

10 Steps to an Effective Piece of Writing
or PREWRITING is MORE Important than Writing
or Determine, Recognize, Create, Select, Identify, Choose, Find, Prepare, Draft, Revise & Edit.

1. Determine your purpose for writing.

- a. Carefully read and review the writing prompt or assignment (a prompt can be a question). Understanding the assignment is **one of the most important** prewriting steps.
- b. Look for **CUE WORDS** in the prompt or directions to determine the writing purpose.
- c. Decide if you will be explaining, persuading, reporting, informing, analyzing, creating, judging, etc. This will help you decide what you will be communicating to your audience.
- d. Write down your purpose.

2. Recognize your audience.

- a. Look for clues about your audience in the writing prompt or directions.
- b. The audience has an important impact on later decisions such as the method of organization.
- c. If a specific audience is noted, be sure to write for that audience.
- d. If the audience cannot be determined, write for a general audience.
- e. When writing for a general audience, write so that anyone who reads the piece will understand the subject without seeing the directions or prompt.
- f. Write down your audience.

3. Create your jot list.

- a. Again, carefully examine the prompt or directions and determine the general SUBJECT of the writing. Do NOT use a writing web to brainstorm ideas.
- b. Begin by writing the general SUBJECT on your paper.
- c. Quickly begin LISTING (jotting) every word, idea or phrase that comes to mind in connection to the general subject in order to CAPTURE your thinking.
- d. If you're stuck, write down the prompt words "who, what, where, when, why, and how" on your planning paper. Find words, ideas and phrases for each of these areas.
- e. Now, begin expanding on the list. Write down examples or experiences connected to the subject or items on the list.
- f. Write down details connected to the subject or items on the list.
- g. Write straight down the page and go for quantity.

4. Select your focus or claim, AND identify a coordinating universal theme.

- a. Stop and reread the directions or prompt and remember your purpose and audience.
- b. Examine your jot list and **select** the FOCUS/CLAIM for your piece that will best fit your writing purpose.
- c. Remember, your FOCUS/CLAIM is NOT the GENERAL SUBJECT of the writing prompt.
- d. To choose your focus, find the one idea on your jot list that could best answer the prompt and illustrate your purpose.
- e. Now, determine a universal theme to take your writing to the next level. In addition to the focus/claim, the universal theme will help tie your writing together and make it stronger.

5. Identify the main points to support your focus.

- a. Examine your jot list again.
- b. Identify which **ideas / points** on your list will best SUPPORT the FOCUS of your piece.
- c. You will write one paragraph in connection to each of these points (in a five-paragraph essay, you need three main points).
- d. It may be necessary to create a new smaller jot list about your FOCUS in order to determine the main points.
- e. The main points / ideas are closely tied to the method of organization you choose.
- f. REMEMBER, the other words or phrases on your jot list may be used as examples or details connected to your main points.

6. Choose your method of organization.

- a. In order to write an effective piece, you must have **organization and structure**.
- b. There are many **METHODS OF ORGANIZATION**. You must learn about these methods to use them in your own writing.
- c. Examples of methods of organization include: analysis, cause and effect, chronological order, description, feature-by-feature, order of importance, persuasive writing, problem-solution writing, spatial order, subject-by-subject, etc.
- d. In order to choose your method, you must think about the **PURPOSE, AUDIENCE** and the **FOCUS** of your writing.
- e. Choose the method that best communicates your focus to your audience while keeping your purpose in mind.
- f. Organization words and phrases (transition words and phrases) are necessary for a quality piece. Certain words and phrases are used in connection with different methods of organization.

7. Find a way into the writing.

- a. **DO NOT PUSH** your audience directly into **the main focus** of your piece.
- b. A quality piece leads the reader into the focus by beginning with a general statement about the general subject of the piece.
- c. The writer makes this general point about the subject that most audience members will agree with regardless of the overall subject.
- d. Next, the writer expands on the general statement within a few sentences in such a way **that the sentences lead to the main focus**. We call this an **introduction**.
- e. Introductions are important because the audience member needs to follow our thinking through the process and writing. Lose your audience and you do **NOT** have a **QUALITY PIECE**.

8. Prepare a map for your piece.

- a. Create an **outline** for the piece.
- b. Each part of the outline should connect to one sentence in your piece.
- c. Be sure to include concrete examples and details in your outline. Without concrete examples that the reader can relate to, your piece will fail.
- d. Use the outline as the map to write your piece.
- e. Fill in missing information (“holes”) as you write the outline and as you write the piece.

9. Draft (write) your piece.

- a. Write the piece.
- b. Be sure to follow the basic expectations for clear communication such as remembering readable handwriting, indenting for paragraphs, upper and lowercase letters, etc.
- c. In timed writing, the draft will be your final piece.
- d. In extended academic writing, you may write several drafts and have several opportunities to improve and revise the piece.

10. Revise and edit your piece.

- a. In any writing situation, it is important to read the piece that you have written. Simple mistakes can be avoided.
- b. In timed writing, you will not have time to revise your piece (this should be done during the outlining process).
- c. In extended academic writing, you should follow all of the rules associated with revision, including special attention to ensuring that all information in the piece is directly connected to the focus of the piece.
- d. Edit the piece for grammar, word usage, and spelling.

When writing an academic piece, writers should focus on the following:

- Use essay structure:
 - . . . Introduction
 - . . . Body
 - . . . Conclusion
- Organize your ideas into paragraphs, and write in complete sentences.
- State your thesis in the introduction of the essay.
- Use 3rd person perspective (e.g., specify the subject of every sentence).
- Use a formal, academic tone.
- Make clear, direct statements.
- Use active voice (e.g., “The HR manager distributed the forms to the hospital employees.”).
- Spell out each word (When using acronyms, spell them out the first time.)
- Use transitions to relate one idea to the next.
- Plan on spending time in the writing process: pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing, and proofreading.
- Analyze the concepts and theories, and support your analysis with logical arguments, specific examples, and citations from other sources
- When appropriate, follow MLA or APA style for citations, references, and format.
- Include a title page and a references page when appropriate.

In academic essays, writers should avoid the following:

- Directives (e.g., "Do this, do that.")
- Questions posed to the reader.
- Fragments (e.g., incomplete sentences).
- Run-on sentences (two or more sentences that are joined without correct punctuation or connecting words).
- Informal, conversational tone (avoid using slang and idioms).
- Wordiness (keep the writing simple and straightforward).
- Vague expressions (e.g., "they," "we," "people," "the company").
- Passive voice (e.g., "The forms were distributed to the hospital employees by HR.")
- Lists and bullets (not academic style).
- Plagiarism (Check your sources of information and cite correctly.)
- Descriptive or personal style of writing (unless requested by the instructor or assignment).
- Second person ("you" and "your") and first person ("I") (unless the instructor requests narrative form).

Grades 6–11
Argumentation Text-based Writing Rubric

Purpose, Focus, and Organization
(4-point Rubric)

The response is fully sustained and consistently focused within the purpose, audience, and task; and it has a clear and effective organizational structure creating coherence and completeness.

The response includes most of the following:

1. Clearly stated and strongly maintained claim with little or no loosely related material
2. Clearly addressed alternate or opposing claims*
3. Skillful use of a variety of transitional strategies to clarify the relationships between and among ideas
4. Logical progression of ideas from beginning to end with a satisfying introduction and conclusion
5. Established and maintained appropriate style and objective tone

Evidence and Elaboration
(4-point Rubric)

The response provides thorough, convincing, and credible support/evidence for the writer's claim that includes the effective use of sources, facts, and details.

The response includes most of the following:

1. Smoothly integrated, thorough, and relevant evidence, including precise references to sources
2. Effective use of a variety of elaborative techniques to support the claim, demonstrating an understanding of the topic and text
3. Clear and effective expression of ideas, using precise language
4. Academic and domain-specific vocabulary clearly appropriate for the audience and purpose
5. Various sentence structures creating language facility

Conventions of Standard English
(2-point Rubric begins at score point 2)

The response demonstrates an adequate command of basic conventions.

The response may include the following:

1. Some minor errors in usage but no patterns of errors
2. Adequate use of punctuation, capitalization, sentence formation, and spelling

Argumentative Writing Sentence by Sentence Formula

I – Introduction Paragraph: The writer must introduce, develop, and explain the overall subject for the reader.

O w T – Opening statement with theme included (a general statement about the subject connected to a theme the reader will accept in a compound sentence).

B2 (WWWW) – Background information answering the - who, what, when, where in two sentences (show your reader you understand the subject).

SM or T – Source material or theme continuation (this sentence needs to lead the reader forward from the previous sentences to your precise claim).

PC – Precise claim (your entire piece must support this statement).

B1 and B2 – Body Paragraphs: Follow the pattern for all body paragraphs.

OwT MP – Opening statement with theme and main point statement (your entire paragraph must support the main point).

B2 abt MP – Background information about the main point the - who, what, when, where in two sentences (show your reader you understand the subject).

SSMI – Source and source material introduction.

SMP – Source material paraphrase (this sentence “sets up” your quoted information).

“SM” – Source material quote with attribution to source.

E – Example tying main point to source material (illustrate the main point).

CPC – Connect main point to precise claim.

OC – Opposing Claim Paragraph: An opposing claim, or counterclaim, shares the point of view of people who do not agree with your claim. Opposing claims must be fairly presented, but the goal is to establish your rebuttal to the opposing claim.

OOC– Opening statement introducing opposing claim.

OC – Establish the opposing claim focusing on the source (who) of the claim with the point (what) of the opposing claim (this may take two sentences).


R – Rebuttal statement showing how the opposing claim does not meet the expectations of your precise claim (this may take two sentences).

