# ENGL 101 - Rhetoric & Composition

## Table of Contents

### Chapter 1 Reading & Writing in College

- Introduction .................................................................................................................. 1
- Exercise 1 .................................................................................................................... 3
- Reading Strategies .................................................................................................... 3
- Planning Your Reading ............................................................................................... 4
- Managing Your Reading Time .................................................................................... 4
- Setting a Purpose ....................................................................................................... 4
- Improving Your Comprehension ............................................................................... 5
- Identifying the Main Points ...................................................................................... 6
- Monitoring Your Comprehension ............................................................................. 7
- Exercise 2 .................................................................................................................. 8
- Taking It to the Next Level ....................................................................................... 8
- Using the SQ3R Strategy ........................................................................................... 9
- Using Other Active Reading Strategies .................................................................. 10
- Common Writing Assignments ............................................................................... 11
- Key Takeaways ....................................................................................................... 15

### Chapter 2 The Writing Process

- **2.0 Introduction** ........................................................................................................ 16
- **2.1 Applying Prewriting Models** ........................................................................... 18
  - Prewriting ............................................................................................................... 18
  - Choosing a Topic ................................................................................................... 18
  - Using Experience and Observations .................................................................... 19
  - Reading .................................................................................................................. 19
  - Freewriting ............................................................................................................. 20
  - Exercise 1 .............................................................................................................. 21
  - Asking Questions .................................................................................................. 21
  - Exercise 2 .............................................................................................................. 23
  - Exercise 3 .............................................................................................................. 23
  - Narrowing the Focus ............................................................................................. 24
  - More Prewriting Techniques ................................................................................ 24
  - Brainstorming ...................................................................................................... 24
  - Idea Mapping ........................................................................................................ 25
  - Searching the Internet ......................................................................................... 27
- Key Takeaways ....................................................................................................... 27
# Table of Contents

## 2.2 Outlining
- Introduction ..................................................................................................................28
- Organizing Ideas ..........................................................................................................28
- Methods of Organizing Writing ..................................................................................29
- Writing a Thesis Statement .........................................................................................30
- Exercise 1 ....................................................................................................................31
- Writing an Outline .......................................................................................................31
- Constructing Topic Outlines .....................................................................................33
- Exercise 2 ....................................................................................................................34
- Constructing Sentence Outlines ...............................................................................35
- Exercise 3 ....................................................................................................................36
- Key Takeaways ............................................................................................................36

## 2.3 Drafting
- Introduction ..................................................................................................................37
- Making the Process Work for You ...........................................................................37
- Setting Goals for Your First Draft .............................................................................39
- Discovering the Basic Elements of a First Draft ......................................................40
- The Role of Topic Sentences .....................................................................................40
- Paragraphs ...................................................................................................................41
- Starting Your First Draft ............................................................................................42
- Continuing Your First Draft .......................................................................................44
- Writing a Title .............................................................................................................46
- Writing Your Own First Draft .....................................................................................46
- Key Takeaways ............................................................................................................47

## 2.4 Revising and Editing
- Introduction ..................................................................................................................48
- Understanding the Purpose of Revising and Editing ..............................................49
- Creating Unity and Coherence ..................................................................................49
- Creating Coherence ....................................................................................................50
- Being Clear and Concise .............................................................................................53
- Identifying Wordiness ...............................................................................................53
- Choosing Specific, Appropriate Words ....................................................................54
- Completing a Peer Review .........................................................................................56
- Using Feedback Objectively .....................................................................................57
- Using Feedback from Multiple Sources .................................................................57
## Table of Contents

- **Editing Your Draft** ..................................................................................................................................................................................57
- **Formatting** ..............................................................................................................................................................................................60
- **Exercise 1** ...............................................................................................................................................................................................60
- **Key Takeaways** .......................................................................................................................................................................................61

### 2.5 The Writing Process: End-of-Chapter Exercises ............................................................................................................................62

## Chapter 3 **Purpose, Audience, Tone, and Content**

- **Introduction** ................................................................................................................................................................................................63
- **Identifying Common Academic Purposes** .................................................................................................................................................64
- **Identifying the Audience** ............................................................................................................................................................................64
- **Selecting an Appropriate Tone** ...................................................................................................................................................................66
- **Choosing Appropriate, Interesting Content** ...............................................................................................................................................67
- **Key Takeaways** ..........................................................................................................................................................................................67

## Chapter 4 **Writing Summaries and Responses**

- **Introduction** ................................................................................................................................................................................................68
- **The Process of Writing a Summary** ...........................................................................................................................................................68
- **Response Writing** .......................................................................................................................................................................................70
- **The Summary/Response Assignment** ........................................................................................................................................................71

## Chapter 5 **Writing Essays**

### 5.1 Developing a Strong, Clear Thesis Statement .................................................................................................................................73

- **Introduction** ............................................................................................................................................................................................73
- **Elements of a Thesis Statement** ...............................................................................................................................................................74
- **A Strong Thesis Statement** .......................................................................................................................................................................74
- **Exercise 1** ...............................................................................................................................................................................................75
- **Examples of Appropriate Thesis Statements** ...............................................................................................................................................76
- **Exercise 2** ................................................................................................................................................................................................77
- **Thesis Statement** ........................................................................................................................................................................................78
- **Ways to Revise Your Thesis** .......................................................................................................................................................................78
- **Exercise 3** ................................................................................................................................................................................................80
- **Key Takeaways** ..........................................................................................................................................................................................81
# ENGL 101 - Rhetoric & Composition

## Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>5.2 Writing Body Paragraphs</strong></td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select Primary Support for Your Thesis</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the Characteristics of Good Primary Support</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-write to Identify Primary Supporting Points for a Thesis Statement</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select the Most Effective Primary Supporting Points for a Thesis Statement</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 2</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choose Supporting Topic Sentences</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 3</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draft Supporting Detail Sentences for Each Primary Support Sentence</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 4</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5.3 Organizing Your Writing</strong></td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronological Order</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 2</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order of Importance</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 3</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial Order</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 4</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5.4 Writing Introductory and Concluding Paragraphs</strong></td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attracting Interest in Your Introductory Paragraph</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 2</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing a Conclusion</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Anatomy of a Strong Conclusion</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 3</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5.5 Writing Essays: End-of-Chapter Exercises</strong></td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Table of Contents

## Chapter 6 Narration

- Introduction..............................................................................................................................................................................................105
- The Purpose of Narrative Writing............................................................................................................................................................105
- The Structure of a Narrative Essay..........................................................................................................................................................106
- Writing a Narrative Essay ........................................................................................................................................................................107
- Key Takeaways ........................................................................................................................................................................................107
- Examples of Narrative Essays .................................................................................................................................................................108

## Chapter 7 Description

- The Purpose of Description in Writing ....................................................................................................................................................109
- Exercise 1 .................................................................................................................................................................................................110
- Showing vs. Telling ..................................................................................................................................................................................111
- Exercise 2 .................................................................................................................................................................................................112
- The Structure of a Description Essay.......................................................................................................................................................112
- Writing a Description Essay ....................................................................................................................................................................113
- Key Takeaways ........................................................................................................................................................................................113
- Examples of Essays ..................................................................................................................................................................................113

## Chapter 8 Exemplification: Using Examples to Support a Thesis

- The Purpose of Using Exemplification in Writing ............................................................................................................................................114
- The Structure of an Exemplification Essay..............................................................................................................................................115
- Writing an Exemplification Essay ............................................................................................................................................................116
- Key Takeaways ........................................................................................................................................................................................116
- Examples of Essays..................................................................................................................................................................................117

## Chapter 9 Process Analysis

- The Purpose of Process Analysis in Writing ......................................................................................................................................................118
- The Structure of a Process Analysis Essay ..............................................................................................................................................118
- Writing a Process Analysis Essay ............................................................................................................................................................119
- Key Takeaways ........................................................................................................................................................................................119
- Examples of Essays..................................................................................................................................................................................120
# ENGL 101 - Rhetoric & Composition

## Table of Contents

### Chapter 10 Comparison and Contrast

- The Purpose of Comparison and Contrast in Writing ................................................................. 121
- The Structure of a Comparison and Contrast Essay ................................................................. 122
- Organize by Subject .............................................................................................................. 123
- Organize by Point ................................................................................................................. 123
- Writing a Comparison and Contrast Essay ........................................................................ 124
- Key Takeaways .................................................................................................................. 125
- Examples of Essays .......................................................................................................... 125

### Chapter 11 Classification

- The Purpose of Classification in Writing ............................................................................. 126
- The Structure of a Classification Essay ............................................................................... 127
- Writing a Classification Essay .......................................................................................... 127
- Key Takeaways ................................................................................................................ 128
- Examples of Essays .......................................................................................................... 128

### Chapter 12 Cause and Effect

- The Purpose of Cause and Effect in Writing ...................................................................... 129
- The Structure of a Cause-and-Effect Essay ....................................................................... 130
- Organizing By Discussing Effects First ............................................................................ 130
- Organizing By Discussing Causes First ............................................................................ 131
- Writing a Cause-and-Effect Essay .................................................................................... 133
- Key Takeaways ................................................................................................................ 133
- Examples of Essays .......................................................................................................... 134

### Chapter 13 Argument and Persuasion

- The Purpose of Persuasive Writing ...................................................................................... 135
- The Structure of a Persuasive Essay .................................................................................. 135
- Creating an Introduction and Thesis .................................................................................. 136
- Acknowledging Opposing Ideas and Limits to Your Argument .......................................... 136
- Bias in Writing .................................................................................................................... 137
- Checklist: Developing Sound Arguments .......................................................................... 138
- Fact and Opinion .............................................................................................................. 138
## Table of Contents

Using Visual Elements to Strengthen Arguments ................................................................. 139
Writing a Persuasive Essay .................................................................................................. 140
Key Takeaways .................................................................................................................... 141
Examples of Essays ........................................................................................................... 142

### Chapter 14 Research Strategies

#### 14.1 The Purpose of Research Writing .......................................................................... 143
  - Introduction .................................................................................................................. 143
  - Reasons for Research .................................................................................................. 144
  - Exercise 1 .................................................................................................................... 145
  - Exercise 2 .................................................................................................................... 145
  - Steps of the Research Writing Process ....................................................................... 145
  - Step 1: Choosing a Topic ............................................................................................. 146
  - Step 2: Planning and Scheduling ............................................................................... 146
  - Step 3: Conducting Research ..................................................................................... 147
  - Step 4: Organizing Research and the Writer’s Ideas .................................................. 147
  - Step 5: Drafting Your Paper ....................................................................................... 147
  - Step 6: Revising and Editing Your Paper .................................................................... 148
  - Exercise 3 .................................................................................................................... 148
  - Key Takeaways ............................................................................................................ 148

#### 14.2 Strategies for Gathering Reliable Information ...................................................... 149
  - Introduction .................................................................................................................. 149
  - Locating Useful Resources .......................................................................................... 150
  - Using Primary and Secondary Sources ...................................................................... 150
  - Finding Print Resources .............................................................................................. 151
  - Exercise 1 .................................................................................................................... 153
  - Using Periodicals, Indexes, and Databases ................................................................ 154
  - Reading Popular and Scholarly Periodicals ............................................................... 155
  - Consulting a Reference Librarian ............................................................................... 156
  - Finding and Using Electronic Resources ..................................................................... 157
  - Using Internet Search Engines Efficiently ................................................................... 158
  - Using Other Information Sources: Interviews ......................................................... 159
  - Evaluating Research Resources .................................................................................. 159
  - Determining Whether a Source Is Relevant ............................................................... 160
  - Determining Whether a Source Is Reliable .................................................................. 160
ENGL 101 - Rhetoric & Composition

Table of Contents

Evaluating Types of Sources ................................................................................................................................. 161
Evaluating Credibility and Reputability .................................................................................................................. 162
Checking for Biases and Hidden Agendas ........................................................................................................... 163
Using Current Sources .......................................................................................................................................... 163
Evaluating Overall Quality by Asking Questions .................................................................................................. 164
Exercise 2 .................................................................................................................................................................. 165
Managing Source Information ............................................................................................................................... 165
Keeping Track of Your Sources ............................................................................................................................ 165
Taking Notes Efficiently ......................................................................................................................................... 167
Use Headings to Organize Ideas ............................................................................................................................ 167
Know When to Summarize, Paraphrase, or Directly Quote a Source ................................................................. 167
Maintain Complete, Accurate Notes ..................................................................................................................... 168
Use a System That Works for You ....................................................................................................................... 168
Key Takeaways ...................................................................................................................................................... 170

14.3 Citation ............................................................................................................................................................. 171
Introduction ............................................................................................................................................................... 171
Citing Outside Sources In-Text ............................................................................................................................... 172
MLA Parenthetical/In-Text Citation Examples ...................................................................................................... 173
APA Parenthetical/In-Text Citation Examples ...................................................................................................... 175
Citing Outside Sources in a Bibliography ............................................................................................................ 178
MLA Works Cited ................................................................................................................................................... 178
APA References ....................................................................................................................................................... 181

Chapter 15 Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

15.1 Sentence Writing ............................................................................................................................................... 184
Introduction ............................................................................................................................................................... 184
Components of a Sentence ..................................................................................................................................... 185
Subjects .................................................................................................................................................................... 185
Pronouns .................................................................................................................................................................. 186
Types of Pronouns .................................................................................................................................................. 186
Exercise 1 .................................................................................................................................................................. 187
Pronoun Agreement ............................................................................................................................................... 187
Agreement in Number .......................................................................................................................................... 188
Agreement in Person ............................................................................................................................................. 188
Exercise 2 .................................................................................................................................................................. 188
# ENGL 101 - Rhetoric & Composition

## Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite Pronouns and Agreement</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 3</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who versus Whom</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 4</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Pronoun Errors</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 5</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative Pronouns</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 6</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional Phrases</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 7</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action Verbs</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linking Verbs</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helping Verbs</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject-Verb Agreement</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectives and Adverbs</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative and Superlative</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular Words</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capitalization</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capitalization Rules</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>202</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## 15.2 Coordination and Subordination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinating Conjunctions</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinating Adverbs</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordination</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinating Conjunctions</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 2</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.3 Common Sentence Errors</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fragments</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Fragment Constructions</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject-Verb Agreement Errors</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Errors in Subject-Verb Agreement</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 2</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Run-on Sentences</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revising Run-on Sentences</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 3</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.4 Commas</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commas after an Introductory Word or Phrase</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commas in a List of Items</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commas and Coordinating Adjectives</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 2</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commas before Conjunctions in Compound Sentences</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 3</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commas before and after Interrupting Words</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 4</td>
<td>227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commas in Dates, Addresses, and the Greetings and Closings of Letters</td>
<td>227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 5</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 6</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.5 Semicolons</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semicolons to Join Two Independent Clauses</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semicolons to Join Items in a List</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# ENGL 101 - Rhetoric & Composition

## Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15.6 Colons</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colons to Introduce a List</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colons to Introduce a Quotation</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colons to Introduce Examples or Explanations</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.7 Apostrophes</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractions</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.8 Quotation Marks and Quotations</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Quotations</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuating Direct Quotations</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quotations within Quotations</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Titles</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.9 Commonly Confused Words</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commonly Confused Words</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognizing Commonly Confused Words</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies to Avoid Commonly Confused Words</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 2</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.10 Word Choice</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using a Dictionary and Thesaurus</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using Proper Connotations</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoiding Slang</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 1</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoiding Clichés</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 2</td>
<td>258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoiding Overly General Words</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise 3</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.11 Parallelism</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using Parallelism</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key Takeaways</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.12 Practice</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Links to Practice Exercises</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introduction

As you begin this chapter, you may be wondering why you need an introduction. After all, you have been writing and reading since elementary school. You completed numerous assessments of your reading and writing skills in high school and as part of your application process for college. You may write on the job, too. Why is a college writing course even necessary?

When you are eager to get started on the coursework in your major that will prepare you for your career, getting excited about an introductory college writing course can be difficult. However, regardless of your field of study, honing your writing skills—and your reading and critical-thinking skills—gives you a more solid academic foundation.

In college, academic expectations change from what you may have experienced in high school. The quantity of work you are expected to do is increased. When instructors expect you to read pages upon pages or study hours and hours for one particular course, managing your work load can be challenging. This chapter includes strategies for studying efficiently and managing your time.

The quality of the work you do also changes. It is not enough to understand course material and summarize it on an exam. You will also be expected to seriously engage with new ideas by reflecting on them, analyzing them, critiquing them, making connections, drawing conclusions, or finding new ways of thinking about a given subject. Educationally, you are moving into deeper waters. A good introductory writing course will help you swim.
Table 1.1 “High School versus College Assignments” summarizes some of the other major differences between high school and college assignments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High School</th>
<th>College</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading assignments are moderately long. Teachers may set aside some class time for reading and reviewing the material in depth.</td>
<td>Some reading assignments may be very long. You will be expected to come to class with a basic understanding of the material.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers often provide study guides and other aids to help you prepare for exams.</td>
<td>Reviewing for exams is primarily your responsibility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your grade is determined by your performance on a wide variety of assessments, including minor and major assignments. Not all assessments are writing based.</td>
<td>Your grade may depend on just a few major assessments. Most assessments are writing based.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing assignments include personal writing and creative writing in addition to expository writing.</td>
<td>Outside of creative writing courses, most writing assignments are expository.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The structure and format of writing assignments is generally stable over a four-year period.</td>
<td>Depending on the course, you may be asked to master new forms of writing and follow standards within a particular professional field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers often go out of their way to identify and try to help students who are performing poorly on exams, missing classes, not turning in assignments, or just struggling with the course. Often teachers will give students many “second chances.”</td>
<td>Although teachers want their students to succeed, they may not always realize when students are struggling. They also expect you to be proactive and take steps to help yourself. “Second chances” are less common.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This chapter covers the types of reading and writing assignments you will encounter as a college student. You will also learn a variety of strategies for mastering these new challenges—and becoming a more confident student and writer.

Throughout this chapter, you will follow a first-year student named Crystal. After several years of working as a saleswoman in a department store, Crystal has decided to pursue a degree in elementary education and become a teacher. She is continuing to work part-time, and occasionally she finds it challenging to balance the demands of work, school, and caring for her four-year-old son. As you read about Crystal, think about how you can use her experience to get the most out of your own college experience.

Exercise 1
Review Table 1.1 “High School versus College Assignments” and think about how you have found your college experience to be different from high school so far. Respond to the following questions:

1. In what ways do you think college will be more rewarding for you as a learner?
2. What aspects of college do you expect to find most challenging?
3. What changes do you think you might have to make in your life to ensure your success in college?

Reading Strategies
Your college courses will sharpen both your reading and your writing skills. Most of your writing assignments—from brief response papers to in-depth research projects—will depend on your understanding of course reading assignments or related readings you do on your own. It is difficult, if not impossible, to write effectively about a text that you have not understood. Even when you do understand the reading, it can be hard to write about it if you do not feel personally engaged with the ideas discussed.

This section discusses strategies you can use to get the most out of your college reading assignments. These strategies fall into three broad categories:

1. **Planning strategies.** To help you manage your reading assignments.
2. **Comprehension strategies.** To help you understand the material.
3. **Active reading strategies.** To take your understanding to a higher and deeper level.
Planning Your Reading
Have you ever stayed up all night cramming just before an exam or found yourself skimming a detailed memo from your boss five minutes before a crucial meeting? The first step in handling college reading successfully is planning. This involves both managing your time and setting a clear purpose for your reading.

Managing Your Reading Time
First, focus on setting aside enough time for reading and breaking your assignments into manageable chunks. If you are assigned a seventy-page chapter to read for next week’s class, try not to wait until the night before to get started. Give yourself at least a few days and tackle one section at a time.

Your method for breaking up the assignment will depend on the type of reading. If the text is very dense and packed with unfamiliar terms and concepts, you may need to read no more than five or ten pages in one sitting so that you can truly understand and process the information. With more user-friendly texts, you will be able to handle longer sections—twenty to forty pages, for instance. If you have a highly engaging reading assignment, such as a novel you cannot put down, you may be able to read lengthy passages in one sitting.

As the semester progresses, you will develop a better sense of how much time you need to allow for the reading assignments in different subjects. It also makes sense to preview each assignment well in advance to assess its difficulty level and to determine how much reading time to set aside.

Setting a Purpose
The other key component of planning is setting a purpose. Knowing what you want to get out of a reading assignment helps you determine how to approach it and how much time to spend on it. It also helps you stay focused during those occasional moments when it is late, you are tired, and relaxing in front of the television sounds far more appealing than curling up with a stack of journal articles.

Sometimes your purpose is simple. You might just need to understand the reading material well enough to discuss it intelligently in class the next day. However, your purpose will often go beyond that. For instance, you might also read to compare two texts, to formulate a personal response to a text, or to gather ideas for future research. Here are some questions to ask to help determine your purpose:
• **How did my instructor frame the assignment?** Often your instructors will tell you what they expect you to get out of the reading:
  - Read Chapter 2 and come to class prepared to discuss current teaching practices in elementary math.
  - Read these two articles and compare Smith’s and Jones’s perspectives on the 2010 health care reform bill.
  - Read Chapter 5 and think about how you could apply these guidelines to running your own business.

• **How deeply do I need to understand the reading?** If you are majoring in computer science and you are assigned to read Chapter 1, “Introduction to Computer Science,” it is safe to assume the chapter presents fundamental concepts that you will be expected to master. However, for some reading assignments, you may be expected to form a general understanding but not necessarily master the content. Again, pay attention to how your instructor presents the assignment.

• **How does this assignment relate to other course readings or to concepts discussed in class?** Your instructor may make some of these connections explicitly, but if not, try to draw connections on your own. (Needless to say, it helps to take detailed notes both when in class and when you read.)

• **How might I use this text again in the future?** If you are assigned to read about a topic that has always interested you, your reading assignment might help you develop ideas for a future research paper. Some reading assignments provide valuable tips or summaries worth bookmarking for future reference. Think about what you can take from the reading that will stay with you.

**Improving Your Comprehension**

You have blocked out time for your reading assignments and set a purpose for reading. Now comes the challenge: making sure you actually understand all the information you are expected to process. Some of your reading assignments will be fairly straightforward. Others, however, will be longer or more complex, so you will need a plan for how to handle them.

For any expository writing—that is, nonfiction, informational writing—your first comprehension goal is to identify the main points and relate any details to those main points. Because college-level texts can be challenging, you will also need to monitor your reading comprehension. That is, you will need to stop periodically and assess how well you understand what you are reading. Finally, you can improve comprehension by taking time to determine which strategies work best for you and putting those strategies into practice.
Identifying the Main Points

In college, you will read a wide variety of materials, including the following:

- **Textbooks.** These usually include summaries, glossaries, comprehension questions, and other study aids.
- **Nonfiction trade books.** These are less likely to include the study features found in textbooks.
- **Popular magazine, newspaper, or web articles.** These are usually written for a general audience.
- **Scholarly books and journal articles.** These are written for an audience of specialists in a given field.

Regardless of what type of expository text you are assigned to read, your primary comprehension goal is to identify the main point: the most important idea that the writer wants to communicate and often states early on. Finding the main point gives you a framework to organize the details presented in the reading and relate the reading to concepts you learned in class or through other reading assignments. After identifying the main point, you will find the supporting points, the details, facts, and explanations that develop and clarify the main point.

Some texts make that task relatively easy. Textbooks, for instance, include the aforementioned features as well as headings and subheadings intended to make it easier for students to identify core concepts. Graphic features, such as sidebars, diagrams, and charts, help students understand complex information and distinguish between essential and inessential points. When you are assigned to read from a textbook, be sure to use available comprehension aids to help you identify the main points.

Trade books and popular articles may not be written specifically for an educational purpose; nevertheless, they also include features that can help you identify the main ideas. These features include the following:

- **Trade books.** Many trade books include an introduction that presents the writer’s main ideas and purpose for writing. Reading chapter titles (and any subtitles within the chapter) will help you get a broad sense of what is covered. It also helps to read the beginning and ending paragraphs of a chapter closely. These paragraphs often sum up the main ideas presented.

- **Popular articles.** Reading the headings and introductory paragraphs carefully is crucial. In magazine articles, these features (along with the closing paragraphs) present the main concepts. Hard news articles in newspapers present the gist of the news story in the lead paragraph, while subsequent paragraphs present increasingly general details.
At the far end of the reading difficulty scale are scholarly books and journal articles. Because these texts are written for a specialized, highly educated audience, the authors presume their readers are already familiar with the topic. The language and writing style is sophisticated and sometimes dense.

When you read scholarly books and journal articles, try to apply the same strategies discussed earlier. The introduction usually presents the writer’s thesis, the idea or hypothesis the writer is trying to prove. Headings and subheadings can help you understand how the writer has organized support for his or her thesis. Additionally, academic journal articles often include a summary at the beginning, called an abstract, and electronic databases include summaries of articles, too.

**Monitoring Your Comprehension**

Finding the main idea and paying attention to text features as you read helps you figure out what you should know. Just as important, however, is being able to figure out what you do not know and developing a strategy to deal with it.

Textbooks often include comprehension questions in the margins or at the end of a section or chapter. As you read, stop occasionally to answer these questions on paper or in your head. Use them to identify sections you may need to reread, read more carefully, or ask your instructor about later.

Even when a text does not have built-in comprehension features, you can actively monitor your own comprehension. Try these strategies, adapting them as needed to suit different kinds of texts:

1. **Summarize.** At the end of each section, pause to summarize the main points in a few sentences. If you have trouble doing so, revisit that section.

2. **Ask and answer questions.** When you begin reading a section, try to identify two to three questions you should be able to answer after you finish it. Write down your questions and use them to test yourself on the reading. If you cannot answer a question, try to determine why. Is the answer buried in that section of reading but just not coming across to you? Or do you expect to find the answer in another part of the reading?

3. **Do not read in a vacuum.** Look for opportunities to discuss the reading with your classmates. Many instructors set up online discussion forums or blogs specifically for that purpose. Participating in these discussions can help you determine whether your understanding of the main points is the same as your peers’.
These discussions can also serve as a reality check. If everyone in the class struggled with the reading, it may be exceptionally challenging. If it was a breeze for everyone but you, you may need to see your instructor for help.

As a working mother, Crystal found that the best time to get her reading done was in the evening, after she had put her four-year-old to bed. However, she occasionally had trouble concentrating at the end of a long day. She found that by actively working to summarize the reading and asking and answering questions, she focused better and retained more of what she read. She also found that evenings were a good time to check the class discussion forums that a few of her instructors had created.

**Exercise 2**
Choose any text that you have been assigned to read for one of your college courses. In your notes, complete the following tasks:

1. Summarize the main points of the text in two to three sentence.
2. Write down two to three questions about the text that you can bring up during class discussion.

**Tip**
Some students are often reluctant to seek help. Some may feel like doing so marks them as slow, weak, or demanding. The truth is, every learner occasionally struggles. If you are sincerely trying to keep up with the course reading but feel like you are in over your head, seek out help. Speak up in class, schedule a meeting with your instructor, or visit with Bay College’s academic support staff.

Deal with the problem as early in the semester as you can. Instructors respect students who are proactive about their own learning. Most instructors will work hard to help students who make the effort to help themselves.

**Taking It to the Next Level: Active Reading**
Now that you have acquainted (or reacquainted) yourself with useful planning and comprehension strategies, college reading assignments may feel more manageable. You know what you need to do to get your reading done and make sure you grasp the main points. However, the most successful students in college are not only competent readers but active, engaged readers.
Using the SQ3R Strategy

One strategy you can use to become a more active, engaged reader is the SQ3R strategy, a step-by-step process to follow before, during, and after reading. You may already use some variation of it. In essence, the process works like this:

1. **Survey** the text in advance.
2. **Form questions** before you start reading.
3. **Read** the text.
4. **Recite** and/or **record** important points during and after reading.
5. **Review** and **reflect** on the text after you read.

Before you read, you survey, or preview, the text. As noted earlier, reading introductory paragraphs and headings can help you begin to figure out the author’s main point and identify what important topics will be covered. However, surveying does not stop there. Look over sidebars, photographs, and any other text or graphic features that catch your eye. Skim a few paragraphs. Preview any boldfaced or italicized vocabulary terms. This will help you form a first impression of the material.

Next, start brainstorming questions about the text. What do you expect to learn from the reading? You may find that some questions come to mind immediately based on your initial survey or based on previous readings and class discussions. If not, try using headings and subheadings in the text to formulate questions. For instance, if one heading in your textbook reads “Medicare and Medicaid,” you might ask yourself these questions:

1. When was Medicare and Medicaid legislation enacted? Why?
2. What are the major differences between these two programs?

Although some of your questions may be simple factual questions, try to come up with a few that are more open-ended. Asking in-depth questions will help you stay more engaged as you read.

The next step is simple: read. As you read, notice whether your first impressions of the text were correct. Are the author’s main points and overall approach about the same as what you predicted—or does the text contain a few surprises? Also, look for answers to your earlier questions and begin forming new questions. Continue to revise your impressions and questions as you read.
While you are reading, pause occasionally to recite or record important points. It is best to do this at the end of each section or when there is an obvious shift in the writer’s train of thought. Put the book aside for a moment and recite aloud the main points of the section or any important answers you found there. You might also record ideas by jotting down a few brief notes in addition to, or instead of, reciting aloud. Either way, the physical act of articulating information makes you more likely to remember it.

After you have completed the reading, take some time to review the material more thoroughly. If the textbook includes review questions or your instructor has provided a study guide, use these tools to guide your review. You will want to record information in a more detailed format than you used during reading, such as in an outline or a list.

As you review the material, reflect on what you learned. Did anything surprise you, upset you, or make you think? Did you find yourself strongly agreeing or disagreeing with any points in the text? What topics would you like to explore further? Jot down your reflections in your notes. (Instructors sometimes require students to write brief response papers or maintain a reading journal. Use these assignments to help you reflect on what you read.)

Using Other Active Reading Strategies
The SQ3R process encompasses a number of valuable active reading strategies: previewing a text, making predictions, asking and answering questions, and summarizing. You can use the following additional strategies to further deepen your understanding of what you read.

- **Connect what you read to what you already know.** Look for ways the reading supports, extends, or challenges concepts you have learned elsewhere.
- **Relate the reading to your own life.** What statements, people, or situations relate to your personal experiences?
- **Visualize.** For both fiction and nonfiction texts, try to picture what is described. Visualizing is especially helpful when you are reading a narrative text, such as a novel or a historical account, or when you read expository text that describes a process, such as how to perform cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR).
- **Pay attention to graphics as well as text.** Photographs, diagrams, flow charts, tables, and other graphics can help make abstract ideas more concrete and understandable.
• **Understand the text in context.** Understanding context means thinking about who wrote the text, when and where it was written, the author’s purpose for writing it, and what assumptions or agendas influenced the author’s ideas. For instance, two writers might both address the subject of health care reform, but if one article is an opinion piece and one is a news story, the context is different.

• **Plan to talk or write about what you read.** Jot down a few questions or comments in your notebook so you can bring them up in class. (This also gives you a source of topic ideas for papers and presentations later in the semester.) Discuss the reading on a class discussion board or blog about it.

As Crystal began her first semester of elementary education courses, she occasionally felt lost in a sea of new terms and theories about teaching and child development. She found that it helped to relate the reading to her personal observations of her son and other kids she knew.

📝 **Writing at Work**

Many college courses require students to participate in interactive online components, such as a discussion forum, a page on a social networking site, or a class blog. These tools are a great way to reinforce learning. Do not be afraid to be the student who starts the discussion.

Remember that when you interact with other students and teachers online, you need to project a mature, professional image. You may be able to use an informal, conversational tone, but complaining about the work load, using off-color language, or “flaming” other participants is inappropriate.

Active reading can benefit you in ways that go beyond just earning good grades. By practicing these strategies, you will find yourself more interested in your courses and better able to relate your academic work to the rest of your life. Being an interested, engaged student also helps you form lasting connections with your instructors and with other students that can be personally and professionally valuable. In short, it helps you get the most out of your education.

**Common Writing Assignments**

College writing assignments serve a different purpose than the typical writing assignments you completed in high school. In high school, teachers generally focus on teaching you to write in a variety of modes and formats, including personal writing, expository writing, research papers, creative writing, and writing short answers and essays for exams. Over time, these assignments help you build a foundation of writing skills.
In college, many instructors will expect you to already have that foundation.

Your college composition courses will focus on writing for its own sake, helping you make the transition to college-level writing assignments. However, in most other college courses, writing assignments serve a different purpose. In those courses, you may use writing as one tool among many for learning how to think about a particular academic discipline.

Additionally, certain assignments teach you how to meet the expectations for professional writing in a given field. Depending on the class, you might be asked to write a lab report, a case study, a literary analysis, a business plan, or an account of a personal interview. You will need to learn and follow the standard conventions for those types of written products.

Finally, personal and creative writing assignments are less common in college than in high school. College courses emphasize expository writing, writing that explains or informs. Often expository writing assignments will incorporate outside research, too. Some classes will also require persuasive writing assignments in which you state and support your position on an issue. College instructors will hold you to a higher standard when it comes to supporting your ideas with reasons and evidence.

Table 1.2 “Common Types of College Writing Assignments” lists some of the most common types of college writing assignments. It includes minor, less formal assignments as well as major ones. Which specific assignments you encounter will depend on the courses you take and the learning objectives developed by your instructors.
Table 1.2 Common Types of College Writing Assignments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assignment Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Response Paper</td>
<td>Expresses and explains your response to a reading assignment, a provocative quote, or a specific issue; may be very brief (sometimes a page or less) or more in-depth</td>
<td>For an environmental science course, students watch and write about President Obama’s June 15, 2010, speech about the BP oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>Restates the main points of a longer passage objectively and in your own words</td>
<td>For a psychology course, students write a one-page summary of an article about a man suffering from short-term memory loss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position Paper</td>
<td>States and defends your position on an issue (often a controversial issue)</td>
<td>For a medical ethics course, students state and support their position on using stem cell research in medicine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Solution Paper</td>
<td>Presents a problem, explains its causes, and proposes and explains a solution</td>
<td>For a business administration course, a student presents a plan for implementing an office recycling program without increasing operating costs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literary Analysis</td>
<td>States a thesis about a particular literary work (or works) and develops the thesis with evidence from the work and, sometimes, from additional sources</td>
<td>For a literature course, a student compares two novels by the twentieth-century African American writer Richard Wright.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Review or Survey</td>
<td>Sums up available research findings on a particular topic</td>
<td>For a course in media studies, a student reviews the past twenty years of research on whether violence in television and movies is correlated with violent behavior.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Case Study or Case Analysis
Investigates a particular person, group, or event in depth for the purpose of drawing a larger conclusion from the analysis.

For an education course, a student writes a case study of a developmentally disabled child whose academic performance improved because of a behavioral-modification program.

### Laboratory Report
Presents a laboratory experiment, including the hypothesis, methods of data collection, results, and conclusions.

For a psychology course, a group of students presents the results of an experiment in which they explored whether sleep deprivation produced memory deficits in lab rats.

### Research Journal
Records a student’s ideas and findings during the course of a long-term research project.

For an education course, a student maintains a journal throughout a semester-long research project at a local elementary school.

### Research Paper
Presents a thesis and supports it with original research and/or other researchers’ findings on the topic; can take several different formats depending on the subject area.

For examples of typical research projects, see Chapter 12 “Writing a Research Paper.”

---

**🔗 Writing at Work**

Part of managing your education is communicating well with others at your university. For instance, you might need to e-mail your instructor to request an office appointment or explain why you will need to miss a class. You might need to contact administrators with questions about your tuition or financial aid. Later, you might ask instructors to write recommendations on your behalf.

Treat these documents as professional communications. Address the recipient politely; state your question, problem, or request clearly; and use a formal, respectful tone. Doing so helps you make a positive impression and get a quicker response.
Key Takeaways

- College-level reading and writing assignments differ from high school assignments not only in quantity but also in quality.

- Managing college reading assignments successfully requires you to plan and manage your time, set a purpose for reading, practice effective comprehension strategies, and use active reading strategies to deepen your understanding of the text.

- College writing assignments place greater emphasis on learning to think critically about a particular discipline and less emphasis on personal and creative writing.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

2.0 Introduction
If you think that a blank sheet of paper or a blinking cursor on the computer screen is a scary sight, you are not alone. Many writers, students, and employees find that beginning to write can be intimidating. When faced with a blank page, however, experienced writers remind themselves that writing, like other everyday activities, is a process. Every process, from writing to cooking, bike riding, and learning to use a new cell phone, will get significantly easier with practice.

Just as you need a recipe, ingredients, and proper tools to cook a delicious meal, you also need a plan, resources, and adequate time to create a good written composition. In other words, writing is a process that requires following steps and using strategies to accomplish your goals.

These are the five steps in the writing process:

1. Prewriting
2. Outlining the structure of ideas
3. Writing a rough draft
4. Revising
5. Editing
Effective writing can be simply described as good ideas that are expressed well and arranged in the proper order. This chapter will give you the chance to work on all these important aspects of writing. Although many more pre-writing strategies exist, this chapter covers six: using experience and observations, freewriting, asking questions, brainstorming, mapping, and searching the Internet. Using the strategies in this chapter can help you overcome the fear of the blank page and confidently begin the writing process.
2.1 Apply Prewriting Models

Prewriting

Prewriting is the stage of the writing process during which you transfer your abstract thoughts into more concrete ideas in ink on paper (or in type on a computer screen). Although prewriting techniques can be helpful in all stages of the writing process, the following four strategies are best used when initially deciding on a topic:

1. Using experience and observations
2. Reading
3. Freewriting
4. Asking questions

At this stage in the writing process, it is OK if you choose a general topic. Later you will learn more prewriting strategies that will narrow the focus of the topic.

Choosing a Topic

In addition to understanding that writing is a process, writers also understand that choosing a good general topic for an assignment is an essential step. Sometimes your instructor will give you an idea to begin an assignment, and other times your instructor will ask you to come up with a topic on your own. A good topic not only covers what an assignment will be about but also fits the assignment’s purpose and its audience.

In this chapter, you will follow a writer named Mariah as she prepares a piece of writing. You will also be planning one of your own. The first important step is for you to tell yourself why you are writing (to inform, to explain, or some other purpose) and for whom you are writing. Write your purpose and your audience on your own sheet of paper, and keep the paper close by as you read and complete exercises in this chapter.

My purpose: ______________________________________________________________________________

My audience: ______________________________________________________________________________
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

Using Experience and Observations
When selecting a topic, you may also want to consider something that interests you or something based on your own life and personal experiences. Even everyday observations can lead to interesting topics. After writers think about their experiences and observations, they often take notes on paper to better develop their thoughts. These notes help writers discover what they have to say about their topic.

Tip
Have you seen an attention-grabbing story on your local news channel? Many current issues appear on television, in magazines, and on the Internet. These can all provide inspiration for your writing.

Reading
Reading plays a vital role in all the stages of the writing process, but it first figures in the development of ideas and topics. Different kinds of documents can help you choose a topic and also develop that topic. For example, a magazine advertising the latest research on the threat of global warming may catch your eye in the supermarket. This cover may interest you, and you may consider global warming as a topic. Or maybe a novel’s courtroom drama sparks your curiosity of a particular lawsuit or legal controversy.

After you choose a topic, critical reading is essential to the development of a topic. While reading almost any document, you evaluate the author’s point of view by thinking about his main idea and his support. When you judge the author’s argument, you discover more about not only the author’s opinion but also your own. If this step already seems daunting, remember that even the best writers need to use prewriting strategies to generate ideas.

Tip
The steps in the writing process may seem time consuming at first, but following these steps will save you time in the future. The more you plan in the beginning by reading and using prewriting strategies, the less time you may spend writing and editing later because your ideas will develop more swiftly.

Prewriting strategies depend on your critical reading skills. Reading prewriting exercises (and outlines and drafts later in the writing process) will further develop your topic and ideas. As you continue to follow the writing process, you will see how Mariah uses critical reading skills to assess her own prewriting exercises.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

Freewriting

Freewriting is an exercise in which you write freely about any topic for a set amount of time (usually three to five minutes). During the time limit, you may jot down any thoughts that come to your mind. Try not to worry about grammar, spelling, or punctuation. Instead, write as quickly as you can without stopping. If you get stuck, just copy the same word or phrase over and over until you come up with a new thought.

Writing often comes easier when you have a personal connection with the topic you have chosen. Remember, to generate ideas in your freewriting, you may also think about readings that you have enjoyed or that have challenged your thinking. Doing this may lead your thoughts in interesting directions.

Quickly recording your thoughts on paper will help you discover what you have to say about a topic. When writing quickly, try not to doubt or question your ideas. Allow yourself to write freely and unselfconsciously. Once you start writing with few limitations, you may find you have more to say than you first realized. Your flow of thoughts can lead you to discover even more ideas about the topic. Freewriting may even lead you to discover another topic that excites you even more.

Look at Mariah’s example. The instructor allowed the members of the class to choose their own topics, and Mariah thought about her experiences as a communications major. She used this freewriting exercise to help her generate more concrete ideas from her own experience.

Last Semester my favorite class was about mass media. We got to study radio and television. People say we watch too much television, and even though I try not to, I end up watching a few reality shows just to relax. Everyone has to relax! It’s too hard to relax when something like the news (my husband watches all the time) is on because it’s too scary now. Too much bad news, not enough good news. News. Newspapers I don’t read as much anymore. I can get the headlines on my homepage when I check my e-mail. E-mail could be considered mass media too these days. I used to go to the video store a few times a week before I started school, but now the only way I know what movies are current is to listen for the Oscar nominations. We have cable but we can’t afford the movie channels, so I sometimes look at older movies late at night. UGH. A few of them played again and again until you’re sick of them. My husband thinks I’m crazy, but sometimes there are old black-and-whites on from the 1930’s and ‘40’s. I could never live my life in black-and-white. I like the home decorating shows and love how people use color on their walls. Makes
rooms look so bright. When we buy a home, if we ever can, I’ll use lots of color. Some of those shows even show you how to do major renovation by yourself. Knock down walls and everything. Not for me—or my husband. I’m handier than he is. I wonder if they could make a reality show about us!

