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Standards-Based
ENGLISH GRAMMAR 7
& Mechanics

Help Pages

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Help Pages

Parts of Speech – Nouns

A **noun** names a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns may be common or proper, singular or plural, abstract or concrete.

A **proper noun** names a particular person, place, or thing and begins with a capital letter.

A **collective noun** names a group or a collection; it is singular and is treated as a single unit.

>   Collective nouns used as subjects take *singular verbs*.

>   *Examples*: the <u>family</u> *is*, the <u>orchestra</u> *plays*, a <u>committee</u> *studies*, the <u>flock</u> *migrates*

Some of the Functions of Nouns

Subject

The subject is whom or what the sentence is about.

Example: <u>Tom</u> likes to play piano.

Direct Object

A direct object receives the action of the verb.

Example: Tom plays the <u>piano</u>.

To find the DO ask: Tom plays what? Tom plays the <u>piano</u>.

Indirect Object

An indirect object can exist only when there is a direct object.

Ask: *To whom* or *for whom* is the action of the verb directed?

Example: Mr. Gore gave the <u>class</u> an assignment.

Object of a Preposition

The object of a preposition comes at the end of a prepositional phrase.

Example: Mr. Gore plays *in* an <u>orchestra</u>.

Predicate Nominative (Predicate Noun)

A predicate nominative renames the subject.

Example: Tom and Mr. Gore are <u>musicians</u>.

The winners are <u>she and Sara</u>.

Possessive

Possessive nouns show ownership and modify another noun. Most possessive nouns are formed by adding an apostrophe and *s*.

Example: <u>Mr. Gore's</u> class uses <u>Tom's</u> piano.

Parts of Speech – Pronouns

A **pronoun** takes the place of a noun. The noun that the pronoun refers to is called the **antecedent**. The antecedent is in the same sentence or a recent earlier sentence; occasionally, an antecedent is not specifically named; it is implied, or "understood."

Examples: The <u>puppy</u> is in <u>its</u> pen. (Puppy is the antecedent, so "<u>its</u> pen" means the <u>puppy's</u> pen.)

<u>It</u> has been raining all day. ("It" refers to the weather and is implied.)

Personal Pronouns

Nominative (Subjective)

Used as the subject of a sentence or clause

Singular: I, you, he/she, it   *Plural*: we, you, they

Objective

Used as an object; found in the predicate of a sentence

Singular: me, you, him/her, it   *Plural*: us, you, them

Possessive

Used to show ownership; some modify nouns

Singular: my, mine*, your, yours*, his*, her, hers*, its*

Plural: our, ours*, your, yours*, their, theirs*

* These can stand alone. When they stand alone, they do not modify nouns.

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Parts of Speech – Pronouns (continued)

Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun begins an adjective clause that modifies its antecedent.

Nominative (Subjective)	who, which, that *Example:* The **poet** <u>who</u> wrote the book will speak today.
Objective	whom, which, that *Example:* Her **father** is the person <u>whom</u> we met.
Possessive	whose, which, that *Example:* The **man** <u>whose</u> dog I found was very grateful.

Other Types of Pronouns

Demonstrative	Points out a noun *see* Notes on Pronouns *Singular*: this, that ***Example***: <u>This</u> is my last chance. *Plural*: these, those ***Example***: <u>Those</u> are selling out quickly.

Indefinite	Takes the place of a noun; indefinite pronouns are not specific
	Singular: another, anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, little, much, neither, nobody, no one, nothing, one, other, somebody, someone, something
	   Example: <u>Everybody</u> *wants* an ice cream cone.
	Plural: both, few, many, others, several
	   Example: <u>Few</u> *pick* strawberry ice cream.
	Either: all, any, more, most, none, some
	   Example: <u>Most</u> of the chocolate *is* gone.
	                 <u>Most</u> of the boys *are eating* two scoops.

