**: this is a SAMPLE. Outlines will vary in format.)

I. _____

A. _____

1. _____

a. _____

b. _____

i. _____

ii. _____

2. _____

B. _____

II. _____

A._____

B._____

1. _____

2. _____

C. _____

III. _____

A._____

B._____

C._____

The point of indenting is to make the relationship among the parts visibly clear to the reader. If you use **I**, **II** and **III**, you are identifying three major points that are roughly equal. Under point **I**, **A** and **B** are parts roughly equal to each other, and so on. The outline is a sort of table of contents.

Outlines cannot have a single subdivision. For every **I** there must be at least a **II**; for every **A** there must be at least a **B**; for every **1** there must be at least a **2**, for every **a** there must be at least a **b**. Why? If you have only one subdivision, it doesn't need to be a subdivision – it can be incorporated into the previous heading.

Unless assigned otherwise by your teacher, you generally do NOT include the introduction or the conclusion in your outline.

Student Notes and Questions

Plagiarism

Plagiarism is intentionally or inadvertently taking credit for somebody else's words or ideas.

Acts of Plagiarism:

- Copying another student's work
- Turning in another student's paper as your own
- Copying any amount of text from an electronic source (including, but not limited to, the Internet)
- Copying any amount of text from a print source
- Purchasing work and turning it in as your own
- Working with a partner or group *on an individual assignment*
- Having someone write the paper for you
- Expressing ideas other than your own without citation
- Passing off the ideas of another as your own

Guidelines for Avoiding Plagiarism:

- Use quotation marks to show when you are borrowing material from another writer, even if it is only a phrase or key word.
- Be careful to separate your own ideas from the ideas of others, especially when summarizing and paraphrasing.*****
- Make sure to properly cite and credit all ideas that are not your own. (See section on citations.)
- When in doubt, cite. It is better to be too careful than not careful enough.
- Remember, teachers are there to help you. Ask them any and all questions about the assignment and questions about when and how to document others' ideas.
- Regardless of your intention, do not loan or share your work with others.

***Paraphrasing** is a restatement of a text or passage in another form in order to clarify or inform. When paraphrasing, you must always give credit to the original author.

Examples of Plagiarism:

The passage below is taken from:
Sager, Robert J., David M. Helgren and Alison S. Brooks. *People, Places, and Change*. Austin: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 2003.

The passage discusses seawater agriculture involving a plant called glasswort.

> Glasswort requires frequent watering because it absorbs water slowly. The water that stays in the ground becomes much saltier than seawater. As a result, the plants must be watered frequently. In sandy desert soils the water quickly drains back to the sea. Therefore, salts do not build up in the root zone. Salt buildup in the soil affects some 20 percent of the world's fields irrigated with freshwater. For example, this has happened in California's Central Valley. When salt buildup occurs, drainage systems must be built. These systems are very expensive.

Example #1: One type of plagiarism is copying word for word without quotation marks or acknowledging the author of the source.

Original Text: Glasswort requires frequent watering because it absorbs water slowly.

Plagiarized Version: Glasswort requires frequent watering because it absorbs water slowly.

How to Correct: *Use quotation marks and cite when taking words directly from the source*.

Corrected Version: "Glasswort requires frequent watering because it absorbs water slowly" (Sager 245).

Example #2: Another type of plagiarism is using some key words or phrases without quotation marks or acknowledging the author or the source.

Original Text: In sandy desert soils the water quickly drains back to the sea. Therefore salts do not build up in the root zone.

Plagiarized Version: Sandy desert soils do not hold water very well. Irrigated fresh water drains quickly back to the sea, leaving very little salt buildup in the root zone.

How to Correct: *Paraphrase thoroughly and note any unique phrases with quotation marks, making sure to cite properly.*

Corrected Version: As a result of the arid earth's inability to retain water, irrigated fresh water rapidly moves towards the ocean, leaving little salt buildup in the "root zone" (Sager 245).

Example #3: Another type of plagiarism is paraphrasing but using sentence structure and/or vocabulary that is too similar to the original text.

Original Text: When salt buildup occurs, drainage systems must be built. These systems are very expensive.

Plagiarized Version: When excess salt occurs, drainage systems must be constructed. These systems are costly.

How to Correct: *Paraphrase by using a new sentence structure and vocabulary and then cite the material*.

Corrected Version: The buildup of salt necessitates the construction of drainage systems, and unfortunately, these systems are costly (Sager 245).

Example #4: Another type of plagiarism is paraphrasing correctly, but providing no author or source credit.

Original Text: As a result, the plants must be watered frequently.

Plagiarized Version: Glasswort must be hydrated often.

How to Correct: *Cite the material, giving your source the appropriate credit.*

Corrected Version: Similar to other plants, it is necessary to hydrate glasswort often (Sager 245).

Example #5: Another type of plagiarism is using an author's idea, specific example, or specific information without crediting the author or the source.

Original Text: Salt buildup in the soil affects some 20 percent of the world's fields irrigated with freshwater. For example, this has happened in California's Central Valley.

Plagiarized Version: Salt in fresh water from irrigated fields can increase the content by at least 20 percent, as happens in California's Central Valley.

How to Correct: *Properly cite the original author's idea/example/information.*

Corrected Version: Salt in fresh water from irrigated fields can increase the soil's salt content by at least 20 percent, as happens in California's Central Valley (Sager 245).

Basic Guidelines for a Bibliography/Works Cited Page

What is a bibliography? A bibliography is a list of all the relevant sources that you used in your research. It includes any source that you consulted, even if you did not refer to/cite it in your paper.

What is a works cited page? A works cited page is a list of only the sources that you have *cited* in your text.

When a writer incorporates outside information/facts/ideas - whether directly or indirectly - into the text, he or she must document, or *cite*, the source(s) of that information. Sources are most commonly cited within a paper either parenthetically or with endnotes or footnotes. Refer to the section in this guide on "Citing Your Sources."

Note: A bibliography and a works cited page both follow the same format.

Why do I need to make a bibliography/works cited page? It is important to document sources correctly as a first step in acknowledging your sources and avoiding plagiarism.

Is there only one correct way to format a bibliography/works cited page? There are many different formats for documenting your sources. One popular format, used by many high schools and colleges, is the Modern Language Association (MLA) format, upon which these guidelines are based. Other popular formats include the APA (American Psychological Association) Style, the Chicago Style and the Turabian Style. Unless otherwise indicated by your teacher, use the following guidelines.

Where can I find more detailed information on bibliographies and works cited pages? For more information on bibliographies and works cited pages, as well as other aspects of writing a research paper, refer to the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*.

What are the most basic rules for bibliography/works cited format?

- Do NOT number the entries in a bibliography.
- Items are arranged in alphabetical order according to the last name of the author.
  - If the author's name is not given, alphabetize by the first word of the title.
    - If the first word of the title is *a, an* or *the*, alphabetize by the second word in the title.
    - If the first word is a number (10, 2001, 1984) alphabetize the entry *as if* the number were spelled out: ten, two thousand and one, nineteen eighty-four
- If an entry runs more than one line, the second line (and any additional lines) should be indented.
- Single space within an entry, and double space between entries. (**Note:** this rule is not the MLA style guideline, but many people think it looks better and it takes up less paper!)
- In the past, titles of books (and other sources) were underlined. Today, it is common practice to *italicize* them. Either one is technically correct, but *italics* are often preferred. In any case, do not switch back and forth between *italicizing* and underlining titles in a single paper.

  Note: This applies to titles of works that stand alone - books, magazines, newspapers, etc. Titles of shorter works within a work (ex: short stories, articles, or poems) are not italicized or underlined; they are put into quotations marks. Refer to the guidelines!