Exercise 1
Freewrite about one event you have recently experienced. With this event in mind, write without stopping for five minutes. After you finish, read over what you wrote. Does anything stand out to you as a good general topic to write about?

Asking Questions
Who? What? Where? When? Why? How? In everyday situations, you pose these kinds of questions to get more information. Who will be my partner for the project? When is the next meeting? Why is my car making that odd noise? Even the title of this chapter begins with the question “How do I begin?”

You seek the answers to these questions to gain knowledge, to better understand your daily experiences, and to plan for the future. Asking these types of questions will also help you with the writing process. As you choose your topic, answering these questions can help you revisit the ideas you already have and generate new ways to think about your topic. You may also discover aspects of the topic that are unfamiliar to you and that you would like to learn more about. All these idea-gathering techniques will help you plan for future work on your assignment.

When Mariah reread her freewriting notes, she found she had rambled and her thoughts were disjointed. She realized that the topic that interested her most was the one she started with, the media. She then decided to explore that topic by asking herself questions about it. Her purpose was to refine media into a topic she felt comfortable writing about. To see how asking questions can help you choose a topic, take a look at the following chart that Mariah completed to record her questions and answers. She asked herself the questions that reporters and journalists use to gather information for their stories. The questions are often called the 5WH questions, after their initial letters.
# Chapter 2

## The Writing Process

### Asking Questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Who?</strong></th>
<th>I use media. Students, teachers, parents, employers and employees—almost everyone uses media.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>What?</strong></td>
<td>The media can be a lot of things. Television, radio, e-mail (I think), newspapers, magazines, books.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Where?</strong></td>
<td>The media is almost everywhere now. It’s in homes, at work, in cars, even on cell phones!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>When?</strong></td>
<td>Media has been around for a long time, but seems a lot more important now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Why?</strong></td>
<td>Hmm. This is a good question. I don’t know why there is mass media. Maybe we have it because we have the technology now. Or people live far away from their families and they have to stay in touch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>How?</strong></td>
<td>Well, media is possible because of the technology inventions, but I don’t know how they all work!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Tip

Prewriting is very purpose driven; it does not follow a set of hard-and-fast rules. The purpose of prewriting is to find and explore ideas so that you will be prepared to write. A prewriting technique like asking questions can help you both find a topic and explore it. The key to effective prewriting is to use the techniques that work best for your thinking process. Freewriting may not seem to fit your thinking process, but keep an open mind. It may work better than you think. Perhaps brainstorming a list of topics might better fit your personal style. Mariah found freewriting and asking questions to be fruitful strategies to use. In your own prewriting, use the 5WH questions in any way that benefits your planning.
Exercise 2

Choose a general topic idea from the prewriting you completed earlier, and then try to answer each question:

5WH Questions

1. Who? ______________________________________________________________

2. What? ______________________________________________________________

3. Where? ______________________________________________________________

4. When? ______________________________________________________________

5. Why? ______________________________________________________________

6. How? ______________________________________________________________

Now that you have completed some of the prewriting exercises, you may feel less anxious about starting a paper from scratch. With some ideas down on paper (or saved on a computer), writers are often more comfortable continuing the writing process. After identifying a good general topic, you, too, are ready to continue the process.

Exercise 3

Write a general topic for an essay on your own sheet of paper, under where you recorded your purpose and audience. Choose it from among the topics you listed or explored during the prewriting you have done so far. Make sure it is one you feel comfortable with and feel capable of writing about.

My general topic: __________________________________________________________

Tip

You may find that you need to adjust your topic as you move through the writing stages (and as you complete the exercises in this chapter). If the topic you have chosen is not working, you can repeat the prewriting activities until you find a better one.
Narrowing the Focus
Narrowing the focus means breaking up the topic into subtopics, or more specific points. Generating lots of subtopics will help you eventually select the ones that fit the assignment and appeal to you and your audience.

After rereading her syllabus, Mariah realized her general topic, mass media, is too broad for her class’s short paper requirement. Three pages are not enough to cover all the concerns in mass media today. Mariah also realized that although her readers are other communications majors who are interested in the topic, they may want to read a paper about a particular issue in mass media.

More Prewriting Techniques
The prewriting techniques of freewriting and asking questions helped Mariah think more about her topic, but the following prewriting strategies can help her (and you) narrow the focus of the topic:

• Brainstorming
• Idea mapping
• Searching the Internet

Brainstorming
Brainstorming is similar to list making. You can make a list on your own or in a group with your classmates. Start with a blank sheet of paper (or a blank computer document) and write your general topic across the top. Underneath your topic, make a list of more specific ideas. Think of your general topic as a broad category and the list items as things that fit in that category. Often you will find that one item can lead to the next, creating a flow of ideas that can help you narrow your focus to a more specific paper topic.
The following is Mariah’s brainstorming list:

- Mass Media
- Magazines
- Newspapers
- Broadcasting
- Radio
- Television
- DVD
- Gaming/Video Games
- Internet
- Cell Phones
- Smartphones
- Text Messages
- Tiny Cameras
- GPS

From this list, Mariah could narrow her focus to a particular technology under the broad category of mass media.

🔗 Writing at Work

Imagine you have to write an e-mail to your current boss explaining your prior work experience, but you do not know where to start. Before you begin the e-mail, you can use the brainstorming technique to generate a list of employers, duties, and responsibilities that fall under the general topic “work experience.”

🔗 Idea Mapping

Idea mapping allows you to visualize your ideas on paper using circles, lines, and arrows. This technique is also known as clustering because ideas are broken down and clustered, or grouped together. Many writers like this method because the shapes show how the ideas relate or connect, and writers can find a focused topic from the connections mapped. Using idea mapping, you might discover interesting connections between topics that you had not thought of before.

To create an idea map, start with your general topic in a circle in the center of a blank sheet of paper. Then write specific ideas around it and use lines or arrows to connect them together. Add and cluster as many ideas as you can think of.
In addition to brainstorming, Mariah tried idea mapping. Review the following idea map that Mariah created:

Notice Mariah’s largest circle contains her general topic, mass media. Then, the general topic branches into two subtopics written in two smaller circles: television and radio. The subtopic television branches into even more specific topics: cable and DVDs. From there, Mariah drew more circles and wrote more specific ideas: high definition and digital recording from cable and Blu-ray from DVDs. The radio topic led Mariah to draw connections between music, downloads versus CDs, and, finally, piracy.

From this idea map, Mariah saw she could consider narrowing the focus of her mass media topic to the more specific topic of music piracy.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

**Searching the Internet**

Using search engines on the Internet is a good way to see what kinds of websites are available on your topic. Writers use search engines not only to understand more about the topic’s specific issues but also to get better acquainted with their audience.

Results from an Internet search show writers the following information:

- Who is talking about the topic
- How the topic is being discussed
- What specific points are currently being discussed about the topic

**Key Takeaways**

- All writers rely on steps and strategies to begin the writing process.
- The steps in the writing process are prewriting, outlining, writing a rough draft, revising, and editing.
- Prewriting is the transfer of ideas from abstract thoughts into words, phrases, and sentences on paper.
- A good topic interests the writer, appeals to the audience, and fits the purpose of the assignment.
- Writers often choose a general topic first and then narrow the focus to a more specific topic.

**License Information**

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

2.2 Outlining

Introduction
Your prewriting activities and readings have helped you gather information for your assignment. The more you sort through the pieces of information you found, the more you will begin to see the connections between them. Patterns and gaps may begin to stand out. However, only when you start to organize your ideas will you be able to translate your raw insights into a form that will communicate meaning to your audience.

Tip
Longer papers require more reading and planning than shorter papers do. Most writers discover that the more they know about a topic, the more they can write about it with intelligence and interest.

Organizing Ideas
When you write, you need to organize your ideas in an order that makes sense. The writing you complete in all your courses exposes how analytically and critically your mind works. In some courses, the only direct contact you may have with your instructor is through the assignments you write for the course. You can make a good impression by spending time ordering your ideas.
Order refers to your choice of what to present first, second, third, and so on in your writing. The order you pick closely relates to your purpose for writing that particular assignment. For example, when telling a story, it may be important to first describe the background for the action, or you may need to first describe a 3-D movie projector or a television studio to help readers visualize the setting and scene. You may want to group your support effectively to convince readers that your point of view on an issue is well reasoned and worthy of belief.

In longer pieces of writing, you may organize different parts in different ways so that your purpose stands out clearly and all parts of the paper work together to consistently develop your main point.

**Methods of Organizing Writing**

Three common methods of organizing writing are chronological order, spatial order, and order of importance. You will learn more about these later; however, you need to keep these methods of organization in mind as you plan how to arrange the information you have gathered in an outline. An outline is a written plan that serves as a skeleton for the paragraphs you write. Later, when you draft paragraphs in the next stage of the writing process, you will add support to create “flesh” and “muscle” for your assignment.

When you write, your goal is not only to complete an assignment but also to write for a specific purpose—perhaps to inform, to explain, to persuade, or for a combination of these purposes. Your purpose for writing should always be in the back of your mind, because it will help you decide which pieces of information belong together and how you will order them. In other words, choose the order that will most effectively fit your purpose and support your main point.

Table 2.1 “Order versus Purpose” shows the connection between order and purpose.
Table 2.1 Order versus Purpose

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chronological Order</td>
<td>• To explain the history of an event or a topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• To tell a story or relate an experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• To explain how to do or make something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• To explain the steps in a process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial Order</td>
<td>• To help readers visualize something as you want them to see it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• To create a main impression using the senses (sight, touch, taste, smell, and sound)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order of Importance</td>
<td>• To persuade or convince</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• To rank items by their importance, benefit, or significance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Writing a Thesis Statement

One legitimate question readers always ask about a piece of writing is “What is the big idea?” (You may even ask this question when you are the reader, critically reading an assignment or another document.) Every nonfiction writing task—from the short essay to the ten-page term paper to the lengthy senior thesis—needs a big idea, or a controlling idea, as the spine for the work. The controlling idea is the main idea that you want to present and develop.

Tip

For a longer piece of writing, the main idea should be broader than the main idea for a shorter piece of writing. Be sure to frame a main idea that is appropriate for the length of the assignment. Ask yourself, “How many pages will it take for me to explain and explore this main idea in detail?” Be reasonable with your estimate. Then expand or trim it to fit the required length.

The big idea, or controlling idea, you want to present in an essay is expressed in a thesis statement. A thesis statement is often one sentence long, and it states your point of view. The thesis statement is not the topic of the piece of writing but rather what you have to say about that topic and what is important to tell readers.
Table 2.2 “Topics and Thesis Statements” compares topics and thesis statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Thesis Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Music piracy</td>
<td>The recording industry fears that so-called music piracy will diminish profits and destroy markets, but it cannot be more wrong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of consumer choices available in media gear</td>
<td>Everyone wants the newest and the best digital technology, but the choices are extensive, and the specifications are often confusing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-books and online newspapers increasing their share of the market</td>
<td>E-books and online newspapers will bring an end to print media as we know it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online education and the new media</td>
<td>Someday, students and teachers will send avatars to their online classrooms.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Exercise 1**

Develop a working thesis statement that states a controlling idea. On a sheet of paper, write your working thesis statement.

**Tip**

You will make several attempts before you devise a working thesis statement that you think is effective. Each draft of the thesis statement will bring you closer to the wording that expresses your meaning exactly.

**Writing an Outline**

For an essay question on a test or a brief oral presentation in class, all you may need to prepare is a short, informal outline in which you jot down key ideas in the order you will present them. This kind of outline reminds you to stay focused in a stressful situation and to include all the good ideas that help you explain or prove your point.

For a longer assignment, like an essay or a research paper, many college instructors require students to submit a formal outline before writing a major paper as a way to be sure you are on the right track and are working in an organized manner. A formal outline is a detailed guide that shows how all your supporting ideas relate to each other. It helps you distinguish between ideas that are of equal importance and ones that are of lesser importance. You build your paper based on the framework created by the outline.
Here is what the skeleton of a traditional formal outline looks like. The indention helps clarify how the ideas are related.

1. Introduction
   Thesis statement

2. Main point 1 → becomes the topic sentence of body paragraph 1
   1. Supporting detail → becomes a support sentence of body paragraph 1
      1. Subpoint
      2. Subpoint
   2. Supporting detail
      1. Subpoint
      2. Subpoint
   3. Supporting detail
      1. Subpoint
      2. Subpoint

3. Main point 2 → becomes the topic sentence of body paragraph 2
   1. Supporting detail
   2. Supporting detail
   3. Supporting detail

4. Main point 3 → becomes the topic sentence of body paragraph 3
   1. Supporting detail
   2. Supporting detail
   3. Supporting detail

5. Conclusion

Tip
In an outline, any supporting detail can be developed with subpoints. For simplicity, the model shows them only under the first main point.
Constructing Topic Outlines

A topic outline is the same as a sentence outline except you use words or phrases instead of complete sentences. Words and phrases keep the outline short and easier to comprehend. All the headings, however, must be written in parallel structure.

Here is the topic outline that Mariah constructed for the essay she is developing. Her purpose is to inform, and her audience is a general audience of her fellow college students. Notice how Mariah begins with her thesis statement. She then arranges her main points and supporting details in outline form using short phrases in parallel grammatical structure.

I. Introduction
   • Thesis statement: Everyone wants the newest and the best digital technology, but the choices are many, and the specifications are often confusing.

II. E-book readers and the way that people read
   A. Books easy to access and carry around
      1. Electronic downloads
      2. Storage in memory for downloads
   B. An expanding market
      1. E-book readers from booksellers
      2. E-book readers from electronics and computer companies
   C. Limitations of current e-book readers
      1. Incompatible features from one brand to the next
      2. Borrowing and sharing e-books

III. Film Cameras replaced by digital cameras
   A. Three types of digital cameras
      1. Compact digital cameras
      2. Single lens reflex cameras, or SLR’s
      3. Cameras that combine the best features of both
   B. The confusing “megapixel wars”
   C. The zoom lens battle
IV. The confusing choice among televisions
   A. 1080P vs. 768P
   B. Plasma Screens vs. LCD’s
   C. Home media centers

V. Conclusion
   • How to be a wise consumer

Checklist
This checklist can help you write an effective topic outline for your assignment. It will also help you discover where you may need to do additional reading or prewriting.

• Do I have a controlling idea that guides the development of the entire piece of writing?
• Do I have three or more main points that I want to make in this piece of writing? Does each main point connect to my controlling idea?
• Is my outline in the best order—chronological order, spatial order, or order of importance—for me to present my main points? Will this order help me get my main point across?
• Do I have supporting details that will help me inform, explain, or prove my main points?
• Do I need to add more support? If so, where?
• Do I need to make any adjustments in my working thesis statement before I consider it the final version?

Exercise 2
Using the working thesis statement you wrote, construct a topic outline for your essay. Be sure to observe correct outline form, including correct indentations and the use of Roman and arabic numerals and capital letters.

Collaboration
Consider sharing with a classmate and comparing your outline. Point out areas of interest from their outline and what you would like to learn more about.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

Constructing Sentence Outlines
A sentence outline is the same as a topic outline except you use complete sentences instead of words or phrases. Complete sentences create clarity and can advance you one step closer to a draft in the writing process.

Here is the sentence outline that Mariah constructed for the essay she is developing.

I. Introduction
   • Thesis statement: Everyone wants the newest and the best digital technology, but the choices are many, and the specifications are often confusing.

II. E-book readers are changing the way people read.
   A. E-book readers make books easy to access and to carry.
      1. Books can be downloaded electronically.
      2. Devices can store hundreds of books in memory.
   B. The market expands as a variety of companies enter it.
      2. Electronics and computer companies also sell e-book readers.
   C. Current e-book readers have significant limitations.
      1. The devices are owned by different brands and may not be compatible.
      2. Few programs have been made to fit the other way Americans read: by borrowing books from libraries.

III. Digital cameras have almost totally replaced film cameras.
   A. The first major choice is the type of digital camera.
      1. Compact digital cameras are light but have fewer megapixels.
      2. Single lens reflex cameras, or SLRs, may be large and heavy but can be used for many functions.
      3. Some cameras combine the best features of compacts and SLR’s.
   B. Choosing the camera type involves the confusing “megapixel wars”
   C. The zoom lens battle also determines the camera you will buy.

IV. Nothing is more confusing to me than choosing among televisions.
   A. In the resolution wars, what are the benefits of 1080P and 768P?
   B. In the screen-size wars, what do plasma screens and LCD screens offer?
   C. Does every home really need a media center?

V. Conclusion
   • The solution for many people should be to avoid buying on impulse. Consumers should think about what they really need, not what is advertised.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

Tip
The information compiled under each roman numeral will become a paragraph in your final paper. In the previous example, the outline follows the standard five-paragraph essay arrangement, but longer essays will require more paragraphs and thus more roman numerals. If you think that a paragraph might become too long or stringy, add an additional paragraph to your outline, renumbering the main points appropriately.

Exercise 3
Expand the topic outline you prepared to make it a sentence outline. In this outline, be sure to include multiple supporting points for your main topic even if your topic outline does not contain them. Be sure to observe correct outline form, including correct indentions and the use of Roman and arabic numerals and capital letters.

Key Takeaways

- Writers must put their ideas in order so the assignment makes sense. The most common orders are chronological order, spatial order, and order of importance.
- After gathering and evaluating the information you found for your essay, the next step is to write a working, or preliminary, thesis statement.
- The working thesis statement expresses the main idea that you want to develop in the entire piece of writing. It can be modified as you continue the writing process.
- Effective writers prepare a formal outline to organize their main ideas and supporting details in the order they will be presented.
- A topic outline uses words and phrases to express the ideas.
- A sentence outline uses complete sentences to express the ideas.
- The writer’s thesis statement begins the outline, and the outline ends with suggestions for the concluding paragraph.

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
2.3 Drafting

Introduction
Drafting is the stage of the writing process in which you develop a complete first version of a piece of writing.

Even professional writers admit that an empty page scares them because they feel they need to come up with something fresh and original every time they open a blank document on their computers. Because you have completed the first two steps in the writing process, you have already recovered from empty page syndrome. You have hours of prewriting and planning already done. You know what will go on that blank page: what you wrote in your outline.

Making the Process Work for You
What makes the writing process so beneficial to writers is that it encourages alternatives to standard practices while motivating you to develop your best ideas. For instance, the following approaches, done alone or in combination with others, may improve your writing and help you move forward in the writing process:

• **Begin writing with the part you know the most about.** You can start with the third paragraph in your outline if ideas come easily to mind. You can start with the second paragraph or the first paragraph, too. Although paragraphs may vary in length, keep in mind that short paragraphs may contain insufficient
support. Readers may also think the writing is abrupt. Long paragraphs may be wordy and may lose your reader’s interest. As a guideline, try to write paragraphs longer than one sentence but shorter than the length of an entire double-spaced page.

- **Write one paragraph at a time and then stop.** As long as you complete the assignment on time, you may choose how many paragraphs you complete in one sitting. Pace yourself. On the other hand, try not to procrastinate. Writers should always meet their deadlines.

- **Take short breaks to refresh your mind.** This tip might be most useful if you are writing a multipage report or essay. Still, if you are antsy or cannot concentrate, take a break to let your mind rest. But do not let breaks extend too long. If you spend too much time away from your essay, you may have trouble starting again. You may forget key points or lose momentum. Try setting an alarm to limit your break, and when the time is up, return to your desk to write.

- **Be reasonable with your goals.** If you decide to take ten-minute breaks, try to stick to that goal. If you told yourself that you need more facts, then commit to finding them. Holding yourself to your own goals will create successful writing assignments.

- **Keep your audience and purpose in mind as you write.** These aspects of writing are just as important—when you are writing a single paragraph for your essay as when you are considering the direction of the entire essay.

Of all of these considerations, keeping your purpose and your audience at the front of your mind is the most important key to writing success. If your purpose is to persuade, for example, you will present your facts and details in the most logical and convincing way you can.

Your purpose will guide your mind as you compose your sentences. Your audience will guide word choice. Are you writing for experts, for a general audience, for other college students, or for people who know very little about your topic? Keep asking yourself what your readers, with their background and experience, need to be told in order to understand your ideas. How can you best express your ideas so they are totally clear and your communication is effective?
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

Tip
You may want to identify your purpose and audience on an index card that you clip to your paper (or keep next to your computer). On that card, you may want to write notes to yourself—perhaps about what that audience might not know or what it needs to know—so that you will be sure to address those issues when you write. It may be a good idea to also state exactly what you want to explain to that audience, or to inform them of, or to persuade them about.

Writing at Work
Many of the documents you produce at work target a particular audience for a particular purpose. You may find that it is highly advantageous to know as much as you can about your target audience and to prepare your message to reach that audience, even if the audience is a coworker or your boss. Menu language is a common example. Descriptions like “organic romaine” and “free-range chicken” are intended to appeal to a certain type of customer though perhaps not to the same customer who craves a thick steak. Similarly, mail-order companies research the demographics of the people who buy their merchandise. Successful vendors customize product descriptions in catalogs to appeal to their buyers’ tastes. For example, the product descriptions in a skateboarder catalog will differ from the descriptions in a clothing catalog for mature adults.

Setting Goals for Your First Draft
A draft is a complete version of a piece of writing, but it is not the final version. The step in the writing process after drafting, as you may remember, is revising. During revising, you will have the opportunity to make changes to your first draft before you put the finishing touches on it during the editing and proofreading stage. A first draft gives you a working version that you can later improve.

Writing at Work
Workplace writing in certain environments is done by teams of writers who collaborate on the planning, writing, and revising of documents, such as long reports, technical manuals, and the results of scientific research. Collaborators do not need to be in the same room, the same building, or even the same city. Many collaborations are conducted over the Internet.

In a perfect collaboration, each contributor has the right to add, edit, and delete text. Strong communication skills, in addition to strong writing skills, are important in this kind of writing situation because disagreements over style, content, process, emphasis, and other issues may arise.
Discovering the Basic Elements of a First Draft

If you have been using the information in this chapter step by step to help you develop an assignment, you already have both a formal topic outline and a formal sentence outline to direct your writing. Knowing what a first draft looks like will help you make the creative leap from the outline to the first draft. A first draft should include the following elements:

- An introduction that piques the audience’s interest, tells what the essay is about, and motivates readers to keep reading.
- A topic sentence in each paragraph that states the main idea of the paragraph and implies how that main idea connects to the thesis statement.
- Supporting sentences in each paragraph that develop or explain the topic sentence. These can be specific facts, examples, anecdotes, or other details that elaborate on the topic sentence.
- A conclusion that reinforces the thesis statement and leaves the audience with a feeling of completion.

These elements follow the standard five-paragraph essay format, which you probably first encountered in high school. This basic format is valid for most essays you will write in college, even much longer ones. For now, however, Mariah focuses on writing the three body paragraphs from her outline.

The Role of Topic Sentences

Topic sentences make the structure of a text and the writer’s basic arguments easy to locate and comprehend. In college writing, using a topic sentence in each paragraph of the essay is the standard rule. However, the topic sentence does not always have to be the first sentence in your paragraph even if it the first item in your formal outline.

Tip

When you begin to draft your paragraphs, you should follow your outline fairly closely. After all, you spent valuable time developing those ideas. However, as you begin to express your ideas in complete sentences, it might strike you that the topic sentence might work better at the end of the paragraph or in the middle. Try it. Writing a draft, by its nature, is a good time for experimentation.
The topic sentence can be the first, middle, or final sentence in a paragraph. The assignment’s audience and purpose will often determine where a topic sentence belongs. When the purpose of the assignment is to persuade, for example, the topic sentence should be the first sentence in a paragraph. In a persuasive essay, the writer’s point of view should be clearly expressed at the beginning of each paragraph.

Choosing where to position the topic sentence depends not only on your audience and purpose but also on the essay’s arrangement, or order. When you organize information according to order of importance, the topic sentence may be the final sentence in a paragraph. All the supporting sentences build up to the topic sentence. Chronological order may also position the topic sentence as the final sentence because the controlling idea of the paragraph may make the most sense at the end of a sequence.

When you organize information according to spatial order, a topic sentence may appear as the middle sentence in a paragraph. An essay arranged by spatial order often contains paragraphs that begin with descriptions. A reader may first need a visual in his or her mind before understanding the development of the paragraph. When the topic sentence is in the middle, it unites the details that come before it with the ones that come after it.

**Paragraphs**

The paragraph is the main structural component of an essay as well as other forms of writing. Each paragraph of an essay adds another related main idea to support the writer’s thesis, or controlling idea. Each related main idea is supported and developed with facts, examples, and other details that explain it. By exploring and refining one main idea at a time, writers build a strong case for their thesis.

**Paragraph Length**

How long should a paragraph be?

One answer to this important question may be “long enough”—long enough for you to address your points and explain your main idea. To grab attention or to present succinct supporting ideas, a paragraph can be fairly short and consist of two to three sentences. A paragraph in a complex essay about some abstract point in philosophy or archaeology can be three-quarters of a page or more in length. As long as the writer maintains close focus on the topic and does not ramble, a long paragraph is acceptable in college-level writing. In general, try to keep the paragraphs longer than one sentence but shorter than one full page of double-spaced text.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

Starting Your First Draft

Now we are finally ready to look over Mariah’s shoulder as she begins to write her essay about digital technology and the confusing choices that consumers face. As she does, you should have in front of you your outline, with its thesis statement and topic sentences, and the notes you wrote earlier in this lesson on your purpose and audience. Reviewing these will put both you and Mariah in the proper mind-set to start.

The following is Mariah’s thesis statement.

“Everyone wants the newest and the best digital technology, but the choices are many, and the specifications are often confusing.”

Here are the notes that Mariah wrote to herself to characterize her purpose and audience.

**Purpose:** My purpose is to inform readers about the wide variety of consumer digital technology available in stores and to explain why the specifications for these products, expressed in numbers that average consumers don’t understand, often cause bad or misinformed buying decisions.

**Audience:** My audience is my instructor and members of this class. Most of them are not heavy into technology except for the usual laptops, cell phones, and MP3 players, which are not topics I’m writing about. I’ll have to be as exact and precise as I can be when I explain possibly unfamiliar product specifications. At the same time, they’re more with it electronically than my grandparents’ VCR-flummoxed generation, so I won’t have to explain every last detail.

Mariah chose to begin by writing a quick introduction based on her thesis statement. She knew that she would want to improve her introduction significantly when she revised. Right now, she just wanted to give herself a starting point. You will read her introduction again later on when she revises it.

**Tip**

Remember Mariah’s other options. She could have started directly with any of the body paragraphs.

With her thesis statement and her purpose and audience notes in front of her, Mariah then looked at her sentence outline. She chose to use that outline because it includes the topic sentences. The following is the portion of her outline for the first body paragraph. The roman numeral II identifies the topic sentence for the paragraph, capital letters indicate supporting details, and arabic numerals label subpoints.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

I. E-book readers are changing the way people read.
   A. E-book readers make books easy to access and to carry.
      1. Books can be downloaded electronically.
      2. Devices can store hundreds of books in memory.
   B. The market expands as a variety of companies enter it.
      2. Electronics and computer companies also sell e-book readers.
   C. Current e-book readers have significant limitations.
      1. The devices are owned by different brands and may not be compatible.
      2. Few programs have been made to fit the other way Americans read: by borrowing books from libraries.

Mariah then began to expand the ideas in her outline into a paragraph. Notice how the outline helped her guarantee that all her sentences in the body of the paragraph develop the topic sentence.

E-book readers are changing the way people read, or so e-book developers hope. The main selling point for these handheld devices, which are sort of the size of a paperback book, is that they make books easy to access and carry. Electronic version of printed books can be downloaded online for a few bucks or directly from your cell phone. These devices can store hundreds of books in memory and, with text-to-speech features, can even read the texts. The market for e-books and e-book readers keeps expanding as a lot of companies enter it. Online and traditional booksellers have been the first to market e-book readers to the public, but computer companies, especially the ones already involved in cell phone, online music, and notepad computer technology, will also enter the market. The problem for consumers, however, is which device to choose. Incompatibility is the norm. E-books can be read only on the devices they were intended for. Furthermore, use is restricted by the same kind of DRM systems that restrict the copying of music and videos. As a result, book buyers are often unable to lend books to other readers, as they can with a real book. Few accommodations have been made to fit the other way Americans read: by borrowing books from libraries. What is a buyer to do?
Tip
If you write your first draft on the computer, consider creating a new file folder for each course with a set of subfolders inside the course folders for each assignment you are given. Label the folders clearly with the course names, and label each assignment folder and word processing document with a title that you will easily recognize. The assignment name is a good choice for the document. Then use that subfolder to store all the drafts you create. When you start each new draft, do not just write over the last one. Instead, save the draft with a new tag after the title—draft 1, draft 2, and so on—so that you will have a complete history of drafts in case your instructor wishes you to submit them.

Continuing the First Draft
Mariah continued writing her essay, moving to the second and third body paragraphs. She had supporting details but no numbered subpoints in her outline, so she had to consult her prewriting notes for specific information to include.

Tip
If you decide to take a break between finishing your first body paragraph and starting the next one, do not start writing immediately when you return to your work. Put yourself back in context and in the mood by rereading what you have already written. This is what Mariah did. If she had stopped writing in the middle of writing the paragraph, she could have jotted down some quick notes to herself about what she would write next.

Preceding each body paragraph that Mariah wrote is the appropriate section of her sentence outline. Notice how she expanded roman numeral III from her outline into a first draft of the second body paragraph. As you read, ask yourself how closely she stayed on purpose and how well she paid attention to the needs of her audience.

III. Digital cameras have almost totally replaced film cameras.
   A. The first major choice is the type of digital camera.
      1. Compact digital cameras are light but have fewer megapixels.
      2. Single lens reflex cameras, or SLRs, may be large and heavy but can be used for many functions.
      3. Some cameras combine the best features of compacts and SLR’s.
   A. Choosing the camera type involves the confusing “megapixel wars.”
   B. The zoom lens battle also determines the camera you will buy.
Digital cameras have almost totally replaced film cameras in amateur photographers’ gadget bags. My father took hundreds of slides when his children were growing up, but he had more and more trouble getting them developed. So, he decided to go modern. But, what kind of camera should he buy? The small compact digital cameras could slip right into his pocket, but if he tried to print a photograph, larger than 8 x 10, the quality would be poor. When he investigated buying a single lens reflex camera, or SLR, he discovered that they were as versatile as his old film camera, also an SLR, but they were big and bulky. Then he discovered yet a third type, which combined the smaller size of the compact digital cameras with the zoom lenses available for SLRs. His first thought was to buy one of those, but then he realized he had a lot of decisions to make. How many megapixels should the camera be? Five? Ten? What is the advantage of each? Then came the size of the zoom lens. He knew that 3x was too small, but what about 25X? Could he hold a lens that long without causing camera shake? He read hundreds of photography magazines and buying guides, and he still wasn’t sure he was right.

Mariah then began her third and final body paragraph using roman numeral IV from her outline.

IV. Nothing is more confusing to me than choosing among televisions.
   A. In the resolution wars, what are the benefits of 1080P and 768P?
   B. In the screen-size wars, what do plasma screens and LCD screens offer?
   C. Does every home really need a media center?

   Nothing is more confusing to me than choosing among televisions. It confuses lots of people who want a new high-definition digital television (HDTV) with a large screen to watch sports and DVD’s on. You could listen to the guys in the electronics store, but word has it they know little more than you do. They want to sell you what they have in stock, not what best fits your needs. You face decisions you never had to make with the old, bulky picture-tube televisions. Screen resolution means the number of horizontal scan lines the screen can show. This resolution is often 1080P, or full HD, or 768P. The trouble is that if you have a smaller screen, 32 inches or 37 inches diagonal, you won’t be able to tell the difference with the naked eye. The 1080P televisions cost more, though, so those are what the salespeople want you to buy. They get bigger commissions. The other important decision you face as you walk around the sales floor is whether to get a plas-
ma screen or an LCD screen. Now here the salespeople may finally give you decent info. Plasma flat-panel television screens can be much larger in diameter than their LCD rivals. Plasma screens show decent blacks and can be viewed at a wider angle than the current LCD screens. But be careful and tell the salesperson you have budget constraints. Large flat-panel plasma screens are much more expensive than flat-screen LCD models. Don’t buy more television than you need.

**Writing a Title**
A writer’s best choice for a title is one that alludes to the main point of the entire essay. Like the headline in a newspaper or the big, bold title in a magazine, an essay’s title gives the audience a first peek at the content. If readers like the title, they are likely to keep reading.

Following her outline carefully, Mariah crafted each paragraph of her essay. Moving step by step in the writing process, Mariah finished the draft and even included a brief concluding paragraph. She then decided, as the final touch for her writing session, to add an engaging title.

**Thesis Statement:** Everyone wants the newest and the best digital technology, but the choices are many, and the specifications are often confusing.

**Working Title:** Digital Technology: The Newest and the Best at What Price?

**Writing Your Own First Draft**
Now you may begin your own first draft, if you have not already done so. Follow the suggestions and the guidelines presented in this section.
Key Takeaways

• Make the writing process work for you. Use any and all of the strategies that help you move forward in the writing process.

• Always be aware of your purpose for writing and the needs of your audience. Cater to those needs in every sensible ways.

• Remember to include all the key structural parts of an essay: a thesis statement that is part of your introductory paragraph, three or more body paragraphs as described in your outline, and a concluding paragraph. Then add an engaging title to draw in readers.

• Write paragraphs of an appropriate length for your writing assignment. Paragraphs in college-level writing can be a page long, as long as they cover the main topics in your outline.

• Use your topic outline or your sentence outline to guide the development of your paragraphs and the elaboration of your ideas. Each main idea, indicated by a roman numeral in your outline, becomes the topic of a new paragraph. Develop it with the supporting details and the subpoints of those details that you included in your outline.

• Generally speaking, write your introduction and conclusion last, after you have fleshed out the body paragraphs.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
2.4 Revising and Editing

Introduction
Revising and editing are the two tasks you undertake to significantly improve your essay. Both are very important elements of the writing process. You may think that a completed first draft means little improvement is needed. However, even experienced writers need to improve their drafts and rely on peers during revising and editing. You may know that athletes miss catches, fumble balls, or overshoot goals. Dancers forget steps, turn too slowly, or miss beats. For both athletes and dancers, the more they practice, the stronger their performance will become. Web designers seek better images, a more clever design, or a more appealing background for their web pages. Writing has the same capacity to profit from improvement and revision.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

Understanding the Purpose of Revising and Editing
Revising and editing allow you to examine two important aspects of your writing separately, so that you can give each task your undivided attention.

- When you revise, you take a second look at your ideas. You might add, cut, move, or change information in order to make your ideas clearer, more accurate, more interesting, or more convincing.

- When you edit, you take a second look at how you expressed your ideas. You add or change words. You fix any problems in grammar, punctuation, and sentence structure. You improve your writing style. You make your essay into a polished, mature piece of writing, the end product of your best efforts.

Tip
How do you get the best out of your revisions and editing? Here are some strategies that writers have developed to look at their first drafts from a fresh perspective. Try them over the course of this semester; then keep using the ones that bring results.

- Take a break. You are proud of what you wrote, but you might be too close to it to make changes. Set aside your writing for a few hours or even a day until you can look at it objectively.

- Ask someone you trust for feedback and constructive criticism.

- Pretend you are one of your readers. Are you satisfied or dissatisfied? Why?

- Use the resources that your college provides. Find out where your school’s writing lab is located and ask about the assistance they provide online and in person.

Many people hear the words critic, critical, and criticism and pick up only negative vibes that provoke feelings that make them blush, grumble, or shout. However, as a writer and a thinker, you need to learn to be critical of yourself in a positive way and have high expectations for your work. You also need to train your eye and trust your ability to fix what needs fixing. For this, you need to teach yourself where to look.

Creating Unity and Coherence
Following your outline closely offers you a reasonable guarantee that your writing will stay on purpose and not drift away from the controlling idea. However, when writers are rushed, are tired, or cannot find the right words, their writing may become less than they want it to be. Their writing may no longer be clear and concise, and they may be adding information that is not needed to develop the main idea.
When a piece of writing has unity, all the ideas in each paragraph and in the entire essay clearly belong and are arranged in an order that makes logical sense. When the writing has unity, the ideas flow smoothly. The wording clearly indicates how one idea leads to another within a paragraph and from paragraph to paragraph.

**Tip**
Reading your writing aloud will often help you find problems with unity and coherence. Listen for the clarity and flow of your ideas. Identify places where you find yourself confused and write a note to yourself about possible fixes.

**Writing at Work**
Many companies hire copyeditors and proofreaders to help them produce the cleanest possible final drafts of large writing projects. Copyeditors are responsible for suggesting revisions and style changes; proofreaders check documents for any errors in capitalization, spelling, and punctuation that have crept in. Many times, these tasks are done on a freelance basis, with one freelancer working for a variety of clients.

**Creating Coherence**
Careful writers use transitions to clarify how the ideas in their sentences and paragraphs are related. These words and phrases help the writing flow smoothly. Adding transitions is not the only way to improve coherence, but they are often useful and give a mature feel to your essays. Table 2.3 “Common Transitional Words and Phrases” groups many common transitions according to their purpose.

Table 2.3 Common Transitional Words and Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitions that Show Sequence or Time</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>before</td>
<td>later</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>afterward</td>
<td>before long</td>
<td>meanwhile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as soon as</td>
<td>finally</td>
<td>next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at first</td>
<td>first, second, third</td>
<td>soon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at last</td>
<td>in the first place</td>
<td>then</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitions that Show Position</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>above</td>
<td>across</td>
<td>at the bottom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at the top</td>
<td>behind</td>
<td>below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beside</td>
<td>beyond</td>
<td>inside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>near</td>
<td>next to</td>
<td>opposite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to the left, to the right, to the side</td>
<td>under</td>
<td>where</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitions that Show a Conclusion</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>indeed</td>
<td>hence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in the final analysis</td>
<td>therefore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in conclusion</td>
<td>thus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitions that Continue a Line of Thought</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>consequently</td>
<td>furthermore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>besides the fact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in addition</td>
<td>in the same way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>looking further</td>
<td>considering..., it is clear that</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitions that Change a Line of Thought</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>but</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nevertheless</td>
<td>on the contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on the other hand</td>
<td>on the other hand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitions that Show Importance</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>above all</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in fact</td>
<td>more important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>most</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|  |
|  |
|  |

|  |
|  |
|  |
### Transitions that Introduce the Final Thoughts in a Paragraph or Essay

- finally
- last
- in conclusion
- most of all
- least of all
- last of all

#### All-Purpose Transitions to Open Paragraphs or to Connect Ideas Inside Paragraphs

- admittedly
- at this point
- certainly
- granted
- it is true
- generally speaking
- in general
- in this situation
- no doubt
- no one denies
- obviously
- of course
- to be sure
- undoubtedly
- unquestionably

### Transitions that Introduce Examples

- for instance
- for example

### Transitions that Clarify the Order of Events or Steps

- first, second, third
- generally, furthermore, finally
- in the first place, also, last
- in the first place, furthermore, finally
- in the first place, likewise, lastly

### Tip

Many writers make their revisions on a printed copy and then transfer them to the version on-screen. They conventionally use a small arrow called a caret (^) to show where to insert an addition or correction.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

Being Clear and Concise
Some writers are very methodical and painstaking when they write a first draft. Other writers unleash a lot of words in order to get out all that they feel they need to say. Do either of these composing styles match your style? Or is your composing style somewhere in between? No matter which description best fits you, the first draft of almost every piece of writing, no matter its author, can be made clearer and more concise.

If you have a tendency to write too much, you will need to look for unnecessary words. If you have a tendency to be vague or imprecise in your wording, you will need to find specific words to replace any overly general language.

Identifying Wordiness
Sometimes writers use too many words when fewer words will appeal more to their audience and better fit their purpose. Here are some common examples of wordiness to look for in your draft. Eliminating wordiness helps all readers, because it makes your ideas clear, direct, and straightforward.

- **Sentences that begin with* There is or There are.*
  
  **Wordy:** There are two major experiments that the Biology Department sponsor.
  
  **Revised:** The Biology Department sponsors two major experiments.

- **Sentences with unnecessary modifiers.**
  
  **Wordy:** Two extremely famous and well-known consumer advocates spoke eloquently in favor of the proposed important legislation.
  
  **Revised:** Two well-known consumer advocates spoke in favor of the proposed legislation.

- **Sentences with deadwood phrases that add little to the meaning.** Be judicious when you use phrases such as* in terms of, with a mind to, on the subject of, as to whether or not, more or less, as far as...is concerned,* and similar expressions. You can usually find a more straightforward way to state your point.
  
  **Wordy:** As a world leader in the field of green technology, the company plans to focus its efforts in the area of geothermal energy.
  
  A report as to whether or not to use geysers as an energy source is in the process of preparation.
  
  **Revised:** As a world leader in green technology, the company plans to focus on geothermal energy.
  
  A report about using geysers as an energy source is in preparation.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

• **Sentences in the passive voice or with forms of the verb** to be. Sentences with passive-voice verbs often create confusion, because the subject of the sentence does not perform an action. Sentences are clearer when the subject of the sentence performs the action and is followed by a strong verb. Use strong active-voice verbs in place of forms of to be, which can lead to wordiness. Avoid passive voice when you can.

  **Wordy:** It might perhaps be said that using a GPS device is something that is a benefit to drivers who have a poor sense of direction.

  **Revised:** Using a GPS device benefits drivers who have a poor sense of direction.

• **Sentences with constructions that can be shortened.**

  **Wordy:** The e-book reader, which is a recent invention, may become as commonplace as the cell phone. My over-sixty uncle bought an e-book reader, and his wife bought an e-book reader, too.