SMP – Source material paraphrase for rebuttal (this sentence “sets up” your quoted information).

“SM” – Source material quote for rebuttal with attribution to source.

C – Conclusion Paragraph

T MPs to PC (w T) – Tie main points to precise claim and tie to theme with two or more sentences.

	Informative Writing	 Argumentative Writing
PURPOSE	Informative writing starts with the assumption of truthfulness, focusing on telling how or why.	The writer aims to get the reader to accept his/her perspective or side as truth.
GENERAL TECHNIQUE	Might include any or all of the following: providing new knowledge, explaining a process, or developing a concept. Informative writing might focus on any of the following: enumerating and clarifying different types, defining, detailing components, explaining behavior or function, or providing explanations of why.	Relevant reasons and credible data are blended to demonstrate the writer's argument as valid.
AUDIENCE	To write an informative piece, the writer doesn't need an intended audience. The writer is focused on clear, accurate presentation of factual information in an easily digestible form.	To write an argument, the writer doesn't need an intended audience. The writer is satisfied with simply "putting the truth out there."
POINT OF VIEW	With no specific audience in mind, this more formal writing addresses the factual nature of an issue using the more objective third-person point of view.	With no specific audience in mind, this more formal writing addresses the multiple sides of an issue using the more objective third-person point of view.
ATTITUDE	Informative writers maintain a factual tone. Their attitude is respectful, tactful, and formal.	Argumentative writers maintain a tone of fairness and reasonableness. Their attitude is respectful, tactful, and formal.
PERSPECTIVES PRESENTED	Writers must be able to find and choose relevant information from primary and secondary sources, and combine this new information with background knowledge and experiences.	Argumentative writing acknowledges opposing views within a pro/con piece. (See the more balanced scales above.) This demonstrates the writer as a fair-minded person and gives him the opportunity to counter these perspectives with more logic, reasoning, and proof.
STARTING POINT	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Conduct initial research on a debatable topic, or read the supplied texts. 2. Determine your 3. Read and analyze the texts. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Conduct initial research on a debatable topic, or read the supplied texts. 2. Align with the strongest side. 3. Read and analyze the texts.
SUPPORT	Persuasive pieces rely almost solely on opinions and feelings. The writer uses his own passion and/or plays off reader emotions to get what he wants. The audience agrees with the writer because of strong emotional appeals.	Arguments rely on logical reasons that are all substantiated by facts, data, expert quotes, and evidence. The audience agrees with the writer because of the strong logical appeals.

Grades 6–11
Informative Text-based Writing Rubric

Purpose, Focus, and Organization
(4-point Rubric)

The response is fully sustained and consistently focused within the purpose, audience, and task; and it has a clear and effective organizational structure creating coherence and completeness.

The response includes most of the following:

1. Clearly stated and strongly maintained controlling idea with little or no loosely related material
2. Skillful use of a variety of transitional strategies to clarify the relationships between and among ideas
3. Logical progression of ideas from beginning to end with a satisfying introduction and conclusion
4. Established and maintained appropriate style and objective tone

Evidence and Elaboration
(4-point Rubric)

The response provides thorough and convincing support/evidence for the controlling idea or main idea that includes the effective use of sources, facts, and details.

The response includes most of the following:

1. Smoothly integrated, thorough, and relevant evidence, including precise references to sources
2. Effective use of a variety of elaborative techniques, (including but not limited to definitions, quotations, and examples)
3. Clear and effective expression of ideas, using precise language
4. Academic and domain-specific vocabulary clearly appropriate for the audience and purpose
5. Various sentence structures creating language facility

Conventions of Standard English
(2-point rubric begins at score point 2)

The response demonstrates an adequate command of basic conventions.

The response may include the following:

1. Some minor errors in usage but no patterns of errors
2. Adequate use of punctuation, capitalization, sentence formation, and spelling

Best Student Practices for Text-Based Writing

How should students approach the task?

1. Students should begin by reading the prompt before reading the passage set to determine the purpose for reading and responding.
2. Students should pay attention to the passage set title as well as each individual passage title (each passage in the set has its own title as well). To cite evidence, the student should refer to the specific passage title or author rather than referencing the passage set title.
3. Students must take the time to read the passages closely. Analysis and synthesis of the textual evidence is critical to writing proficiency. It may be helpful to use marking strategies when reading the text for quick references to critical pieces of evidence to support the point being made.
4. Students should reread and dissect the prompt, assuring that they fully understand the task. The task could have more than one part, and both should be addressed in the essay. Paying attention to the purpose in the prompt will also help the student respond in the correct mode.
5. Before responding to the prompt, the student should plan the response according to the purpose, audience and task.

What is important when students are writing?

6. Consider the audience and write as if the audience has not studied the passages. Students should assume the audience is intelligent but may be unfamiliar with the specific information in the passages.
7. The response should illustrate a balance between the use of textual evidence and the student's own view/original ideas. Otherwise, the response may become a summary of the text or mere regurgitation/copying of the passage(s).
8. Repetitive vocabulary or sentences weakens the writing.
9. Repetitive use of transitional or stylistic devices weakens the writing.
10. Beware of overused transitions without internal paragraph organization.
11. Extensive copying word for word from the text is not acceptable. Direct quotes should be relevant and connected by original writing. Students must acknowledge the source of their information. It becomes a more critical part of the standards as students advance to later grade levels.
12. Organization is important, but one organizational structure will NOT work with all prompts. The organizational structure must fit the task.
13. The student's response must reflect analysis, but direct reference to every passage is not required unless evidence from every passage is used in the response or is required in the task.
14. There is more than one right way to address the prompt. The key is relevant evidence fully integrated with the student's elaboration.
15. The evidence required is dependent on the passage and the task in the prompt. The student must dissect the prompt.
16. Student ideas should be closely connected to the textual support and used logically as support.
17. Precise academic vocabulary is important to the quality of the paper.
18. Text evidence is important, but writers must elaborate on the evidence.
19. Reliance on elaborative techniques, such as rhetorical questions that are not relevant or that do not make a strong point (talking to the reader), should be avoided.
20. Use paraphrasing. Understand there is a difference between paraphrasing and summarizing.
21. Text-based writing is academic writing.
22. When keyboarding do not use emoticons or text talk.
23. Use a hard return between paragraphs instead of indenting when typing.

Authentic or Genuine Academic Writing
or
How to stop going through the motions with writing!

Authentic or genuine writing characteristics:

- a. There is an investment by the writer – the writer is connected to the subject is not simply going through the motions.
- b. Support and examples are NOT contrived, but seem natural in relation to the topic, subject, or question.
- c. Support and examples connect with the reader and the reader’s experiences.
- d. The writing is unique and is not necessarily constructed as “most” writers without training might produce.
- e. Ideas flow naturally from one to another.
- f. Does not include forced vocabulary, but contains language appropriate for the topic, subject, or question, including technical terms when appropriate.
- g. Has a clearly defined audience and keeps that audience in mind throughout the writing.
- h. The writing has a clearly defined voice that can be “seen / heard” on the page.

Sentences should:

- a. make sense in relation to the topic, subject, or question.
- b. vary in length and complexity and include simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex types.
- c. flow from one to the other through the use of transition words or phrases.
- d. meet the expectation of the reader as to what will come next.
- e. move the reader forward with the topic, subject, or question.

Paragraphs should:

- a. focus on one idea or point.
- b. connect with the topic, subject, or question.
- c. clearly move the reader forward with the topic, subject, or question.
- d. provide meaningful support and examples that connect with the reader.

FOCUS SHEET

**Short Persuasive Essay Sheet—
HELPS: Getting and Organizing Your Ideas**

REASONS FOR

REASONS AGAINST

H **Historic, Political, Legal**

States can always change laws.

H **Historic, Political, Legal**

We have always had 4 years of high school and are a great country.

E **Economic, Resource Utilization**

Would learn more—get better jobs.

E **Economic, Resource Utilization**

Would lose chance to work—make money. More would drop out, fewer with HS diploma

L **Literary, Aesthetic**

?

L **Literary, Aesthetic**

?

P **Personal, Ethical, Religious**

Some kids love school

Some would be better athletes—more mature

P **Personal, Ethical, Religious**

You can go to community college or prep school if you feel you need to before college. I'm ready to go to college. Some kids hate HS after one year, forget four years.

S **Scientific**

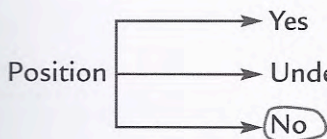
Not sure—more is not always Better

Let's test

S **Scientific**

Are there any studies to show a fifth year would make a difference?

Untested



Reason 1 economic

Reason 2 personal

Reason 3 scientific

THESIS STATEMENT: Topic / Position / 2 to 3 Reasons without "I."

High school should not be five years for economic, personal, and scientific reasons.

An Outline of How to Outline

I. Basic outlining example (keep categories aligned vertically).

I.
A.
1.
a.
aa.

II. How to outline (main topic).

A. Parts of outline.

1. Labels (in this order and every outline uses this system).
 - a. Capital Roman Numerals
 - b. Capital Letters
 - c. Numbers
 - d. Lowercase Letters
 - e. Double lowercase
 - aa. Example: aa
2. Information / contents (in this order and every outline uses this system).
 - a. Main Topic
 - aa. The entire outline is about this general subject.
 - b. Subtopic
 - aa. The subtopic is a major part of the Main Topic.
 - c. Main point, idea, or facts of subtopic
 - aa. This part gives more information about the subtopic.
 - d. Supporting Detail
 - aa. Supports Subtopic.
 - e. Specific (Small or Exact) Examples
 - aa. Often proper nouns.

