

Sharyland ISD Study Guide

English IV Semester 1



Student Name: _____
Student ID: _____

English IV CBE-A Study Guide

Directions: These are the units that will be covered in Part A of your exam. Be familiar with the literary elements, material, and be prepared to write a well written 2-page essay over the prompt choices given. The exam is composed of multiple choice (80%) and one essay (20%).

- I. Anglo Saxon- Medieval Period**
 - a. Beowulf p. 18 - 45
 - i. Characters
 - ii. Setting
 - iii. Plot
 - iv. Kennings
 - v. Alliteration
 - vi. Caesura
 - vii. Theme
 - b. The Canterbury Tales p. 96 - 133
 - i. Geoffrey Chaucer
 - ii. Pilgrims
 - iii. Setting
 - iv. Background
 - v. Plot
 - vi. Prologue
 - vii. Characterization(direct /indirect)
 - viii. Satire/Irony/imagery
 - ix. Couplets
 - x. iambic pentameter
 - xi. "The Pardoner's Tale"/"Wife of Bath's Tale"
 1. Verbal irony
 2. Situational irony
 3. Author's purpose
- II. Write a Research Paper p 880-887, Language Arts Handbook p. H31, MLA.org**
 - a. Format
 - b. Organization and development of ideas
 - c. Works Cited format
- III. Outside reading novel: *Lord of the Flies*, William Golding**
 - a. Characterization
 - b. Plot
 - c. Setting
 - d. Point of View
 - e. Literary devices (metaphors, allusions, foreshadowing, etc.)
 - f. Allegory
 - g. Theme
 - h. Irony
 - i. Symbolism
- IV. Grammar/Usage—pgs. H8**
 - a. Sentence Structure
 - i. Simple
 - ii. Compound
 - iii. Complex
 - iv. Compound/complex
 - v. Subordinate clauses
 - vi. independent clauses
 - b. Phrases
 - i. Adjective
 - ii. Infinitive
 - iii. Prepositional
 - iv. Appositives
- V. The Essay—**
 - a. Thesis
 - b. Concrete detail(textual evidence)
 - c. Commentary
 - d. Conclusion

Additional Research, Writing, Grammar source: MLA.org, Purdue OWL: <https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/>

APPOSITIVE PHRASES

An **appositive phrase** is a group of words made up of an appositive and all its modifiers. The phrase renames or identifies a noun or a pronoun.

EXAMPLES

Sara's house, **a cabin in a remote area**, is the site for the weekend retreat. (The appositive phrase renames the noun *house*.)

The languages **English, Spanish, and French** blasted from the loudspeakers. (The appositive phrase identifies which languages blasted from the loudspeakers.)

The first example above, *a cabin in a remote area*, is a **nonessential**, or **nonrestrictive, appositive phrase**. It is not necessary to the meaning of the sentence; it is not needed to identify which particular house, since we already know that it is Sara's. Therefore, it is set off with commas.

The second example, *English, Spanish, and French*, is an **essential**, or **restrictive, appositive phrase**. It is necessary for understanding the sentence because it identifies which particular languages, since we do not already know which ones. This appositive phrase is not set off with commas.

Appositive phrases add variety to your writing because they can be placed at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a sentence. Using appositive phrases to combine sentences eliminates unimportant words and creates more fact-filled sentences. When you join two ideas with an appositive phrase, place the idea you wish to stress in the main clause and make the less important idea the appositive.

3.12 Clauses

A **clause** is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb and that functions as one part of speech. There are two types of clauses— independent and subordinate.

An **independent clause**, sometimes called a *main clause*, has a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. Since it can stand alone as a sentence, it is called *independent*.

EXAMPLE

Iceland has a misunderstood reputation as a land of ice, snow, and fog.

A **subordinate clause** or *dependent clause* has a subject and a verb, but it doesn't express a complete thought. It can't stand alone. It must be attached to or inserted into an independent clause. When you combine subordinate clauses with independent clauses, you form complete sentences.

EXAMPLES

Because the theater was sold out, the twins went to the mall. (The subordinate clause *because the film was sold out* is attached to an independent clause.)

The baby **who captured everyone's attention** got the part in the commercial. (The subordinate clause *who captured everyone's attention* is inserted into the independent clause *The baby got the part in the commercial*.)