Interrogative	Asks a question ***Examples***: what, which, who, whom, whose
Reflexive	Refers back to the subject and cannot be removed *see* Notes on Pronouns without changing the meaning of the sentence. *Singular*: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself *Plural*: ourselves, yourselves, themselves
Intensive	Emphasizes a noun *see* Notes on Pronouns *Singular*: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself *Plural*: ourselves, yourselves, themselves

Notes on Pronouns

Demonstratives can act as pronouns or adjectives. As a pronoun, a demonstrative points out a noun. As an adjective, a demonstrative modifies a noun.

Examples: <u>That</u> is my house. (used as a pronoun)
            <u>Those</u> flowers are red. (used as an adjective to modify the noun *flowers*)

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Notes on Pronouns (continued)

Interrogative pronouns ask a question (What? Which? Who?). *Whom* is the objective case of *who*, and *whose* is the possessive of *who*.

Use the pronoun *who* as a subject or predicate nominative just like other nominative case pronouns (he, she, or they).

Example: **Who** is your best friend? (*Who* is the subject of the sentence.)

Use the pronoun *whom* as an object just like other objective case pronouns (him, her, or them).

Example: For **whom** did you bake the cake? (*Whom* is the object of the preposition *for*.)

Use the pronoun *whose* to show possession just like other possessive pronouns (his, her, or their).

Example: Please call the children **whose** parents have arrived.

A **reflexive pronoun** refers back to the subject. The subject is its antecedent. A reflexive pronoun cannot be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Example: Mindy e-mailed <u>herself</u> a copy of the recipe.   vs.   Mindy e-mailed a copy of the recipe.

An **intensive pronoun** emphasizes its antecedent but it can be removed from a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Example: The *students* collected the recycling <u>themselves</u>. (The pronoun *themselves* can be removed from the sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence.)

Parts of Speech – Verbs

Verbs convey action or a state of being. A verb is the main word in the predicate of a sentence.

Action (Transitive)	Send action to a direct object *Example*: A stunt man <u>performs</u> dangerous <u>feats</u>. (verb – *performs*, direct object – *feats*)
Action (Intransitive)	Action verb that has no direct object *Example*: The symphony <u>performs</u> every Sunday. (verb – *performs*, no direct object)
Being	Do not show action; show a state of being (is, are, was, were, be, am, being, been)
Linking	Links the subject with a noun or adjective (appear, become, feel, seem, smell, taste, sounds, and all forms of be.)
Auxiliary (Helping)	Used with a main verb to form a verb phrase (is, are, was, were, be, am, being, been, might, could, should, would, can, do, does, did, may, must, will, shall, have, has, had)

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Verb Tense

Tense tells the time when the action or condition of the verb occurs. The basic tenses are *past*, *present*, and *future*. See the **verb conjugation chart**.

A **perfect verb** tense describes a completed action. All perfect verb forms use the past participle and a helping verb (have, has, had, will have). The tenses are *present perfect*, *past perfect*, and *future perfect*.

The **progressive** verb tense describes an ongoing action. Verbs in the progressive use a form of the verb *be* with the present participle (an *-ing* verb). The progressive forms are *present progressive*, *past progressive,* and *future progressive*.

The **perfect progressive** verb tense is a combination of the perfect and progressive verb tenses. It uses the past tense forms of the verb *be*; (*has been*, *have been*, *had been*, *will have been*) with the present participle (an *-ing* verb).

The **verb conjugation chart** (*see* next page) shows an irregular verb in the various tenses.

Irregular Verbs

Irregular Verbs do not follow the patterns of simple or perfect tense. Such verbs must be memorized. Here is a list of some common irregular verbs.