B. When To Use An Outline

1. Writing projects.
 - a. essays, research papers, etc.
2. Taking notes on text or info.
 - a. complicated info
 - b. technical Info
 - aa. electronic instructions
 - bb. software installation
3. To organize large amounts of text into sections by breaking the information into smaller parts.

III. Outlining Information is part of the Analysis Level of Bloom's Taxonomy.

A. Identification of components

1. The larger parts that make the machine, system, story, etc.

B. Organization of parts

1. Separate
2. Order
3. Classify
4. Divide
 - aa.

I. Methods of Organization for Academic Writing

A. Descriptive Writing: Allows writer to "paint" word pictures. Details, of all types, are important with this type of writing. There are several types listed below.

- 1. Spatial Order:** With spatial order transition words such as behind, next to, along, nearest, above, below, and other words can help readers visualize a scene.
- 2. Order of Impression:** Focus on how you notice details. What catches your attention first, what second, and so on.
- 3. Order of Importance:** From least important, to more important, to most important.

B. Explanatory Writing: Informs and explains. There are many types listed below.

- 1. Classification:** Break a subject down into categories or subcategories. Outlining works well for this organization.
- 2. Order of Location:** Useful for describing a person, place or thing. Provides unity by arranging details in a logical way - left to right, right to left, top to bottom, and so on.
- 3. Chronological Order:** (time) Useful for sharing a story or explaining a process. Information is organized according to what happens first, second, third, and so on.
- 4. Cause and Effect:** Helps to show a relationship between events and their results. This type can begin with a general statement about the effect and follow with specific causes, or it can begin with a general statement about the cause and follow with specific effects. **Might be used:** to explain a character's actions, the progress of a disease, or the outcome of a war.
- 5. Comparison and Contrast:** Helps to show the similarities OR differences between two subjects. Often, this type ends up showing both the similarities and differences. **Might be used:** to compare and contrast two stories or two main characters or two events in history or two processes in science.
- 6. Problem-Solution:** Clearly states a problem, analyzes the problem, and proposes a solution. **Might be used:** identify and solve a conflict between characters, analyze a chemistry experiment, or explain why the home team keeps losing.
- 7. Analysis:** Useful for explaining how something works, how it is defined, or what its parts are.
 - a. Process Analysis:** Major steps of a process. What background information the reader needs to understand the process.
 - b. Definition Analysis:** Most important characteristics of a subject.
 - c. Parts Analysis:** Parts, groups, or types that make up a subject.

C. Persuasive Writing: Clarify your position and support your argument with examples, facts, or observations. Answer opposing views. Use a reasonable and respectful tone. Use logical language.

- 1. Reason for Your Opinion Organization:** Each reason with its evidence and support are presented with objections presented at the end of the piece.
- 2. Point-by-point Basis Organization:** Each reason and its objections are examined on a one-by-one basis.
- 3. Illogical Arguments:**
 - a. Circular Reasoning:** Trying to prove a statement by just repeating it in different words.
 - b. Overgeneralization:** Making a statement that is too broad to prove.
 - c. Either or Fallacy:** Stating that there are only two alternatives when there are many.
 - d. Cause and Effect Fallacy:** Falsely assuming that because one event follows another, the first event caused the second.

COMPLEX SENTENCES

A **complex sentence** expands a basic sentence by combining a complete sentence (independent clause) with a clause that has a subject and a verb but is not complete by itself (dependent clause).

Often we want to combine two or more sentences, but we still want to make one point. We can combine two different thoughts into one sentence and make only one major point by emphasizing just one of the simple sentences we are joining.

When we combine two sentences in this way, we can make one of the sentences into a dependent clause by putting one of the following words in the beginning of the clause we want to make dependent, or less important.

Subordination:

when	since	whether	who	unless
whoever	while	because	until	whom
whoever	after	although	so that	which
though	before	as / if	whereas	that
than	where	provided that	in order that	

Example: We were late. We were expelled.

Because we were late, we were expelled.

OR

We were expelled because we were late.

The main point or more important idea is being expelled; we were late just tells why.

Example: We studied for the test. We came to class.

Before we came to class, we studied for the test.

OR

We studied for the test before we came to class.

The studying is emphasized, not the coming to class.

Example: Richard plays in a rock band. He is dating Jessica.

Richard, who is dating Jessica, plays in a rock band.

The playing is stressed.

OR

Richard, who plays in a rock band, is dating Jessica.

The dating is stressed.

Sentence-Combining Exercises

Combine each set of short sentences and fragments into one sentence.

1. I always order cheese fries. The reason why is because they're my favorite.
2. Bob was my boyfriend. That was in high school. We dated for about eight months. Before I met Mike.
3. The tree fell on the house. This was a sycamore. Because of the high winds. But my grandmother wasn't hurt.
4. My dog's name is George. He is a Golden Retriever. He loves to play Frisbee. Loves to swim, too.
5. My parents gave me a car. That is why I'm able to afford to go to college. Still, I work part-time. I work at Wal-Mart. I'm a cashier.

Combine these six pairs of sentences using the coordinating conjunctions listed below.

Use each conjunction only one time: and, but, or, so, yet, nor

6. Some students stay on the sidewalks. Some students cut across the grass.
7. Students have to park far from their classrooms. They are often late for class.
8. Trash cans have been placed all over campus. Students still throw garbage on the ground.
9. The administration promised to improve dining hall service. The quality of the food is actually worse this year.
10. These students do not respect the feelings of others. They don't seem to respect themselves.
11. We must stand up for our rights today. We may find ourselves with no rights at all.

Combine the same sentences above using the subordinating conjunctions listed below.

Again, use each conjunction only one time: unless, because, even though, while, although, though

12. Some students stay on the sidewalks. Some students cut across the grass.
13. Students have to park far from their classrooms. They are often late for class.
14. Trash cans have been placed all over campus. Students still throw garbage on the ground.
15. The administration promised to improve dining hall service. The quality of the food is actually worse this year.
16. These students do not respect the feelings of others. They do seem to respect themselves.
17. We must stand up for our rights today. We may find ourselves with no rights at all.

Sentence Variety Formulas

Definitions:

Independent Clause (Ind. Clause)
Coordinating Conjunction (Cor. Con.)
Subordinate Conjunction (Sub. Con.)
Dependent Clause (Dep. Clause)

1. Simple Sentence

Ind. Clause

2. Compound Sentence

Ind. Clause + Comma + Cor. Con. + Ind. Clause

3. Complex Sentence

Sub. Con. + Dep. Clause + Comma + Ind. Clause

or

Ind. Clause + Sub. Con. with a Dep. Clause

4. Compound Complex Sentence

Sub. Con. with a Dep. Clause + Comma + Ind. Clause Comma + Cor. Con. + Ind. Clause

or

Ind. Clause + Comma + Cor. Con. + Ind. Clause Sub. Con. with a Dep. Clause

Transition Words and Phrases

Agreement / Addition / Similarity

in the first place	again	moreover
not only ... but also	to	as well as
as a matter of fact	and	together with
in like manner	also	of course
in addition	then	likewise
coupled with	equally	comparatively
in the same fashion / way	identically	correspondingly
first, second, third	uniquely	similarly
in the light of	like	furthermore
not to mention	as	additionally
to say nothing of	too	
equally important		
by the same token		

Examples / Support / Emphasis

in other words	notably	in fact
to put it differently	including	in general
for one thing	like	in particular
as an illustration	to be sure	in detail
in this case	namely	to demonstrate
for this reason	chiefly	to emphasize
to put it another way	truly	to repeat
that is to say	indeed	to clarify
with attention to	certainly	to explain
by all means	surely	to enumerate
important to realize	markedly	such as
another key point	especially	for example
first thing to remember	specifically	for instance
most compelling evidence	expressively	to point out
must be remembered	surprisingly	with this in mind
point often overlooked	frequently	
on the negative side	significantly	
on the positives ide		

Effect / Result / Consequence

as a result
under those circumstances
in that case
for this reason
henceforth

for
thus
because the
then
hence

consequently
therefore
thereupon
forthwith
accordingly

Opposition / Limitation / Contradiction

although this may be true
in contrast
different from
of course ..., but
on the other hand
on the contrary
at the same time
in spite of
even so / though
be that as it may
then again
above all
in reality
after all

but
(and) still
unlike
or
(and) yet
while
albeit
besides
as much as
even though

although
instead
whereas
despite
conversely
otherwise
however
rather
nevertheless
nonetheless
regardless
notwithstanding

Cause / Condition / Purpose

in the event that
granted (that)
as / so long as
on (the) condition (that)
for the purpose of
with this intention
with this in mind
in the hope that
to the end that
for fear that
in order to
seeing / being that
in view of

if
... then
unless
when
whenever
since
while

in case
provided that
given that
only / even if
so that
so as to
owing to
due to

because of
as
since
while
lest

inasmuch as

Linking Words - A complete list of Transition Words & Conjunctions also called Cohesive Devices – Connecting Words

Space / Location / Place

in the middle
to the left/right
in front of
on this side
in the distance
here and there
in the foreground
in the background
in the center of

adjacent to
opposite to

here
there
next
where
from
over
near
above
below
down
up
under
between

further
beyond
nearby
wherever
around
before
alongside
amid
among
beneath
beside
behind
across

Conclusion / Summary / Restatement

as can be seen
generally speaking
in the final analysis
all things considered
as shown above
in the long run
given these points
as has been noted
in a word
for the most part

after all
in fact
in summary
in conclusion
in short
in brief
in essence
to summarize
on balance
altogether

overall
ordinarily
usually
by and large
to sum up
on the whole
in any event
in either case
all in all

Conjunctions

Time / Chronology / Sequence

at the present time
from time to time
sooner or later
at the same time
up to the present time
to begin with
in due time
until now
as soon as
as long as
in the meantime
in a moment
without delay
in the first place
all of a sudden
at this instant

after
later
last
until
till
since
then
before
hence

when
once
about
next
now
now that

henceforth
whenever
eventually
meanwhile
further
during
first, second
in time
prior to
forthwith
straightaway

by the time
whenever

Subordinating

than
rather than
whether
as much as
whereas

Comparison

That
what
whatever
which
whichever

after
as long as
as soon as
before
by the time
now that

Time

though
although
even though
while

Concession

Who
whoever
whom
whomever
whose
where
wherever

once
since
till
until
when
whenever
while

if
only if
unless
until
provided that
assuming that
even if
in case (that)
lest

Condition

how
as though
as if

because
since
so that
in order (that)
why

Reason

Correlative

as . . . as
just as . . . so
both . . . and
hardly . . . when
scarcely . . . when

either . . . or
neither . . . nor

if . . . then
not . . . but

what with . . . and
whether . . . or
not only . . . but also
no sooner . . . than
rather . . . than

Coordinating

F **A** **N**
For **And** **Nor**

B **O**
But **Or**

Y **S**
Yet **So**

Basic Writing Requirements and Headings

Students must follow these writing rules. Writing that does not meet these requirements (or show improvement) will need to be reworked until it meets these expectations.