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

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

An **adjective clause** is a subordinate clause that functions as an adjective. It modifies a noun or a pronoun. Adjective clauses are introduced most frequently with words like the following: *that, which, who, whom, whose, when, why, and where*. An adjective clause follows the word it modifies.

ADVERB CLAUSES

An **adverb clause** is a subordinate clause that functions as an adverb. It modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

EXAMPLES

Virgil used the computer **every chance he could**. (*Every chance he could* modifies the verb *used*.)

Nancy studies much harder **than her sister does**. (*Than her sister does* modifies the adverb *harder*.)

Today, Stanley played far better **than he usually does**. (*Than he usually does* modifies the adverb *better*.)

When you use an adverb clause at the beginning of a sentence, follow it with a comma. If you use an adverb clause at the end of a sentence, you do not need to use a comma before it.

My friend is generous **with her time**. (The prepositional phrase *with her time* tells how the friend is generous. The phrase is used as an adverb, modifying the adjective *generous*.)

Use prepositional phrases to create sentence variety. When every sentence in a paragraph starts with its subject, the rhythm of the sentences becomes boring. Revise your sentences, where it is appropriate, to start some with prepositional phrases.

EXAMPLE

Chad stacked sandbags **for nearly eight hours**.
For nearly eight hours, Chad stacked sandbags.

VERBAL PHRASES

Verbals are verb forms that act as namers or modifiers. There are three kinds of verbals: participles, gerunds, and infinitives.

Participial Phrases

A **participle** is a verb form ending in *-ing*, *-d*, or *-ed* that acts as an adjective, modifying a noun or a pronoun. A **participial phrase** is made up of a participle and all of the words related to the participle, which may include objects, modifiers, and prepositional phrases. The entire phrase acts as an adjective.

EXAMPLES

Swimming quickly toward the shore, Diego thought eagerly about a warm shower. (The participle *swimming*, the adverb *quickly*, and the prepositional phrase *toward the shore* make up the participial phrase that modifies Diego.)

Jeffrey picked up the clothes **scattered around his bedroom**. (The participle *scattered* and the prepositional phrase *around his bedroom* make up the participial phrase that modifies *clothes*.)

For variety, begin some of your sentences with participial phrases. However, be sure to place the participial phrase close to the word it modifies. Otherwise, you may say something you do not mean.

EXAMPLES

misplaced participial phrase

I saw the craters on the moon looking through a telescope.

revised sentence

Looking through a telescope, I saw the craters on the moon.

Gerund Phrases

A **gerund phrase** is a phrase made up of a gerund (a verb form ending in *-ing*) and all of its modifiers and complements. The entire phrase functions as a noun. This means that the phrase may be the subject, predicate nominative, direct object, indirect object, or object of the preposition in a sentence. A gerund's modifiers include adjectives, adverbs, and prepositional phrases.

EXAMPLES

Waiting for the school bus gives Henry time to read. (The gerund phrase functions as the subject of the sentence.)

One of Henry's favorite quiet times is **waiting for the school bus**. (The gerund phrase functions as the predicate nominative of the sentence.)

Jim, however, hated **waiting for the school bus** more than anything else. (The gerund phrase functions as the direct object of the sentence.)

He always stopped for snacks before **waiting for the school bus**. (The gerund phrase functions as the object of the preposition.)

Infinitive Phrases

An **infinitive phrase** is made up of an infinitive (a verb form preceded by the word *to*) and all its modifiers and complements. Infinitive phrases can function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

EXAMPLES

It's pleasant **to eat strawberries with whipped cream**. (The infinitive phrase functions as an adverb.)

The general intends **to charge at the enemy's flank**. (The infinitive phrase functions as a noun.)

Sometimes the *to* of an infinitive phrase is left out; it is understood.

EXAMPLES

Eli helped **[to]** build the deck.

I'll go **[to]** turn off the porch light.

- **Question** Ask the **reporting questions** *who, what, where, when, why, and how* about your topic. This questioning strategy is especially useful for gathering information about an event or for planning a story.
- **Create a Graphic Organizer** A good way to gather information is to create a **graphic organizer**, such as a Cluster Chart, Venn Diagram, Sensory Details Chart, Time Line, Story Map, or Pro-and-Con Chart. For examples, see the Language Arts Handbook, section 1, Reading Strategies and Skills, page H1.

