

Achieve

College Composition

Study Guide

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Achieve
PO Box 10188 #29831
Newark, NJ 07101-3188

Tel: 888.900.8380

Visit the Achieve website for more information.

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Chapter 1: Grammar Fundamentals

Objectives

1. To identify common grammatical errors and avoid those errors when writing.
2. To understand revision strategies.
3. To differentiate between parts of speech.

1.1 Parts of Speech

Grammar is the rules covering how words are formed and combined to create sentences. It is the structure of a language. There are eight parts of speech. The chart below lists these parts of speech with definition and examples.

Part of Speech	Definition	Examples
Noun	Person, place, or thing	boy, girl, dog, cat
Verb	Action or state	run, sit, talk, read, live
Pronoun	Word that replaces a noun	I, he, she, we, they
Adjective	Word used to describe a noun	yellow, talkative, sad, furry
Adverb	Word used to describe a verb	slowly, well, quietly
Preposition	Word that links a noun to another word; used to indicate direction or relationship	to, after, away, with
Conjunction	Word that joins words or sentences	but, and, or
Interjection	Short exclamation expressing emotion	Ouch! Hi! Aha!

These eight parts are used by writers to form sentences. A basic sentence contains both a subject and a predicate. The **predicate** of the sentence contains a verb and describes the action or state of being. The **subject** of the sentence contains a noun that describes who or what is doing the action. The verb may also have an **object**, which is a noun that describes who or what received the action. **Modifiers** are adjectives or adverbs used to describe the subject, predicate, or object.

Nouns, verbs, and pronouns have number. This refers to whether the word is singular or plural. Pronouns and verbs can be first, second, or third person. Person describes the doer or doers of the action. Verbs can also indicate tense. **Tense** describes when the action takes place: past, present, or future.

Nouns

Subject/predicate agreement: The number indicated by the subject and predicate have to agree. A singular noun gets a singular verb, while a plural noun gets a plural verb. For most verbs, the plural and singular forms are the same. However, in some cases, the verb takes the plural form.

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- The *monkeys have* escaped their cage
- The *monkey has* escaped his cage.

Be particularly alert to number agreement when proofreading sentences where the subject and verb are separated by other words or phrases.

- The *monkeys*, who are always causing trouble, *have* escaped their cage again.

Some nouns cause confusion because they are singular but refer to a group (committee, family, or team). These nouns take the singular form of the verb.

- The *family* of monkeys *has* escaped.

Noun/pronoun agreement: A pronoun needs to agree in number with the noun it replaces.

- The *Smiths* live next door to me. I have known *them* all my life.

Be careful with singular nouns that refer to groups.

- The *Committee* made a decision. *It* took a break immediately afterward.

Possessive versus plural form: Writers are often confused about when to use -'s. The plural form of a noun is formed by adding -s. The possessive form is formed by adding -'s.

- The *boys* ran down the street.
- The *boy's* mother yelled at him for running.

Verbs

Verb tense agreement: Within a sentence or paragraph, all verbs must agree in tense. Consistency in verb tense can prevent confusion. The following chart clarifies the different verb tenses.

Tense	Simple	Progressive	Perfect	Perfect Progressive
Present	I dance	I am dancing	I have danced	I have been dancing
Past	I danced	I was dancing	I had danced	I had been dancing
Future	I will dance	I will be dancing	I will have danced	I will have been dancing

Passive versus active voice: Active voice means that the object of the sentence receives the action. Passive voice means that the subject of the sentence receives the action.

- Active: Michael hit the baseball.
- Passive: The baseball was hit by Michael.

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Technically, both voices are correct. However, Standard Written English prefers the active voice to the passive voice. Active voice is more clear and concise. Passive voice is wordier and harder for the reader to understand. When you write your responses for the Excelsior College Examination, the evaluators will be looking for overuse of the passive voice in your writing.

Subject/predicate agreement: The noun and verb should agree in number.

- Wrong: Chase and Sarah (plural compound subject) often rides (singular verb) ATVs together.
- Right: Chase and Sarah (plural compound subject) often ride (plural verb) ATVs together.
- Wrong: The number of dogs in the obedience class (singular noun) are (plural verb) growing each day.
- Right: The number of dogs in the obedience class (singular noun) is (singular verb) growing each day.

Infinitive phrases: Infinitive phrases can function as an adjective, adverb, or a noun. These phrases use the infinitive form of a verb (to +simple form of the verb).

- To leave
- To have bought
- To win

Participle phrases: A participle phrase functions as an adjective modifying a noun. It is formed by combining the present participle or past participle of a verb with adverbs, nouns, and their modifiers.

- Looking at her busy schedule
- Planned as a quiet picnic
- Seen by the teacher

Participle phrase using the present participle:

- Reid, looking at the display, questioned the salesperson about the televisions.
- The salesperson, talking about the televisions, attracted lots of attention.

Participle phrase using the past participle:

- The paper airplane, watched by the class, flew onto the teacher's desk.
- The teacher, angered by his misbehavior, asked Michael to stay after class.

Gerund phrases: Gerund phrases are used as nouns. These phrases are formed by combining the *ing* form of a verb with its modifiers.

- *Reading a mystery story* is Sam's favorite hobby.
- The student finished his homework by *working steadily through the night*.

Pronouns

Who versus whom: The correct way to use the pronoun *who* versus *whom* can be confusing to writers. *Who* is used as the subject of the verb. *Whom* is used as the object of the verb.

- Whom did you call last night?
- Who called you?

If you are having trouble deciding which word is the object of the verb, try changing the word order. Putting the sentence in this order can help: subject, verb, and then object.

- You called *whom* last night?

You can also try replacing *who* or *whom* with either *he* or *him*. *He* replaces *who* and *him* replaces *whom* (both words have the letter m).

- You called *him* last night?
- *He* called you?

Possessive forms: The word *it* causes confusion for many writers. Normally, the possessive form of a noun is formed by adding -'s. However, the possessive form of *it* is *its*. The only time *it's* is used is as a contraction for *it is*.

- The store closed its doors for the last time.
- It's closed permanently.

To check if you've got this right, try replacing *it's* with *it is*. If the sentence still makes sense, use *it's*. This same rule applies to *your* and *you're*. *Your* is possessive. *You're* is the contraction *you are*. Also, *there* is a place. *Their* is possessive. *They're* is the contraction form of *they are*.

Pronouns in compound constructions: *I* (or *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*) is used to replace the subject of the verb. *Me* (or *him*, *her*, *them*) is used to replace the object of the verb. Which is correct?

- Beth and I walked to the park.
- The teacher gave detentions to Beth and me.

Both are correct. If you're having trouble deciding which word to use, try taking the extra subject out of the sentence. If it still makes sense, you've got it right.

Pronouns after the verb to be:

Which is correct?

- It was me on the phone.
- It was I on the phone.

I is the subject of the verb. *Me* is the object of the verb. Therefore, *it was I* is correct. Unfortunately, it sounds awkward and unnatural. It is better to rewrite the sentence to avoid this construction.

- I was on the phone.

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Pronouns and antecedents: The noun that a pronoun replaces is called the antecedent. The pronoun must agree with its antecedent. If the antecedent is plural, the pronoun must be plural as well.

- The customer bought his newspaper.
- The customers bought their newspapers.

Writers sometimes make mistakes in agreement when trying to avoid gender-specific language.

- Each person should buy their own newspaper.

This is incorrect. *Each* is singular and *their* is plural. The correct way to write this sentence is:

- Each person should buy his or her own newspaper.

Indefinite references: It should be clear which word is the antecedent to the pronoun.

- Theo visited his father before he left on his trip.

Who is taking the trip? Theo or his father? Simply rewriting the sentence can make it clearer.

- Before Theo left on his trip, he visited his father.

One pronoun replaces one noun in the sentence. Sentences in which the pronoun could refer to several words can be confusing to the reader.

- His trip will be informative, fun, and unusual, which is why he is excited.

In this sentence, *which* could refer to several words. Rewriting the sentence will make it clearer.

- He is excited about his trip because it will be informative, fun, and unusual.

Expletive constructions: Expletive constructions occur when a writer begins a sentence with *there are* or *this means*. Essentially, these constructions add unnecessary words to the sentence. Good writing avoids the use of extra words.

- There were two people in town who spoke French fluently.
- Two people in town spoke French fluently.

The second sentence is clearer and more direct than the first sentence.

1.2 Chapter One Review Questions

1. Which of the following sentences has all of the **verbs** correctly underlined?
 - a. Dave ran to the store to buy milk and bread.
 - b. My laptop stopped working when I spilled coffee on it.
 - c. The grass was too long for me to mow.
 - d. Let's drive by the lake after it rains.

2. Which of the following sentences uses “plant” as a verb?
 - a. Let's plant this mango tree in the backyard.
 - b. My brother works at the food processing plant.
 - c. The Venus fly trap is my favorite type of plant.
 - d. We planned a trip to Disney World for this summer.

3. Which of the following sentences has all of the **nouns** correctly underlined?
 - a. The concert was so loud I could hardly speak to my friend.
 - b. The moving truck took forever to get to our new house.
 - c. This coffee needs more sugar.
 - d. We should put the toys away after we finish playing with them.

4. Which of the following sentences uses “fly” as a noun?
 - a. I am learning to fly a drone.
 - b. The fly landed on the windowsill.
 - c. I had to fly to Denver for work.
 - d. If you don't close your mouth a bug will fly into it.

5. Which of the following sentences has all of the **pronouns** correctly underlined?
 - a. Rufus Xavier Sarsaparilla found a kangaroo and now it is his.
 - b. After we made eggs, I volunteered to wash the dishes.
 - c. He came over to help me fix my Jeep.
 - d. Lilly started barking at the neighbor's cat.

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6. Which sentence is correct?

- a. Its too hot outside to ride our bikes.
- b. It's very hard to put new spark plugs on a Chevy.
- c. Its going to take at least a month for the shoes I order to arrive.
- d. That chair has a mark on it's leg.

7. Which sentence is correct?

- a. There going to have a hard time getting people to leave this party.
- b. Their taking a trip to Italy at the end of the month.
- c. The flashlight is in the nightstand over there.
- d. They're used to be a grocery store where that gas station is.

8. Which sentence is correct?

- a. Whom ate the last piece of birthday cake?
- b. With who are you going to the dance?
- c. Who gets to help who?
- d. To whom are you sending that text?

9. Which sentence is correct?

- a. Nikki and Josh was working hard to study for the test.
- b. David and Cara were replacing the batteries in the remote control.
- c. The chairs and the table is in the wrong place.
- d. The rabbits was hopping in their cage.

10. Which sentence is correct?

- a. The student had a hard time finding their homework.
- b. Each customer needs to download their coupon before checking out.
- c. The bowling team brought their own balls.
- d. The goldfish have their own pond.

Answer Keys found on page 56

Chapter 2: Constructing Sentences

Objectives

1. To create complex sentences of varying structures for more advanced writing.
2. To understand revision strategies.
3. To differentiate between advanced parts of speech.

