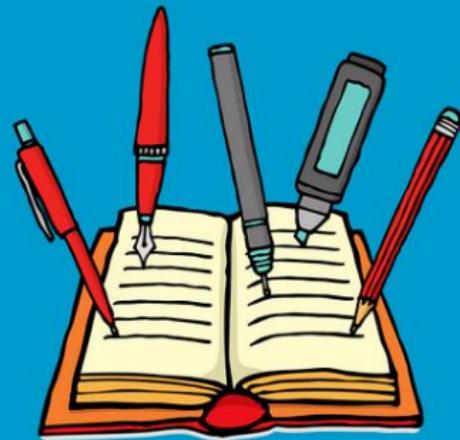


# Writing skills

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# The outline of training program

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1. Concepts & definitions of “ Writing skills”
2. The Writing Process
3. Punctuation marks
4. Writing a paragraph statement?
5. How to write a professional essay?

## “Concepts & Definitions of “Writing skills”

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- ✓ Writing skills are specific abilities which help writers put their thoughts into words in a meaningful form and to mentally interact with the message

## “Concepts & dimensions of writing skills”

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- ✓ Most students think that writing is difficult, boring, and not important in their life. Student are usually scared to express their mind and they are scared to fail
  
- ✓ However, writing skills is so important to their career and development more than any other skill

# What is the writing skills?

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**Writing skills is the ability to express ideas through the written word.**

The ability to clearly communicate ideas through writing is in high demand for employers in any industry

# What is academic writing?

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Academic writing is, essentially, the writing you have to do for your university courses.

Your instructors may have different names for academic writing assignments (essay, paper, research paper, term paper, argumentative paper/essay, analysis paper/essay, informative essay, position paper), but all of these assignments have the same goal and principles

# Why Academic Writing?

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An academic writing assignment is supposed to be your opportunity to explore something that interests you from your course.

You have freedom to choose a topic, empty pages on which to express your own ideas, and an audience that is interested in reading what you think.

# 10 Principles of Academic Writing

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1. Clear Purpose
  - a. Persuasive purpose
  - b. Analytical purpose
  - c. Informative purpose
- 2) Audience Engagement
- 3) Clear Point of View
- 4) Single Focus.

■ Every part in your paper will support your thesis statement. There will be no unnecessary, irrelevant, unimportant or contradictory information

# 10 Principles of Academic Writing

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## 5) Logical Organization

- a. The introduction catches the readers' attention, provides background information
- b. The body paragraphs support the thesis statement
- c. The conclusion summarizes the paper's thesis and main points

# 10 Principles of Academic Writing

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6. Clear and Complete Explanations

7. Effective Use of Research

8. Correct APA Style

9. Writing Style. Because this is your work, you should use your own words whenever possible

10. Always follow the direction of your instructor

# The Writing Process

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1. Choose a topic.
2. Think (brainstorm).
3. Research.
4. Discover your thesis.
5. Plan (outline).
6. Write.
7. Revise.
8. Edit.
9. Proofread

# **PART I**

Writing a Paragraph

# Chapter 1

## Paragraph Structure

# Introduction

- A paragraph is a group of related sentences that discuss one (and usually only one) main idea. A paragraph can be as short as one sentence or as long as ten sentences. The number of sentences is unimportant; however, the paragraph should be long enough to develop the main idea clearly.
- We mark a paragraph by indenting the first word about a half inch (five spaces on a typewriter or computer) from the left margin.

# The Three Parts of a Paragraph

- All paragraphs have a topic sentence and supporting sentences, and some paragraphs also have a concluding sentence.
- The topic sentence states the main idea of the paragraph. It not only names the topic of the paragraph, but it also limits the topic to one specific area that can be discussed completely in the space of a single paragraph. The part of the topic sentence that announces the specific area to be discussed is called the controlling idea.
- Example:

TOPIC

Gold, a precious metal, is prized for two important characteristics.

CONTROLLING IDEA

## The Three Parts of a Paragraph

- Supporting sentences develop the topic sentence. That is, they explain or prove the topic sentence by giving more information about it. Example:

First of all, gold has a lustrous beauty that is resistant to corrosion.

- The **concluding** sentence signals the end of the paragraph and leaves the reader with important points to remember:

In conclusion, gold is treasured not only for its beauty but also for its utility.

# The Topic Sentence

- A topic sentence is the most important sentence in a paragraph. It briefly indicates what the paragraph is going to discuss. For this reason, the topic sentence is a helpful guide to both the writer and the reader. The writer can see what information to include (and what information to exclude). The reader can see what the paragraph is going to be about and is therefore better prepared to understand it.
- Here are three important points to remember about a topic sentence.
  1. A topic sentence is a complete sentence; that is, it contains at least one subject and one verb. The following are not complete sentences because they do not have verbs:

Driving on freeways.

How to register for college classes.

The rise of indie films.

# The Topic Sentence

2. A topic sentence contains both a topic and a controlling idea. It names the topic and then limits the topic to a specific area to be discussed in the space of a single paragraph.

TOPIC	CONTROLLING IDEA
Driving on freeways	requires skill and alertness.

TOPIC	CONTROLLING IDEA
Registering for classes	can be a frustrating experience for new students.

3. A topic sentence is the most general statement in the paragraph because it gives only the main idea. It does not give any specific details. A topic sentence is like the name of a particular course on a restaurant menu.

# The Topic Sentence

## Position of Topic Sentences

- The topic sentence is usually (but not always) the first sentence in a paragraph. Experienced writers sometimes put topic sentences in other locations, but the best spot is usually right at the beginning. Readers who are used to the English way of writing want to know what they will read about as soon as they begin reading.
- Sometimes a topic sentence comes at the end. In this case, the paragraph often begins with a series of examples.

# The Topic Sentence

## The Two Parts of a Topic Sentence

- The topic names the subject of the paragraph. The controlling idea limits or controls the topic to a specific area that you can discuss in the space of a single paragraph.

TOPIC	CONTROLLING IDEA
Convenience foods	are <u>easy to prepare</u>

- A topic sentence should not have controlling ideas that are unrelated. The three parts of the following controlling idea are too unrelated for a single paragraph. They require three separate paragraphs (and perhaps more) to explain fully.

# Supporting Sentences

- Supporting sentences explain or prove the topic sentence.
- There are several kinds of specific supporting details: examples, statistics, and quotations.

## Example

- Examples are perhaps the easiest kind of supporting detail to use because you can often take examples from your own knowledge and experience. You don't have to search the library or the Internet for supporting material. Furthermore, examples make your writing lively and interesting, and your reader is more likely to remember your point if you support it with a memorable example.
- Words and phrases that introduce examples include *for example, for instance, and such as*.

# The Concluding Sentence

- A concluding sentence serves two purposes:
  1. It signals the end of the paragraph.
  2. It leaves the reader with the most important ideas to remember. It can do this in two ways: By summarizing the main points of the paragraph or By repeating the topic sentence in different words A
- A paragraph does not always need a concluding sentence.
- End-of-Paragraph Signals Followed by a Comma:

*Finally, In brief, In conclusion, Indeed, In short, Lastly, Therefore, Thus, To sum up,*

- End-of-Paragraph Signals Not Followed by a Comma:

*The evidence suggests that...*

*These examples show that...*

*We can see that...*

# The Concluding Sentence

## Notes

- Many writing teachers think In conclusion and In summary are overused and so will not want you to use them
- Do not use the phrase At last as an end-of-paragraph signal. At last means "at the end of a long period of time," as in this sentence: At last, you've come home.
- Never introduce a new idea in the concluding sentence.

INCORRECT In conclusion, there are many **other legends** like this one in Hawaii.  
(This is a new idea.)

# Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

**1. A good topic sentence**

- is a complete sentence with a subject, a verb, and a controlling idea.
- is neither too general nor too specific. It clearly states the main idea of the paragraph but does not include specific details.
- is usually the first sentence in the paragraph.

**2. Good supporting sentences**

- explain or prove the topic sentence.
- are specific and factual.
- can be examples, statistics, or quotations.

**3. A good concluding sentence**

- signals the end of the paragraph.
- summarizes the important points briefly or restates the topic sentence
- in different words.

# Chapter 2

## Unity and Coherence

# Introduction

- An important element of a good paragraph is **unity**. Unity means that a paragraph discusses one and only one main idea from beginning to end.
- Sometimes it is possible to discuss more than one aspect of the same idea in one paragraph if they are closely related to each other.
- The second part of unity is that every supporting sentence must directly explain or prove the main idea.

# Coherence

- The Latin verb cohere means "hold together." For coherence in writing, the sentences must hold together; that is, the movement from one sentence to the next must be logical and smooth. There must be no sudden jumps. Each sentence should flow smoothly into the next one.
- There are four ways to achieve coherence:
  1. Repeat key nouns.
  2. Use consistent pronouns.
  3. Use transition signals to link ideas.
  4. Arrange your ideas in logical order.
- There is no fixed rule about how often to repeat key nouns or when to substitute pronouns. You should repeat a key noun instead of using a pronoun when the meaning is not clear.

# Coherence

## Key Noun Substitutes

- If you do not wish to repeat a key noun again and again, you can use synonyms or expressions with the same meaning.

## Consistent Pronouns

- When you use pronouns, make sure that you use the same person and number throughout your paragraph.

## Transition Signals

- Transition signals are like traffic signs; they tell your reader when to go forward, turn around, slow down, and stop. In other words, they tell your reader when you are giving a similar idea (*similarly, and, in addition*), an opposite idea (*on the other hand, but, in contrast*), an example (*for example*), a result (*therefore, as a result*), or a conclusion (*in conclusion*).

## Transition Words and Phrases and Conjunctive Adverbs

- Most words and phrases in the first two columns of the chart can appear at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of one independent clause and are usually separated by commas.
- EXCEPTIONS
  1. The words and phrases in the last four groups in the chart (for listing ideas and time sequences, for emphasizing, for giving reasons, and for conclusions) usually appear only at the beginning of a sentence, not in the middle or at the end
  2. Too usually appears only at the end of a sentence, sometimes preceded by a comma.
  3. The short time words then, now, and soon usually do not need commas.

# Transition Signals

Transition Signals and Conjunctive Adverbs	Coordinating Conjunctions and Paired Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions	Others: Adjectives, Prepositions, Verbs
<b>To list ideas in order of time</b>			
first, ... first of all, ... second, ... third, ... next, ... then ... after that, ... meanwhile, ... in the meantime, ... finally, ... last, ... last of all, ... subsequently, ...		before after until when while as soon as since	the first (reason, cause, step, etc.) the second ... the third ... another ... the last ... the final ...

# Transition Signals

Transition Signals and Conjunctive Adverbs	Coordinating Conjunctions and Paired Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions	Others: Adjectives, Prepositions, Verbs
<b>To list ideas in order of importance</b>			
first, ... first of all, ... first and foremost, ... second, ... more important, ... most important, ... more significantly, ... most significantly, ... above all, ... most of all, ...			the first ... (reason, cause, step, etc.) an additional ... the second ... another ... a more important (reason, cause, step, etc.) the most important ... the most significant ... the best/the worst ...

# Transition Signals

Transition Signals and Conjunctive Adverbs	Coordinating Conjunctions and Paired Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions	Others: Adjectives, Prepositions, Verbs
<b>To add a similar or equal idea</b>			
also, ... besides, ... furthermore, ... in addition, ... moreover, ... too as well	and  both ... and not only ... but also		another ... (reason, cause, step, etc.) a second ... an additional ... a final ... as well as
<b>To add an opposite idea</b>			
however, ... on the other hand, ... nevertheless, ... nonetheless, ... still, ...	but  yet	although even though though	despite in spite of

# Transition Signals

Transition Signals and Conjunctive Adverbs	Coordinating Conjunctions and Paired Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions	Others: Adjectives, Prepositions, Verbs
<b>To explain or restate an idea</b>			
in other words, ... in particular, ... (more) specifically, ... that is, ...			
<b>To make a stronger statement</b>			
indeed, ... in fact, ...			
<b>To give another possibility</b>			
alternatively, ... on the other hand, ... otherwise, ...	or either ... or whether ... or		

# Transition Signals

Transition Signals and Conjunctive Adverbs	Coordinating Conjunctions and Paired Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions	Others: Adjectives, Prepositions, Verbs
<b>To give an example</b>			
for example, ... for instance, ...			such as an example of to exemplify
<b>To express an opinion</b>			
according to ... in my opinion, ... in my view, ...			to believe (that) to feel (that) to think (that)
<b>To give a reason</b>			
for this reason, ...	for	because	as a result of because of due to

# Transition Signals

Transition Signals and Conjunctive Adverbs	Coordinating Conjunctions and Paired Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions	Others: Adjectives, Prepositions, Verbs
<b>To give a result</b>			
accordingly, ... as a consequence, ... as a result, ... consequently, ... for these reasons, ... hence, ... therefore, ...	so		the cause of the reason for to cause to result (in) to have an effect on to affect
<b>To add a conclusion</b>			
all in all, ... in brief, ... in short, ... to conclude, ... to summarize, ... in conclusion, ... in summary, ... for these reasons, ...			