Write Your Thesis Statement

One way to start organizing your writing, especially if you are writing an informative or argumentative essay, is to identify the main idea of what you want to say. Present this idea in the form of a sentence or two called a thesis statement. A **thesis statement** is simply a sentence that presents the main idea or the position you will take in your essay.

Example thesis for an argumentative essay

The development at Rice Creek Farm should be stopped because it will destroy one of the best natural areas near the city.

Example thesis for an informative essay

Wilma Rudolph was an athlete who succeeded in the elite sport of tennis before the world was willing to recognize her.

Methods of Organization

The ideas in your writing should be ordered and linked in a logical and easily understandable way. You can organize your writing in the following ways:

Methods of Organization	
Chronological Order	Events are given in the order they occur.
Order of Importance	Details are given in order of importance or familiarity.
Comparison-and-Contrast Order	Similarities and differences of two things are listed.
Cause-and-Effect Order	One or more causes are presented followed by one or more effects.

To link your ideas, use connective words and phrases. In informational or argumentative writing, *for example, as a result, finally, therefore, and in fact* are common

connectives. In narrative and descriptive writing, words like *first, then, suddenly, above, beyond, in the distance, and there* are common connectives. In comparison-contrast organization, common phrases include *similarly, on the other hand, and in contrast*. In cause-and-effect organization, linkers include *one cause, another effect, as a result, consequently, finally, and therefore*.

Create an Outline An **outline** is an excellent framework for highlighting main ideas and supporting details. To create a rough outline, simply list your main ideas in some logical order. Under each main idea, list the supporting details set off by dashes.

EXAMPLE

What Is Drama?

Definition of Drama

- Tells a story
- Uses actors to play characters
- Uses a stage, properties, lights, costumes, makeup, and special effects

Types of Drama

- Tragedy
 - Definition: A play in which the main character meets a negative fate
 - Examples: *Antigone, Romeo and Juliet, Death of a Salesman*
- Comedy
 - Definition: A play in which the main character meets a positive fate
 - Examples: *A Midsummer Night's Dream, Cyrano de Bergerac, The Odd Couple*

2 DRAFT

After you have gathered your information and organized it, the next step in writing is to produce a draft. A **draft** is simply an early attempt at writing a paper. Different writers approach drafting in different ways. Some prefer to work slowly and carefully, perfecting each part as they go. Others prefer to write a discovery draft, getting all their ideas down on paper in rough form and then going back over those ideas to shape and focus them. When writing a discovery draft, you do not focus on spelling, grammar, usage, and mechanics. You can take care of those details during revision.

Draft Your Introduction

The purpose of an introduction is to capture your reader's attention and establish what you want to say. An effective introduction can start with a quotation, a question, an anecdote, an intriguing fact, or a

3.10 Phrases

A **phrase** is a group of words used as a single part of speech. A phrase lacks a subject, a verb, or both; therefore, it cannot be a sentence. There are three common kinds of phrases: prepositional phrases, verbal phrases, and appositive phrases.

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

A **prepositional phrase** consists of a preposition, its object, and any modifiers of that object. A prepositional phrase adds information to a sentence by relating its object to another word in the sentence. It may function as an adjective or an adverb.

EXAMPLES

adjectives

Sue planned a party **with music and dancing**. (The prepositional phrase *with music and dancing* tells what kind of party Sue planned. The phrase is used as an adjective, modifying the noun *party*.)

She found the CDs and tapes in a box **under her bed**. (The prepositional phrase *under her bed* tells in which box Sue found the CDs and tapes. The phrase is used as an adjective, modifying the object of the prepositional phrase *in a box*.)

adverbs

Albert struggled **into his jacket**. (The prepositional phrase *into his jacket* tells how Albert struggled. The phrase is used as an adverb, modifying the verb *struggled*.)

My friend is generous **with her time**. (The prepositional phrase *with her time* tells how the friend is generous. The phrase is used as an adverb, modifying the adjective *generous*.)