2.1 Advanced Parts of Speech

When writing more complex sentences, different types of words and phrases should be used to add variety to the sentence structure. In addition, complex sentences will also allow the writer to have more specific details and clarity within a writing.

Adjectives and Adverbs

Indicating degree: The chart below describes a quality that adjectives and adverbs share: degree.

Degree	Definition	Example
Positive	Describes one item; uses standard form of the word	He yelled loudly. He had a loud voice.
Comparative	Contrasts two items; adds -er or uses more/less.	He yelled louder than Mike. His voice is louder than Mike's.
Superlative	Compares three or more items; adds -est or uses most/least.	Out of all of us, he yelled the loudest. He had the loudest voice of any of us.

Mistakes happen when writers combine methods of indicating degree.

- He yelled more louder than Mike.
- He had the most loudest voice of any of us.

The rule of thumb is to add an ending to one syllable words and add a prefatory word in front of words of three syllables.

Adverb versus adjective after a linking verb: To decide which to use, consider the meaning of the sentence. In some cases, the adverb might make the most sense, but in others, the sentence will be clearer if you use an adjective.

- Sarah felt badly about her comments.
- Sarah felt bad about her comments.

Was Sarah bad at feeling or were her feelings bad ones? Consider the meaning you wish to convey to determine which word to use.

Prepositions and Conjunctions

Can you end a sentence with a preposition? The correct answer is *rarely*. Most grammar textbooks will tell you that you should never end a sentence with a preposition. In most cases, this is correct. You should revise sentences to avoid ending with a preposition. However, in some cases, the preposition is part of an idiomatic construction. In these instances, ending the sentence with a preposition may be correct. If ending a sentence with a preposition is never correct, how will the princess live happily ever after?

Can you start a sentence with a conjunction? The correct answer is *sometimes*. It is not technically incorrect. However, sentences that begin with conjunctions tend to be incomplete or sound child-like. It is better to revise the sentence to avoid beginning with a conjunction.

Parallelism: When writing, it is important that series of words be identical in form. This is called parallelism or parallel construction.

- Mark enjoys reading, watching television, and to play soccer.

Reading and *watching television* are parallel but *to play soccer* doesn't match the other two activities. There are several ways this sentence could be revised.

- Mark enjoys reading, watching television, and playing soccer.
- Mark likes to read, to watch television, and to play soccer.

Phrases

A phrase is a group of words used together to create its own meaning. A phrase does not contain a subject and a predicate. There are different types of phrases. Each type of phrase functions as a different part of speech.

Prepositional phrases: Prepositional phrases combine a preposition with a noun. These phrases can also contain words that modify the noun. A prepositional phrase can be used as an adjective modifying a noun or as an adverb modifying a verb.

- Into the dark woods
- Under the large tree
- Over the river
- After the movie

Prepositional phrases used as an adjective modifying a noun:

- Marlo is the girl *with curly blonde hair*.
- Michael bought the dog *in the window*.

Prepositional phrase used as an adverb modifying a verb:

- Sarah ran *down the hill*.
- Adrian spoke *in a calm voice*.

Appositive phrases: Appositive phrases function as an adjective modifying a noun. Appositive phrases are a group of words that redefine or explain another word. These phrases can sometimes function as an adverb modifying a verb.

- American Idol, the popular TV show
- Matt Damon, the award-winning actor
- Carol, the emergency room nurse

Appositive phrase used to modify a noun:

- Mardi Gras, *the annual celebration*, draws tourists from around the world.
- Jason, *the defense lawyer*, argued that the judge was biased.

Absolute phrases: Absolute phrases modify the entire sentence rather than one individual word. These phrases are usually formed by combining a participle with a noun and its modifiers.

- *Tires squealing*, the car raced out of the parking lot.
- *Wallet emptied*, he left the store with several bags.

Infinitive phrase functioning as an adverb:

- She chews gum *to quit smoking*.

Infinitive phrase functioning as a noun:

- *To buy a car* is Edward's first goal.

Infinitive phrase functioning as an adjective:

- She needed an excuse *to leave early*.

Avoid wordiness: Writers use phrases to make their writing more interesting. Use of a variety of phrase types can make reading more enjoyable. However, too many phrases in a row can cause confusion for the reader. It can make it hard to determine which phrase is modifying which word.

- The driver raced his classic Corvette tires squealing out the parking lot, close behind him the police followed wanting to arrest him for a crime he committed in another state not here.

This paragraph has too many phrases strung together. Is the parking lot close behind him? The police were behind wanting? Who's not here? Rewriting can clarify the details the writer wants to convey.

- Tires squealing, the driver raced his classic Corvette out of the parking lot. The police, following close behind, wanted to arrest him for a crime he committed in another state.

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Avoid dangling modifiers: A dangling modifier occurs when a phrase is not clearly connected to the word it modifies. Sometimes this happens because the word being modified is left out of the sentence, or because there are too many words between the phrase and its modifier.

- Driving around the blind corner, the deer was hit by a car.

With a dangling modifier, the deer was driving in this sentence. The placement of the phrase can affect the meaning of the sentence. This sentence can be rewritten to avoid confusion.

- The deer was hit by a car driving around the blind corner.

Avoid faulty parallelism: Writers can create faulty parallelism when they use a series of phrases. To avoid this, use the same kind of phrase for each item in the series.

- I enjoy camping, to go hiking in the mountains, and paddling my kayak in the lake.

This sentence contains a gerund, an infinitive phrase, and a gerund phrase. The sentence should be rewritten to avoid faulty parallelism.

- I enjoy camping in the woods, hiking in the mountains, and paddling my kayak in the lake.

Clauses

Clauses, unlike phrases, contain a subject and a predicate. You will need to understand the difference between the two kinds of clauses: dependent and independent.

Independent clauses: Independent clauses express a complete thought. These clauses describe an action or state of being and name the doer of the action. Independent clauses are sometimes referred to as main clauses. Unlike a dependent clause, an independent clause can stand alone as a complete sentence.

- Jim read a book at the coffee shop, but he found it hard to concentrate.

The conjunction *but* is used to link the two independent clauses to create one sentence.

Dependent clauses: Dependent clauses have a subject and a predicate but express an incomplete thought. A dependent clause includes an introductory word that prevents the clause from standing on its own. This word can be either a subordinating conjunction or a relative pronoun. The addition of the introductory word makes the sentence require more information than is provided by the clause alone. A dependent clause must be in a sentence with an independent clause. The sentence is incomplete without both clauses.

- *Although he found it hard to concentrate*, Jim read a book at the coffee shop.

The word *although* marks the start of the dependent clause. Dependent clauses modify some element of the independent clause. It can function as an adjective modifying the subject or object, or it may function as an adverb modifying the verb. Dependent clauses may also function as a noun within the independent clause.

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Used as an adverb:

- Maria felt sick *if she sat in the backseat of a car.*

Used as an adjective:

- The store opened on Monday *when it was scheduled to open.*

Used a noun:

- David fed his dog *whatever the dog wanted.*

Avoid incomplete sentences: Writers need to avoid punctuating a dependent clause as if the clause is a complete sentence. Dependent clauses without an independent clause are called sentence fragments.

- Although the phrase “storm of the century” is overused, Hurricane Ruth may turn out to earn that name.

Changing the period to a comma changes the fragment to a complete sentence.

- Although the phrase “storm of the century” is overused, Hurricane Ruth may turn out to earn that name.

Dangling constructions: Dependent clauses can function as an adjective or adverb. As is true with phrases, if the word the dependent clause modifies is positioned far away or is missing, the clause can be described as dangling.

- When it is hot, Ed drives his car with the convertible top removed.

What is hot in this sentence? The convertible top? The car? In this case, it is best to rewrite the sentence with the missing word included.

- When the weather is hot, Ed drives his car with the convertible top removed.

Agreement between clauses: Both types of clauses contain a subject and predicate. The nouns and verbs in clauses within one sentence must agree. Agreement issues can be caused by the tense of the verbs, or the number or person of the nouns and pronouns. In sentences where there is not agreement between clauses, the meaning of the sentence can be ambiguous. These sentences should be revised to clarify their meaning.

Ambiguous tense: The verb tense in both clauses must agree.

- When Morgan started his shift, he attends a meeting to hear today’s priorities.

Started is past tense and *attends* is present tense.

- When Morgan starts his shift, he attends a meeting to hear today’s priorities.

Ambiguous pronoun: The noun to which the pronoun refers to should be clear.

- The manager told Morgan his assignment because he wanted to start work immediately.

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It is unclear if the manager or Morgan wanted to start immediately.

- The manager told Morgan his assignment because he wanted Morgan to start work immediately.

Ambiguous number: The nouns in the sentence should agree in number.

- If you touch your fingers to the stove, it gets burned.

It is unclear if your fingers or the stove get burned. *Fingers* is plural and *it* is singular.

- If touch your finger to the stove, it gets burned.

Dependent clauses after a linking verb: Writers sometimes create sentences in which a dependent clause follows a linking verb. The linking verb can cause redundancy within the sentence.

- The reason I chose to attend is because I thought the party would be fun.

The reason... is because creates redundancy. The sentence can be revised to avoid this.

- I chose to attend because I thought the party would be fun.
- Because I thought the party would be fun, I chose to attend.

Either of these changes makes the sentence clearer.

2.2 Sentences

The two types of clauses are used to create four types of sentences. The classification of sentence type is not related to sentence length. The combinations are based on number and type of clauses contained within the sentence.

Sentence Types

- Simple: Simple sentences contain one independent clause.
 - The dog buried a bone in the backyard.
- Complex: Complex sentences contain an independent clause and a dependent clause.
 - Because the dog wanted to hide his bone, he buried it in the backyard.
- Compound: Compound sentences contain more than one independent clause.
 - The dog put his bone in his mouth and he buried it in the backyard.
- Compound-complex: Compound complex sentences contain multiple independent clauses and one or more dependent clause.
 - Whenever I give my dog a bone, he chews on it for a while then he buries it in the backyard.

To create sentence variety, writers should use all four sentence types. Complex sentences are the most frequently used sentence type. Compound-complex sentences are used less frequently.

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Sentences can also be classified based on the effect of the arrangement of words. There are three classifications in this structure.

- Loose: The subject and the predicate of the main clause begin the sentence. This is the most natural pattern and sounds the most like natural speech.
 - He told us a story about the day he graduated from college.
- Periodic: The subject and predicate of the main clause occur after significant dependent elements. This type of sentence is used to create emphasis.
 - Because he was the first member of his family to attend college, and he graduated with honors, he told the story proudly.
- Balanced: The subjects and verbs of independent clauses are parallel. This makes the sentence easier to remember.
 - “Marriage isn’t a word; it’s a sentence.”

Some writers instinctively write using one or two types of sentences. You should strive to incorporate different sentence styles into your writing. Your *prose style* refers to how you incorporate different sentence types into your writing.