# Transition Signals

Transition Signals and Conjunctive Adverbs	Coordinating Conjunctions and Paired Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions	Others: Adjectives, Prepositions, Verbs
<b>To show similarities</b>			
likewise, ... similarly, ... also	and both ... and not only ... but also neither ... nor		alike, like, just like as, just as as well as well as compared with or to in comparison with or to to be similar (to) too
<b>To show differences</b>			
however, ... in contrast, ... instead, ... on the contrary, ... on the other hand, ... rather, ...			instead of

# Transition Words and Phrases and Conjunctive Adverbs

## Subordinators

- A subordinator (subordinating conjunction) is the first word in a dependent clause. A dependent clause is always connected to an independent clause to make a sentence. The sentence may or may not have a comma. The general rule is this: Put a comma after a dependent clause but not in front of one.

DEPENDENT CLAUSE

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

Although the company's sales increased last year, its net profit declined.

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

DEPENDENT CLAUSE

The company's net profit declined last year although its sales increased.

- Don't Overuse Transition Signals: Too many can be distracting rather than helpful. Use them only when they will help your reader follow your ideas.

# Transition Words and Phrases and Conjunctive Adverbs

## Logical Order

- fourth way to achieve coherence is to arrange your sentences in some kind of logical order.
- You may even combine two or more different logical orders in the same paragraph. The important point to remember is to arrange your ideas in some kind of order that is logical to a reader accustomed to the English way of writing.
- Some common kinds of logical order in English are chronological order, logical division of ideas, and comparison/contrast.
  - Chronological order is order by time
  - In logical division of ideas, a topic is divided into parts
  - In a comparison/contrast paragraph

# Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. Every good paragraph has both unity and coherence.
2. You achieve unity by
  - discussing only one idea in a paragraph.
  - always staying on the topic in your supporting sentences.
3. You achieve coherence by
  - repeating key nouns.
  - using consistent pronouns.
  - using transition signals.
  - arranging your ideas in some kind of logical order.
4. There are different types of transition signals. Each type is punctuated differently.

# Chapter 3

## Supporting Details: Facts, Quotations, and Statistics

# Introduction

Academic writing normally requires that you support your ideas and opinions with facts, statistics, quotations, and similar kinds of information. You get these kinds of supporting details from outside sources such as books, magazines, newspapers, Web sites, personal interviews, and so on.

## Facts versus Opinions

- First, it is important to distinguish between facts and opinions. Opinions are subjective statements based on a person's beliefs or attitudes.
- **Opinions are not acceptable as support.** It is certainly acceptable to express opinions in academic writing. In fact, most professors want you to express your own ideas. However, you may not use an opinion as support, and if you express an opinion, you must support it with facts. **Facts are objective statements of truths.**
- Sometimes even facts need proof.

# Using Outside Sources

- There are three ways to insert outside information into your own writing:  
(1) You can quote it, (2) you can summarize it, or (3) you can paraphrase it.

## Plagiarism

- Plagiarism is using someone else's words or ideas as if they were your own, and it is a serious offense.
- When you use information from an outside source without acknowledging that source, you are guilty of plagiarism.
- One way to avoid plagiarism is to always put quotation marks around words that you copy exactly. (You do not need to use quotation marks if you change the words.) You are also guilty of plagiarism if you fail to cite the source of outside intonation-words

# Using Outside Sources

## Citing Sources

- Citing a source is a two-step process.
  1. Insert a short reference in parentheses at the end of each piece of borrowed information. This short reference is called an *in-text citation*.
  2. Prepare a list describing all your sources completely. This list is titled "*Works Cited*" and appears as the last page of your paper.

# Quotations

- There are two kinds of quotations: **direct** and **indirect**.
- In a direct quotation, you copy another person's exact words (spoken or written) and enclose them in quotation marks. In an indirect quotation, you report the person's words without quotation marks, but with a reporting expression such as *according to XYZ...* or *XYZ believes that...*

## Reporting Verbs and Phrases

- To introduce borrowed information-direct quotations, indirect quotations, or statistics-use the phrase according to or a reporting verb such as the following:

*assert, insist, report, suggest, claim, write, say, declare, mention and state*

# Quotations

Here are **some rules** for their use:

1. Reporting verbs can appear before, in the middle of, or after borrowed information. The reporting phrase according to usually appears before or after but not in the middle.
2. Reporting verbs can be used either with or without the subordinator as. (As one writer says...)
3. Reporting verbs can be in any tense. However, be aware that a past tense reporting verb may cause changes in verbs, pronouns, and time expressions in an indirect quotation.
4. Including the source of the borrowed information with the reporting expression gives authority to your writing because it lets your reader know immediately that your information is from a credible source.

# Quotations

## Punctuating Direct Quotations

Follow these general rules for punctuating direct quotations.

1. Put quotation marks around information that you copy word for word from a source.  
Do not use quotation marks with paraphrases, summaries, or indirect quotations.
2. Normally, place commas (and periods) before the first mark and also before the second mark in a pair of quotation marks.

According to Sports Illustrated, "Eliminating drug use from Olympic sports would be no small challenge."

There are two important exceptions:

- If you insert only a few quoted words into your own sentence, don't use commas.
- When you add an in-text citation after a quotation, put the period after the closing parenthesis mark.

## Quotations

3. Capitalize the first word of the quotation as well as the first word of the sentence. Reporting verbs can be used either with or without the subordinator as. (As one writer says...)

Dr. Donald Catlin, director of a drug-testing lab at UCLA, stated, "The sophisticated athlete who wants to take drugs has switched to things we can't test for" (qtd. in Bamberger and Yaeger 62).

4. If you break a quoted sentence into two parts, enclose both parts in quotation marks and separate the parts with commas. Capitalize only the first word of the sentence.

"The sophisticated athlete who wants to take drugs," stated Dr. Donald Catlin, director of a drug-testing lab at UCLA, "has switched to things we can't test for" (qtd. in Bamberger and Yaeger 62).

## Quotations

5. If you omit words, use an ellipsis (three spaced periods).
6. If you add words, put square brackets around the words you have added.

One athlete declared, "The testers know that the [drug] gurus are smarter than they are" (qtd. in Bamberger and Yaeger 62).

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

A young athlete openly admitted, "My ethical inner voice tells me, 'Don't use drugs,' but my competitive inner voice says, 'You can't win if you don't'" (Jones).

8. If your quotation is four lines or longer, do not use quotation marks. Introduce this type of quotation with a colon and indent it one inch from the left-hand margin.

# Quotations

## Indirect Quotations

In indirect quotations, the speaker's or writer's words are reported indirectly, without quotation marks. The word that is often added for clarity. The tense of verbs in indirect quotations is affected by the tense of the reporting verb.

## Changing Direct Quotations to Indirect Quotations

To change a direct quotation to an indirect quotation:

1. Omit the quotation marks.
2. Add the subordinator that.
3. Change the verb tense if necessary.
4. Change pronouns (and time expressions if necessary) to keep the sense of the original.

# Quotations

There are three exceptions:

- When the reporting verb is simple present, present perfect, or future, the verb tense in the quotation does not change.

He says, "I can finish it today."

He says that he can finish it today.

- When the reporting phrase is *according to*, the verb tense does not change.

The lawyer said, "My client is innocent."

According to the lawyer, his client is innocent.

- When the quoted information is a fact or a general truth, the verb tense in the quotation does not change.

He said, "Water **boils** at a lower temperature in the mountains."

He said that water **boils** at a lower temperature in the mountains.

## Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. In academic writing, you are expected to use information from outside sources to support your ideas. Keep in mind that the U.S. system of education values students' original thinking and writing. Use outside sources to support your own ideas. Don't write a paper that contains only the ideas of others.
2. Search for specific supporting details in the library or on the Internet.
  - Direct quotations: Repeat the writer's or speaker's exact words, and place them inside quotation marks.
  - Indirect quotations: Report the author's words, making changes in pronouns and verb tenses as necessary. Do not use quotation marks.
  - Use appropriate statistics to support your points.
3. Don't just drop a quotation or a statistic into your paper. Make the connection between the borrowed information and your idea clear.
4. Cite your sources to avoid plagiarizing.

# **PART II**

Writing an Essay

# Chapter 4

## From Paragraph to Essay

# Introduction

An essay is a piece of writing several paragraphs long. It is about one topic, just as a paragraph is. However, because the topic of an essay is too complex to discuss in one paragraph, you need to divide it into several paragraphs, one for each major point. Then you need to tie the paragraphs together by adding an introduction and a conclusion.

# The Three Parts of an Essay

- An essay has three main parts: an introduction (introductory paragraph), a body (at least one, but usually two or more paragraphs), and a conclusion (concluding paragraph).
- An essay **introduction** consists of two parts: a few general statements to attract your reader's attention and a thesis statement to state the main idea of the essay.
- The **body** consists of one or more paragraphs. Each paragraph develops a subdivision of the topic, so the number of paragraphs in the body will vary with the number of subdivisions or subtopics.
- The **conclusion**, like the concluding sentence in a paragraph, is a summary or review of the main points discussed in the body.

# The Introductory Paragraph

- An introductory paragraph has two parts, general statements and the thesis statement

## General statements:

- introduce the general topic of the essay.
- capture the reader's interest.

## The thesis statement:

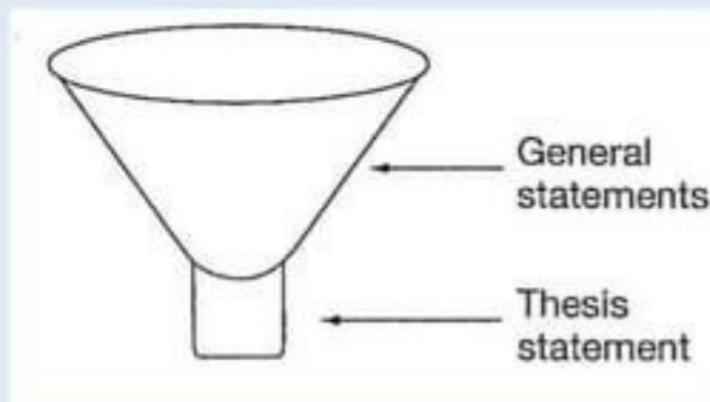
- states the specific topic.
  - may list subtopics or subdivisions of the main topic or subtopics.
  - may indicate the pattern of organization of the essay.
  - is normally the last sentence in the introductory paragraph.
- 
- Notice how the general statements in the introductory paragraph of the model essay introduce the topic.

# The Introductory Paragraph

## Funnel Introduction

The introductory paragraph of the model essay is a funnel introduction. This introduction is so called because it is shaped like a funnel-wide at the top and narrow at the bottom.

It begins with one or two very general sentences about the topic. Each subsequent sentence becomes increasingly focused on the topic until the last sentence, which states very specifically what the essay will be about.



# The Introductory Paragraph

## **Attention Getting introduction**

Other kinds of introductions are good for capturing your reader's attention:

- Dramatic, Interesting, or Funny Story
- Surprising Statistics or Facts
- Historical Background

## **Thesis statement**

- The thesis statement is the most important sentence in the introduction. It states the specific topic of the essay.
- Sometimes a thesis statement lists the Subtopics that will be discussed in the body.
- Sometimes a thesis statement also indicates the pattern of organization that the essay will follow. Which of the following thesis statements indicates chronological order? Logical division of ideas? Comparison/contrast?

# **Body Paragraphs**

The body paragraphs in an essay are like the supporting sentences in a paragraph. They are the place to develop your topic and prove your points. You should organize body paragraphs according to some sort of pattern, such as chronological order or comparison/contrast. Sometimes, depending on your topic, you will need to use a combination of patterns.

## **Logical Division of Ideas**

A basic pattern for essays is logical division of ideas. In this pattern, you divide your topic into subtopics and then discuss each subtopic in a separate paragraph. Logical division is an appropriate pattern for explaining causes, reasons, types, lands, qualities, methods, advantages, and disadvantages, as these typical college exam questions ask you to do.

# Body Paragraphs

## Thesis Statements for Logical Division of Ideas

- The thesis statement of a logical division essay often indicates the number of subtopics:

Native Americans have made valuable contributions to modern U.S. culture in four main areas.

Inflation has three causes.

- The thesis statement may even name the specific subtopics:

- Native Americans have made many valuable contributions to modern U.S. culture, particularly in the areas of language, art, food, and government.
- b. Inflation has three causes: **excessive government spending, unrestrained consumer borrowing, and an increase in the supply of paper money.**

## Body Paragraphs

- Paired conjunctions (both . . . and, not only . . . but also) are an especially effective way to list two subtopics:
  - c. Young people in my culture have less freedom than young people in the United States **not only** in their choice of lifestyle **but also** in their choice of careers.
  - d. Puppies, like children, need **both** love **and** discipline to become responsible members of society.
- A colon (:) is often useful before lists of two, three, or more subtopics in a thesis statement:
  - e. Young people in my culture have less freedom than young people in the United States in three areas: **where they live, whom they marry, and what their job is.**
  - f. The Father of Psychoanalysis, Sigmund Freud, believed that the human mind had three separate parts: **the id, the ego, and the superego.**
- Notice that subtopics are in parallel form, which means that they have the same grammatical form.