One of the easiest ways to think about proper format for any piece of writing is to think of a computer word processing program. For example, these programs automatically space letters and words, and prevent writers from using the margins. This is called format.

Correct Format Includes:

1. **Heading** - Correct location and information (see below).
2. **Margin to Margin Only** - Top, sides, and bottom. Text starts inside the left margin line.
3. **Capital Letters** – Use only at the beginning of sentences or for proper nouns.
4. **Paragraphs** – Writing must be divided into paragraphs. Skip lines between paragraphs in Block Business style. Do not skip lines when indenting.
5. **Indentation** - Use only about three to four letter spaces to indent paragraphs (about the width of your pinky finger). Do NOT indent with Block Business style.
6. **Spacing** - No spaces between the letters of an individual word, one space between words, and one space between sentences.
7. **Spelling** - No mistakes on homework. Corrections are made by drawing one line through the error.
8. **Banned Words** - Do not use: *I, me, you, one, we, us, it, they, their, good, thing, stuff, like, so, okay, uhm, very, really, texting symbols, or well.*
9. **Sentence Variety** – Paragraphs consist of the following types of sentences: simple, compound, complex, and compound/complex. We will learn to write all types.
10. **Five to six sentences for each paragraph in composition work** – Generally, in traditional composition work, this number of sentences is required to introduce an idea or present an idea. This is a must.
11. **Handwriting** - For some a work in progress, but improvement must be shown for readability.
12. **Numbers** – Spell out numbers below 10. When numbering, use only periods after the numbers.
13. **Specific Title** - Each piece of writing must have a title that specifically represents the writing - many times, longer is better. Titles should be centered on the line above the first paragraph. Titles should not be confused with the subject of the work.

Do Not Use in this Class:

Pencils*, eraser pens, whiteout, writing in the margins, using the back of paper, chads, and excuses!

ASSIGNMENT HEADINGS:

On each assignment, students will use the same heading style.

On a **LOOSE-LEAF SHEET OF PAPER ONLY**, using the example below and writing only the words in bold, this is how you will write your correct headings. This heading goes on the left hand side of your paper within the margins beginning on the top line.

Full Name: John Doe

Class: Class, Teacher, 5th Period

Date: Aug. 25, 2011

The Assignment Name: Specific Title

Successful vs. Unsuccessful Paraphrases (Plagiarism)

The Passage as It Appears in the Source

Critical care nurses function in a hierarchy of roles. In this open heart surgery unit, the nurse manager hires and fires the nursing personnel. The nurse manager does not directly care for patients but follows the progress of unusual or long-term patients. On each shift a nurse assumes the role of resource nurse. This person oversees the hour-by-hour functioning of the unit as a whole, such as considering expected admissions and discharges of patients, ascertaining that beds are available for patients in the operating room, and covering sick calls. Resource nurses also take a patient assignment. They are the most experienced of all the staff nurses. The nurse clinician has a separate job description and provides for quality of care by orienting new staff, developing unit policies, and providing direct support where needed, such as assisting in emergency situations. The clinical nurse specialist in this unit is mostly involved with formal teaching in orienting new staff. The nurse manager, nurse clinician, and clinical nurse specialist are the designated experts. They do not take patient assignments. The resource nurse is seen as both a caregiver and a resource to other caregivers. . . . Staff nurses have a hierarchy of seniority. . . . Staff nurses are assigned to patients to provide all their nursing care. (Chase, 1995, p. 156)

Word-for-Word Plagiarism: Critical care nurses have a hierarchy of roles. The nurse manager hires and fires nurses. S/he does not directly care for patients but does follow unusual or long-term cases. On each shift a resource nurse attends to the functioning of the unit as a whole, such as making sure beds are available in the operating room, and also has a patient assignment. The nurse clinician orients new staff, develops policies, and provides support where needed. The clinical nurse specialist also orients new staff, mostly by formal teaching. The nurse manager, nurse clinician, and clinical nurse specialist, as the designated experts, do not take patient assignments. The resource nurse is not only a caregiver but a resource to the other caregivers. Within the staff nurses there is also a hierarchy of seniority. Their job is to give assigned patients all their nursing care.

Why this is plagiarism

Notice that the writer has not only “borrowed” Chase’s material (the results of her research) with no acknowledgment, but has also largely maintained the author’s method of expression and sentence structure. The phrases in red are directly copied from the source or changed only slightly in form. Even if the student-writer had acknowledged Chase as the source of the content, the language of the passage would be considered plagiarized because no quotation marks indicate the phrases that come directly from Chase. And if quotation marks did appear around all these phrases, this paragraph would be so cluttered that it would be unreadable.

A Patchwork Paraphrase: Chase (1995) describes how nurses in a critical care unit function in a hierarchy that places designated experts at the top and the least senior staff nurses at the bottom. The experts — the nurse manager, nurse clinician, and clinical nurse specialist — are not involved directly in patient care. The staff nurses, in contrast, are assigned to patients and provide all their nursing care. Within the staff nurses is a hierarchy of seniority in which the most senior can become resource nurses: they are assigned a patient but also serve as a resource to other caregivers. The experts have administrative and teaching tasks such as selecting and orienting new staff, developing unit policies, and giving hands-on support where needed.

Why this is plagiarism

This paraphrase is a patchwork composed of pieces in the original author’s language (in red) and pieces in the student-writer’s words, all rearranged into a new pattern, but with none of the borrowed pieces in quotation marks. Thus, even though the writer acknowledges the source of the material, the underlined phrases are falsely presented as the student’s own.

A Legitimate Paraphrase: In her study of the roles of nurses in a critical care unit, Chase (1995) also found a hierarchy that distinguished the roles of experts and others. Just as the educational experts described above do not directly teach students, the experts in this unit do not directly attend to patients. That is the role of the staff nurses, who, like teachers, have their own “hierarchy of seniority” (p. 156). The roles of the experts include employing unit nurses and overseeing the care of special patients (nurse manager), teaching and otherwise integrating new personnel into the unit (clinical nurse specialist and nurse clinician), and policy-making (nurse clinician). In an intermediate position in the hierarchy is the resource nurse, a staff nurse with more experience than the others, who assumes direct care of patients as the other staff nurses do, but also takes on tasks to ensure the smooth operation of the entire facility.

Why this is a good paraphrase

The writer has documented Chase's material and specific language (by direct reference to the author and by quotation marks around language taken directly from the source). Notice too that the writer has modified Chase's language and structure and has added material to fit the new context and purpose — to present the distinctive functions of experts and non-experts in several professions.

Shared Language

Perhaps you've noticed that a number of phrases from the original passage appear in the legitimate paraphrase: critical care, staff nurses, nurse manager, clinical nurse specialist, nurse clinician, resource nurse. If all these phrases were underlined, the paraphrase would look much like the "patchwork" example. The difference is that the phrases in the legitimate paraphrase are all precise, economical, and conventional designations that are part of the shared language within the nursing discipline (in the too-close paraphrases, they're underlined only when used within a longer borrowed phrase).

In every discipline and in certain genres (such as the empirical research report), some phrases are so specialized or conventional that you can't paraphrase them except by wordy and awkward circumlocutions that would be less familiar (and thus less readable) to the audience. When you repeat such phrases, you're not stealing the unique phrasing of an individual writer but using a common vocabulary shared by a community of scholars.

BLOCK STYLE PARAGRAPHS (first line of each paragraph starts at the left margin; an extra blank line is inserted between paragraphs to show where the paragraph break falls..)

The MSN professors were given a faculty development grant for summer 2008 to develop an online Orientation for MSN students. We designed a 13 module orientation, covering the following topics: History of Council and MSN Program, Technology, Academic Culture, Checklist, Academic & Stress, Time Management, Learning Styles, Reading & Study Skills, Grades, and Additional Resources. Creating the Orientation involved gathering the information, deciding how to present it, and creating the HTML pages. Each module begins with module objectives, continues with information on the topic for students to read and answer with, and then ends with a quiz. Students must score 100% on each quiz in order to open the next module. The modules were presented in summer 2008 (Professor's students, and then put up on WebCT for the attention of all new MSN students entering the program in August 2008.