Sentence Structure

Sentence combining: During the revision process, writers combine sentences to reduce wordiness. A writer will look at his first draft and observe that he has repeated ideas or used too many words to express a simple idea. Clauses can be revised to become phrases. In some cases, phrases can be expressed using a single word. Two simple sentences can be turned into independent clauses and combined into one sentence. Making these changes creates a clearer, more concise paragraph.

Subordination: Correct subordination places the most important idea in the independent clause and a less important idea in the dependent clause. If the opposite is true, the sentence emphasizes the less important idea.

- The CEO, who decided to reduce his own salary rather than approve employee layoffs, worked on the assembly line as a young man.

There is nothing technically wrong with this sentence. However, if the sentence is reworded, the emphasis is changed.

- The CEO, who worked on the assembly line as a young man, decided to reduce his own salary rather than approve employee layoffs.

Coordination:

When a writer strings several independent clauses together, the reader can’t tell which element the writer intended to emphasize.

- The talk show guests were two politicians and each of them were running for office in the next election. Both politicians discussed their plans to improve the economy.

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No idea is emphasized more than any other in these sentences. These two sentences can be combined into one sentence and the emphasis clarified.

- The two politicians, who were both running for office, discussed their plans to improve the economy while guests on the talk show.

This emphasizes the topic discussed over the other elements in the first sample.

2.3 Punctuation

Punctuation marks are used to organize writing. They are clues to the reader regarding the meaning of words and how they relate to each other. There are many rules for punctuation in Standard Written English. However, there are a few rules you will want to know for the exam.

Key Punctuation Rules

Individual words:

- Items in a series: A series of similar words are separated by commas.
 - The books every student should have are a dictionary, thesaurus, and atlas.
 - The kitten is tiny, furry, and gray.
- Distinguishing the plural from the possessive: The possessive form uses an apostrophe before the –s. The plural form adds an –s with no apostrophe.
 - The kitten’s fur is gray.
 - The books are valuable.
 - The placement of the apostrophe when a word is plural can be confusing.
 - Boys means more than one boy.
 - Boys’ means belongs to the boys.
 - Note: Different rules exist for forming the plural of compound words.
 - If both words are of equal importance, the –s is added to the second word.
 - Station wagons
 - Washing machines
 - If one word is more important than the other, the –s is added to the more important word.
 - Brothers-in-law
 - Attorneys general
- Designating a contraction: Add an apostrophe in the position the missing letter would have fallen.
 - You’re means you are
 - Can’t means can not
 - Contractions are informal usage. Standard Written English discourages their use.
- Interrupting words: Use a comma to separate a word from the rest of the sentence.
 - The boat sank in the night, however, the crew was on shore.

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- Introductory adverbs: Use a comma to separate an introductory adverb from the rest of the sentence.
 - Suddenly, the boy stopped walking.
- Introducing lists: Use a colon to introduce the list and separate individual items with commas.
 - There are three children in the family: Sarah, Nicole, and Karen.

Phrases

- Introductory phrases: Use a comma to separate the phrase from the rest of the sentence.
 - Because he wanted to buy a car, Jeff increased the hours he worked.
- Interrupting phrases: Use a comma to separate the phrase from the rest of the sentence.
 - Justine's mother, the CEO of a large company, worked at home often.
- Concluding phrases: Use a comma to separate the phrase from the rest of the sentence.
 - The dog dug frantically at the ground, new bone clenched in his teeth.
- Restrictive phrases: A restrictive phrase defines the noun it modifies. It provides crucial information in the sentence. The use of commas indicates if the phrase is restrictive or non-restrictive.
 - The students who was on time for class passed the test.
 - The student, who was on time for class, passed the test.
 - The second sentence indicates that other students, who were not on time, did not pass the test.

Sentences

- Joining independent clauses: There are two methods to join independent clauses to form a compound sentence. Either method is correct. However, it is considered an error in sentence boundaries to mix methods, use both at the same time, or omit all punctuation. The exam requires you show you can identify these errors.
 - Add a comma followed by a conjunction before the second clause
 - Add a semicolon between the two clauses
- A **comma splice** is a sentence in which a comma is used in place of a semicolon. A fused sentence has no punctuation between clauses.

Special Punctuation Rules

Titles: There are different rules for punctuating titles depending on the type of title.

- Titles that exist independently, like a book or magazine, are underlined or italicized.
 - *Entertainment Weekly*
 - *Little House on the Prairie*
 - *Iron Man*
- Titles referring to a part of another work are set off with quotation marks.

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- o “Teen Struck by Car” from *The Boston Globe*
- o “The Barber and His Wife” from *Sweeney Todd*

Quotations: Whenever you copy another writer’s words verbatim, you must enclose their words in quotation marks. How you punctuate the quote depends on how and where you are using the quote. If you quote a complete sentence, but add your own words, treat the quotation as you would a clause.

- “Scarlett O’Hara was not beautiful,” is the first line of *Gone with the Wind*.

If you quote a complete sentence, but add nothing more, enclose the sentence in quotation marks.

- “Give me liberty or give me death.”

If using a period or comma, enclose the mark within the quotation marks. Colons and semi-colons go outside the quotation marks. Quotations that are a piece of dialogue are separated from additional words by a comma.

- Matthew said, “We are out of eggs.”

Colons: Colons are used to introduce a list, or to indicate that the second part of a sentence is an explanation of a term or idea from the first part of the sentence.

- My backpack contained all the clothes I needed: shorts, shirts, underwear, and pajamas.
- There is only one thing left to do: win the game!

Semi-colons: Semi-colons are most often used as a way to join independent clauses in a compound sentence. However, they can also be used to replace commas if the use of commas would be confusing. Some lists of information include items that would normally be separated by commas.

- I have worked in Denver, CO; Phoenix, AZ; and Portland, OR.

The semi-colons distinguish which items are meant to be read together, such as Denver, CO.

Parenthesis: Parentheses are used by writers to provide additional information, such as an explanation of a technical term. Parentheses signal to the reader that they may not need the information contained inside them.

- The former factory building (built in 1874) was converted into apartments.

Built in 1874 is not information that is crucial for understanding the sentence.

2.4 Chapter Two Review Questions

1. Which of the following sentences has all of the **adverbs** correctly underlined?
 - a. What I really need is some mortar and a trowel.
 - b. The dogs wagged their tails happily when they saw the bone.
 - c. She ate the hotdogs hungrily.
 - d. I am very tired of putting up with your incessant whining.

2. Which of the following sentences has all of the **adjectives** correctly underlined?
 - a. The white crane ate worms from under the bush.
 - b. She ran into a hairy brown bear.
 - c. The party balloons made the atmosphere feel festive.
 - d. He logic is objectively correct, but I still disagree with his main point.

3. Which of the following sentences has all of the **adverbs** correctly underlined?
 - a. He's still playing you manipulatively.
 - b. My laptop is very old, but it's still pretty fast.
 - c. The plants needed to be watered, otherwise they would die.
 - d. They held hands as they walked lovingly around the park.

4. Which of the following sentences has all of the **adjectives** correctly underlined?
 - a. I don't like to wake up before the sun rises.
 - b. The picture he sent her via text was surprising.
 - c. My glass is only half full.
 - d. He does an adorable thing with his nose when he smiles.

5. Which sentence uses correct punctuation?
 - a. The President, who vetoed the bill spoke, about his decision at the press conference.
 - b. The President, who vetoed the bill spoke about his decision, at the press conference.
 - c. The President, who vetoed the bill, spoke about his decision at the press conference.
 - d. The President, who vetoed the bill spoke about his decision at the press, conference.

6. Which sentence uses correct punctuation?
 - a. The dinner menu included the choice of the following; chicken, steak, or fish.
 - b. The dinner menu included the choice of the following: chicken, steak, or fish.
 - c. The dinner menu included the choice of the following, chicken, steak, or fish.
 - d. The dinner menu included the choice of the following "chicken, steak, or fish".

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7. Which sentence uses correct punctuation?

- a. After, they bought the car, they found out it had several mechanical problems.
- b. After they bought the car: they found out it had several mechanical problems.
- c. After they bought the car; they found out it had several mechanical problems.
- d. After they bought the car, they found out it had several mechanical problems.

8. Which sentence uses correct punctuation?

- a. I love him; he's my brother.
- b. My cat loves to drink milk; which is her favorite treat.
- c. The bracelet came in three colors; yellow, blue, and green.
- d. The wasp fly around the porch; trying to sting us.

9. Which type of sentence is used below?

Whenever I come home from school, I do my homework right away.

- a. Simple
- b. Complex
- c. Compound
- d. Compound-Complex

10. Which type of sentence is used below?

I like to play video games and my sister likes to work on cars.

- a. Simple
- b. Complex
- c. Compound
- d. Compound-Complex

Answer Keys found on page 56

Chapter 3: Thinking Rhetorically

Objectives

1. To analyze the rhetorical elements of difficult literary passages and speeches.
2. To examine complex writing prompts and learn how to write rhetorically.

3.1 What is Rhetoric?

Rhetoric is the art of effective communication, whether it is spoken or written, and has been used in many forms for as long as people have communicated with each other. If you have ever seen a child convince a parent to buy ice cream, you have witnessed spoken rhetoric. If you have ever read a Facebook post urging you to vote a certain way or donate money to a charity, you have seen written rhetoric. Chances are good, that you experience -- and use -- rhetoric every day.

Advertising companies understand and use rhetoric to persuade people to buy their products, but rhetoric is for more than just to persuade someone to accept an opinion or motivate a listener to take some action. Rhetoric can be used to inform, as a way of convincing the audience that the information is interesting and important. Rhetoric can be used to narrate, telling a story in a way that engages the audience and holds interest.

Thinking rhetorically is more than just considering the message, but going beyond what is said. When we think rhetorically, we consider the writer or speaker. We think about the audience who is reading or listening to the message. Thinking rhetorically also involves thinking about how the argument is crafted by the writer and why he or she is writing.

3.2 Reading Actively with SQ3R

To think rhetorically, a reader needs to read actively. This means not just simply reading from beginning to end to take in the information, but to read and think about the writing in ways that help you have a deeper understanding. One method you can use to help you read actively is called SQ3R:

- **Survey:** Read the title, as well as the first and last sentences of each paragraph. If there are pictures, look at the pictures and read the captions. If the writing has subheadings, text inserts, or even bold and italicized text, read those as well. As you read, think about what these mean, and how they fit together.
- **Question:** Write down some questions that come to mind in your survey. You will use these questions to help you guide your reading. For example, you may write questions about the author's background and how much he knows about a subject. If you found technical terms you didn't understand in your survey, you might ask yourself what the terms mean.
- **Read:** Read the text, looking for information that will help you answer your questions. If you find something that directly answers one of your questions, you can pause in your reading to write the answer or mark that place in the text.
- **Recall:** Try to remember as much of the text as you can, without looking at your notes. In addition to the information presented, try to remember how the text was organized and what the writer's main points were. The more information you can recall, the better your

understanding of the text was. If you find you cannot remember much of the information, you may want to repeat the first 3 steps, looking for another way that the information could be taken.