  **Revised:** The e-book reader, a recent invention, may become as commonplace as the cell phone. My over-sixty uncle and his wife both bought e-book readers.

**Choosing Specific, Appropriate Words**

Most college essays should be written in formal English suitable for an academic situation. Follow these principles to be sure that your word choice is appropriate.

• **Avoid slang.** Find alternatives to bummer, kewl, and rad.

• **Avoid language that is overly casual.** Write about “men and women” rather than “girls and guys” unless you are trying to create a specific effect. A formal tone calls for formal language.

• **Avoid contractions.** Use do not in place of don’t, I am in place of I’m, have not in place of haven’t, and so on. Contractions are considered casual speech.

• **Avoid clichés.** Overused expressions such as green with envy, face the music, better late than never, and similar expressions are empty of meaning and may not appeal to your audience.

• **Be careful when you use words that sound alike but have different meanings.** Some examples are allusion/illusion, complement/compliment, council/counsel, concurrent/consecutive, founder/flounder, and historic/historical. When in doubt, check a dictionary.
• **Choose words with the connotations you want.** Choosing a word for its connotations is as important in formal essay writing as it is in all kinds of writing. Compare the positive connotations of the word *proud* and the negative connotations of *arrogant* and *conceited*.

• **Use specific words rather than overly general words.** Find synonyms for *thing, people, nice, good, bad, interesting*, and other vague words. Or use specific details to make your exact meaning clear.

Now read the revisions Mariah made to make her third paragraph clearer and more concise. She has already incorporated the changes she made to improve unity and coherence.

**Creating Unity**

Nothing is more confusing to me than choosing among televisions. It confuses lots of people who want a new high-definition digital television (HDTV) with a large screen to watch sports and DVDs on. You could listen to the guys in the electronics store, but word has it they know little more than you do. They want to sell you what they have in stock, not what best fits your needs. You face decision you never had to make with the old, bulky picture–tube televisions. Screen resolution means the number of horizontal scan lines the screen can show. This resolution is often 1080p, or full HD, or 768p. The trouble is that if you have a smaller screen, 32 inches of 37 inches diagonal, you won’t be able to tell the difference with the naked eye. The 1080p televisions cost more, though, so those are what the salespeople want you to buy. They get bigger commissions. The other important decision you face as you walk around the sales floor is whether to get a plasma screen or an LCD screen. Now here the salespeople may finally give you decent info. Plasma flat-panel television screens can be much larger in diameter that their LCD rivals. Plasma screens show truer blacks and can be viewed at a wider angle that current LCD screens. But be careful and tell the salesperson you have budget constraints. Large flat-panel plasma screens are much more expensive than flat-screen LCD models. Don’t let someone make you buy more television that you need!
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

Creating Coherence

Finally, nothing is more confusing to me than choosing among televisions. It confuses lots of people who want a new high-definition digital television (HD television) with a large screen to watch sports and DVDs on. There’s good reason for this confusion: you face decision you never had to make with the old, bulky picture-tube televisions. The first big decision is the screen resolution you want. Screen resolution means the number of horizontal scan lines the screen can show. This resolution is often 1080p, or full HD, or 768p. The trouble is that if you have a smaller screen, 32 inches of 37 inches diagonal, you won’t be able to tell the difference with the naked eye. The second other important decision you face as you walk around the sales floor is whether to get a plasma screen or an LCD screen. Along with the choice of display type, a further decision buyer’s face is screen size and features. Plasma flat-panel television screens can be much larger in diameter that their LCD rivals. Plasma screens show truer blacks and can be viewed at a wider angle that current LCD screens. However, larger flat-panel plasma screens are much more expensive than flat-screen LCD models. Don’t buy more television that you need!

Completing a Peer Review

After working so closely with a piece of writing, writers often need to step back and ask for a more objective reader. What writers most need is feedback from readers who can respond only to the words on the page. When they are ready, writers show their drafts to someone they respect and who can give an honest response about its strengths and weaknesses.

You, too, can ask a peer to read your draft when it is ready. After evaluating the feedback and assessing what is most helpful, the reader’s feedback will help you when you revise your draft. This process is called peer review.

You can work with a partner in your class and identify specific ways to strengthen each other’s essays. Although you may be uncomfortable sharing your writing at first, remember that each writer is working toward the same goal: a final draft that fits the audience and the purpose. Maintaining a positive attitude when providing feedback will put you and your partner at ease. The box that follows provides a useful framework for the peer review session.
Chapter 2
The Writing Process

One of the reasons why word-processing programs build in a reviewing feature is that workgroups have become a common feature in many businesses. Writing is often collaborative, and the members of a workgroup and their supervisors often critique group members’ work and offer feedback that will lead to a better final product.

Using Feedback Objectively
The purpose of peer feedback is to receive constructive criticism of your essay. Your peer reviewer is your first real audience, and you have the opportunity to learn what confuses and delights a reader so that you can improve your work before sharing the final draft with a wider audience (or your intended audience).

It may not be necessary to incorporate every recommendation your peer reviewer makes. However, if you start to observe a pattern in the responses you receive from peer reviewers, you might want to take that feedback into consideration in future assignments. For example, if you read consistent comments about a need for more research, then you may want to consider including more research in future assignments.

Using Feedback from Multiple Sources
You might get feedback from more than one reader as you share different stages of your revised draft. In this situation, you may receive feedback from readers who do not understand the assignment or who lack your involvement with and enthusiasm for it.

You need to evaluate the responses you receive according to two important criteria:

1. Determine if the feedback supports the purpose of the assignment.
2. Determine if the suggested revisions are appropriate to the audience.

Then, using these standards, accept or reject revision feedback.

Editing Your Draft
If you have been incorporating each set of revisions as Mariah has, you have produced multiple drafts of your writing. So far, all your changes have been content changes. Perhaps with the help of peer feedback, you have made sure that you sufficiently supported your ideas. You have checked for problems with unity and coherence. You have examined your essay for word choice, revising to cut unnecessary words and to replace weak wording with specific and appropriate wording.
The next step after revising the content is editing. When you edit, you examine the surface features of your text. You examine your spelling, grammar, usage, and punctuation. You also make sure you use the proper format when creating your finished assignment.

Tip

Editing often takes time. Budgeting time into the writing process allows you to complete additional edits after revising. Editing and proofreading your writing helps you create a finished work that represents your best efforts. Here are a few more tips to remember about your readers:

- Readers do not notice correct spelling, but they do notice misspellings.
- Readers look past your sentences to get to your ideas—unless the sentences are awkward, poorly constructed, and frustrating to read.
- Readers notice when every sentence has the same rhythm as every other sentence, with no variety.
- Readers do not cheer when you use there, their, and they’re correctly, but they notice when you do not.
- Readers will notice the care with which you handled your assignment and your attention to detail in the delivery of an error-free document.

The first section of this book offers a useful review of grammar, mechanics, and usage. Use it to help you eliminate major errors in your writing and refine your understanding of the conventions of language. Do not hesitate to ask for help, too, from peer tutors in your academic department or in the college’s writing lab. In the meantime, use the checklist to help you edit your writing.
Checklist
Editing Your Writing

Grammar

- Are some sentences actually sentence fragments?
- Are some sentences run-on sentences? How can I correct them?
- Do some sentences need conjunctions between independent clauses?
- Does every verb agree with its subject?
- Is every verb in the correct tense?
- Are tense forms, especially for irregular verbs, written correctly?
- Have I used subject, object, and possessive personal pronouns correctly?
- Have I used who and whom correctly?
- Is the antecedent of every pronoun clear?
- Do all personal pronouns agree with their antecedents?
- Have I used the correct comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs?
- Is it clear which word a participial phrase modifies, or is it a dangling modifier?

Sentence Structure

- Are all my sentences simple sentences, or do I vary my sentence structure?
- Have I chosen the best coordinating or subordinating conjunctions to join clauses?
- Have I created long, overpacked sentences that should be shortened for clarity?
- Do I see any mistakes in parallel structure?

Punctuation

- Does every sentence end with the correct end punctuation?
- Can I justify the use of every exclamation point
- Have I used apostrophes correctly to write all singular and plural possessive forms?
- Have I used quotation marks correctly?
Mechanics and Usage

• Can I find any spelling errors? How can I correct them?
• Have I used capital letters where they are needed?
• Have I written abbreviations, where allowed, correctly?
• Can I find any errors in the use of commonly confused words, such as to/too/two?

Tip
Be careful about relying too much on spelling checkers and grammar checkers. A spelling checker cannot recognize that you meant to write principle but wrote principal instead. A grammar checker often queries constructions that are perfectly correct. The program does not understand your meaning; it makes its check against a general set of formulas that might not apply in each instance. If you use a grammar checker, accept the suggestions that make sense, but consider why the suggestions came up.

Tip
Proofreading requires patience; it is very easy to read past a mistake. Set your paper aside for at least a few hours, if not a day or more, so your mind will rest. Some professional proofreaders read a text backward so they can concentrate on spelling and punctuation. Another helpful technique is to slowly read a paper aloud, paying attention to every word, letter, and punctuation mark.

If you need additional proofreading help, ask a reliable friend, a classmate, or a peer tutor to make a final pass on your paper to look for anything you missed.

Formatting
Remember to use proper format when creating your finished assignment. Sometimes an instructor, a department, or a college will require students to follow specific instructions on titles, margins, page numbers, or the location of the writer’s name. To ensure the format is correct and follows any specific instructions, make a final check before you submit an assignment.

Exercise 1
With the help of the checklist, edit and proofread your essay.
Key Takeaways

- Revising and editing are the stages of the writing process in which you improve your work before producing a final draft.
- During revising, you add, cut, move, or change information in order to improve content.
- During editing, you take a second look at the words and sentences you used to express your ideas and fix any problems in grammar, punctuation, and sentence structure.
- Unity in writing means that all the ideas in each paragraph and in the entire essay clearly belong together and are arranged in an order that makes logical sense.
- Coherence in writing means that the writer’s wording clearly indicates how one idea leads to another within a paragraph and between paragraphs.
- Transitional words and phrases effectively make writing more coherent.
- Writing should be clear and concise, with no unnecessary words.
- Effective formal writing uses specific, appropriate words and avoids slang, contractions, clichés, and overly general words.
- Peer reviews, done properly, can give writers objective feedback about their writing. It is the writer’s responsibility to evaluate the results of peer reviews and incorporate only useful feedback.
- Remember to budget time for careful editing and proofreading. Use all available resources, including editing checklists, peer editing, and your institution’s writing lab, to improve your editing skills.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
2.5 The Writing Process: End-of-Chapter Exercises

Exercises

1. In this chapter, you have thought and read about the topic of mass media. Starting with the title “The Future of Information: How It Will Be Created, Transmitted, and Consumed,” narrow the focus of the topic until it is suitable for a two- to three-page paper. Then narrow your topic with the help of brainstorming, idea mapping, and searching the Internet until you select a final topic to explore. Keep a journal or diary in which you record and comment on everything you did to choose a final topic. Then record what you will do next to explore the idea and create a thesis statement.

2. Write a thesis statement and a formal sentence outline for an essay about the writing process. Include separate paragraphs for prewriting, drafting, and revising and editing. Your audience will be a general audience of educated adults who are unfamiliar with how writing is taught at the college level. Your purpose is to explain the stages of the writing process so that readers will understand its benefits.

Collaboration

Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.

3. Pieces of writing in a variety of real-life and work-related situations would benefit from revising and editing. Consider the following list of real-life and work-related pieces of writing: e-mails, greeting card messages, junk mail, late-night television commercials, social networking pages, local newspapers, bulletin-board postings, and public notices. Find and submit at least two examples of writing that needs revision. Explain what changes you would make. Replace any recognizable names with pseudonyms.

4. Group activity. At work, an employer might someday ask you to contribute to the research base for an essay such as the one Mariah wrote or the one you wrote while working through this chapter. Choosing either her topic or your own, compile a list of at least five sources. Then, working in a group of four students, bring in printouts or PDF files of Internet sources or paper copies of non-Internet sources for the other group members to examine. In a group report, rate the reliability of each other’s sources.

5. Group activity. Working in a peer-review group of four, go to Section 2.3 “Drafting” and reread the draft of the first two body paragraphs of Mariah’s essay, “Digital Technology: The Newest and the Best at What Price?” Review those two paragraphs using the same level of inspection given to the essay’s third paragraph in Section 2.4 “Revising and Editing”. Suggest and agree on changes to improve unity and coherence, eliminate unneeded words, and refine word choice. Your purpose is to help Mariah produce two effective paragraphs for a formal college-level essay about her topic.
Chapter 3
Purpose, Audience, Tone, and Content

Introduction
Imagine reading one long block of text, with each idea blurring into the next. Even if you are reading a thrilling novel or an interesting news article, you will likely lose interest in what the author has to say very quickly. During the writing process, it is helpful to position yourself as a reader. Ask yourself whether you can focus easily on each point you make. One technique that effective writers use is to begin a fresh paragraph for each new idea they introduce.

Paragraphs separate ideas into logical, manageable chunks. One paragraph focuses on only one main idea and presents coherent sentences to support that one point. Because all the sentences in one paragraph support the same point, a paragraph may stand on its own. To create longer essays and to discuss more than one point, writers group together paragraphs.

Three elements shape the content of each paragraph:

- Purpose: The reason the writer composes the paragraph.
- Tone: The attitude the writer conveys about the paragraph’s subject.
- Audience: The individual or group whom the writer intends to address.

The assignment’s purpose, audience, and tone dictate what the paragraph covers and how it will support one main point. This section covers how purpose, audience, and tone affect reading and writing paragraphs.
Chapter 3
Purpose, Audience, Tone, and Content

Identifying Common Academic Purposes
The purpose for a piece of writing identifies the reason you write a particular document. Basically, the purpose of a piece of writing answers the question “Why?” For example, why write a play? To entertain a packed theater. Why write instructions to the babysitter? To inform him or her of your schedule and rules. Why write a letter to your member of Congress? To persuade him or her to address your community’s needs.

In academic settings, the reasons for writing will fulfill a main purpose: to summarize, to analyze, to synthesize, to evaluate, to inform, to entertain, or to persuade. You will encounter these purposes not only as you read for your classes but also as you read for work or pleasure. Because reading and writing work together, your writing skills will improve as you read.

As you will see, the purpose for writing will guide you through each part of the paper, helping you make decisions about content and style. For now, identifying these purposes by reading paragraphs will prepare you to write individual paragraphs and to build longer assignments.

Identifying the Audience
Imagine you must give a presentation to a group of executives in an office. Weeks before the big day, you spend time creating and rehearsing the presentation. You must make important, careful decisions not only about the content but also about your delivery. Will the presentation require technology to project figures and charts? Should the presentation define important words, or will the executives already know the terms? Should you wear your suit and dress shirt? The answers to these questions will help you develop an appropriate relationship with your audience, making them more receptive to your message.

Now imagine you must explain the same business concepts from your presentation to a group of high school students. Those important questions you previously answered may now require different answers. The figures and charts may be too sophisticated, and the terms will certainly require definitions. You may even reconsider your outfit and sport a more casual look. Because the audience has shifted, your presentation and delivery will shift as well to create a new relationship with the new audience.
In these two situations, the audience—the individuals who will watch and listen to the presentation—plays a role in the development of presentation. As you prepare the presentation, you visualize the audience to anticipate their expectations and reactions. What you imagine affects the information you choose to present and how you will present it. Then, during the presentation, you meet the audience in person and discover immediately how well you perform.

Although the audience for writing assignments—your readers—may not appear in person, they play an equally vital role. Even in everyday writing activities, you identify your readers’ characteristics, interests, and expectations before making decisions about what you write. In fact, thinking about audience has become so common that you may not even detect the audience-driven decisions.

For example, you update your status on a social networking site with the awareness of who will digitally follow the post. If you want to brag about a good grade, you may write the post to please family members. If you want to describe a funny moment, you may write with your friends’ senses of humor in mind. Even at work, you send e-mails with an awareness of an unintended receiver who could intercept the message.

In other words, being aware of “invisible” readers is a skill you most likely already possess and one you rely on every day. When writing your own paragraphs, you must engage with your audience to build an appropriate relationship given your subject. Imagining your readers during each stage of the writing process will help you make decisions about your writing. Ultimately, the people you visualize will affect what and how you write.

Tip
While giving a speech, you may articulate an inspiring or critical message, but if you left your hair a mess and laced up mismatched shoes, your audience would not take you seriously. They may be too distracted by your appearance to listen to your words.

Similarly, grammar and sentence structure serve as the appearance of a piece of writing. Polishing your work using correct grammar will impress your readers and allow them to focus on what you have to say.

Because focusing on audience will enhance your writing, your process, and your finished product, you must consider the specific traits of your audience members. Use your imagination to anticipate the readers’ demographics, education, prior knowledge, and expectations.
• **Demographics.** These measure important data about a group of people, such as their age range, their ethnicity, their religious beliefs, or their gender. Certain topics and assignments will require these kinds of considerations about your audience. For other topics and assignments, these measurements may not influence your writing in the end. Regardless, it is important to consider demographics when you begin to think about your purpose for writing.

• **Education.** Education considers the audience’s level of schooling. If audience members have earned a doctorate degree, for example, you may need to elevate your style and use more formal language. Or, if audience members are still in college, you could write in a more relaxed style. An audience member’s major or emphasis may also dictate your writing.

• **Prior knowledge.** This refers to what the audience already knows about your topic. If your readers have studied certain topics, they may already know some terms and concepts related to the topic. You may decide whether to define terms and explain concepts based on your audience’s prior knowledge. Although you cannot peer inside the brains of your readers to discover their knowledge, you can make reasonable assumptions. For instance, a nursing major would presumably know more about health-related topics than a business major would.

• **Expectations.** These indicate what readers will look for while reading your assignment. Readers may expect consistencies in the assignment’s appearance, such as correct grammar and traditional formatting like double-spaced lines and legible font. Readers may also have content-based expectations given the assignment’s purpose and organization. In an essay titled “The Economics of Enlightenment: The Effects of Rising Tuition,” for example, audience members may expect to read about the economic repercussions of college tuition costs.

**Selecting an Appropriate Tone**

Tone identifies a speaker’s attitude toward a subject or another person. You may pick up a person’s tone of voice fairly easily in conversation. A friend who tells you about her weekend may speak excitedly about a fun skiing trip. An instructor who means business may speak in a low, slow voice to emphasize her serious mood. Or, a coworker who needs to let off some steam after a long meeting may crack a sarcastic joke.

Just as speakers transmit emotion through voice, writers can transmit through writing a range of attitudes, from excited and humorous to somber and critical. These emotions create connections among the audience, the author, and the subject, ultimately building a relationship between the audience and the text. To stimulate these connections, writers intimate their attitudes and feelings with useful devices, such as sentence structure, word choice, punctuation, and formal or informal language. Keep in mind that the writer’s attitude should always appropriately match the audience and the purpose.
Choosing Appropriate, Interesting Content

Content refers to all the written substance in a document. After selecting an audience and a purpose, you must choose what information will make it to the page. Content may consist of examples, statistics, facts, anecdotes, testimonies, and observations, but no matter the type, the information must be appropriate and interesting for the audience and purpose. An essay written for third graders that summarizes the legislative process, for example, would have to contain succinct and simple content.

Content is also shaped by tone. When the tone matches the content, the audience will be more engaged, and you will build a stronger relationship with your readers. Consider that audience of third graders. You would choose simple content that the audience will easily understand, and you would express that content through an enthusiastic tone. The same considerations apply to all audiences and purposes.

✔ Key Takeaways

- Paragraphs separate ideas into logical, manageable chunks of information.
- The content of each paragraph and document is shaped by purpose, audience, and tone.
- The four common academic purposes are to summarize, to analyze, to synthesize, and to evaluate.
- Identifying the audience’s demographics, education, prior knowledge, and expectations will affect how and what you write.
- Devices such as sentence structure, word choice, punctuation, and formal or informal language communicate tone and create a relationship between the writer and his or her audience.
- Content may consist of examples, statistics, facts, anecdotes, testimonies, and observations. All content must be appropriate and interesting for the audience, purpose and tone.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Chapter 4
Writing Summaries and Responses

Introduction
Summarizing is an important academic and everyday life skill. A summary is a condensed restatement, in your own words, of another piece of writing (typically, though it could be a speech, presentation, video, or other medium). Writing a summary will help you understand another piece of writing. When you restate an essay’s or article’s main ideas in your own words, it helps you internalize those main ideas, clarify them, and better understand them.

The Process of Writing a Summary

1. Read.
Before you create a summary/response, complete a careful reading of the text. To do this, use a pen, pencil, or highlighter and mark the reading as you go. You may want to put stars next to information that feels important, circle new words that you are unfamiliar with, draw question marks next to passages that are unclear, write questions you have and connections you make in the margins that occur as you read, and use any other symbols that help you find meaning in the text. This will improve your comprehension of the reading and help you with the rest of the process. When you are done reading and marking, answer the following questions:
• What is the topic of the reading? (This is a word or phrase that answers the question: “What is the text about?”)

• What is the main idea/thesis of the entire essay/article? (This is the most important thing being said about the topic. It is a general statement that all of the information in the reading supports. It can be a lesson or important point that is made. This statement reflects and unifies the entire meaning of the reading.)

• What evidence is used to support the thesis or main idea you wrote down? (Identify the big ideas in the reading that explain and support the main idea/thesis.)

• What is in the reading that made you draw the conclusion as to what the main idea/thesis is?)

Keep in mind that to effectively write a summary/response, you must completely understand the text you read. Marking helps you do just that. If, after reading and marking the text, you are still unclear as to what it means, revisit it again and again until you are comfortable with the information in it.

2. **Summarize.**

A summary is a reflection of the author’s ideas, not your ideas about what you read. Summaries capture the writer’s main idea and the most important evidence that supports it. Keep in mind that a summary is a condensed version of what you read.

When writing a summary, do not write your own opinions or judgments about what you read. Capture the most important ideas from the text and shorten and paraphrase them. The summary should be a concise-but-thorough, fair, objective restatement of the original text. It should reflect the author’s viewpoint, not your own. Consider starting your summary paragraph by typing the title of the reading, followed by the author’s name, and the main idea. For example, an opening line of a summary/response might look like this: *In “Son of Saddam,” Don Yaeger states* that Uday Saddam used his position of authority to abuse and scare athletes instead of motivating them. (*Pick an appropriate present tense verb: claims, explains, defends, insists, asserts, compares, warns, observes, condemns, suggests, refutes, shows, etc.*) Note: After the first mention of the author’s full name, refer to him or her only by the last name: Smith argues . . . instead of John argues . . .

Follow this by explaining the textual support for your statement. Write it in your own words. In fact, as you write your summary, it is best to put away the reading after having read, marked, and fully
understood it. Why? Because if you have the reading right in front of you as you write, you may be more likely to “borrow” exact language from the reading by copying it down verbatim (word-for-word) from the direct source. When you put away the reading and complete writing a summary from your memory, you verify that you understood what you read and are more likely to use your own words instead of the exact ones of the author. You may want to think of it this way: What would you say if a friend asked you what that movie was about that you saw last weekend? Chances are you could rattle off a good summary of the movie without much effort. You have forgotten the details, but you remember the highlights. The same is true here: What was that essay about that you read yesterday?

Once your summary feels complete, take out the text you read and your summary and compare the two for accuracy. After having written a summary, the next step is to check it for a main idea/thesis, appropriate and adequate evidence that backs the main idea/thesis, a summary statement (restatement of the main idea/thesis), and transitions throughout that move the reader from one idea to the next. Some transitions typically used for summaries include the following: in short, in summary, furthermore, and in addition. One last tip is to avoid writing statements such as the following in a summary: This essay is about….Statements like this feel vague and general. They are considered novice techniques. Use language that is more concrete for your summary.

Response Writing
A response is a commentary on another piece of writing. Developing a response will help you make personal connections with the ideas in the essay. Instructors might use question prompts to help guide you in creating a focused response on a particular aspect of an assigned reading. Using a focusing question may help you stay on track and prevent the potentially frustrating and superficial task of trying to respond to everything in the essay in just one or two pages.

The summary captures only the author’s ideas; however, the response includes your own. The response is the place for your opinions, interpretations, and evaluations. The most important aspect of writing a response is to create a main idea/statement (it may be your nutshell answer to an assigned focusing question) and back it up with specific evidence. Depending on the focus of the response, it might include observations about the writer’s technique, commentary on tone or literary strategy, views as to effectiveness of the writing, relationships between the author’s ideas and your own, an analysis of content, or any number of items. If a focusing question is required, make sure the entire response directly connects to (somehow serves to answer/support the answer) the focusing question.
Note: If you use verbatim (word-for-word) material from the essay or article, be sure it is accurate and enclose it with quotation marks. This tells the reader that you are using the author’s exact words, not your own, and gives credit to the author. However, in this type of writing, use quotations sparingly, and try to keep them short.

The Summary/Response Assignment
Throughout this course and other courses, you may be asked to write one or more summary/responses to an assigned reading such as an essay or article. This assignment combines the skills of summarizing and responding to a text. Pay close attention to the assignment guidelines provided by the instructor as length requirements may vary, and sometimes a prompt or choice of prompts will be provided while other times the student may be expected to provide his or her own focus for the response.

Following is an example of a Summary/Response:

Summary:
In his essay, “How to Make It in College, Now That You’re Here,” author Brian O’Keeney offers a process readers can follow to be successful in college. The author’s first tip addresses grades. He says that if students want good grades, they will need to apply themselves. This means finding a quiet place to study, completing all homework on time, and rewarding themselves when finished. O’Keeney says to glance over the textbook and get a basic idea of assignments before beginning. Then, take notes on key-terms and important subjects. Students need to look over notes frequently and study from them, so they really absorb the material. He stresses to ask instructors for help if needed, take a college skills course, or get a tutor. The second step in O’Keeney’s process involves managing responsibilities. He offers three tips: mark down all assignments and tests in a planner or calendar, block out times to study, and brainstorm weekly task lists. The author acknowledges that personal problems often get in the way of success. If the problems are serious, seek support from friends and a professional if needed. Also, be sure to utilize services offered at the school. O’Keeney ends his essay by analyzing why some students never succeed in college. He thinks it comes down to attitude. Students with good attitudes tend to succeed in school. He urges students to participate, be active listeners, be mature, and focus on their goals.

Focusing question:
“What obstacles to success have you encountered in school (college or high school)? How have you attempted to overcome these obstacles?”
Response:

The biggest obstacle to success I have encountered was during my first semester at Bay. In high school, I earned pretty good grades, A’s and B’s, without having to work too hard. I handed in my homework on time and attended class regularly, but I didn’t spend too much time studying for tests, and I usually did the minimum required. I was able to complete most of my work during class, so I didn’t really have too much homework. When I started Bay last fall, I had a rude awakening. It was not as easy as high school. I didn’t get as much time during my classes to finish homework. Often times, especially in math class, the assignment was given the last few minutes of class, so I couldn’t even get a start on it. Being the procrastinator I am, I usually wouldn’t even start the homework until a few hours before class. Often times, I had to skip several questions because I just didn’t know how to do them. In class, I just handed in what I had. I didn’t ask questions or get a tutor. I figured I would still earn a decent grade. I was wrong. I failed the first test. I guess that was my awakening. After that, I got a tutor who helped me with the homework and helped me study for the next test. I got a B on the second test. My obstacle was definitely that I just wasn’t used to studying. I didn’t know how to do it effectively. I think I’ve overcome that obstacle pretty well.

Another obstacle I encountered my first semester at Bay was a lack of responsibility on my part. In high school, I relied on my teachers and my parents to remind me of assignments, of where I put my books, of what I should do if I missed school. In college, it’s all on me. About two weeks into the semester, I overslept and missed my psychology class. The class didn’t meet until 10 a.m., so my parents and brother had already left for school. When I finally made it the college, I asked my psychology teacher what I missed, and he told me that there had been a quiz that I couldn’t make up and that I’d have to get notes from another student. I was surprised. In high school, the teacher usually handed me a packet of papers and told me to stay after school to make up a test if I had missed one. My psychology teacher told me that this policy was outlined in the syllabus. I must admit, I didn’t even keep that huge ream of stapled paper he handed out the first day of class. I guess I should have. I learned quickly that college was different and that I needed to get my act together and pay more attention to how college works. I was being treated as an adult, which was something I wasn’t used to. As for that obstacle—taking responsibility for my own success (or failure)—I’m still working on it. I’ve gotten better, but I still struggle. I’ve thought about hiring a secretary, but then I’d have to get a job, another responsibility that I’m just not ready for yet.

License Information

This content was created by Todd McCann, Jennifer McCann and Amber Kinonen at Bay College. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
5.1 Developing a Strong, Clear Thesis Statement

Introduction
Have you ever known a person who was not very good at telling stories? You probably had trouble following his train of thought as he jumped around from point to point, either being too brief in places that needed further explanation or providing too many details on a meaningless element. Maybe he told the end of the story first, then moved to the beginning and later added details to the middle. His ideas were probably scattered, and the story did not flow very well. When the story was over, you probably had many questions.

Just as a personal anecdote can be a disorganized mess, an essay can fall into the same trap of being out of order and confusing. That is why writers need a thesis statement to provide a specific focus for their essay and to organize what they are about to discuss in the body.

Just like a topic sentence summarizes a single paragraph, the thesis statement summarizes an entire essay. It tells the reader the point you want to make in your essay, while the essay itself supports that point. It is like a signpost that signals the essay’s destination. You should form your thesis before you begin to organize an essay, but you may find that it needs revision as the essay develops.
Elements of a Thesis Statement

For every essay you write, you must focus on a central idea. This idea stems from a topic you have chosen or been assigned or from a question your teacher has asked. It is not enough merely to discuss a general topic or simply answer a question with a yes or no. You have to form a specific opinion, and then articulate that into a controlling idea—the main idea upon which you build your thesis.

Remember that a thesis is not the topic itself, but rather your interpretation of the question or subject. For whatever topic your professor gives you, you must ask yourself, “What do I want to say about it?” Asking and then answering this question is vital to forming a thesis that is precise, forceful, and confident.

A thesis is typically one sentence long and appears toward the end of your introduction. It forecasts the content of the essay and suggests how you will organize your information. Remember that a thesis statement does not summarize an issue but rather dissects it.

A Strong Thesis Statement

A strong thesis statement contains the following qualities:

**Specificity.** A thesis statement must concentrate on a specific area of a general topic. As you may recall, the creation of a thesis statement begins when you choose a broad subject and then narrow down its parts until you pinpoint a specific aspect of that topic. For example, health care is a broad topic, but a proper thesis statement would focus on a specific area of that topic, such as options for individuals without health care coverage.

**Precision.** A strong thesis statement must be precise enough to allow for a coherent argument and to remain focused on the topic. If the specific topic is options for individuals without health care coverage, then your precise thesis statement must make an exact claim about it, such as that limited options exist for those who are uninsured by their employers. You must further pinpoint what you are going to discuss regarding these limited effects, such as whom they affect and what the cause is.

**Ability to be argued.** A thesis statement must present a relevant and specific argument. A factual statement often is not considered arguable. Be sure your thesis statement contains a point of view that can be supported with evidence.
Ability to be demonstrated. For any claim you make in your thesis, you must be able to provide reasons and examples for your opinion. You can rely on personal observations in order to do this, or you can consult outside sources to demonstrate that what you assert is valid. A worthy argument is backed by examples and details.

Forcefulness. A thesis statement that is forceful shows readers that you are, in fact, making an argument. The tone is assertive and takes a stance that others might oppose.

Confidence. In addition to using force in your thesis statement, you must also use confidence in your claim. Phrases such as *I feel* or *I believe* actually weaken the readers’ sense of your confidence because these phrases imply that you are the only person who feels the way you do. In other words, your stance has insufficient backing. Taking an authoritative stance on the matter persuades your readers to have faith in your argument and open their minds to what you have to say.

Tip
Even in a personal essay that allows the use of first person, your thesis should not contain phrases such as *in my opinion* or *I believe*. These statements reduce your credibility and weaken your argument. Your opinion is more convincing when you use a firm attitude.

Exercise 1
On a separate sheet of paper, write a thesis statement for each of the following topics. Remember to make each statement specific, precise, demonstrable, forceful and confident.

Topics
- Texting while driving
- Gay marriage
- Immigration
- Racism
- Social media
- Online courses
- College
- High School
Examples of Appropriate Thesis Statements

Each of the following thesis statements meets several of the following requirements:

• Specificity
• Precision
• Ability to be argued
• Ability to be demonstrated
• Forcefulness
• Confidence

1. The societal and personal struggles of Troy Maxon in the play *Fences* symbolize the challenge of black males who lived through segregation and integration in the United States.

2. Closing all American borders for a period of five years is one solution that will tackle illegal immigration.

3. Shakespeare’s use of dramatic irony in *Romeo and Juliet* spoils the outcome for the audience and weakens the plot.

4. J. D. Salinger’s character in *Catcher in the Rye*, Holden Caulfield, is a confused rebel who voices his disgust with phonies, yet in an effort to protect himself, he acts like a phony on many occasions.

5. Compared to an absolute divorce, no-fault divorce is less expensive, promotes fairer settlements, and reflects a more realistic view of the causes for marital breakdown.

6. Exposing children from an early age to the dangers of drug abuse is a sure method of preventing future drug addicts.

7. In today’s crumbling job market, a high school diploma is not significant enough education to land a stable, lucrative job.

Tip

You can find thesis statements in many places, such as in the news; in the opinions of friends, coworkers or teachers; and even in songs you hear on the radio. Become aware of thesis statements in everyday life by paying attention to people’s opinions and their reasons for those opinions. Pay attention to your own everyday thesis statements as well, as these can become material for future essays.
Now that you have read about the contents of a good thesis statement and have seen examples, take a look at the pitfalls to avoid when composing your own thesis:

- A thesis is weak when it is simply a declaration of your subject or a description of what you will discuss in your essay.
  
  **Weak thesis statement:** My paper will explain why imagination is more important than knowledge.

- A thesis is weak when it makes an unreasonable or outrageous claim or insults the opposing side.
  
  **Weak thesis statement:** Religious radicals across America are trying to legislate their Puritanical beliefs by banning required high school books.

- A thesis is weak when it contains an obvious fact or something that no one can disagree with or provides a dead end.
  
  **Weak thesis statement:** Advertising companies use sex to sell their products.

- A thesis is weak when the statement is too broad.
  
  **Weak thesis statement:** The life of Abraham Lincoln was long and challenging.

**Exercise 2**

Read the following thesis statements. On a separate piece of paper, identify each as weak or strong. List the reasons why. Then revise the weak statements so that they conform to the requirements of a strong thesis.

1. The subject of this paper is my experience with ferrets as pets.

2. The government must expand its funding for research on renewable energy resources in order to prepare for the impending end of oil.

3. Edgar Allan Poe was a poet who lived in Baltimore during the nineteenth century.

4. In this essay, I will give you lots of reasons why slot machines should not be legalized in Baltimore.

5. Despite his promises during his campaign, President John F. Kennedy took few executive measures to support civil rights legislation.

6. Because many children’s toys have potential safety hazards that could lead to injury, it is clear that not all children’s toys are safe.

7. My experience with young children has taught me that I want to be a disciplinary parent because I believe that a child without discipline can be a parent’s worst nightmare.
Writing at Work

Often in your career, you will need to ask your boss for something through an e-mail. Just as a thesis statement organizes an essay, it can also organize your e-mail request. While your e-mail will be shorter than an essay, using a thesis statement in your first paragraph quickly lets your boss know what you are asking for, why it is necessary, and what the benefits are. In short body paragraphs, you can provide the essential information needed to expand upon your request.

Thesis Statement

Your thesis will probably change as you write, so you will need to modify it to reflect exactly what you have discussed in your essay. Remember that your thesis statement begins as a working thesis statement, an indefinite statement that you make about your topic early in the writing process for the purpose of planning and guiding your writing.

Working thesis statements often become stronger as you gather information and form new opinions and reasons for those opinions. Revision helps you strengthen your thesis so that it matches what you have expressed in the body of the paper.

Tip

The best way to revise your thesis statement is to ask questions about it and then examine the answers to those questions. By challenging your own ideas and forming definite reasons for those ideas, you grow closer to a more precise point of view, which you can then incorporate into your thesis statement.

Ways to Revise Your Thesis

You can cut down on irrelevant aspects and revise your thesis by taking the following steps:

1. Pinpoint and replace all nonspecific words, such as people, everything, society, or life, with more precise words in order to reduce any vagueness.

   Working thesis: Young people have to work hard to succeed in life.

   Revised thesis: Recent college graduates must have discipline and persistence in order to find and maintain a stable job in which they can use and be appreciated for their talents.
The revised thesis makes a more specific statement about success and what it means to work hard. The original includes too broad a range of people and does not define exactly what success entails. By replacing those general words like *people* and *work hard*, the writer can better focus his or her research and gain more direction in his or her writing.

2. Clarify ideas that need explanation by asking yourself questions that narrow your thesis.

**Working thesis:** The welfare system is a joke.

**Revised thesis:** The welfare system keeps a socioeconomic class from gaining employment by alluring members of that class with unearned income, instead of programs to improve their education and skill sets.

*A joke* means many things to many people. Readers bring all sorts of backgrounds and perspectives to the reading process and would need clarification for a word so vague. This expression may also be too informal for the selected audience. By asking questions, the writer can devise a more precise and appropriate explanation for *joke*. The writer should ask himself or herself questions similar to the 5WH questions. By incorporating the answers to these questions into a thesis statement, the writer more accurately defines his or her stance, which will better guide the writing of the essay.

3. Replace any linking verbs with action verbs. Linking verbs are forms of the verb *to be*, a verb that simply states that a situation exists.

**Working thesis:** Kansas City schoolteachers are not paid enough.

**Revised thesis:** The Kansas City legislature cannot afford to pay its educators, resulting in job cuts and resignations in a district that sorely needs highly qualified and dedicated teachers. The linking verb in this working thesis statement is the word *are*. Linking verbs often make thesis statements weak because they do not express action. Rather, they connect words and phrases to the second half of the sentence. Readers might wonder, “Why are they not paid enough?” But this statement does not compel them to ask many more questions. The writer should ask himself or herself questions in order to replace the linking verb with an action verb, thus forming a stronger thesis statement, one that takes a more definitive stance on the issue:

- Who is not paying the teachers enough?
- What is considered “enough”?
- What is the problem?
- What are the results
4. Omit any general claims that are hard to support.

**Working thesis:** Today’s teenage girls are too sexualized.

**Revised thesis:** Teenage girls who are captivated by the sexual images on MTV are conditioned to believe that a woman’s worth depends on her sensuality, a feeling that harms their self-esteem and behavior.

It is true that some young women in today’s society are more sexualized than in the past, but that is not true for all girls. Many girls have strict parents, dress appropriately, and do not engage in sexual activity while in middle school and high school. The writer of this thesis should ask the following questions:

- Which teenage girls?
- What constitutes “too” sexualized?
- Why are they behaving that way?
- Where does this behavior show up?
- What are the repercussions?

### Exercise 3

In the first section, you determined your purpose for writing and your audience. You then completed a freewriting exercise about an event you recently experienced and chose a general topic to write about. Using that general topic, you then narrowed it down by answering the 5WH questions. After you answered these questions, you chose one of the three methods of prewriting and gathered possible supporting points for your working thesis statement.

Now, on a separate sheet of paper, write down your working thesis statement. Identify any weaknesses in this sentence and revise the statement to reflect the elements of a strong thesis statement. Make sure it is specific, precise, arguable, demonstrable, forceful, and confident.

### Collaboration

Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.
Writing at Work

In your career you may have to write a project proposal that focuses on a particular problem in your company, such as reinforcing the tardiness policy. The proposal would aim to fix the problem; using a thesis statement would clearly state the boundaries of the problem and tell the goals of the project. After writing the proposal, you may find that the thesis needs revision to reflect exactly what is expressed in the body. Using the techniques from this chapter would apply to revising that thesis.

Key Takeaways

- Proper essays require a thesis statement to provide a specific focus and suggest how the essay will be organized.
- A thesis statement is your interpretation of the subject, not the topic itself.
- A strong thesis is specific, precise, forceful, confident, and is able to be demonstrated.
- A strong thesis challenges readers with a point of view that can be debated and can be supported with evidence.
- A weak thesis is simply a declaration of your topic or contains an obvious fact that cannot be argued.
- Depending on your topic, it may or may not be appropriate to use first person point of view.
- Revise your thesis by ensuring all words are specific, all ideas are exact, and all verbs express action
Chapter 5
Writing Essays

5.2 Writing Body Paragraphs

Introduction
If your thesis gives the reader a roadmap to your essay, then body paragraphs should closely follow that map. The reader should be able to predict what follows your introductory paragraph by simply reading the thesis statement.

The body paragraphs present the evidence you have gathered to confirm your thesis. Before you begin to support your thesis in the body, you must find information from a variety of sources that support and give credit to what you are trying to prove.

Select Primary Support for Your Thesis
Without primary support, your argument is not likely to be convincing. Primary support can be described as the major points you choose to expand on your thesis. It is the most important information you select to argue for your point of view. Each point you choose will be incorporated into the topic sentence for each body paragraph you write. Your primary supporting points are further supported by supporting details within the paragraphs.
Tip
Remember that a worthy argument is backed by examples. In order to construct a valid argument, good writers conduct lots of background research and take careful notes. They also talk to people knowledgeable about a topic in order to understand its implications before writing about it.

Identify the Characteristics of Good Primary Support
In order to fulfill the requirements of good primary support, the information you choose must meet the following standards:

- **Be specific.** The main points you make about your thesis and the examples you use to expand on those points need to be specific. Use specific examples to provide the evidence and to build upon your general ideas. These types of examples give your reader something narrow to focus on, and if used properly, they leave little doubt about your claim. General examples, while they convey the necessary information, are not nearly as compelling or useful in writing because they are too obvious and typical.