What are some examples of the most commonly used bibliography/works cited entries?

Book by a single author Author's last name, author's first name. *Title of book.* City where published: name of publishing company, year of publication.

Example: Harr, Jonathan. *A Civil Action*. New York: Vintage, 1996.

Edited book Editor's last name, editor's first name, ed. *Title of book.* City where published: name of publishing company, year of publication.

Example: Lopate, Phillip, ed. *The Art of the Personal Essay: An Anthology from the Classical Era to the Present.* New York: Anchor-Doubleday, 1994.

Book with two (or three) authors (or editors) (Write the authors' names in the order they appear on the title page – even if they are not in alphabetical order.)

Primary author's last name, primary author's first name, and second (and third) authors' first and last names (in regular order). *Title of book*. City where published: name of publishing company, year of publication.

Example: Rabkin, Eric, Martin H. Greenberg, and Joseph D. Olander, eds. *No Place Else: Explorations in Utopian and Dystopian Fiction.* Carbondale: Southern Illinois UP, 1983.

Book with more than three authors (Use the name of the author that appears first in the list, even if the list on the title page is not alphabetized.)

Primary author's last name, primary author's first name, et al. *Title of book*. City where published: name of publishing company, year of publication.

Example: Berkin, Carol, et al. *American Voices: A History of the United States, 1865 to the Present.* Glenview, IL: Scott Foresman – Harper Collins, 1995.

Article in a *well-known* encyclopedia (like *Britannica*, *World Book*, *Americana*)

Author's last name, author's first name. "Title of encyclopedia article/topic." *Name of encyclopedia*. edition number (if stated). year of publication.

Examples: Foner, Eric. "World War Two." *Encyclopedia Britannica*. 1996.

"World War II." *World Book Encyclopedia.* 1998.

Article in all other encyclopedias include FULL publication information, not just the year.

Author's last name, author's first name. "Title of encyclopedia article/topic." *Name of encyclopedia*. Editor (if given). City of publication: name of publisher, year of publication.

Example: Robbins, Jeremy. "World War II." *Family Encyclopedia of American History*. Pleasantville, NY: The Reader's Digest Association, 1975.

Article in a newspaper (or magazine)

Author's last name, author's first name. "Title of article." *Name of newspaper* date month. year: page number(s) of article.

- Unlike most other entries there is no period after the name of a newspaper or magazine.
- Do not include the volume and issue numbers, even if they are listed.
- Months are abbreviated (Jan., Feb. Mar., etc.) except for May, June and July.
- If the newspaper has different editions (*natl. ed.* or *late ed.* or *eastern ed.*) note that.
- If the article is longer than one page and runs *consecutively*, write the inclusive page numbers: 5-7, or 43-44. If the article does not run on consecutive pages, write the first page number and a + sign: 3+, or D1+. Either way, do NOT write p. or pp. for page.

Examples: **Note**: These four entries are in correct alphabetical order. The second entry has no author, so it is alphabetized by the title (in this case by the second word of the title because it starts with "the".)

Baminer, Wendy. "The Last Taboo." *New Republic* 14 Oct. 1996: 24+.

"The Decade of the Spy." *Newsweek* 7 Mar. 1994: 26-27.

Peterson, Thane, and Julia Flynn. "A Beautiful Market for Art." *Business Week* 30 Dec. 1996 – 6 Jan. 1997: 148-149.

Trachtenberg, Jeffrey A. "What's in a Movie Soundtrack? Catchy Tunes and Big Business." *Wall Street Journal* 1 Apr. 1994, eastern ed.: B1.

Interview (conducted by the author) (Use the name of the person interviewed, not your name!)

Last name, first name. Personal (or telephone) interview. Date month. Year. (of the interview)

Examples: Brooks, Sarah. Personal interview. 15 Oct. 2003.

Gilpin, Dawn. E-mail interview. 28 May 2004.

Poulos, Jeff. Telephone interview. 29 Sep. 2003.

Film/Documentary on video or DVD

Title. Director (or editor/producer if a documentary.) Optional – include names of lead actors/performers. Video or DVD. Distributor, year of release.

Note: If it is an older film, recently released, also include the *original* release year.

Examples: *It's a Wonderful Life*. Dir. Frank Capra. Perf. James Stewart and Donna Reed. 1946. DVD. Republic, 1998.

Medicine at the Crossroads. Prod. By BBC TV. Videocassette. PBS Video, 1993.

Article from a CD-ROM

Last name of author, first name. "Title of article." *Title of CD-ROM*. CD-ROM. Edition or version (if given). City where published (if given): name of publishing company (if given), year of pub.

Example: Kumbier, William A. "Science Fiction." *World Book 1997 Multimedia Encyclopedia*. CD-ROM. Deluxe ed. Cambridge: The Learning Company, 1997.

Internet sources

Citations for internet sources can sometimes be a bit more difficult because websites change frequently and the amount of publication information available often varies from site to site. You may not always find all of the information you need for the bibliography/works cited entry. For example, there is not always an author or a publication date listed for a website. Include as much information as you can – there should ALWAYS be a website title, your access date, and the web address.

Last name of author, first name. "Title of article." *Title of website.* Date of publication on the web (and/or date of latest update). Your date of access (the date you looked at it on the web) <web address>.

Examples: "French Architecture." *Highbeam Encyclopedia*. 22 July 2005. 26 Sep. 2006 <http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1E1-French-ar.html>.

Heasman, Sarah. "1964 Civil Rights Act." *History Learning Site.* Apr. 2002. 21 May 2006 <http://www.historylearningsite.coluk/1964_civil_rights_act.htm >.

Note: If you access material on the web that has been previously published somewhere else (in a newspaper, magazine, or other printed source) make sure to include BOTH sets of information. First, provide the information for the original printed source (refer to magazine, newspaper and other examples on the previous pages.) Then, provide the information about the website you found it on, following the format above.

Example: Lardner, George. "Buchanan Outlined Plan to Harass Democrats in '72, Memo Shows." *Washington Post* 4 Mar. 1996: A7. *Washingtonpost.com* 30 Jan. 2003 <http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-srv/national/longterm/watergate/stories/buchananmemo.htm>.

Sources found through The Bromfield Library Collections

You can find a number of excellent online resources through the Bromfield library (go to *http://www.psharvard.org/Bromfield/library.html* and click on the INFOTRAC icon.) When you use these sources in your bibliography/works cited, make sure to include the original publication information first (refer to the appropriate examples for books, encyclopedias, newspaper and magazine articles on the previous pages.) Then, include the name of the reference collection (*Expanded Academic, InfoTrac One File,* etc.) you used, followed by the correct Bromfield/Harvard information, your date of access and the general infotrac web address, as shown below.

Example: Buckley, Kevin. "Front Man for an Unpopular War: William Westmoreland and the Vietnam War." *The Nation* 30 Mar. 1985: 367+. *Expanded Academic ASAP* Gale Group Databases. The Bromfield School Library, Harvard, MA. 29 Apr. 2006 <http://www.infotrac.galegroup.com>.

Simon, Roger. "Watergate Twists Slowly, Slowly." *U.S. News & World Report* 24 June 2002: 29. *InfoTrac OneFile* Gale Group Databases. The Bromfield School Library, Harvard, MA. 10 Feb. 2005 <http://www.infotrac.galegroup.com>.

Citing your graphics (photographs, charts, graphs, cartoons, maps, etc.)