- **Review:** Review the text along with your notes. See how much of the information you were able to recall, and how accurate you were.

It may feel like using a method like SQ3R takes a lot more time than just simply reading, but without using this technique -- or a similar one -- you may find that you miss important information, or that you only have a surface understanding when you are asked for a deeper analysis of the text. By practicing this technique, you will find that it becomes much faster to use than re-reading a text and eventually, it will feel very natural and automatic to read actively.

3.3 Reading Rhetorically with SOAPSTone

Once you have actively read a text, you can begin to consider the rhetoric that the text uses instead of just the information or story. SOAPSTone is a very useful method for analyzing the rhetoric an author uses. When using SOAPSTone, you ask yourself questions that may not be answered directly in the text. Like a detective, you use clues from the text to help you answer these questions:

- **Speaker:** Who is the speaker? What is his or her background and level of knowledge about the subject? What does he or she believe, and is that belief biased in some way?
- **Occasion:** Why is the author writing? What event has occurred to prompt the author to write this piece at this time? What events may happen soon that the author is trying to encourage or avoid?
- **Audience:** Who is the intended audience? What does the audience know about the subject? How does the author expect the audience to feel about the subject?
- **Purpose:** What does the author want the audience to get from the reading, or to do or not do after reading? What is the goal the author has in writing the passage?
- **Subject:** What is the writing about? Does the text cover a small, detailed part of the subject, or a broad overview?
- **Tone:** What attitude does the author have regarding the subject and the audience? Is the writing formal or casual?

3.4 Other Components of Rhetorical Analysis

Understanding the writer's choices when writing can help you understand how he or she is trying to persuade the audience. Examining the way the text is organized, the evidence that is given, the rhetorical appeals and rhetorical style the author uses can all help a reader understand more about a piece of writing than just the information given.

Organization is the order in which an author decides to present arguments or information. Writers choose how the information will be presented to the reader to have the greatest impact on interest and persuasion. Some common approaches to organization are:

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- **Chronological:** Presents information in order of occurrence, beginning with the earliest event and ending with the latest. This is often used to narrate a story, in the order events happened.
- **Emphatic:** Presents information in order of importance. Writers may choose to start with the least important or influential point and build to the most important, or they may choose to start with their most impactful point and relate lesser points back to the first.
- **General-to-Specific:** Presents general information first and moves toward specific details. Text may also be organized as Specific-to-General, often starting with the details of a situation the audience would be familiar with but showing the impact on a larger scale with more general information.
- **Comparison:** Compares/contrasts two or more things or situations, showing the similarities and differences between them. This organization may be used to give more details about familiar situations or may be used to explain something unfamiliar by showing similarities and differences with something that is familiar.
- **Cause-and-Effect:** Presents information about causes of an outcome or outcomes of a cause. A writer may also show how multiple causes combined together to create a single effect. A text may also show a series of events where each the cause that led to an effect, which was also the cause of the next effect, and so on. All of these organization methods can be broadly referred to as Cause-and-Effect.
- **Problem Solving:** Presents a problem and then presents a solution, usually with the hope that the audience will support the author's proposed solution.

Evidence is how the author supports the arguments made. These can be:

- **Facts:** Statements that are proven to be true and can be verified by objective observation.
- **Statistics:** A type of fact that uses numbers. These may be from demographic or census records or can be obtained from polls and surveys.
- **Authorities:** Quoting or citing the opinions of experts who are knowledgeable about the subject.
- **Examples:** Narratives which may come from history, news, personal experience or hypothetical.

Rhetorical appeals are strategies that a writer may use to connect with the audience. Rhetorical appeals are usually classified as Logos, Ethos and Pathos.

When using the rhetorical appeal of **Logos**, the writer tries to connect to the audience's sense of logic and reasoning. A writer may do this by sharing facts, statistics and the opinions of experts. Writers will often use a Cause-and-Effect or Comparison organization with a Logos rhetorical appeal.

When an author employs the rhetorical appeal of **Ethos**, he or she tries to connect with the audience's sense of ethics or morality. The writer may appeal to the reader's sense of right and wrong or may appeal to what is acceptable and unacceptable in society or under the law. Writers will often support their arguments with narratives and expert opinions and use a tone that is fair and reasonable, often acknowledging and then refuting opposing points of view.

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When a writer tries to connect with the audience's feelings and emotions, he or she is using the rhetorical appeal of ***Pathos***. The author may try to make the reader feel happy, sad, angry, excited, etc. Writers will often use narrative stories, descriptive adjectives and figurative language to connect to the reader's emotions.

Rhetorical style is the use of structure, grammar, and word choice to enhance the writer's message. Many aspects are involved when analyzing rhetorical style, but a few things that should be considered are:

- **Parallelism:** When a writer uses balance within one or more sentences of similar phrases or clauses that have the same grammatical structure. Ex: "... and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth." — Abraham Lincoln, Gettysburg Address
- **Passive vs. Active Voice:** Active voice, where the subject of the sentence is performing the action, is usually more interesting and engaging to the reader. Passive voice, where the subject of the sentence is receiving the action, may be used when the writer wants to appear objective and impartial about the topic. Ex: Active - The boy broke the lamp. (The subject boy and what he did are the focus of the sentence.) Passive - The lamp was broken by the boy. (The lamp and what happened to it are the focus of the sentence, which seems more objective by de-emphasizing the boy's involvement.)
- **Sentence Variety:** Writers will vary sentence length, voice, grammar, beginnings and endings. A writer may even use rhetorical questions -- questions that cause the reader to pause and think about the answer -- to hold the reader's interest, emphasize important points, and help communicate the simplicity or complexity of a subject. For example, a writer explaining terms that she thinks may be new to an audience may choose short sentences with simple grammar to aid understanding and show the audience how easy it is to understand the new terms. She may then use longer sentences to explain details, once the terms have been introduced.
- **Diction:** The words a writer chooses to use is known as diction, or word choice. A writer can choose emotionally positive or negative descriptions to connect with a reader's feelings or choose emotionally neutral terms to seem scientific and objective. A writer may choose less common, more sophisticated words when writing or an audience assumed to be more educated or familiar with the topic.
- **Point of view:** Point of view is the perspective from which the author chooses to write. First person point of view, where the author refers to him- or herself, may be used to show a personal connection between the writer and the subject. Third person point of view, where the author refers to others as he, she, it, they, him, her and them, may be used to separate the author from the message and appear more objective. This is most often used in scientific and expository (informational) writing. Second person point of view, while uncommon, may be used to connect the reader to the subject in a personal way, to help the reader to see him- or herself in a situation or making use of the information.

3.5 Writing Rhetorically

Just as good readers will think rhetorically when reading, good writers will do so when writing, making decisions about the audience they are writing for, their reasons for writing, and which rhetorical techniques will best support their points.

When writing, the SOAPSTone technique discussed earlier can be a valuable tool in the pre-writing process, not just to analyze a prompt for a college exam, but for any type of writing you may do in the future. Using SOAPSTone, some questions you may ask yourself before writing are:

- **Speaker:** What is my relationship to the subject and how much experience do I have with it? How do I want to present myself to the reader?
- **Occasion:** What is prompting me to write this piece? Why is this the right time to explore this subject? What current events have happened to make this subject more urgent and immediate? What have others said about the subject, either in the distant past or recently?
- **Audience:** Who do I want to connect with most with this writing? What do they know about the subject? What do they believe? What do they value? What kind of evidence and tone will connect my ideas to their values?
- **Purpose:** What do I want my audience to think or feel after reading this text? What do I want the reader to do afterward? What information will help me achieve these goals?
- **Subject:** What is the central focus of the text? How much information should it include? What should it not include?
- **Tone:** What tone do you think will be appropriate for this paper? How formal should the writing be? What kind of sentence structures, grammar and word choice would be most effective?

Additionally, when considering the audience's level of knowledge about a subject, it may be helpful to think of your audience in these terms:

- **Lay Person:** Has little to no knowledge about the subject. Avoid using jargon or terms that are specific to the subject whenever possible or give clear definitions and explanations of those terms. Use a more accessible tone.
- **Expert:** Knows a lot about the subject, from a theoretical point of view. When writing for an expert audience, leave out background and basic information you can assume the reader would know. Use terms that are specific to the subject, with little or no explanation.
- **Executive:** Anyone who has decision-making power. Most advertisements from cell phone service providers, for example, are written with an executive audience -- the person who will make the purchasing decision -- in mind. When writing for an executive audience, provide enough information for the reader to make a decision, but leave out extra details and background information and use a respectful tone.
- **Technician:** Has hands-on knowledge from working with the subject. This could be someone who works in the industry or an experienced hobbyist. Make sure examples are very practical and concrete, leaving out theories and abstract ideas. Use a clear and concise tone.

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3.6 Chapter Three Review Questions

1. When using the SQ3R method, the first step is to survey the text. This means _____.
 - a. count the number of pages
 - b. start reading with the first paragraph
 - c. look over the entire text to get an idea of what it is about.
 - d. print out the pages so they are easier to read

2. When using the SQ3R method, being able to recall most of the text probably indicates that the reader _____.
 - a. understands most of the text
 - b. is a genius
 - c. already knew most of the information
 - d. had help from another person

3. When using the SOAPStone method, the first “S” means you should consider the _____.
 - a. subject
 - b. speaker
 - c. survey
 - d. sections

4. When using the SOAPStone method, the “P” means you should consider the _____.
 - a. process
 - b. problem
 - c. penmanship
 - d. purpose

5. Abraham Lincoln presented the “Gettysburg Address” at the dedication of the Gettysburg National Cemetery during the American Civil War, on the site where the Battle of Gettysburg had taken place. This is an example of considering the speech’s _____.
 - a. occasion
 - b. speaker
 - c. tone
 - d. purpose

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6. The Constitution of the United States begins with the words “We the People” to show that the government was being established by a group of people who would also be subject to its laws. This is an example of analyzing the text’s _____.
- tone
 - subject
 - audience
 - speaker
7. A “Quick Start” guide for how to set up a new piece of equipment would likely use which type of organization?
- Emphatic
 - Chronological
 - Problem-Solution
 - Comparison
8. A mother writing to urge drivers not to text while driving describes how her son was killed in a car accident while texting. This is an example of which type of rhetorical appeal?
- Logos
 - Ethos
 - Pathos
 - Eros
9. “Obesity prevalence was 13.9% among 2- to 5-year-olds, 18.4% among 6- to 11-year-olds, and 20.6% among 12- to 19-year-olds,” is an example of using which type of supporting evidence?
- Authorities
 - Statistics
 - Examples
 - Hypothetical
10. An experienced homebrewer writing an introduction for people interested in getting started in the hobby is likely to consider the audience to be a/an _____.
- lay person
 - expert
 - executive
 - technician

Answer Keys found on page 56

Chapter 4: Writing Basics

Objectives

1. To construct sentences, paragraphs, and essays that convey a clear point.
2. To learn writing organization techniques.
3. To determine how to properly integrate sources into writing.