- **Be relevant to the thesis.** Primary support is considered strong when it relates directly to the thesis. Primary support should show, explain, or prove your main argument without delving into irrelevant details. When faced with lots of information that could be used to prove your thesis, you may think you need to include it all in your body paragraphs. But effective writers resist the temptation to lose focus. Choose your examples wisely by making sure they directly connect to your thesis.

- **Be detailed.** Remember that your thesis, while specific, should not be very detailed. The body paragraphs are where you develop the discussion that a thorough essay requires. Using detailed support shows readers that you have considered all the facts and chosen only the most precise details to enhance your point of view.

Pre-write to Identify Primary Supporting Points for a Thesis Statement
Recall that when you pre-write you essentially make a list of examples or reasons why you support your stance. Stemming from each point, you further provide details to support those reasons. After prewriting, you are then able to look back at the information and choose the most compelling pieces you will use in your body paragraphs.
Exercise 1
Choose one of the following working thesis statements. On a separate sheet of paper, write for at least five minutes using one of the pre-writing techniques.

1. Unleashed dogs on city streets are a dangerous nuisance.
2. Students cheat for many different reasons.
3. Drug use among teens and young adults is a problem.
4. The most important change that should occur at my college or university is _________________________.

Select the Most Effective Primary Supporting Points for a Thesis Statement
After you have pre-written about your working thesis statement, you may have generated a lot of information, which may be edited out later. Remember that your primary support must be relevant to your thesis. Remind yourself of your main argument, and delete any ideas that do not directly relate to it. Omitting unrelated ideas ensures that you will use only the most convincing information in your body paragraphs. Choose at least three of only the most compelling points. These will serve as the topic sentences for your body paragraphs.

Exercise 2
Refer to the previous exercise and select three of your most compelling reasons to support the thesis statement. Remember that the points you choose must be specific and relevant to the thesis. The statements you choose will be your primary support points, and you will later incorporate them into the topic sentences for the body paragraphs.

Collaboration
Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.

When you support your thesis, you are revealing evidence. Evidence includes anything that can help support your stance. The following are the kinds of evidence you will encounter as you conduct your research:

1. Facts. Facts are the best kind of evidence to use because they often cannot be disputed. They can support your stance by providing background information on or a solid foundation for your point of view. However, some facts may still need explanation. For example, the sentence “The most populated state in the United States is California” is a pure fact, but it may require some explanation to make it relevant to your specific argument.
2. **Judgments.** Judgments are conclusions drawn from the given facts. Judgments are more credible than opinions because they are founded upon careful reasoning and examination of a topic.

3. **Testimony.** Testimony consists of direct quotations from either an eyewitness or an expert witness. An eyewitness is someone who has direct experience with a subject; he adds authenticity to an argument based on facts. An expert witness is a person who has extensive experience with a topic. This person studies the facts and provides commentary based on either facts or judgments, or both. An expert witness adds authority and credibility to an argument.

4. **Personal observation.** Personal observation is similar to testimony, but personal observation consists of your testimony. It reflects what you know to be true because you have experiences and have formed either opinions or judgments about them. For instance, if you are one of five children and your thesis states that being part of a large family is beneficial to a child’s social development, you could use your own experience to support your thesis.

   Note: Keep in mind that for most of the assignments in this course, you will not be using source material (researched facts, testimony) as evidence.

**Writing at Work**

In any job where you devise a plan, you will need to support the steps that you lay out. This is an area in which you would incorporate primary support into your writing. Choosing only the most specific and relevant information to expand upon the steps will ensure that your plan appears well-thought-out and precise.

**Tip**

You can consult a vast pool of resources to gather support for your stance. Citing relevant information from reliable sources ensures that your reader will take you seriously and consider your assertions. Use any of the following sources for your essay: newspapers or news organization websites, magazines, encyclopedias, and scholarly journals, which are periodicals that address topics in a specialized field.

**Choose Supporting Topic Sentences**

Each body paragraph contains a topic sentence that states one aspect of your thesis and then expands upon it. Like the thesis statement, each topic sentence should be specific and supported by concrete details, facts, or explanations.
Chapter 5
Writing Essays

Each body paragraph should comprise of the following elements:
Topic sentence + supporting details (examples, reasons, or arguments)

Topic sentences indicate the location and main points of the basic arguments of your essay. These sentences are vital to writing your body paragraphs because they always refer back to and support your thesis statement. Topic sentences are linked to the ideas you have introduced in your thesis, thus reminding readers what your essay is about. A paragraph without a clearly identified topic sentence may be unclear and scattered, just like an essay without a thesis statement.

💡 Tip
Unless your teacher instructs otherwise, you should include at least three or more body paragraphs in your essay.

📝 Exercise 3
In Note 5.19 “Exercise 2,” you chose three of your most convincing points to support the thesis statement you selected from the list. Take each point and incorporate it into a topic sentence for each body paragraph.

Supporting point 1: _________________________________________________________________________
Topic sentence: _____________________________________________________________________________

Supporting point 2: _________________________________________________________________________
Topic sentence: _____________________________________________________________________________

Supporting point 3: _________________________________________________________________________
Topic sentence: _____________________________________________________________________________

👥 Collaboration
Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.
Draft Supporting Detail Sentences for Each Primary Support Sentence

After deciding which primary support points you will use as your topic sentences, you must add details to clarify and demonstrate each of those points. These supporting details provide examples, facts, or evidence that support the topic sentence.

The writer drafts possible supporting detail sentences for each primary support sentence based on the thesis statement:

**Thesis statement:** Unleashed dogs on city streets are a dangerous nuisance.

**Supporting point 1:** Dogs can scare cyclists and pedestrians

**Supporting details**

1. Cyclists are forced to zigzag on the road.
2. School children panic and turn wildly on their bikes.
3. People who are walking at night freeze in fear.

**Supporting point 2:** Loose dogs are traffic hazards.

**Supporting details**

1. Dogs in the street make people swerve their cars.
2. To avoid dogs, drivers run into other cars or pedestrians.
3. Children coaxing dogs across busy streets create danger.

**Supporting point 3:** Unleashed dogs damage gardens.

**Supporting details**

1. They step on flowers and vegetables.
2. They destroy hedges by urinating on them.
3. They mess up lawns by digging holes.
Chapter 5  
Writing Essays  

The following paragraph contains supporting detail sentences for the primary support sentence (the topic sentence), which is underlined.

Salinger, a World War II veteran, suffered from posttraumatic disorder, a disorder that influenced themes in many of his works. He did not hide his mental anguish over the horrors of war and once told his daughter, “You never really get the smell of burning flesh out of your nose, no matter how long you live.” His short story “A Perfect day for a Bananafish” details a day in the life of a WWII veteran who was recently released from an army hospital for psychiatric problems. The man acts questionably with a little girl he meets on the beach before he returns to his hotel room and commits suicide. Another short story, “for esmé – with love and Squalor,” is narrated by a traumatized soldier who sparks an unusual relationship with a young girl he meets before he departs to partake in D-Day. Finally, in Salinger’s only novel, the Catcher in the Rye, he continues with the theme of posttraumatic stress, though not directly related to war. From a rest home for the mentally ill, sixteen-year-old Holden Caulfield narrates the story of his nervous breakdown following the death of his younger brother.

Exercise 4  
Using the three topic sentences you composed for the thesis statement in Note 5.18 “Exercise 1,” draft at least three supporting details for each point.

Thesis statement: ________________________________________________________________

Primary supporting point 1: __________________________________________________________

Supporting details: ________________________________________________________________

Primary supporting point 2: __________________________________________________________

Supporting details: ________________________________________________________________

Primary supporting point 3: __________________________________________________________

Supporting details: ________________________________________________________________
Chapter 5
Writing Essays

Tip
You have the option of writing your topic sentences in one of three ways. You can state it at the beginning of the body paragraph, or at the end of the paragraph, or you do not have to write it at all. This is called an implied topic sentence. An implied topic sentence lets readers form the main idea for themselves. For beginning writers, it is best to not use implied topic sentences because it makes it harder to focus your writing. Your instructor may also want to clearly identify the sentences that support your thesis. For more information on the placement of thesis statements and implied topic statements.

Tip
Print out the first draft of your essay and use a highlighter to mark your topic sentences in the body paragraphs. Make sure they are clearly stated and accurately present your paragraphs, as well as accurately reflect your thesis. If your topic sentence contains information that does not exist in the rest of the paragraph, rewrite it to more accurately match the rest of the paragraph.

Key Takeaways

- Your body paragraphs should closely follow the path set forth by your thesis statement.
- Strong body paragraphs contain evidence that supports your thesis.
- Primary support comprises the most important points you use to support your thesis.
- Strong primary support is specific, detailed, and relevant to the thesis.
- Pre-writing helps you determine your most compelling primary support.
- Evidence can include facts, judgments, testimony, and personal observation.
- A topic sentence presents one point of your thesis statement while the information in the rest of the paragraph supports that point.
- A body paragraph comprises a topic sentence plus supporting details.
5.3 Organizing Your Writing

Introduction
The method of organization you choose for your essay is just as important as its content. Without a clear organizational pattern, your reader could become confused and lose interest. The way you structure your essay helps your readers draw connections between the body and the thesis, and the structure also keeps you focused as you plan and write the essay. Choosing your organizational pattern before you outline ensures that each body paragraph works to support and develop your thesis.

This section covers three ways to organize body paragraphs:

1. Chronological order
2. Order of importance
3. Spatial order

When you begin to draft your essay, your ideas may seem to flow from your mind in a seemingly random manner. Your readers, who bring to the table different backgrounds, viewpoints, and ideas, need you to clearly organize these ideas in order to help process and accept them.
A solid organizational pattern gives your ideas a path that you can follow as you develop your draft. Knowing how you will organize your paragraphs allows you to better express and analyze your thoughts. Planning the structure of your essay before you choose supporting evidence helps you conduct more effective and targeted research.

**Chronological Order**

Chronological arrangement has the following purposes:

- To explain the history of an event or a topic
- To tell a story or relate an experience
- To explain how to do or to make something
- To explain the steps in a process

Chronological order is mostly used in expository writing, which is a form of writing that narrates, describes, informs, or explains a process. When using chronological order, arrange the events in the order that they actually happened, or will happen if you are giving instructions. This method requires you to use words such as *first, second, then, after that, later*, and *finally*. These transition words guide you and your reader through the paper as you expand your thesis.

For example, if you are writing an essay about the history of the airline industry, you would begin with its conception and detail the essential timeline events up until present day. You would follow the chain of events using words such as *first, then, next*, and so on.
Chapter 5
Writing Essays

Exercise 1
Choose an accomplishment you have achieved in your life. The important moment could be in sports, schooling, or extracurricular activities. On your own sheet of paper, list the steps you took to reach your goal. Try to be as specific as possible with the steps you took. Pay attention to using transition words to focus your writing.

Keep in mind that chronological order is most appropriate for the following purposes:

- Writing essays containing heavy research
- Writing essays with the aim of listing, explaining, or narrating
- Writing essays that analyze literary works such as poems, plays, or book

Tip
When using chronological order, your introduction should indicate the information you will cover and in what order, and the introduction should also establish the relevance of the information. Your body paragraphs should then provide clear divisions or steps in chronology. You can divide your paragraphs by time (such as decades, wars, or other historical events) or by the same structure of the work you are examining (such as a line-by-line explication of a poem).

Exercise 2
On a separate sheet of paper, write a paragraph that describes a process you are familiar with and can do well. Assume that your reader is unfamiliar with the procedure. Remember to use the chronological key words, such as first, second, then, and finally.

Order of Importance
Recall that the order of importance is best used for the following purposes:

- Persuading and convincing
- Ranking items by their importance, benefit, or significance
- Illustrating a situation, problem, or solution
Most essays move from the least to the most important point, and the paragraphs are arranged in an effort to build the essay’s strength. Sometimes, however, it is necessary to begin with your most important supporting point, such as in an essay that contains a thesis that is highly debatable. When writing a persuasive essay, it is best to begin with the most important point because it immediately captivates your readers and compels them to continue reading.

For example, if you were supporting your thesis that homework is detrimental to the education of high school students, you would want to present your most convincing argument first, and then move on to the less important points for your case.

Some key transitional words you should use with this method of organization are *most importantly, almost as importantly, just as importantly,* and *finally.*

**Exercise 3**

On a separate sheet of paper, write a paragraph that discusses a passion of yours. Your passion could be music, a particular sport, film making, and so on. Your paragraph should be built upon the reasons why you feel so strongly. Briefly discuss your reasons in the order of least to greatest importance.

**Spatial Order**

Spatial order is best used for the following purposes:

- Helping readers visualize something as you want them to see it
- Evoking a scene using the senses (sight, touch, taste, smell, and sound)
- Writing a descriptive essay

Spatial order means that you explain or describe objects as they are arranged around you in your space, for example in a bedroom. As the writer, you create a picture for your reader, and their perspective is the viewpoint from which you describe what is around you.

The view must move in an orderly, logical progression, giving the reader clear directional signals to follow from place to place. The key to using this method is to choose a specific starting point and then guide the reader to follow your eye as it moves in an orderly trajectory from your starting point.
Pay attention to the following student’s description of her bedroom and how she guides the reader through the viewing process, foot by foot.

Attached to my bedroom wall is a small wooden rack dangling with read and turquoise necklaces that shimmer as you enter. Just to the right of the rack is my window, framed by billowy white curtains. The peace of such an image is a stark contrast to my desk, which sits to the right of the window, layered in textbooks, crumpled papers, coffee cups, and an overflowing ashtray. Turning my head to the right, I see a set of two bare windows that frame the trees outside the glass like a 3D painting. Below the windows is an oak chest from which blankets and scarves are protruding. Against the wall opposite the billowy curtains is an antique dresser, on top of which sits a jewelry box and a few picture frames. A tall mirror attached to the dresser takes up most of the wall, which is the color of lavender.

The paragraph incorporates two objectives you have learned in this chapter: using an implied topic sentence and applying spatial order. Often in a descriptive essay, the two work together.

The following are possible transition words to include when using spatial order:

- Just to the left or just to the right
- Behind
- Between
- On the left or on the right
- Across from
- A little further down
- To the south, to the east, and so on
- A few yards away
- Turning left or turning right
Exercise 4
On a separate sheet of paper, write a paragraph using spatial order that describes your commute to work, school, or another location you visit often.

Collaboration
Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.

Key Takeaways

- The way you organize your body paragraphs ensures you and your readers stay focused on and draw connections to, your thesis statement.
- A strong organizational pattern allows you to articulate, analyze, and clarify your thoughts.
- Planning the organizational structure for your essay before you begin to search for supporting evidence helps you conduct more effective and directed research.
- Chronological order is most commonly used in expository writing. It is useful for explaining the history of your subject, for telling a story, or for explaining a process.
- Order of importance is most appropriate in a persuasion paper as well as for essays in which you rank things, people, or events by their significance.
- Spatial order describes things as they are arranged in space and is best for helping readers visualize something as you want them to see it; it creates a dominant impression.

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
5.4 Writing Introductory and Concluding Paragraphs

Introduction

Picture your introduction as a storefront window: You have a certain amount of space to attract your customers (readers) to your goods (subject) and bring them inside your store (discussion). Once you have enticed them with something intriguing, you then point them in a specific direction and try to make the sale (convince them to accept your thesis).

Your introduction is an invitation to your readers to consider what you have to say and then to follow your train of thought as you expand upon your thesis statement.

An introduction serves the following purposes:

1. Establishes your voice and tone, or your attitude, toward the subject
2. Introduces the general topic of the essay
3. States the thesis that will be supported in the body paragraphs

First impressions are crucial and can leave lasting effects in your reader’s mind, which is why the introduction is so important to your essay. If your introductory paragraph is dull or disjointed, your reader probably will not have much interest in continuing with the essay.
Attracting Interest in Your Introductory Paragraph

Your introduction should begin with an engaging statement devised to provoke your readers’ interest. In the next few sentences, introduce them to your topic by stating general facts or ideas about the subject. As you move deeper into your introduction, you gradually narrow the focus, moving closer to your thesis. Moving smoothly and logically from your introductory remarks to your thesis statement can be achieved using a funnel technique, as illustrated in the diagram below. Broad statements lead to general introductory remarks which leads to the thesis.

Exercise 1

On a separate sheet of paper, jot down a few general remarks that you can make about the topic for which you formed a thesis in 5.1.

Immediately capturing your readers’ interest increases the chances of having them read what you are about to discuss. You can garner curiosity for your essay in a number of ways. Try to get your readers personally involved by doing any of the following:
Chapter 5
Writing Essays

- Appealing to their emotions
- Using logic
- Beginning with a provocative question or opinion
- Opening with a startling statistic or surprising fact
- Raising a question or series of questions
- Presenting an explanation or rationalization for your essay
- Opening with a relevant quotation or incident
- Opening with a striking image
- Including a personal anecdote
- Creating a profile of someone connected to the topic

Tip
Remember that your diction, or word choice, while always important, is most crucial in your introductory paragraph. Boring diction could extinguish any desire a person might have to read through your discussion. Choose words that create images or express action.

In the Writing Process chapter, you followed Mariah as she moved through the writing process. In this chapter, Mariah writes her introduction and conclusion for the same essay. Mariah incorporates some of the introductory elements into her introductory paragraph. Her thesis statement is underlined.

Play Atari on a General Electric brands television set? Maybe watch Dynasty? Or read old newspaper articles on microfiche at the library? Twenty-five years ago, the average college student did not have many options when it came to entertainment in the form of technology. Fast-forward to the twenty-first century, and the digital age has revolutionized the way people entertain themselves. In today’s rapidly evolving world of digital technology, consumers are bombarded with endless options for how they do most everything—form buying and reading books to taking and developing photographs. In a society that is obsessed with digital means of entertainment, it is easy for the average person to become baffled. Everyone wants the newest and best digital technology, but the choices are many and the specifications are often confusing.
**Chapter 5**

**Writing Essays**

**Tip**
If you have trouble coming up with a provocative statement for your opening, it is a good idea to use a relevant, attention-grabbing quote about your topic. Use a search engine to find statements made by historical or significant figures about your subject.

**Writing at Work**
In your job field, you may be required to write a speech for an event, such as an awards banquet or a dedication ceremony. The introduction of a speech is similar to an essay because you have a limited amount of space to attract your audience’s attention. Using the same techniques, such as a provocative quote or an interesting statistic, is an effective way to engage your listeners. Using the funnel approach also introduces your audience to your topic and then presents your main idea in a logical manner.

**Exercise 2**
Reread each sentence in Mariah’s introductory paragraph. Indicate which techniques she used and comment on how each sentence is designed to attract her readers’ interest.

**Writing a Conclusion**
It is not unusual to want to rush when you approach your conclusion, and even experienced writers may fade. But what good writers remember is that it is vital to put just as much attention into the conclusion as in the rest of the essay. After all, a hasty ending can undermine an otherwise strong essay.

A conclusion that does not correspond to the rest of your essay, has loose ends, or is unorganized can unsettle your readers and raise doubts about the entire essay. However, if you have worked hard to write the introduction and body, your conclusion can often be the most logical part to compose.
The Anatomy of a Strong Conclusion

Keep in mind that the ideas in your conclusion must conform to the rest of your essay. In order to tie these components together, restate your thesis at the beginning of your conclusion. This helps you assemble, in an orderly fashion, all the information you have explained in the body. Repeating your thesis reminds your readers of the major arguments you have been trying to prove and also indicates that your essay is drawing to a close. A strong conclusion also reviews your main points and emphasizes the importance of the topic.

The construction of the conclusion is similar to the introduction, in which you make general introductory statements and then present your thesis. The difference is that in the conclusion you first paraphrase, or state in different words, your thesis and then follow up with general concluding remarks. These sentences should progressively broaden the focus of your thesis and maneuver your readers out of the essay.

Many writers like to end their essays with a final emphatic statement. This strong closing statement will cause your readers to continue thinking about the implications of your essay; it will make your conclusion, and thus your essay, more memorable. Another powerful technique is to challenge your readers to make a change in either their thoughts or their actions. Challenging your readers to see the subject through new eyes is a powerful way to ease yourself and your readers out of the essay. A final way to complete a conclusion is to make a future prediction about your topic. What do you think will happen in the future with your topic?

Tip
When closing your essay, do not expressly state that you are drawing to a close. Relying on statements such as in conclusion, it is clear that, as you can see, or in summation is unnecessary and can be considered trite.

Tip
It is wise to avoid doing any of the following in your conclusion:

- Introducing new material
- Contradicting your thesis
- Changing your thesis
- Using apologies or disclaimers
Introducing new material in your conclusion has an unsettling effect on your reader. When you raise new points, you make your reader want more information, which you could not possibly provide in the limited space of your final paragraph.

Contradicting or changing your thesis statement causes your readers to think that you do not actually have a conviction about your topic. After all, you have spent several paragraphs adhering to a singular point of view. When you change sides or open up your point of view in the conclusion, your reader becomes less inclined to believe your original argument.

By apologizing for your opinion or stating that you know it is tough to digest, you are in fact admitting that even you know what you have discussed is irrelevant or unconvincing. You do not want your readers to feel this way. Effective writers stand by their thesis statement and do not stray from it.

Exercise 3
On a separate sheet of a paper, restate your thesis from Exercise 2 of this section and then make some general concluding remarks. Next, compose a final emphatic statement. Finally, incorporate what you have written into a strong conclusion paragraph for your essay.

Collaboration
Please share with a classmate and compare your answers

Mariah incorporates some of these pointers into her conclusion. She has paraphrased her thesis statement in the first sentence.

In a society fixated on the latest and smartest digital technology, a consumer can easily become confused by the countless options and specifications. The ever-changing stat of digital technology challenges consumers with its updates and add-ons and expanding markets and incompatible formats and restrictions- a fact that is complicated by salesmen who wants to sell them anything. In a world that is increasingly driven by instant gratification, it’s easy for people to buy the first thing they see. The solution for many people should be to avoid buying on impulse. Consumers should think about what they really need, not what is advertised.
Tip
Make sure your essay is balanced by not having an excessively long or short introduction or conclusion. Check that they match each other in length as closely as possible, and try to mirror the formula you used in each. Parallelism strengthens the message of your essay.

Writing at Work
On the job you will sometimes give oral presentations based on research you have conducted. A concluding statement to an oral report contains the same elements as a written conclusion. You should wrap up your presentation by restating the purpose of the presentation, reviewing its main points, and emphasizing the importance of the material you presented. A strong conclusion will leave a lasting impression on your audience.

Key Takeaways
- A strong opening captures your readers’ interest and introduces them to your topic before you present your thesis statement.
- An introduction should restate your thesis, review your main points, and emphasize the importance of the topic.
- The funnel technique to writing the introduction begins with generalities and gradually narrows your focus until you present your thesis.
- A good introduction engages people’s emotions or logic, questions or explains the subject, or provides a striking image or quotation.
- Carefully chosen diction in both the introduction and conclusion prevents any confusing or boring ideas.
- A conclusion that does not connect to the rest of the essay can diminish the effect of your paper.
- The conclusion should remain true to your thesis statement. It is best to avoid changing your tone or your main idea and avoid introducing any new material.
- Closing with a final emphatic statement provides closure for your readers and makes your essay more memorable.
Chapter 5
Writing Essays

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Chapter 5
Writing Essays

5.5 Writing Essays: End-of-Chapter Exercises

1. On a separate sheet of paper, choose one of the examples of a proper thesis statement from this chapter (one that interests you) and form three supporting points for that statement. After you have formed your three points, write a topic sentence for each body paragraph. Make sure that your topic sentences can be backed up with examples and details.

2. Group activity. Choose one of the topics from “Exercise 1” in Section 5.1 and form a yes-or-no question about that topic. Then, take a survey of the people in your class to find out how they feel about the subject. Using the majority vote, ask those people to write on slips of paper the reasons for their opinion. Using the data you collect, form a thesis statement based on your classmates’ perspectives on the topic and their reasons.

3. On a separate sheet of a paper, write an introduction for an essay based on the thesis statement from the group activity using the techniques for introductory paragraphs that you learned in this chapter.

4. Start a journal in which you record “spoken” thesis statements. Start listening closely to the opinions expressed by your teachers, classmates, friends, and family members. Ask them to provide at least three reasons for their opinion and record them in the journal. Use this as material for future essays.

5. Open a magazine and read a lengthy article. See if you can pinpoint the thesis statement as well as the topic sentence for each paragraph and its supporting details.

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Chapter 6
Narration

Introduction
Rhetorical modes simply mean the ways in which we can effectively communicate through language. This chapter covers the first of eight common rhetorical modes. As you read about these eight modes, keep in mind that the rhetorical mode a writer chooses depends on his or her purpose for writing. Sometimes writers incorporate a variety of modes in any one essay.

The Purpose of Narrative Writing
Narration means the art of storytelling, and the purpose of narrative writing is to tell stories. Any time you tell a story to a friend or family member about an event or incident in your day, you engage in a form of narration. While any narrative essay you write for this class will be nonfiction (i.e. a true story), a narrative can be factual or fictional. A factual story is one that is based on, and tries to be faithful to, actual events as they unfolded in real life. A fictional story is a made-up, or imagined, story; the writer of a fictional story can create characters and events as he or she sees fit.

The big distinction between factual and fictional narratives is based on a writer’s purpose. The writers of factual stories try to recount events as they actually happened, but writers of fictional stories can depart from real people and events because the writers’ intents are not to retell a real-life event. Biographies and memoirs are examples of factual stories, whereas novels and short stories are examples of fictional stories.
Tip
Ultimately, whether a story is fact or fiction, narrative writing tries to relay a series of events in an emotionally engaging way. You want your audience to be moved by your story, which could mean through laughter, sympathy, fear, anger, and so on. The more clearly you tell your story, the more emotionally engaged your audience is likely to be.

The Structure of a Narrative Essay
Major narrative events are most often conveyed in chronological order, the order in which events unfold from first to last. Stories typically have a beginning, a middle, and an end, and these events are typically organized by time. Certain transitional words and phrases aid in keeping the reader oriented in the sequencing of a story. Some of these phrases are listed in Table 6.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>after/afterward</th>
<th>as soon as</th>
<th>at last</th>
<th>before</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>currently</td>
<td>during</td>
<td>eventually</td>
<td>meanwhile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>next</td>
<td>now</td>
<td>since</td>
<td>soon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finally</td>
<td>later</td>
<td>still</td>
<td>then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>until</td>
<td>when/whenever</td>
<td>while</td>
<td>first, second, third</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following are the other basic components of a narrative:

- Plot. The events as they unfold in sequence.
- Characters. The people who inhabit the story and move it forward. Typically, there are minor characters and main characters. The minor characters generally play supporting roles to the main character, or the protagonist.
- Conflict. The primary problem or obstacle that unfolds in the plot that the protagonist must solve or overcome by the end of the narrative. The way in which the protagonist resolves the conflict of the plot results in the theme of the narrative.
- Theme. The ultimate message the narrative is trying to express; it can be either explicit or implicit.
Chapter 6
Narration

✍ Writing at Work
When interviewing candidates for jobs, employers often ask about conflicts or problems a potential employee has had to overcome. They are asking for a compelling personal narrative. To prepare for this question in a job interview, write out a scenario using the narrative mode structure. This will allow you to troubleshoot rough spots, as well as better understand your own personal history. Both processes will make your story better and your self-presentation better, too.

Writing a Narrative Essay
When writing a narrative essay, you may want to start by freewriting about topics that are of general interest to you.

Once you have a general idea of what you will be writing about, you should sketch out the major events of the story that will compose your plot. Often, these events will be revealed chronologically and climax at a central conflict that must be resolved by the end of the story. The use of strong details is crucial as you describe the events and characters in your narrative. You want the reader to emotionally engage with the world that you create in writing.

⚠️ Tip
To create strong details, keep the five senses in mind. You want your reader to be immersed in the world that you create, so focus on details related to sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch as you describe people, places, and events in your narrative.

✔️ Key Takeaways

- Narration is the art of storytelling.
- Narratives can be either factual or fictional. In either case, narratives should emotionally engage the reader.
- Most narratives are composed of major events sequenced in chronological order.
- Time transition words and phrases are used to orient the reader in the sequence of a narrative.
- The four basic components to all narratives are plot, character, conflict, and theme.
- The use of sensory details is crucial to emotionally engaging the reader.
- A strong introduction is important to hook the reader. A strong conclusion should discuss the conflict and evoke the narrative theme.
Chapter 6
Narration

Examples of Narrative Essays

- “Sixty-Nine Cents” by Gary Shteyngart [http://www.newyorker.com/magazine/2007/09/03/sixty-nine-cents#ixzz0pihck7DS](http://www.newyorker.com/magazine/2007/09/03/sixty-nine-cents#ixzz0pihck7DS)
- “Only Daughter” by Sandra Cisneros [https://www.cocc.edu/crubio/only-daughter/](https://www.cocc.edu/crubio/only-daughter/)

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/).
Chapter 7
Description

The Purpose of Description in Writing
Writers use description in writing to make sure that their audience is fully immersed in the words on the page. This requires a concerted effort by the writer to describe his or her world through the use of sensory details.

Sensory details are descriptions that appeal to our sense of sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch. Your descriptions should try to focus on the five senses because we all rely on these senses to experience the world. The use of sensory details, then, provides you the greatest possibility of relating to your audience and thus engaging them in your writing, making descriptive writing important not only during your education but also during everyday situations.

Figurative Language
Figurative language is non-literal language used to further clarify an idea or image. Two common types of figures of speech are similes and metaphors. They both involve comparisons. They help us to better understand or visualize by comparing an unknown to a known. We use similes and metaphors all the time, probably without even realizing it. For instance, if a friend told you that her brother just bought a used Dodge Charger that is “the ugliest green,” you would be on your own to guess what “ugliest green” meant. However, if the friend said, “My brother just bought an ugly old Dodge Charger; it looks like a bruised Granny Smith apple,” you would have a much clearer picture of the car’s color, and because she also included “bruised,” you would also picture rust spots. Similes and metaphors add precision.
Simile: comparing essentially unlike things using the words “like,” “than,” or “as.”

- “The mound of chocolate dropped like a horrible turd upon my bedspread” (from David Sedaris’s “Us and Them”).
- Her skin was rougher than burlap.
- His shattered nose had grown as big as a ripe plum.

Metaphor: a comparison between otherwise dissimilar things without using the words “like,” “than,” or “as.”

- “He’s a human being, but also he’s a pig, surrounded by trash and gorging himself so that others may be denied” (from David Sedaris’s “Us and Them”).
- The traffic bled out of the city’s major arteries.

Tip
Avoid mixing metaphors

- He barked out the commands and hissed at our incompetence. (Is he a dog or a snake?)
- Better: He barked out the commands and growled at our incompetence. (He is clearly an angry dog.)

Exercise 1
If you already have a narrative or descriptive essay assignment, come up with one simile and one metaphor about someone or something in your essay. If you are not currently working on an assignment, come up with one simile and one metaphor about someone or something within ten feet of where you are now. Use figurative language to clarify an image or idea.

Simile example clarifying an image: Uncle Beer Truck’s belly didn’t just jiggle as he jogged toward me; it bounced like a tough-skinned water balloon against his giant Burlington Northern belt buckle.

Metaphor example clarifying an idea: Grandma was the anchor that kept the family from drifting toward life’s waterfalls.
Chapter 7

Description

Showing vs. Telling

Good description leaves readers with vivid, memorable images. When writing description, avoid empty descriptors if possible. Empty descriptors are adjectives that can mean different things to different people. Good, beautiful, terrific, and nice are examples. The use of such words in descriptions can lead to misreading and confusion. A good day, for instance, can mean far different things depending on one’s age, personality, or tastes. These types of words are also considered generic since they say very little. This being said, when you write descriptively, try to use specific details that create a picture in the reader’s mind as he or she moves through the text. For example, which statement below is more effective? Which are you more likely to remember and enjoy reading?

1. Dinner was badly burned.
2. The cheese in the lasagna began to bubble up and over the pan and onto the oven’s surface where the heat turned it black. Smoke then rose from the stains and poured out of the oven doors as the charred smell made its way across the kitchen and into the smoke detectors which started to blare.

Most likely, you selected statement 2 because it creates a concrete picture in your mind. Do you notice the visual details and the use of smells and sounds? This technique is called “showing” vs “telling.” Statement 1 tells. Statement 2 shows.

It may be tempting to simply tell because it’s easy. As writers, we know what we experienced when we write, “I was really nervous.” To our readers, however, “I was really nervous” does not convey precise information. As a writer, I need to think how I can show rather than just tell. How did I feel and exhibit nervousness on that occasion? Did I imagine the worst possible outcome? Was my breathing shallow and rapid? Did my hands tremble?

Telling: I was really nervous when I asked my boss for a raise.

Showing: As I approached the door, certain that I would instantly be fired for asking for a raise, I wiped my clammy hands on the front of my pants one last time. Beads of sweat formed on my upper lip, and I could feel my paltry breakfast of dry toast and too much coffee buzzing in my stomach.
Exercise 2

If you already have a narrative or descriptive essay assignment, turn a “telling” statement about someone or something in your essay into a “showing” passage. If you are not currently working on an assignment, turn a “telling” statement about someone or something within ten feet of where you are now into a “showing” passage.

Examples:

Telling: Aunt Bunny was drunk.

Showing: At the buffet table, Aunt Bunny swayed slightly, like a featherweight after a sharp jab to the jaw, as she attempted to spear a slippery meatball with a plastic fork.

Telling: Grandma was angry.

Showing: Grandma glared at Barry, daring him with her squinting eyes to light the firecracker in his hand. She clutched a large wooden serving spoon in her left hand, ready to put it to work on her grandson’s rear end.

The Structure of a Description Essay

Description essays typically describe a person, a place, or an object using sensory details. The structure of a descriptive essay is more flexible than in some of the other rhetorical modes. The introduction of a description essay should set up the tone and point of the essay. The thesis should convey the writer’s overall impression of the person, place, or object described in the body paragraphs.

The organization of the essay may best follow spatial order, an arrangement of ideas according to physical characteristics or appearance. Depending on what the writer describes, the organization could move from top to bottom, left to right, near to far, warm to cold, frightening to inviting, and so on.

For example, if the subject were a client’s kitchen in the midst of renovation, you might start at one side of the room and move slowly across to the other end, describing appliances, cabinetry, and so on. Or you might choose to start with older remnants of the kitchen and progress to the new installations. Maybe start with the floor and move up toward the ceiling.
Writing a Description Essay

Choosing a subject is the first step in writing a description essay. Once you have chosen the person, place, or object you want to describe, your challenge is to write an effective thesis statement to guide your essay.

The remainder of your essay describes your subject in a way that best expresses your thesis. Remember, you should have a strong sense of how you will organize your essay. Choose a strategy and stick to it.

Every part of your essay should use vivid sensory details. The more you can appeal to your readers’ senses, the more they will be engaged in your essay.

✔️ Key Takeaways

- Description essays should describe something vividly to the reader using strong sensory details.
- Sensory details appeal to the five human senses: sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch.
- A description essay should start with the writer’s main impression of a person, a place, or an object.
- Use spatial order to organize your descriptive writing.

Examples of Essays

- “Fish Cheeks” by Amy Tan, Description  https://msmoore.wordpress.com/doc/fish-cheeks/
- “Shooting an Elephant” by George Orwell, Description http://www.online-literature.com/orwell/887/
- “Excerpt: Hiding in Plain Sight” by Heather Rogers http://www.alternet.org/story/27116/excerpt%3A_hiding_in_plain_sight

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
The Purpose of Using Exemplification in Writing

To illustrate or exemplify means to show or demonstrate something clearly. An effective illustration or exemplification essay clearly demonstrates and supports a point through the use of evidence.

As you learned earlier, the controlling idea of an essay is called a thesis. A writer can use different types of evidence to support his or her thesis. Using scientific studies, experts in a particular field, statistics, historical events, current events, analogies, and personal anecdotes are all ways in which a writer can illustrate a thesis. Ultimately, you want the evidence to help the reader “see” your point, as one would see a good illustration in a magazine or on a website. The stronger your evidence is, the more clearly the reader will consider your point.

Using evidence effectively can be challenging, though. The evidence you choose will usually depend on your subject and who your reader is (your audience). When writing an illustration essay, keep in mind the following:

- Use evidence that is appropriate to your topic as well as appropriate for your audience
- Assess how much evidence you need to adequately explain your point depending on the complexity of the subject and the knowledge of your audience regarding that subject.
Chapter 8
Exemplification: Using Examples to Support a Thesis

For example, if you were writing about a new communication software and your audience was a group of English-major undergrads, you might want to use an analogy or a personal story to illustrate how the software worked. You might also choose to add a few more pieces of evidence to make sure the audience understands your point. However, if you were writing about the same subject and you audience members were information technology (IT) specialists, you would likely use more technical evidence because they would be familiar with the subject.

Keeping in mind your subject in relation to your audience will increase your chances of effectively illustrating your point.

Tip
You never want to insult your readers’ intelligence by over explaining concepts the audience members may already be familiar with, but it may be necessary to clearly articulate your point. When in doubt, add an extra example to illustrate your idea.

The Structure of an Exemplification Essay
The thesis belongs at the beginning of the essay. Evidence is then presented in the essay’s body paragraphs to support the thesis. You can start supporting your main point with your strongest evidence first, or you can start with evidence of lesser importance and have the essay build to increasingly stronger evidence.

The time transition words are also helpful in ordering the presentation of evidence. Words like first, second, third, currently, next, and finally all help orient the reader and sequence evidence clearly. Because an exemplification essay uses so many examples, it is also helpful to have a list of words and phrases to present each piece of evidence.
Chapter 8
Exemplification: Using Examples to Support a Thesis

Phrases of Exemplification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case in point</th>
<th>For example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For instance</td>
<td>In particular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this case</td>
<td>One example/another example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specifically</td>
<td>To illustrate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tip**
Vary the phrases of exemplification you use. Do not rely on just one. Variety in choice of words and phrasing is critical when trying to keep readers engaged in your writing and your ideas.

**Writing an Exemplification Essay**
First, decide on a topic that you feel interested in writing about. Then create an interesting introduction to engage the reader. The main point, or thesis, should be stated at the end of the introduction.

Gather evidence that is appropriate to both your subject and your audience. You can order the evidence in terms of importance, either from least important to most important or from most important to least important. Be sure to fully explain all of your examples using strong, clear supporting details.

**Key Takeaways**

- An exemplification essay clearly explains a main point using evidence.
- When choosing evidence, always gauge whether the evidence is appropriate for the subject as well as the audience.
- Organize the evidence in terms of importance, either from least important to most important or from most important to least important.
- Use time transitions to order evidence.
- Use phrases of exemplification to call out examples.
Chapter 8
Exemplification: Using Examples to Support a Thesis

Examples of Essays

• “Homeless” (Anna Quindlen): http://www.miamisci.org/tec/mssstory.html
• “Black Men and Public Space” (Brent Staples) http://facstaff.uww.edu/carlberj/Journal3.htm
• “The Dark Side of Web Fame” by Jessica Bennet http://www.newsweek.com/dark-side-web-fame-93505

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Chapter 9

Process Analysis

The Purpose of Process Analysis in Writing

The purpose of a process analysis essay is to explain how to do something or how something works. In either case, the formula for a process analysis essay remains the same. The process is articulated into clear, definitive steps.

Almost everything we do involves following a step-by-step process. From riding a bike as children to learning various jobs as adults, we initially needed instructions to effectively execute the task. Likewise, we have likely had to instruct others, so we know how important good directions are—and how frustrating it is when they are poorly put together.

The Structure of a Process Analysis Essay

The process analysis essay opens with a discussion of the process and a thesis statement that states the goal of the process.

The organization of a process analysis essay typically follows chronological order. The steps of the process are conveyed in the order in which they usually occur. Body paragraphs will be constructed based on these steps. If a particular step is complicated and needs a lot of explaining, then it will likely take up a paragraph on its own. But if a series of simple steps is easier to understand, then the steps can be grouped into a single paragraph.
Chapter 9
Process Analysis

The time transition phrases covered in the Narration and Illustration sections are also helpful in organizing process analysis essays. Words such as first, second, third, next, and finally are helpful cues to orient reader and organize the content of essay.

Tip
Always have someone else read your process analysis to make sure it makes sense. Once we get too close to a subject, it is difficult to determine how clearly an idea is coming across. Having a friend or coworker read it over will serve as a good way to troubleshoot any confusing spots.

Writing a Process Analysis Essay
Choose a topic that is interesting, is relatively complex, and can be explained in a series of steps. As with other rhetorical writing modes, choose a process that you know well so that you can more easily describe the finer details about each step in the process. In fact, the process should be one in which you can add relevant personal examples, including tips, tricks, and anecdotes to make it your own. It should not read like a recipe or an instructional manual; it should be personal and engaging. Furthermore, your thesis statement should come at the end of your introduction, and it should state the final outcome of the process you are describing.

Body paragraphs are composed of the steps in the process. Each step should be expressed using strong details and clear examples. Use time transition phrases to help organize steps in the process and to orient readers. The conclusion should thoroughly describe the result of the process described in the body paragraphs.

✔ Key Takeaways
- A process analysis essay explains how to do something, how something works, or both.
- The process analysis essay opens with a discussion of the process and a thesis statement that states the outcome of the process.
- The organization of a process analysis essay typically follows a chronological sequence.
- Time transition phrases are particularly helpful in process analysis essays to organize steps and orient reader.
Examples of Essays

- “How to Make it in College, Now That You’re Here” by Brian O’Keeney [http://www.brian-t-murphy.com/documents/Okeeney.docx]
- “Behind the Formaldehyde Curtain” by Jessica Mitford [http://hhh.gavilan.edu/ecrook/1A.fall.2005/mitford.html]
- “7 Easy Steps to Quit Smoking” [https:// academichelp.net/samples/academics/process-papers/quit-smoking.html]

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/)
The Purpose of Comparison and Contrast in Writing

Comparison in writing discusses elements that are similar, while contrast in writing discusses elements that are different. A compare-and-contrast essay, then, analyzes two subjects by comparing them, contrasting them, or both.