When you include graphics within or at the end of your paper, identify your source by noting the website address right underneath the image. Or, if you photocopied or scanned the graphic from a book (or other print source), indicate the title, author (if provided) and page number underneath the image. If you use a source only for a few graphics, it is usually not necessary to include that source in your bibliography/works cited page.

What would a complete sample bibliography (or works cited) page look like?

The title Bibliography (*or* Works Cited*) is centered, not underlined, and has no added words.* →

The first two entries have no author, so they are alphabetized by the first word of their title. (If there were no author, and the first word of the title was a, an *or* the, *you would alphabetize by the* second *word. Remember – do NOT alphabetize by* a, an *or* the.*)*

The Lewis entry is an example of an article which was first published in print, but was found by the student on the web; ***both*** *sets of publication information are required.* →

DON'T alphabetize by *a, an or* the. *This movie title starts with* The, *but is alphabetized by its* second *word* – Long. →

If an entry starts with a number, alphabetize as though the word were spelled out. This entry is alphabetized where 'nine' would go, as if 9/11 were spelled out in words. →

If you use two or more sources by the same author (ex:O'Connor) you only use the author's name in the first entry – after that, the author's name is replaced with ---. →

"A Visionary Hits Venice" is alphabetized by 'v' for 'visionary', NOT by 'a'. Remember – do NOT alphabetize by a, an *or* the.*)* →

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O'Connor, Thomas H. *Bibles, Brahmins and Bosses: A Short History of Boston*. Boston: Trustees of the Public Library of the City of Boston, 1991.

---. *The Boston Irish: A Political History.* Boston: Back Bay Books, 1995.

Thirteen Days. Dir. Roger Donaldson. Perf. Kevin Costner. DVD. New Line Productions, 2000.

"A Visionary Hits Venice." *Newsweek* 12 July 1999: 65.

Ward, Ann. Personal interview. 26 Apr. 2003.

"World War II." *Family Encyclopedia of American History*. Pleasantville, NY: The Reader's Digest Association, 1975.

Citing Your Sources

When writing a paper, you must let your reader know the sources of your information. This is done in a general way through a bibliography, and in a much more specific way through a works cited page combined with specific citations. There are different formats for citing your sources, depending on the field for which you are writing a paper and/or the number of sources that you are using.

- In a paper involving a close examination of one work or a comparison of two works, parenthetical citation is often the preferred format.
- In a research paper which utilizes several sources, endnote or footnote citation is often the preferred format.

The most important part of citing your sources is not the format you use, but knowing when to cite sources. The importance of clearly and consistently citing your sources cannot be overstated! Do NOT plagiarize! Plagiarism is cheating and it is unethical!

Always let your reader know where you got your information, whether it be a direct quote, a paraphrase, a summary or a particular piece of factual information or data (unless that information is clearly considered "common knowledge"). If you are unsure whether or not you need a citation, ask your teacher or simply err on the side of caution and cite your source. It is better to have too many citations than too few. With time and practice, you will become more sophisticated in knowing when you need to cite and when you don't. You will also get more specific directions from your teachers, depending on the subject, the grade you are in, and the specifics of the assignment. Here are some general guidelines:

When to cite:

- **whenever you use factual information or data you found in a source**
  (You do not need to cite "common knowledge". See below for more.)
- **whenever you use a direct quote** – whether it is a phrase, a complete sentence or several sentences
- **whenever you use someone else's thoughts** – this can include ideas, opinions, insights, observations, images, analogies, interpretations, and conclusions. It doesn't matter that you have paraphrased it or summarized it in your own words; you *still* need to let your reader know that these ideas originally came from someone else!

When not to cite:

- **You do not need to cite things that are considered "common knowledge."**
  Something can be "common knowledge" even if YOU didn't know it before you started your research. For example, if the facts or information in question are mentioned in almost every source you consult, it is probably common knowledge. Deciding what is common knowledge comes with practice – when in doubt, go ahead and cite ~ better safe than sorry! Some examples of 'common knowledge':
  - Japan attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941.
  - George Washington was the first president of the United States.
  - William Shakespeare is a famous British playwright.

Avoid unnecessary, repetitive citation: If you write two or three consecutive sentences in a paragraph that are clearly discussing the same topic, and the information in those consecutive sentences are all from the same part of one source, you do not need to put a separate citation at the end of each sentence. Instead, place *one* citation at the end of the last sentence in that discussion.

Parenthetical Citation

Parenthetical documentation gives credit to your source within the body of your paper rather than in endnotes or footnotes. This is done by placing the cited information in parenthesis at the end of the sentence.

General guidelines:

- In parenthesis immediately following the quotation, idea, or information, write the author's last name and the page number(s) on which the information is found.

- When working with *just one* source throughout a paper, use the author's last name and page number in the first set of parenthesis; any citation thereafter requires only parenthesis and page number(s).

Example of parenthetical citation using only one source:

Michael Henchard, the mayor of Casterbridge, is seen at the beginning of the novel selling his wife (in a drunken rage) to a sailor named Richard Newson. He wakes up the next morning, realizing the sad reality of what he has done: "A confused picture of the events of the previous evening seemed to come back to him, and he thrust his hand into his back pocket" (Hardy 3). He understands he is to blame and that his excessive drinking caused the entire situation. At this point a certain sense of shame pervades his character and Michael vows to abstain from liquor for 21 years: "'on my soul, I swear, not a drop'" (10).

- When working with *two or more sources* within a paper, you must use the author's last name every time you make a citation, unless you have clearly indicated in the sentence which author/source you are referring to; in those instances, only the page number is needed.

Examples:

Medieval Europe was a place both of "raids, pillages, slavery, and extortion and of "traveling merchants, monetary exchange, towns if not cities, and active markets in grain" (Townsend 10). But a kinder, gentler side did exist, one that placed emphasis on "family, the celebration of a successful harvest, reverence of the natural world, and faith in God" (Jones 102-3).

The thesis of the Task Force's report is that economic success depends on our ability to improve large-scale education and training as quickly as possible (14).

In Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein*, the doctor wonders, "How can I describe my emotions at this catastrophe, or how delineate the wretch whom with such infinite pains and care I had endeavoured to form?" (42).

- For a direct quote of four lines or fewer, the parenthesis comes after the quotation marks and the period comes after the parenthesis.
  Note: If the quote ends with a question mark or exclamation point, that particular punctuation would come *before* the quotation mark. A period would follow the parenthesis.

Examples:

Michael Henchard, the mayor of Casterbridge, is seen at the beginning of the novel selling his wife (in a drunken rage) to a sailor named Richard Newson. He wakes up the next morning, realizing the sad reality of what he has done: "A confused picture of the events of the previous evening seemed to come back to him, and he thrust his hand into his back pocket" (Hardy 3).

When she learns that Romeo is a Montague, Juliet exclaims, "My only love, sprung from my only hate! Too early seen unknown, and known too late!" (138-39).

In Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein*, the doctor wonders, "How can I describe my emotions at this catastrophe, or how delineate the wretch whom with such infinite pains and care I had endeavoured to form?" (42).

- For a direct quote that takes up more than four lines in the body of your paper use "block quote" format.
  - Introduce the blocked quotation with a colon.
  - Indent each line of the quotation 10 spaces.
  - Single space the quote. (**Note:** this rule is not the MLA style guideline, but many people think it looks better and takes up less paper.)
  - Do NOT use quotation marks.
  - The end punctuation mark follows the quotation immediately, before the parenthetical citation.
  - After the block quote the body of your paragraph continues without indentation.