The writing process is more than putting words together to convey ideas. In order to successfully reach a specific audience, or accomplish the writing goal, one must pay close attention to the organization of sentences within the paragraphs that make up the writing. When a writer carefully constructs sentences and paragraphs within a response, the writing will be more effective.

4.1 Constructing Effective Paragraphs

A strong paragraph must have a clear focus while organizing ideas in a way that make sense to a reader. While a paragraph can have a lot of useful information, if it isn't coherent it won't make an impact on the reader.

When writing a long response or essay, it's important to make each paragraph its own point. There is no minimum or maximum number of sentences required for a paragraph. If the point is just a couple of sentences, that is an acceptable paragraph length. The purpose of a paragraph is to give the reader a visual clue to help in understanding that the writing is covering a different topic or point.

There are four main types of paragraphs.

- **Introductory paragraph:** This paragraph begins the document. Its purpose is to provide the foundation for the writing. It announces the topic, clearly states the writer's stance or purpose for writing, and helps the reader understand the significance of the writing. The introductory paragraph may also allude to how the document is organized.
- **Body paragraph:** The body paragraphs are the bulk of a writing. These are used to cite information from sources to support a point, allow for elaboration on ideas, or to explain topics to the reader. Each body paragraph should cover just one topic or point. In longer writings, it may be appropriate to break up one point into multiple body paragraphs.
- **Concluding paragraph:** This ends the document. It is used to summarize the document or explain what the audience should have learned. The concluding paragraph may include a call to action or suggestion of what to do next for the audience.
- **Transition paragraph:** This type of paragraph is needed in longer documents. Its function is to summarize what the document has done and preview what the document will do next. This allows the audience a break in reading and a chance to review the information they have already read.

Introductory Paragraphs

An introductory paragraph sets the tone for the writing. It outlines what will be covered within the

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document and should leave the reader with a clear idea of what to expect in the essay. Generally, an introductory paragraph should have three things: a hook, a bridge, and a thesis.

The first few sentences of an introductory paragraph should grab the attention of the reader with a **hook**. An interesting quote, statistic, or anecdote can be used to engage the reader immediately and make him or her want to continue reading. Following the hook is the bridge. The **bridge** should help transition the hook to the thesis statement and is often times a brief overview or statement regarding the issue.

The introductory paragraph should conclude with a thesis. A **thesis** is one sentence that clearly and directly reveals the point of the writing. A thesis statement gives the reader the topic and direction the essay will take. It is essential to write the thesis statement before starting any other writing to ensure all points in the writing align with the thesis.

Writing a Strong Thesis

A thesis is a way of understanding a broad topic. For every topic, there can be many possible theses. The word thesis should not be confused with opinion. An opinion does not require explanation or support. A thesis requires evidence that explains and supports assertions made on a thesis statement. A good way to write a thesis statement is to consider all possible assertions on a topic. A thesis should be one sentence in length and not only assert a clear point of view, but also outline details that support that point of view. The thesis must be debatable, and the support provided in the writing should back up that stance. The writer must choose a thesis that he or she is able to support with evidence and argue persuasively.

When writing a thesis statement, avoid using general language. For example, avoid using “I”. A thesis that says, “Abortion is wrong because...” is stronger than one that reads, “I think abortion is wrong because...”. Writers should also avoid using weak language like, “in this essay I will prove”. The thesis should be one of the strongest, most carefully worded sentences in the writing.

Body Paragraphs

Body paragraphs should be carefully constructed to convey a point. The first sentence in the body paragraph should be a topic sentence to help the reader understand the point of this section of writing. The sentences following the topic sentence are where the writer can elaborate on ideas and arguments. This should be the longest part of the paragraph, since it's where the ideas and support for the main point are found. The middle sentences of a body paragraph can also reference outside sources, facts, quotations, or ideas. However, when using external sources, it is important for the writer to follow up with sentences to help the reader see how that information further illustrates the point of the writing. The final part of the paragraph is a transition statement to link this paragraph to the one after or the one before. The last sentence can also be a summary statement if the paragraph is meant to stand alone.

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In general, a paragraph is both an individual unit and a piece of the larger document. Each body paragraph should stand on its own as a complete thought, as well as provide a transition to help the flow of the document.

The PIE method is one example of an effective way to construct a body paragraph:

- **Point (P):** The first sentence of the body paragraph will clearly state the main point or idea being discussed in the paragraph.
- **Illustration (I):** A supporting detail, fact, or quote can be used to help illustrate the main idea. An illustration will generally come from an outside source, but it can also be a personal anecdote or experience.
- **Explanation (E):** After an illustration, the writer must explain to the reader how it relates to the topic. For example, if a fact is used to illustrate the changing rates in job loss over the century, then a few sentences connecting that fact to the point the author is trying to make is necessary. The explanation is the key part of the paragraph, since it bridges the gap between an illustration and its relevance to the document.

When using the PIE method, it is important to note that a paragraph should have several illustrations and explanations, not just one. For example, after the topic sentence it would be appropriate to have an illustration and explanation, another illustration and explanation, and often a third illustration and explanation. The number of illustrations and explanations will generally depend on how long or in depth the explanation is.

Other popular ways to organize a paragraph include:

- **Narration:** This format is typically used when telling a story. It is generally written in first person and recounts a specific situation.
- **Description:** This paragraph format used vivid details to paint a picture for the reader.
- **Compare and Contrast:** This format looks at two things and either discusses their similarities or differences.

Conclusion Paragraphs

A strong conclusion should review for the reader the key points and topics covered in the writing. Often times the conclusion will use similar language or circle back to a point made in the introductory paragraph. This helps tie the writing together and make it cohesive. Another strategy frequently used in conclusion paragraphs is to include a call to action. A call to action will give the reader ideas on how to get involved in the issue or take further steps related to the writing topic. With either strategy, it is important to ensure the concluding paragraph leave a strong, final impression with the reader.

4.2 Essay Organization

Organizing the document is how the writer composes and arranges information. A writer needs to consciously decide how the document will be organized to guarantee that the correct information will be presented clearly and logically.

Coherence between paragraphs: The job of the writer is to develop ideas in a logical way. To do this, information must be presented in order throughout the document. Writers use three main devices to accomplish this:

- **Key words:** Writers repeat specific words from their thesis sentence in the introductory paragraph in various points throughout the document. The writer may also use synonymous words and phrases to echo the same idea. Key words tie the supporting information back to the main idea of the writing.
- **Transition sentences:** These can be placed either at the beginning or end of a paragraph to signal to the reader that the writer has moved from one idea to another. Writers should vary the placement of these sentences to provide variety within the document.
- **Transition words:** These words tell the reader that a new idea is being presented. A transition word relates the new information to the information already presented. Some examples of transition words are *finally*, *additionally*, or *next*. Transition phrases, such as *on the other hand* or *in addition to*, can also be used.

These tools keep the reader focused on the point of the writing and prevent the reader from getting lost in the information.

Sentence outlining: Sentence outlines help writers define the organization of a document. When creating a sentence outline, the writer summarizes each paragraph in one sentence. An easy way to do this is to use the thesis sentence for each paragraph. The writer can then arrange and re-arrange the paragraphs until the order makes sense. A sentence outline can be used before writing or as part of the revision process. Sentence outlining can help a writer determine specific topics to be covered in the essay. Before writing this technique can be used to help determine the form and direction the writing will take. As a revision tool, a sentence outline can help identify the reason a document doesn't flow smoothly from introduction to conclusion. A sentence outline will look something like this:

- **Introductory paragraph:** Sentence outlines are an invaluable tool for writers.
- **Body paragraph 1:** Some writers use sentence outlines before writing.
- **Body paragraph 2:** On the other hand, some writers use sentence outlines for revision.
- **Body paragraph 3:** Additionally, writers use sentence outlines to determine what transitions to make while writing.
- **Conclusion:** All writers should use sentence outlines.

A writer looking over this outline might decide that body paragraph three does not fit with the thesis introduced in the introduction. The writer might change the thesis or find a way to revise the third paragraph.

4.3 Incorporating Sources

There are four primary reasons that a writer incorporates material from another writer into a researched essay.

- To determine the thesis by identifying an assertion to be refuted or validated.
- To provide essential background information in order to assert the importance of the topic.

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- To provide evidence to validate the writer's arguments in support of the thesis.
- To explain specialized terminology or advanced concepts beyond the experience of the writer.

When a writer uses the research of others, there are three ways to incorporate that research into the essay. A writer may summarize, paraphrase, or use a direct quotation. In **summarizing**, the writer briefly restates the information in the source text rewritten in the writer's own words. A summary is significantly shorter than the work the writer is summarizing. Summaries are used to present complicated or specialized information in an easy-to-read fashion. They should be used when the main idea of the source is important, but not necessarily the wording.

Paraphrasing is a more detailed than a summary and uses similar keywords to the original. This technique is used when the ideas, words, and language are important, but not necessarily the phrasing. It is also used when the writer wants to rearrange some of the ideas, or when the writer is combining ideas. Direct quotes are when the writer uses the exact words of the original. These words are placed in quotation marks and need to be incorporated into a clear sentence. **Direct quotes** are used for the most important information, or something that is so strong in can't be summarized adequately.

When summarizing, paraphrasing, or using a direct quotation, a signal phrase is needed. A **signal phrase** in a few words to help introduce to the reader where the information is coming from. A signal phrase lets the reader know the information that follows is not the writer's own information, and usually provides context as to where the information is coming from. "The Chicago Tribune reported..." or "According to Susan Nightly, a professor at Harvard University..." are both examples of signal phrases.

When using source material, the writer must make sure to blend the material smoothly into the writing. Students of writing tend to chunk source material, meaning that the majority of the essay becomes a string of various quotes and summaries. It is important to remember that a reader wants to hear the writer's words and ideas, and source material should be used to supplement that.

Writers also need to be careful to avoid plagiarism when incorporating source material. **Plagiarism** refers to one writer using material from another writer without properly crediting the original writer. Plagiarism is one writer saying that another's ideas are his or her own. Plagiarism is considered academic dishonesty and carries significant consequences.