Present	Present Participle	Past	Past Participle	Present	Present Participle	Past	Past Participle
bear	bearing	bore	born	hear	hearing	heard	heard
bet	betting	bet	bet	hold	holding	held	held
bite	biting	bit	bitten	kneel	kneeling	knelt/kneeled	knelt
bleed	bleeding	bled	bled	lay	laying	laid	laid
burn	burning	burnt/burned	burnt/burned	lie	lying	lay	lain
buy	buying	bought	bought	light	lighting	lit/lighted	lit/lighted
catch	catching	caught	caught	pay	paying	paid	paid
cling	clinging	clung	clung	rise	rising	rose	risen
cost	costing	cost	cost	seek	seeking	sought	sought
deal	dealing	dealt	dealt	send	sending	sent	sent
dig	digging	dug	dug	shine	shining	shone/shined	shone
dive	diving	dove/dived	dove/dived	sing	singing	sang	sung
draw	drawing	drew	drawn	sleep	sleeping	slept	slept
feed	feeding	fed	fed	spin	spinning	spun	spun
feel	feeling	felt	felt	strike	striking	struck	struck
find	finding	found	found	string	stringing	strung	strung
forget	forgetting	forgot	forgotten	swim	swimming	swam	swum
forgive	forgiving	forgave	forgiven	upset	upsetting	upset	upset
grind	grinding	ground	ground	win	winning	won	won
hang	hanging	hung	hung	withstand	withstanding	withstood	withstood

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Verb Conjugation		

Below is a conjugation of the <u>irregular</u> verb *forget*.

Verb Form	Singular	Plural
Past	I forgot. You forgot. He / She / It forgot.	We forgot. You forgot. They forgot.
Present	I forget. You forget. He / She / It forgets.	We forget. You forget. They forget.
Future	I will forget. You will forget. He / She / It will forget.	We will forget. You will forget. They will forget.
Past Perfect	I had forgotten. You had forgotten. He / She / It had forgotten.	We had forgotten. You had forgotten. They had forgotten.
Present Perfect	I have forgotten. You have forgotten. He / She / It has forgotten.	We have forgotten. You have forgotten. They have forgotten.
Future Perfect	I will have forgotten. You will have forgotten. He / She / It will have forgotten.	We will have forgotten. You will have forgotten. They will have forgotten.
Past Progressive	I was forgetting. You were forgetting. He / She / It was forgetting.	We were forgetting. You were forgetting. They were forgetting.
Present Progressive	I am forgetting. You are forgetting. He / She / It is forgetting.	We are forgetting. You are forgetting. They are forgetting.
Future Progressive	I will be forgetting. You will be forgetting. He / She / It will be forgetting.	We will be forgetting. You will be forgetting. They will be forgetting.
Past Perfect Progressive	I had been forgetting. You had been forgetting. He / She / It had been forgetting.	We had been forgetting. You had been forgetting. They had been forgetting.
Present Perfect Progressive	I have been forgetting. You have been forgetting. He / She / It has been forgetting.	We have been forgetting. You have been forgetting. They have been forgetting.
Future Perfect Progressive	I will have been forgetting. You will have been forgetting. He / She / It will have been forgetting.	We will have been forgetting. You will have been forgetting. They will have been forgetting.

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Parts of Speech – Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Adverbs tell *how*, *when*, *where*, and *to what extent*.

Adverbs That Tell *When*

after	earlier	last	now	seldom	then	when
afterwards	early	late	occasionally	since	today	whenever
again	finally	later	often	sometimes	tomorrow	while
always	first	never	once	soon	until	yesterday
before	frequently	next	permanently	still	usually	yet

Adverbs That Tell *How*

angrily	firmly	happily	noisily	quickly	selfishly	unbelievably
calmly	gracefully	kindly	perfectly	quietly	slowly	wildly
eagerly	greedily	loudly	politely	sadly	softly	willingly

Adverbs That Tell *Where*

downstairs	far	forward	here	inside	somewhere	there

Adverbs That Tell *To What Extent*

almost	barely	extremely	quite	really	thoroughly	vaguely
also	completely	more	rather	scarcely	too	very

Parts of Speech – Conjunctions

Conjunctions connect similar words, clauses, or phrases within a sentence.

Coordinating   join two equal elements (two verbs, two nouns, two phrases …)
Use the acronym FANBOYS: *for*, *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, *so*.
Example: It was ninety degrees, <u>so</u> we spent the day at the beach.