Example:

In Part One of the novel, the reader meets a rather loathsome character named Mrs. Dubose whose obvious racism, unpleasant physical appearance, and venomous tongue frighten Jem and Scout. However, by the end of the section Atticus helps his children see their aging neighbor in a new light, and this fresh perspective has everything to do with courage:

> I told you that if you hadn't lost your head I'd have made you go read to her. I wanted you to see something about her—I wanted you to see what real courage is, instead of getting the idea that courage is a man with a gun in his hand. It's when you know you're licked before you begin but you begin anyway and you see it through no matter what. You rarely win but sometimes you do. Mrs. Dubose won, all ninety-eight pounds of her. (Lee 112)

Initially this comment from Atticus is difficult for Jem to understand and to be fair, the concept is abstract. Mrs Dubose, through no fault of her own, had developed a morphine addiction from…

Endnotes or Footnotes

As stated earlier, in a research paper which utilizes several sources, many teachers will require the use of endnotes or footnotes. This is because, as one guidebook notes, "citing by footnotes or endnotes adds minimal clutter into the body of your paper, and it disrupts the flow of your sentences less than other citation methods."[1]

These guidelines cover the basics of how to cite your sources using endnotes or footnotes. If you have specific questions that are not covered, simply ask your teacher and/or refer to the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*. Copies are available in the school library. (Note: The *MLA Handbook* is an excellent resource for information on *all* aspects of writing a research paper.)

When you have determined that you need to cite a source you indicate this by placing a superscript (raised) number at the **end of the sentence** in which the information is found. Put the number immediately after the ending punctuation mark, without a space in between. (As shown above in the first paragraph.) **The numbers should be consecutive throughout the paper** – do not start back at number 1 for each page. Each new item that you are citing gets its own new number; **do not repeat numbers**. The corresponding numbers will then be found at the end of the paper as endnotes, or can be placed at the bottom (foot) of the relevant page (as a footnote). **Most word processing programs have an endnote/footnote function that makes this easy to do. Look at your toolbar under 'Insert', then 'Footnote' (then select 'footnote' or 'endnote') – don't make unnecessary extra work for yourself!**

Use the guidelines below to put the correct information into the correct format.

Book by a single author: Author's first and last name, *Title of book* (City where published: name of publishing company, year of publication) page number(s).

Example: [2] Jonathan Harr, *A Civil Action* (New York: Vintage, 1996) 77-78.

Article in a newspaper (or magazine): (**Note:** the endnote/footnote format for an article is slightly different than that for a book; it does not have parentheses.)

Author's first and last name, "Title of article," *Name of paper or magazine* date month year: page number.

Example: [4] Jeffrey A. Trachtenberg, "What's in a Movie Soundtrack? Catchy Tunes and Big Business," *Wall Street Journal* 1 Apr. 1994: B1.

Book with two (or three) authors (or editors):

Primary author's first and last name, and second (and third) authors' first and last names, *Title of book* (City where published: name of publishing company, year of publication) page number.

Example: [12] Eric Rabkin, Martin H. Greenberg, and Joseph D. Olander, eds. *No Place Else: Explorations in Utopian and Dystopian Fiction* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois UP, 1983) 117-118.

Website:

Author's first and last name, "Title of article," *Title of website,* date of publication on the web (and/or date of latest update), your date of access (the date you looked at it on the web) <web address>.

Example: [18] Sarah Heasman, "1964 Civil Rights Act," *History Learning Site,* Apr. 2002, 21 May 2006 <http://www.historylearningsite.coluk/1964_civil_rights_act.htm >.

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[1] Gordon Harvey, *Writing with Sources: A Guide for Harvard Students* (Cambridge: Harvard University, 1996) 17.

Note: The information for an endnote/footnote entry is similar to that of a bibliography, but is in a **different format**. As an example, compare the bibliography/works cited entry for Gordon Harvey's book to the correct endnote/footnote entry which follows it:

bibliography/ works cited format

Harvey, Gordon. *Writing with Sources: A Guide for Harvard Students*. Cambridge: Harvard University, 1996.

endnote/ footnote format

[1] Gordon Harvey, *Writing with Sources: A Guide for Harvard Students* (Cambridge: Harvard University, 1996) 17.

- The first line of an endnote/footnote entry is always indented; subsequent lines (if any) are flush with the left margin. (In a bibliography, the second line is indented.)
- In an endnote/footnote entry, the author's first name is followed by the last name. (In a bibliography/works cited entry, the author's last name comes first.)
- Periods, commas and parenthesis show up in different places in the endnote/footnote entries than in bibliography/works cited entries.
- You need to note the *specific page numbe*r on which you found the particular information you are citing. (For a bibliography you usually don't include the page #.)

The first time you make a reference to a particular source, you must use the complete citation format (as indicated in the Gordon Harvey sample.) In subsequent references to that source, throughout the rest of the paper, use an abbreviated format, with just the author's last name, and the page number of the specific information you are referring to. Therefore, a later reference to Gordon Harvey would simply be noted as:

[5] Harvey 23. *(**Note**: there is **no** comma between the author's name and the page number.)*

If the source has no author, the abbreviated reference later in the paper would include just the title of the source and the page number of the specific information you are referring to.

Example:

Initial, full citation [3] "The Decade of the Spy," *Newsweek* 7 Mar. 1994: 26.

Subsequent, abbreviated reference [6] "The Decade of the Spy" 27. (**Note**: ***no** comma)*

Internet sources do not have page numbers. Your first reference to a website should have the full citation information. Later references would simply list the author's last name (or if there is no author, it would list the title of the source.)

Example:

Initial, full citation [23] "French Architecture," *Highbeam Encyclopedia*, 22 July 2005, 26 Sep. 2006 <http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1E1-French-ar.html>.

Subsequent, abbreviated reference [28] "French Architecture."

In instances where two or more works by the same author are used, the first reference to each source would use the complete citation format. Subsequent references should also include an abbreviated form of the title after the author's last name so that it is clear which source is being referred to. For example, if you are using two of David McCullough's books *The Great Bridge: The Epic Story of the Building of the Brooklyn Bridge* and *Path Between the Seas: The Creation of the Panama Canal, 1870-1914*, after you fully cite each of them the first time you refer to them, the subsequent references would look like this:

[9] McCullough, *The Great Bridge* 147.

[12] McCullough, *Path Between the Seas* 221.

*(**Note**: there **is** a comma between the author's last name and the title, but not between the title and the page number.)*

Below is a sample endnotes page. If you need more specifics, ask your teacher, and/or refer to the *MLA Handbook* or to other guides such as Kate Turabian's *Manual of Style for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations.* Remember: endnotes and footnotes both use the exact same format. Therefore, the format for the sample entries below would also apply if you use footnotes.

Many word processing programs start the endnotes right after the last part of your text – on the same page**. Endnotes should start on a new page, after your text, but before your bibliography/works cited.** You may need to manually enter spaces or insert a page break so that the endnotes start on a new page. In addition, you should type the word 'Notes' (not in italics, and not underlined) at the top of your endnote page.

There will often be a line that is automatically drawn between the end of the text and the beginning of the notes. If you use footnotes, leave that line on each page. With endnotes, delete the extra line if you can, but some programs may not allow you to do this easily. It is okay to leave this line on the page if it is too difficult to remove it. In that case, type the word 'Notes' underneath the line.

Many word processing programs will automatically put your notes into a smaller font – a size 10 or 11. The programs will usually single space both within and between the endnote or footnote entries. These automatic functions are typical, and you do not need to try to change them.