The key to a good compare-and-contrast essay is to choose two or more subjects that connect in a meaningful way. The purpose of conducting the comparison or contrast is not to state the obvious but rather to illuminate subtle differences or unexpected similarities. For example, if you wanted to focus on contrasting two subjects you would not pick apples and oranges; rather, you might choose to compare and contrast two types of oranges or two types of apples to highlight subtle differences. For example, Red Delicious apples are sweet while Granny Smiths are tart and acidic. Drawing distinctions between elements in a similar category will increase the audience’s understanding of that category, which is the purpose of the compare-and-contrast essay.

Similarly, to focus on comparison, choose two subjects that seem at first to be unrelated. For a comparison essay, you likely would not choose two apples or two oranges because they share so many of the same properties already. Rather, you might try to compare how apples and oranges are quite similar. The more divergent the two subjects initially seem, the more interesting a comparison essay will be.
Writing at Work
Comparing and contrasting is also an evaluative tool. In order to make accurate evaluations about a given topic, you must first know the critical points of similarity and difference. Comparing and contrasting is a primary tool for many workplace assessments. You have likely compared and contrasted yourself to other colleagues. Employee advancements, pay raises, hiring, and firing are typically conducted using comparison and contrast. Comparison and contrast could be used to evaluate companies, departments, or individuals. Many business presentations are conducted using comparison and contrast. The organizing strategies—by subject or individual points—could also be used for organizing a presentation.

The Structure of a Comparison and Contrast Essay
The compare-and-contrast essay starts with a thesis that clearly states the two subjects that are to be compared, contrasted, or both and the reason for doing so. The thesis could lean more toward comparing, contrasting, or both. Remember, the point of comparing and contrasting is to provide useful knowledge to the reader. Take the following thesis as an example that leans more toward contrasting.

Thesis statement: Organic vegetables may cost more than those that are conventionally grown, but when put to the test, they are definitely worth every extra penny.

Here the thesis sets up the two subjects to be compared and contrasted (organic versus conventional vegetables), and it makes a claim about the results that might prove useful to the reader.

You may organize compare-and-contrast essays in one of the following two ways:

1. According to the subjects themselves, discussing one then the other
2. According to individual points, discussing each subject in relation to each point
Chapter 10
Comparison and Contrast

Organize By Subject

1. Thesis: Organic vegetables may cost more than those that are conventionally grown, but when put to the test they are definitely worth every extra penny.

2. Subject 1: Organic Vegetables
   a. Point 1: Chemicals/Pesticides
   b. Point 2: Nutrition
   c. Point 3: Taste

3. Subject 2: Conventional Vegetables
   a. Point 1: Chemicals/Pesticides
   b. Point 2: Nutrition
   c. Point 3: Taste

4. Conclusion

Organize By Point

1. Thesis: Organic vegetables may cost more than those that are conventionally grown, but when put to the test, they are definitely worth every extra penny.

2. Point 1: Chemicals/Pesticides
   a. Subject 1: Organic
   b. Subject 2: Conventional

3. Point 2: Nutrition
   a. Subject 1: Organic
   b. Subject 2: Conventional

4. Point 3: Taste
   a. Subject 1: Organic
   b. Subject 2: Conventional

5. Conclusion

The organizational structure you choose depends on the nature of the topic, your purpose, and your audience.
Chapter 10
Comparison and Contrast

Given that compare-and-contrast essays analyze the relationship between two subjects, it is helpful to have some phrases on hand that will cue the reader to such analysis.

Phrases of Comparison and Contrast

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparison</th>
<th>Contrast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>one similarity</td>
<td>one difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>another similarity</td>
<td>another difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>conversely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like</td>
<td>in contrast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Writing a Comparison and Contrast Essay
First choose whether you want to compare seemingly disparate subjects, contrast seemingly similar subjects, or compare and contrast subjects. Once you have decided on a topic, introduce it with an engaging opening paragraph. Your thesis should come at the end of the introduction, and it should establish the subjects you will compare, contrast, or both as well as state what can be learned from doing so.

The body of the essay can be organized in one of two ways: by subject or by individual points. The organizing strategy that you choose will depend on, as always, your audience and your purpose. You may also consider your particular approach to the subjects as well as the nature of the subjects themselves; some subjects might better lend themselves to one structure or the other. Make sure to use comparison and contrast phrases to cue the reader to the ways in which you are analyzing the relationship between the subjects.

After you finish analyzing the subjects, write a conclusion that summarizes the main points of the essay and reinforces your thesis.
Key Takeaways

- A compare-and-contrast essay analyzes two subjects by either comparing them, contrasting them, or both.

- The purpose of writing a comparison or contrast essay is not to state the obvious but rather to illuminate subtle differences or unexpected similarities between two subjects.

- The thesis should clearly state the subjects that are to be compared, contrasted, or both, and it should state what is to be learned from doing so.

- There are two main organizing strategies for compare-and-contrast essays.
  1. Organize by the subjects themselves, one then the other.
  2. Organize by individual points, in which you discuss each subject in relation to each point.

- Use phrases of comparison or phrases of contrast to signal to readers how exactly the two subjects are being analyzed.

Examples of Essays


License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
The Purpose of Classification in Writing

The purpose of classification is to break down broad subjects into smaller, more manageable, more specific parts. We classify things in our daily lives all the time, often without even thinking about it. Cell phones, for example, have now become part of a broad category. They can be classified as feature phones, media phones, and smartphones.

Smaller categories, and the way in which these categories are created, help us make sense of the world. Keep both of these elements in mind when writing a classification essay.

Tip

Choose topics that you know well when writing classification essays. The more you know about a topic, the more you can break it into smaller, more interesting parts. Adding interest and insight will enhance your classification essays.
The Structure of a Classification Essay

The classification essay opens with an introductory paragraph that introduces the broader topic. The thesis should then explain how that topic is divided into subgroups and why. Take the following introductory paragraph, for example:

When people think of New York, they often think of only New York City. But New York is actually a diverse state with a full range of activities to do, sights to see, and cultures to explore. In order to better understand the diversity of New York state, it is helpful to break it into these five separate regions: Long Island, New York City, Western New York, Central New York, and Northern New York.

The thesis explains not only the category and subcategory but also the rationale for breaking it into those categories. Through this classification essay, the writer hopes to show his or her readers a different way of considering the state.

Each body paragraph of a classification essay is dedicated to fully illustrating each of the subcategories. In the previous example, then, each region of New York would have its own paragraph.

The conclusion should bring all the categories and subcategories back together again to show the reader the big picture. In the previous example, the conclusion might explain how the various sights and activities of each region of New York add to its diversity and complexity.

Tip

To avoid settling for an overly simplistic classification, make sure you break down any given topic at least three different ways. This will help you think outside the box and perhaps even learn something entirely new about a subject.

Writing a Classification Essay

Start with an engaging opening that will adequately introduce the general topic that you will be dividing into smaller subcategories. Your thesis should come at the end of your introduction. It should include the topic and the reason you are choosing to break down the topic in the way that you are.
The organizing strategy of a classification essay is dictated by the initial topic and the subsequent subtopics. Each body paragraph is dedicated to fully illustrating each of the subtopics. In a way, coming up with a strong topic pays double rewards in a classification essay. Not only do you have a good topic, but you also have a solid organizational structure within which to write.

Be sure you use strong details and explanations for each subcategory paragraph that help explain and support your thesis. Also, be sure to give examples to illustrate your points. Finally, write a conclusion that links all the subgroups together again. The conclusion should successfully wrap up your essay by connecting it to your topic initially discussed in the introduction.

✔ Key Takeaways

- The purpose of classification is to break a subject into smaller, more manageable, more specific parts.
- Smaller subcategories help us make sense of the world, and the way in which these subcategories are created also helps us make sense of the world.
- A classification essay is organized by its subcategories.

Examples of Essays


License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/).
Chapter 12
Cause and Effect

The Purpose of Cause and Effect in Writing

It is often considered human nature to ask, “why?” and “how?” We want to know how our child got sick so we can better prevent it from happening in the future, or why our colleague received a pay raise because we want one as well. We want to know how much money we will save over the long term if we buy a hybrid car. These examples identify only a few of the relationships we think about in our lives, but each shows the importance of understanding cause and effect.

A cause is something that produces an event or condition; an effect is what results from an event or condition. The purpose of the cause-and-effect essay is to determine how various phenomena relate in terms of origins and results. Sometimes the connection between cause and effect is clear, but often determining the exact relationship between the two is very difficult. For example, the following effects of a cold may be easily identifiable: a sore throat, runny nose, and a cough. However, determining the cause of the sickness can be far more difficult. A number of causes are possible, and to complicate matters, these possible causes could have combined to cause the sickness. That is, more than one cause may be responsible for any given effect. Therefore, cause-and-effect discussions are often complicated and frequently lead to debates and arguments.
Tip
Use the complex nature of cause and effect to your advantage. Often it is not necessary, or even possible, to find the exact cause of an event or to name the exact effect. So, when formulating a thesis, you can claim one of a number of causes or effects to be the primary, or main, cause or effect. As soon as you claim that one cause or one effect is more significant than the others, you have developed a thesis.

The Structure of a Cause-and-Effect Essay
The cause-and-effect essay opens with a general introduction to the topic, which then leads to a thesis that states the main cause, main effect, or various causes and effects of a condition or event.

The cause-and-effect essay can be organized in one of the following two primary ways:

1. Start with the cause and then discuss the effects.
2. Start with the effect and then discuss the causes.

For example, if your essay were on childhood obesity, you could start by talking about the effect of childhood obesity and then discuss the causes or you could start the same essay by talking about the cause of childhood obesity and then move to the effects.

Organizing By Discussing Effects First

1. Thesis: Obesity in childhood has both immediate and long-term effects on the health of a child as well as his or her well-being.

2. Effect 1: Immediate Effects
   a. Point 1: Pre-diabetes
   b. Point 2: Joint and Bones Complications
   c. Point 3: Sleep Apnea
   d. Point 4: Psychosocial Issues such as Low Self-Esteem and Stigmatization

3. Effect 2: Long-term Effects
   a. Point 1: Adult Obesity
   b. Point 2: High Risk of Heart Disease
   c. Point 3: High Risk for Several Types of Cancer
4. Causes
   a. Overeating and/or Poor Diet
   b. Lack of Physical Activity
   c. Psychosocial Issues, such as Depression
   d. Societal Factors
   e. Mass Media

5. Conclusion

Organizing By Discussing Causes First

1. Thesis: Childhood obesity is caused by a number of factors including dietary habits, physical inactivity, depression, societal factors, and mass media.

2. Cause 1: Societal Factors
   a. Lack of Access to Healthy Alternatives
   b. Fewer Open Spaces for Physical Activities
   c. Increased Dependence on Cars

3. Cause 2: Mass Media
   a. Marketing of Junk Food Toward Adolescents

4. Cause 3: Dietary Habits
   a. Point 1: Poor Nutrition
   b. Point 2: Overeating

5. Cause 4: Physical Inactivity
   a. Point 1: Increase in Sedentary Activities (computer browsing, video-gaming, television)
   b. Point 2: Lack of Physical Education and/or Activities

6. Cause 5: Depression and other Emotional Issues
   a. Food as Coping Mechanism
   b. Withdrawal from Society and Activity
7. Effects
   a. Pre-diabetes/Diabetes
   b. Joint/Bone Complications
   c. Sleep Apnea
   d. Psychosocial Issues such as Low Self-Esteem or Depression
   e. Adult Obesity
   f. Increased Risk of Heart Diseases and Cancers

8. Conclusion

The organizational structure you choose depends on the nature of the topic, your purpose, and your audience.

Regardless of which structure you choose, be sure to explain and support each element of the essay fully and completely. Explaining complex relationships requires the full use of evidence, such as scientific studies, expert testimony, statistics, and anecdotes.

Because cause-and-effect essays determine how phenomena are linked, they make frequent use of certain words and phrases that denote such linkage.

Phrases of Causation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>as a result</th>
<th>consequently</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>due to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hence</td>
<td>since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thus</td>
<td>therefore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tip**

Be careful of resorting to empty speculation. In writing, speculation amounts to unsubstantiated guessing. Writers are particularly prone to such trappings in cause-and-effect arguments due to the complex nature of finding links between phenomena. Be sure to have clear evidence to support the claims that you make.
Writing a Cause-and-Effect Essay

Choose an event or condition that you think has an interesting cause-and-effect relationship. Introduce your topic in an engaging way. End your introduction with a thesis that states the main cause, the main effect, or both.

Organize your essay by starting with either the cause-then-effect structure or the effect-then-cause structure. Within each section, you should clearly explain and support the causes and effects using a full range of evidence. If you are writing about multiple causes or multiple effects, you may choose to sequence either in terms of order of importance. In other words, order the causes from least to most important (or vice versa), or order the effects from least important to most important (or vice versa).

Use the phrases of causation when trying to forge connections between various events or conditions. This will help organize your ideas and orient the reader. End your essay with a conclusion that summarizes your main points and reinforces your thesis.

✔ Key Takeaways

• The purpose of the cause-and-effect essay is to determine how various phenomena are related.
• The thesis states what the writer sees as the main cause, main effect, or various causes and effects of a condition or event.
• The cause-and-effect essay can be organized in one of these two primary ways:
  1. Start with the cause and then discuss the effect.
  2. Start with the effect and then discuss the cause.
• Strong evidence is particularly important in the cause-and-effect essay due to the complexity of determining connections between phenomena.
• Phrases of causation are helpful in signaling links between various elements in the essay.
Chapter 12
Cause and Effect

Examples of Essays


• “1 in 7 Parents: Pay to Play Sidelines Some Kids” by Robin Erb  http://www.freep.com/story/news/health/2015/01/20/pay-play-may-health-disparity-driver/22053919/


• “A New Kind of Social Anxiety in the Classroom” by Alexandra Ossola  http://www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2015/01/the-socially-anxious-generation/384458/


License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
The Purpose of Persuasive Writing

The purpose of persuasion in writing is to convince, motivate, or move readers toward a certain point of view, or opinion. The act of trying to persuade automatically implies more than one opinion on the subject can be argued.

The idea of an argument often conjures up images of two people yelling and screaming in anger. In writing, however, an argument is very different. An argument is a reasoned opinion supported and explained by evidence. To argue in writing is to advance knowledge and ideas in a positive way. Written arguments often fail when they employ ranting rather than reasoning. While your readers may not always agree with your argument, aim to persuade them to respect and consider your thesis/opinion as a valid one.

The Structure of a Persuasive Essay

The following five features make up backbone of an effective persuasive essay:

1. Introduction and thesis
2. Opposing and qualifying ideas
3. Strong evidence in support of claim
4. Style and tone
5. A compelling conclusion
Creating an Introduction and Thesis
The persuasive essay begins with an engaging introduction that presents the general topic. The thesis typically appears toward the end of the introduction and states the writer’s point of view.

Tip
Avoid forming a thesis based on a negative claim. For example, “The hourly minimum wage is not high enough for the average worker to live on.” This is probably a true statement, but persuasive arguments should make a positive case. That is, the thesis statement should focus on how the hourly minimum wage is low or insufficient. For example, “The hourly minimum wage should be raised in order to sufficiently meet worker’s basic needs. Additionally, a thesis is not a statement of fact or a question. Rather, it explores a position about a given topic.

Acknowledging Opposing Ideas and Limits to Your Argument
Because an argument implies differing points of view on the subject, you must be sure to acknowledge those opposing ideas. Avoiding ideas that conflict with your own gives the reader the impression that you may be uncertain, fearful, or unaware of opposing ideas. Thus it is essential that you not only address counterarguments, but also do so respectfully. Acknowledging points of view different from your own also has the effect of fostering more credibility between you and the audience. They know from the outset that you are aware of opposing ideas and that you are not afraid to give them space.

Often times writers may aim to address opposing arguments earlier rather than later in their essays. Rhetorically speaking, ordering your positive arguments last allows you to better address ideas that conflict with your own, so you can spend the rest of the essay countering those arguments. This way, you leave your reader thinking about your argument rather than someone else’s. You have the last word.

It is also helpful to establish the limits of your argument and what you are trying to accomplish. In effect, you are conceding early on that your argument is not the ultimate authority on a given topic. Such humility can go a long way toward earning credibility and trust with an audience. Audience members will know from the beginning that you are a reasonable writer, and audience members will trust your argument as a result. For example, in the following concessionary statement, the writer advocates for stricter gun control laws, but she admits it will not solve all of our problems with crime:
Although tougher gun control laws are a powerful first step in decreasing violence in our streets, such legislation alone cannot end these problems since guns are not the only problem we face.

Such a concession will be welcomed by those who might disagree with this writer’s argument in the first place. To effectively persuade their readers, writers need to be modest in their goals and humble in their approach to get readers to listen to the ideas.

Phrases of Concession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>although</th>
<th>granted that</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>of course</td>
<td>still</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>though</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Bias in Writing**

Everyone has various biases on any number of topics. For example, you might have a bias toward wearing black instead of brightly colored clothes or wearing jeans rather than formal wear. You might have a bias toward working at night rather than in the morning, or working by deadlines rather than getting tasks done in advance. These examples identify minor biases, of course, but they still indicate preferences and opinions.

Handling bias in writing and in daily life can be a useful skill. It will allow you to articulate your own points of view while also defending yourself against unreasonable points of view. The ideal in persuasive writing is to let your reader know your bias, but do not let that bias blind you to the primary components of good argumentation: sound, thoughtful evidence and a respectful and reasonable address of opposing sides.

The strength of a personal bias is that it can motivate you to construct a strong argument. If you are invested in the topic, you are more likely to care about the piece of writing. Similarly, the more you care, the more time and effort you are apt to put forth and the better the final product will be.
Chapter 13
Argument and Persuasion

The weakness of bias is when the bias begins to take over the essay—when, for example, you neglect opposing ideas, exaggerate your points, or repeatedly insert yourself ahead of the subject by using and repeating personal pronouns such as “I” too often, such as stating, “I believe guns should be outlawed” or “I think smoking’s bad.” Excessive repetition of any word will eventually catch the reader’s attention—and usually not in a good way. The use of I is no different.

Being aware of all three of these pitfalls will help you avoid them.

Checklist: Developing Sound Arguments
Does my essay contain the following elements?

• An engaging introduction
• A reasonable, specific thesis that is able to be supported by evidence
• A varied range of evidence from credible sources
• Respectful acknowledgment and explanation of opposing ideas
• A style and tone of language that is appropriate for the subject and audience
• Acknowledgment of the argument’s limits
• A conclusion that will adequately summarize the essay and reinforce the thesis

Fact and Opinion
Facts are statements that can be definitely proven using objective data. The statement that is a fact is absolutely valid. In other words, the statement can be pronounced as true or false. For example, $2 + 2 = 4$. This expression identifies a true statement, or a fact, because it can be proved with objective data.

Opinions are personal views, or judgments. An opinion is what an individual believes about a particular subject. However, an opinion in argumentation must have legitimate backing; adequate evidence and credibility should support the opinion. Consider the credibility of expert opinions. Experts in a given field have the knowledge and credentials to make their opinion meaningful to a larger audience.
For example, you seek the opinion of your dentist when it comes to the health of your gums, and you seek the opinion of your mechanic when it comes to the maintenance of your car. Both have knowledge and credentials in those respective fields, which is why their opinions matter to you. Conversely, the authority of your dentist may be greatly diminished should he or she offer an opinion about your car, and vice versa.

In writing, you want to strike a balance between credible facts and authoritative opinions. Relying on one or the other will likely lose more of your audience than it gains.

**Tip**
The word *prove* is frequently used in the discussion of persuasive writing. Writers may claim that one piece of evidence or another proves the argument, but proving an argument is often not possible. No evidence proves a debatable topic one way or the other; that is why the topic is debatable. Facts can be proved, but opinions can only be supported, explained, and persuaded.

**Using Visual Elements to Strengthen Arguments**
Adding visual elements to a persuasive argument can often strengthen its persuasive effect. There are two main types of visual elements: quantitative visuals and qualitative visuals.

Quantitative visuals present data graphically. They allow the audience to see statistics spatially. The purpose of using quantitative visuals is to make logical appeals to the audience. For example, sometimes it is easier to understand the disparity in certain statistics if you can see how the disparity looks graphically. Bar graphs, pie charts, Venn diagrams, histograms, and line graphs are all ways of presenting quantitative data in spatial dimensions.

Qualitative visuals present images that appeal to the audience’s emotions. Photographs and pictorial images are examples of qualitative visuals. Such images often try to convey a story, and seeing an actual example can carry more power than hearing or reading about the example. For example, one image of a child suffering from malnutrition will likely have more of an emotional impact than pages dedicated to describing that same condition in writing.
Writing at Work
When making a business presentation, you typically have limited time to get across your idea. Providing visual elements for your audience can be an effective time-saving tool. Quantitative visuals in business presentations serve the same purpose as they do in persuasive writing. They should make logical appeals by showing numerical data in a spatial design. Quantitative visuals should be pictures that might appeal to your audience’s emotions. You will find that many of the rhetorical devices used in writing are the same ones used in the workplace.

Writing a Persuasive Essay
Choose a topic that you feel passionate about. If your instructor requires you to write about a specific topic, approach the subject from an angle that interests you. Begin your essay with an engaging introduction. Your thesis should typically appear near the end of your introduction.

Make your appeals in support of your thesis by using sound, credible evidence. Use a balance of facts and opinions from a wide range of sources, such as scientific studies, expert testimony, statistics, and personal anecdotes. Each piece of evidence should be fully explained and clearly stated.

Acknowledge and explain points of view that may conflict with your own to build credibility and trust with your audience. Also state the limits of your argument. This, too, helps you sound more reasonable and honest to those who may naturally be inclined to disagree with your view. By respectfully acknowledging opposing arguments and conceding limitations to your own view, you set a measured and responsible tone for the essay.

Make sure that your style and tone are appropriate for your subject and audience. Tailor your language and word choice to these two factors, while still being true to your own voice.

Finally, write a conclusion that effectively summarizes the main argument and reinforces your thesis.
Key Takeaways

- The purpose of persuasion in writing is to convince or move readers toward a certain point of view, or opinion.
- An argument is a reasoned opinion supported and explained by evidence. To argue, in writing, is to advance knowledge and ideas in a positive way.
- A thesis that expresses the opinion of the writer in more specific terms is better than one that is vague.
- It is essential that you not only address counterarguments but also do so respectfully.
- It is also helpful to establish the limits of your argument and what you are trying to accomplish through a concession statement.
- To persuade a skeptical audience, you will need to use a wide range of evidence from credible sources. Scientific studies, opinions from experts, historical precedent, statistics, personal anecdotes, and current events are all types of evidence that you might use in explaining your point.
- Make sure that your word choice and writing style is appropriate for both your subject and your audience.
- You should let your reader know your bias, but do not let that bias blind you to the primary components of good argumentation: sound, thoughtful evidence and respectfully and reasonably addressing opposing ideas.
- You should be mindful of the use of I in your writing because it can make your argument sound more biased than it needs to.
- Facts are statements that can be proven using objective data.
- Opinions are personal views, or judgments, that cannot be proven.
- In writing, you want to strike a balance between credible facts and authoritative opinions.
- Quantitative visuals present data graphically. The purpose of using quantitative visuals is to make logical appeals to the audience.
- Qualitative visuals present images that appeal to the audience’s emotions.
Chapter 13
Argument and Persuasion

Examples of Essays

- “Forget Shorter Showers” by Jensen [https://orionmagazine.org/article/forget-shorter-showers/]
- “Why Women Still Can’t Have It All” by Slaughter [http://www.theatlantic.com/archive/2012/07/why-women-still-cant-have-it-all/309020/]
- “I Have a Dream” by Martin Luther King Jr [http://www.americanrhetoric.com/speeches/mlkihaveadream.htm]

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

14.1 The Purpose of Research Writing

Introduction
Why was the Great Wall of China built? What have scientists learned about the possibility of life on Mars? What roles did women play in the American Revolution? How does the human brain create, store, and retrieve memories? Who invented the game of football, and how has it changed over the years?

You may know the answers to these questions off the top of your head; however, if you are like most people, you find answers to tough questions like these by searching the Internet, visiting the library, or asking others for information. To put it simply, you perform research.

Whether you are a scientist, an artist, a paralegal, or a parent, you probably perform research in your everyday life. When your boss, your instructor, or a family member asks you a question that you do not know the answer to, you locate relevant information, analyze your findings, and share your results. Locating, analyzing, and sharing information are key steps in the research process, and in this chapter, you will learn more about each step.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Reasons for Research
When you perform research, you are essentially trying to solve a mystery—you want to know how something works or why something happened. In other words, you want to answer a question that you (and other people) have about the world. This is one of the most basic reasons for performing research.

The research process does not end when you have solved your mystery. Imagine what would happen if a detective collected enough evidence to solve a criminal case, but she never shared her solution with the authorities. Presenting what you have learned from research can be just as important as performing the research. Research results can be presented in a variety of ways, but one of the most popular—and effective—presentation forms is the research paper. A research paper presents an original thesis, or purpose statement, about a topic and develops that thesis with information gathered from a variety of sources.

If you are curious about the possibility of life on Mars, for example, you might choose to research the topic. What will you do, though, when your research is complete? You will need a way to put your thoughts together in a logical, coherent manner. You may want to use the facts you have learned to create a narrative or to support an argument. You may want to show the results of your research to your friends, your teachers, or even the editors of magazines and journals. Writing a research paper is an ideal way to organize thoughts, craft narratives or make arguments based on research, and share your newfound knowledge with the world.

Writing at Work
Knowing how to write a good research paper is a valuable skill that will serve you well throughout your career. Whether you are developing a new product, studying the best way to perform a procedure, or learning about challenges and opportunities in your field of employment, you will use research techniques to guide your exploration. You may even need to create a written report of your findings. Because effective communication is essential to any company, employers seek to hire people who can write clearly and professionally. For example, a medical laboratory technician or information technology professional might do research to learn about the latest technological developments in either of these fields. A small business owner might conduct research to learn about the latest trends in his or her industry. A freelance magazine writer may need to research a given topic to write an informed, up-to-date article.
Exercise 1
Write a paragraph about a time when you used research in your everyday life. Did you look for the cheapest way to travel from Houston to Denver? Did you search for a way to remove gum from the bottom of your shoe? In your paragraph, explain what you wanted to research, how you performed the research, and what you learned as a result.

Exercise 2
Think about the job of your dreams. How might you use research writing skills to perform that job? Create a list of ways in which strong researching, organizing, writing, and critical thinking skills could help you succeed at your dream job. How might these skills help you obtain that job?

Steps of the Research Writing Process
How does a research paper grow from a folder of brainstormed notes to a polished final draft? No two projects are identical, but most projects follow a series of six basic steps.

These are the steps in the research writing process:

1. Choose a topic.
2. Plan and schedule time to research and write.
3. Conduct research.
4. Organize research and ideas.
5. Draft your paper.
6. Revise and edit your paper.

Each of these steps will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter. For now, though, we will take a brief look at what each step involves.
Step 1: Choosing a Topic

To narrow the focus of your topic, you may try freewriting exercises, such as brainstorming. You may also need to ask a specific research question—a broad, open-ended question that will guide your research—as well as propose a possible answer, or a working thesis. You may use your research question and your working thesis to create a research proposal. In a research proposal, you present your main research question, any related subquestions you plan to explore, and your working thesis.

A topic might be too broad if it cannot be covered in detail in your assignment, if there is too much information (1000s of results), or all you can write is general statements. For example, the research question “What is communication?” is too broad for a four-page assignment. There is no way to adequately sum up all of the information about you will encounter about communication when trying to answer this question.

A topic might be too narrow if it can be discussed in great detail in less than the required size of your essay, or if there is little to no information or relevant results available. For example, the research question “What percentage of Ford Escorts were recalled in 2016 due to faulty airbags?” would be too narrow to adequately discuss in a four-page research paper. The question can be simply answered with a percentage, and the date of 2016 might be too current to retrieve enough research.

Step 2: Planning and Scheduling

Before you start researching your topic, take time to plan your researching and writing schedule. Research projects can take days, weeks, or even months to complete. Creating a schedule is a good way to ensure that you do not end up being overwhelmed by all the work you have to do as the deadline approaches.

During this step of the process, it is also a good idea to plan the resources and organizational tools you will use to keep yourself on track throughout the project. Flowcharts, calendars, and checklists can all help you stick to your schedule.

In addition, it may be helpful (and even required by some instructors) to construct an outline that serves as a blueprint for your project. The outline will include your thesis statement, the main ideas that will support your thesis, examples to illustrate those main ideas, and counterarguments. By constructing an outline, you are more likely to stay focused and not repeat key ideas.
Step 3: Conducting Research

When going about your research, you will likely use a variety of sources—anything from books and periodicals to video presentations and in-person interviews.

Your sources will include both primary sources and secondary sources. Primary sources provide firsthand information or raw data. For example, surveys, in-person interviews, and historical documents are primary sources. Secondary sources, such as biographies, literary reviews, or magazine articles, include some analysis or interpretation of the information presented. As you conduct research, you will take detailed, careful notes about your discoveries. You will also evaluate the reliability of each source you find.

Step 4: Organizing Research and the Writer’s Ideas

When your research is complete, you will organize your findings and decide which sources to cite in your paper. You will also have an opportunity to evaluate the evidence you have collected and determine whether it supports your thesis, or the focus of your paper. You may decide to adjust your thesis or conduct additional research to ensure that your thesis is well supported.

Tip

Remember, your working thesis is a work in progress. You can and should change your working thesis throughout the research writing process if the evidence you find does not support your original thesis. Never try to force evidence to fit your argument. For example, your working thesis is “Mars cannot support life-forms.” Yet, a week into researching your topic, you find an article in the New York Times detailing new findings of bacteria under the Martian surface. Instead of trying to argue that bacteria are not life forms, you might instead alter your thesis to “Mars cannot support complex life-forms.”

Step 5: Drafting Your Paper

Now you are ready to combine your research findings with your critical analysis of the results in a rough draft. You will incorporate source materials into your paper and discuss each source thoughtfully in relation to your thesis or purpose statement.

When you cite your reference sources, it is important to pay close attention to standard conventions for citing sources in order to avoid plagiarism, or the practice of using someone else’s words without acknowledging the source. Later in this chapter, you will learn how to incorporate sources in your paper and avoid some of the most common pitfalls of attributing information.
Step 6: Revising and Editing Your Paper

In the final step of the research writing process, you will revise and polish your paper. You might reorganize your paper’s structure or revise for unity and cohesion, ensuring that each element in your paper flows into the next logically and naturally. You will also make sure that your paper uses an appropriate and consistent tone.

Once you feel confident in the strength of your writing, you will edit your paper for proper spelling, grammar, punctuation, mechanics, and formatting. When you complete this final step, you will have transformed a simple idea or question into a thoroughly researched and well-written paper you can be proud of!

Exercise 3

Review the steps of the research writing process. Then answer the questions on your own sheet of paper.

1. In which steps of the research writing process are you allowed to change your thesis?
2. In step 2, which types of information should you include in your project schedule?
3. What might happen if you eliminated step 4 from the research writing process

Key Takeaways

- People undertake research projects throughout their academic and professional careers in order to answer specific questions, share their findings with others, increase their understanding of challenging topics, and strengthen their researching, writing, and analytical skills.
- The research writing process generally comprises six steps: choosing a topic, scheduling and planning time for research and writing, conducting research, organizing research and ideas, drafting a paper, and revising and editing the paper.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
14.2 Strategies for Gathering Reliable Information

Introduction
Now that you have planned your research project, you are ready to begin the research. This phase can be both exciting and challenging. As you read this section, you will learn ways to locate sources efficiently, so you have enough time to read the sources, take notes, and think about how to use the information.

Of course, the technological advances of the past few decades—particularly the rise of online media—mean that, as a twenty-first-century student, you have countless sources of information available at your fingertips, but how can you tell whether a source is reliable? This section will discuss strategies for evaluating sources critically so that you can be a media-savvy researcher.

In this section, you will locate and evaluate resources for your paper and begin taking notes. As you read, begin gathering print and electronic resources, identify at least eight to ten sources by the time you finish the chapter, and begin taking notes on your research findings.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Locating Useful Resources
When you chose a paper topic and determined your research questions, you conducted preliminary research to stimulate your thinking. Your research proposal included some general ideas for how to go about your research—for instance, interviewing an expert in the field or analyzing the content of popular magazines. You may even have identified a few potential sources. Now it is time to conduct a more focused, systematic search for informative primary and secondary sources.

Using Primary and Secondary Sources
Writers classify research resources in two categories: primary sources and secondary sources. Primary sources are direct, firsthand sources of information or data. For example, if you were writing a paper about the First Amendment right to freedom of speech, the text of the First Amendment in the Bill of Rights would be a primary source.

Other primary sources include the following:

- Research articles
- Literary texts
- Historical documents such as diaries or letters
- Autobiographies or other personal accounts

*Secondary sources* discuss, interpret, analyze, consolidate, or otherwise rework information from primary sources. In researching a paper about the First Amendment, you might read articles about legal cases that involved First Amendment rights, or editorials expressing commentary on the First Amendment. These sources would be considered secondary sources because they are one step removed from the primary source of information.

The following are examples of secondary sources:

- Magazine articles
- Biographical books
- Literary and scientific reviews
- Television documentaries
Your topic and purpose determine whether you must cite both primary and secondary sources in your paper. Ask yourself which sources are most likely to provide the information that will answer your research questions. If you are writing a research paper about reality television shows, you will need to use some reality shows as a primary source, but secondary sources, such as a reviewer’s critique, are also important. If you are writing about the health effects of nicotine, you will probably want to read the published results of scientific studies, but secondary sources, such as magazine articles discussing the outcome of a recent study, may also be helpful.

Once you have thought about what kinds of sources are most likely to help you answer your research questions, you may begin your search for print and electronic resources. The challenge here is to conduct your search efficiently. Writers use strategies to help them find the sources that are most relevant and reliable while steering clear of sources that will not be useful.

**Finding Print Resources**

Print resources include a vast array of documents and publications. Regardless of your topic, you will consult some print resources as part of your research. (You will use electronic sources as well, but it is not wise to limit yourself to electronic sources only, because some potentially useful sources may be available only in print form.) The table below lists different types of print resources available at public and university libraries.
### Library Print Resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Reference works                | Reference works provide a summary of information about a particular topic. Almanacs, encyclopedias, atlases, medical reference books, and scientific abstracts are examples of reference works. In some cases, reference books may not be checked out of a library. Note that reference works are many steps removed from original primary sources and are often brief, so these should be used only as a starting point when you gather information. | • *The World Almanac and Book of Facts 2010*  
• *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual published by the American Psychiatric Association*                                                                 |
| Nonfiction books               | Nonfiction books provide in-depth coverage of a topic. Trade books, biographies, and how-to guides are usually written for a general audience. Scholarly books and scientific studies are usually written for an audience that has specialized knowledge of a topic. | • *The Low-Carb Solution: A Slimmer You in 30 Days*  
• *Carbohydrates, Fats and Proteins: Exploring the Relationship Between Macronutrient Ratios and Health Outcomes* |
| Periodicals and news sources   | These sources are published at regular intervals—daily, weekly, monthly, or quarterly. Newspapers, magazines, and academic journals are examples. Some periodicals provide articles on subjects of general interest, while others are more specialized. | • *New York Times*  
• *PC Magazine*  
• *JAMA, The Journal of the American Medical Association*                                                                 |
| Government publications        | Federal, state, and local government agencies publish information on a variety of topics. Government publications include reports, legislation, court documents, public records, statistics, studies, guides, programs, and forms. | • *The Census 2000 Profile*  
• *The Business Relocation Package published by the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce*                                    |
| Business and nonprofit publica | Businesses and nonprofit organizations produce publications designed to market a product, provide background about the organization, provide information on topics connected to the organization, or promote a cause. These publications include reports, newsletters, advertisements, manuals, brochures, and other print documents. | • A company’s instruction manual explaining how to use a specific software program  
• A news release published by the Sierra Club |
Some of these resources are also widely available in electronic format. In addition to the resources noted in the table, library holdings may include primary texts such as historical documents, letters, and diaries.

🌟 Writing at Work
Businesses, government organizations, and nonprofit organizations produce published materials that range from brief advertisements and brochures to lengthy, detailed reports. In many cases, producing these publications requires research. A corporation’s annual report may include research about economic or industry trends. A charitable organization may use information from research in materials sent to potential donors.

Regardless of the industry you work in, you may be asked to assist in developing materials for publication. Often, incorporating research in these documents can make them more effective in informing or persuading readers.

💡 Tip
As you gather information, strive for a balance of accessible, easy-to-read sources and more specialized, challenging sources. Relying solely on lightweight books and articles written for a general audience will drastically limit the range of useful, substantial information. On the other hand, restricting oneself to dense, scholarly works could make the process of researching extremely time-consuming and frustrating.

✍️ Exercise 1
Make a list of five types of print resources you could use to find information about your research topic. Include at least one primary source. Be as specific as possible—if you have a particular resource or type of resource in mind, describe it.

To find print resources efficiently, first identify the major concepts and terms you will use to conduct your search—that is, your keywords. These, along with the research questions will help you find sources using any of the following methods:

- Using the library’s online catalog or card catalog
- Using periodicals indexes and databases
- Consulting a reference librarian
You probably already have some keywords in mind based on your preliminary research and writing. Another way to identify useful keywords is to visit the Library of Congress’s website at http://id.loc.gov/authorities. This site allows you to search for a topic and see the related subject headings used by the Library of Congress, including broader terms, narrower terms, and related terms. Other libraries use these terms to classify materials. Knowing the most-used terms will help you speed up your keyword search.

Jorge used the Library of Congress site to identify general terms he could use to find resources about low-carb dieting. His search helped him identify potentially useful keywords and related topics, such as carbohydrates in human nutrition, glycemic index, and carbohydrates—metabolism. These terms helped Jorge refine his search.

### Tip
Knowing the right keywords can sometimes make all the difference in conducting a successful search. If you have trouble finding sources on a topic, consult a librarian to see whether you need to modify your search terms.

### Using Periodicals, Indexes, and Databases
Library catalogs can help you locate book-length sources, as well as some types of nonprint holdings, such as CDs, DVDs, and audio books. To locate shorter sources, such as magazine and journal articles, you will need to use a periodical index or an online periodical database. These tools index the articles that appear in newspapers, magazines, and journals. Like catalogs, they provide publication information about an article and often allow users to access a summary or even the full text of the article.

Print indexes may be available in the periodicals section of your library. Increasingly, libraries use online databases that users can access through the library website. A single library may provide access to multiple periodical databases. These can range from general news databases to specialized databases.
Commonly Used Indexes and Databases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ProQuest</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>Database that archives content from newspapers, magazines, and dissertations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychlit, PsycINFO</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>Databases that archive content from journals in psychology and psychiatry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Source Complete</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>Database that archives business-related content from magazines and journals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEDLINE, PubMed</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>Databases that archive articles in medicine and health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EBSCOhost</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>General database that provides access to articles on a wide variety of topics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reading Popular and Scholarly Periodicals

When you search for periodicals, be sure to distinguish among different types. Mass-market publications, such as newspapers and popular magazines, differ from scholarly publications in their accessibility, audience, and purpose.

Newspapers and magazines are written for a broader audience than scholarly journals. Their content is usually quite accessible and easy to read. Trade magazines that target readers within a particular industry may presume the reader has background knowledge, but these publications are still reader-friendly for a broader audience. Their purpose is to inform and, often, to entertain or persuade readers as well.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Scholarly or academic journals are written for a much smaller and more expert audience. The creators of these publications assume that most of their readers are already familiar with the main topic of the journal. The target audience is also highly educated. Informing is the primary purpose of a scholarly journal. While a journal article may advance an agenda or advocate a position, the content will still be presented in an objective style and formal tone. Entertaining readers with breezy comments and splashy graphics is not a priority.

Because of these differences, scholarly journals are more challenging to read. That doesn’t mean you should avoid them. On the contrary, they can provide in-depth information unavailable elsewhere. Because knowledgeable professionals carefully review the content before publication, scholarly journals are far more reliable than much of the information available in popular media. Seek out academic journals along with other resources. Just be prepared to spend a little more time processing the information.

✍ Writing at Work
Periodicals databases are not just for students writing research papers. They also provide a valuable service to workers in various fields. The owner of a small business might use a database such as Business Source Premiere to find articles on management, finance, or trends within a particular industry. Health care professionals might consult databases such as MedLine to research a particular disease or medication. Regardless of what career path you plan to pursue, periodicals databases can be a useful tool for researching specific topics and identifying periodicals that will help you keep up with the latest news in your industry.

Consulting a Reference Librarian
Visit your library’s website or consult with a reference librarian to determine what periodicals indexes or databases would be useful for your research. Depending on your topic, you may rely on a general news index, a specialized index for a particular subject area, or both. Search the catalog for your topic and related keywords. Print out or bookmark your search results.

1. Identify at least one to two relevant periodicals, indexes, or databases.
2. Conduct a keyword search to find potentially relevant articles on your topic.
3. Save your search results. If the index you are using provides article summaries, read these to determine how useful the articles are likely to be.
4. Identify at least three to five articles to review more closely. If the full article is available online, set aside time to read it. If not, plan to visit our library within the next few days to locate the articles you need.
Tip

One way to refine your keyword search is to use Boolean operators. These operators allow you to combine keywords, find variations on a word, and otherwise expand or limit your results. Here are some of the ways you can use Boolean operators:

- Combine keywords with **and** or **+** to limit results to citations that include both keywords—for example, **diet + nutrition**.