Students were required to complete the modules as an independent study project during the first semester. By the end of the first semester, all but about 10 of the approximately 170 first year students had completed the orientation successfully. The five remaining students are being monitored and will have completed the orientation before the end of spring semester. After December vacations from both students and MSN faculty, the MSN faculty council has voted to make completion of the Online Orientation a prerequisite for all new students. We are in discussion with IT about how to make WebCT available to students prior to their starting school in August, and are hoping to have incoming students added to monthly cohorts, as soon as they have been accepted.

APA STYLE PARAGRAPHS (first line of each paragraph is indented 1/2 inch, and no extra white space is inserted between paragraphs; the indentation alone shows the paragraph break..)

The MSN professors were given a faculty development grant for summer 2008 to develop an online Orientation for MSN students. We designed a 13 module orientation, covering the following topics: History of Council and MSN Program, Technology, Academic Culture, Checklist, Academic & Stress, Time Management, Learning Styles, Reading & Study Skills, Grades, and Additional Resources. Creating the Orientation involved gathering the information, deciding how to present it, and creating the HTML pages. Each module begins with module objectives, continues with information on the topic for students to read and answer with, and then ends with a quiz. Students must score 100% on each quiz in order to open the next module. The modules were presented in summer 2008 (Professor's students, and then put up on WebCT for the attention of all new MSN students entering the program in August 2008.

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Quoting

Sometimes you may want to quote an author's words exactly, not paraphrase them. If you decide to quote directly from a text, you will need an expression to introduce it and quotation marks will need to be used:

As X said/says, "... .."

As X stated/states, "... .."

As X wrote/writes, "... .."

As X observed/observes, "... .."

As X pointed/points out, "... .."

To quote from X, "... .."

It was X who said that "... .."

This example is given by X: "... .."

According to X, "... .."

X claims that, "... .."

X found that, "... .."

The opinion of X is that, "... .."

Concluding

After quoting evidence you reach a conclusion:

The evidence seems to indicate that...

It must therefore be recognised that...

The indications are therefore that...

It is clear therefore that ...

Thus it could be concluded that...

The evidence seems to be strong that...

On this basis it may be inferred that...

Given this evidence, it can be seen that...

Here are some more expressions you can use to refer to someone's work that you are going to paraphrase:

If you agree with what the writer says.

The work of X indicates that ...

The work of X reveals that ...

The work of X shows that ...

In a study of Y, X found that ...

As X points out, ...

As X shows

As X has indicated, ...

A study by X shows that ...

X has drawn attention to the fact that ...

X correctly argues that ...

X rightly points out that ...

X makes clear that ...

If you disagree with what the writer says.

X claims that ...

X states erroneously that ...

The work of X asserts that ...

X feels that ...

However, Y does not support X's argument that ...

If you do not want to give your point of view about what the writer says.

According to X...

It is the view of X that ...

The opinion of X is that ...

In an article by X, ...

Research by X suggests that ...

X has expressed a similar view.

X reports that ...

X notes that ...

X states that ...

X observes that ...

X concludes that ...

X argues that ...

X found that ...

X discovered that ...

Quotations

Used effectively, quotations can provide important pieces of evidence and lend fresh voices and perspectives to your narrative. Used ineffectively, however, quotations can clutter your text and interrupt the flow of your argument. This handout will help you decide when and how to quote like a pro.

When should I quote?

Use quotations at strategically selected moments. You have probably been told by teachers to provide as much evidence as possible in support of your thesis. But packing your paper with quotations will not necessarily strengthen your argument. The majority of your paper should still be your original ideas in your own words (after all, it's your paper). And quotations are only one type of evidence: well-balanced papers may also make use of paraphrases, data, and statistics. The types of evidence you use will depend in part on the conventions of the discipline or audience for which you are writing. For example, papers analyzing literature may rely heavily on direct quotations of the text, while papers in the social sciences may have more paraphrasing, data, and statistics than quotations.

<="" or="" arguments="" specific="">

Sometimes, in order to have a clear, accurate discussion of the ideas of others, you need to quote those ideas word for word. Suppose you want to challenge the following statement made by John Doe, a well-known historian:

“At the beginning of World War Two, almost all Americans assumed the war would end quickly.”

If it is especially important that you formulate a counterargument to this claim, then you might wish to quote the part of the statement that you find questionable and establish a dialogue between yourself and John Doe:

Historian John Doe has argued that in 1941 “almost all Americans assumed the war would end quickly” (Doe 223). Yet during the first six months of U.S. involvement, the wives and mothers of soldiers often noted in their diaries their fear that the war would drag on for years.

Giving added emphasis to a particularly authoritative source on your topic.

There will be times when you want to highlight the words of a particularly important and authoritative source on your topic. For example, suppose you were writing an essay about the differences between the lives of male and female slaves in the U.S. South. One of your most provocative sources is a narrative written by a former slave, Harriet Jacobs. It would then be appropriate to quote some of Jacobs's words:

Harriet Jacobs, a former slave from North Carolina, published an autobiographical slave narrative in 1861. She exposed the hardships of both male and female slaves but ultimately concluded that “slavery is terrible for men; but it is far more terrible for women.”

In this particular example, Jacobs is providing a crucial first-hand perspective on slavery. Thus, her words deserve more exposure than a paraphrase could provide.

Jacobs is quoted in Harriet A. Jacobs, *Incidents in the Life of a Slave Girl*, ed. Jean Fagan Yellin (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1987).

Analyzing how others use language.

This scenario is probably most common in literature and linguistics courses, but you might also find yourself writing about the use of language in history and social science classes. If the use of language is your primary topic, then you will obviously need to quote users of that language.

Examples of topics that might require the frequent use of quotations include:

Southern colloquial expressions in William Faulkner's *Light in August*
Ms. and the creation of a language of female empowerment
A comparison of three British poets and their use of rhyme

Spicing up your prose.

In order to lend variety to your prose, you may wish to quote a source with particularly vivid language. All quotations, however, must closely relate to your topic and arguments. Do not insert a quotation solely for its literary merits.

One example of a quotation that adds flair:

President Calvin Coolidge's tendency to fall asleep became legendary. As H. L. Mencken commented in the *American Mercury* in 1933, "Nero fiddled, but Coolidge only snored."

How do I set up and follow up a quotation?

Once you've carefully selected the quotations that you want to use, your next job is to weave those quotations into your text. The words that precede and follow a quotation are just as important as the quotation itself. You can think of each quote as the filling in a sandwich: it may be tasty on its own, but it's messy to eat without some bread on either side of it. Your words can serve as the "bread" that helps readers digest each quote easily. Below are **four guidelines for setting up and following up quotations**.

In illustrating these four steps, we'll use as our example, Franklin Roosevelt's famous quotation, "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself."

1. Provide context for each quotation.

Do not rely on quotations to tell your story for you. It is your responsibility to provide your reader with context for the quotation. The context should set the basic scene for when, possibly where, and under what circumstances the quotation was spoken or written. So, in providing context for our above example, you might write:

When Franklin Roosevelt gave his inaugural speech on March 4, 1933, he addressed a nation weakened and demoralized by economic depression.

2. Attribute each quotation to its source.

Tell your reader who is speaking. Here is a good test: try reading your text aloud. Could your reader determine without looking at your paper where your quotations begin? If not, you need to attribute the quote more noticeably.

Avoid getting into the "he/she said" attribution rut! There are many other ways to attribute quotes besides this construction. **Here are a few alternative verbs, usually followed by "that":**

add remark exclaim
announce reply state
comment respond estimate
write point out predict
argue suggest propose
declare criticize proclaim
note complain opine
observe think note

Different reporting verbs are preferred by different disciplines, so pay special attention to these in your disciplinary reading. If you're unfamiliar with the meanings of any of these words or others you find in your reading, consult a dictionary before using them.

3. Explain the significance of the quotation.

Once you've inserted your quotation, along with its context and attribution, don't stop! Your reader still needs your assessment of why the quotation holds significance for your paper. Using our Roosevelt example, if you were writing a paper on the first one-hundred days of FDR's administration, you might follow the quotation by linking it to that topic:

With that message of hope and confidence, the new president set the stage for his next one-hundred days in office and helped restore the faith of the American people in their government.

4. Provide a citation for the quotation.

All quotations, just like all paraphrases, require a formal citation. For more details about particular citation formats, see the UNC Libraries [citation tutorial](#). In general, you should remember one rule of thumb: Place the parenthetical reference or footnote/endnote number after—not within—the closed quotation mark.

Roosevelt declared, "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself" (Roosevelt, *Public Papers*, 11).
Roosevelt declared, "The only thing we have to fear is fear itself."¹

How do I embed a quotation into a sentence?

In general, avoid leaving quotes as sentences unto themselves. Even if you have provided some context for the quote, a quote standing alone can disrupt your flow. Take a look at this example:

Hamlet denies Rosencrantz's claim that thwarted ambition caused his depression. "I could be bounded in a nutshell and count myself a king of infinite space" (*Hamlet* 2.2).

Standing by itself, the quote's connection to the preceding sentence is unclear. There are several **ways to incorporate a quote more smoothly**:

Lead into the quote with a colon.

Hamlet denies Rosencrantz's claim that thwarted ambition caused his depression: "I could be bounded in a nutshell and count myself a king of infinite space" (*Hamlet* 2.2).

The colon announces that a quote will follow to provide evidence for the sentence's claim.

Introduce or conclude the quote by attributing it to the speaker. If your attribution precedes the quote, you will need to use a comma after the verb.

Hamlet denies Rosencrantz's claim that thwarted ambition caused his depression. He states, "I could be bounded in a nutshell and count myself a king of infinite space" (*Hamlet* 2.2).

When faced with a twelve-foot mountain troll, Ron gathers his courage, shouting, "*Wingardium Leviosa!*" (Rowling, p. 176).