4.4 Chapter Four Review Questions

1. When _____ you must completely rewrite the original sentence.
 - a. quoting
 - b. paraphrasing
 - c. explaining
 - d. sourcing

2. After using a source you must provide a(n) _____, or analysis, that helps explain how that source proves your point.
 - a. quote
 - b. paraphrase
 - c. explanation
 - d. illustration

3. What is a thesis statement?
 - a. The topic sentence of the first paragraph
 - b. A restatement of the prompt, but in the form of a sentence rather than a question
 - c. A sentence that states the central claim or argument of the writing, with reasons of support
 - d. A call to action to motivate the reader to take further steps

4. When writing a thesis statement, it is a good idea to say something along the lines of, "In this essay I will prove," so that the audience is clear on the stance of the writer.
 - a. True
 - b. False

5. A(n) _____ paragraph provides clues as to how the writing will be structured and what the writer's stance on the topic will be.
 - a. transition
 - b. introductory
 - c. body
 - d. conclusion

6. A(n) _____ paragraph summarizes what the reader should have learned.
 - a. transition
 - b. introductory
 - c. body
 - d. conclusion

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7. To establish coherence between paragraphs which should be used?
- a. Hooks
 - b. Calls to Action
 - c. Quotes
 - d. Transitions
8. Using the exact words of another as support within the writing should be done by _____.
- a. paraphrasing
 - b. summarizing
 - c. quoting
 - d. explaining
9. A _____ helps the reader know where information is coming from before using pulling in information from an outside source.
- a. hook
 - b. bridge
 - c. thesis
 - d. signal phrase
10. A _____ grabs that attention of the reader.
- a. hook
 - b. bridge
 - c. thesis
 - d. signal phrase

Answer Keys found on page 56

Chapter 5: Argumentation

Objectives

1. To identify the various types of arguments.
2. To incorporate different argument styles into essay writing.

An argument is used to express a point of view on a debatable subject. In academics, an argument is used to persuade others to take a similar stance and is generally supported by research.

5.1 Types of Arguments

Writers need to prove their arguments by providing convincing evidence and reasoning to support their stance. There are four main types of arguments:

- Arguments of fact: These examine if something exists, what caused something to happen, or the scope and magnitude of a phenomenon. This helps determine if something is real or not. Arguments of fact often debate how research is interpreted.
- Arguments of definition: These question the nature of things, such as is alcohol addiction truly a disease. These types of arguments will question definitions or expand definitions of ideas.
- Arguments of evaluation: These assume a variety of forms, including what is effective or ineffective, just or unjust, moral or immoral, legal or illegal, and if something is beneficial or harmful. Arguments of evaluation provide a judgement on things.
- Arguments of policy: These debate what should be done or the future course of action. These types of arguments are the hardest to prove because of their involvement in predicting the future. They require proving a problem exists and a way to solve it.

Writers may choose to use qualifiers in order to better assert their arguments. **Qualifiers** are words that indicate a writer's level of confidence and may include words such as possibly, probably, or beyond any doubt. Effective writers will acknowledge any reservations there may be to their claims, and then work explain why their stance on the issue is still correct. When a writer identifies one or two major reservations from the opposing side, a claim can be asserted more confidently.

5.2 Elements of a Strong Argument

Anyone can present an opinion or a stance on a topic. What makes something an argument is to assert a debatable position, explore the context of the issue, provide strong reasoning for the stance supported by convincing evidence, and address counterarguments with a rebuttal.

The starting point for any argument is to take a stance on a debatable issue. "Vegetables are a healthy part of any diet," is not a debatable issue. However, "organic vegetables provide less health benefits than marketing suggests," is a debatable issue. When determining what to write about in an argument, it is important to make sure the claim is truly debatable.

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Another important element of an argument is to examine the context of the issue. Writers should discuss why the issue is important, helping the reader understand why he or she should care about the upcoming information. Writers should also ensure that the timing of the topic is relevant, discussing something that is a current issue.

Once a debatable, relevant claim has been developed, the next step is to provide strong reasons as to why others should agree with the stance. Strong reasons can be backed up with convincing evidence to help prove the point. Evidence can be a personal anecdote, facts, statistics, or other information from research.

Writers should also concede that there is another side to the issue and provide a strong rebuttal. Acknowledging another side exists, and then refuting why that stance is incorrect, will make for a much stronger argument.

5.3 Types of Reasoning

Reasoning is about drawing inferences from known facts and involves a mental leap from the known to the unknown. There are four types of reasoning: inductive, deductive, casual, and analogical. Each of these types of reasoning involves inferences that may not lead to absolute or certain conclusions. The strength of conclusions depends on the strength of evidence and the quality of reasoning.

Inductive reasoning involves reasoning from a set of specific examples, or series of observations, to a general conclusion. This method of reasoning demands a writer qualify his or her claims carefully while avoiding making generalizations based on few examples. Inductive reasoning may be strengthened by testimony and evidence that establishes the reliability of examples.

Deductive reasoning draws conclusions about specific cases based on inferences from a generally accepted premise or principle. Syllogism contains a major premise, a minor premise, and a conclusion. Often times a writer will not state his or her premise because it is already accepted by the audience; it is assumed the reader will supply the missing premise from his or her own store of beliefs and values. This method of reasoning is rhetorical syllogism and typically is how arguments are constructed. If a reader is skeptical of a writer's premise, the writer should provide evidence to support the premise.

Causal reasoning is the ability to identify the relationship between a cause and its effect. We naturally want to know the cause for trends, problems, or policies. Causal reasoning tries to solve the mysteries of the world. Establishing causation is seldom simple. Writers are responsible for recognizing the difficulties of proving causation and for seeking out the best evidence available from reputable sources. Writers qualify their claims while acknowledging it is difficult to assert causal claims with absolute certainty, or to talk about any single factor as the cause of a complex problem.

Analogical reasoning is an inference that two or more things that are similar to each other in one way are also similar in other ways. In this type of reasoning the information is taken from a particular source and then transferred to another subject. Analogical reasoning is especially useful when engaging in persuasive arguments.

5.4 Logical Fallacies

Regardless of the form of reasoning, writers should test the validity of their arguments. Faulty reasoning might involve “arguing in circles.” If this occurs, a writer will not be able to draw clear conclusions for the reader. Fallacies may involve faults in relevance, and unintentionally muddle a writer’s thinking and organization.

One of the most common reasoning fallacies is ***hasty generalizations***. These occur when a claim is not supported or is supported with weak evidence. Supporting material that is cited needs to be representative of a writer’s information in its entirety. A writer should have enough supporting material and evidence to satisfy the reader. If a writer does not provide sufficient evidence for a topic, he or she will not appear to be credible or trustworthy.

Ad hominem fallacies attack or praise the individual making the argument, instead of addressing the argument or problem itself. These types of fallacies have become popular in politics, when an individual’s character, integrity, or even intelligence falls under scrutiny, rather than the candidate’s ideas or proposals. Ad hominem fallacies occur often in the media when an individual is attacked or praised for a particular reason instead of looking at an overall issue.

Related to ad hominem and hasty generalizations is the fallacy of ***guilt by association***, which arises when ideas, people, or programs are judged solely on the basis of their associations with other ideas, people, programs, or groups. It does not assess the quality of an idea or argument and may dismiss ideas simply due to their connection. According to research, many individuals rate ideas, speeches, paintings, Facebook posts, or articles depending on who created the idea, speech, painting, post, or article. Conversely, guilt by association suggests individuals may discredit an otherwise good idea by associating it with an unpopular source. An example of this can be seen in how society reacts to specific dog breeds. If someone has had a dog bite by a specific breed, they may say all dogs of that breed are bad or aggressive. Hasty generalizations, ad hominem, and guilt by association fallacies are flawed because they tend to sidestep the real issues needing to be addressed. In addition, they debase the quality of our public discourse because they undermine the politics of ideas.

False cause fallacy occurs when it is proven that there is no relationship between a supposed cause and effect. This is also called post hoc, ergo propter hoc, which means “after this, therefore because of this.” Just because one event happens after another does not mean the first event caused the second event, or that it was the only event to cause the second event. Writers often fall into oversimplification, which can lead to this fallacy.

False dilemma happens by suggesting there are only two alternatives when others may exist. Even with the oversimplification, which generally occurs with this fallacy, it may take on more complex forms by proposing three or more false alternatives. When a reader is confronted with complex issues, there are always many options they should be presented with. Otherwise, a reader may become suspicious of the writer. ***Faulty analogy*** occurs when writers compare things that are not similar. There are no specific rules for when an analogy might become “faulty” but figurative analogies are logically faulty. Literal analogies may provide support for an argument, but their legitimacy is always open to debate. In conjunction with faulty analogies, slippery slopes are another fallacy that can occur if a writer claims a cause will inevitably lead to undesirable effects. It

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treats probable or possible causal links as certain and or inevitable, while preying on the fears of a worst-case scenario. Slippery slopes and faulty analogies lead to fallacious arguments.

Straw man fallacy occurs when a writer weakens the opposing position of an argument by misrepresenting it or by attacking the weaker (straw man) position. A writer may attempt to misrepresent an opponent's position or argue in such a way to make the opponent's position appear ridiculous.

Ad populum (appeal to popular beliefs) may also be called the "bandwagon appeal" and occurs when a writer urges a reader to accept something simply because others do. Being aware that other people support an idea or policy is one piece of information that someone may want to take into account, but it should not be used to persuade another individual's opinion.

Non-sequitur is a fallacy that means "it does not follow" and occurs when a conclusion does not follow logically from arguments and the evidence that precedes it. Logical fallacies are more specific types of non-sequiturs. When a problem with an argument has evidence that is not relevant to the claim, the writer has committed a non-sequitur. Basically, when evidence does not follow the argument, or is important to a different topic, non-sequitur has occurred. A writer can avoid committing this fallacy by compiling a comprehensive outline to ensure logical organization and flow.

Ad verecundiam (appeal to tradition) is typically heard in contexts when ideas or policies that hold a long history are being challenged and may be expressed as, "We've never done it that way before," or "This is the way we've always done it." Tradition can be a good thing, but it is unreasonable to use it as a shield against compelling arguments for changes. Change involves risk, while advocates of change have to meet the burden of proof. A writer has to provide sufficient proof and evidence in order to convince a reader that change is warranted, otherwise the reader may subscribe to ad verecundiam.

Red herring fallacy is an attempt to throw a reader off track by raising an irrelevant, often emotional issue, that prevents critical examination of the relevant issue. Essentially, this fallacy diverts the attention of a reader from the real issue. For example, the debate of prayer in schools may not be due to religious beliefs, but more out of concern for the separation of church and state.

Writers should avoid these fallacies at all possible costs in order to create a stronger argument that resonates with readers.

5.5 Writing Arguments

After selecting a topic, the next step in the writing process is to brainstorm ways to address that topic. **Brainstorming** is meant to produce a list of possible ideas or directions to take with a topic. Writers jot down a succession of words to jog their memories. The list is written in no particular order. Afterwards there should be several different ideas associated with the topic that could be pursued in an essay.

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Freewriting is another prewriting activity to explore a topic. It involves writing out any random thoughts about the subject for a set period of time. During freewriting time, the writer is not concerned about format, spelling, punctuation, or sentence structure. The only rule is writing must occur throughout the entire time period. If the writer runs out of new ideas, he or she continues writing about a previous idea until inspiration strikes. After the time is up, writing stops. Afterwards strains of thought may reveal a specific topic and thesis have emerged.

Once a topic has been developed through prewriting activities, preliminary research must occur. During this time, it is important for the writer to fully understand the topic. Along with research a writer should also consider the purpose of the writing and the audience.