Notes for encyclopedia entries (entry # 2) do NOT require page numbers. →

All entries have the first line indented, even if the entry is only one line long. If your computer program doesn't automatically do this, you may need to enter the spaces manually (ex: entries # 2 and # 4) →

The second reference to Elizabeth Keegan's article (entries # 6 and then # 9) has only her last name – it is from a website, which usually doesn't have page numbers. The second reference to the WWII article (entries # 2 and then #11) has only the title because no author is provided and page numbers are not required for encyclopedia articles. → →

Notes

[1] David McCullough, *The Great Bridge: The Epic Story of the Building of the Brooklyn Bridge* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1983) 463.

[2] "WWII," *World Book Encyclopedia*, 1999.

[3] Alfred E. Lewis, "5 Held in Plot to Bug Democrats' Office Here," *Washington Post* 18 June 1972: A1, *Watergate 25*, 8 June 1997, 12 Feb. 2006 <http://www.washingtonpost.com/wpsrv/national/longterm/ watergate/ articles/061872-1.htm>.

[4] Hank Emerson, personal interview, 10 Dec. 2005.

[5] David McCullough, *Path Between the Seas: The Creation of the Panama Canal, 1870-1914* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1978) 659.

[6] Elizabeth Keegan, "Erwin Rommel," *The Valour and the Honor*, 2003, 20 Feb. 2006 <http://www.valourandhorror.com/DB/ BACK/Cobra.htm>.

[7] McCullough, *Path Between the Seas* 221.

[8] "The Long Walk Home," *Teach with Movies,* 1992, 4 Jan. 2006 <http://www.teachwithmovies.org/ guides/long-walk-home.html>.

[9] Keegan.

[10] "Atlantic Charter," *The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia,* 6th ed., *Infoplease,* 2005, 28 July 2005 < http://homeworktips.about.com/ gi/dynamic/ offsite.htm?site=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.infoplease.com-%2Fencyclopdict.html>.

[11] "WWII."

[12] McCullough, *The Great Bridge* 147.

[13] Sarah Heasman, "1964 Civil Rights Act," *History Learning Site,* Apr. 2002, 21 May 2006 <http://www.historylearningsite./1964_civil_rights_ act.htm >.

[14] Jeffrey A. Trachtenberg, "What's in a Movie Soundtrack? Catchy Tunes and Big Business," *Wall Street Journal* 1 Apr. 1994, eastern ed.: B1.

[15] Roger Simon, "Watergate Twists Slowly, Slowly," *U.S. News & World Report* 24 June 2002: 29, *InfoTrac OneFile* Gale Group Databases, The Bromfield School Library, Harvard, MA. 10 Feb. 2005 <http://www.infotrac. galegroup.com>.

[16] Susan Hartmann, *The Home Front and Beyond: American Women in the 1940s* (Boston: Twayne, 1982) 237.

[17] Heasman.

[18] Hartmann 251.

[19] "Atlantic Charter."

Student Notes and Questions

The Mechanics of Quotations

Whenever you quote a source, be sure that the punctuation, wording, capitalization, and the meaning of the quoted material are the same as the original work.

Quotations of <u>four typed lines or fewer</u> are included in the paper in regular format.

<u>Example</u>: He is the hero of every mission, and he seems a natural-born leader with all the right answers. In reality, Ness was a "good storyteller who enjoyed puffing up his own importance."[3] He was seldom the hero, as his work to raid small bootlegging operations barely impacted the business. Though Costner's Ness primly avoids reporters all through the movie, the real Ness was known for his "chatter to the papers" about alcohol raids and his heroism.[4]

<u>Quotations of more than four typed lines should be set off from the rest of the text using a "block quote" format</u>.

- Indent each line of the quotation 10 spaces.
- Do NOT use quotation marks.
- Single space within the quote. (**<u>Note</u>**: this rule is not the MLA style guideline, but many people think it looks better and takes up less paper.)
- In the event of a quote that is two paragraphs or longer, indent the first line of each paragraph an additional three spaces. (**<u>Note</u>**: it is very unusual to have such a long quote.)
- A colon introduces a blocked quotation.

<u>Example</u>:

The movie is accurate in that it reenacts actual events to show how Capone was willing to kill to get what he wanted. One such event is an elaborate dinner he throws for some of his most important employees:

> After the guests had completely relaxed, Capone dramatically redirected their attention, launching into a long speech about the need to root out betrayal and enforce the code of loyalty. Fingering Anselmi, Guinita, and Scalise, the boss identified them as disloyal…Within a minute, Capone began to beat them with a baseball bat. 'This is what we do to traitors,' Capone told his guests.[7]

Robert DeNiro, who plays Al Capone, performs this scene with conviction and screams those exact words. Capone's name was a synonym for Prohibition-era gangsterism,"[8] and this is just what *The Untouchables* emphasizes.

Remember, whenever you quote a source, be sure that the punctuation, wording and capitalization, **and the meaning** of the quoted material are the same as the original work.

Sometimes, the passage you wish to include in your paper might be too long; your goal is to select the key parts of the quotation that prove your point efficiently, without changing the author's intended meaning.

Cutting material from the quote: the ellipsis

When omitting material quoted from your source, use the ellipsis to show the omission. Do not put a space before or after the ellipsis.

Example:

Original Passage:
"In the 1860's, the U.S. Civil War depleted the American male labor force at the same time it increased the need for weapons. So girls and women began staffing munitions factories in both the North and the South. They wouldn't be the first, or the last, females to take advantage of a wartime job boom."

Passage formatted for essay:
"In the 1860's, the U.S. Civil War depleted the American male labor force at the same time it increased the need for weapons. So girls and women began staffing munitions factories…to take advantage of a wartime job boom."

Adding material to the quote: the bracket

When you need to add material into your quotation in order for it to make sense with your introductory phrase, place a bracket around the text you are adding.

Example:

Passage as it appears in the source:
"Gatsby looked around wildly, as if the past were lurking here in the shadow of his house, just out of reach of his hand" (116).

Brackets used to add words to quotation into the essay:
Gatsby insists on being able to repeat the past: "[He] looked around wildly, as if the past were lurking here in the shadow of his house, just out of reach of his hand" (116).

Punctuation when introducing a quotation

- Use a full colon when introducing a blocked quotation.

Example:

At the conclusion of Lord of the Flies, Ralph and the other boys realize the horror of their actions:

> But the island was scorched up like dead wood—Simon was dead—and Jack had…The tears began to flow and sobs shook him. He gave himself up to them now for the first time on the island: great, shuddering spasms of grief that seemed to wrench his whole body. His voice rose under the black smoke before the burning wreckage of the island; and infected by that emotion, the other little boys began to shake and sob too. (186)

- Use a full colon, a comma, or no mark of punctuation depending on how formally you decide to introduce your quotation when it is **not** blocked.

Examples:

Michael Henchard, the mayor of Casterbridge, is seen at the beginning of the novel selling his wife (in a drunken rage) to a sailor named Richard Newson. He wakes up the next morning, realizing the sad reality of what he has done: "A confused picture of the events of the previous evening seemed to come back to him, and he thrust his hand into his back pocket" (Hardy 3).

Conrad says, "He was obeyed, yet he inspired neither love nor fear nor even respect" (142).

For Charles Dickens the eighteenth century was both "the best of times" and "the worst of times" (35).

Student Notes and Questions

Incorporating Quotations into your Writing

Why quote?

Quotations add strength to an argument. They show that the writer has located information from "experts" and has been careful to record the source's exact words. An argument with carefully selected quotations tends to be more interesting and more persuasive. But handle these words with care; incorporating quotations into an argument requires thought and technique. Also be careful not to use too many quotes or to rely on them too heavily.