Use prepositional phrases to create sentence variety. When every sentence in a paragraph starts with its subject, the rhythm of the sentences becomes boring. Revise your sentences, where it is appropriate, to start some with prepositional phrases.

EXAMPLE

Chad stacked sandbags **for nearly eight hours**.

For nearly eight hours, Chad stacked sandbags.

3.11 Common Usage Problems

INCORRECT USE OF APOSTROPHES

Use an apostrophe to replace letters that have been left out in a contraction.

EXAMPLES

that's = that is
aren't = are not
we'll = we will

Use an apostrophe to show possession.

Singular Nouns

Use an apostrophe and an *s* (*'s*) to form the possessive of a singular noun, even if it ends in *s*, *x*, or *z*.

EXAMPLES

storm's damage
Chris's guitar
Max's spoon
jazz's history

Plural Nouns

Use an apostrophe and an *s* (*'s*) to form the possessive of a plural noun that does not end in *s*.

EXAMPLES

geese's flight
women's conference

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

EXAMPLES

dolphins' migration
wheels' hubcaps

Do not add an apostrophe or *'s* to possessive personal pronouns: *mine*, *yours*, *his*, *hers*, *its*, *ours*, or *theirs*. They already show ownership.

EXAMPLES

His homework is finished; **mine** is not done yet.

The red house on the corner is **theirs**.

3.1 The Sentence

THE SENTENCE

In the English language, the sentence is the basic unit of meaning. A **sentence** is a group of words that expresses a complete thought. Every sentence has two basic parts: a subject and a predicate. The **subject** tells whom or what the sentence is about. The **predicate** tells information about the subject.

EXAMPLE

sentence

The experienced detective [**subject**] | asked the suspect several questions [**predicate**].

FUNCTIONS OF SENTENCES

There are four different kinds of sentences: *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, and *exclamatory*. Each kind of sentence has a different purpose. You can vary the tone and mood of your writing by using the four different sentence types.

- A **declarative sentence** makes a statement. It ends with a period.

EXAMPLE

Samantha is in the backyard trying to repair the lawnmower.

- An **interrogative sentence** asks a question. It ends with a question mark.

EXAMPLE

Will she be joining you for supper later tonight?

- An **imperative sentence** gives an order or makes a request. It ends with a period or an exclamation point. An imperative sentence has an understood subject, most often *you*.

EXAMPLES

(You) Please take a glass of lemonade to her.
(You) Don't touch that sharp blade!

- An **exclamatory sentence** expresses strong feeling. It ends with an exclamation point.

EXAMPLE

Samantha is a wizard at fixing lawnmowers!

SIMPLE AND COMPLETE SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES

In a sentence, the **simple subject** is the key word or words in the subject. The simple subject is usually a noun or a pronoun and does not include any modifiers. The **complete subject** includes the simple subject and all the words that modify it.

The **simple predicate** is the key verb or verb phrase that tells what the subject does, has, or is. The **complete predicate** includes the verb and all the words that modify it.

In the following sentence, a vertical line separates the complete subject and complete predicate. The simple subject is underlined once. The simple predicate is underlined twice.

EXAMPLE

Bright orange tongues of flame [**complete subject**] | danced erratically in the center of the clearing [**complete predicate**].

Sometimes, the simple subject is also the complete subject, and the simple predicate or verb is also the complete predicate.

EXAMPLE

Falcons | swooped.

To find the simple subject and simple predicate in a sentence, first break the sentence into its two basic parts: complete subject and complete predicate. Then, identify the simple predicate by asking yourself, "What is the action of this sentence?" Finally, identify the simple subject by asking yourself, "Who or what is performing the action?" In the following sentences, the complete predicate is in parentheses. The simple predicate, or verb, appears in boldface.

EXAMPLES

one-word verb

Your friend on the track team (**runs** swiftly.)

two-word verb

Your friend on the track team (**will run** swiftly in this race.)

three-word verb

All season long, your friend on the track team (**has been running** swiftly.)

four-word verb

If he hadn't twisted his ankle last week, your friend on the track team (**would have been running** swiftly today.)

COMPOUND SUBJECTS AND PREDICATES

A sentence may have more than one subject or predicate. A **compound subject** has two or more simple subjects that have the same predicate. The subjects are joined by the conjunction *and*, *or*, or *but*.