Correlative   work in pairs to join words
either/or   neither/nor   both/and   whether/or   as/as   if/then
Example: <u>Neither</u> Jim <u>nor</u> his father cared for broccoli.

Subordinating   join a subordinate clause with a main clause in a complex sentence
Example: Finish your homework <u>before</u> you go outside.

Examples of Subordinating Conjunctions

after	as much as	even if	in order that	so that	when
although	as soon as	even though	now that	then, that	whenever
as	as though	how	once	though	where
as if	because	if	provided	unless	wherever
as long as	before	inasmuch as	since	until	while

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Parts of Speech – Adjectives

Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns. Adjectives tell *how many*, *what color*, *how big*, *how small*, *what kind*, and so on. ***Example***: He was a <u>tall</u> man wearing a <u>small</u> <u>green</u> hat.

A **proper adjective** begins with a capital letter.   ***Example***: <u>French</u> bread, <u>Siberian</u> tiger

An **article** is a special type of adjective (a, an, the). ***Example***: Throw Jack <u>the</u> ball.

Coordinate adjectives are next to each other and modify the same noun. Use a comma between coordinate adjectives. ***Example***: sharp, prickly branches can be prickly, sharp branches

Adjectives are not coordinate if one of the adjectives is linked to the noun, and the other describes both. Adjectives that are not coordinate are not separated by commas.
Example: six wild geese (*six* modifies *wild geese*)

Parts of Speech – Prepositions

Prepositions relate nouns or pronouns to other words in the sentence.
Example: *against* the <u>fence</u>
         preposition ↑   ↑ object of the preposition
A **prepositional phrase** begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun (the object of the preposition).

Some Common Prepositions

about	around	down	instead of	outside	toward
above	before	during	into	over	under
across	behind	except	near	past	underneath
across from	beneath	for	nearby	since	until
against	beside	from	next to	through	up
along	between	in	of	throughout	upon

Parts of Speech – Interjections

Interjections are words or phrases that express strong feeling (surprise, relief, fear, or anger).
     Interjections are followed by a comma or an exclamation point.
     Examples: Ouch! I stubbed my toe.   Wait, it is not your turn.

Sentences

Sentences	Express a complete thought; every sentence has a subject and a predicate
Phrases	Groups of words that do not contain a subject/verb pair
Clauses	Groups of words that have both a subject and a verb and can be dependent or independent (Every sentence has at least one independent clause.)

Fragments

Fragments do not express a complete thought. They are missing either a subject or a verb.
Examples: The book that I read. (missing a verb)   Running down the street. (missing a subject)

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Sentence Type and Structure

The four sentence types are **declarative**, **exclamatory**, **interrogative**, and **imperative**.

Simple   **Parts:**   subject and predicate only

                    Example: <u>We will hold a rally at the local park</u>.

Compound   **Parts:**   two or more complete thoughts

                    Joined by: coordinating conjunction

                    Example: <u>There will be speeches in the morning</u>, *and* <u>we will play games in the afternoon</u>.

Complex   **Parts:**   a complete thought with one or more incomplete thoughts

                    Joined by: subordinating conjunction

                    Example: <u>The rally will last until dusk</u> *unless* the weather is severe.

Compound - Complex   **Parts:**   more than one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses

                    Joined by: coordinating and subordinating conjunctions

                    Example: *If* it starts to rain, <u>we can move inside</u>, *and* <u>we will end the rally</u>.

Restrictive and Nonrestrictive phrases

If a phrase is **nonrestrictive**, it can be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence.

    Example: Chocolate, *of course*, is the best ice cream flavor.

If a phrase is **restrictive**, you cannot remove it without changing the meaning of the sentence.

    Example: The shop *around the corner* sells single slices of pizza.

Run-on Sentences

A run-on sentence has two or more independent clauses that are not properly joined.

    Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic it rained all afternoon!

Ways to correct a run-on sentence:

Separate two independent clauses into two sentences.

    Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic. It rained all afternoon!

Insert a semicolon between the two independent clauses.

    Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic; it rained all afternoon!