Appropriate times to use direct quotes:

- when the speaker is widely recognized as an authority in a field related to your issue. For example, you might choose to quote Bobby Knight (Indiana basketball coach) in an argument about college basketball.
- when the speaker uses particularly vivid/specific language. (Such sentences tend to lose their impact when paraphrased.)

Framing quotations: going beyond what "the author" says…

All quotations should be framed, that is, properly introduced to your reader. Avoid introducing every quotation with the name of the author, for example: "As Dickens says…" or "As Kearns says…" . Instead, try to think of more effective, and varied, ways to work a quotation into your paper such as "Although some statistics claim that…" or "Information provided in *The Longest Day* describes…"

There are many different strategies for framing quotations. You will want to use a signal phrase that includes a verb you find suitable (hopefully something beyond "says") for the context of the quote. Look at the tone of the work you are quoting. If you are quoting someone making a particularly strong or opinionated statement, you may want to use words such as *asserts, declares, contends,* etc. If you are quoting a scientific report, factual material, or generally neutral statements, you may want to use something less emotionally charged, such as *reports, illustrates, states,* etc.

Completing the quote sandwich: guiding your reader out of your quote

Incorporating quotations is kind of like making a sandwich, with the quote and explanation of that quote being the meat. By introducing your quote you add one slice of bread. Now it's time for the meat, but you don't want to leave your readers to conclude that let the quote do your work for you. Show them that you thought about the quote, had a reason to put it there, and can make a connection between the quote and the purpose of the paragraph the quote lies within. Quotes are a perfect springboard for you to begin making an argument. But don't forget that quotes don't do your arguing for you. It is up to you to make your argument; quotes should be used to help make your point and back up your statements. Finally, finish your sandwich with the other piece of bread, a concluding sentence that returns to the thesis or helps move to the next paragraph.

Example:

Reading can change lives. Many authors become writers because of how reading influenced their lives. Anna Quindlen, a Pulitzer Prize winning columnist and fiction author, reminisces, "In books I have traveled, not only to other worlds but into my own. I learned who I was and who I wanted to be, what I might aspire to, and what I might dare to dream about my world and myself" (6). Many writers, such as Quindlen, read voraciously as children. Their eyes were opened to many new perspectives and ideas about the world. The things they learned through reading also taught them a lot about writing. These memories helped them make a career choice. Who wouldn't want to open new worlds to a willing reader?

Example:

Despite the difficult working conditions in the shirtwaist factories during the Industrial Revolution, many women are able to look back on their experiences and find some good. One woman, who worked for the famous Triangle Shirtwaist Company, recounts her experiences with a glimmer of hope:

> …conditions were dreadful those days. But there was something that is lacking today and I think it was the devotion and the belief. We *believed* in what we were doing. We fought and we bled and we died. Today they don't have to. Remaining loyal to your company or your job was like remaining loyal to your family. Despite how bad things got, the job gave you life—food on the table and money in your pocket (Kerber 243).

Not all women who were forced to work in the horrid conditions of the factories remained bitter about their plight. The ones that survived, sometimes, took their experiences for what they were—learning experiences, challenges, and unfortunate facts of life. These women were able to take hope and wisdom from their trials at the looms.

Grammar & Punctuation

CAPITALIZATION

Capitalize proper nouns and adjectives.

Mexico	→	Mexican food
Homer	→	Homeric era
Mr. Smith	→	Mr. Smith's class

Capitalize compass directions when they are the names of definite sections of a country or of the world, but do not capitalize them when they merely indicate direction.

The North battled the South in the Civil War.
To get to the mall, you first head north, then west, and finally south.

Capitalize historical events and periods, and calendar items.

Battle of Gettysburg, the Renaissance, Tuesday, August, Black History Month

Capitalize nationalities, races, religions, and tribes.

Spanish, French, Caucasian, Hispanic, Protestant, Muslim, Aztec, Sioux

Capitalize political parties.

Democrats, Libertarians, Republicans, Bolsheviks

Do <u>not</u> capitalize names of school subjects except for languages and course names followed by a number.

math, science, English, Latin, Psychology 101

Do <u>not</u> capitalize names of the seasons.

winter, spring, summer, fall

Capitalize a title of a person when it comes before a name.

Principal Jones; Mr. Murphy; President Clark

If a title stands alone or follows a person's name, capitalize it only if it refers to a high official or to someone to whom you wish to show special respect.

principal of Bromfield; the principal; a principal
Joshua Clark, president of Ergomics, Inc.;

the President of the United States; the President

Capitalize the names of individual persons. In some surnames another letter besides the first should be capitalized. Be sure to check your source.

Fred Cronin, Tom O'**B**rien, John Mac**L**ean, Dennis De**G**ara

Capitalize abbreviations when they follow a name.

Tom Flynn, **Jr**., Reginald Carberry Wiggins, **Esq**.

Capitalize the first word, the last word, and all important words in the titles of books, magazines, newspapers, articles, historical documents, laws, works of art, movies, and television programs.

A Separate Peace, *Newsweek*, Bill of Rights, Fifth Amendment, Mona Lisa, *Lord of the Rings*, Sesame Street

Do not capitalize *a, an,* or *the* in a title unless they are the first word of the title. In addition, prepositions of five or more letters are capitalized; shorter ones are <u>not</u>. Coordinating conjunctions within a title are <u>not</u> capitalized.

Lord of the Flies, *A Lesson Before Dying*, *To Kill a Mockingbird*, *Franny and Zooey*, *One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest*

Capitalize words referring to the Deity.

God, Jehovah, the Father, the Son, the Messiah, the Almighty, the Lord, Allah

Capitalize pronouns referring to the Deity.

God is great, and He is the light.
His goodness shines in all of us, and He shall cometh to judge the earth.

FRAGMENTS, COMMA SPLICES, AND RUN-ONS

Fragments - Sentence fragments are incomplete thoughts or sentences that are missing either a subject, verb, or complete thought.

Lying lazily on the beach. This is a phrase that is missing a subject, verb, and a complete thought.
Correction: *Lying lazily on the beach*, I basked in the sun.

After the fish got away. This is a subordinate clause that contains a subject and a verb but is missing a complete thought.
Correction: *After the fish got away*, I cursed my luck.

An interesting restaurant near Key West. This is a subject that is missing its verb.
Correction: *An interesting restaurant near Key West* makes the best tuna enchilada.

Comma Splices - Comma splices occur when two independent clauses or sentences get separated by a comma. This is not a comma's job; it is a period's job. There are three potential ways to correct comma splices.

I looked back towards Tammy, I realized that I was fairly far from her.

Corrections:
1) Use a period: I looked back towards Tammy. I realized that I was fairly far from her.
2) Use a semi-colon: I looked back towards Tammy; I realized that I was fairly far from her. **Note**: *Only use a semi-colon to correct comma splices when the two sentences are closely connected in subject matter.*
3) Use a comma and a conjunction: I looked back towards Tammy, and I realized that I was fairly far from her.

Run-ons - Run-on sentences consist of two or more sentences that are not separated by any punctuation. There are three ways to correct them.

He got the same as usual he got a fried chicken sandwich with fries and a fruit drink.

Corrections:
1) Use a period: He got the same as usual. He got a fried chicken sandwich with fries and a fruit drink.
2) Use a semi-colon: He got the same as usual; he got a fried chicken sandwich with fries and a fruit drink.
3) Use a comma and a conjunction: He got the same as usual, and he got a fried chicken sandwich with fries and a fruit drink. **Note**: *This is probably the weakest option for this particular run-on.*

COMMA

Items in a series - Use commas to separate items in a series.

He was a member of the varsity basketball team, chess club, math team, and swim team.

Independent Clauses - Use a comma before *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so* when they link independent clauses, unless the clauses are very short.