A **compound predicate** has two or more simple predicates, or verbs, that share the same subject. The verbs are connected by the conjunction *and*, *or*, or *but*.

EXAMPLES

compound subject

Pamela and Else | read their books in the library.

compound predicate

Four maniacal crows | watched and waited while I washed the car.

The conjunctions *either* and *or* and *neither* and *nor* can also join compound subjects or predicates.

EXAMPLES

compound subject

Either Peter or Paul | sings the national anthem before each game.

Neither yesterday nor today | seemed like a good time to start the project.

compound predicate

Her dogs | either heard or smelled the intruder in the basement.

The police inspector | neither visited nor called last night.

A sentence may also have a compound subject and a compound predicate.

EXAMPLE

compound subject and compound predicate

Mandy and Eric | grilled the hamburgers and made the coleslaw.

SENTENCE STRUCTURES

A **simple sentence** consists of one independent clause and no subordinate clauses. It may have a compound subject and a compound predicate. It may also have

any number of phrases. A simple sentence is sometimes called an independent clause because it can stand by itself.

EXAMPLES

Three bears emerged from the forest.

They spotted the campers and the hikers and decided to pay a visit.

The three bears enjoyed eating the campers' fish, sandwiches, and candy bars.

A **compound sentence** consists of two sentences joined by a semicolon or by a coordinating conjunction and a comma. Each part of the compound sentence has its own subject and verb. The most common coordinating conjunctions are *and*, *or*, *nor*, *for*, *but*, *so*, and *yet*.

EXAMPLES

Feeding bears is dangerous and unwise, **for** it creates larger problems in the long run.

Our zoo is home to two panda bears; they were originally captured in Asia.

A **complex sentence** consists of one independent clause and one or more subordinate clauses. The subordinate clauses in the examples below are underlined.

EXAMPLES

When you finish your report, remember to print it out on paper that contains 25 percent cotton fiber.

Jim will water the lawn after he returns home from the baseball game.

If you combine a compound sentence and a complex sentence, you form a **compound-complex sentence**. This kind of sentence must have two or more independent clauses and at least one subordinate clause. In the following examples, the subordinate clauses are underlined.

EXAMPLES

Rabbits, which like to nibble on the flowers, often visit my garden early in the morning, or they wait until early evening when the dog is inside the house.

Larry enthusiastically leaps out of bed each morning after his alarm clock rings, yet he often feels sleepy in the afternoon.

Citing Sources

The following chart shows the correct form for citing different types of bibliography entries, following the *Modern Language Association (MLA) Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*.

MLA Forms for Works Cited	
Book	Douglass, Frederick. <i>Escape from Slavery: The Boyhood of Frederick Douglass in His Own Words</i> . Alfred A. Knopf, 1994.
Magazine article	Reston, James, Jr. "Orion: Where Stars Are Born." <i>National Geographic</i> , vol. 188, no. 6, Dec. 1995, pp. 90.
Encyclopedia entry	Barber, Russell J. "Anthropological Ethics." <i>Ethics</i> , edited by John K. Roth, Rev. ed., vol. 1, Salem Press, 2005, pp. 67-69.
Interview	Smith, Jane. Personal interview. 19 May 2014.
Film	<i>The Usual Suspects</i> . Directed by Bryan Singer, performances by Kevin Spacey, Gabriel Byrne, Chazz Palminteri, Stephen Baldwin, and Benecio del Toro, Polygram, 1995.

Citing Internet Sources

To document your Internet sources, use your research journal to record each site you visit (See the Language Arts Handbook, 5.3 Internet Research, page H32) or make bibliography cards as you search. An Internet source entry should include the following general pieces of information:

- Name of the author, if available, last name first, followed by a period.
- Title of the source, document, file, or page in quotation marks, followed by a period.
- Title of the website, in italics, and followed by a comma.
- The name of the publisher if it differs from the name of the website, followed by a comma.
- The date the website was published, followed by a comma.
- Provide an electronic address, or URL. Eliminate all <https://> when citing URLs, only [www.](http://) address is required. Follow the URL with a period.