Insert a semicolon between the two independent clauses and add a transitional word (therefore, moreover, for example, etc.) and a comma.

    Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic; however, it rained all afternoon!

Insert a comma and a coordinating conjunction between the two independent clauses.

    Example: Today we had planned to go on a picnic, but it rained all afternoon!

Rewrite the sentence using a subordinating conjunction to separate the two independent clauses.

    Example: Although we had planned to go on a picnic today, it rained all afternoon!

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Punctuation	
Apostrophe **(')**	Use an apostrophe to form a contraction or to form a possessive noun. ***Examples***: I <u>don't</u> want to go. That was <u>Sherry's</u> little sister.
Comma **(,)**	Use commas to separate words or phrases in a series. ***Example***: Sun brought a book, some crayons, a pair of scissors, and a ruler.
	Use a comma to separate two independent clauses joined by a conjunction. ***Example***: Dad works in the city, and he is a commuter.
	Use a comma after an introductory word, phrase, or subordinate clause. ***Example***: Hey, who wants to play tennis? ***Example***: On the other hand, you may not need any help. ***Example***: Since it is raining, we will have indoor recess.
	Insert a comma after introductory words or phrases in a sentence. ***Example***: On the other hand, you may not need any help.
	Use a comma to separate consecutive words or numbers when writing a date. ***Example***: Friday, April 8, 2011
	Use a comma between the city and state in an address. ***Examples***: Boston, Massachusetts Honolulu, HI
	Use a comma before or after a quote if there is no end mark. ***Example***: "You know," said Marta, "Robert is an excellent violinist."
	Use commas before and after an *appositive* (a noun or noun phrase that describes the noun it follows) and other interrupting phrases within a sentence. ***Example***: Ms. Cole, *the bank teller*, was very helpful.
	Use commas before and/or after contrasting phrases that use *not*. ***Example***: I worked on my science project, *not my essay*, all evening.
	Use a comma to separate the words *yes* and *no* from the rest of a sentence. ***Examples***: Yes, I will join you. No, thank you.
	Use a comma to separate a "tag question" from the rest of a sentence. ***Examples***: You saw that, didn't you? George will lead the choir, won't he?
	Use a comma to show direct address. ***Examples***: Please sit, Mr. Smith. Come here, Peg, I want you to meet Mr. Smith.
	Use commas to set off all nonrestrictive clauses or phrases and other parenthetical elements. ***Example***: The new principal, *who is Venezuelan*, is fluent in three languages.
Quotations **(")**	Quotation marks are used to frame a person's exact words. ***Example***: "Do you have a ticket?" inquired the conductor.
	Quotations are used to indicate short works: poems, songs, short stories, chapters. ***Example***: "The Star Spangled Banner" is often sung at sporting events.

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Punctuation (continued)

Colons **(:)**	A colon may be used before a list of items but only after an independent clause. *Incorrect:* I have traveled to: Russia, Italy, France, and Spain. *Correct:* I have visited many countries: Russia, Italy, France, and Spain.
	A colon may be used before a long quote or if there is no other introduction, such as "he said" or "she replied." *Example*: Martha looked up at George: "Where have you been all day?"
	A colon (:) is used between the hour and minutes or between minutes and seconds when writing the time. *Examples*: At 12:30, we eat. The best time is 4:05 (4 minutes and 5 seconds).
	A colon may be used after the greeting in a formal or business letter.
Dashes **(—)**	A dash is used between words within sentences. A dash is longer than a hyphen and is used to show emphasis. A dash should be used for a special effect — do not overuse it.
Hyphens **(-)**	A hyphen is sometimes used to join a prefix with a base word. The hyphen helps to make the word more clear. *Examples*: re-evaluate, non-military, ex-girlfriend
	Hyphens are used in some compound words. *Examples*: part-time, president-elect, father-in-law
	A hyphen (-) is used between the tens and the ones place, when writing the numbers twenty-one through ninety-nine. *Examples*: seventy-six, forty-eight
	A hyphen is used when writing fractions. *Examples*: four-fifths, one-third, three-eighths
Semicolons **(;)**	A semicolon (;) may be used to separate two independent clauses with no conjunction. The semicolon takes the place of a comma and conjunction. *Incorrect*: You can come in now; but please sit quietly. *Correct*: You can come in now; please sit quietly.
	Use a semicolon to separate items in a series if there are already commas in the items. *Example*: Lorain, Ohio; New Castle, Pennsylvania; and Chicago, Illinois

Punctuating nonrestrictive elements: Use commas, parentheses, or dashes to separate nonrestrictive elements.