# Body Paragraphs

## Thesis Statements Pitfalls

A thesis is the most important sentence in your essay, so write it with special thought and care. Avoid these common problems:

### 1. The thesis is too general.

Too GENERAL A college education is a good investment.

IMPROVED A college education is a good investment for four reasons.

### 2. The thesis makes a simple announcement.

ANNOUNCEMENT I am going to write about sports injuries.

IMPROVED Avoid sports injuries by taking a few simple precautions.

### 3. The thesis states an obvious fact.

# The Concluding Paragraph

The conclusion is the final paragraph in an essay. It has three purposes:

1. It signals the end of the essay.
2. It reminds your reader of your main points
  - summarize your subtopics.
  - paraphrase your thesis.
3. It leaves your reader with your final thoughts on the topic.

Here are techniques that you can use to write a memorable conclusion:

- Make a prediction.
- Suggest results or consequences.
- Suggest a solution, make a recommendation, or call for action.
- Quote an authority on the topic.

# Essay Outlining

- Because an essay is long, it is important to organize and plan before you begin to write. The best way to do this is to make an outline. An outline not only organizes your thoughts, but it also keeps you on track once you begin to write.
- A formal outline has a system of numbers and letters such as the following. In other fields of study, different systems are used:
  - Roman numerals I, II, and III number the major sections of an essay
  - Capital letters A, B, C, D, and so on label the body paragraphs.
  - Arabic numerals 1,2,3,4, and so on number the subpoints in each paragraph.
  - Small letters a, b, c, d, and so on label the specific supporting details.

# Review

## Main Parts of an Essay

1. An essay has three main parts: an introduction, a body, and a conclusion.
  - The introductory paragraph consists of two parts: a few general statements to attract your reader's attention and a thesis statement to state your main idea. A thesis statement may also name the major subdivisions of the topic, and it may indicate how you will organize the essay.
  - The body of an essay discusses the subtopics, one by one. It contains as many paragraphs as necessary to explain all subtopics.
  - The concluding paragraph reminds your reader of what you have said. In it, you summarize your main ideas or paraphrase your thesis. You may also make a final comment on the topic for your reader to remember.
2. Use the logical division of ideas pattern to divide a topic into separate paragraphs.
3. Link paragraphs with transitions; that is, show how one paragraph is related to the next by using appropriate transition words, phrases, or clauses.
4. Prepare an outline to organize your ideas before you begin to write.

# Chapter 5

## Chronological Order: Process Essays

# Introduction

Chronos is a Greek word meaning time. **Chronological order** is a way of organizing ideas in the order of their occurrence in time. Chronological order has all sorts of uses. We use it to tell stories, to relate historical events, and to write biographies and autobiographies. We also use it to explain processes and procedures. Such essays are called "how to" essays, or process essays.

## Thesis Statements for a Process Essay

- A thesis statement for a process essay in some way indicates the time order. Expressions such as *the process of, the procedure for, plan, develop, evolve, five stages, and several phases* indicate that time order will be used.

Heating water by solar radiation is a simple process.

- Sometimes the thesis statement tells the number of steps in the process.

The process of heating water by solar radiation involves three main steps.

- The thesis statement may even name the steps.

The main steps in the process of heating water by solar radiation are (1) trapping the sun's energy, (2) heating and storing the hot water, and (3) distributing the hot water to its points of use.

## Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. Using chronological order to organize an essay means putting the ideas in order or sequence by occurrence in time.
2. Use chronological order for narrative essays (stories, history, biography, and autobiography) and for process essays (how to do or make something).
3. Following are the three keys to success in writing a chronological order essay:
  - Group the steps or events into paragraphs where natural breaks occur.
  - Write a thesis statement that indicates chronological order.
  - Use chronological order signal words and phrases to show the sequence of steps (in a process) or events (in a narration).

# Chapter 6

## Cause/Effect Essays

# Introduction

Another common pattern of essay organization is called cause and effect. In a cause/ effect essay, you discuss the causes (reasons) for something, the effects (results), or both causes and effects.

# Organization for Cause/Effect Order

You can organize a cause/effect essay in two main ways: "block" organization and "chain" organization.

## Block Organization

- In block organization, you first discuss all the causes as a block (in one, two, three, or more paragraphs, depending on the number of causes). Then you discuss all the effects together as a block. You can discuss either causes or effects first. Of course, you can also discuss only causes or only effects.
- In block organization, a short paragraph often separates one major section from another major section.
- Essays that discuss mainly (or only) causes or mainly (or only) effects might have a transition paragraph between blocks of different kinds of causes or between blocks of different kinds of effects.

## Block Organization

**A**

Introduction

1st cause

2nd cause

3rd cause

Transition paragraph

1st effect

2nd effect

Conclusion

**B**

Introduction

1st cause

Transition paragraph

2nd cause

3rd cause

4th cause

Effects

Conclusion

**C**

Introduction

Effects

Transition paragraph

1st cause

2nd cause

3rd cause

Conclusion

**D**

Introduction

1st effect

2nd effect

3rd effect

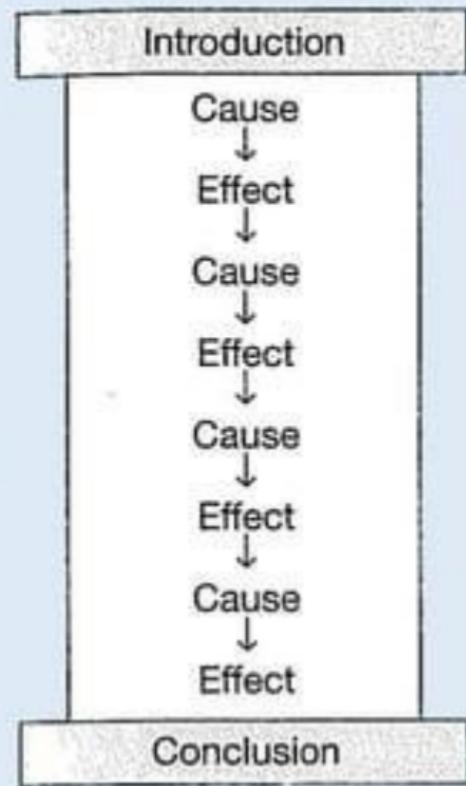
4th effect

Conclusion

# Organization for Cause/Effect Order

## Chain Organization

- In this pattern, causes and effects are linked to each other in a chain.
- Each new cause and its effect are links in a chain. Depending on the complexity of the ideas in each link, you can devote an entire paragraph to one topic, or you may include several links in one paragraph, or you may describe the entire chain in one paragraph.
- Chain organization usually works better than block organization when the causes and effects are too closely linked to be separated.



# Cause Signal Words

Coordinators	
for	Bison were indispensable to the Native American tribes, <b>for</b> this one animal provided them with nearly everything they needed for survival: meat, clothing, shelter, tools, and weapons.  <i>Note:</i> When used in this way, <b>for</b> has the same meaning as <b>because</b> . However, you <b>MUST</b> use a comma in front of <b>for</b> , and you <b>MUST NOT</b> use a comma in front of <b>because</b> .
Subordinators	
because since as	Bison were indispensable to the Native American tribes <b>because/since/as</b> this one animal provided them with nearly everything they needed for survival: meat, clothing, shelter, tools, and weapons.
Others	
to result from to be the result of	The bison's near extinction <b>resulted from/was the result of</b> loss of habitat and overhunting.
due to because of	Bison nearly became extinct <b>due to/because of</b> loss of habitat and overhunting.
the effect of the consequence of	One <b>effect of/consequence of</b> westward expansion was the destruction of habitat for the bison.
as a result of as a consequence of	The areas in which bison could roam freely shrank <b>as a result of/as a consequence of</b> the westward expansion of the 1800s.

# Effect Signal Words

Transition Words and Phrases	
as a result as a consequence therefore thus consequently hence	Workers building the new transcontinental railroad needed meat; <b>as a result/as a consequence/therefore/thus/consequently/hence</b> , hunters killed bison by the thousands.  Note: Notice the difference between <i>as a result</i> and <i>as a result of</i> . <i>As a result</i> is followed by a full sentence (independent clause) and introduces an effect. <i>As a result of</i> is followed by a noun phrase and introduces a clause.
Coordinators	
so	Native Americans began trading bison skins to the settlers for steel knives and guns, <b>so</b> they began killing bison in larger numbers.
Others	
to result in to cause	Loss of habitat and overhunting <b>resulted in/caused</b> the near extinction of bison.
to have an effect on to affect	The reduced numbers of bison had <b>a terrible effect on/affected</b> the lives of the Native Americans who had depended on them for survival.
the cause of the reason for	The rescue of the bison from near extinction is <b>a cause of/a reason for</b> celebration.
thereby	The 65 bison that survived were given refuge in Yellowstone National Park in 1892, <b>thereby</b> saving this species from total extinction.  Note: <i>Thereby</i> is most frequently used in front of -ing phrases.

## Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. Cause/effect organization is a common pattern in academic writing to write about causes (or reasons) and effects (or results).
2. There are two common cause/effect patterns of organization.
  - In block organization, the causes (or reasons) are grouped together in one block, and the effects (or results) are grouped together in another block. There may be a transition paragraph between blocks.
  - In chain organization, the causes and effects are too closely linked to be separated. One cause leads to an effect, which is the cause of the next effect.
3. Use a variety of cause/effect signal words to help your reader follow your ideas.

# Chapter 7

## Comparison/Contrast Essays

# Introduction

In a comparison/contrast essay, you explain the similarities and the differences between two items. Comparison and contrast is a very common pattern in most academic fields. It is also a common type of essay test question.

# Organization of Comparison/Contrast Essays

The first key to writing a successful comparison/contrast essay is to organize it carefully.

## Point by Point Organization

- First, make a list of factors that are important to you.
- Each factor, or point of comparison, is like a subtopic in a logical division essay.

## Block Organization

- The other way to organize a comparison/contrast essay is to arrange all the similarities together in a block and all the differences together in a block. You often insert a transition paragraph or transition sentence between the two blocks.
- The number of paragraphs in each block depends on the topic
- Some topics may have one paragraph of similarities and several paragraphs of differences, or vice versa.

# Comparison Signal Words

Transition Words and Phrases	
similarly likewise	Human workers can detect malfunctions in machinery; <b>similarly/likewise</b> , a robot can be programmed to detect equipment malfunctions.
also	Human workers can detect malfunctions in machinery; a robot can <b>also</b> .
too	Human workers can detect malfunctions in machinery; a robot can <b>too</b> .
Subordinators	
as just as	Robots can detect malfunctions in machinery, <b>as/just as</b> human workers can. Note: Use a comma when <b>as</b> and <b>just as</b> show comparison even when the dependent clause follows the independent clause as in the above example.
Coordinators	
and	Robots <b>and</b> human workers can detect malfunctions in machinery.
both . . . and	<b>Both</b> robots <b>and</b> human workers can detect malfunctions in machinery.
not only . . . but also	<b>Not only</b> robots <b>but also</b> human workers can detect malfunctions in machinery.
neither . . . nor	<b>Neither</b> robots <b>nor</b> human workers are infallible. <sup>1</sup>

# Comparison Signal Words

Others	
like (+ noun) just like (+ noun) similar to (+ noun)	Robots, like/just like/similar to human workers, can detect malfunctions in machinery.
(be) like (be) similar (to) (be) the same as	Robots are like/are similar to/are the same as human workers in their ability to detect malfunctions in machinery.
(be) the same	In their ability to detect malfunctions in machinery, robots and human workers are the same.
(be) alike (be) similar  to compare (to/with)	Robots and human workers are alike/are similar in their ability to detect malfunctions in machinery.  Robots can be compared to/be compared with human workers in their ability to detect malfunctions in machinery.

# Comparison Signal Words

Contrast signal words fall into two main groups according to their meaning. The words in the first group show a relationship that is called concession. The words in the second group show an opposition relationship.

## **Contrast Signal Words: Concession (Unexpected Result)**

Concession signal words indicate that the information in one clause is not the result you expect from the information given in the other clause.

## **Contrast Signal Words: Direct Opposition**

The second group of contrast signal words shows that two things are direct opposites. With direct opposites, the signal word can introduce either piece of information.

# Contrast Signal Words

<b>Transition Words and Phrases</b>	
however nevertheless nonetheless still	Millions of people go on diets every year; <b>however/nevertheless/nonetheless/still</b> , very few succeed in losing weight.
<b>Subordinators</b>	
although even though though	Although/Even though/Though most dieters initially lose a few pounds, most gain them back again within a few weeks.
<b>Coordinators</b>	
but yet	Doctors say that "fad" diets do not work, <b>but/yet</b> many people still try them.
<b>Others</b>	
despite (+ noun) in spite of (+ noun)	Despite/In spite of 10 years of dieting, I am still fat.