When research has been completed, it is time for the writer to outline the format the writing will take. Argumentative writing seeks to assert one set of reasons and refute another set of reasons. There are three common methods writers use to do this: summary refutation, dialectical, and point by point refutation.

Summary Refutation	Dialectical	Point by Point Refutation
Introduction	Introduction	Introduction
Assertion #1	Assertion #1	Assertion #1
Assertion #2	Refutation #1	Assertion #2
Assertion #3	Assertion #2	Assertion #3
Assertion #4	Refutation #2	Assertion #4
Summary refutation	Assertion #3	Refutation #1
Conclusion	Refutation #3	Refutation #2
	Assertion #4	Refutation #3
	Conclusion	Conclusion

The use of climactic order can make an argument stronger. The best reason for the argument should be in the climactic, or top, position. In some cases, the best argument may be an assertion, or it may be a refutation. The writer must be able to make this decision and purposely order the arguments in the way they will be most effective.

5.6 Chapter Five Review Questions

1. A _____ is used to indicate the writer's level of confidence.
 - a. qualifier
 - b. signal phrase
 - c. bridge
 - d. reason

2. In order to present a strong argument, the thesis must be _____.
 - a. at least two sentences
 - b. from a valid source
 - c. debatable
 - d. wordy

3. Which type of reasoning draws conclusions and requires people to make inferences?
 - a. Inductive
 - b. Deductive
 - c. Casual
 - d. Analogical

4. Which type of reasoning uses specific examples?
 - a. Inductive
 - b. Deductive
 - c. Casual
 - d. Analogical

5. Which type of argument examines what is moral or immoral, effective or ineffective, or beneficial or harmful?
 - a. Argument of fact
 - b. Argument of definition
 - c. Argument of evaluation
 - d. Argument of policy

6. Which type of argument examines research and determines if something is real or not?
 - a. Argument of fact
 - b. Argument of definition
 - c. Argument of evaluation
 - d. Argument of policy

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7. Which type of argument debates what should be done in the future to solve an issue?
- a. Argument of fact
 - b. Argument of definition
 - c. Argument of evaluation
 - d. Argument of policy
8. Which type of argument questions the nature of ideas, terms, or things?
- a. Argument of fact
 - b. Argument of definition
 - c. Argument of evaluation
 - d. Argument of policy
9. Putting the strongest point at the start of the writing is an example of _____.
- a. qualifying
 - b. reasoning
 - c. logical thinking
 - d. climatic order
10. During prewriting, one method to generate a list of possible ways to explore a topic is _____.
- a. assertion
 - b. refutation
 - c. brainstorming
 - d. revising

Answer Keys found on page 56

Chapter 6: Synthesizing Sources

Objectives

1. To use sources to add credibility to writing.
2. To properly cite sources.

Synthesis is the process of combining information from outside sources with one's own ideas.

6.1 Evaluating Sources

There are two main types of sources: primary and secondary. **Primary sources** are first-hand accounts. Primary research requires the writer to go out and collect his or her own data and interpret the results. **Secondary sources** include research conducted by others, like articles, books, websites, or other forms of data.

Due to the wealth of information a writer may encounter, it is pertinent to have strategies to sift through information. **Skimming** is a method of rapidly going through a source to determine what is covered and how to use that information. In order to effectively use skimming, it is important to read the table of contents, index, and review the headings and visuals in useful chapters. One may also look at the **abstract**, which is a short paragraph summarizing the research findings.

The primary categories a source should fulfill are validity, accuracy, and reliability. **Valid sources** convey factual information that can be counted on as true. Mainline news publications use “fact-checker” to verify information before publication. **Accurate sources** attempt to present unbiased information and include a balanced discussion of controversial topics. **Reliable sources** are sources that have a history of presenting valid and accurate information. To determine if a source is valid, accurate, or reliable use the C.R.A.A.P. test.

- **Currency** refers to how current a source is. The more current the source is, the better it is. One of the main reasons for using web-based sources is that they often provide more up-to-date information than printed sources. To determine how current a source is, the date of publication needs to be observed. Without dates of publication there is no way to tell how current the information in the source is. You should also check the currency of the sources used within the publication.
- **Relevance** refers to how the information is related to your topic. It should be directly related to the subject and support the points being made in the research, making it easier for the research to be followed and understood.
- **Accuracy** refers to providing correct information. This involves checking to see if the source has been reviewed and information properly documented. When obtaining accurate information, avoid personal websites and blogs and look to academic journals instead.
- **Authority** determines the expertise of the author and/or the reputation of the publishing organization. When an author is listed, one should check the author's credentials via biographical references. It is possible to see what an author has published in a specific field.
- **Purpose** involves understanding the author's reason in collecting the research and writing the document. The author should not express one particular attitude, perspective, or

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viewpoint on a topic. If a source appears to be slanted in one direction or another it should not be used. Documents that have been published by businesses, government, or public interest groups should be scrutinized for obvious biases or public relations fronts. To identify the purpose of a source, one should examine the preface and thesis statements because these will reveal the author's point of view.

6.2 Citing Sources

Any information that is used beyond your own personal experience and knowledge should be cited. The reason this type of information needs to be cited is to avoid plagiarism. Writer's don't need to cite information that is considered to be common knowledge. For example, most cars use gasoline or September 11, 2001, the World Trade Center was attacked. There are three main documentation styles: MLA, APA, and Chicago. MLA format is used for humanities and English writing. APA is used for scientific writing. The Chicago Manual style is used for historical papers.

MLA

MLA format uses an author and page method of in-text citation, meaning that the author's last name and the page number from which the quotation or paraphrase appears within the text is included. The complete reference appears on a works cited page at the end of the writing. The author's name can be included in either the sentence itself or parentheses following the quotation or paraphrase. The page number should always appear in parentheses.

For example, the proper in-text citation for a book written by Dale Carnegie with an excerpt found on page 13 would be:

- Direct Quotation: In *How to Win Friends and Influence People* it is said about criticizing other people, "Any fool can criticize, condemn and complain—and most fools do," (Carnegie 13).
- Paraphrase: Dale Carnegie says people who criticize and complain are fools (13).

For any in-text citation within the writing, the full details of the source need to appear on the works cited page. Entries on the works cited page should be listed alphabetically by the first word in the full citation. The entries must be double spaced, with a hanging indent of ½ inch. Common methods of formatting the entries on the works cited page are:

- Book: Last, First M. *Book Title*. City of Publication: Publisher, Year Published. Print.
- Webpage: "Title of Web Page." *Title of Website*, Publisher, Date published in Day Month Year format, URL.
- Article in a Magazine/Newspaper: Author(s). "Title of Article." *Title of Periodical*, Day Month Year, pages.

APA

APA format uses an author and publication date method of in-text citation, meaning that the author's last name and the publication date from which the quotation or paraphrase appears within

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the text is included. The complete reference appears on a reference page at the end of the writing. The author's name can be included in either the sentence itself or parentheses following the quotation or paraphrase. The publication date should always appear in parentheses.

For example, the proper in-text citation for a book written by Dale Carnegie published in 1984 would be:

- Direct Quotation: In *How to Win Friends and Influence People* it is said about criticizing other people, "Any fool can criticize, condemn and complain—and most fools do," (Carnegie, 1984).
- Paraphrase: Dale Carnegie says people who criticize and complain are fools (1984).

For any in-text citation within the writing, the full details of the source need to appear on the reference page. Entries on the reference page should be listed alphabetically by the first word in the full citation. The entries must be double spaced, with a hanging indent of ½ inch. Common methods of formatting the entries on the works cited page are:

- Book: Author, A. A. (Year of publication). *Title of work: Capital letter also for subtitle.* Publisher Name.
- Webpage: "Last Name, F. M. (Year, Month Date). *Title of page.* Site name. URL
- Article in a Magazine/Newspaper: Author(s). Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (Year). Title of article. *Title of Periodical, volume number (issue number), pages.*

Chicago Style

Chicago style uses in text citation but will vary in format based on the subject matter. For an end of text citation, the Chicago style uses a bibliography page. When using Chicago style, a writer will still need to cite all source material in and at the end of the text but should ask the professor which specific method he or she prefers since the Chicago style encompasses many different variations.

6.3 Synthesis Essay

A synthesis essay responds to multiple source documents that have been provided to the writer. The writer is expected to read and interpret the documents, then use them as evidence in the writing to either support or refute a point.

When writing a synthesis essay, the following is the best:

- Read through the sources and take notes: Use either the SOAPStone or SQ3R method to synthesize the documents.
- Write a thesis: Formulate a debatable opinion that will be supported in the rest of the essay.
- Gather sources: Reread the sources and select the information to quote, paraphrase, or summarize.
- Outline: Develop a structure for the writing to present a logical argument.
- Draft: Write the essay, making sure to use the PIE method to provide support for sources.
- Revise: Reread the writing to make sure it supports the thesis.

6.4 Chapter Six Review Questions

1. Using a quote from a book is an example of a _____.
 - a. primary source
 - b. secondary source
 - c. tertiary source
 - d. resound source

2. Interviewing your neighbor about his experience in WW2 and using it in your research is an example of a _____.
 - a. primary source
 - b. secondary source
 - c. tertiary source
 - d. resound source

3. The _____ of a source refers to how much it relates to your topic.
 - a. currency
 - b. authority
 - c. accuracy
 - d. relevance

4. The _____ of a source refers to how valid a source is.
 - a. currency
 - b. authority
 - c. accuracy
 - d. relevance

5. The _____ of a source refers to the author's reputation in writing on the topic.
 - a. currency
 - b. authority
 - c. accuracy
 - d. relevance

6. The _____ of a source refers to how recent and up to date a source is.
 - a. currency
 - b. authority
 - c. accuracy
 - d. relevance

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7. Which of the following sentences properly uses the MLA format for in-text citation?
- a. After playing on several college campus, the band became more popular, eventually releasing an album in 1993 (Matthews 78).
 - b. After playing on several college campus, the band became more popular, eventually releasing an album in 1993 (Matthews, 78).
 - c. After playing on several college campus, the band became more popular, eventually releasing an album in 1993 (Matthews 2014).
 - d. After playing on several college campus, the band became more popular, eventually releasing an album in 1993 (Matthews, 2014).
8. Which of the following sentences properly uses the APA format for in-text citation?
- a. After playing on several college campus, the band became more popular, eventually releasing an album in 1993 (Matthews 78).
 - b. After playing on several college campus, the band became more popular, eventually releasing an album in 1993 (Matthews, 78).
 - c. After playing on several college campus, the band became more popular, eventually releasing an album in 1993 (Matthews 2014).
 - d. After playing on several college campus, the band became more popular, eventually releasing an album in 1993 (Matthews, 2014).
9. Which type of end citation is used with the MLA format?
- a. Bibliography
 - b. Annotated Summary
 - c. Works Cited
 - d. Reference List
10. A synthesis essay asks the writer to do which of the following?
- a. Explain an issue present in society
 - b. Tell personal anecdotes
 - c. Review provided sources and use them in the writing
 - d. Have at least two peer views and prove significant revision based on feedback

Answer Keys found on page 56

Chapter 7: Revising and Editing

Objectives

1. To pinpoint issues within you writing and identify the best ways to deal with those issues.
2. To understand and use the revision process and the editing process.