The Pirate King sees an element of regality in their impoverished and dishonest life. "It is, it is a glorious thing/To be a pirate king," he declares (*Pirates of Penzance*, 1983).

Interrupt the quote with an attribution to the speaker. Again, you will need to use a comma after the verb, as well as a comma leading into the attribution.

“There is nothing either good or bad,” Hamlet argues, “but thinking makes it so” (*Hamlet* 2.2).

“And death shall be no more,” Donne writes, “Death thou shalt die” (“Death, Be Not Proud,” l. 14).

Dividing the quote may highlight a particular nuance of the quote’s meaning. In the first example, the division calls attention to the two parts of Hamlet’s claim. The first phrase states that nothing is inherently good or bad; the second phrase suggests that our perspective causes things to become good or bad. In the second example, the isolation of “Death thou shalt die” at the end of the sentence draws a reader’s attention to that phrase in particular. As you decide whether or not you want to break up a quote, you should consider the shift in emphasis that the division might create.

Use the words of the quote grammatically within your own sentence.

When Hamlet tells Rosencrantz that he “could be bounded in a nutshell and count [him]self a king of infinite space” (*Hamlet* 2.2), he implies that thwarted ambition did not cause his depression.

Ultimately, death holds no power over Donne since in the afterlife, “death shall be no more” (“Death, Be Not Proud,” l. 14).

Note that when you use “that” after the verb that introduces the quote, you no longer need a comma.

The Pirate King argues that “it is, it is a glorious thing/to be a pirate king” (*Pirates of Penzance*, 1983).

How much should I quote?

As few words as possible. Remember, your paper should primarily contain your own words, so quote only the most pithy and memorable parts of sources. Here are **guidelines for selecting quoted material judiciously**:

Excerpt fragments.

Sometimes, you should quote short fragments, rather than whole sentences. Suppose you interviewed Jane Doe about her reaction to John F. Kennedy’s assassination. She commented:

“I couldn’t believe it. It was just unreal and so sad. It was just unbelievable. I had never experienced such denial. I don’t know why I felt so strongly. Perhaps it was because JFK was more to me than a president. He represented the hopes of young people everywhere.”

You could quote all of Jane’s comments, but her first three sentences are fairly redundant. You might instead want to quote Jane when she arrives at the ultimate reason for her strong emotions:

Jane Doe grappled with grief and disbelief. She had viewed JFK, not just as a national figurehead, but as someone who “represented the hopes of young people everywhere.”

Excerpt those fragments carefully!

Quoting the words of others carries a big responsibility. Misquoting misrepresents the ideas of others. Here’s a classic example of a misquote:

John Adams has often been quoted as having said: “This would be the best of all possible worlds if there were no religion in it.”

John Adams did, in fact, write the above words. But if you see those words in context, the meaning changes entirely. Here’s the rest of the quotation:

Twenty times, in the course of my late reading, have I been on the point of breaking out, ‘this would be the best of all possible worlds, if there were no religion in it!!!!’ But in this exclamation, I should have been as fanatical as Bryant or Cleverly. Without religion, this world would be something not fit to be mentioned in public company—I mean hell.

As you can see from this example, context matters!

This example is from Paul F. Boller, Jr. and John George, *They Never Said It: A Book of Fake Quotes, Misquotes, and Misleading Attributions* (Oxford University Press, 1989).

Use block quotations sparingly.

There may be times when you need to quote long passages. However, you should use block quotations only when you fear that omitting any words will destroy the integrity of the passage. If that passage exceeds four lines (some sources say five), then set it off as a block quotation.

Be sure you are handling block quotes correctly in papers for different academic disciplines—check the index of the citation style guide you are using. Here are a few **general tips for setting off your block quotations:**

- Set up a block quotation with your own words followed by a colon.
- Indent. You normally indent 4-5 spaces for the start of a paragraph. When setting up a block quotation, indent the entire paragraph once from the left-hand margin.
- Single space or double space within the block quotation, depending on the style guidelines of your discipline (MLA, CSE, APA, Chicago, etc.).
- Do not use quotation marks at the beginning or end of the block quote—the indentation is what indicates that it’s a quote.
- Place parenthetical citation according to your style guide (usually after the period following the last sentence of the quote).
- Follow up a block quotation with your own words.

So, using the above example from John Adams, here’s how you might include a block quotation:

After reading several doctrinally rigid tracts, John Adams recalled the zealous ranting of his former teacher, Joseph Cleverly, and minister, Lemuel Bryant. He expressed his ambivalence toward religion in an 1817 letter to Thomas Jefferson:

Twenty times, in the course of my late reading, have I been on the point of breaking out, ‘this would be the best of all possible worlds, if there were no religion in it!!!!’ But in this exclamation, I should have been as fanatical as Bryant or Cleverly. Without religion, this world would be something not fit to be mentioned in public company—I mean hell.

Adams clearly appreciated religion, even if he often questioned its promotion.

How do I combine quotation marks with other punctuation marks?

It can be confusing when you start combining quotation marks with other punctuation marks. You should consult a style manual for complicated situations, but the **following two rules apply to most cases:**

Keep periods and commas within quotation marks.

So, for example:

According to Professor Jones, Lincoln “feared the spread of slavery,” but many of his aides advised him to “watch and wait.”

In the above example, both the comma and period were enclosed in the quotation marks. The main exception to this rule involves the use of internal citations, which always precede the last period of the sentence. For example:

According to Professor Jones, Lincoln “feared the spread of slavery,” but many of his aides advised him to “watch and wait” (Jones 143).

Note, however, that the period remains inside the quotation marks when your citation style involved superscript footnotes or endnotes. For example:

According to Professor Jones, Lincoln “feared the spread of slavery,” but many of his aides advised him to “watch and wait.”²

Place all other punctuation marks (colons, semicolons, exclamation marks, question marks) outside the quotation marks, except when they were part of the original quotation.

Take a look at the following examples:

The student wrote that the U. S. Civil War “finally ended around 1900”!
The coach yelled, “Run!”

In the first example, the author placed the exclamation point outside the quotation mark because she added it herself to emphasize the absurdity of the student’s comment. The student’s original comment had not included an exclamation mark. In the second example, the exclamation mark remains within the quotation mark because it is indicating the excited tone in which the coach yelled the command. Thus, the exclamation mark is considered to be part of the original quotation.

How do I indicate quotations within quotations?

If you are quoting a passage that contains a quotation, then you use single quotation marks for the internal quotation. Quite rarely, you quote a passage that has a quotation within a quotation. In that rare instance, you would use double quotation marks for the second internal quotation.

Here’s an example of a quotation within a quotation:

In “The Emperor’s New Clothes,” Hans Christian Andersen wrote, “‘But the Emperor has nothing on at all!’ cried a little child.”

Remember to consult your style guide to determine how to properly cite a quote within a quote.

When do I use those three dots (. . .)?

Whenever you want to leave out material from within a quotation, you need to use an ellipsis, which is a series of three periods, each of which should be preceded and followed by a space. So, an ellipsis in this sentence would look like . . . this. There are a few **rules to follow when using ellipses**:

Be sure that you don’t fundamentally change the meaning of the quotation by omitting material.

Take a look at the following example:

“The Writing Center is located on the UNC campus and serves the entire UNC community.”
“The Writing Center . . . serves the entire UNC community.”

The reader’s understanding of the Writing Center’s mission to serve the UNC community is not affected by omitting the information about its location.

Do not use ellipses at the beginning or ending of quotations, unless it's important for the reader to know that the quotation was truncated.

For example, using the above example, you would NOT need an ellipsis in either of these situations:

“The Writing Center is located on the UNC campus . . .”
The Writing Center ” . . . serves the entire UNC community.”

Use punctuation marks in combination with ellipses when removing material from the end of sentences or clauses.

For example, if you take material from the end of a sentence, keep the period in as usual.

“The boys ran to school, forgetting their lunches and books. Even though they were out of breath, they made it on time.”
“The boys ran to school. . . . Even though they were out of breath, they made it on time.”

Likewise, if you excerpt material at the end of clause that ends in a comma, retain the comma.

“The red car came to a screeching halt that was heard by nearby pedestrians, but no one was hurt.”
“The red car came to a screeching halt . . . , but no one was hurt.”

Is it ever okay to insert my own words or change words in a quotation?

Sometimes it is necessary for clarity and flow to alter a word or words within a quotation. You should make such changes rarely. In order to alert your reader to the changes you've made, you should always bracket the altered words. Here are a few **examples of situations when you might need brackets**:

Changing verb tense or pronouns in order to be consistent with the rest of the sentence.

Suppose you were quoting a woman who, when asked about her experiences immigrating to the United States, commented “nobody understood me.” You might write:

Esther Hansen felt that when she came to the United States “nobody understood [her].”

In the above example, you've changed “me” to “her” in order to keep the entire passage in third person. However, you could avoid the need for this change by simply rephrasing:

“Nobody understood me,” recalled Danish immigrant Esther Hansen.

Including supplemental information that your reader needs in order to understand the quotation.

For example, if you were quoting someone's nickname, you might want to let your reader know the full name of that person in brackets.

“The principal of the school told Billy [William Smith] that his contract would be terminated.”

Similarly, if a quotation referenced an event with which the reader might be unfamiliar, you could identify that event in brackets.

“We completely revised our political strategies after the strike [of 1934].”

Indicating the use of nonstandard grammar or spelling.