# Contrast Signal Words

Transition Words and Phrases	
however in contrast in (by) comparison on the other hand <b>on the contrary</b>	Rock music is primarily the music of white performers; <b>however/in contrast/in comparison/by comparison/on the other hand</b> , jazz is performed by both white and black musicians.  Jazz is not just one style of music; <b>on the contrary</b> , jazz has many styles such as Chicago jazz, Dixieland, ragtime, swing, bebop, and cool jazz, to name just a few.
Subordinators	
while whereas	New Orleans-style jazz features brass marching-band instruments, <b>while/whereas</b> ragtime is played on a piano.
Coordinators	
but	Jazz music was born in the southern part of the United States, <b>but</b> it now enjoys a worldwide audience.
Others	
differ (from) compared (to/with) (be) different (from) (be) dissimilar to  (be) unlike	Present-day rock music <b>differences from</b> early rock music in several ways. Present-day rock music has a harder sound <b>compared to/compared with</b> early rock. The punk, rap, grunge, and techno styles of today are very <b>different from/dissimilar to/unlike</b> the rock music performed by Elvis Presley 50 years ago, but they have the same roots.  <b>Unlike</b> rock, a music style started by white musicians, rhythm-and-blues styles were influenced primarily by black musicians.

## Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. Comparison/contrast is a common pattern for writing about similarities and differences. It is used in all academic fields.
2. There are two common ways to organize a comparison/contrast essay.
  - In point-by-point organization, you discuss each similarity and each difference in some other order-usually order of their importance without grouping them into blocks. In this type of organization, you may discuss a similarity and then a difference, and then a similarity and then a difference.
  - In block organization, you first discuss all the similarities in a block and then all the differences in another block. (You may, of course, begin with the block of differences.)
3. Use comparison and contrast signal words to help your reader understand your points of comparison and contrast.

# **Chapter 8**

## **Paraphrase and Summary**

# Introduction

Academic writing normally requires that you support your ideas and opinions with facts, statistics, quotations, and similar kinds of information. There are four ways to use information from outside sources. You can quote it directly or indirectly. You can also paraphrase or summarize it, skills that you will practice in this chapter. Writing paraphrases and summaries are important tools in academic writing.

# Paraphrasing

When you paraphrase, you rewrite information from an outside source in your own words without changing the meaning. Because you include in your rewriting all or nearly all of the content of the original passage, a paraphrase is almost as long as the Original. (A summary, by contrast, is much shorter than the original.)

## Plagiarism

Plagiarism is wrongly using someone else's words or ideas, and it is a serious offense. There are two kinds of plagiarism:

1. When you use information from an outside source without citing the source (telling where you got the information), you are guilty of plagiarism.
2. Even when you cite your source, if your paraphrase is too similar to the original, you are guilty of plagiarism.

# Paraphrasing

## How to Write a Good Paraphrase

There are three keys to writing a good paraphrase:

1. Use your own words and your own sentence structure.
2. Make your paraphrase approximately the same length as the original.
3. Do not change the meaning of the original.

You can write a good paraphrase if you follow these steps:

1. Read the original passage several times until you understand it fully.
2. It helps to take notes. Write down only a few words for each idea.
3. Write your paraphrase from your notes.
4. Check your paraphrase against the original to make sure you have not copied vocabulary or the sentence structure too closely.
5. Add an in-text citation at the end.

# Summarizing

Another way to use borrowed information from an outside source is to summarize it. When you retell a story that someone has told you, you repeat the story in your own words. If your retelling is about the same length as the original, it is a paraphrase. If you shorten the story-retelling only the most important points and leaving out the details-it is a summary.

## How to Write a Good Summary

There are three keys to writing a good Summary:

1. Use your own words and your own sentence structure.
2. Remember that a summary is much shorter than a paraphrase.
3. Do not change the meaning of the original.

# Review

These are the important points you should have learned from this chapter:

1. In academic writing, you are expected to use information from outside sources to support your ideas. In addition to using quotations, you may also use paraphrases and summaries.
  - Paraphrase: Rewrite the author's meaning in your own words. Include all or almost all of the ideas that are in the original. Change the sentence structure and substitute synonyms where possible to avoid plagiarizing.
  - Summary: Condense a writer's words and summarize the main ideas in as few of your own words as possible.
2. Keep in mind that the U.S. system of education values students' original thinking and writing. Use outside sources to support your own ideas. Don't write a paper that contains only the ideas of others.
3. Don't just drop a paraphrase or summary into your paper. Make the connection between the borrowed information and your idea clear.
4. Document your sources to avoid plagiarizing and to help the reader find the sources of your information.

# **Chapter 9**

## **Argumentative Essays**

# Introduction

An argumentative essay is an essay in which you agree or disagree with an issue, using reasons to support your opinion. Your goal is to convince your reader that your opinion is right. Argumentation is a popular kind of essay question because it forces students to think on their own: They have to take a stand on an issue, support their stand with solid reasons, and support their reasons with solid evidence.

# Organization of Argumentative Essays

Block Pattern	Point-by-Point Pattern
<p><b>I.</b> Introduction Explanation of the issue Thesis statement</p> <p><b>II. Body</b></p> <p><b>Block 1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>A. Summary of other side's arguments</li><li>B. Rebuttal to the first argument</li><li>C. Rebuttal to the second argument</li><li>D. Rebuttal to the third argument</li></ul> <p><b>Block 2</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>E. Your first argument</li><li>F. Your second argument</li><li>G. Your third argument</li></ul> <p><b>III. Conclusion</b>—may include a summary of your point of view</p>	<p><b>I.</b> Introduction Explanation of the issue, including a summary of the other side's arguments Thesis statement</p> <p><b>II. Body</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>A. Statement of the other side's first argument and rebuttal with your own counterargument</li><li>B. Statement of the other side's second argument and rebuttal with your own counterargument</li><li>C. Statement of the other side's third argument and rebuttal with your own counterargument</li></ul> <p><b>III. Conclusion</b>—may include a summary of your point of view</p>

# The Introductory Paragraph

The introductory paragraph of the model contains an explanation of the issue, which is a necessary part of an argumentative essay. However, you may also begin an argumentative essay with a more engaging introduction—with surprising statistics, for example, or with a dramatic story.

If you write an attention-getting introduction, you may need to explain the issue in a second introductory paragraph and write your thesis statement at the end of this (the second) paragraph.

## **Thesis Statement**

The thesis statement in an argumentative essay states clearly which side you are for.

# The Introductory Paragraph

A thesis statement often mentions the opposing point of view. Notice that the writer's opinion is expressed in the main (independent) clause, and the opposing point of view is normally put into a subordinate structure.

## SUBORDINATE STRUCTURE

Despite the claims that curfew laws are necessary to control juvenile gangs.,

## MAIN (INDEPENDENT) CLAUSE

Despite the claims that curfew laws are necessary to control juvenile gangs.,

## The Introductory Paragraph

Use expressions such as the following to introduce opposing points of view.

Some people feel that the United States should have a national health care plan like Canada's.

Many think that genetically engineered crops are a grave danger to the environment.

Smokers say that they have a right to smoke.

**Then connect the opposing point of view to your own with transition signals of contrast.**

Some people feel that the United States should have a national health care plan like Canada's; **however**, others feel that government should stay out of the health care business.

**Although/Even though** many think that genetically engineered crops are a grave danger to the environment, such crops can alleviate world hunger and malnutrition.

# Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. An argumentative essay is a kind of essay in which you try to persuade your reader to agree with your opinion about a controversial topic.
2. An argumentative essay contains these five elements:
  - An explanation of the issue
  - A clear thesis statement
  - A summary of the opposing arguments
  - Rebuttals to the opposing arguments
  - Your own arguments
3. Use either a block pattern or a point-by-point pattern. Be sure to include the opposite point of view as well as your own.
4. Use contrast transition signals to connect opposing arguments and your counter-arguments.

# **PART III**

## Sentence Structure

# **Chapter 10**

## **Types of Sentences**

# Clauses

Clauses are the building blocks of sentences. A clause is a group of words that contains (at least) a subject and a verb.

## Clauses

SUBJECT    VERB

ecology is a science

## Not Clauses

to protect the environment

SUBJECT    VERB

because pollution causes cancer

after working all day

# Clauses

## Independent Clauses

An independent clause contains a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. It can stand alone as a sentence by itself. An independent clause is formed with a subject and a verb and often a complement.

The sun (Subject) rose (Verb).

## Dependent Clauses

A dependent clause begins with a subordinator such as when, while, if, that, or who. A dependent clause does not express a complete thought, so it is not a sentence by itself. A dependent clause is also called a sentence fragment. By itself, it is an incomplete sentence, and it is an error. A dependent clause is formed with a subordinator, a subject, and a verb.

... When (Subordinator) The sun (Subject) rose (Verb)...

# Kinds of Sentences

A sentence is a group of words that you use to communicate your ideas. Every sentence is formed from one or more clauses and expresses a complete thought. The four basic kinds of sentences in English are **simple**, **compound**, **complex**, and **compound-complex**.

## Simple Sentence

S              V

Freshwater boils at 100 degrees Celsius at sea level.

S              S              V              V

Freshwater and salt water do not boil and do not freeze at the same

Notice that the second sentence has two verbs, boils and freezes. This is called a compound verb. The second sentence has both a compound subject and a compound verb.

# Kinds of Sentences

## Compound Sentences

A compound sentence is two or more independent clauses joined together. There are three ways to join the clauses:

### 1. With a coordinator

Salt water boils at a higher temperature than freshwater, so food cooks faster in salt water.

### 2. With a conjunctive adverb

Salt water boils at a higher temperature than freshwater; therefore, food cooks faster in salt water.

### 3. With a semicolon

Salt water boils at a higher temperature than freshwater; food cooks faster in salt water.

# Kinds of Sentences

## 1. Compound Sentence with Coordinators

A compound sentence can be formed as follows:

Independent clause, + coordinator + independent clause

Salt water boils at a lower temperature than freshwater, so food cooks faster in salt water.

There are seven coordinators, which are also called coordinating conjunctions. You can remember them by the phrase FAN BOYS (For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So). The following sentences illustrate the meanings of the seven FAN BOYS coordinators. (Punctuation note: There is a comma after the first independent clause.)

# Coordinators (Coordinating Conjunctions)

<b>To add a reason</b>	
for	Japanese people live longer than most other nationalities, <b>for</b> they eat healthful diets.
<b>To add a similar, equal idea</b>	
and	They eat a lot of fish and vegetables, <b>and</b> they eat lightly.
<b>To add a negative equal idea</b>	
nor	They do not eat a lot of red meat, <b>nor</b> do they eat many dairy products. <i>Note: Nor means "and not." It joins two negative independent clauses. Notice that question word order is used after nor.</i>
<b>To add an opposite idea</b>	
but	Diet is one factor in how long people live, <b>but</b> it is not the only factor.
<b>To add an alternative possibility</b>	
or	However, people should limit the amount of animal fat in their diets, <b>or</b> they risk getting heart disease.
<b>To add an unexpected or surprising continuation</b>	
yet	Cigarette smoking is a factor in longevity, <b>yet</b> Japanese and other long-lived Asians have a very high rate of tobacco use.
<b>To add an expected result</b>	
so	Doctors say that stress is another longevity factor, <b>so</b> try to avoid stress if you wish to live a longer life.

## Kinds of Sentences

But and yet have similar meanings: They both signal that an opposite idea is coming. But is preferred when the two clauses are direct opposites. When the second clause is an unexpected or surprising continuation because of information given in the first clause, yet is preferred. (But is acceptable for both meanings; yet for only one meaning.) Compare:

I want to study art, but my parents want me to study engineering.  
(direct opposite)

I am very bad at math, yet my parents want me to study engineering.  
(surprising continuation after "I am very bad at math")

# Kinds of Sentences

## 2. Compound Sentence with Conjunctive Adverbs

A second way to form a compound sentence is as follows:

Independent clause; + conjunctive adverb, + independent clause

Salt water boils at a higher temperature than freshwater; therefore, food cooks faster in salt water.

Punctuation note: Put a semicolon before and a comma after the conjunctive adverb.

Several transition signals, such as on the other hand, as a result, and for example, act like conjunctive adverbs; they can also connect independent clauses with a semicolon and a comma. The following chart lists common conjunctive adverbs and a few transition signals that can be used in this way.

# Conjunctive Adverbs

## To add a similar, equal idea

also  
besides  
furthermore  
in addition  
moreover

Community colleges offer preparation for many occupations; **also/besides/furthermore/in addition/**moreover, they prepare students to transfer to a four-year college or university.

as well

Community colleges offer preparation for many occupations; they prepare students to transfer to a four-year college or university **as well**.

too

Community colleges offer preparation for many occupations; they prepare students to transfer to a four-year college or university **too**.

## To add an unexpected or surprising continuation

however  
nevertheless  
nonetheless  
still

The cost of attending a community college is low; **however/nevertheless/nonetheless/still**, many students need financial aid.