The first two quarters of the football game were rather dull, but the second half was very exciting.

They worked hard and they won.

Non-essential Elements - Use commas to set apart nonessential clauses.

Sigmund Freud, who was the founder of the Psychodynamic Approach to psychology, died in London in 1939.

Introductory Elements - Use a comma after certain introductory elements.

- **Use a comma after words such as *well, yes, no,* and *why* when they begin a sentence.**

  Yes, you are correct!

- **Use a comma after an introductory participial phrase.**

  Embarrassed by the remark, his face became flush.

- **Use a comma after an introductory adverb clause.**

  While Mary was driving, her children slept in their car seats.

Interrupters - Use commas to set off expressions that interrupt the sentence.

- **Use commas to set off appositives.**

  Mary Jenkins, a silver medalist, will compete in the upcoming national competition.

- **Use commas to set off words used in direct address.**

  Please erase the board, Donald, and push in the chairs.

- **Use commas to set off parenthetical expressions.**

  We will, of course, continue the discussion at our next meeting.

COMMA (continued)

<u>Conventional Uses</u> - Use a comma in certain conventional uses.

- **Use a comma to separate items in dates and addresses.**

  Mao Zedong officially proclaimed the People's Republic of China on October 1, 1949.

  The President of the United States resides at 1600 Pennsylvania Avenue NW, Washington, DC.

- **Use a comma after a name followed by *Jr., Sr., Ph.D.,* etc.**

  Martin Luther King, Jr. Condoleezza Rice, Ph.D.

COLON

Use a colon to introduce a list following a noun.

Travelers were advised to pack the following items: medications, maps, personal identification, and emergency phone numbers.

When a list follows a verb or preposition, do not use a colon.

I brought medications, maps, personal identification, and phone numbers.

Lord of the Rings is about loyalty, evil, courage, and determination.

Use a colon in certain conventional situations: hour and minute, Bible passages, encyclopedia, and periodicals.

5:30 p.m. *or* 5:30 P.M.

John 3:16 (chapter and verse)

World Book Encyclopedia 1:32-34 (volume and page numbers)

National Geographic 104:10 (volume and number)

SEMICOLON

Use a semicolon between independent clauses not joined by *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so.*

The World Trade Organization held its annual public symposium in the spring; they met from April 28 to May 4.

Use a semicolon between independent clauses joined by such words as *for example, for instance, that is, besides, accordingly, moreover, nevertheless, furthermore, otherwise, therefore, however, consequently, instead, hence.*

Tension between the negotiating parties was obvious; however, it was believed that compromise could still be reached.

HYPHEN

Use a hyphen when joining words in compound numbers *twenty-one to ninety-nine.* Use a hyphen with *compound fractions used as adjectives*. Note: Do not use a hyphen when the compound fraction is a noun.

two-thirds majority (the compound fraction is an adjective)

two thirds of the voters (the compound fraction is a noun)

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

I've been running, studying the playbook, and drinking lots of Gatorade. Foot-
ball season starts next week.

Use a hyphen with the prefixes *ex-, self-, all-,* and with the suffix *-elect,* and with all *prefixes before a proper noun or proper adjective.*

ex-wife	mid-August
self-sufficient	trans-American
all-encompassing	pre-Colombian
president-elect	

Hyphenate a compound adjective when it precedes the word it modifies.

the well-known leader	The leader was well known.
the soft-spoken counselor	The counselor was soft spoken.

All great-relatives are hyphenated.

great-grandmother	great-great-aunt

DASH

The dash is an informal type of punctuation and should be used sparingly, if at all, in formal writing.

Use a dash to indicate a break in thought.

The teacher—he's new to our school—let us out of class ten minutes early.
Max wobbled toward me—his leg still in pain—and let out a long whimper.

Use a dash to mean *in other words, namely, that is,* and similar expressions that precede explanations.

Her decision to accept the position was based on one criteria—she very much enjoys learning about the natural world around her.

Note: To form a dash, double type a hyphen**.** When the connecting word is entered, a dash will form.

APOSTROPHES

Use the apostrophe to form the possessive case of a singular noun. Add an apostrophe and an s.

boy's shirt
teacher's mug
its color
Katie's purse
for Pete's sake

Note: *Its* is the possessive form of the pronoun *it*. Do not use *it's* when you mean *its*.

Use an apostrophe to form the possessive case of a plural noun.

- **In case of a plural noun ending in s or es, add only the apostrophe.**

All of the girls' shirts were muddy. The witches' brew boiled and bubbled.

- **In case of a plural noun that does not end in s, add an apostrophe and an s.**

The men's teams worked very hard in the tournament.
Your children's well-being is in their hands.

Use an apostrophe to show where letters have been omitted in a contraction.

wouldn't = would not
can't = cannot
it's = it is
won't = will not

Use an apostrophe to form plurals of numbers, signs, and symbols.

There are four 2's in my birth date. You'll remember the %'s after you study.
There are three m's in mommy.

Note: Do not use an apostrophe to form the plural of dates.

He got married in the 80s. The Civil War took place in the 1860s.

ABBREVIATIONS

Do not abbreviate names of states, countries, months, days, or units of measure in formal writing.

Incorrect: I left home early one Mon. morning near the end of Dec. for my vacation trip to PA.

Correct: I left home early one Monday morning near the end of December for my vacation trip to Pennsylvania.

It is standard practice to abbreviate a title with a name.

Mr. Jones; Dr. Williams; Ms. Parks

Some abbreviations are acceptable in any and all kinds of writing.

Ph.D., M.D., B.C., A.D., a.m., p.m. (A.M., P.M.), Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr.

Note: Clock time may be abbreviated a.m. (or A.M.) and p.m. (or P.M.) and year time may be abbreviated B.C. and A.D.

Do not use signs or symbols to represent words in formal writing.

#, @, & (however, the dollar sign is okay when numerals are used to express an amount of money - $450)

Avoid the use of et cetera/etc. in formal writing. If you want to end a list with a general expression, use *and so on*, *and so forth*, or *all the rest*.

Incorrect: Trees, shrubs, mammals, marine life, etc., are hurt by water pollution.

Better: Trees shrubs, mammals, marine life, and so forth, are hurt by water pollution.

Best: Trees, shrubs, mammals, marine life, and many other living creatures are hurt by water pollution.

PARENTHESES

Use parentheses to enclose words, which add information, or to make an idea clearer, but are not considered of major importance.

Marie's score on the test (the hardest of the year) was much higher than she expected.

Use parentheses only to set off *relevant* explanatory information. Do not place random thoughts in parentheses.

Incorrect: The two boys ran (who wouldn't) as fast as they could away from the angry (for no apparent reason) geese.

Correct: Finding cures for major diseases (such as AIDS and cancer) is the focus of many medical organizations.

Avoid overuse of parentheses – commas are preferable.

PUNCTUATION WITHIN QUOTATIONS

Commas and periods are always placed inside the closing quotation marks.

"I will be very busy revising my essay this weekend," she said, "so I probably will not be able to go to the movies."

Colons and semicolons are always placed outside the closing quotation marks.

First I will read Robert Frost's "The Road Not Taken"; then I will read "Birches."

A question mark or an exclamation point is placed inside the quotation marks if the quotation is a question or exclamation. It is placed outside if it punctuates the main sentence.

Mr. Jones asked, "Do you really expect me to give you an extension on the project?"

Did I hear you say, "I am not coming to school tomorrow"?

A quotation within a quotation requires single quotation marks for the internal quote.

Mr Jones said, "Washington's famous saying was 'I cannot tell a lie.'"