In rare situations, you may quote from a text that has nonstandard grammar, spelling, or word choice. In such cases, you may want to insert *[sic]*, which means “thus” or “so” in Latin. Using *[sic]* alerts your reader to the fact that this nonstandard language is not the result of a typo on your part. Always italicize “*sic*” and enclose it in brackets. There is no need to put a period at the end. Here’s an example of when you might use *[sic]*:

Twelve-year-old Betsy Smith wrote in her diary, “Father is afraid that he will be guilty of beach *[sic]* of contract.”

Here *[sic]* indicates that the original author wrote “beach of contract,” not breach of contract, which is the accepted terminology.

Do not overuse brackets!

For example, it is not necessary to bracket capitalization changes that you make at the beginning of sentences. For example, suppose you were going to use part of this quotation:

“We never looked back, but the memory of our army days remained with us the rest of our lives.”

If you wanted to begin a sentence with an excerpt from the middle of this quotation, there would be no need to bracket your capitalization changes.

“The memory of our army days remained with us the rest of our lives,” commented Joe Brown, a World War II veteran.

Not

“[T]he memory of our army days remained with us the rest of our lives,” commented Joe Brown, a World War II veteran.

Quotations: Using signal phrases to integrate quotations into your writing

Effective use of quotations requires that you include quotations in your paper in a way that allows the reader to understand the relevance of the quoted material to your own argument. You should never drop a quotation into your paper unannounced and apparently unrelated to the ideas around it. The quotation must always be embedded into one of your own sentences.

A common way to do this is to use a ‘signal phrase’ that incorporates the quotation smoothly into your writing and, just as importantly, provides context for the material. Very often a signal phrase will also name the author of the quoted material, thus serving at once to include the quotation smoothly and to attribute the idea to its source, as in the following example:

Although the oil slick in the Gulf of Mexico is drifting west of the Mississippi River, it could still threaten points east. According to Coast Guard Admiral Thad Allen, “Depending on which way the wind blows, it could threaten Mississippi, Alabama and Florida as well.”

To avoid monotony, vary the signal phrases you use to integrate quotations, as in these examples:

In the words of author and essayist Samuel Johnson, “The true measure of a man is how he treats someone who can do him absolutely no good.”

As Divakaruni **has noted**, “Looking down from the heights of Maslow's pyramid, it seems inconceivable to us that someone could actually prefer bread to freedom.”

Arthur Hardy, a renowned expert on New Orleans Carnival traditions, **points out** that “Mardi Gras came to North America from Paris, where it had been celebrated since the Middle Ages.”

Racial profiling “makes a mockery of the rights to which people in this country are entitled,” **claims** columnist Colbert I. King.

Sir Winston Churchill **offers** this wise advice: "If you are going through hell, keep going."

Sheffield answers her critics by **conceding**, “The proposal did not account sufficiently for the economic downturn.”

Signal phrases and attributors may come anywhere within your sentence—at the beginning, to introduce a quotation; in the middle of a quotation; or at the end, after the quotation has been given.

For example:

“We have a crime problem in this country,” **writes Barry Goldwater**, “not a gun problem.”

“We have a crime problem in this country, not a gun problem,” **asserts the late Arizona Senator Barry Goldwater**.

You don’t always have to use a writer’s name in your signal phrase, for example:

One U.S. Senator has claimed, “We have a crime problem in this country, not a gun problem.”

Many opponents of gun-control regulations would agree that “[w]e have a crime problem in this country, not a gun problem.”

Vary the signal verbs you use to introduce quotations, and choose them with care.

Use the verb that most closely captures how your source is presenting the idea. Is the author you are quoting merely saying something? Or would it be more accurate to write that the source is arguing a point, making an observation, reporting facts, drawing a conclusion, refuting an argument, or stating a belief? Choose the verb that makes the author’s stance clear. There are many available to use, including these:

acknowledges	comments	describes	maintains	reports
adds	compares	disputes	notes	responds
admits	concedes	emphasizes	observes	shows
agrees	confirms	endorses	points out	states

argues	contends	illustrates	reasons	suggests
asserts	declares	implies	refutes	summarizes
claims	denies	insists	rejects	writes

A reminder about grammar: A quotation must be made to fit the syntax and grammar of your sentence, so take care as you experiment with signal phrases to introduce quotations. Make sure the result is a grammatically correct sentence. Do not use signal phrase such as “he writes” to introduce a quotation that is not a complete sentence, such as in the following example:

Incorrect: Brown writes, “My childhood, which was happy and carefree, but passed by too fast.”

Correct: Brown writes, “My childhood . . . was happy and carefree, but passed by too fast.”

Also correct: Brown describes her childhood as “happy and carefree,” but she laments that it “passed by too fast.”

As in the examples above, you may need to use ellipses marks and brackets to modify a quotation for the sake of sentence grammar, but never distort the original meaning of the quotation as you do so.

A reminder about punctuation: Quotations may be introduced by two--and only two--marks of punctuation, the comma and the colon. Never introduce a quotation with a semicolon.

A reminder about source citation: None of the examples above use citations to attribute the quotation to its source. Be aware that whenever you use a quotation in your paper, you should cite it using the citation style specified by your professor, such as MLA style for papers in the humanities, APA style for papers in psychology, Chicago or Turabian style for papers in history.

Incorporating Sources

The great English scientist Sir Isaac Newton claimed that he achieved great things because he "stood on the shoulders of giants." In other words, he learned from his predecessors. Even today, scientists, doctors, teachers, business executives, and leaders in other professions do not start from scratch each time they embark on a project and make a decision. Like Newton, they take advantage of what others have already learned. When writing an argument, you can make your work easier and more productive if you first learn what others have learned about your subject. In other words, start with research.

By identifying and evaluating sources, you already have begun the research process. Now it is time to incorporate others' findings into your own article. The key word here is "incorporate," which means to bring into a body; that is, you need to bring others' words and interpretations into the body of your own argument. This step is perhaps the most challenging part of writing a researched argument. If you merely string together quotations from sources, your argument will come across as fragmented and unoriginal. On the other hand, if you borrow others' words and ideas without giving them credit, you are guilty of plagiarism, a type of academic dishonesty that can result in an F or even expulsion from the university. Instead, you must come to understand your source material, weave it into your own argument, and give credit to sources for exact words or interpretations that you borrowed.

You can incorporate source material into your own writing in a number of ways:

- **Full Quotation:** When reading a source, you may come across one or more complete sentences that are striking because of the way they are expressed; perhaps, for example, the author has used some colorful or poetic language. In such a case, you should consider using a full quotation, which is the use of one or more complete sentences from a source. You must place a full quotation within **quotation marks**. Do not change any of the words. Identify the source with an **attributive phrase** that names both the author and the publication. After you have identified the author and publication once, you may use just the author's last name in future attributive phrases. If the source has page numbers, place the number or numbers where the quotation appeared in a **parenthetical citation** at the end of the full quotation. Below is an example, in which colors indicate the various components just described. Pay close attention to the placement of punctuation marks, such as the period at the end of the sentence. In particular, note that a **colon** appears between the verb in the attributive phrase and the quotation itself.
 - **Original:** While he ruled, however, he did so in the old-fashioned way: by divine right as the ultimate lawgiver, political authority, arbiter of manners and morals for his people.
 - **Full Quotation: In an article on James Strang in *Smithsonian* magazine, Bil Gilbert explains:** "While he ruled, however, he did so in the old-fashioned way: by divine right as the ultimate lawgiver, political authority, arbiter of manners and morals for his people"(84).
- **Partial Quotation:** In some cases, you may want to use only part of a sentence you found in a source--perhaps just a phrase or even a single word. As with a full quotation, you must place the exact words you borrow within **quotation marks**. Do not change any of the words that appear within the quotation marks. Identify the source with an **attributive phrase** that names both the author and the publication. After you have identified the author and publication once, you may use just the author's last name in future attributive phrases. If the source has page numbers, place the number or numbers where the quotation appeared in a **parenthetical citation** at the end of the sentence. Below is an example, in which colors indicate the various components just described. Unlike full quotations, partial quotations require no additional punctuation other than quotation marks. Simply punctuate the sentence as you normally would, but be sure to place the final period after the parenthetical citation.
 - **Original:** While he ruled, however, he did so in the old-fashioned way: by divine right as the ultimate lawgiver, political authority, arbiter of manners and morals for his people.
 - **Partial Quotation: In an article on James Strang in *Smithsonian* magazine, Bil Gilbert explains that Strang governed** "in the old-fashioned way: by divine right as the ultimate lawgiver, political authority, arbiter of manners and morals for his people"(84).
- **Paraphrase:** Most of the time, the material you find within a source will be valuable primarily for its content, and not for the way it is expressed. In such cases, you should use a paraphrase, which is the rephrasing of someone else's information in your own words. To paraphrase without plagiarizing, you must change both the words and the syntax--the way the words fit together in a sentence--of the original. Because you no longer are using the source's exact words, you should not use quotation marks. If the material is purely factual, you generally do not need to give credit to the source. On the other hand, you should give credit to the source if 1) the material you are paraphrasing contains any kind of interpretation, 2) presents facts--particularly statistics-- that required painstaking investigative work, or 3) includes facts that may elicit curiosity or doubt in your audience. You should

give credit to the source in the same way you give credit for quotations. That is, use an **attributive phrase** that names both the author and the publication. After you have identified the author and publication once, you may use just the author's last name in future attributive phrases. If the source has page numbers, place the number or numbers where the quotation appeared in a **parenthetical citation** at the end of the sentence. Below is an example, in which colors indicate the various components just described. Note the placement of punctuation.