Examples:

commas: Jerry, *as you may know*, is Coretta's brother. I will, *therefore*, call Jerry to get Coretta's address. *On the other hand*, I can look up the information myself.

parentheses: Poppy's Pizza Shop (in Wexford Plaza) won the award for best veggie pizza. All of my sisters (including Vera) will be bridesmaids.

dashes: *Toy Story*–one of my favorite films–was the first full length film made by Pixar Studios. It featured the voices of two stars–Tom Hanks and Tim Allen.

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Punctuation – Other Types of Punctuation

Punctuating Titles

Show the title of a book, movie, play, television show, or website by using italics or underlining it - use italics when typing.

Examples: *Sarah, Plain and Tall*   or   Sarah, Plain and Tall

Kids.gov   or   Kids.gov

Despicable Me   or   Despicable Me

Put quotation marks around the title of a short work, such as a poem, song, short story, or chapter.
Example: "Dreams" is a poem by Langston Hughes.

Proofreader's Symbols

Description	Symbol	Description	Symbol
Make capital	≡	Take something out	℘
Add end punctuation	⊙ ⚠ ⁇	Check spelling	⌒ sp
Add something	∧	Make lower case	/

Greek and Latin Roots and Their Meanings

Root / Meaning		Root / Meaning		Root / Meaning		Root / Meaning	
able	able to	*con*	with	*jur, jus, jud*	law	*photo*	light
amphi	both	*de*	take away	*less*	without	*poly*	many
ante	before	*di*	two	*mal*	bad	*port*	carry
anthropo	human	*dia*	across	*micro*	tiny	*post*	after
anti	against	*dict*	speak	*mis*	bad	*pre*	before
auto	self	*dis*	not	*mono*	one	*re*	again
bi	two	*ful*	full of	*morph*	form	*scrib*	write
biblio	book	*geo*	earth	*neo*	new	*script*	write
bio	life	*graph, gram*	written	*non*	not	*sub*	under
bronte	thunder	*hemi*	half	*ology*	study of	*super*	above
centri	center	*hydro*	water	*omni*	all	*thermo*	heat
chrono	time	*ible*	able	*ped*	foot	*trans*	across
circum	around	*im, in*	not	*phobe*	fear	*tri*	three
co, com	with	*inter*	between	*phon*	sound	*un*	not

Figurative Language

A **simile** is a way to describe something by using a comparison. A simile compares two things using the words *like* or *as*.
Example: The baby is *as playful as a kitten*. (A baby is compared to a kitten.)

A **metaphor** compares two things but does not use *like* or *as*. It uses a form of the verb *be*.

Example: Joey is *a magnet for bad luck*. (He attracts bad luck.)

The **denotation** of a word is its most specific and exact meaning, or the dictionary definition. The **connotation** of word is a symbolic or figurative meaning.

Example: The patient has an enlarged *heart*.   (The word *heart* denotes an internal organ.)
                John has a big *heart*. (The word *heart* connotes kindness.)

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Figurative Language (continued)

Personification is a literary device in which an author gives human features to something non-human.

Example: A battalion of sunflowers stood at attention, facing the commanding officer. (Sunflowers stand tall in rows similar to soldiers in formation, and the flower always turns toward the sun.)

Hyperbole (*hī pér bə lē*) A type of figurative language that exaggerates to make a point.

Example: I've walked this path a <u>million</u> times.

Alliteration is a type of figurative language that repeats beginning consonant sounds.