# Conjunctive Adverbs

## To add a complete contrast

on the other hand  
in contrast

Tuition at a community college is low; **on the other hand/in contrast**, tuition at private schools is high.

## To give an alternative possibility

otherwise

Students must take final exams; **otherwise**, they will receive a grade of Incomplete.

## To add an expected result

accordingly  
as a result  
consequently  
hence  
therefore  
thus

Native and nonnative English speakers have different needs; **accordingly/as a result/consequently/hence/therefore/thus**, most schools provide separate English classes for each group.

## To add an example

for example  
for instance

Most colleges now have a writing requirement for graduation; **for example/for instance**, students at my college must pass a writing test before they register for their final semester.

# Kinds of Sentences

## 3. Compound Sentence with Semicolons

A third way to form a compound sentence is to connect the two independent clauses with a semicolon alone:

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

Poland was the first Eastern European country to turn away from communism;

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

others soon followed.

This kind of compound sentence is possible only when the two independent clauses are closely related in meaning. If they are not closely related, they should be written as two simple sentences, each ending with a period.

# Kinds of Sentences

## Complex Sentences

A complex sentence contains one independent clause and one (or more) dependent clause(s). In a complex sentence, one idea is generally more important than the other. We place the more important idea in the independent clause and the less important idea in the dependent clause.

There are three kinds of dependent clauses:

1. With Adverb Clauses
2. With Adjective Clauses
3. With Noun Clauses

# Kinds of Sentences

## 1. Complex Sentence with Adverb Clauses

An adverb clause acts like an adverb; that is, it tells where, when, why, and how. An adverb clause begins with a subordinator, such as when, while, because, although, if, so, or that. It can come before or after an independent clause.

DEPENDENT ADVERB CLAUSE

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

Although women in the United States could own property, they could not vote until 1920.

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

DEPENDENT ADVERB CLAUSE

A citizen can vote in the United States, when he or she is 18 years old.

# Kinds of Sentences

## 2. Complex Sentence with Adjective Clauses

An adjective clause acts like an adjective; that is, it describes a noun or pronoun. An adjective clause begins with a relative pronoun, such as who, whom, which, whose, or that, or with a relative adverb, such as where or when. It follows the noun or pronoun it describes.

### DEPENDENT ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

Men who are not married are called bachelors.

### DEPENDENT ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

Last year we vacationed in Cozumel, which features excellent scuba diving.

# Kinds of Sentences

## 3. Complex Sentence with Noun Clauses

A noun clause begins with a *wh-question* word, that, whether, and sometimes if. A noun clause acts like a noun; it can be either the subject or an object of the independent clause.

### DEPENDENT NOUN CLAUSE

That there is a hole in the ozone layer of Earth's atmosphere is well known.

### DEPENDENT NOUN CLAUSE

Scientists know what caused it.

# Kinds of Sentences

## Compound-Complex Sentences

A Compound-complex sentence has at least three clauses, at least two of which are independent.

I wanted to travel after I graduated from college; however, I had to go to work immediately.

After I graduated from college, I wanted to travel, but I had to go to work immediately.

I could not decide where I should work or what I should do, so at first I did nothing.

Punctuate the compound part of a compound-complex sentence like a compound sentence; that is, use a semicolon/comma combination, or put a comma before a coordinator joining two independent clauses.

Punctuate the complex part like a complex sentence.

# Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. Clauses are the main building blocks of sentences. There are two kinds of clauses: independent and dependent.
  - An independent clause
  - A dependent clause
2. We build different kinds of sentences in English by combining clauses in different patterns:
  - A simple sentence is one independent clause.
  - A compound sentence is two independent clauses joined by a coordinator, a conjunctive adverb, or a semicolon.
  - A complex sentence is one independent and one (or more) dependent clauses.
  - A compound-complex sentence has two independent clauses and one (or more) dependent clauses.
3. The type of sentence you write depends on your message. When you want to show that ideas are equal, use more coordinated structures, such as compound sentences. When ideas are not equal, use more subordinated structures, such as complex sentences. Develop a good writing style by mixing sentence types.

# **Chapter 11**

## **Using Parallel Structures and Fixing Sentence Problems**

# Introduction

In this chapter, you will learn to use parallel structure to add symmetry and style to your sentences. You will also learn to recognize and repair common sentence problems: fragments, run-ons, comma splices, choppy, and stringy sentences.

# Parallelism

Parallelism is an important element in English writing, especially when you are listing and comparing and contrasting items or ideas. Parallelism means that each item in a list or comparison follows the same grammatical pattern. If you are writing a list and the first item in your list is a noun, write all the following items as nouns also. If the first item is an *-ing* word, make all the others *-ing* words; if it is an adverb clause, make all the others adverb clauses.

# Parallelism

## Parallelism with Coordinators: And, Or, But

Words, phrases, and clauses that are joined by and, or, and but are written in parallel form.

The Federal Air Pollution Control Administration regulates automobile exhausts,  
and the Federal Aviation Administration makes similar regulations for aircraft.

Pesticides cannot be sold if they have a harmful effect on humans, on animal life,  
or on the environment.

The states regulate the noise created by motor vehicles but not by commercial aircraft.

# Parallelism

## Parallelism with Correlative (Paired) Conjunctions

Use parallel forms with the paired conjunctions both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, and not only . . . but also.

A new law provides the means for **both** regulating pesticides **and** ordering their removal if they are dangerous.

Air pollutants may come either from the ocean as natural contaminants given off by sea life **or** from the internal combustion engines of automobiles.

At the present time, air pollution is controlled through laws passed **not only to** reduce the pollutants at their sources **but also** to set up acceptable standards of air quality.

# Sentence Problems

## Sentence Fragments

Sentence fragments are incomplete sentences or parts of sentences. Remember that a complete sentence must contain at least one main or independent clause.

Because some students work part-time while taking a full load of classes.

This is a dependent clause. It begins with a subordinator (because). It does not express a complete thought because there is no independent clause.

- Add an independent clause.

Because some students work part-time while taking a full load of courses,  
they have very little free time.

- Delete the subordinator (because).

Some students work part-time while taking a full load of classes.

# Sentence Problems

## Choppy Sentences

Choppy sentences are sentences that are too short. Short sentences can be effective in certain situations. For instance, when you want to make an impact, use a short sentence. However, overuse of short sentences is considered poor style in academic writing.

Choppy sentences are easy to correct. Just combine two or three short sentences to make one compound or complex sentence. Your decision to make a compound or a complex sentence should be based on whether the ideas in the short sentences are equal or whether one idea is dependent on the other.

- If the sentences express equal ideas, use coordination to combine them.
- If the sentences express unequal ideas, that is, if one sentence expresses a less important idea than the other, use subordination to combine them.

# Sentence Problems

## Run-On Sentences and Comma Splices

A run-on sentence is a sentence in which two or more independent clauses are written one after another with no punctuation. A similar error happens when two independent clauses are incorrectly joined by a comma without a coordinating conjunction. This kind of error is called a comma splice.

[RUN-ON] My family went to Australia then they emigrated to Canada.

[COMMA SPLICE] My family went to Australia, then they emigrated to Canada.

The ways to correct these two sentence errors are the same.

- Add a period: My family went to Australia. Then they emigrated to Canada.
- Add a semicolon: My family went to Australia; then they emigrated to Canada.
- Add a coordinator: My family went to Australia, **and** then they emigrated to Canada.
- Add a subordinator: My family went to Australia **before** they emigrated to Canada.

# Sentence Problems

## Stringy Sentences

A stringy sentence is a sentence with too many clauses, usually connected with and, but, so, and sometimes because. It often results from writing the way you speak, going on and on like a string without an end.

To connect a stringy sentence, divide it and/or recombine the clauses, remembering to subordinate when appropriate.

[STRINGY SENTENCE] Many students attend classes all morning, and then they work all afternoon, and they also have to study at night, so they are usually exhausted by the weekend.

[CORRECTED] Many students attend classes all morning and work all afternoon. Since they also have to study at night, they are usually exhausted by the weekend.

# Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. **Parallelism:** Two or more items joined by coordinating conjunctions and paired conjunctions must be parallel in structure. The same is true of contrasts and comparisons of items. If the first item is a noun, make all others nouns; if it is a phrase, make all the others phrases; if it is a clause, make all the others clauses.
2. **Sentence Problems:** The main kinds of problem sentences that students may write are fragments, run-ons, comma splices, choppy, and stringy sentences:
  - Fragments are incomplete sentences.
  - Run-ons and comma splices are incorrectly joined independent clauses.
  - Choppy sentences are sentences that are too short.
  - Stringy sentences are sentences with too many independent clauses.

# **Chapter 12**

## **Noun Clauses**

# Introduction

A noun clause is a dependent clause that functions as a noun. A noun clause is often part of an independent clause, where it can be a subject or an object.

SUBJECT

VERB

What the newspaper reported was incorrect.

VERB

OBJECT

People once believed that the world was flat.

A noun clause can also follow certain adjectives and nouns.

ADJECTIVE

We were happy that the semester was over.

NOUN

Who first challenged the belief that the world was flat?

# That Clauses

A *that* clause is a dependent noun clause that begins with the word *that*.

You can sometimes omit *that* if the meaning is clear without it. However, you can never omit *that* when it is the first word in a sentence.

[CORRECT] The young filmmaker hopes that his film will be a financial success.

[CORRECT] The young filmmaker hopes his film will be a financial success.

[CORRECT] That his film is a critical success is beyond doubt.

[INCORRECT] His film is a critical success is beyond doubt.

A *that* clause can appear in different locations.

# That Clauses

1. **After the independent clause verb:** The most common position of a noun clause is after the verb of the independent clause, where it functions as the object of that verb.

The catalog states that science courses require a laboratory period.

2. **After certain adjectives:** that clause can also follow certain adjectives such as happy, glad, proud, pleased, sad, upset, worried, sorry, certain, surprised, and sure. These adjectives describe emotions.

The class was surprised that the instructor canceled the final exam.

3. **After certain nouns:** A that clause can follow certain nouns such as idea, theory, thought, claim, assertion, statement, belief, notion, and opinion.

No one believed Galileo's theory that Earth revolves around the sun.

4. **At the beginning of a sentence**

That Earth is getting warmer is certain.

# That Clauses

## Sentences Beginning with *It*

Starting a sentence with a noun clause seems awkward to many English speakers, so they often rewrite such sentences by putting it at the beginning and moving the noun clause to the end.

[AWKWARD] That Earth is getting warmer is certain.

[BETTER] It is certain that Earth is getting warmer.

In addition, the verb following *it* (except *be* or any intransitive verb like *seem* or *appear*) is often written in the passive voice, especially in academic writing.

It is believed that carbon dioxide is responsible for global warming.

You can also write these sentences in the active voice:

Measurements have proven that the world's deserts are expanding.

# That Clauses

In general, English writers prefer the active voice because it is more direct. However, they prefer the passive voice in **five specific situations**:

- You want to emphasize what happened, not who did it.

Jack was promoted last month.

- The performer of the action is unknown.

The wheel was invented during the Bronze Age.

- The performer of the action is unimportant.

Smoking is prohibited on airplanes.

- You want to be objective, such as in a scientific or technical report.

With a dropper, 3 ml of HCl were added to the test tube and heated to 37°C.

- You want to be diplomatic; that is, you don't want to say who did something wrong or made an error.

I believe a mistake has been made on our bill.

# That Clauses

## Special Verb Tenses in That Clauses

One of the most common uses of noun clauses in academic writing is to report what someone else has said or written. This kind of noun clause is called reported speech, indirect speech, or indirect quotation. Verb tenses in reported speech follow special rules.

- If the main clause verb is simple present, present perfect, or future, the verb in the noun clause is in the tense that expresses the meaning that the main clause intends.

The prime ministers **agree** that global warming **is** a serious world problem.

- If the main clause verb is in past tense, the verb in the noun clause is usually in a past form.

They **hoped** that all nations **would be** responsible for finding a solution.

Exception: The verb in the noun clause stays in the present tense when it reports a fact or a general truth:

Researchers in the field **verified** that icebergs and glaciers **are** melting.

# That Clauses

## Subjunctive Noun Clauses

After certain independent clause verbs and adjectives, you must use the subjunctive form of the verb in the following noun clause. The subjunctive form of a verb is the same as the base form-be, go, come, do, and so on.

The verbs and adjectives that require the subjunctive form in the noun clauses that follow indicate urgency, advisability, necessity, and desirability.

[Verbs]	advise ask command demand	insist order prefer propose	request require suggest urge	[Adjectives]	advisable mandatory desirable necessary	essential urgent important vital
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## If/Whether Clauses

An if/whether clause is a dependent noun clause that begins with the subordinator whether or *if*. Whether is more formal than *if*. The optional phrase or not may be added in two places with whether and in one place with *if*. Therefore, there are five possible patterns:

The patient wanted to know **whether Dr. Chen practices acupuncture**.

The patient wanted to know **whether or not Dr. Chen practices acupuncture**.

The patient wanted to know **whether Dr. Chen practices acupuncture or not**.

The patient wants to know **if Dr. Chen practices acupuncture**.