Student Notes and Questions

Basic Literary Terms

Understanding and discussing literature is made easier with a common working vocabulary. The words that follow are frequently used in discussing and analyzing literature:

ALLEGORY: a story where characters, objects, events, and ideas have both literal and metaphorical meaning so that the story is operating on two levels at once

ALLUSION: a brief reference within a text to an historical, literary figure, event, or object which enhances meaning

ANTAGONIST: the character or force that opposes the central figure

ARCHETYPE: an original model; prototype

ATMOSPHERE: the mood that is established, especially by setting

CHARACTERIZATION: the methods by which the author reveals character

CONNOTATION: the implications and feelings, which a word suggests

DENOTATION: the dictionary definition of a word

FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE: creative use of language to express an idea

Uses of Figurative Language (aka *Figures of Speech*)

Hyperbole: conscious exaggeration is used, not to be taken literally

Metaphor: comparison of two things without the use of "like" or "as"

Personification: giving human characteristics/qualities to abstract or inanimate objects

Simile: comparison of two things using "like" or "as"

FOIL: a character who clarifies a reader's understanding of other characters by contrasting them

GENRE: the category of literature, such as short story, drama, poetry, or novel

IRONY: the contrast between what appears to be and what really is

Common types of Irony

Dramatic: the audience knows facts that the characters do not

Situational: an outcome which is the opposite of the expected

Verbal: words or names whose literal meanings are the opposite of what is conveyed; sarcasm

PLOT: the series of interconnected events

Plot Structure

Exposition:	introductory material about setting, characters, and other background information
Conflict:	the central struggle between opposing forces
Rising Action:	complications in resolving the conflict, building to the climax
Climax:	pivotal moment, turning point, high point
Falling Action:	action leading to conclusion
Resolution/ Denouement:	conclusion

POINT OF VIEW: who or how the story is told—first person, third person, or omniscient

Point of View

First Person:	The story is told by one of the characters. The character uses pronouns such as I or we.
Third Person:	The story is told by a narrator who is not a character in the story. The narrator uses pronouns such as she, he, and they.
Omniscient:	The story is told by an all-knowing narrator who relays the thoughts and feelings of all the characters. Omniscient point of view is a specific type of third person point of view; narrator uses pronouns such as she, he, and they.

PROTAGONIST: the central character

SETTING: time and place in which a story occurs

SOLILOQUY: a monologue in which a character alone on stage expresses his/her inner thoughts

SYMBOL: something that represents something else by association or resemblance

THEME: a central idea developed throughout a work

TONE: the author's attitude toward the work and the audience

Troublesome or Confusing Words

H-m-m-m, should I use "may or can"? 

How many times have you had to choose between using *may or can, good or well, lay or lie*?" Everyone has at one time or another. And we all know there are numerous **troublesome or confusing pairs of words.** So, the next time you find yourself asking "*Which is which, or was that which is witch?",* just check this list. You will find many of the common pairs of confusing words, followed by explanations of when to use each one. There are even sample sentences to help.

Confusing Verb Pairs		
May	seeking permission	*May* I have a ride?
Can	having the ability to	*Can* you drive me home?
Immigrate	to come *into* a country/place	They *immigrated* to New York from Cuba.
Emigrate	to *leave* a country/place	They *emigrated* from that country because of a civil war.
Lie	to rest or recline	I need to *lie* down.
Lay	to put or place → (always followed by a direct object)	Please *lay* the book here.
Choosing the Right Word		
Accept (verb)	to receive or believe	Lynn *accepted* the gift.
Except (noun)	other than	Everyone was sick *except* me.
Affect (verb)	to influence; to have an impact on someone or something	Your hard work *affected* your grade.
Effect (noun)	the outcome or result	The *effect* of hard work is good grades.
Effect (verb) (less common usage)	to accomplish or complete	His hard work *effected* a grade of an A.
A lot	a vague word that should be used with limited frequency.	I had *a lot* of work to finish for homework.
Alot	not a real word, but used a lot.	----------
Already (adv)	before or by this time; when	We were *already* awake when the alarm went off.
All ready (adj)	fully prepared or ready	We are *all ready* to go.
Alright	not a word-incorrect spelling of "all right"	----------
All right	satisfactory or okay	It is *all right* to leave now.

Altogether (adv) All together	completely describes people/things gathered in one place	There is *altogether* too much paper being used. The people were *all together* in the town square.
Among Between	used when more than two people or things are discussed used only when two people or things are discussed	The three senators talked *among* themselves. They had to choose *between* Senator Jones and Senator Smith.
Capital (noun) Capitol (noun)	city or money a building	They invested the *capital* in major stocks in Boston, the *capital* of Massachusetts. The *Capitol* was repainted before the inauguration.
Continual Continuous	repeatedly happens over and over doesn't ever stop happening	She said the robberies were *continual* in her town. The *continuous* noise drove the neighbors mad.
Desert Dessert	a dry landscape a food served after meals	The man was lost in the *desert*. The *dessert* was delicious.
Farther Further	used when writing about physical distance additional	Key West is the *farthest* point south in Florida. There is no *further* evidence.
Good (adj) Well (adv) Well (adj)	describes how something looks describes a behavior/performance used when talking about *health*	That painting looks *good*. The plane flew *well* in the storm. He is not feeling *well*.
Principal (noun) Principal (adj) Principle (noun)	a person in charge or a sum of money main or primary a doctrine or idea	The *principal* invested the school's money and that *principal* earned 5% interest. The *principal* reason he left was because he was sick. Her *principles* led her to protest the decision.
Than Then	used in a comparison tells when	She did better *than* me. It hurt and *then* I cried.
Their There They're	possessive pronoun points out a location contraction, means *they are*	*Their* house is red. *There* is her missing cat. *They're* going to Canada.
To Too Two	a preposition or used to form an infinitive also or very the number	She went *to* the store *to* buy some candy. I like her *too*. The movie was *too* scary. She has *two* brothers.
Were Where	a form of the be verb at or in what place or situation	They *were* late for school. *Where* are you going?

Transition Terms

Transitional devices are connecting words or phrases that show the relationship between ideas, details, examples, etc. within and between paragraphs. Become familiar with the following list of linking words so that you can use them to make your thoughts flow smoothly.

USEFUL TRANSITIONS				
TO SHOW LOCATION				
above	among	beneath	in front of	on top of
across	around	beside	inside	outside
against	away from	between	into	over
along	back of	beyond	near	throughout
alongside	behind	by	off	to the right
amid	below	down	onto	under
TO SHOW TIME				
about	before	in the meantime	second	tomorrow
after	during	later	soon	until
afterward	finally	meanwhile	then	when
as soon as	first	next	third	yesterday
at	immediately	prior to	today	
TO COMPARE TWO THINGS				
also	both	in the same way	likewise	
as	each	like	similarly	
TO CONTRAST TWO THINGS				
although	conversely	even though	nevertheless	otherwise
as opposed to	counter to	however	on the contrary	still
but	even so	in the mean time	on the other hand	yet
TO EMPHASIZE A POINT				
again	in fact	to emphasize	truly	
for this reason	indeed	to repeat	with this in mind	
TO CONCLUDE OR SUMMARIZE				
accordingly	consequently	in conclusion	therefore	
all in all	due to	in short	thus	
as a result	finally	in summary	to sum up	
TO ADD INFORMATION				
additionally	and	equally important	further	moreover
again	another	finally	furthermore	next
along with	as well	for example	in addition	together with
also	besides	for instance	likewise	
TO CLARIFY				
for instance	put another way	that is		
in other words	stated differently	to clarify		

Student Notes and Questions

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