The *Modern Language Association Handbook for Writers of Research Papers* acknowledges that all source tracking information on the Internet may not be obtainable. Therefore, the manual recommends that if you cannot find some of this information, cite what is available.

EXAMPLE INTERNET CITATIONS

White, Lori. "The Newest Fad in People Helping People: Little Free Pantries." *Upworthy*, Cloud Tiger Media, 3 Aug. 2016, www.upworthy.com/the-newest-fad-in-people-helping-people-little-free-pantries?g=2&c=hpstream.

For sites with no name of the database or online source:

Chachich, Mike. "Letters from Japan Vol 1" 30 Mar. 1994, www.chachich.com/cgi-bin/catlfj?1.

For sites with no author:

"The Science Behind the Sod." *MSU News Bulletin*. 13 June 2002. Michigan State University. Web. 17 June 2009. <http://www.newsbulletin.msu.edu/june13/sod.html>.

For an e-mail message:

Daniel Akaka (senator@akaka.senate.gov). "Oceanic Exploration Grant." E-mail to Joseph Biden (senator@biden.senate.gov). 17 June 2003.

Parenthetical Documentation

Parenthetical documentation is currently the most widely used form of documentation. To use this method to document the source of a quotation or an idea, you place a brief note identifying the source in parentheses immediately after the borrowed material. This type of note is called a parenthetical citation, and the act of placing such a note is called citing a source.

The first part of a parenthetical citation refers the reader to a source in your List of Works Cited or Works Consulted. For the reader's ease in finding the source in your bibliography, you must cite the work according to how it is listed in the bibliography.

EXAMPLE PARENTHETICAL CITATIONS

For works listed by title, use an abbreviated title.*Sample bibliographic entry*

"History." Encyclopedia Britannica: Macropædia, 1992 ed.

Sample citation

Historians go through three stages in textual criticism ("History" 615).

For works listed by author or editor, use the author's or editor's last name.*Sample bibliographic entry*

Brown, Dee. *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee: An Indian History of the American West*, 1970.

Sample citation

"Big Eyes Schurz agreed to the arrest" (Brown 364).

When the listed name or title is stated in the text, cite only the page number.

Brown states that Big Eyes Schurz agreed to it (364).

For works of multiple volumes, use a colon after the volume number.*Sample bibliographic entry*

Pepys, Samuel. *The Diary of Samuel Pepys*. Eds. Robert Latham and William Matthews, 10 vols, Berkeley: University of California Press, 1972.

Sample citation

On the last day of 1665, Pepys took the occasion of the new year to reflect, but not to celebrate (6: 341-2).

For works quoted in secondary sources, use the abbreviation "qtd. in."*Sample citation*

According to R. Bentley, "reason and the facts outweigh a hundred manuscripts" (qtd. in "History" 615).

For classic works that are available in various editions, give the page number from the edition

you are using, followed by a semicolon; then identify the section of the work to help people with other editions find the reference.

Footnotes and Endnotes

In addition to parenthetical documentation, footnoting and endnoting are two other accepted methods.

Footnotes Instead of putting citations in parentheses within the text, you can place them at the bottom or foot of the page; hence the term *footnote*. In this system, a number or symbol is placed in the text where the parenthetical citation would otherwise be, and a matching number or symbol at the bottom of the page identifies the citation. This textbook, for example, uses numbered footnotes in its literature selections to define obscure words and to provide background information.

Endnotes Many books use endnotes instead of footnotes. Endnotes are like footnotes in that a number or symbol is placed within the text, but the matching citations are compiled at the end of the book, chapter, or article rather than at the foot of the page. Footnote and endnote entries begin with the author's (or editor's) name in its usual order (first name, then last) and include publication information and a page reference.

EXAMPLE FOOTNOTE OR ENDNOTE CITATIONS

Book with one author

¹Jean Paul-Sartre, *Being and Nothingness* (New York: The Citadel Press, 1966) 149-51.

Book with one editor and no single author

²Shannon Ravenel, ed., *New Stories from the South: The Year's Best, 1992* (Chapel Hill, NC: Algonquin Books, 1992) 305.

Magazine article

³Andrew Gore, "Road Test: The Apple Powerbook," *MacUser*, Dec. 1996: 72.