The patient wants to know **if Dr. Chen practices acupuncture or not**.

# If/Whether Clauses

Notice that if/whether clauses are statements, not questions, even though they are made from yes/no questions (questions that can be answered yes or no). If/whether clauses use statement word order (subject-verb) and do not contain do, does, or did.

To change a question into an if/whether clause, add a subordinator (if or whether), change the word order to statement word order, and delete do, does, and did if necessary.

[Question]

Is the test easy?

[Sentence with if/whether clause]

The students want to know if the test is easy.

Does he know the answer?

I want to know whether he knows the answer

# Question Clauses

A question clause is a dependent noun clause that begins with a subordinator such as who, what, when, where, why, how, how much, how long, and so on. There are two possible patterns. In the first pattern, the subordinator is the subject of the clause.

The police do not know **who** committed the robbery.

In the second pattern, the subordinator is not the subject of the clause.

The police do not know **when** the robbery happened.

Notice that the word order in question clauses is statement order (subject + verb), not question order (verb + subject). Also, question clauses do not contain do, does, or did because they are not questions even though they begin with a question word.

Follow the sequence of tenses rules if necessary. (If the independent clause verb is in a past tense, the verb in the noun clause should also be in a past tense.)

# Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. A noun clause is a dependent clause that acts like a noun.
2. A noun clause can act as a subject, an object, or a subject complement. That clauses can also follow certain adjectives and nouns. The most common position of a noun clause is after the verb of the main (independent) clause
3. Starting a sentence with a noun clause is awkward. English speakers usually rewrite these sentences so that they begin with it and end with the noun clause.
4. Passive voice is often used in these kinds of sentences, especially in academic writing.
5. When a noun clause reports what someone asked or said, you must follow the sequence of tenses rules for reported speech.
6. Following verbs and adjectives indicating urgency, advisability, necessity, and desirability, use the base form of the verb in the noun clause. This kind of noun clause is called a subjunctive noun clause.
7. Noun clauses use statement word order even when they begin with a question word. They also do not contain do, does, or did because they are not questions.
8. Commas are not used with noun clauses.

# Review

<p><b>That clauses</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• formed from statements</li><li>• introduced by subordinator <b>that</b></li><li>• <b>that</b> can be omitted</li></ul>	<p>The Russian president and his wife told the press <b>(that) they were enjoying their visit.</b></p>
<p><b>Subjunctive noun clauses</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• verb in base form</li><li>• occur after verbs and adjectives of urgency, advisability, necessity, and desirability</li></ul>	<p>The president of the United States suggested <b>that Russia open its doors to U.S. business.</b></p>
<p><b>Question clauses</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• formed from <b>wh-</b> questions; <b>wh-</b> words are the subordinators: <b>who, where, which, how, etc.</b></li><li>• use SV statement word order</li><li>• <b>do, does, did</b> disappear</li></ul>	<p>Do you know <b>who the interpreter for the Russian leader was?</b></p> <p>The reporter asked <b>which companies planned to do business in Russia.</b></p>
<p><b>If/Whether clauses</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• formed from yes/no questions</li><li>• introduced by subordinator <b>if or whether.</b> <b>Whether</b> is more formal than <b>if.</b></li><li>• <b>or not</b> may be added</li><li>• use SV statement word order</li><li>• <b>do, does, did</b> disappear</li></ul>	<p>The question is <b>whether (or not) U.S. and European companies understand the Russian business environment (or not).</b></p> <p>No one knows <b>if the experiment will succeed (or not).</b></p>

# **Chapter 13**

## **Adverb Clauses**

# Introduction

An adverb clause is a dependent clause that functions as an adverb. It can tell when, where, why, how, how long, how far, how often, and for what purpose something happened. An adverb clause can also express a contrast. An adverb clause always begins with a subordinating conjunction that expresses the relationship between the adverb clause and the independent clause..

Relationship	Adverb Clause	Independent Clause
Time	SUBORDINATOR <b>As soon as</b> a baby opens its eyes,	it begins to observe its surroundings.
Contrast	SUBORDINATOR <b>Although</b> some people are more productive in the morning,	others work better at night.

# Punctuation of Adverb Clauses

The punctuation of an adverb clause depends on the order of the clauses. When an adverb clause comes first in a sentence, put a comma after it. When an adverb clause follows an independent clause, do not separate the clauses with a comma.

ADVERB CLAUSE

Because humans are curious animals,

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

they constantly explore their world.

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE

Humans constantly explore their world

ADVERB CLAUSE

because they are curious animals.

# Time Clauses

An adverb time clause tells when the action described in the independent clause took place. The action in a time clause can occur at the same time or at a different time. A time clause can come before or after an independent clause.

Time Subordinators	
when: a specific time	When people had to hunt for food, they moved from place to place.
whenever: at any time	Whenever food became scarce in one area, they moved to another area.
while: at the same time	The men hunted game while the women gathered plants.
as soon as: soon after	Eating habits changed as soon as people stopped moving from place to place in search of food.
after: later	After people learned how to grow their own food, they settled in villages.
since: from that time	Since the United States changed from an agricultural to an industrial society, eating habits there have changed.
as: at the same time	People in the United States started eating more processed convenience foods as their lives became busier.
before: earlier	Before people in the United States moved to cities, they grew most of their own food.
until: up to the time	Women had time to cook meals "from scratch" <sup>1</sup> until they went to work in factories and offices.

# Place Clauses

An adverb place clause tells where the action described by the main verb took place. The subordinators wherever; everywhere, and anywhere are similar in meaning and are interchangeable. You can begin a sentence with wherever, everywhere, and anywhere clauses, but usually not with a where clause

Place Subordinators	
where: a specific place	Most people shop <b>where they get the lowest prices.</b>
wherever: any place	I pay by credit card <b>wherever I can.</b>
everywhere: every place	Can you use an ATM card <b>everywhere you shop?</b>
anywhere: any place	<b>Anywhere you go,</b> you hear people talking on their cell phones.

# Distance, Frequency, and Manner Clauses

Adverb clauses of distance answer the question "How far?" Adverb clauses of frequency answer the question "How often?" Adverb clauses of manner answer the question "How?" Distance, frequency, and most (but not all) manner clauses follow the independent clause

Distance, Frequency, and Manner Subordinators	
as + <b>adverb</b> + as: distance	Fire had destroyed the trees in the forest <b>as far as the eye could see.</b>
as + <b>adverb</b> + as: frequency	I do not visit my parents <b>as often as they would like me to.</b>
as: manner	We mixed the chemicals exactly <b>as the lab instructor had told us to.</b>
as + <b>adverb</b> + as: manner	Our instructor asked us to fill out the questionnaire <b>as carefully as we could.</b>
as if, as though: manner	The bus's engine sounds <b>as if/as though</b> it is going to stall at any moment.

# Distance, Frequency, and Manner Clauses

## Notes

1. In informal spoken English, people often use like in place of as if and as though. Like is not correct in formal written English, so use only as if and as though in your writing.

[FORMAL] It looks as if it is going to rain.

[INFORMAL] It looks like it is going to rain.

2. In very formal written English, the verb takes the same form as it does in conditional clauses when the information in the as if/as though clause is untrue (or probably untrue). However, many English speakers use normal verb forms in this situation.

[FORMAL] John acts as if he were the Prince of Wales.

[INFORMAL] John acts as if he is the Prince of Wales.

# Reason Clauses

An adverb reason clause answers the question "Why?" A reason clause can come before or after the independent clause in a sentence.

Reason Subordinators	
because	Europeans are in some ways better environmentalists than North Americans <b>because they are more used to conserving energy.</b>
since	<b>Since many Europeans live, work, and shop in the same locale,</b> they are quite accustomed to riding bicycles, trains, and streetcars to get around.
as	<b>As the price of gasoline has always been quite high in Europe,</b> most Europeans drive high-mileage automobiles that use less fuel.

# Result Clauses

An adverb result clause expresses the effect or consequence of the information in the independent clause. A result clause follows the independent clause in a sentence.

Result Subordinators	
<b>so + adjective/adverb + that</b>	Joanna's cookie business is <b>so successful that she hired three new employees last week.</b>
<b>such a(n) + noun + that</b>	Joanne's cookies are <b>such a success that she is considering franchising the business.</b>
<b>so much/many + noun + that</b>	Running the business takes <b>so much time now that Joanne no longer does the baking herself.</b>
<b>so little/few + noun + that</b>	Now Joanne has <b>so little free time that she has not taken a vacation in months.</b>

# Purpose Clauses

An adverb purpose clause states the purpose of the action in the independent clause. A purpose normally follows the independent clause, but you may put it at the beginning of a sentence if you want to especially emphasize it.

<b>Purpose Subordinators</b>	
so that	Farmers use chemical pesticides so that they can get higher crop yields.
in order that	In order that consumers can enjoy unblemished <sup>2</sup> fruits and vegetables, farmers also spray their fields.

## Notes

1. *In order that* is formal.
2. The modals may/might, can/could, will/would, or have to usually occur in a purpose clause.
3. We often use the phrase *in order to* + a base verb or simply to + a base verb when the subjects of both the independent clause and the purpose clause are the same person or thing.

# Contrast Clauses

## 1. Direct Opposition Clauses

In this type, the information in the adverb clause and the information in the independent clause are in direct contrast.

Direct Opposition Subordinators	
whereas	San Francisco is cool during the summer, whereas Los Angeles is generally hot.
while	While most homes in San Francisco do not have air conditioning, it is a necessity in Los Angeles.

## Notes

1. *While* and *whereas* have the same meaning and are interchangeable.
2. Use a comma between the two clauses no matter which order they are in.
3. Since the two ideas are exact opposites, you can put the subordinator with either clause, and the clauses can be in either order.

# Contrast Clauses

## 2. Concession (Unexpected Result) Clauses

A concession clause means "This idea is true, but the idea in the independent clause is more important."

Concession Subordinators	
although	Although I had studied all night, I failed the test.
even though	Our house is quite comfortable even though it is small.
though	Though the citizens had despised the old regime, they disliked the new government even more.

### Notes

1. Although, even though, and though have almost the same meaning. Though is less formal. Even though is a little stronger than although.
2. Use a comma only when the concession clause comes before the independent clause.
3. Be careful about which clause you use the subordinator with. Sometimes you can use it with either clause, but not always.

# Conditional Clauses

A conditional clause states a condition for a result to happen or not happen.

Conditional Subordinators	
if	If you study, you will get good grades.  The mayor would have lost the election if the labor unions had not supported him.
unless	Unless you study, you will not get good grades.  The mayor cannot govern unless the labor unions support him.

## Notes

1. There are four basic patterns of conditional sentences. Each pattern has a different combination of verb forms depending on whether the time is present, future, or past, and on whether the condition is true or not true. The next slide chart summarizes the four patterns.
2. Unless means "if not".

# Conditional Clauses

<b>Pattern</b>	<b>Verb form in the <i>if</i> clause</b>	<b>Verb form in the independent clause</b>
1. Present time, true condition	present If (when) you have a college education,	present you earn more money.
2. Future time, true condition	present If you get at least 90% on the final exam,	future you will get an A in the course.
3. Present or future time, untrue condition	simple past If Paul were not so lazy, (Paul is lazy.)	<i>would</i> + base form he would get better grades.
4. Past time, untrue condition	past perfect If the test had been easier, (The test was hard.)	<i>would have</i> + past participle all of us would have gotten A's.

## Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. An adverb clause is a dependent clause that answers questions such as Where? When? Why? How? For what purpose? and Under what conditions? Adverb clauses can also express two kinds of contrast
2. Place an adverb clause either before or after an independent clause. If an adverb clause comes before an independent clause, put a comma after it. If it comes after an independent clause, do not use a comma. (Exception: Always use a comma with while and whereas. Also, many writers always use a comma with although, though, and even though.)

# Review

Adverb Clause Subordinators		
Time	<b>when, whenever, while, as soon as, after, since, as, before, until</b>	Whenever I had to speak in front of people, I was paralyzed by fear.
Place	<b>where, wherever, everywhere, anywhere</b>	I saw unfriendly, critical faces <b>everywhere I looked</b> .
Distance	<b>as + adverb + as</b>	She runs on the beach <b>as far as she can</b> .
Frequency	<b>as + adverb + as</b>	He visits his family <b>as often as he can</b> .
Manner	<b>as, as + adverb + as, as if/as though</b>	I tried to act <b>as if I were not afraid</b> .
Reason	<b>because, since, as</b>	<b>Since I need to make speeches for career advancement,</b> I enrolled in a speech class.

# Review

## Adverb Clause Subordinators

Purpose	so that, in order that	I took a speech class so that I could overcome my fear of public speaking.
Result	so + <i>adjective/adverb</i> + that such a(n) + <i>noun</i> + that so much/little + <i>noun</i> + that so many/few + <i>noun</i> + that	At first, making a speech made me so nervous that I got a stomachache before every class.  During the semester, I made so many speeches that I lost some of my fear.
Concession (unexpected result)	although, even though, though	Even though I am a successful business executive, I still do not enjoy speaking in public.
Contrast (direct opposition)	while, whereas	At social events, I like to talk quietly with one or two people, whereas my girlfriend enjoys being in the center of a crowd.
Conditional	if, unless	If I hadn't taken that speech class in college, I wouldn't be able to do my job well.  Unless I have to give an impromptu speech on a topic I know nothing about, I feel quite confident in front of any audience.