- Combine keywords with **not** or **–** to search for the first word without the second. This can help you eliminate irrelevant results based on words that are similar to your search term. For example, searching for **obesity not childhood** locates materials on obesity but excludes materials on childhood obesity.

- Enclose a phrase in quotation marks to search for an exact phrase, such as “**morbid obesity**.”

- Use parentheses to direct the order of operations in a search string. For example, since Type II diabetes is also known as adult-onset diabetes, you could search **(Type II or adult-onset) and diabetes** to limit your search results to articles on this form of the disease.

- Use a wildcard symbol such as **#**, **?**, or **$** after a word to search for variations on a term. For instance, you might type **diabet#** to search for information on diabetes and diabetics. The specific symbol used varies with different databases.

Finding and Using Electronic Resources

With the expansion of technology and media over the past few decades, a wealth of information is available to you in electronic format. Some types of resources, such as a television documentary, may only be available electronically. Other resources—for instance, many newspapers and magazines—may be available in both print and electronic form. The following are some of the electronic sources you might consult:

- Online databases
- CD-ROMs
- Popular web search engines
- Websites maintained by businesses, universities, nonprofit organizations, or government agencies
- Newspapers, magazines, and journals published on the web
- E-books
- Audio books
- Industry blogs
- Radio and television programs and other audio and video recordings
- Online discussion groups
The techniques you use to locate print resources can also help you find electronic resources efficiently. Libraries usually include CD-ROMs, audio books, and audio and video recordings among their holdings. You can locate these materials in the catalog using a keyword search. The same Boolean operators used to refine database searches can help you filter your results in popular search engines.

Using Internet Search Engines Efficiently

When faced with the challenge of writing a research paper, some students rely on popular search engines as their first source of information. Typing a keyword or phrase into a search engine instantly pulls up links to dozens, hundreds, or even thousands of related websites—what could be easier? Unfortunately, despite its apparent convenience, this research strategy has the following drawbacks to consider:

- **Results do not always appear in order of reliability.** The first few hits that appear in search results may include sites whose content is not always reliable, such as online encyclopedias that can be edited by any user. Because websites are created by third parties, the search engine cannot tell you which sites have accurate information.

- **Results may be too numerous for you to use.** The amount of information available on the web is far greater than the amount of information housed within a particular library or database. Realistically, if your web search pulls up thousands of hits, you will not be able to visit every site—and the most useful sites may be buried deep within your search results.

- **Search engines are not connected to the results of the search.** Search engines find websites that people visit often and list the results in order of popularity. The search engine, then, is not connected to any of the results. When you cite a source found through a search engine, you do not need to cite the search engine. Only cite the source.

A general web search can provide a helpful overview of a topic and may pull up genuinely useful resources. To get the most out of a search engine, however, use strategies to make your search more efficient. Use multiple keywords and Boolean operators to limit your results. Click on the Advanced Search link on the homepage to find additional options for streamlining your search. Depending on the specific search engine you use, the following options may be available:

- Limit results to websites that have been updated within a particular time frame.
- Limit results by language or country.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

- Limit results to scholarly works available online.
- Limit results by file type.
- Limit results to a particular domain type, such as .edu (school and university sites) or .gov (government sites). This is a quick way to filter out commercial sites (such as some .com sites), which can often lead to more objective results.

Use the Bookmarks or Favorites feature of your web browser to save and organize sites that look promising.

Using Other Information Sources: Interviews
With so many print and electronic media readily available, it is easy to overlook another valuable information resource: other people. Consider whether you could use a person or group as a primary source. For instance, you might interview a professor who has expertise in a particular subject, a worker within a particular industry, or a representative from a political organization. Interviews can be a great way to get firsthand information.

To get the most out of an interview, you will need to plan ahead. Contact your subject early in the research process and explain your purpose for requesting an interview. Prepare detailed questions. Open-ended questions, rather than questions with simple yes-or-no answers, are more likely to lead to an in-depth discussion. Schedule a time to meet, and be sure to obtain your subject’s permission to record the interview. Take careful notes and be ready to ask follow-up questions based on what you learn.

Tip
If scheduling an in-person meeting is difficult, consider arranging a telephone interview or asking your subject to respond to your questions via e-mail. Recognize that any of these formats takes time and effort. Be prompt and courteous, avoid going over the allotted interview time, and be flexible if your subject needs to reschedule.

Evaluating Research Resources
As you gather sources, you will need to examine them with a critical eye. Smart researchers continually ask themselves two questions: “Is this source relevant to my purpose?” and “Is this source reliable?” The first question will help you avoid wasting valuable time reading sources that stray too far from your specific topic and research questions. The second question will help you find accurate, trustworthy sources.
Determining Whether a Source Is Relevant

At this point in your research process, you may have identified dozens of potential sources. It is easy for writers to get so caught up in checking out books and printing out articles that they forget to ask themselves how they will use these resources in their research. Now is a good time to get a little ruthless. Reading and taking notes takes time and energy, so you will want to focus on the most relevant sources.

To weed through your stack of books and articles, skim their contents. Read quickly with your research questions and subtopics in mind. The table below explains how to skim to get a quick sense of what topics are covered. If a book or article is not especially relevant, put it aside. You can always come back to it later if you need to.

Tips for Skimming Books and Articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tips for Skimming Books</th>
<th>Tips for Skimming Articles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Read the dust jacket and table of contents for a broad overview of the topics covered.</td>
<td>1. Skim the introduction and conclusion for summary material.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Use the index to locate more specific topics and see how thoroughly they are covered.</td>
<td>2. Skim through subheadings and text features such as sidebars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Flip through the book and look for subtitles or key terms that correspond to your research.</td>
<td>3. Look for keywords related to your topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Journal articles often begin with an abstract or summary of the contents. Read it to determine the article’s relevance to your research.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Determining Whether a Source Is Reliable

All information sources are not created equal. Sources can vary greatly in terms of how carefully they are researched, written, edited, and reviewed for accuracy. Common sense will help you identify obviously questionable sources, such as tabloids that feature tales of alien abductions, or personal websites with glaring typos. Sometimes, however, a source’s reliability—or lack of it—is not so obvious.
To evaluate your research sources, you will use critical thinking skills consciously and deliberately. You will consider criteria such as the type of source, its intended purpose and audience, the author’s (or authors’) qualifications, the publication’s reputation, any indications of bias or hidden agendas, how current the source is, and the overall quality of the writing, thinking, and design.

**Evaluating Types of Sources**

The different types of sources you will consult are written for distinct purposes and with different audiences in mind. This accounts for other differences, such as the following:

- How thoroughly the writers cover a given topic
- How carefully the writers research and document facts
- How editors review the work
- What biases or agendas affect the content

A journal article written for an academic audience for the purpose of expanding scholarship in a given field will take an approach quite different from a magazine feature written to inform a general audience. Textbooks, hard news articles, and websites approach a subject from different angles as well. To some extent, the type of source provides clues about its overall depth and reliability. The table below ranks different source types.

**Source Rankings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High-Quality Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>These sources provide the most in-depth information. They are researched and written by subject matter experts and are carefully reviewed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Scholarly books and articles in scholarly journals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Trade books and magazines geared toward an educated general audience, such as <em>Smithsonian Magazine</em> or <em>Nature</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Government documents, such as books, reports, and web pages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Documents posted online by reputable organizations, such as universities and research institutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Textbooks and reference books, which are usually reliable but may not cover a topic in great depth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Varied-Quality Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>These sources are often useful. However, they do not cover subjects in as much depth as high-quality sources, and they are not always rigorously researched and reviewed. Some, such as popular magazine articles or company brochures, may be written to market a product or a cause. Use them with caution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• News stories and feature articles (print or online) from reputable newspapers, magazines, or organizations, such as Newsweek or the Public Broadcasting Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Popular magazine articles, which may or may not be carefully researched and fact checked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Documents published by businesses and nonprofit organizations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionable Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>These sources should be avoided. They are often written primarily to attract a large readership or present the author’s opinions and are not subject to careful review.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Loosely regulated or unregulated media content, such as Internet discussion boards, blogs, free online encyclopedias, talk radio shows, television news shows with obvious political biases, personal websites, and chat rooms.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tip

Free online encyclopedias and wikis may seem like a great source of information. They usually appear among the first few results of a web search. They cover thousands of topics, and many articles use an informal, straightforward writing style. Unfortunately, these sites have no control system for researching, writing, and reviewing articles. Instead, they rely on a community of users to police themselves. At best, these sites can be a starting point for finding other, more trustworthy sources. Never use them as final sources.

Evaluating Credibility and Reputability

Even when you are using a type of source that is generally reliable, you will still need to evaluate the author’s credibility and the publication itself on an individual basis. To examine the author’s credibility—that is, how much you can believe of what the author has to say—examine his or her credentials. What career experience or academic study shows that the author has the expertise to write about this topic?

Keep in mind that expertise in one field is no guarantee of expertise in another, unrelated area. For instance, an author may have an advanced degree in physiology, but this credential is not a valid qualification for writing about psychology. Check credentials carefully.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Just as important as the author’s credibility is the publication’s overall reputability. Reputability refers to a source’s standing and reputation as a respectable, reliable source of information. An established and well-known newspaper, such as the New York Times or the Wall Street Journal, is more reputable than a college newspaper put out by comparatively inexperienced students. A website that is maintained by a well-known, respected organization and regularly updated is more reputable than one created by an unknown author or group.

If you are using articles from scholarly journals, you can check databases that keep count of how many times each article has been cited in other articles. This can be a rough indication of the article’s quality or, at the very least, of its influence and reputation among other scholars.

Checking for Biases and Hidden Agendas
Whenever you consult a source, always think carefully about the author’s or authors’ purpose in presenting the information. Few sources present facts completely objectively. In some cases, the source’s content and tone are significantly influenced by biases or hidden agendas.

Bias refers to favoritism or prejudice toward a particular person or group. For instance, an author may be biased against a certain political party and present information in a way that subtly—or not so subtly—makes that organization look bad. Bias can lead an author to present facts selectively, edit quotations to misrepresent someone’s words, and distort information.

Hidden agendas are goals that are not immediately obvious but influence how an author presents the facts. For instance, an article about the role of beef in a healthy diet would be questionable if it were written by a representative of the beef industry—or by the president of an animal-rights organization. In both cases, the author would likely have a hidden agenda.

Using Current Sources
Be sure to seek out sources that are current, or up to date. Depending on the topic, sources may become outdated relatively soon after publication, or they may remain useful for years. For instance, online social networking sites have evolved rapidly over the past few years. An article published in 2002 about this topic will not provide current information. On the other hand, a research paper on elementary education practices might refer to studies published decades ago by influential child psychologists.
When using websites for research, check to see when the site was last updated. Many sites publish this information on the homepage, and some, such as news sites, are updated daily or weekly. Many nonfunctioning links are a sign that a website is not regularly updated. Do not be afraid to ask your professor for suggestions if you find that many of your most relevant sources are not especially reliable—or that the most reliable sources are not relevant.

**Evaluating Overall Quality by Asking Questions**

When you evaluate a source, you will consider the criteria previously discussed as well as your overall impressions of its quality. Read carefully, and notice how well the author presents and supports his or her statements. Stay actively engaged—do not simply accept an author’s words as truth. Ask questions to determine each source’s value. The checklist below lists ten questions to ask yourself as a critical reader.

**Source Evaluation Checklist**

- Is the type of source appropriate for my purpose? Is it a high-quality source or one that needs to be looked at more critically?
- Can I establish that the author is credible and the publication is reputable?
- Does the author support ideas with specific facts and details that are carefully documented? Is the source of the author’s information clear? (When you use secondary sources, look for sources that are not too removed from primary research.)
- Does the source include any factual errors or instances of faulty logic?
- Does the author leave out any information that I would expect to see in a discussion of this topic?
- Do the author’s conclusions logically follow from the evidence that is presented? Can I see how the author got from one point to another?
- Is the writing clear and organized, and is it free from errors, clichés, and empty buzzwords? Is the tone objective, balanced, and reasonable? (Be on the lookout for extreme, emotionally charged language.)
- Are there any obvious biases or agendas? Based on what I know about the author, are there likely to be any hidden agendas?
- Are graphics informative, useful, and easy to understand? Are websites organized, easy to navigate, and free of clutter like flashing ads and unnecessary sound effects?
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

- Is the source contradicted by information found in other sources? (If so, it is possible that your sources are presenting similar information but taking different perspectives, which requires you to think carefully about which sources you find more convincing and why. Be suspicious, however, of any source that presents facts that you cannot confirm elsewhere.)

🔗 Writing at Work
The critical thinking skills you use to evaluate research sources as a student are equally valuable when you conduct research on the job. If you follow certain periodicals or websites, you have probably identified publications that consistently provide reliable information. Reading blogs and online discussion groups is a great way to identify new trends and hot topics in a particular field, but these sources should not be used for substantial research.

🔗 Exercise 2
Use a search engine to conduct a web search on your topic. Refer to the tips provided earlier to help you streamline your search. Evaluate your search results critically based on the criteria you have learned. Identify and bookmark one or more websites that are reliable, reputable, and likely to be useful in your research.

Managing Source Information
As you determine which sources you will rely on most, it is important to establish a system for keeping track of your sources and taking notes. There are several ways to go about it, and no one system is necessarily superior. What matters is that you keep materials in order; record bibliographical information you will need later; and take detailed, organized notes.

Keeping Track of Your Sources
Think ahead to a moment a few weeks from now, when you’ve written your research paper and are almost ready to submit it for a grade. There is just one task left—writing your list of sources.

As you begin typing your list, you realize you need to include the publication information for a book you cited frequently. Unfortunately, you already returned it to the library several days ago. You do not remember the URLs for some of the websites you used or the dates you accessed them—information that also must be included in your bibliography. With a sinking feeling, you realize that finding this information and preparing your bibliography will require hours of work.
This stressful scenario can be avoided. Taking time to organize source information now will ensure that you are not scrambling to find it at the last minute. Throughout your research, record bibliographical information for each source as soon as you begin using it. You may use pen-and-paper methods, such as a notebook or note cards, or maintain an electronic list. (If you prefer the latter option, many office software packages include separate programs for recording bibliographic information.)

The table below shows the specific details you should record for commonly used source types. Use these details to develop a working bibliography—a preliminary list of sources that you will later use to develop the references section of your paper. You may wish to record information using the formatting system of the American Psychological Association (APA) or the Modern Language Association (MLA), which will save a step later on.

Table 11.5 Details for Commonly Used Source Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Type</th>
<th>Necessary Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Book</td>
<td>Author(s), title and subtitle, publisher, city of publication, year of publication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay or article published in a book</td>
<td>Include all the information you would for any other book. Additionally, record the essay’s or article’s title, author(s), the pages on which it appears, and the name of the book’s editor(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodical</td>
<td>Author(s), article title, publication title, date of publication, volume and issue number, and page numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online source</td>
<td>Author(s) (if available), article or document title, organization that sponsors the site, database name (if applicable), date of publication, date you accessed the site, and URL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Name of person interviewed, method of communication, date of interview</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Taking Notes Efficiently
Good researchers stay focused and organized as they gather information from sources. Before you begin taking notes, take a moment to step back and think about your goal as a researcher—to find information that will help you answer your research question. When you write your paper, you will present your conclusions about the topic supported by research. That goal will determine what information you record and how you organize it.

Writers sometimes get caught up in taking extensive notes, so much so that they lose sight of how their notes relate to the questions and ideas they started out with. Remember that you do not need to write down every detail from your reading. Focus on finding and recording details that will help you answer your research questions. The following strategies will help you take notes efficiently.

Use Headings to Organize Ideas
Whether you use old-fashioned index cards or organize your notes using word-processing software, record just one major point from each source at a time, and use a heading to summarize the information covered. Keep all your notes in one file, digital or otherwise. Doing so will help you identify connections among different pieces of information. It will also help you make connections between your notes and the research questions and subtopics you identified earlier.

Know When to Summarize, Paraphrase, or Directly Quote a Source
Your notes will fall under three categories—summary notes, paraphrased information, and direct quotations from your sources. Effective researchers make choices about which type of notes is most appropriate for their purpose.

- Summary notes sum up the main ideas in a source in a few sentences or a short paragraph. A summary is considerably shorter than the original text and captures only the major ideas. Use summary notes when you do not need to record specific details but you intend to refer to broad concepts the author discusses.
- Paraphrased notes restate a fact or idea from a source using your own words and sentence structure.
- Direct quotations use the exact wording used by the original source and enclose the quoted material in quotation marks. It is a good strategy to copy direct quotations when an author expresses an idea in an especially lively or memorable way. However, do not rely exclusively on direct quotations in your note taking.
Most of your notes should be paraphrased from the original source. Paraphrasing as you take notes is usually a better strategy than copying direct quotations, because it forces you to think through the information in your source and understand it well enough to restate it. In short, it helps you stay engaged with the material instead of simply copying and pasting. Synthesizing will help you later when you begin planning and drafting your paper. Whether you directly quote, paraphrase or synthesize, you must give credit to the original source via citations (discussed in the next section of this chapter) to avoid plagiarism.

**Maintain Complete, Accurate Notes**

Regardless of the format used, any notes you take should include enough information to help you organize ideas and locate them instantly in the original text if you need to review them. Make sure your notes include the following elements:

- Heading summing up the main topic covered
- Author’s name, a source code, or an abbreviated source title
- Page number
- Full URL of any pages buried deep in a website

Throughout the process of taking notes, be scrupulous about making sure you have correctly attributed each idea to its source. Always include source information so you know exactly which ideas came from which sources. Use quotation marks to set off any words for phrases taken directly from the original text. If you add your own responses and ideas, make sure they are distinct from ideas you quoted or paraphrased.

Finally, make sure your notes accurately reflect the content of the original text. Make sure quoted material is copied verbatim. If you omit words from a quotation, use ellipses to show the omission and make sure the omission does not change the author’s meaning. Paraphrase ideas carefully, and check your paraphrased notes against the original text to make sure that you have restated the author’s ideas accurately in your own words.

**Use a System That Works for You**

There are several formats you can use to take notes. No technique is necessarily better than the others—it is more important to choose a format you are comfortable using. Choosing the format that works best for you will ensure your notes are organized, complete, and accurate. Consider implementing one of these formats when you begin taking notes:
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

- **Use index cards.** This traditional format involves writing each note on a separate index card. It takes more time than copying and pasting into an electronic document, which encourages you to be selective in choosing which ideas to record. Recording notes on separate cards makes it easy to later organize your notes according to major topics. Some writers color-code their cards to make them still more organized.

- **Use note-taking software.** Word-processing and office software packages often include different types of note-taking software. Although you may need to set aside some time to learn the software, this method combines the speed of typing with the same degree of organization associated with handwritten note cards.

- **Maintain a research notebook.** Instead of using index cards or electronic note cards, you may wish to keep a notebook or electronic folder, allotting a few pages (or one file) for each of your sources. This method makes it easy to create a separate column or section of the document where you add your responses to the information you encounter in your research.

- **Annotate your sources.** This method involves making handwritten notes in the margins of sources that you have printed or photocopied. If using electronic sources, you can make comments within the source document. For example, you might add comment boxes to a PDF version of an article. This method works best for experienced researchers who have already thought a great deal about the topic because it can be difficult to organize your notes later when starting your draft.

Choose one of the methods from the list to use for taking notes. Continue gathering sources and taking notes. In the next section, you will learn strategies for organizing and synthesizing the information you have found.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

✔ Key Takeaways

• A writer’s use of primary and secondary sources is determined by the topic and purpose of the research. Sources used may include print sources, such as books and journals; electronic sources, such as websites and articles retrieved from databases; and human sources of information, such as interviews.

• Strategies that help writers locate sources efficiently include conducting effective keyword searches, understanding how to use online catalogs and databases, using strategies to narrow web search results, and consulting reference librarians.

• Writers evaluate sources based on how relevant they are to the research question and how reliable their content is.

• Skimming sources can help writers determine their relevance efficiently.

• Writers evaluate a source’s reliability by asking questions about the type of source (including its audience and purpose); the author’s credibility, the publication’s reputability, the source’s currency, and the overall quality of the writing, research, logic, and design in the source.

• In their notes, effective writers record organized, complete, accurate information. This includes bibliographic information about each source as well as summarized, paraphrased, or quoted information from the source.

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
14.3 Citation

Introduction
Any time you use in your paper information from someone else that you paraphrase, summarize, or quote from another source, you must give the author or the publication proper credit. Failure to do so is considered plagiarism.

Plagiarism can be avoided by using 1) parenthetical citations (aka in-text citations) within the text of your paper or essay and by including 2) a list of your sources at the end of your paper or essay. In MLA, this list of sources is titled Works Cited, and in APA, the list is titled References. Both items, parenthetical citations and list of sources at the end of your paper, are necessary in order to properly give credit to your source and avoid plagiarism.

The specific details of how to cite sources are prescribed in various citation styles. One of the most common writing systems in the educational systems is the Modern Language Association (MLA) style of writing. Most students learn first how to write using the MLA format in elementary school. Another very common writing system frequently used by the social sciences is the American Psychological Association (APA) format.
Citing Outside Sources In-Text

Your in-text citations should correspond to the first item listed in your list of sources which is usually the author’s last name. For example, if the in-text citation looks like this:

In a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (Booth 216).

Example of an MLA parenthetical citation.

Then by going to the Works Cited page and looking down the list of sources, the name “Booth” should start the citation. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Works Cited</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Example from MLA Works Cited page.

Aim to provide as much necessary information as possible in your citations. For example, if the text has no identifiable author, then the Works Cited citation will begin with the article title, and the parenthetical citation will include the first word(s) of the article title in the same format as it appears in the Works Cited (quotation marks, italics, etc.).

Parenthetical Citations

Parenthetical Citations serve to inform your reader of where you found the data or quotation you are providing to them. Generally, in MLA, if you are citing more than one source, you should include the author’s or editor’s name and the page number in your parenthetical citation. For example: (Jones 127). If you are only using a single source which is already identified elsewhere in the text, simply use the page number.
MLA Parenthetical/In-Text Citation Examples

MLA Parenthetical (or In-Text) Citation Examples:

Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. In a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (Booth 216). Later that year, Hemingway went on to request, and to be granted, an audience with the President where he shared a multitude of research against drilling (Goodview 98). Hemingway, along with countless other supporters, continued to call upon legislators from both sides of the aisle until the idea of Alaskan oil exploration was naught, or so they thought. “It is a victory for all the inhabitants of the earth that the State of Alaska’s natural beauty, wonder, and habitat will remain unharmed by human greed so that our children and grandchildren and generations after them will be able to catch a glimpse of an unspoiled planet” (Chandler 143). The idea of an unspoiled planet was, unfortunately, relatively short lived.

An example of MLA parenthetical citations.

You may also mention the author’s name within the text rather than in a parenthetical citation.

Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. According to Booth, in a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (216). Goodview reports that later that year Hemingway went on to request, and to be granted, an audience with the President where he shared a multitude of research against drilling (98).

An example of MLA parenthetical citations.
If a source has two to three authors, mention all the names within the text, or in a parenthetical citation, separated by “and.”

Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. According to Booth and Goodview, in a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (216). Later that year Hemingway went on to request, and to be granted, an audience with the President where he shared a multitude of research against drilling (Goodview, Chandler, and Smith 98).

An example of MLA parenthetical citations.

If your source has four or more authors, you may mention only the first author’s last name followed by “et al.,” or you may use all the author’s last names.

Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. According to Booth et al., in a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (216). Later that year Hemingway went on to request, and to be granted, an audience with the President where he shared a multitude of research against drilling (Goodview et al., 98).

An example of MLA parenthetical citations.

More detailed information regarding MLA in-text citations can be found at http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/557/02/ Purdue’s online writing guide, and at http://leo.stcloudstate.edu/research/mla.html, St. Cloud State University’s online writing guide.
APA Parenthetical/In-Text Citation Examples

APA Parenthetical (or In-Text) Citation Examples:

In APA format, you also include the author’s name in parenthetical citations; however, whenever you use the author’s name in APA, you must also include the date of the publication. Commas are also used within the parentheses to set off different pieces of information.

Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. In a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (Booth, 2000, p. 216). Later that year, Hemingway went on to request, and to be granted, an audience with the President where he shared a multitude of research against drilling (Goodview, 1998, p. 98). Hemingway, along with countless other supporters, continued to call upon legislators from both sides of the aisle until the idea of Alaskan oil exploration was naught, or so they thought. “It is a victory for all the inhabitants of the earth that the State of Alaska’s natural beauty, wonder, and habitat will remain unharmed by human greed so that our children and grandchildren and generations after them will be able to catch a glimpse of an unspoiled planet” (Chandler, 1985, p. 143). The idea of an unspoiled planet was, unfortunately, relatively short lived.

An example of APA parenthetical citations.
According to Booth (2000), Hemingway's arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. In a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (p. 216). Goodview (1998) notes that later that year Hemingway went on to request, and to be granted, an audience with the President where he shared a multitude of research against drilling (p. 98). Hemingway, along with countless other supporters, continued to call upon legislators from both sides of the aisle until the idea of Alaskan oil exploration was naught, or so they thought. One of these members is quoted by Chandler (1998) as saying of this time, "It is a victory for all the inhabitants of the earth that the State of Alaska's natural beauty, wonder, and habitat will remain unharmed by human greed so that our children and grandchildren and generations after them will be able to catch a glimpse of an unspoiled planet" (p. 143). The idea of an unspoiled planet was, unfortunately, relatively short lived.

An example of APA parenthetical citations.

If you need to cite two authors of the same work who are mentioned within the text, use both their last names and separate it with “and.”

According to Chandler and Goodview (2004), Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. In a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (p. 216).

An example of APA parenthetical citations.

If you do not mention the two author’s names within the text, you do so in parenthesis using an ampersand instead of the word “and.”

Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. In a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (Chandler & Goodview, 2004, p. 216).

An example of APA parenthetical citations.
If you have three to five authors, list them all by last name the first time you mention them in the text. Thereafter, only use the first author’s last name followed by “et al.”

According to Chandler, Goodview, and Petty (2004), Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. In a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (p. 216). Chandler et al. (2004) also noted that...

An example of APA parenthetical citations.

If you mention the authors in parenthetical citations instead of within the text, follow the same guidelines as noted above.

Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life. In a 1949 visit to members of Congress, Hemingway repeatedly reported of the natural beauty that would be destroyed by exploring for oil in Alaska (Chandler, Goodview, & Petty, 2004, p. 216). Later that year Hemingway went on to request, and to be granted, an audience with the President where he shared a multitude of research against drilling (Goodview, 1998, p. 98). Hemingway, along with countless other supporters, continued to call upon legislators from both sides of the aisle until the idea of Alaskan oil exploration was naught, or so they thought. “It is a victory for all the inhabitants of the earth that the State of Alaska’s natural beauty, wonder, and habitat will remain unharmed by human greed so that our children and grandchildren and generations after them will be able to catch a glimpse of an unspoiled planet” (Chandler et al., 2004, p. 143). The idea of an unspoiled planet was, unfortunately, relatively short lived.

An example of APA parenthetical citations.

If you have six or more authors, list only the first author’s last name followed by “et al.”

According to Chandler et al. (2007), Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life.

An example of APA parenthetical citations.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

If you do not know the author’s name, use a portion of the article or book title instead. Titles of articles are placed within quotes. Book and report titles are italicized or underlined. (Note that in APA only the first letter of the first word of a title and subtitle, the first word after a colon or a dash in the title, and proper nouns are capitalized.

| Hemingway’s arguments against oil drilling in Alaska continued to intensify in his later life (“Hemingway’s battle for Alaska,” 2001). |
| An example of APA parenthetical citations. |

For more information on APA in-text citations, see [http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/03/](http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/03/) or [http://leo.stcloudstate.edu/research/apadocument.html](http://leo.stcloudstate.edu/research/apadocument.html)

Citing Outside Sources in a Bibliography
While parenthetical in-text citations already indicate the sources of the information, a full identification of the cited sources is required to make it possible for the reader to unambiguously locate the source in a library or on the internet. The list of fully identified sources usually goes at the end of your paper, into a bibliography section. A full identification of a source usually includes the year of publication, the authors, the title of the work, the publishing organization, and more. The information included in the full identification of a source varies with the publication style such as MLA style and APA style. MLA records sources in its Works Cited page, while APA records sources in its References page.

**MLA Works Cited**
To record your sources in MLA, you create your Works Cited page. To write your MLA works cited list, follow the steps below.

1. Start a new page for your list, and center the words “Works Cited” at the top of the page. There is no need to format the words any different than the rest of your text, so don’t waste your time by underlining, italicizing, or making them bold.

2. Number this page in continuation of the pages in your essay or research work.

3. Start each entry flush with the left margin. Indent any subsequent lines five (5) spaces.

4. Alphabetize your sources by the author’s last name or by using the information provided below.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Books - one author
a. Author - List author by last name, (comma) first name.

b. Title - Italicize title and subtitle. Capitalize any major words even if not officially capitalized in the book’s title.

c. Publication Information - Provide the city of publication and the state code if the city is unfamiliar, followed by a : (colon)- a space and the shortened version of the publisher’s name (Penguin for The Penguin Press - a , (comma) and the year of publication.


Books - two or three authors
a. Authors - List the first author last name first. Then list the name (s) of the subsequent author(s) in normal order, with a , (comma) between the names and a ,and (comma and) before the last author.

b. Follow the remaining steps as you would with one author.


Books - four or more authors
a. Authors - Give the first author listed on the title page, followed by a , (comma) and “et al.”

b. Follow the remaining steps as you would with one author.


Books - corporate author
a. Give the name of the group listed on the title page as the author even if the same group published the book.

b. Follow the remaining steps as you would with one author.

Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Books - unknown author
a. Start the entry with the title, and list alphabetically by the first major word of the title.
b. Follow the remaining steps as you would with one author.


Books - two or more by the same author(s)
a. Arrange entries alphabetically by title.
b. List the name(s) of the author in the first entry, but in subsequent entries, use three hyphens followed by a period.


Books - editor or editors
a. Treat as you would an author, but add a comma “ed.” for (or “eds.” for more than one) editor.
b. Follow the remaining steps as you would with one author.


Website
a. Give the author’s name (if known), last name followed by first name.
b. List the full title of the work in quotation marks.
c. List the Website name in italics.
d. List the sponsor of the Website.
e. Give the date of the document’s last revision, day of month followed by abbreviated month and then year.
f. Indicate the medium: Web
g. Include the date of access, day of month followed by abbreviated month and then year.

Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Works Cited


APA References

To cite your sources in APA format, you create your References page. To write your References page, follow the steps below.

1. Start a new page for your list, and center the word “References” at the top of the page. There is no need to format the words any different than the rest of your text, so don’t waste your time by underlining, italicizing, or making them bold.

2. Number this page in continuation of the pages in your essay or research work.

3. Start each entry flush with the left margin. Indent any subsequent lines 1/2 inch, and double space the entries like the rest of your paper.

4. Alphabetize your sources by the author’s last name and first initial, or by using the information provided below. If there is more than one author, list the first author by the last name first, followed by the first name initial, then for all others list the first initial first, followed by the last name, and separate by commas.

5. In dealing with the titles of all books, articles, or webpages, capitalize only the first letter of the first word of a title and subtitle, the first word after a colon or a dash in the title, and all proper nouns.

6. Capitalize all major words in journal titles.

7. Italicize or underline book and journal titles. (Be consistent, always italicize, or always underline, but never use both.)

8. **Do not** italicize, underline, or put quotes around the titles of shorter works such as journal articles or essays in edited collections.
Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Books

a. Author - List author by last name, (comma) first name initial. If there are more than six authors, list the first author and first initial followed by “et al.”

b. Year of publication in parenthesis.

c. Title - Underline or italicize the title and subtitle. Capitalize only the first letter of the first word of a title and subtitle, the first word after a colon or a dash in the title, and proper nouns.

d. Publication Information - Provide the city of publication and the state code if the city is unfamiliar, followed by a : (colon)- a space and the shortened version of the publisher’s name.


Journal article - by issue

a. Author - List author by last name, (comma) first name initial. If there are more than six authors, list the first author and first initial followed by “et al.”

b. Year of publication in parenthesis.

c. Title of the article - No underling, italics, or quotes are used. Capitalize only the first letter of the first word of a title and subtitle, the first word after a colon or a dash in the title, and proper nouns.

d. Title of the journal/periodical- Italicized. Capitalize the first letter of all words.

e. Volume number(issue number), pages- The volume number and issue number are italicized.

Chapter 14
Research Strategies

Website

a. Author’s last name, followed by the first letter of the first name.
b. Year of publication in parenthesis.
c. Title of webpage document. Only capitalize the first letter of the first word and proper nouns.
d. Provide the date your retrieved it, listed in order by the month and day followed by a comma, then year followed by a comma.
e. Include the web address you retrieved if from. Do not end with a period.


References Page Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Cancer Society. (2016). Smoking while you are pregnant or breastfeeding: How does smoking when you are pregnant affect your unborn baby’s health? Retrieved from <a href="http://www.cancer.org/cancer/cancercauses/tobaccocancer/smoking-while-you-are-pregnant-or-breastfeeding">http://www.cancer.org/cancer/cancercauses/tobaccocancer/smoking-while-you-are-pregnant-or-breastfeeding</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References page example.

License Information

The chapter is from: https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Rhetoric_and_Composition/Citation. Text is available under the Creative Commons Attribution-ShareAlike License; additional terms may apply.
15.1 Sentence Writing

Introduction
Imagine you are reading a book for school. You need to find important details that you can use for an assignment. However, when you begin to read, you notice that the book has very little punctuation. Sentences fail to form complete paragraphs and instead form one block of text without clear organization. Most likely, this book would frustrate and confuse you. Without clear and concise sentences, it is difficult to find the information you need.

For both students and professionals, clear communication is important. Whether you are writing an e-mail or a report, it is your responsibility to present your thoughts and ideas clearly and precisely. Writing in complete sentences is one way to ensure that you communicate well. This section covers how to recognize and write basic sentence structures and how to avoid some common writing errors.
Components of a Sentence

Clearly written, complete sentences require key information: a subject, a verb and a complete idea. A sentence needs to make sense on its own. Sometimes, complete sentences are also called independent clauses. A clause is a group of words that may make up a sentence. An independent clause is a group of words that may stand alone as a complete, grammatically correct thought. The following sentences show independent clauses.

1. **Example of an Independent Clause:** We went to the store.
2. **Example of an Independent Clause:** We bought the ingredients on our list.

All complete sentences have at least one independent clause. You can identify an independent clause by reading it on its own and looking for the subject and the verb. In sentence 1, the subject is “we” and the verb is “went.” In sentence 2, the subject is “we” and the verb is “bought.”

Subjects

When you read a sentence, you may first look for the subject, or what the sentence is about. The subject usually appears at the beginning of a sentence as a **noun** or a **pronoun**.

A **noun** is a word that identifies a person, place, thing, or idea. A noun can be singular (cat), plural (cats), or compound (cats and dogs). In addition, there are nouns referred to as collective nouns that suggest more than one person but are usually considered singular (committee, family, jury).

A **pronoun** is a word that replaces a noun. Common pronouns are *I, he, she, it, you, they, and we*. In the following sentences, the subject is underlined once.

Malik is the project manager for this project. **He** will give us out assignments.

In these sentences, the subject is a person: Malik. The pronoun *He* replaces and refers back to Malik.

The computer lab is where we will work. **It** will be open twenty-four hours a day.

In the first sentence, the subject is a place: computer lab. In the second sentence, the pronoun *It* substitutes for computer lab as the subject.

The **project** will run for three weeks. **It** will have a quick turnaround.

In the first sentence, the subject is a place: computer lab. In the second sentence, the pronoun *It* substitutes for computer lab as the subject.

The **committee** will make all decisions regarding the curriculum. **It** will have a quick turnaround.
In the first sentence, the subject is a thing: *committee*. In the second sentence, the pronoun *It* substitutes for *committee* as the subject. (Note: Committee is a collective noun. While it is comprised of several people, a committee is considered a singular noun, so it must be referenced by a singular pronoun.)

**Pronouns**

Pronouns are words that replace or rename nouns and other pronouns. If there were no pronouns, all types of writing would be quite tedious to read. We would soon be frustrated by reading sentences like *Bob said that Bob was tired* or *Christina told the class that Christina received an A*. Pronouns help a writer avoid constant repetition. Knowing just how pronouns work is an important aspect of clear and concise writing.

**Types of Pronouns**

Subject pronouns are often the subject of a sentence—“who” and “what” the sentence is about.

**Sentence:** *She* loves the desserts in France.
*She* is the subject.

**Sentence:** By lunch time, *they* were hungry.
*They* is the subject.

Object pronouns are often the object of the verb—“who” or “what” was acted upon.

**Sentence:** Melanie’s thoughtfulness touched *him*.
*Him* is the object of the verb *touched*.

**Sentence:** We lifted *it*.
*It* is the object of the verb *lifted*.

A pronoun that shows possession or ownership is called a possessive pronoun.

**Sentence:** The teacher took *her* apple and left.
The pronoun *her* shows the teacher owns the apple.

**Sentence:** The hikers spotted *their* guide on the trail.
The pronoun *their* shows the hikers follow the guide who was assigned to the hikers.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Pronouns</th>
<th>I, you, he, she, it, we, they</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Object Pronouns</td>
<td>me, you, him, her, it, us, them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive Pronouns</td>
<td>my (mine), your(s), his, hers, its, our(s), their(s)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Exercise 1**
On a separate sheet of paper, complete the following sentences by circling the correct pronoun.

1. Unfortunately, the house was too expensive for (we, us, they).
2. I completed (mine, my, your) research paper, and she completed (his, hers, theirs).
3. My dog Buster is old, but (he, it, them) is very playful.
4. That ring belongs to my father, so it is (hers, his, theirs).
5. I cannot find my textbook, so I think (they, it, he) is lost.

**Pronoun Agreement**
A pronoun is a word that takes the place of (or refers back to) a noun or another pronoun. The word or words a pronoun refers to is called the antecedent of the pronoun.

1. **Lani** complained that **she** was exhausted.
   - **She** refers to **Lani**.
   - **Lani** is the antecedent of **she**.

2. **Jeremy** left the party early, so I did not see **him** until Monday at work.
   - **Him** refers to **Jeremy**.
   - **Jeremy** is the antecedent of **him**.

3. **Crina and Rosalie** have been best friends ever since **they** were freshman in high school.
   - **They** refers to **Crina and Rosalie**.
   - **Crina and Rosalie** is the antecedent of **they**.

Pronoun agreement errors occur when the pronoun and the antecedent do not match or agree with each other. There are several types of pronoun agreement.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Agreement in Number
If the pronoun takes the place of or refers to a singular noun, the pronoun must also be singular.

Incorrect: If a student (singular) wants to return a book to the bookstore, they (plural) must have a receipt.

Correct: If a student (singular) wants to return a book to the bookstore, he or she (singular) must have a receipt. If it seems too wordy to use he or she, change the antecedent to a plural noun.

Correct: If students (plural) want to return a book to the bookstore, they (plural) must have a receipt.

Agreement in Person

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular Pronouns</th>
<th>Plural Pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Person</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Person</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Person</td>
<td>he, she, it</td>
<td>him, her, it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you use pronouns that are consistent in person, your reader is less likely to be confused.

Incorrect: When a person (3rd) goes to a restaurant, you (2nd) should leave a tip.

Correct: When a person (3rd) goes to a restaurant, he or she (3rd) should leave a tip.

Correct: When we (1st) go to a restaurant, I (1st) should leave a tip.

Exercise 2
Edit the following paragraph by correcting pronoun agreement errors in number and person.

Over spring break I visited my older cousin, Diana, and they took me to a butterfly exhibit at a museum. Diana and I have been close ever since she was young. Our mothers are twin sisters, and she is inseparable! Diana knows how much I love butterflies, so it was their special present to me. I have a soft spot for caterpillars too. I love them because something about the way it transforms is so interesting to me. One summer my grandmother gave me a butterfly growing kit, and you got to see the entire life cycle of five Painted Lady butterflies. I even got to set it free. So when my cousin said they wanted to take me to the butterfly exhibit, I was really excited!
Indefinite Pronouns and Agreement

Indefinite pronouns do not refer to a specific person or thing and are usually singular. Note that a pronoun that refers to an indefinite singular pronoun should also be singular. The following are some common indefinite pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Indefinite Pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anybody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anything</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indefinite Pronouns and agreement

Incorrect: *Everyone* (singular) should do what *they* (plural) can to help.
Correct: *Everyone* (singular) should do what *he or she* (singular) can to help.

Incorrect: *Someone* (singular) left *their* (plural) backpack in the library.
Correct: *Someone* (singular) left *his or her* (singular) backpack in the library.
Exercise 3
Complete the following sentences by selecting the correct pronoun. Copy the completed sentence onto your own sheet of paper. Then circle the noun the pronoun replaces.

1. In the current economy, nobody wants to waste _______ money on frivolous things.
2. If anybody chooses to go to medical school, _______ must be prepared to work long hours.
3. The plumbing crew did _______ best to repair the broken pipes before the next ice storm.
4. If someone is rude to you, try giving _______ a smile in return.
5. My family has _______ faults, but I still love them no matter what.
6. The school of education plans to train _______ students to be literacy tutors.
7. The commencement speaker said that each student has a responsibility toward _______.
8. My mother’s singing group has _______ rehearsals on Thursday evenings.
9. No one should suffer _______ pains alone.
10. I thought the flock of birds lost _______ way in the storm.

Who versus Whom

Who or whoever is always the subject of a verb. Use who or whoever when the pronoun performs the action indicated by the verb.

Examples:
Who won the marathon last Tuesday?
I wonder who came up with that terrible idea!