7.1 Revising vs. Editing

Most people use the words “revise” and “edit” interchangeably. However, this is a mistake. Revising and editing are two distinct processes that serve different purposes.

Revising is “re-seeing” the text, subject, prompt and purpose. The revision process focuses on the larger concerns of good writing -- *higher-order concerns* -- such as a clear thesis with appropriate support, the organization of the writing and whether the author’s points have been properly developed. Adding another argument to support the thesis would be an example of revising.

Editing focuses on the details of good writing -- *lower-order concerns* -- such as grammar, spelling and word choice. Changing a sentence from active voice to passive voice would be an example of the editing process.

While both processes are equally important to do before turning in an assignment or hitting “send”, the revising process should always happen before the editing process. If you edit first, you may spend time correcting the grammar in a paragraph that you later decide to remove or change.

The revising process focuses on making sure the text meets the writer’s goals. The editing process focuses on making sure the writing is clear and understandable and that the spelling and grammar are correct.

7.2 Revision

When revising, you make sure what you have written meets your rhetorical goals. For example, you may add a personal narrative to strengthen a persuasive essay. For academic writing, the revision process will also include ensuring that the requirements of the assignment or writing prompt have been met. If the prompt asks for an essay that compares and contrasts, for example, revising would include being sure that the essay includes similarities *and* differences.

The revision process will look to make changes on an essay level, and on a paragraph level. On the essay level, your changes may broadly be referred to as adding, limiting, switching or transforming.

Adding to a text is putting “more” into it. Many beginning writers may be tempted to simply repeat previous points, but experienced writers will add to the writing by providing more details or explaining their points more completely. Many essays can be improved by:

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- Adding additional support from research material. For example, the importance of a statistic may be strengthened by adding a related quote from an expert.
- Adding explanations of the research material or elaborating on existing explanations.
- Adding transitions between paragraphs to show how the ideas are connected.
- Adding clear topic sentences and /or summary sentences to each paragraph.

Limiting means removing information from a text. A writer may do this because the text includes too much information or the wrong information. In these cases, an essay can be improved by:

- Limiting the scope of your essay. For example, an essay may be more effective by focusing on how an issue affects only one group of people rather than society at large.
- Limiting the number of quotations and paraphrases used. Choosing only a few strong quotations from experts that the audience can relate to can often be far more effective than many quotations.
- Limiting the amount of information contained in each paragraph, either by limiting paragraphs to only a single idea, or by limiting the number of examples or explanations in each paragraph.
- Limiting the number details that are repeated.

Switching refers to making large changes to the text itself. Rather than simply adding or removing information, switching is a change to the way the essay presents the information. This can be done by:

- Switching the point of view. For example, an essay about a controversial topic may come across as less emotional and more objective by switching to a third person point of view.
- Switching the voice. Switching from passive to active voice, for instance, may make an essay more engaging to readers.
- Switching the order of the paragraphs. If an essay seems to lose focus and impact toward the end, for example, switching the arguments from least impactful to most, may solve the issue.

Transforming means completely changing the method for presenting the information. What may have started as an essay may have more impact when transformed into the script for a documentary. For most academic writing prompts, this may not be an option. However, just as many professional writers have transformed books into film scripts, many student writers have transformed a passionate essay into a speech or a letter-to-the-editor.

When revising, there are several questions you can ask yourself:

- Is the thesis clear?
- Does the text accomplish its rhetorical purpose?
- Is each paragraph focused on only one main point?
- Does each paragraph support the thesis with relevant evidence?
- Is each supporting point explained fully?
- Does each paragraph have a clear topic sentence?
- Are the paragraphs arranged in a logical order, or would another order have a greater impact on the audience?

7.3 Revision Strategies for Different Types of Learners

Every person learns differently. Some people will learn best by reading about a subject, while others may need to do something hands-on with the information to really understand it well. While most people *can* learn in a variety of ways, how a person learns *best* is called his or her *learning style*. Learners can be broadly grouped as visual learners, auditory learners and kinesthetic learners.

To understand these learning styles, imagine a group of people watching a demonstration in a cooking class. A **visual learner** might be able to learn the technique just from watching the demonstration, even if he or she can't hear the teacher well, while an **auditory learner** would learn best by listening to the demonstration, even if the view is blocked or far away.

Kinesthetic learners learn best with a “hands on” approach. The word kinesthetic comes from the Greek words for “movement” and “feeling”, and kinesthetic learners often find that they will need to do something for themselves to really understand and remember it. In the cooking class example, a kinesthetic learner might need to help the teacher with the demonstration or follow along at the same time with his or her own ingredients.

To learn more about your own learning style, take the quiz at LearningStyleQuiz.com. Not only will you learn more effectively by understanding how you learn best, you can also choose revision strategies that are the most effective for you by understanding your learning style.

Visual learners should try to find ways to process their work visually and see their text in a new way. A visual learner may find it more effective to:

- Print out the text on paper. Our minds process text differently on computer screens than on paper. Some visual learners may find that printing their text will help them “re-see” the writing and the changes that need to be made.
- Mark up your draft with highlighters or colored pencils. For example, mark the thesis statement and topic sentences of each paragraph with one color. Mark supporting evidence with another color. Use a third color for anything you wish to change or delete.
- Outline your draft. Studying your text and making an outline will help you make sure that your work is well-organized. This method can be especially useful if you have written an outline before writing, as you can compare your pre-writing and post-writing outlines to be sure they agree.

Auditory learners should try to find ways to hear how their text sounds. An auditory learner might find it helpful to:

- Have someone read your essay aloud. Auditory learners will often hear things that need to be changed that they might have missed seeing by re-reading themselves. Having more than one person read aloud may also be helpful, as different readers will use different intonation and pace.

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- Record yourself reading your draft aloud. Some people may feel silly or self-conscious doing this, but this is a simple way of hearing your text read aloud. Most modern phones have a voice recording app built in, or one can be downloaded easily.
- Outline your text, then read the outline aloud. This will focus your attention on the organization of your work. As mentioned earlier, this can be especially effective when comparing pre-writing and post-writing outlines.

For kinesthetic learners, the key to effective revising strategies is finding ways to feel and move the ideas and text. If you are a kinesthetic learner, you may find it useful to:

- Write sections or paragraphs on notecards and rearrange them. This is an easy way to try out a new organization, and all types of learners may find it effective. Alternately, you can print out the text on paper, then cut between paragraphs to rearrange the pieces.
- Look at different versions of your work side-by-side. If you are only on the first draft, try looking at your outline and text, or your pre-writing and post-writing outlines side-by-side. Looking from one paper to the other will help engage the movement parts of your brain.
- Take frequent breaks when revising your paper. Getting up and moving around periodically are important for the kinesthetic learner and sitting too long to work on revision can cause the mind to lose focus. Some kinesthetic learners find it very effective to walk around while re-reading the text.

7.4 Editing

After the revising process is complete, a writer can begin the editing process. Editing involves analyzing each sentence for correctness and coherence. Changes are made on the sentence and word level to make sure each sentence is clear, grammatically correct and accurate (correctness) and fits well with the other parts of the paragraph (coherence). When checking for correctness, you can ask yourself these questions:

- Does each sentence contain a subject and verb?
- Do all the subjects and verbs agree?
- Do all the pronouns and antecedents agree?
- Are the independent clauses properly punctuated?
- Are the proper tenses used?

You should also double-check that the evidence, quotations and statistics are written correctly. For example, a major error would be incorrectly typing a “335% increase” when the statistic should read a “35% increase”.

You can check your work for coherence by asking yourself these questions

- Are sentence-level transitions used to show the connections between the ideas?
- Is there a good mix of simple, compound, and complex sentence structures?
- Are parallel structures used when discussing ideas of similar importance?

7.5 Chapter Seven Review Questions

1. What is the main difference between editing and revising?
 - a. There really is no difference.
 - b. Revising focuses on higher-order concerns while editing focuses on lower-order concerns.
 - c. Editing focuses on higher-order concerns while revising focuses on lower-order concerns.
 - d. Editing makes changes to the text at the document and paragraph level, while revising makes changes at the sentence and word level.

2. In which order should editing and revising be done?
 - a. Revising should be done before editing.
 - b. Editing should be done before revising.
 - c. Editing and revising should happen at the same time.
 - d. Either process can be done first.

3. Which revision technique would a writer be using if she provided more details and more complete explanations?
 - a. Adding
 - b. Limiting
 - c. Switching
 - d. Transforming

4. Which revision technique would a writer be using if he changed the order of the paragraphs?
 - a. Adding
 - b. Limiting
 - c. Switching
 - d. Transforming

5. Which revision technique would a writer be using if she decided to change the text from a speech to an essay?
 - a. Adding
 - b. Limiting
 - c. Switching
 - d. Transforming

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6. A writer who finds it most effective to hear an essay read aloud during the previous process is most likely which style of learner?
- Visual
 - Auditory
 - Spatial
 - Kinesthetic
7. A writer who finds it most effective to highlight the draft in multiple colors is most likely which style of learner?
- Visual
 - Auditory
 - Spatial
 - Kinesthetic
8. As part of which process would a writer analyze whether each paragraph is focused on only one main point?
- The Outlining Process
 - The Post-writing Process
 - The Revision Process
 - The Editing Process
9. As part of which process would a writer analyze whether each sentence had proper subject-verb agreement?
- The Outlining Process
 - The Post-writing Process
 - The Revision Process
 - The Editing Process
10. As part of which process would a writer analyze whether the quotes and statistics are accurate?
- The Outlining Process
 - The Post-writing Process
 - The Revision Process
 - The Editing Process

Answer Keys found on page 56

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Answer Keys

Chapter 1

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. D | 3. C | 5. A | 7. C | 9. B |
| 2. A | 4. B | 6. D | 8. D | 10. D |

Chapter 2

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. B | 3. A | 5. C | 7. D | 9. B |
| 2. C | 4. B | 6. B | 8. A | 10. C |

Chapter 3

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. C | 3. B | 5. A | 7. B | 9. B |
| 2. A | 4. D | 6. D | 8. C | 10. A |

Chapter 4

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. B | 3. C | 5. B | 7. D | 9. D |
| 2. C | 4. B | 6. D | 8. C | 10. A |

Chapter 5

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. A | 3. B | 5. C | 7. D | 9. D |
| 2. C | 4. A | 6. A | 8. B | 10. C |

Chapter 6

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. B | 3. D | 5. B | 7. A | 9. C |
| 2. A | 4. C | 6. A | 8. D | 10. C |

Chapter 7

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. B | 3. A | 5. D | 7. A | 9. D |
| 2. A | 4. C | 6. B | 8. C | 10. D |