# **Chapter 14**

## **Adjective Clauses**

# Introduction

An adjective clause is a dependent clause that functions as an adjective. That is, it modifies (gives more information about) a noun or pronoun. Adjective clauses are one way to improve your writing style because they use subordination to connect ideas. Subordination, rather than coordination (using lots of ands and buts to connect ideas) is the mark of a mature writing style. However, take care not to use too many adjective clauses. A paragraph or essay that is filled with too many who's and which's is not good either.

# Relative Pronouns and Adverbs

An adjective clause begins with a relative pronoun or relative adverb.

## Position of Adjective Clauses

To avoid confusion, an adjective clause should come right after its antecedent.

Scientists who study fossils are called paleontologists.

Occasionally, other words may come between the antecedent and the adjective clause.

Recently, a friend of mine at the University of Toronto who is majoring in electrical engineering, received a government grant to study airport runway lighting.

Sometimes an adjective clause modifies an entire sentence. In this case, it comes at the end of the sentence. The relative pronoun is always which, and the clause is always nonrestrictive.

The team won the championship, which shocked the opponents.

# Relative Pronouns and Adverbs

## Verb Agreement in Adjective Clauses

The verb in an adjective clause agrees in number with its antecedent. Compare these two sentences:

An employee who **works** part-time usually receives no benefits.

Employees who **work** part-time usually receive no benefits.

## Punctuation of Adjective Clauses

Adjective clauses are either **restrictive** (necessary) or **nonrestrictive** (unnecessary).

- A restrictive clause is necessary because it identifies its antecedent for the reader. Do not use commas with restrictive clauses.
- A nonrestrictive clause is not necessary to identify its antecedent; it merely gives the reader some extra information about it. Because you can omit a nonrestrictive clause without loss of meaning, separate it from the rest of the sentence with commas.
- The relative pronoun that is used in restrictive clauses only. (Which is used in nonrestrictive clauses only.)

# Relative Pronouns and Adverbs

Restrictive (necessary): no commas

The professor **who teaches my biology class** won a Nobel Prize two years ago.

*(Which professor won a Nobel Prize two years ago?*

*The clause who teaches my biology class is necessary to identify the professor.)*

Nonrestrictive (unnecessary): commas

Professor Jones, **who teaches my biology class**, won a Nobel Prize two years ago.

*(The person who won a Nobel Prize is identified by his name, so the clause who teaches my biology class is extra, unnecessary information about Professor Jones. If it were omitted, we would still know which person won the Nobel Prize.)*

# Kinds of Adjective Clauses

There are different types of adjective clauses. In each different type, the relative pronoun has a different function. It may be a subject or an object in its own clause, it may replace a possessive word.

## 1. Relative Pronouns as Subjects

A relative pronoun can be the subject of its own clause.

Subject Relative Pronouns	
who, which, that	American football, <b>which</b> <sup>s</sup> <sub>v</sub> is the most popular sport in the United States, began at Harvard University.

In this pattern, who, which, and that can be either singular or plural. Make the verb agree with the antecedent.

# Kinds of Adjective Clauses

## 2. Relative Pronouns as Objects

A relative pronoun can be an object in its own clause.

Object Relative Pronouns		
whom, which, that, Ø (no pronoun)	$\begin{array}{c} o \\   \\ \text{The address } \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} s \\   \\ \text{that he gave me} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} v \\   \\ \text{was incorrect.} \end{array}$	

**Note:** You can omit that in object pattern clauses only.

The address **he gave me** was incorrect.

# Kinds of Adjective Clauses

## 3. Possessive Adjective Clauses

In possessive adjective clauses, the relative pronoun whose replaces a possessive word such as Mary's, his, our, their, the company's, or its. Possessive adjective clauses can follow the subject or the object pattern.

In the subject pattern, the whose + noun phrase is the subject of the adjective clause.  
In the object pattern, the whose + noun phrase is the object in the adjective clause.

### Notes

- Some writers feel that whose should be used to refer only to people. For animals and things, they recommend using of which.
- You have learned that the verb in an adjective clause agrees with the antecedent.
- Now learn the exception: When whose + noun is the subject of an adjective clause, the verb agrees with that noun.

# Kinds of Adjective Clauses

## 4. Relative Pronouns as Objects of Prepositions

A relative pronoun can be the object of a preposition in its own clause.

Object Relative Pronouns	
whom, which, that, Ø (no pronoun)	The address to which I sent my application was incorrect.

These adjective clauses are formed in two ways: the formal way and the informal way.

In the formal way, the preposition and relative pronoun are together at the beginning of the clause:

for whom I did a favor | with whom I shared a secret | to which I sent my application

In the informal way, the pronoun comes at the beginning and the preposition at the end of the clause:

whom I did a favor for | whom I shared a secret with | which I sent my application to

# Kinds of Adjective Clauses

## 5. Relative Pronouns in Phrases of Quantity and Quality

A relative pronoun can occur in phrases of quantity and quality.

Quantity Relative Pronouns	
some of whom all of whom each of which both of which, etc.	He gave two answers, <b>both of which were correct.</b>  The top students, <b>all of whom graduated with honors,</b> received scholarships.
Quality Relative Pronouns	
the best of whom the oldest of whom the most important of which, etc.	She has three daughters, <b>the oldest of whom is studying abroad.</b>  The comedian's jokes, <b>the funniest of which I had heard before,</b> were about politics.

These adjective clauses can follow either the subject or the object pattern, and they are always nonrestrictive; that is, they are always used with commas.

# Kinds of Adjective Clauses

## 6. Adjective Clauses of Time and Place

Adjective clauses can also be introduced by the relative adverbs *when* and *where*.

Relative Adverbs	
when, where	Ramadan is the month <b>when</b> devout Muslims fast. The Saudi Arabian city of Mecca, <b>where</b> Mohammed was born, is the holiest city in Islam.

These clauses refer to a time or a place, and they can be restrictive or nonrestrictive. In the following examples, notice how when and where replace entire prepositional.

# Kinds of Adjective Clauses

## 6. Adjective Clauses of Time and Place

It is also possible to write time and place clauses with the relative pronoun which, that, or θ and a preposition. The following patterns are possible.

March 31, 1980, was the day

- 
- when I was born.
  - on which I was born.
  - which I was born on.
  - that I was born on.
  - I was born.

## Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. An adjective clause is a dependent clause that functions as an adjective; that is, it gives more information about a noun or pronoun in the independent clause. The modified noun or pronoun is called the antecedent.
2. An adjective clause begins with a relative pronoun or a relative adverb.
3. Place an adjective clause after its antecedent and as close to it as possible to avoid confusion of meaning.
4. The verb in an adjective clause should agree in number with its antecedent.
5. Adjective clauses are either restrictive (necessary) or nonrestrictive (unnecessary). Add commas before and after nonrestrictive clauses.

# Review

Relative Pronouns				
<b>who</b>	refers to people	subject in its own clause	restrictive or nonrestrictive	The professor <b>who teaches my biology class</b> won a Nobel Prize two years ago. Professor Jones, <b>who teaches my biology class,</b> won a Nobel Prize two years ago.
<b>whom</b>	refers to people	object in its own clause	restrictive or nonrestrictive	She loaned her car to someone <b>whom she did not know.</b> Professor Jones, <b>whom I have for biology,</b> won a Nobel Prize two years ago.
<b>whose</b>	refers to people, animals, and things; shows possession	subject or object in its own clause	restrictive or nonrestrictive	I studied algebra with a professor <b>whose name I have forgotten.</b> Apple Computer, <b>whose Macintosh computer changed computing,</b> was started by two men working in a garage.
<b>which</b>	refers to animals and things	subject or object in its own clause	nonrestrictive only	She teaches biology, <b>which is my favorite subject.</b> Her husband teaches algebra, <b>which I enjoy the least.</b>
<b>that</b>	refers to animals and things; informally, refers to people	subject or object in its own clause; if <i>that</i> is an object, it may be omitted	restrictive only	The subject <b>that I enjoy the least</b> is algebra. The subject <b>I enjoy the least</b> is algebra.

# **Chapter 15**

## **Participial Phrases**

# Participles

A participle is an adjective formed from a verb. There are two kinds of participles: *-ing* participles (called present participles) and *-ed* participles (called past participles).

a **sleeping** baby | a **frightening** experience | a **frightened** child | a **used** car

The two kinds of participles come from either active or passive voice verbs.

- An active voice verb becomes an *-ing* participle.

The essay **won** an award. → Jacob wrote the **winning** essay.

- A passive voice verb becomes an *-ed* participle.

My leg was **broken** in three places. → My **broken** leg is healing slowly.

- There are also perfect forms.

The students **had solved** most of the problems → **Having solved** most of the problems

# Participles

The most commonly used participle forms are shown in the following chart.

## Participle Forms

Description	-ing Forms	-ed Forms
The <b>general forms</b> do not indicate time. Time is determined by the main clause verb.	verb + <i>ing</i> <b>opening</b>	verb + <i>ed, en, t, d</i> <b>opened</b> <b>taken</b> <b>bought</b> <b>sold</b>
The <b>perfect forms</b> emphasize that the action happened before the time of the main clause verb.	<i>having</i> + past participle <b>having opened</b>	

# Participial Phrases

A participial phrase contains a participle + other words. Use participial phrases to modify nouns and pronouns.

Students  planning to graduate in June must make an appointment with the registrar.

Participial phrases can be formed by reducing adjective clauses and adverb clauses. For this reason, they are sometimes called **reduced clauses**.

## Reduced Adjective Clauses

You can reduce a subject pattern adjective clause as follows.

1. Delete the relative pronoun (who, which, or that).
2. Change the verb to a participle.
3. Keep the same punctuation (commas or no commas).
4. Put the word not at the beginning of a participial phrase to make it negative.

# Participial Phrases

## Position and Punctuation of Participial Phrases

Participial phrases, like adjective clauses, can be restrictive (necessary) or nonrestrictive (unnecessary). If the original clause is nonrestrictive, the phrase is nonrestrictive also. A nonrestrictive phrase is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. Restrictive phrases use no commas.

1. A restrictive participial phrase can only follow the noun it modifies and does not have commas.

A woman hurrying to catch a bus tripped and fell.

2. A nonrestrictive participial phrase can precede or follow the noun it modifies and is separated by a comma or commas from the rest of the sentence.

Teresa, hurrying to catch a bus stumbled and fell.

CAUTION! When you begin a sentence with a participial phrase, make certain that the phrase modifies the subject of the sentence. If it does not, your sentence is incorrect.

3. Sometimes a participial phrase modifies an entire independent clause. In this case, it follows the clause and requires a comma.

The team won the championship, shocking their opponents.

# Participial Phrases

## General Form *-ing* Participial Phrases

Verb Tense	Sentence with Adjective Clause	Sentence with Participial Phrase
Simple present	Many students <b>who study at this university</b> are from foreign countries.	Many students <b>studying at this university</b> are from foreign countries.
Present continuous	Students <b>who are taking calculus</b> must buy a graphing calculator.	Students <b>taking calculus</b> must buy a graphing calculator.
Simple past	The team members, <b>who looked happy after their victory</b> , were cheered by the fans.	The team members, <b>looking happy after their victory</b> , were cheered by the fans.
Past continuous	The crowd, <b>which was cheering wildly as the game ended</b> , would not leave the stadium.	<b>Cheering wildly as the game ended</b> , the crowd would not leave the stadium.
Future	Everyone <b>who will take the TOEFL next month</b> must preregister.	Everyone <b>taking the TOEFL next month</b> must preregister.

# Participial Phrases

## General Form -ed Participial Phrases

A general form -ed participle comes from both present and past tense passive voice verbs.

<b>Verb Tense</b>	<b>Sentence with Adjective Clause</b>	<b>Sentence with Participial Phrase</b>
Simple present	Lab reports <b>that are not handed in by Friday</b> will not be accepted.	Lab reports <b>not handed in by Friday</b> will not be accepted.
Simple past	The proposed law, <b>which was opposed by the majority of the people</b> , did not pass.	The proposed law, <b>opposed by the majority of the people</b> , did not pass.

# Participial Phrases

## Perfect Form Participial Phrases

Perfect forms emphasize the completion of an action that takes place before the action of the main verb. You can change both present perfect and past perfect verbs into perfect participles.

Verb Tense	Sentence with Adjective Clause	Sentence with Participial Phrase
Present perfect	The secrets of the universe, <b>which have fascinated people for centuries</b> , are slowly being revealed.	The secrets of the universe, <b>having fascinated people for centuries</b> , are slowly being revealed.
Past perfect	The senator, <b>who had heard that most people opposed the new law</b> , voted against it.	<b>Having heard that most people opposed the new law</b> , the senator voted against it.