On the other hand, whom and whomever serve as objects. They are used when the pronoun does not perform an action. Use whom or whomever when the pronoun is the direct object of a verb or the object of a preposition.

Examples:
Whom did Frank marry the third time? (direct object of verb)
From whom did you buy that old record player? (object of preposition)
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Tip
If you are having trouble deciding when to use *who* and *whom*, try this trick. Take the following sentence: *Who/Whom* do I consider to be my best friend? Reorder the sentence in your head, using either *he* or *him* in place of *who* or *whom*.

Sentence 1: I consider *him* to be my best friend.
Sentence 2: I consider *he* to be my best friend.

Which sentence sounds better? The first one, of course. So the trick is, if you can use *him*, you should use *whom*; if you can use *he*, you should use *who*. The same goes for *she* and *her*: if you can use *her*, you should use *whom*; if you can use *she*, you should use *who*.

Exercise 4
Complete the following sentences by adding *who* or *whom*. Copy the completed sentence onto your own sheet of paper.

1. ________ hit the home run?
2. I remember ________ won the Academy Award for Best Actor last year.
3. To ________ is the letter addressed?
4. I have no idea ________ left the iron on, but I am going to find out.
5. ________ are you going to recommend for the internship?
6. With ________ are you going to Hawaii?
7. No one knew ________ the famous actor was.
8. ________ in the office knows how to fix the copy machine?
9. From ________ did you get the concert tickets?
10. No one knew ________ ate the cake mom was saving.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Common Pronoun Errors
English language learners often make the same errors when using pronouns. The following examples illustrate common errors.

**Incorrect:** Me and Daniela went to the restaurant for lunch.
This sentence is incorrect because an object pronoun (*me*) is used instead of a subject pronoun.

**Correct:** Daniela and *I* went to the restaurant for lunch.
This sentence is now correct because a subject pronoun (*I*) is used.

**Incorrect:** The security guard told Dan and *I* to get away from the stage.
This sentence is incorrect because a subject pronoun (*I*) is used instead of an object pronoun.

**Correct:** The security guard told Dan and *me* to get away from the stage.
This sentence is now correct because an object pronoun (*me*) is used.

**Tip:** In compound constructions that include a noun and a pronoun, try eliminating the noun in the sentence, testing out just the pronoun.

**Example:** Tom went to the movies with Tracy and *I*.

Test your pronoun use by eliminating the noun Tracy: *Tom went to the movies with I*. In this case, the pronoun is incorrect. The object pronoun “*me*” should be used instead: *Tom went to the movies with me*. Therefore, in the compound construction, the sentence is correct as follows: *Tom went to the movies with Tracy and me*.

**Exercise 5**
On a separate sheet of paper, correct the following sentences that have pronoun errors. If the sentence is correct as it is, write *OK*.

1. Us are going to the county fair this weekend.
2. Steven did not want to see a movie because she had a headache.
3. The teacher congratulated Maria and *me*.
4. The eighth grade students they were all behaving mysteriously well.
5. Derrick and *he* received the best grade on the grammar test.
Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun is a type of pronoun that helps connect details to the subject of the sentence and may often combine two shorter sentences. The relative pronouns are who, whom, whose, which or that.

Sentence: A relative pronoun is a type of pronoun.
The subject of this sentence is a relative pronoun. The clause is a type of pronoun gives some information about the subject. The relative pronoun that may be added to give more details to the subject.

Sentence using a relative pronoun: A relative pronoun is a type of pronoun that helps connect details to the subject of the sentence.

Tip
Remember the following uses of relative pronouns:

- Who, whom, and whose refer only to people.
- Which refers to things.
- That refers to people or things.

The following examples show how a relative pronoun may be used to connect two sentences and to connect details to the subject.

Sentence 1: Gossip is a form of communication.
Sentence 2: It is a waste of time and energy.

Combination of 1 and 2: Gossip is a form of communication that is a waste of time and energy.
Notice how the relative pronoun that replaces the subject it in sentence 2. That is called a relative pronoun because it connects the details (is a waste of time and energy) to the subject (Gossip).

Sentence 1: My grandmother is eighty years old.
Sentence 2: She collects seashells.

Combination of 1 and 2: My grandmother, who is eighty years old, collects seashells.
Notice how the relative pronoun who replaces the subject she in sentence 2. Who is called a relative pronoun because it connects the details (is eighty years old) to the subject (My grandmother).
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Exercise 6
On a separate sheet of paper, complete the following sentences by selecting the correct relative pronoun.

1. He showed me a photo (who, that) upset me.
2. Soccer is a fast moving game (who, that) has many fans worldwide.
3. Juan is a man (which, who) has high standards for everything.
4. Jamaica is a beautiful country (that, who) I would like to visit next year.
5. My mother only eats bananas (who, that) are green.

Prepositional Phrases
You will often read a sentence that has more than one noun or pronoun in it. You may encounter a group of words that includes a preposition with a noun or a pronoun. Prepositions connect a noun, pronoun, or verb to another word that describes or modifies that noun, pronoun, or verb. Common prepositions include in, on, under, near, by, with, and about. They often reference time or location. A group of words that begins with a preposition is called a prepositional phrase. A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and modifies or describes a word. It cannot act as the subject of a sentence. The following are examples of prepositional phrases.

Sentence 1: We went <on a business trip> and that restaurant <with the famous pizza> was <on the way>.
Sentence 2: The girl <from Detroit> placed first <in the high jump> <at the track meet>.

Exercise 7
Read the following sentences. Underline the subjects, and circle the prepositional phrases.

1. The gym is open until nine o’clock tonight.
2. We went to the store to get some ice.
3. The student with the most extra credit will win a homework pass.
4. Maya and Tia found an abandoned cat by the side of the road.
5. The driver of that pickup truck skidded on the ice.
6. Anita won the race with time to spare.
7. The people who work for that company were surprised about the merger.
8. Working in haste means that you are more likely to make mistakes.
9. The soundtrack has over sixty songs in languages from around the world.
10. His latest invention does not work, but it has inspired the rest of us.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Verbs
Once you locate the subject of a sentence, you can move on to the next part of a complete sentence: the verb. A verb is often an action word that shows what the subject is doing. A verb can also link the subject to a describing word. There are three types of verbs that you can use in a sentence: action verbs, linking verbs, or helping verbs.

Action Verbs
A verb that connects the subject to an action is called an action verb. An action verb answers the question *what is the subject doing?* In the following sentences, the words underlined are action verbs.

Sentence 1: The dog **barked** at the jogger.
Sentence 2: He **gave** a short speech before we ate.

Linking Verbs
A verb can often connect the subject of the sentence to a describing word. This type of verb is called a linking verb because it links the subject to a describing word. In the following sentences, the words underlined are linking verbs.

**Linking Verb:** The coat **was** old and dirty.
**Linking Verb:** The clock **seemed** broken.

If you have trouble telling the difference between action verbs and linking verbs, remember that an action verb shows that the subject is doing something, whereas a linking verb simply connects the subject to another word that describes or modifies the subject. A few verbs can be used as either action verbs or linking verbs.

**Action Verb:** The boy **looked** for his glove.
**Linking Verb:** The boy **looked** tired.

Although both sentences use the same verb, the two sentences have completely different meanings. In the first sentence, the verb describes the boy’s action. In the second sentence, the verb describes the boy’s appearance.
Helping Verbs
A third type of verb you may use as you write is a helping verb. Helping verbs are verbs that are used with the main verb to describe a mood or tense. Helping verbs are usually a form of *be, do, or have*. The word *can* is also used as a helping verb.

```
HV V
The restaurant **is known** for its variety of dishes.
```

```
HV V
She **does speak up** when prompted in class.
```

```
HV V
We **have seen** that movie three times.
```

```
HV V
She **can tell** when someone walks on her lawn.
```

3 Tip
Whenever you write or edit sentences, keep the subject and verb in mind. As you write, ask yourself these questions to keep yourself on track:

**Subject:** Who or what is the sentence about?
**Verb:** Which word shows an action or links the subject to a description?

Subject-Verb Agreement
Agreement in speech and in writing refers to the proper grammatical match between words and phrases. Parts of sentences must agree, or correspond with other parts, in number, person, case, and gender.

- **Number.** All parts must match in singular or plural forms.
- **Person.** All parts must match in first person (*I*), second person (*you*), or third person (*he, she, it, they*) forms.
- **Case.** All parts must match in
  subjective (*I, you, he, she, it, they, we*), objective (*me, her, him, them, us*), or
  possessive (*my, mine, your, yours, his, her, hers, their, theirs, our, ours*) forms.
- **Gender.** All parts must match in male or female forms.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Subject-verb agreement describes the proper match between subjects and verbs.

Because subjects and verbs are either singular or plural, the subject of a sentence and the verb of a sentence must agree with each other in number. That is, a singular subject belongs with a singular verb form, and a plural subject belongs with a plural verb form.

Singular: The cat jumps over the fence.

Plural: The cats jump over the fence

Adjectives and Adverbs
Adjectives and adverbs are descriptive words that bring your writing to life.

Adjectives
An adjective is a word that describes a noun or a pronoun. It often answers questions such as which one, what kind, or how many?

1. The green sweater belongs to Iris.
2. She looks beautiful.
   • In sentence 1, the adjective green describes the noun sweater
   • In sentence 2, the adjective beautiful describes the pronoun she.

Adverbs
An adverb is a word that describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs frequently end in -ly. They answer questions such as how, to what extent, why, when, and where.

3. Bertrand sings horribly.
4. My sociology instructor is extremely wise.
5. He threw the ball very accurately.
   • In sentence 3, horribly describes the verb sings. How does Bertrand sing? He sings horribly.
   • In sentence 4, extremely describes the adjective wise. How wise is the instructor? Extremely wise.
   • In sentence 5, very describes the adverb accurately. How accurately did he throw the ball? Very accurately.
Comparative versus Superlative

Comparative adjectives and adverbs are used to compare two people or things.

1. Jorge is thin.
2. Steven is thinner than Jorge.
   • Sentence 1 describes Jorge with the adjective thin.
   • Sentence 2 compares Jorge to Steven, stating that Steven is thinner; so thinner is the comparative form of thin.

Form comparatives in one of the following two ways:

1. If the adjective or adverb is a one-syllable word, add -er to it to form the comparative. For example, big, fast, and short would become bigger, faster, and shorter in the comparative form.
2. If the adjective or adverb is a word of two or more syllables, place the word more in front of it to form the comparative. For example, happily, comfortable, and jealous would become more happily, more comfortable, and more jealous in the comparative.

Superlative adjectives and adverbs are used to compare more than two people or two things.

1. Jackie is the loudest cheerleader on the squad.
2. Kenyatta was voted the most confident student by her graduating class.
   • Sentence 1 shows that Jackie is not just louder than one other person, but she is the loudest of all the cheerleaders on the squad.
   • Sentence 2 shows that Kenyatta was voted the most confident student of all the students in her class.

Form superlatives in one of the following two ways:

1. If the adjective or adverb is a one-syllable word, add -est to it to form the superlative. For example, big, fast, and short would become biggest, fastest, and shortest in the superlative form.
2. If the adjective or adverb is a word of two or more syllables, place the word most in front of it. For example, happily, comfortable, and jealous would become most happily, most comfortable, and most jealous in the superlative form.
Tip
Remember the following exception: If the word has two syllables and ends in \(-y\), change the \(-y\) to an \(-i\) and add \(-est\). For example, \textit{happy} would change to \textit{happiest} in the superlative form; \textit{healthy} would change to \textit{healthiest}.

Irregular Words

Good versus Well

\textit{Good} is always an adjective—that is, a word that describes a noun or a pronoun. The second sentence is correct because \textit{well} is an adverb that tells how something is done.

\textbf{Incorrect:} Cecilia felt that she had never done so \textit{good} on a test.
\textbf{Correct:} Cecilia felt that she had never done so \textit{well} on a test.

\textit{Well} is always an adverb that describes a verb, adverb, or adjective. The second sentence is correct because \textit{good} is an adjective that describes the noun \textit{score}.

\textbf{Incorrect:} Cecilia’s team received a \textit{well} score.
\textbf{Correct:} Cecilia’s team received a \textit{good} score.

Bad versus Badly

\textit{Bad} is always an adjective. The second sentence is correct because \textit{badly} is an adverb that tells how the speaker did on the test.

\textbf{Incorrect:} I did \textit{bad} on my accounting test because I didn’t study.
\textbf{Correct:} I did \textit{badly} on my accounting test because I didn’t study.

\textit{Badly} is always an adverb. The second sentence is correct because \textit{bad} is an adjective that describes the noun \textit{thunderstorm}.

\textbf{Incorrect:} The coming thunderstorm looked \textit{badly}.
\textbf{Correct:} The coming thunderstorm looked \textit{bad}. 
Better and Worse
The following are examples of the use of better and worse:

1. Tyra likes sprinting better than long distance running.
2. The traffic is worse in Chicago than in Atlanta.

Best and Worst
The following are examples of the use of best and worst:

1. Tyra sprints best of all the other competitors.
2. Peter finished worst of all the runners in the race.

Tip
Remember better and worse compare two persons or things. Best and worst compare three or more persons or things.

Capitalization
Text messages, casual e-mails, and instant messages often ignore the rules of capitalization. In fact, it can seem unnecessary to capitalize in these contexts. In other, more formal forms of communication, however, knowing the basic rules of capitalization and using capitalization correctly gives the reader the impression that you choose your words carefully and care about the ideas you are conveying.

Capitalization Rules

Capitalize the First Word of a Sentence
Incorrect: the museum has a new butterfly exhibit.
Correct: The museum has a new butterfly exhibit.

Incorrect: cooking can be therapeutic.
Correct: Cooking can be therapeutic.
Capitalize Proper Nouns

Proper nouns—the names of specific people, places, objects, streets, buildings, events, or titles of individuals—are always capitalized.

Incorrect: He grew up in harlem, new york.
Correct: He grew up in Harlem, New York.

Incorrect: The sears tower in chicago has a new name.
Correct: The Sears Tower in Chicago has a new name.

Tip
Always capitalize nationalities, races, languages, and religions. For example, American, African American, Hispanic, Catholic, Protestant, Jewish, Muslim, Hindu, Buddhist, and so on.

Do not capitalize nouns for people, places, things, streets, buildings, events, and titles when the noun is used in general or common way. See the following chart for the difference between proper nouns and common nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Noun</th>
<th>Proper Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>museum</td>
<td>The Art Institute of Chicago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>theater</td>
<td>Apollo Theater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>country</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncle</td>
<td>Uncle Javier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doctor</td>
<td>Dr. Jackson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>book</td>
<td>Pride and Prejudice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>college</td>
<td>Smith College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>war</td>
<td>the Spanish-American War</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>historical event</td>
<td>The Renaissance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Capitalize Days of the Week, Months of the Year, and Holidays

Incorrect: On wednesday, I will be traveling to Austin for a music festival.
Correct: On Wednesday, I will be traveling to Austin for a music festival.

Incorrect: The fourth of july is my favorite holiday.
Correct: The Fourth of July is my favorite holiday.

Capitalize Titles

Incorrect: The play, fences, by August Wilson is one of my favorites.
Correct: The play, Fences, by August Wilson is one of my favorites.

Incorrect: The president of the united states will be speaking at my university.
Correct: The President of the United States will be speaking at my university.

Tip
Computer-related words such as “Internet” and “World Wide Web” are usually capitalized; however, “e-mail” and “online” are never capitalized.

Key Takeaways

• A sentence is complete when it contains both a subject and verb. A complete sentence makes sense on its own.
• Every sentence must have a subject, which usually appears at the beginning of the sentence. A subject may be a noun (a person, place, or thing) or a pronoun.
• Pronouns can function as subjects or objects.
• Subject pronouns are never used as objects, and object pronouns are never used as subjects.
• Pronouns and their antecedents need to agree in number and person.
• Most indefinite pronouns are singular.
• Collective nouns are usually singular.
• Who serves as a subject of a verb.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

• *Whom* serves as an object of a sentence or the object of a preposition.

• A compound subject contains more than one noun.

• A prepositional phrase describes, or modifies, another word in the sentence but cannot be the subject of sentence.

• A verb is often an action word that indicates what the subject is doing. Verbs may be action verbs, linking verbs, or helping verbs.

• Adjectives describe a noun or a pronoun.

• Adverbs describe a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

• Most adverbs are formed by adding -ly to an adjective.

• Comparative adjectives and adverbs compare two persons or things.

• Superlative adjectives or adverbs compare more than two persons or things.

• The adjectives *good* and *bad* and the adverbs *well* and *badly* are unique in their comparative and superlative forms and require special attention.

• Learning and applying the basic rules of capitalization is a fundamental aspect of good writing.

• Identifying and correcting errors in capitalization is an important writing skill.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
15.2 Coordination and Subordination

Introduction
In the previous section, we learned what elements are necessary to construct a sentence, or independent clause. Next, we will examine two ways in which we can join sentences with related ideas.

- Coordination. Joining two related ideas of equal importance.
- Subordination. Joining two related ideas of unequal importance.

Connecting sentences with coordinate or subordinate clauses creates more coherent paragraphs, and in turn, produces more effective writing.
Coordination
Coordination joins two independent clauses that contain related ideas of equal importance.

Original sentences: I spent my entire paycheck last week. I am staying home this weekend.
In their current form, these sentences contain two separate ideas that may or may not be related. Am I staying home this week because I spent my paycheck, or is there another reason for my lack of enthusiasm to leave the house? To indicate a relationship between the two ideas, we can use the coordinating conjunction so:

Revised sentence: I spent my entire paycheck last week, so I am staying home this weekend.
The revised sentence illustrates that the two ideas are connected. Notice that the sentence retains two independent clauses (I spent my entire paycheck; I am staying home this weekend) because each can stand alone as a complete idea.

Coordinating Conjunctions
A coordinating conjunction is a word that joins two independent clauses and shows the relationship between the two clauses. Think of them as connectors. The most common coordinating conjunctions are for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so. To help you remember the seven coordinating conjunctions, think of the acronym FANBOYS: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so. Note that a comma precedes the coordinating conjunction when joining two independent clauses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Clause</th>
<th>Coordinating Conjunction</th>
<th>Independent Clause</th>
<th>Revised Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I will not be attending</td>
<td>for (indicates a reason or cause)</td>
<td>I have no one to go with.</td>
<td>I will not be attending the dance, for I have no one to go with.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the dance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I plan to stay home.</td>
<td>and (joins two ideas)</td>
<td>I will complete an essay for class.</td>
<td>I plan to stay home, and I will complete an essay for class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Chapter 15
#### Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

| Jessie isn’t going to be at the dance. | nor (indicates a negative) | Tom won’t be there either. | Jessie isn’t going to be at the dance, nor will Tom be there. |
| The fundraisers are hoping for a record-breaking attendance. | but (indicates a contrast) | I don’t think many people are going. | The fundraisers are hoping for a record-breaking attendance, but I don’t think many people are going. |
| I might go to the next fundraising event. | or (offers an alternative) | I might donate some money to the cause. | I might go to the next fundraising event, or I might donate some money to the cause. |
| My parents are worried that I am antisocial. | yet (indicates a reason) | I have many friends at school. | My parents are worried that I am antisocial, yet I have many friends at school. |
| Buying a new dress is expensive. | so (indicates a result) | By staying home I will save money. | Buying a new dress is expensive, so by staying home I will save money. |

**Tip**

When you see a word like “and” in a sentence, don’t assume that a comma always precedes it. The word “and,” for example, has other uses in sentences. It can connect compound verbs or nouns; it is also used in lists. A comma only precedes “and” when it is connecting two independent clauses.

Example 1: The boys drove the truck into town and filled it with gas.

Here “and” is serving to connect the two verbs “drove” and “filled.” Therefore, no comma is needed.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Coordinating Adverbs
Another method of joining two independent clauses with related and equal ideas is to use a conjunctive adverb and a semicolon. A conjunctive adverb is a linking word that demonstrates a relationship between two clauses. Read the following sentences:

Original sentences: Bridget wants to take part in the next Olympics. She trains every day.
Since these sentences contain two equal and related ideas, they may be joined using a conjunctive adverb.

Now, read the revised sentence:

Revised sentence: Bridget wants to take part in the next Olympics; therefore, she trains every day.
The revised sentence explains the relationship between Bridget’s desire to take part in the next Olympics and her daily training. Notice that the conjunctive adverb comes after a semicolon that separates the two clauses and is followed by a comma.

Review the following chart of some common conjunctive adverbs with examples of how they are used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Conjunctive Adverb</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>also, furthermore, moreover, besides</td>
<td>Alicia was late for class and stuck in traffic; furthermore, her shoe heel had broken and she had forgotten her lunch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>similarly, likewise</td>
<td>Recycling aluminum cans is beneficial to the environment; similarly, reusing plastic bags and switching off lights reduces waste.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>instead, however, conversely</td>
<td>Most people do not walk to work; instead, they drive or take the train.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Emphasis
- namely, certainly, indeed

| The Siberian tiger is a rare creature; indeed, there are fewer than five hundred left in the wild. |

## Cause and Effect
- accordingly, consequently, hence, thus

| I missed my train this morning; consequently, I was late for my meeting. |

## Time
- finally, next, subsequently, then

| Tim crossed the barrier, jumped over the wall, and pushed through the hole in the fence; finally, he made it to the station. |

### Exercise 1
Combine each sentence pair into a single sentence using either a coordinating conjunction or a conjunctive adverb. Then copy the combined sentence onto your own sheet of paper.

- Pets are not allowed in Mr. Taylor’s building. He owns several cats and a parrot.
- New legislation prevents drivers from sending or reading text messages while driving. Many people continue to use their phones illegally.
- The coroner concluded that the young man had taken a lethal concoction of drugs. By the time his relatives found him, nothing could be done.
- Amphibians are vertebrates that live on land and in the water. Flatworms are invertebrates that live only in water.
- Ashley carefully fed and watered her tomato plants all summer. The tomatoes grew juicy and ripe.
- When he lost his car key, Simon attempted to open the door with a wire hanger, a credit card, and a paper clip. He called the manufacturer for advice.

### Collaboration
Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.
Writing at Work

When writing an essay or a report, it is important that you do not use excessive coordination. Workplace documents should be clear and concise, so only join two clauses that are logically connected and can work together to make one main point. If you repeat the same coordinating conjunction several times in a sentence, you are probably including more than one idea. This may make it difficult for readers to pick out the most important information in each sentence.

Subordination

Subordination joins two sentences with related ideas by merging them into a main clause (a complete sentence) and a dependent clause (a construction that relies on the main clause to complete its meaning). Coordination allows a writer to give equal weight to the two ideas that are being combined, and subordination enables a writer to emphasize one idea over the other. Take a look at the following sentences:

Original sentences: Tracy stopped to help the injured man. She would be late for work.

To illustrate that these two ideas are related, we can rewrite them as a single sentence using the subordinating conjunction even though

Revised sentence: Even though Tracy would be late for work, she stopped to help the injured man.

In the revised version, we now have an independent clause (she stopped to help the injured man) that stands as a complete sentence and a dependent clause (even though Tracy would be late for work) that is subordinate to the main clause. Notice that the revised sentence emphasizes the fact that Tracy stopped to help the injured man, rather than the fact she would be late for work. We could also write the sentence this way:

Revised sentence: Tracy stopped to help the injured man even though she would be late for work.

The meaning remains the same in both sentences, with the subordinating conjunction even though introducing the dependent clause.


**Tip**
To punctuate sentences correctly, look at the position of the main clause and the subordinate clause. If a subordinate clause precedes the main clause, use a comma. If the subordinate clause follows the main clause, no punctuation is required.

**Subordinating Conjunctions**
A subordinating conjunction is a word that joins a subordinate (dependent) clause to a main (independent) clause. Review the following chart of some common subordinating conjunctions and examples of how they are used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Subordinating Conjunction</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concession</td>
<td>although, while, though, whereas, even though</td>
<td>Sarah completed her report even though she had to stay late to get it done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition</td>
<td>if, unless, until</td>
<td>Until we know what is causing the problem, we will not be able to fix it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>as if, as, though</td>
<td>Everyone in the conference room stopped talking at once, as though they had been stunned into silence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>where, wherever</td>
<td>Rita is in San Jose where she has several important client meetings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason</td>
<td>because, since, so that, in order that</td>
<td>Because the air conditioning was turned up so high, everyone in the office wore sweaters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>after, before, while, once, when</td>
<td>After the meeting had finished, we all went to lunch.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise 2
Combine each sentence pair into a single sentence using a subordinating conjunction and then copy the combined sentence onto your own sheet of paper.

1. Jake is going to Mexico. There are beautiful beaches in Mexico.
2. A snowstorm disrupted traffic all over the east coast. There will be long delivery delays this week.
3. My neighbor had his television volume turned up too high. I banged on his door and asked him to keep the noise down.
4. Jessica prepared the potato salad and the sautéed vegetables. Ashley marinated the chicken.
5. Romeo poisons himself. Juliet awakes to find Romeo dead and stabs herself with a dagger.

Key Takeaways

• Variety in sentence structure and length improves writing by making it more interesting and more complex.

• Coordination and subordination join two sentences with related ideas.

• Coordination joins sentences with related and equal ideas, whereas subordination joins sentences with related but unequal ideas.

• Sentences can be coordinated using either a coordinating conjunction and a comma or a conjunctive adverb and a semicolon.

• Subordinate sentences are characterized by the use of a subordinate conjunction.

• In a subordinate sentence, a comma is used to separate the main clause from the dependent clause if the dependent clause is placed at the beginning of the sentence.

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
15.3 Common Sentence Errors

Introduction
In the previous section, we learned how to combine ideas into more complex sentences. When constructing sentences, errors can occur when elements are missing. The three most common sentence errors are as follows: fragments, subject-verb agreement, and run-on sentences. Next, we will learn to identify these common errors and how to make the necessary corrections.

Fragments
The sentences you have encountered so far have been independent clauses. As you look more closely at your past writing assignments, you may notice that some of your sentences are not complete. A sentence that is missing a subject or a verb is called a fragment. A fragment may include a description or may express part of an idea, but it does not express a complete thought.
**Chapter 15**  
**Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice**

**Fragment:** Children helping in the kitchen.

**Complete Sentence:** Children helping in the kitchen *often make a mess.*

You can easily fix a fragment by adding the missing subject or verb. In the example of a fragment above, the sentence was missing a verb.

Consider these tips:

Does the sentence contain a subject? If no, the sentence is a fragment. Add a subject. If yes, the sentence is a complete sentence.

Does the sentence contain a verb? If no, the sentence is a fragment. Add a verb. If yes, the sentence is a complete sentence.

See whether you can identify what is missing in the following fragments:

**Fragment:** Told her about the broken vase.

**Complete sentence:** I *told her about the broken vase.*

**Fragment:** The store down on Main Street.

**Complete sentence:** The store down on Main Street *sells music.*

**Common Fragment Constructions**

Fragments often occur because of some common error, such as starting a sentence with a *preposition, a dependent word, an infinitive,* or a *gerund.* If you use the six basic sentence patterns when you write, you should be able to avoid these errors and thus avoid writing fragments.

**Preposition Fragment**

When you see a preposition, check to see that it is part of a sentence containing a subject and a verb. If it is not connected to a complete sentence, it is a fragment, and you will need to fix this type of fragment by combining it with another sentence. You can add the prepositional phrase to the end of the sentence. If you add it to the beginning of the other sentence, insert a comma after the prepositional phrase.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Example A

Incorrect: After walking over two miles. John remembered his wallet.
Correct: After walking over two miles, John remembered his wallet.
Correct: John remembered his wallet after walking over two miles.

Example B

Incorrect: The dog growled at the vacuum cleaner. When it was switched on.
Correct: When the vacuum cleaner was switched on, the dog growled.
Correct: The dog growled at the vacuum cleaner when it was switched on.

Dependent Word Fragment
Clauses that start with a dependent word—such as since, because, without, or unless—are similar to prepositional phrases. Like prepositional phrases, these clauses can be fragments if they are not connected to an independent clause containing a subject and a verb. To fix the problem, you can add such a fragment to the beginning or end of a sentence. If the fragment is added at the beginning of a sentence, add a comma.

Incorrect: Because we lost power. The entire family overslept.
Correct: Because we lost power, the entire family overslept.
Correct: The entire family overslept because we lost power.

Incorrect: He has been seeing a physical therapist. Since his accident.
Correct: Since his accident, he has been seeing a physical therapist.
Correct: He has been seeing a physical therapist since his accident.

Gerund Fragment
When you encounter a word ending in -ing in a sentence, identify whether or not this word is used as a verb in the sentence. You may also look for a helping verb. If the word is not used as a verb or if no helping verb is used with the -ing verb form, the verb is being used as a noun. An -ing verb form used as a noun is called a gerund.
Editing fragments that begin with a gerund: Does the phrase contain a word that end in –ing? The answer must be yes does the –ing word have a helping verb? If yes, the –ing word is a verb. If no the –ing word is a gerund, a noun. Does the phrase make sense on its own? If yes, the sentence is a complete sentence. If no the phrase is a fragment. Both cases can be corrected by adding the missing part of speech or by combining with a nearby sentence.

**Incorrect:** Taking deep breaths. Saul prepared for his presentation.
**Correct:** Taking deep breaths, Saul prepared for his presentation.
**Correct:** Saul prepared for his presentation. He was taking deep breaths.

**Incorrect:** Congratulating the entire team. Sarah raised her glass to toast their success.
**Correct:** She was congratulating the entire team. Sarah raised her glass to toast their success.
**Correct:** Congratulating the entire team, Sarah raised her glass to toast their success.

**Infinitive Fragment**

Another error in sentence construction is a fragment that begins with an infinitive. An infinitive is a verb paired with the word to; for example, to run, to write, or to reach. Although infinitives are verbs, they can be used as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. You can correct a fragment that begins with an infinitive by either combining it with another sentence or adding the parts of speech that are missing.

**Incorrect:** We needed to make three hundred more paper cranes. To reach the one thousand mark.
**Correct:** We needed to make three hundred more paper cranes to reach the one thousand mark.
**Correct:** We needed to make three hundred more paper cranes. We wanted to reach the one thousand mark.
Exercise 1
Copy the following sentences onto your own sheet of paper and circle the fragments. Then combine the fragment with the independent clause to create a complete sentence.

1. Working without taking a break. We try to get as much work done as we can in an hour.
2. I needed to bring work home. In order to meet the deadline.
3. Unless the ground thaws before spring break. We won’t be planting any tulips this year.
4. Turning the lights off after he was done in the kitchen. Robert tries to conserve energy whenever possible.
5. You’ll find what you need if you look. On the shelf next to the potted plant.
6. To find the perfect apartment. Deidre scoured the classifieds each day.

Subject-Verb Agreement Errors
Errors in subject-verb agreement may occur when...

- sentence contains a compound subject;
- the subject of the sentence is separate from the verb;
- the subject of the sentence is an indefinite pronoun, such as anyone or everyone;
- the subject of the sentence is a collective noun, such as team or organization;
- the subject appears after the verb.

Recognizing the sources of common errors in subject-verb agreement will help you avoid these errors in your writing.

Common Errors in Subject-Verb Agreement

Compound Subjects
A compound subject is formed by two or more nouns and the coordinating conjunctions and, or, or nor. A compound subject can be made of singular subjects, plural subjects, or a combination of singular and plural subjects.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Compound subjects combined with *and* take a plural verb form.

**Two singular subject:** Alicia and Miguel *ride* their bikes to the beach.

**Two plural subjects:** The girls and the boys *ride* their bikes to the beach.

**Singular and plural subjects:** Alicia and the boys *ride* their bikes to the beach.

Compound subjects combined with *or* and *nor* are treated separately. The verb must agree with the subject that is nearest to the verb.

**Two singular subjects:** Neither Elizabeth nor Rianna *wants* to eat at that restaurant.

**Two plural Subjects:** Neither the kids nor the adults *want* to eat at that restaurant.

**Singular and plural subjects:** Neither Elizabeth nor the kids *want* to eat at that restaurant.

**Plural and singular subjects:** Neither the kids nor Elizabeth *wants* to eat at that restaurant.

**Two singular subjects:** Either you or Jason *takes* the furniture out of the garage.

**Two plural Subjects:** Either you or the twins *take* the furniture out of the garage.

**Singular and plural subjects:** Either Jason or the twins *take* the furniture out of the garage.

**Plural and singular subjects:** Either the twins or Jason *takes* the furniture out of the garage.

Tip
If you can substitute the word they for the compound subject, then the sentence takes the third person plural verb form.

**Separation of Subjects and Verbs**
As you read or write, you may come across a sentence that contains a phrase or clause that separates the subject from the verb. Often, prepositional phrases or dependent clauses add more information to the sentence and appear between the subject and the verb. However, the subject and the verb must still agree.

If you have trouble finding the subject and verb, cross out or ignore the phrases and clauses that begin with prepositions or dependent words. The subject of a sentence will never be in a prepositional phrase or dependent clause.

The following is an example of a subject and verb separated by a prepositional phrase:

The students with the best grades *win* the academic awards.
The puppy under the table *is* my favorite.
The following is an example of a subject and verb separated by a dependent clause:
The car that I bought has power steering and a sun roof.
The representatives who are courteous sell the most tickets.

**Indefinite Pronouns**
Indefinite pronouns refer to an unspecified person, thing, or number. When an indefinite pronoun serves as the subject of a sentence, you will often use a singular verb form.

However, keep in mind that exceptions arise. Some indefinite pronouns may require a plural verb form. To determine whether to use a singular or plural verb with an indefinite pronoun, consider the noun that the pronoun would refer to. If the noun is plural, then use a plural verb with the indefinite pronoun. View the chart to see a list of common indefinite pronouns and the verb forms they agree with.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indefinite Pronouns That Always Take a Singular Verb</th>
<th>Indefinite Pronouns That Can Take a Singular or Plural Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>anybody, anyone, anything</td>
<td>all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each</td>
<td>any</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>everybody, everyone, everything</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much</td>
<td>some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nobody, no one, nothing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>somebody, someone, something</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Singular: Everybody in the kitchen sings along when that song comes on the radio.
The indefinite pronoun everybody takes a singular verb form because everybody refers to a group performing the same action as a single unit.

Plural: All the people in the kitchen sing along when that song comes on the radio.
The indefinite pronoun all takes a plural verb form because all refers to the plural noun people.
Because people is plural, all is plural.

Singular: All the cake is on the floor.
In this sentence, the indefinite pronoun all takes a singular verb form because all refers to the singular noun cake. Because cake is singular, all is singular.

Collective Nouns
A collective noun is a noun that identifies more than one person, place, or thing and considers those people, places, or things one singular unit. Because collective nouns are counted as one, they are singular and require a singular verb. Some commonly used collective nouns are group, team, army, flock, family, and class.

Singular: The class is going on a field trip.
In this sentence, class is a collective noun. Although the class consists of many students, the class is treated as a singular unit and requires a singular verb form.

The Subject Follows the Verb
You may encounter sentences in which the subject comes after the verb instead of before the verb. In other words, the subject of the sentence may not appear where you expect it to appear. To ensure proper subject-verb agreement, you must correctly identify the subject and the verb.

Here or There
In sentences that begin with here or there, the subject follows the verb.

Here is my wallet!
There are thirty dolphins in the water.
If you have trouble identifying the subject and the verb in sentences that start with *here* or *there*; it may help to reverse the order of the sentence so the subject comes first.

My wallet *is* here!
Thirty dolphins *are* in the water.

**Questions**
When you ask questions, a question word (*who, what, where, when, why, or how*) appears first. The verb and then the subject follow.

Who *are* the people you are related to?
When *am* I going to go to the grocery store?

**Tip**
If you have trouble finding the subject and the verb in questions, try answering the question being asked.

When *am* I going to the grocery store? I *am* going to the grocery store tonight!

**Exercise 2**
Correct the errors in subject-verb agreement in the following paragraph. Copy the paragraph on a piece of notebook paper and make corrections.

Dear Hiring Manager,
I *feels* that I am the ideal candidate for the receptionist position at your company. I *has* three years of experience as a receptionist in a company that is similar to yours. My phone skills and written communication is excellent. These skills, and others that I have learned on the job, helps me understand that every person in a company helps make the business a success. At my current job, the team always say that I am very helpful. Everyone appreciate when I go the extra mile to get the job done right. My current employer and coworkers *feels* that I am an asset to the team. I *is* efficient and organized. Is there any other details about me that you would like to know? If so, please contact me. Here are my résumé. You can reach me by e-mail or phone. I looks forward to speaking with you in person.
Thanks,
Felicia Fellini
Run-on Sentences

Just as short, incomplete sentences can be problematic, lengthy sentences can be problematic too. Sentences with two or more independent clauses that have been incorrectly combined are known as run-on sentences, fused sentences, or comma splices.

Run-on sentence (missing comma):
A family of foxes lived under our shed and young foxes played all over the yard.

Fused sentence (missing comma and coordinating conjunction):
A family of foxes lived under our shed young foxes played all over the yard.

Comma splice (missing coordinating conjunction):
A family of foxes lived under our shed, young foxes played all over the yard.

Revising Run-on Sentences

There are three main ways to correct these errors:

1. Punctuation: Place a period or semicolon where independent clauses are joined. (Do not use a conjunction with this method.)
   A family of foxes lived under our shed. Young foxes played all over the yard.
   A family of foxes lived under our shed; young foxes played all over the yard.

2. Coordination: Place a comma and a coordinating conjunction between the two independent clauses.
   A family of foxes lived under our shed, and young foxes played all over the yard.

3. Subordination: Place a subordinating conjunction between the two independent clauses, or begin the sentence with a subordinating conjunction and place a comma where the two clauses are joined.
   Young foxes played all over the yard because a family of foxes lived under our shed.
   Because a family of foxes lived under our shed, young foxes played all over the yard.
A reader can get lost or lose interest in material that is too dense and rambling. Use what you have learned about run-on sentences to correct the following passages:

1. The report is due on Wednesday but we’re flying back from Miami that morning. I told the project manager that we would be able to get the report to her later that day she suggested that we come back a day early to get the report done and I told her we had meetings until our flight took off. We e-mailed our contact who said that they would check with his boss, she said that the project could afford a delay as long as they wouldn’t have to make any edits or changes to the file our new deadline is next Friday.

2. Anna tried getting a reservation at the restaurant, but when she called they said that there was a waiting list so she put our names down on the list when the day of our reservation arrived we only had to wait thirty minutes because a table opened up unexpectedly which was good because we were able to catch a movie after dinner in the time we’d expected to wait to be seated.

3. Without a doubt, my favorite artist is Leonardo da Vinci, not because of his paintings but because of his fascinating designs, models, and sketches, including plans for scuba gear, a flying machine, and a life-size mechanical lion that actually walked and moved its head. His paintings are beautiful too, especially when you see the computer enhanced versions researchers use a variety of methods to discover and enhance the paintings’ original colors, the result of which are stunningly vibrant and yet delicate displays of the man’s genius.

Key Takeaways

- Fragments and run-on sentences are two common errors in sentence construction.
- Fragments can be corrected by adding a missing subject or verb. Fragments that begin with a preposition or a dependent word can be corrected by combining the fragment with another sentence.
- Run-on sentences can be corrected by adding appropriate punctuation, a coordinating conjunction, or a subordinating conjunction.
15.4 Commas

Introduction
One of the punctuation clues to reading you may encounter is the comma. The comma is a punctuation mark that indicates a pause in a sentence or a separation of things in a list. Commas can be used in a variety of ways. Look at some of the following sentences to see how you might use a comma when writing a sentence.

- **Introductory word:** Personally, I think the practice is helpful.
- **Lists:** The barn, the tool shed, and the back porch were destroyed by the wind.
- **Coordinating adjectives:** He was tired, hungry, and late.
- **Conjunctions in compound sentences:** The bedroom door was closed, so the children knew their mother was asleep.
- **Interrupting words:** I knew where it was hidden, of course, but I wanted them to find it themselves.
- **Dates, addresses, greetings, and letters:** The letter was postmarked December 8, 1945.
Commas after an Introductory Word or Phrase
You may notice a comma that appears near the beginning of the sentence, usually after a word or phrase. This comma lets the reader know where the introductory word or phrase ends and the main sentence begins.

Example Sentence: Without spoiling the surprise, we need to tell her to save the date.

In this sentence, without spoiling the surprise is an introductory phrase, while we need to tell her to save the date is the main sentence. Notice how they are separated by a comma? When only an introductory word appears in the sentence, a comma also follows the introductory word.

Example Sentence: Ironically, she already had plans for that day.

цион Exercise 1
Look for the introductory word or phrase. On your own sheet of paper, copy the sentence and add a comma to correct the sentence.

1. Suddenly the dog ran into the house.
2. In the blink of an eye the kids were ready to go to the movies.
3. Confused he tried opening the box from the other end.
4. Every year we go camping in the woods.
5. Without a doubt green is my favorite color.
6. Hesitating she looked back at the directions before proceeding.
7. Fortunately the sleeping baby did not stir when the doorbell rang.
8. Believe it or not the criminal was able to rob the same bank three times.

Commas in a List of Items
When you want to list several nouns in a sentence, separate each word with a comma. This allows the reader to pause after each item and identify which words are included in the grouping. When you list items in a sentence, put a comma after each noun, and then add the word and before the last item. A comma should precede the word and before the final item in a list.

Example Sentence: We’ll need to get flour, tomatoes, and cheese at the store.
Example Sentence: The pizza will be topped with olives, peppers, and pineapple chunks.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Commas and Coordinating Adjectives
You can use commas to list both adjectives and nouns. A string of adjectives that describe a noun are called coordinating adjectives. These adjectives come before the noun they modify and are separated by commas. One important thing to note, however, is that unlike listing nouns, the word and does not always need to be before the last adjective.

Example Sentence: It was a bright, windy, clear day.
Example Sentence: Our kite glowed red, yellow, and blue in the morning sunlight.