Examples: windy wintry weather   readin' and writin' and 'rithmatic   mired in mud

Onomatopoeia is the use of words that sound like what they mean.

Examples: *bawl* of a baby   *croak* of a frog   *screech* of the tires   *gurgling* brook

Allusions

An **allusion** is a literary device that "alludes" (refers) to something the reader knows about.

Example: Mr. Griggs made money no matter what business he was involved in. It seemed whatever he touched turned to gold.
(*The speaker is referring to the story of King Midas, who had the "golden touch."*)

Biblical Allusions

The leopard cannot change his spots. – an expression meaning people can't change; if a person has a bad character trait, he always will.

cross to bear – a necessary burden; it refers to the cross carried by Jesus.

doubting Thomas – someone who doesn't believe until he/she sees evidence

good Samaritan – one who does good or charitable deeds especially for the needy or a stranger

Judas – someone who betrays; a traitor

Literary Allusions

Cinderella story – one who starts with nothing and ends up with everything she ever dreamed of

trail of bread crumbs – like Hansel and Gretel, leaving a trail of crumbs; clues showing a path

Cheshire Cat – one who grins mischievously like the cat in *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*

Mythological Allusions

Herculean task – a task of enormous difficulty or requiring enormous strength; in Greek mythology, Hercules had to perform difficult and dangerous tasks.

Sisyphean task – a task with no hope of succeeding; in Greek mythology, Sisyphus was forced to roll a heavy boulder uphill every day only to have it roll back down.

Pandora's Box – something that leads to unexpected yet serious troubles; in Greek mythology, Pandora's box, opened against warnings not to do so, released evil into the world.

Achilles' Heel – a person's only vulnerability or fatal flaw; named for the Greek mythic hero, Achilles, whose heel, left unprotected, was pierced by a poisonous arrow.

Historical Allusions

Benedict Arnold – a traitor; refers to the traitorous Revolutionary War general.

Waterloo – an event that causes someone's downfall; the site where the French conqueror Napoleon Bonaparte was finally defeated.

Draconian – extremely harsh or severe; named for a harsh code of Greek laws written by Draco

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Analogies

An **analogy** is a way of comparing.

Example: mayor : city :: governor : state   This is read: mayor is to city as governor is to state.

To solve an analogy, figure out the <u>relationship</u> between the two words.

The *mayor* is the <u>leader</u> of a *city*. The *governor* is the <u>leader</u> of a *state*.

Example: lamb : sheep :: calf : _____   horse   piglet   cow   kitten

What is the <u>relationship</u>? A *lamb* is a <u>baby</u> *sheep*. The missing word must be *cow* because a *calf* is a <u>baby</u> cow.

In an **analogy**, the words may be compared in many ways.

Relationship	Example
synonyms	happy : joyful :: tall : high *Happy* and *joyful* are <u>synonyms</u>. *Tall* and *high* are <u>synonyms</u> too.
antonyms	thin : thick :: rich : poor *Thin* is the <u>opposite</u> of *thick*. *Rich* is the <u>opposite</u> of *poor*.
descriptions	bright : sunshine :: prickly : porcupine *Sunshine* is *bright*. A *porcupine* is *prickly*.
parts	wheels : bicycle :: legs : table A *bicycle* has *wheels*. A *table* has *legs*.
categories or subgroups	rabbit : mammal :: orange : fruit A *rabbit* is a type of *mammal*. An *orange* is a type of *fruit*.

Bibliography

A **bibliography** is an alphabetical list of sources used in the writing of a paper. The title, author, date, and other information listed for each source is called a **citation**. Citation styles differ, so always follow your teacher's specific instructions. Here are some MLA format guidelines and examples of how to complete a citation for different types of sources. If any information is not available, make each citation as complete as possible. If no date is provided, **n.d.** is used (no date). Note that a proper citation includes indenting the second and subsequent lines by one half inch to create a hanging indent. While proper form for titles of major works in a typed paper requires italics, handwritten citations, as in this workbook, are underlined.

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