# Participial Phrases

## Participial Phrases and Writing Style

Use participial phrases to improve your writing style.

- If you write sentences with a lot of which's, who's, and that's, consider reducing some adjectives clauses to participial phrases.
- If you write short, choppy sentences, consider combining them by using participial phrases.
- Vary your sentence openings by occasionally starting a sentence with a participial phrase.

[CHOPPY SENTENCES] First-born children are often superachievers. They feel pressure to behave well and to excel in school.

[IMPROVED] First-born children, who feel pressure to behave well and to excel in school, are often superachievers.

# Participial Phrases

## Reduced Adverb Clauses

You can reduce some adverb clauses to *-ing* and *-ed* phrases.

### Sentence with Adverb Clause

When you enter a theater, you should turn off your cell phone.

Because he had read that the company needed workers, John applied for a job.

### Sentence with *-ing* or *-ed* Phrase

When entering a theater, you should turn off your cell phone.

Having read that the company needed workers, John applied for a job.

# Participial Phrases

## Reduced Adverb Clauses

To reduce an adverb clause, follow these steps:

1. Make sure that the subject of the adverb clause and the subject of the independent clause are the same.
2. Delete the subject of the adverb clause. If necessary, move it to the subject position in the independent clause.
3. Change the adverb clause verb to the appropriate participle.
4. Delete or retain the subordinator according to the following rules:
  - a. Retain before, and retain since when it is a time subordinator.
  - b. Delete as when it is a time subordinator.
  - c. Delete all three reason subordinators because, since, and as.
  - d. Retain after, while, and when if the participial phrase follows the independent clause. When the phrase is in another position, you may either retain or delete these subordinators.

# Participial Phrases

## Delete or retain the subordinator

- Retain

### Before

Before a student chooses a college, he or she should consider several factors.

**Before choosing a college**, a student should consider several factors.

A student should consider several factors **before choosing a college**.

### Since

Carlos has not been back home since he came to the United States three years ago.

**Since coming to the United States three years ago**, Carlos has not been back home.

Carlos has not been back home **since coming to the United States three years ago**.

# Participial Phrases

## Delete or retain the subordinator

- Delete because since

as (reason)

Because (Since/As) Carlos came from a very conservative family, he was shocked at the U.S. system of coed dormitories.

**Coming from a very conservative family**, Carlos was shocked at the U.S. system of coed dormitories.

Carlos was shocked at the American system of coed dormitories **coming from a very conservative family**.

as (time)

As he gradually got used to the way of life in the United States, he became less homesick.

**Gradually getting used to the way of life in the United States**, he became less homesick.

# Participial Phrases

## Delete or retain the subordinator

- Retain or Delete

### After

After he had passed the TOEFL exam, he became a freshman in college.

**After passing the TOEFL exam,** he became a freshman in college.

**Having passed the TOEFL exam,** he became a freshman in college.

He became a freshman in college **after passing the TOEFL exam.**

### While

While he was preparing for the TOEFL, he lived with a family.

**While preparing for the TOEFL,** he lived with a family.

**Preparing for the TOEFL,** he lived with a family.

He lived with a family **while preparing for the TOEFL.**

# Review

These are the important points covered in this chapter:

1. Participles are adjectives formed from verbs. Some participles are from active voice verbs.

Description	<i>-ing</i>	<i>-ed</i>
General: no time indicated	talking	talked
Perfect: time before that of the main verb	having talked	

2. You can form a participial phrase by reducing an adjective clause:
3. Participial phrases may also be reduced from time and reason adverb clauses:
  - Participial phrases reduced from time clauses may occupy various positions in a sentence, and the time subordinators are sometimes deleted and sometimes retained.
  - Participial phrases reduced from reason clauses may come before or after the independent clause in a sentence. Reason subordinators are always deleted.

# **Appendix**

APPENDIX A:

The Process of Academic Writing

# Introduction

Academic writing, as the name implies, is the kind of writing that you are required to do in college or university. It differs from other kinds of writing, such as personal, literary, journalistic, or business writing. Its differences can be explained in part by its particular audience, tone, and purpose.

It is revealed by your choice of words and grammatical structures and even the length of your sentences. The tone of a piece of writing can be, for example, serious, amusing, personal, or impersonal. Academic writing is formal and serious in tone. Finally, the purpose of a piece of writing determines its organizational pattern.

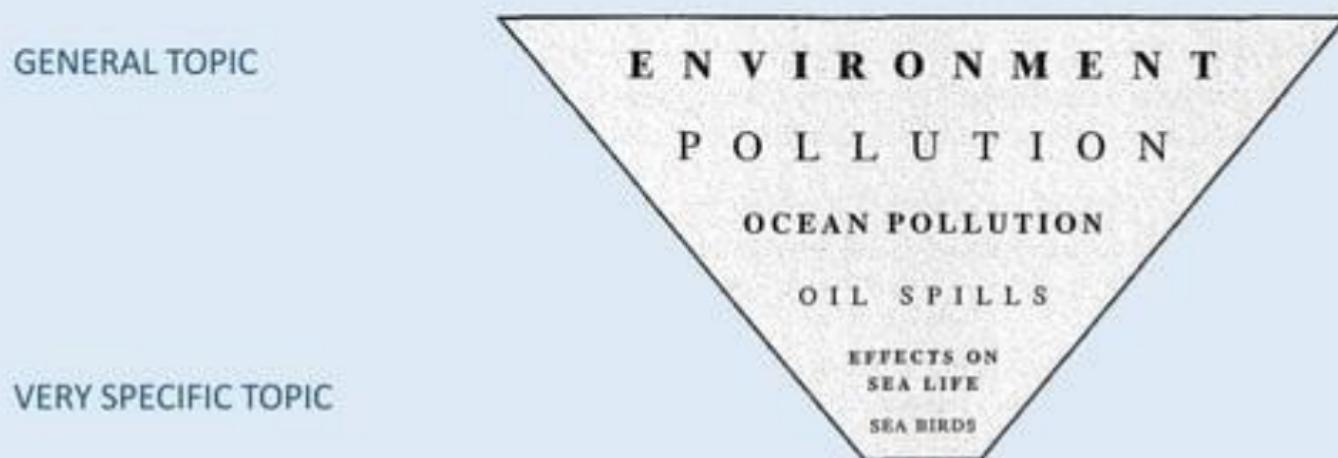
Writing is a process of creating, organizing, writing, and polishing.

# The Writing Process, Step 1: Creating (Prewriting)

The first step in the writing process is to choose a topic and collect information about it.

## Step 1A: Choosing and Narrowing a Topic

The diagram illustrates the process of narrowing a topic.



# The Writing Process, Step 1: Creating (Prewriting)

## Step 1B: Generating Ideas

After you have chosen a topic and narrowed it, the next prewriting step is to collect information and develop ideas.

Four useful techniques for exploring within yourself are journal writing, listing, freewriting, and clustering.

### Journal Writing

In journal writing, you can record your daily experiences, or you can write down quotations that are meaningful to you.

Three other brainstorming techniques are *listing*, *freewriting*, and *clustering*.

### Listing

Listing is a brainstorming technique in which you think about your topic and quickly make a list of whatever words or phrases come into your mind. Your purpose is to produce as many ideas as possible in a short time, and your goal is to find a specific focus for your topic.

# The Writing Process, Step 1: Creating (Prewriting)

## Step 1B: Generating Ideas

For Listing, Follow this procedure:

1. Write down the general topic at the top of your paper.
2. Make a list of every idea that comes into your mind about the topic. Don't stop writing until you have filled a page. Keep the ideas flowing. Try to stay on the general topic; however, if you write down information that is completely off the topic, don't worry about it because you can cross it out later.
3. Use words, phrases, or sentences, and don't worry about spelling or grammar.
4. Now rewrite your list and group similar ideas together. Cross out items that don't belong or that are duplications.

The writer can choose one list to be the basis for a single paragraph or all three for an essay.

# The Writing Process, Step 1: Creating (Prewriting)

## Step 1B: Generating Ideas

### Freewriting

Freewriting is a brainstorming activity in which you write freely about a topic because you are looking for a specific focus. While you are writing, one idea will spark another idea. As with listing, the purpose of freewriting is to generate as many ideas as possible and to write them down without worrying about appropriateness, grammar, spelling, logic, or organization.

Follow this procedure:

1. Write the topic at the top of your paper.
2. Write as much as you can about the topic until you run out of ideas. Include such supporting items as facts, details, and examples that come into your mind about the subject.
3. After you have run out of ideas, reread your paper and circle the main idea(s) that you would like to develop.
4. Take each main idea and freewrite again.

# The Writing Process, Step 1: Creating (Prewriting)

## Step 1B: Generating Ideas

### Clustering

Clustering is another brainstorming activity you can use to generate ideas. To use this technique, first, write your topic in the center of your paper and draw a "balloon" around it.

This is your center, or core, balloon. Then write whatever ideas come to you in balloons around the core. Think about each of these ideas and make more balloons around them.



# The Writing Process, Step 2: Planning (Outlining)

In Step 1, you chose topics and narrowed them, and you generated ideas by brainstorming. In Step 2 of the writing process, the planning stage, you organize the ideas into an outline.

## **Step 2A: Making Sublists**

The two sublists are (1) items that describe international students (poor verbal skills) and (2) items that describe Americans (Americans difficult to understand).

## **Step 2B: Writing the Topic Sentence**

Finally, write a topic sentence. The topic is clearly communication problems.

## **Step 2C: Outlining**

An outline is a formal plan for a paragraph. You may never need to prepare a formal outline, but if you do, this is what one looks like.

With this outline in front of you, it should be relatively easy to write a paragraph. There is a topic sentence, two main supporting points, supporting details, and since this is a stand-alone paragraph, a concluding sentence.

## The Writing Process, Step 3: Writing

Step 3 in the writing process is writing the rough draft. Follow your outline as closely as possible, and don't worry about grammar, punctuation, or spelling. A rough draft is not supposed to be perfect.

Above all, remember that writing is a continuous process of discovery. As you are writing, you will think of new ideas that may not be in your brainstorming list or outline. You can add or delete ideas at any time in the writing process. Just be sure that any new ideas are relevant.

### Communication Problems

<sup>1</sup> International students in the United States face communication problems with Americans. <sup>2</sup>It is a kind of culture shock to them. <sup>3</sup>They soon realize that their verbal skills are poor. <sup>4</sup>They lack vocabulary, and they have poor pronunciation. <sup>5</sup>American people don't understand them. <sup>6</sup>They also speak too softly because they are shy. <sup>7</sup>Students don't feel confidence when speaking English. <sup>8</sup>Is difficult for foreign people to understand Americans. <sup>9</sup>Americans use incomplete sentences, and often they use unclear expressions. <sup>10</sup>Americans talk too fast, so it is often impossible to catch their meaning. <sup>11</sup>Americans also use a lot of slangs and idioms. <sup>12</sup>People do not know their meaning.

# The Writing Process, Step 4: Polishing

The fourth and final step in the writing process is polishing what you have written. This step is also called revising and editing. Polishing is most successful if you do it in two stages. First, attack the big issues of content and organization (revising). Then work on the smaller issues of grammar and punctuation (editing).

## Step 4A: Revising

After you write the rough draft, the next step is to revise it. When you revise, you change what you have written to improve it. You check it for content and organization, including unity, coherence, and logic. You can change, rearrange, add, or delete, all for the goal of communicating your thoughts in a clearer, more effective, and more interesting way.

## The Writing Process, Step 4: Polishing

During the first revision, do not try to correct grammar, sentence structure, spelling, or punctuation; this is proofreading, which you will do later. During the first revision, be concerned mainly with content and organization.

- Read over your paragraph carefully for a general overview. Focus on the general aspects of the paper and make notes in the margins about rewriting the parts that need to be improved.
- Check to see that you have achieved your stated purpose,
- Check for general logic and coherence. Your audience should be able to follow your ideas easily and understand what you have written.
- Check to make sure that your paragraph has a topic sentence and that the topic sentence has a central (main) focus.
- Check for unity. Cross out sentences that are off the topic.
- Check to make sure that the topic sentence is developed with sufficient supporting details. Does each paragraph give the reader enough information to understand the main idea? If the main point lacks sufficient information, make notes in the margin such as "add more details" or "add an example."
- Check your use of transition signals.
- Finally, does your paragraph have or need a concluding sentence? If you wrote a final comment, is it on the topic?

# The Writing Process, Step 4: Polishing

## Step 4B: Editing (Proofreading)

The second step in polishing your writing is proofreading your paper for possible errors in grammar, sentence structure, spelling, and punctuation.

- Check each sentence for correctness and completeness. You should have no fragments and no choppy or run-on sentences.
- Check each sentence for a subject and a verb, subject-verb agreement, correct verb tenses, noun plurals, articles, and so on.
- Check the mechanics: punctuation, spelling, and capitalization.
- Check for incorrectly used or repeated words.
- Check for contractions (can't, isn't, I'll, and so on). (Some writing instructors permit them, but others do not. Find out your instructor's preference.)



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