❖ Exercise 2
On your own sheet of paper, use what you have learned so far about comma use to add commas to the following sentences.

1. Monday Tuesday and Wednesday are all booked with meetings.
2. It was a quiet uneventful unproductive day.
3. We’ll need to prepare statements for the Franks Todds and Smiths before their portfolio reviews next week.
4. Michael Nita and Desmond finished their report last Tuesday.
5. With cold wet aching fingers he was able to secure the sails before the storm.
6. He wrote his name on the board in clear precise delicate letters.

Commas before Conjunctions in Compound Sentences
Commas are sometimes used to separate two independent clauses. The comma comes after the first independent clause and is followed by a conjunction, such as for, and, or but.

Example Sentence: He missed class today, and he thinks he will be out tomorrow, too.
Example Sentence: He says his fever is gone, but he is still very tired.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

 Exercise 3
On your own sheet of paper, create a compound sentence by combining the two independent clauses with a comma and a coordinating conjunction.

1. The presentation was scheduled for Monday. The weather delayed the presentation for four days.
2. He wanted a snack before bedtime. He ate some fruit.
3. The patient is in the next room. I can hardly hear anything.
4. We could go camping for vacation. We could go to the beach for vacation.
5. I want to get a better job. I am taking courses at night.
6. I cannot move forward on this project. I cannot afford to stop on this project.
7. Patrice wants to stop for lunch. We will take the next exit to look for a restaurant.
8. I’ve got to get this paper done. I have class in ten minutes.
9. The weather was clear yesterday. We decided to go on a picnic.
10. I have never dealt with this client before. I know Leonardo has worked with them. Let’s ask Leonardo for his help.

Commas before and after Interrupting Words
In conversations, you might interrupt your train of thought by giving more details about what you are talking about. In a sentence, you might interrupt your train of thought with a word or phrase called interrupting words. Interrupting words can come at the beginning or middle of a sentence. When the interrupting words appear at the beginning of the sentence, a comma appears after the word or phrase.

Example Sentence: If you can believe it, people once thought the sun and planets orbited around Earth.
Example Sentence: Luckily, some people questioned that theory.

When interrupting words come in the middle of a sentence, they are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. You can determine where the commas should go by looking for the part of the sentence that is not essential for the sentence to make sense.

Example Sentence: An Italian astronomer, Galileo, proved that Earth orbited the sun.
Example Sentence: We have known, for hundreds of years now, that the Earth and other planets exist in a solar system.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

❖ Exercise 4
On your own sheet of paper, copy the sentence and insert commas to separate the interrupting words from the rest of the sentence.

1. I asked my neighbors the retired couple from Florida to bring in my mail.
2. Without a doubt his work has improved over the last few weeks.
3. Our professor Mr. Alamut drilled the lessons into our heads.
4. The meeting is at noon unfortunately which means I will be late for lunch.
5. We came in time for the last part of dinner but most importantly we came in time for dessert.
6. All of a sudden our network crashed and we lost our files.
7. Alex handed the wrench to me before the pipe comes loose again.

✈ Collaboration
Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.

Commas in Dates, Addresses, and the Greetings and Closings of Letters
You also use commas when you write the date, such as in cover letters and e-mails. Commas are used when you write the date, when you include an address, and when you greet someone.

If you are writing out the full date, add a comma after the day and before the year. You do not need to add a comma when you write the month and day or when you write the month and the year. If you need to continue the sentence after you add a date that includes the day and year, add a comma after the end of the date.

Examples:
The letter is postmarked May 4, 2016.
Her birthday is May 5.
He visited the country in July 2016.
I registered for the conference on March 7, 2016, so we should get our tickets soon.

You also use commas when you include addresses and locations. When you include an address in a sentence, be sure to place a comma after the street and after the city. Do not place a comma between the state and the zip code. Like a date, if you need to continue the sentence after adding the address, simply add a comma after the address.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Examples:
We moved to 4542 Boxcutter Lane, Hope, Missouri 70832.
After moving to Boston, Massachusetts, Eric used public transportation to get to work.

Greetings are also separated by commas. When you write an e-mail or a letter, you add a comma after the greeting word or the person’s name. You also need to include a comma after the closing, which is the word or phrase you put before your signature.

Examples:
Hello,
I would like more information about your job posting.
Thank you,
Anita Al-Sayf

Dear Mrs. Al-Sayf,
Thank you for your letter. Please read the attached document for details.
Sincerely,
Jack Fromont

Exercise 5
On your own sheet of paper, use what you have learned about using commas to edit the following letter.

March 27 2010
Alexa Marché
14 Taylor Drive Apt. 6
New Castle Maine 90342
Dear Mr. Timmons
Thank you for agreeing to meet with me. I am available on Monday the fifth. I can stop by your office at any time. Is your address still 7309 Marcourt Circle #501? Please get back to me at your earliest convenience.
Thank you
Alexa
Exercise 6

On your own sheet of paper, use what you have learned about comma usage to edit the following paragraphs.

1. My brother Nathaniel is a collector of many rare unusual things. He has collected lunch boxes limited edition books and hatpins at various points of his life. His current collection of unusual bottles has over fifty pieces. Usually he sells one collection before starting another.

2. Our meeting is scheduled for Thursday March 20. In that time we need to gather all our documents together. Alice is in charge of the timetables and schedules. Tom is in charge of updating the guidelines. I am in charge of the presentation. To prepare for this meeting please print out any e-mails faxes or documents you have referred to when writing your sample.

3. It was a cool crisp autumn day when the group set out. They needed to cover several miles before they made camp so they walked at a brisk pace. The leader of the group Garth kept checking his watch and their GPS location. Isabelle Raoul and Maggie took turns carrying the equipment while Carrie took notes about the wildlife they saw. As a result no one noticed the darkening sky until the first drops of rain splattered on their faces.

4. Please have your report complete and filed by April 15 2016. In your submission letter please include your contact information the position you are applying for and two people we can contact as references. We will not be available for consultation after April 10 but you may contact the office if you have any questions. Thank you HR Department.

Collaboration

Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.
Key Takeaways

- Punctuation marks provide visual cues to readers to tell them how to read a sentence. Punctuation marks convey meaning.
- Commas indicate a pause or a list in a sentence.
- A comma should be used after an introductory word to separate this word from the main sentence.
- A comma comes after each noun in a list. The word and is added before the last noun, which is not followed by a comma.
- A comma comes after every coordinating adjective except for the last adjective.
- Commas can be used to separate the two independent clauses in compound sentences as long as a conjunction follows the comma.
- Commas are used to separate interrupting words from the rest of the sentence.
- When you write the date, you add a comma between the day and the year. You also add a comma after the year if the sentence continues after the date.
- When they are used in a sentence, addresses have commas after the street address, and the city. If a sentence continues after the address, a comma comes after the zip code.
- When you write a letter, you use commas in your greeting at the beginning and in your closing at the end of your letter.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
15.5 Semicolons

Introduction
Another punctuation mark that you will encounter is the semicolon (;). Like most punctuation marks, the semicolon can be used in a variety of ways. The semicolon indicates a break in the flow of a sentence, but functions differently than a period or a comma. When you encounter a semicolon while reading aloud, this represents a good place to pause and take a breath.

Semicolons to Join Two Independent Clauses
Use a semicolon to combine two closely related independent clauses. Relying on a period to separate the related clauses into two shorter sentences could lead to choppy writing. Using a comma would create an awkward run-on sentence.

**Correct:** Be sure to wear clean, well-pressed clothes to the interview; appearances are important.
**Choppy:** Be sure to wear clean, well-pressed clothes to the interview. Appearances are important.
**Incorrect:** Be sure to wear clean, well-pressed clothes to the interview, appearances are important.
In this case, writing the independent clauses as two sentences separated by a period is correct. However, using a semicolon to combine the clauses can make your writing more interesting by creating a variety of sentence lengths and structures while preserving the flow of ideas.

**Semicolons to Join Items in a List**

You can also use a semicolon to join items in a list when the items in the list already require commas. Semicolons help the reader distinguish between items in the list.

**Correct:** The color combinations we can choose from are black, white, and grey; green, brown, and black; or red, green, and brown.

**Incorrect:** The color combinations we can choose from are black, white, and grey, green, brown, and black, or red, green, and brown.

By using semicolons in this sentence, the reader can easily distinguish between the three sets of colors.

**Tip**

Use semicolons to join two main clauses. Do not use semicolons with coordinating conjunctions such as *and, or, and but.*

**Exercise 1**

On your own sheet of paper, correct the following sentences by adding semicolons. If the sentence is correct as it is, write *OK.*

1. I did not notice that you were in the office I was behind the front desk all day.
2. Do you want turkey, spinach, and cheese roast beef, lettuce, and cheese or ham, tomato, and cheese?
3. Please close the blinds there is a glare on the screen.
4. Unbelievably, no one was hurt in the accident.
5. I cannot decide if I want my room to be green, brown, and purple green, black, and brown or green, brown, and dark red.
6. Let’s go for a walk the air is so refreshing.
Key Takeaways

- Use a semicolon to join two independent clauses.
- Use a semicolon to separate items in a list when those items already require a comma.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
15.6 Colons

Introduction
The colon (:) is another punctuation mark used to indicate a full stop. Use a colon to introduce lists, quotes, examples, and explanations. You can also use a colon after the greeting in business letters and memos.

Dear Hiring Manager:
To: Human Resources
From: Deanna Dean

Colons to Introduce a List
Use a colon to introduce a list of items. Introduce the list with an independent clause.

Example Sentences:
The team will tour three states: New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland.
I have to take four classes this semester: Composition, Statistics, Ethics, and Italian.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Colons to Introduce a Quotation
You can use a colon to introduce a quotation.

Example Sentence: Mark Twain said it best: “When in doubt, tell the truth.”

If a quotation is longer than forty words, skip a line after the colon and indent the left margin of the quotation five spaces. Because quotations longer than forty words use line spacing and indentation to indicate a quotation, quotation marks are not necessary.

Example Sentences:
My father always loved Mark Twain’s words:
There are basically two types of people. People who accomplish things, and people who claim to have accomplished things. The first group is less crowded.

Tip
Long quotations, which are forty words or more, are called block quotations. Block quotations frequently appear in longer essays and research papers.

Colons to Introduce Examples or Explanations
Use a colon to introduce an example or to further explain an idea presented in the first part of a sentence. The first part of the sentence must always be an independent clause; that is, it must stand alone as a complete thought with a subject and verb. Do not use a colon after phrases like such as or for example.

Correct: Our company offers many publishing services: writing, editing, and reviewing.
Incorrect: Our company offers many publishing services, such as: writing, editing, and reviewing.

Tip
Capitalize the first letter following a colon for a proper noun, the beginning of a quote, or the first letter of another independent clause. Do NOT capitalize if the information following the colon is not a complete sentence.
Proper noun: We visited three countries: Belize, Honduras, and El Salvador.
Beginning of a quote: My mother loved this line from Hamlet: “To thine own self be true.”
Two independent clauses: There are drawbacks to modern technology: My brother’s cell phone died and he lost a lot of phone numbers.
Incorrect: The recipe is simple: Tomato, basil, and avocado.

Exercise 1
On your own sheet of paper, correct the following sentences by adding semicolons or colons where needed. If the sentence does not need a semicolon or colon, write OK.

1. Don’t give up you never know what tomorrow brings.
2. Our records show that the patient was admitted on March 9, 2014 January 13, 2015 and November 16, 2015.
3. Allow me to introduce myself I am the greatest ice-carver in the world.
4. Where I come from there are three ways to get to the grocery store by car, by bus, and by foot.
5. Listen closely you will want to remember this speech.
6. I have lived in Sedona, Arizona Baltimore, Maryland and Knoxville, Tennessee.
7. The boss’s message was clear Lateness would not be tolerated.
8. Next semester, we will read some more contemporary authors, such as Vonnegut, Miller, and Orwell.
9. My little sister said what we were all thinking “We should have stayed home.”
10. Trust me I have done this before.

Key Takeaways
• Use a colon to introduce a list, quote, or example.
• Use a colon after a greeting in business letters and memos.

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
15.7 Apostrophes

Introduction
An apostrophe (’) is a punctuation mark that is used with a noun to show possession or to indicate where a letter has been left out to form a contraction.

Possession
An apostrophe and the letter s indicate who or what owns something. To show possession with a singular noun, add ’s.

Example Sentences:
Jen’s dance routine mesmerized everyone in the room.
The dog’s leash is hanging on the hook beside the door.
Jess’s sister is also coming to the party.
Notice that singular nouns that end in s still take the apostrophe s (’s) ending to show possession. To show possession with a plural noun that ends in s, just add an apostrophe (’). If the plural noun does not end in s, add an apostrophe and an s (’s).

**Plural noun that ends in s:** The drummers’ sticks all moved in the same rhythm, like a machine.

**Plural noun that does not end in s:** The people’s votes clearly showed that no one supported the management decision.

**Contractions**

A contraction is a word that is formed by combining two words. In a contraction, an apostrophe shows where one or more letters have been left out. Contractions are commonly used in informal writing but not in formal writing. See the following example:

I do not like ice cream.
I don’t like ice cream.

Notice how the words do and not have been combined to form the contraction don’t. The apostrophe shows where the o in not has been left out. See the following example:

We will see you later.
We’ll see you later.

Examples of commonly used contractions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>aren’t</th>
<th>are not</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>can’t</td>
<td>cannot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doesn’t</td>
<td>does not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>don’t</td>
<td>do not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isn’t</td>
<td>is not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he’ll</td>
<td>he will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’ll</td>
<td>I will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she’ll</td>
<td>she will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they’ll</td>
<td>they will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you’ll</td>
<td>you will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it’s</td>
<td>it is, it has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>let’s</td>
<td>let us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she’s</td>
<td>she is, she has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there’s</td>
<td>there is, there has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who’s</td>
<td>who is, who has</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tip
Be careful not to confuse *it’s* with *its*. *It’s* is a contraction of the words *it* and *is* or *it* and *has*. *Its* is a possessive pronoun.

Review the following sentences:
It’s cold and rainy outside. (It is cold and rainy outside.)
It’s been cold and rainy all week. (It has been cold and rainy all week.)
The cat was chasing its tail. (Shows that the tail belongs to the cat.)
When in doubt, substitute the words *it is* in a sentence. If sentence still makes sense, use the contraction *it’s*. 
Exercise 1
On your own sheet of paper, correct the following sentences by adding apostrophes. If the sentence is correct as it is, write OK.

1. What a beautiful child! She has her mother's eyes.”
2. My brother's wife is one of my best friends.
3. I couldn't believe it when I found out that I got the job!
4. My supervisor informed me that I wouldn't be able to take the days off.
5. Each of the students' responses were unique.
6. Wont you please join me for dinner tonight?

Key Takeaways
- Use apostrophes to show possession. Add ‘s to singular nouns and plural nouns that do not end in s. Add ’ to plural nouns that end in s.
- Use apostrophes in contractions to show where a letter or letters have been left out.

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

15.8 Quotation Marks and Quotations

Introduction
Quotation marks (" ") set off a group of words from the rest of the text. Use quotation marks to indicate direct quotations of another person’s words or to indicate a title. Quotation marks always appear in pairs.

Direct Quotations
A direct quotation is an exact account of what someone said or wrote. To include a direct quotation in your writing, enclose the words in quotation marks. An indirect quotation is a restatement of what someone said or wrote. An indirect quotation does not use the person’s exact words; Therefore, you do not need to use quotation marks for indirect quotations.

Direct quotation: Carly said, “I’m not ever going back there again.”
Indirect quotation: Carly said that she would never go back there.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Writing at Work
Most word processing software is designed to catch errors in grammar, spelling, and punctuation. While this can be a useful tool, it is better to be well acquainted with the rules of punctuation than to leave the thinking to the computer. Properly punctuated writing will convey your meaning clearly. Consider the subtle shifts in meaning in the following sentences.

- The client said he thought our manuscript was garbage.
- The client said, “He thought our manuscript was garbage.”

The first sentence reads as an indirect quote in which the client does not like the manuscript. But did he actually use the word “garbage”? (This would be alarming!) Or has the speaker paraphrased (and exaggerated) the client’s words? The second sentence reads as a direct quote from the client. But who is “he” in this sentence? Is it a third party?

Word processing software would not catch this because the sentences are not grammatically incorrect. However, the meanings of the sentences are not the same. Understanding punctuation will help you write what you mean, and in this case, could save a lot of confusion around the office!

Punctuating Direct Quotations
Quotation marks show readers another person’s exact words. Often, you will want to identify who is speaking. You can do this at the beginning, middle, or end of the quote. Notice the use of commas and capitalized words.

Beginning: Madison said, “Let’s stop at the farmers market to buy some fresh vegetables for dinner.”
Middle: “Let’s stop at the farmers market,” Madison said, “to buy some fresh vegetables for dinner.”
End: “Let’s stop at the farmers market to buy some fresh vegetables for dinner,” Madison said.
Speaker not identified: “Let’s stop at the farmers market to buy some fresh vegetables for dinner.”

Always capitalize the first letter of a quote even if it is not the beginning of the sentence. When using identifying words in the middle of the quote, the beginning of the second part of the quote does not need to be capitalized.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Use commas between identifying words and quotes. Quotation marks must be placed after commas and periods. Place quotation marks after question marks and exclamation points only if the question or exclamation is part of the quoted text.

Question is part of quoted text: The new employee asked, “When is lunch?”
Question is not part of quoted text: Did you hear her say you were “the next Picasso”?
Exclamation is part of quoted text: My supervisor beamed, “Thanks for all of your hard work!”
Exclamation is not part of quoted text: He said I “single-handedly saved the company thousands of dollars”!

Quotations within Quotations
Use single quotation marks (‘ ’) to show a quotation within a quotation.

Example Sentences:
Theresa said, “I wanted to take my dog to the festival, but the man at the gate said, ‘No dogs allowed.’”
“When you say, ‘I can’t help it,’ what exactly does that mean?”
“The instructions say, ‘Tighten the screws one at a time.’”

Titles
Use quotation marks around titles of short works of writing, such as essays, songs, poems, short stories, and chapters in books. Usually, titles of longer works, such as books, magazines, albums, newspapers, and novels, are italicized.

Example Sentences:
“Annabelle Lee” is one of my favorite romantic poems.
The New York Times has been in publication since 1851.
Exercise 1
Copy the following sentences onto your own sheet of paper, and correct them by adding quotation marks where necessary. If the sentence does not need any quotation marks, write OK.

1. Yasmin said, I don’t feel like cooking. Let’s go out to eat.
2. Where should we go? said Russell.
3. Yasmin said it didn’t matter to her.
4. I know, said Russell, let’s go to the Two Roads Juice Bar.
5. Perfect! said Yasmin.
6. Did you know that the name of the Juice Bar is a reference to a poem? asked Russell.
7. I didn’t! exclaimed Yasmin. Which poem?
8. The Road Not Taken, by Robert Frost Russell explained.
9. Oh! said Yasmin, Is that the one that starts with the line, Two roads diverged in a yellow wood?
10. That’s the one said Russell.

Key Takeaways
- Use quotation marks to enclose direct quotes and titles of short works.
- Use single quotation marks to enclose a quote within a quote.
- Do not use any quotation marks for indirect quotations.

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

15.9 Commonly Confused Words

Introduction
Just as a mason uses bricks to build sturdy homes, writers use words to build successful documents. Consider the construction of a building. Builders need to use tough, reliable materials to build a solid and structurally sound skyscraper. From the foundation to the roof and every floor in between, every part is necessary. Writers need to use strong, meaningful words from the first sentence to the last and in every sentence in between.

You already know many words that you use everyday as part of your writing and speaking vocabulary. You probably also know that certain words fit better in certain situations. Letters, e-mails, and even quickly jotted grocery lists require the proper selection of vocabulary. Imagine you are writing a grocery list to purchase the ingredients for a recipe but accidentally write down cilantro when the recipe calls for parsley. Even though cilantro and parsley look remarkably alike, each produces a very different effect in food. This seemingly small error could radically alter the flavor of your dish!

Having a solid everyday vocabulary will help you while writing, but learning new words and avoiding common word errors will make a real impression on your readers. Experienced writers know that deliberate, careful word selection and usage can lead to more polished, more meaningful work. This chapter covers word choice and vocabulary-building strategies that will improve your writing.
Commonly Confused Words

Some words in English cause trouble for speakers and writers because these words share a similar pronunciation, meaning, or spelling with another word. These words are called commonly confused words. For example, read aloud the following sentences containing the commonly confused words new and knew:

Example Sentences:

I liked her new sweater.
I knew she would wear that sweater today.

These words may sound alike when spoken, but they carry entirely different usages and meanings. New is an adjective that describes the sweater, and knew is the past tense of the verb to know.

Recognizing Commonly Confused Words

Commonly Confused Words

A, An, And

- A (article). Used before a word that begins with a consonant.
  a key, a mouse, a screen
- An (article). Used before a word that begins with a vowel.
  an airplane, an ocean, an igloo
- And (conjunction). Connects two or more words together.
  peanut butter and jelly, pen and pencil, jump and shout

Accept, Except

- Accept (verb). Means to take or agree to something offered.
  They accepted our proposal for the conference.
- Except (conjunction). Means only or but.
  We could fly there except the tickets cost too much.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Affect, Effect

- *Affect* (verb). Means to create a change.
  Hurricane winds *affect* the amount of rainfall.
- *Effect* (noun). Means an outcome or result.
  The heavy rains will have an *effect* on the crop growth.

Are, Our

- *Are* (verb). A conjugated form of the verb *to be*.
  My cousins *are* all tall and blonde.
- *Our* (pronoun). Indicates possession, usually follows the pronoun *we*.
  We will bring *our* cameras to take pictures.

By, Buy

- *By* (preposition). Means next to.
  My glasses are *by* the bed.
  I will *buy* new glasses after the doctor’s appointment.

Its, It’s

- *Its* (pronoun). A form of *it* that shows possession.
  The butterfly flapped *its* wings.
- *It’s* (contraction). Joins the words *it* and *is*.
  *It’s* the most beautiful butterfly I have ever seen.

Know, No

- *Know* (verb). Means to understand or possess knowledge.
  I *know* the male peacock sports the brilliant feathers.
- *No*. Used to make a negative.
  I have *no* time to visit the zoo this weekend.

Loose, Lose

- *Loose* (adjective). Describes something that is not tight or is detached.
  Without a belt, her pants are *loose* on her waist.
- *Lose* (verb). Means to forget, to give up, or to fail to earn something.
  She will *lose* even more weight after finishing the marathon training.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Of, Have

• *Of* (preposition). Means *from* or *about*.
  I studied maps of the city to know where to rent a new apartment.

• *Have* (verb). Means to possess something.
  I have many friends to help me move.

• *Have* (linking verb). Used to connect verbs.
  I should have helped her with that heavy box.

Quite, Quiet, Quit

• *Quite* (adverb). Means *really* or *truly*.
  My work will require quite a lot of concentration.

• *Quiet* (adjective). Means not loud.
  I need a quiet room to complete the assignments.

• *Quit* (verb). Means to stop or to end.
  I will quit when I am hungry for dinner.

Right, Write

• *Right* (adjective). Means proper or correct.
  When bowling, she practices the right form.

• *Right* (adjective). Also means the opposite of left.
  The ball curved to the right and hit the last pin.

• *Write* (verb). Means to communicate on paper.
  After the team members bowl, I will write down their scores.

Set, Sit

• *Set* (verb). Means to put an item down.
  She set the mug on the saucer.

• *Set* (noun). Means a group of similar objects.
  All the mugs and saucers belonged in a set.

• *Sit* (verb). Means to lower oneself down on a chair or another place
  I’ll sit on the sofa while she brews the tea.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Suppose, Supposed

- *Suppose* (verb). Means to think or to consider
  
  *I suppose* I will bake the bread, because no one else has the recipe.

- *Suppose* (verb). Means to suggest.
  
  *Suppose* we all split the cost of the dinner.

- *Supposed* (verb). The past tense form of the verb suppose, meaning required or allowed.
  
  She was *supposed* to create the menu.

Than, Then

- *Than* (conjunction). Used to connect two or more items when comparing
  
  Registered nurses require less schooling *than* doctors.

- *Then* (adverb). Means next or at a specific time.
  
  Doctors first complete medical school and *then* obtain a residency.

Their, They’re, There

- *Their* (pronoun). A form of *they* that shows possession.
  
  The dog walker feeds *their* dogs everyday at two o’clock.

- *They’re* (contraction). Joins the words *they* and *are*.
  
  *They’re* the sweetest dogs in the neighborhood.

- *There* (adverb). Indicates a particular place.
  
  The dogs’ bowls are over *there*, next to the pantry.

- *There* (pronoun). Indicates the presence of something
  
  *There* are more treats if the dogs behave.

To, Two, Too

- *To* (preposition). Indicates movement.
  
  Let’s go *to* the circus.

- *To* (preposition). A word that completes an infinitive verb.
  
  *To* play, *to* ride, *to* watch.

- *Two* (adjective). The number after one. It describes how many.
  
  *Two* clowns squirted the elephants with water.

- *Too* (adverb). Means *also* or *very*.
  
  The tents were *too* loud, and we left.
Use, Used

- **Use** (verb). Means to apply for some purpose.
  - We **use** a weed whacker to trim the hedges.
- **Used**. The past tense form of the verb *to use*
  - He **used** the lawnmower last night before it rained.
- **Used to**. Indicates something done in the past but not in the present
  - He **used to** hire a team to landscape, but now he landscapes alone.

Who’s, Whose

- **Who’s** (contraction). Joins the words *who* and either *is* or *has*.
  - **Who’s** the new student? **Who’s** met him?
- **Whose** (pronoun). A form of *who* that shows possession.
  - **Whose** schedule allows them to take the new student on a campus tour?

Your, You’re

- **Your** (pronoun). A form of *you* that shows possession.
  - **Your** book bag is unzipped.
- **You’re** (contraction). Joins the words *you* and *are*.
  - **You’re** the girl with the unzipped book bag.

The English language contains so many words; no one can say for certain how many words exist. In fact, many words in English are borrowed from other languages. Many words have multiple meanings and forms, further expanding the immeasurable number of English words. Although the list of commonly confused words serves as a helpful guide, even these words may have more meanings than shown here. When in doubt, consult an expert: the dictionary!
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Exercise 1
Complete the following sentences by selecting the correct word.

1. My little cousin turns ________(to, too, two) years old tomorrow.

2. The next-door neighbor’s dog is ________(quite, quiet, quit) loud. He barks constantly throughout the night.

3. ________(Your, You’re) mother called this morning to talk about the party.

4. I would rather eat a slice of chocolate cake ________(than, then) eat a chocolate muffin.

5. Before the meeting, he drank a cup of coffee and ________(than, then) brushed his teeth.

6. Do you have any ________(loose, lose) change to pay the parking meter?

7. Father must ________(have, of) left his briefcase at the office.

8. Before playing ice hockey, I was ________(suppose, supposed) to read the contract, but I only skimmed it and signed my name quickly, which may ________(affect, effect) my understanding of the rules.

9. Tonight she will ________(set, sit) down and ________(right, write) a cover letter to accompany her résumé and job application.

10. It must be fall, because the leaves ________(are, our) changing, and ________(it’s, its) getting darker earlier.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Strategies to Avoid Commonly Confused Words
When writing, you need to choose the correct word according to its spelling and meaning in the context. Not only does selecting the correct word improve your vocabulary and your writing, but it also makes a good impression on your readers. It also helps reduce confusion and improve clarity. The following strategies can help you avoid misusing confusing words.

1. **Use a dictionary.** Keep a dictionary at your desk while you write. Look up words when you are uncertain of their meanings or spellings. Many dictionaries are also available online, and the Internet’s easy access will not slow you down. Check out your cell phone or smartphone to see if a dictionary app is available. Dictionary.com is a popular one that is easy to use.

2. **Keep a list of words you commonly confuse.** Be aware of the words that often confuse you. When you notice a pattern of confusing words, keep a list nearby, and consult the list as you write. Check the list again before you submit an assignment to your instructor.

3. **Study the list of commonly confused words.** You may not yet know which words confuse you, but before you sit down to write, study the words on the list. Prepare your mind for working with words by reviewing the commonly confused words identified in this chapter.

—at Work
All employers value effective communication. From an application to an interview to the first month on the job, employers pay attention to your vocabulary. You do not need a large vocabulary to succeed, but you do need to be able to express yourself clearly and avoid commonly misused words.

When giving an important presentation on the effect of inflation on profit margins, you must know the difference between *effect* and *affect* and choose the correct word. When writing an e-mail to confirm deliveries, you must know if the shipment will arrive in *to* days, *too* days, or *two* days. Confusion may arise if you choose the wrong word.

Consistently using the proper words will improve your communication and make a positive impression on your boss and colleagues.
Exercise 2

The following paragraph contains eleven errors. Find each misused word and correct it by adding the proper word.

The original United States Declaration of Independence sets in a case at the Rotunda for the Charters of Freedom as part of the National Archives in Washington, DC. Since 1952, over one million visitors each year passed through the Rotunda to snap a photograph to capture their experience. Although signs state, “No Flash Photography,” forgetful tourists leave the flash on, at a bright light flickers for just a millisecond. This millisecond of light may not seem like enough to effect the precious document, but supposed how much light could be generated when all those milliseconds are added up. According to the National Archives administrators, it’s enough to significantly damage the historic document. So, now, the signs display a different message: “No Photography.” Visitors continue to travel to see the Declaration that began our country, but know longer can personal pictures serve as mementos. The administrators’ compromise, they say, is a visit to the gift shop for a preprinted photograph.

Collaboration

Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.

Key Takeaways

- In order to write accurately, it is important for writers to be aware of commonly confused words.
- Although commonly confused words may look alike or sound alike, their meanings are very different.
- Consulting the dictionary is one way to make sure you are using the correct word in your writing. You may also keep a list of commonly confused words nearby when you write or study the chart in this book.
- Choosing the proper words leaves a positive impression on your readers.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
15.10 Word Choice

Introduction
Effective writing involves making conscious choices with words. When you prepare to sit down to write your first draft, you likely have already completed some freewriting exercises, chosen your topic, developed your thesis statement, written an outline, and even selected your sources. When it is time to write your first draft, start to consider which words to use to best convey your ideas to the reader.

Some writers are picky about word choice as they start drafting. They may practice some specific strategies, such as using a dictionary and thesaurus, using words and phrases with proper connotations, and avoiding slang, clichés, and overly general words.

Once you understand these tricks of the trade, you can move ahead confidently in writing your assignment. Remember, the skill and accuracy of your word choice is a major factor in developing your writing style. Precise selection of your words will help you be more clearly understood—in both writing and speaking.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Using a Dictionary and Thesaurus

Even professional writers need help with the meanings, spellings, pronunciations, and uses of particular words. In fact, they rely on dictionaries to help them write better. No one knows every word in the English language and their multiple uses and meanings, so all writers, from novices to professionals, can benefit from the use of dictionaries.

Most dictionaries provide the following information:

- **Spelling.** How the word and its different forms are spelled.
- **Pronunciation.** How to say the word.
- **Part of speech.** The function of the word.
- **Definition.** The meaning of the word.
- **Synonyms.** Words that have similar meanings.
- **Etymology.** The history of the word.

Look at the following sample dictionary entry and see which of the preceding information you can identify:

**myth, mith, n.** [Gr. *mythos*, a word, a fable, a legend.] A fable or legend embodying the convictions of a people as to their gods or other divine beings, their own beginnings and early history and the heroes connected with it, or the origin of the world; any invented story; something or someone having no existence in fact.—**myth • ic, myth • i • cal**

Like a dictionary, a thesaurus is another indispensable writing tool. A thesaurus gives you a list of synonyms, words that have the same (or very close to the same) meaning as another word. It also lists antonyms, words with the opposite meaning of the word. A thesaurus will help you when you are looking for the perfect word with just the right meaning to convey your ideas. It will also help you learn more words and use the ones you already know more correctly.

**precocious adj,** *She's such a precocious little girl!:* uncommonly smart, mature, advanced, smart, bright, brilliant, gifted, quick, clever, apt.

*Ant.* slow, backward, stupid.
Using Proper Connotations

A denotation is the dictionary definition of a word. A connotation, on the other hand, is the emotional or cultural meaning attached to a word. The connotation of a word can be positive, negative, or neutral. Keep in mind the connotative meaning when choosing a word. For example, would you rather be called clever or sneaky? More than likely, you selected clever. These two words have a similar denotation; however, they have a different connotation. *Clever* is a more positive word than *sneaky*.

Read the examples below:

Scrawny

- **Denotation**: Exceptionally thin and slight or meager in body or size.
- **Word used in a sentence**: Although he was a premature baby and a *scrawny* child, Martin has developed into a strong man.
- **Connotation**: (Negative) In this sentence the word *scrawny* may have a negative connotation in the readers’ minds. They might find it to mean a weakness or a personal flaw; however, the word fits into the sentence appropriately.

Skinny

- **Denotation**: Lacking sufficient flesh, very thin.
- **Word used in a sentence**: *Skinny* jeans have become very fashionable in the past couple of years.
- **Connotation**: (Positive) Based on cultural and personal impressions of what it means to be skinny, the reader may have positive connotations of the word *skinny*.

Lean

- **Denotation**: Lacking or deficient in flesh; containing little or no fat.
- **Word used in a sentence**: My brother has a *lean* figure, whereas I have a more muscular build.
- **Connotation**: (Neutral) In this sentence, *lean* has a neutral connotation. It does not call to mind an overly skinny person like the word *scrawny*, nor does imply the positive cultural impressions of the word *skinny*. It is merely a neutral descriptive word.

Notice that all the words have a very similar denotation; however, the connotations of each word differ.
Chapter 15
Grammar, Punctuation, and Word Choice

Avoiding Slang
Slang describes informal words that are considered nonstandard English. Slang often changes with passing fads and may be used by or familiar to only a specific group of people. Most people use slang when they speak and in personal correspondences, such as e-mails, text messages, and instant messages. Slang is appropriate between friends in an informal context but should be avoided in formal academic writing.

✍ Writing at Work
Frequent exposure to media and popular culture has desensitized many of us to slang. In certain situations, using slang at work may not be problematic, but keep in mind that words can have a powerful effect. Slang in professional e-mails or during meetings may convey the wrong message or even mistakenly offend someone.

🔗 Exercise 1
Edit the following paragraph by replacing the slang words and phrases with more formal language. Rewrite the paragraph on your own sheet of paper.

I felt like such an airhead when I got up to give my speech. As I walked toward the podium, I banged my knee on a chair. Man, I felt like such a klutz. On top of that, I kept saying “like” and “um,” and I could not stop fidgeting. I was so stressed out about being up there. I feel like I’ve been practicing this speech 24/7, and I still bombed. It was ten minutes of me going off about how we sometimes have to do things we don’t enjoy doing. Wow, did I ever prove my point. My speech was so bad I’m surprised that people didn’t boo. My teacher said not to sweat it, though. Everyone gets nervous his or her first time speaking in public, and she said, with time, I would become a whiz at this speech giving stuff. I wonder if I have the guts to do it again.

🔗 Collaboration
Please share with a classmate and compare your answers.
Avoiding Clichés

Clichés are descriptive expressions that have lost their effectiveness because they are overused. Some examples include the following: running out of time, a dime a dozen, my heart stopped, or think outside the box. Writing that uses clichés often suffers from a lack of originality and insight. Avoiding clichés in formal writing will help you write in original and fresh ways.

- **Clichéd:** Whenever my brother and I get into an argument, he always says something that makes my **blood boil**.
- **Plain:** Whenever my brother and I get into an argument, he always says something that makes me really angry.
- **Original:** Whenever my brother and I get into an argument, he always says something that makes me want to go to the gym and punch the bag for a few hours.

**Tip**

Think about all the cliché phrases that you hear in popular music or in everyday conversation. What would happen if these clichés were transformed into something unique?

**Exercise 2**

On your own sheet of paper, revise the following sentences by replacing the clichés with fresh, original descriptions.

1. She is writing a memoir in which she will air her family’s dirty laundry.
2. Fran had an ax to grind with Benny, and she planned to confront him that night at the party.
3. Mr. Muller was at his wit’s end with the rowdy class of seventh graders.
4. The bottom line is that Greg was fired because he missed too many days of work.
5. Sometimes it is hard to make ends meet with just one paycheck.
6. My brain is fried from pulling an all-nighter.
7. Maria left the dishes in the sink all week to give Jeff a taste of his own medicine.
8. While they were at the carnival Janice exclaimed, “Time sure does fly when you are having fun!”
9. Jeremy became tongue-tied after the interviewer asked him where he saw himself in five years.
10. Jordan was dressed to the nines that night.
Avoiding Overly General Words

Specific words and images make your writing more interesting to read. Whenever possible, avoid overly general words in your writing; instead, try to replace general language with particular nouns, verbs, and modifiers that convey details and that bring your words to life. Add words that provide color, texture, sound, and even smell to your writing.

- **General:** My new puppy is cute.
- **Specific:** My new puppy is a ball of white fuzz with the biggest black eyes I have ever seen.
- **General:** My teacher told us that plagiarism is bad.
- **Specific:** My teacher, Ms. Atwater, created a presentation detailing exactly how plagiarism is illegal and unethical.

**Exercise 3**

Revise the following sentences by replacing the overly general words with more precise and attractive language. Write the new sentences on your own sheet of paper.

1. Reilly got into her car and drove off.
2. I would like to travel to outer space because it would be amazing.
3. Jane came home after a bad day at the office.
4. I thought Milo’s essay was fascinating.
5. The dog walked up the street.
6. The coal miners were tired after a long day.
7. The tropical fish are pretty.
8. I sweat a lot after running.
9. The goalie blocked the shot.
10. I enjoyed my Mexican meal.
Key Takeaways

- Using a dictionary and thesaurus as you write will improve your writing by improving your word choice.
- Connotations of words may be positive, neutral, or negative.
- Slang, clichés, and overly general words should be avoided in academic writing.

Writing at Work

Review a piece of writing that you have completed for school. Circle any sentences with slang, clichés, or overly general words and rewrite them using stronger language.

License Information

This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
15.11 Parallelism

Introduction
Earlier in this chapter, we learned that increasing sentence variety adds interest to a piece of writing and makes the reading process more enjoyable for others. Using a mixture of sentence lengths and patterns throughout an essay is an important writing technique. However, it is equally important to avoid introducing variation within individual sentences. A strong sentence is composed of balanced parts that all have the same structure. In this section, we will examine how to create a balanced sentence structure by using parallelism.

Using Parallelism
Parallelism is the use of similar structure in related words, clauses, or phrases. It creates a sense of rhythm and balance within a sentence. As readers, we often correct faulty parallelism—a lack of parallel structure—intuitively because an unbalanced sentence sounds awkward and poorly constructed. Read the following sentences aloud:

**Faulty parallelism:** Kelly had to iron, do the washing, and shopping before her parents arrived.
**Faulty parallelism:** Driving a car requires coordination, patience, and to have good eyesight.
**Faulty parallelism:** Ali prefers jeans to wearing a suit.
All of these sentences contain faulty parallelism. Although they are factually correct, the construction is clunky and confusing. In the first example, three different verb forms are used. In the second and third examples, the writer begins each sentence by using a noun (coordination, jeans), but ends with a phrase (to have good eyesight, wearing a suit). Now read the same three sentences that have correct parallelism.

Correct parallelism: Kelly had to do the ironing, washing, and shopping before her parents arrived.
Correct parallelism: Driving a car requires coordination, patience, and good eyesight.
Correct parallelism: Ali prefers wearing jeans to wearing a suit.

When these sentences are written using a parallel structure, they sound more aesthetically pleasing because they are balanced. Repetition of grammatical construction also minimizes the amount of work the reader has to do to decode the sentence. This enables the reader to focus on the main idea in the sentence and not on how the sentence is put together.

Tip
A simple way to check for parallelism in your writing is to make sure you have paired nouns with nouns, verbs with verbs, prepositional phrases with prepositional phrases, and so on. Underline each element in a sentence and check that the corresponding element uses the same grammatical form.

Key Takeaways

• Parallelism creates a sense of rhythm and balance in writing by using the same grammatical structure to express equal ideas.

• Faulty parallelism occurs when elements of a sentence are not balanced, causing the sentence to sound clunky and awkward.

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
15.12 Practice

Links to Practice Exercises
To practice these grammar and punctuation conventions, visit one of these websites:

2. Purdue Online Writing Lab: https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/

License Information
This is a derivative of Writing for Success by a publisher who has requested that they and the original author not receive attribution, originally released and is used under CC BY-NC-SA. This work, unless otherwise expressly stated, is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License.
Meet the OER Team

Joseph Mold
Director of Online Learning
moldj@baycollege.edu

Shawn Curtin
Digital Technology Coordinator
shawn.curtin@baycollege.edu

Amber Kinonen
English Faculty
kinonen@baycollege.edu

Jennifer McCann
English Faculty
mccannj@baycollege.edu

Todd McCann
English Faculty
mccannt@baycollege.edu

Erica Mead
Writing & General Ed. Specialist
meade@baycollege.edu

How to Use this Material

License
Share — Copy and redistribute the material in any medium or format
Adapt — Remix, transform, and build upon the material for any purpose, even commercially. The licensor cannot revoke these freedoms as long as you follow the license terms.

Terms
Attribution — You must give appropriate credit, provide a link to the license, and indicate if changes were made. You may do so in any reasonable manner, but not in any way that suggests the licensor endorses you or your use.

No Additional Restrictions — You may not apply legal terms or technological measures that legally restrict others from doing anything the license permits.

Notices
You do not have to comply with the license for elements of the material in the public domain or where your use is permitted by an applicable exception or limitation.

No warranties are given. The license may not give you all of the permissions necessary for your intended use. For example, other rights such as publicity, privacy, or moral rights may limit how you use the material.