- **Original:** While he ruled, however, he did so in the old-fashioned way: by divine right as the ultimate lawgiver, political authority, arbiter of manners and morals for his people.
- **Paraphrase:** In an article on James Strang in *Smithsonian* magazine, Bil Gilbert explains that Strang exercised great power in his dominion, providing laws and even shaping his subjects' personal lives (84).
- **Summary:** If you come across a paragraph, a section, or even an entire chapter or article that is valuable to you for its major point and not for all the particulars, you may want to provide a summary, which is a condensed version of the original. Like a paraphrase, a summary must be in your own words and does not require quotation marks. You still should identify the source with an **attributive phrase** that names both the author and the publication. After you have identified the author and publication once, you may use just the author's last name in future attributive phrases. If the source has page numbers, place the number or numbers where the quotation appeared in a **parenthetical citation** at the end of the summary.

No matter how you incorporate material into your article, you should interpret its significance for the audience. In other words, use one or more of your own sentences to explain how the full quotation, partial quotation, paraphrase, or summary fits in the argument you are making. If I paraphrasing Bil Gilbert's article to support my own argument about how religious leaders such as James Strang have turned into dictators, I might write the following:

In an article on James Strang in *Smithsonian* magazine, Bil Gilbert explains that Strang exercised great power in his dominion, providing laws and even shaping his subjects' personal lives (84). The example of Strang shows how this Mormon "king," like the other religious leaders I have described, took advantage of his position to subjugate his followers.

Finally, you must include at the end of your article a list of works cited--that is, a list of the sources that you referred to specifically in your article through attributive phrases, parenthetical citations, or both. If you borrowed only factual material from a source and have not identified it through attributive phrases or parenthetical citations in your article, do not include it in your list of works cited. Your list of works cited should conform to the style used in the particular discipline in which you are writing or the style dictated by your instructor. When writing a paper for an English class, for example, you generally will use MLA style. See *The MLA Handbook* or *The Ready Reference Handbook* for guidelines on using MLA style. Do not assume that the format that appears in the research database is MLA format. Instead, you generally will need to rearrange the components that appear in the citations you find on databases.

USING DIRECT QUOTES

A direct quotation consists of someone's exact words. Direct quotations provide authority, liveliness and variety, but inexperienced reporters overuse them. This is partly because quotes come prewritten. The reporter simply transfers the quotes from notepad to computer and the job is done. But news stories are written, not transcribed. The spoken word is unorganized, hesitant and filled with repetitions and qualifications. Direct quotations usually can be rewritten — or paraphrased into indirect quotes — so the material is clearer and simpler and shorter.

Here are some guidelines to help decide when to use direct quotations and when to paraphrase:

1. Do not use direct quotations simply to relay information.

Not: "The rate of taxation on Lincoln properties will increase by 15 percent," Jones said.

But: Property taxes will rise 15 percent, Jones said. (Notice that the reporter still attributes the information to Jones, even though Jones' exact words are not used in this indirect quote.)

2. Do use direct quotations when they give flavor, accurately describe a situation or person, help define the character of the speaker, make accusations or judgments or strike you as clever.

Examples (taken from Best Newspaper Writing 1981):

"If God wanted us to have life tenure," he said, "He would have made all of us federal judges." — Former New York Mayor Ed Koch.

"People went over, under, through and around every time we tried to restrict access to what we believed to be dangerous areas," Sheriff William Closner of Skamania County.

"Ted, you are a tough competitor and a superb campaigner," Carter said in his speech last night.

3. To cover for poor note-taking skills, reporters sometimes rely on partial quotes. They, "unfortunately," often relay to the reader a "meaning" to a word or "phrase" not "intended" by the speaker:

. . . the mayor says that racism can be a two-way street, that discrimination is not solved by reverse discrimination, that there are "black rednecks as well as white rednecks," that the rights of society must be paramount.

There, for the first time, he saw a definite line in the sky "like something out of a crazy science-fiction movie."

4. In using partial quotes, be wary of awkward shifts of pronouns.

Not: The mayor said he wanted nothing more "than to see my efforts meet with success."

But: "I want nothing more than to see my efforts meet with success," the mayor said.

Or simply paraphrase entirely: The mayor said he wanted nothing more than to see his efforts . . .

Be doubly wary of using the wrong pronoun:

Not: The mayor said that "he wanted . . ."

But: The mayor said that he "wanted . . ."

Remember, direct quotes are a person's exact words. Would the mayor really refer to himself as he? It's doubtful.

5. Try to avoid inserting parenthetical information inside a direct quote. If a direct quote needs parenthetical information to be clear, it probably is a bad quote. Paraphrase it.

Not: "He (Johnson) is a bum," Jones said.

But: Jones called Johnson "a bum."

6. As a rule, you will not want to use quotes in large chunks. But if the source is speaking concisely or cleverly, you can stand back and let her do the work.

Example (Best Newspaper Writing 1981):

"Now nobody walks out on 1,100 Irish Catholics in a church setting," the mayor said. "Somebody asked me, how can you do this? I said, you don't treat me with respect, I walk out. They've got a kangaroo court in there and I don't happen to be a kangaroo."

7. The ellipsis is seldom employed in news writing because large blocks of straight quotation are rarely used. An ellipsis tells the reader that something has been left out of a quotation. The sign is three spaced periods flanked by a space on each side.

said that . . . a ship.

When the ellipsis starts at the end of a sentence, four periods are needed.

he said. . . . In other matters.

Examples (Best Newspaper Writing, 1981):

“I know I am breaking a precedent to come here tonight,” the GOP’s 1980 nominee for president said, “. . . but I felt it necessary to break tradition.

“. . . It is true a number of Republican leaders . . . felt as I am sure many of you felt . . . that a ticket should include former President Gerald Ford.”

8. In straight news writing, use the past tense for attribution. The moment a word is spoken, it exists in the past. Present tense sounds stylish but requires skill to use it properly. Once you start in present tense, be consistent. Do not switch tenses, the No. 1 sign of a sloppy writer.

Not: “The country is in serious trouble,” Johnson says.

Speaking to Rotarians Thursday night, Johnson said the ingredients were . . .

But: “The country is in serious trouble,” Johnson said.

Speaking to Rotarians Thursday night, Johnson said . . .

9. In reported speech, the said verb is the governing verb and therefore controls the tenses of the subordinate verbs.

In reported speech, when the said verb is in the past tense, the primary tenses of subordinate verbs must be changed to secondary tenses.

Accordingly, present is changed to past, perfect to past perfect, future to conditional, and future perfect to conditional perfect. This is called following the sequence of tenses. Thus:

Reported: He said he was old but energetic.

Reported: She said she had aged but she had not lost her energy.

Reported: He said he would go but he would be late.

Reported: She said she would have lost her patience by then.

Reported: He said he thought the war was immoral.

As in parenthetical speech, the person of pronouns in reported speech are changed from first to third, and from second to third.

Note: Many newspapers do not use the sequence of tenses, though it is grammatically correct. They take the position that although attribution normally will be in the past tense, verbs within the attributed statement may well be in present tense. Someone’s opinion, expressed to a reporter on a given day, continues to exist:

She said she thinks the war is immoral.

10. Documents, which continue to exist after a reporter reads them, should be cited in present tense, and, when possible, the use of the imprecise said should be avoided:

Court records show that Jones was arrested twice before on assault charges.

The timeless phrase according to also may be used when writing about records.

According to the accident report, Jones was driving east on Vine Street when his car’s brakes failed.

11. Avoid quotes that echo the preceding sentence — stutter quotes — either in word choice or in meaning:

“I haven’t felt better all year,” Andrews said. He recently spent 10 days in traction for muscle spasms in his lower back. “Tonight is the best I’ve felt all season.”

Rules aside, train your ear so that you can use quotes effectively. Pay attention to how writers blend paraphrase and direct quotes, and handle attribution. Using quotations requires a sense of precision, coupled with a sense of style.

Other ways to say “For example”

this can be seen when...

... is one example of ...

...as illustrated by...

...as seen in ...

...which is made apparent when...

these include...

particularly...

especially...

this is illustrated...

such as

in particular

as a case in point

namely

AVOID these transition words and phrases:

To give instruction:

First, second, third, to begin, next, also

To explain a process:

First, second, third, to start, to begin, after that, the next step, this procedure, the way to, while, when, as, after, meanwhile, in the meantime, in this manner, a final step

To show sequence:

first, second, third, and so forth, following this, at this time, now, at this point, after, afterward, subsequently, finally, consequently, previously, before this, simultaneously, concurrently, thus, therefore, hence, next

Universal Themes

Abandonment	Compromise	Faith
Abuse of power	Concern	Faith vs. doubt
Acceptance	Conflict	Fall from grace
Accomplishment	Conformity	Fame
Action vs. apathy	Connections	Family
Adolescence – discovery, pain, loneliness	Consequences	Family – blessing or curse
Adventure	Consideration	Fate
Alienation – destruction of soul	Convention and rebellion	Fate and free will
Ambition – persistence or corruption	Cooperation	Fear
Anxiety	Corruption	Fear of failure
Appearances – deception and reality	Courage	Forgiveness
Appreciation	Culture	Freedom
Appreciation of Nature	Cycles	Friendship
Attitude	Dangers of ignorance	Fulfillment
Balance	Darkness and light	Generations
Beating the odds	Death – inevitable or tragedy	Goals
Beauty	Denial	Good vs. evil
Beauty of diversity	Desire to escape	Gratitude
Beauty of simplicity	Destruction of beauty	Greed
Belonging	Determination	Greed as downfall
Brotherhood	Devotion	Growing up – pain or pleasure
Capitalism – effect on the individual	Differences	Hate
Cause and Effect	Dignity	Hazards of passing judgment
Challenge	Discovery	Heartbreak of betrayal
Change	Disillusionment and dreams	Heritage
Change of power - necessity	Displacement	Heroes
Change vs. tradition	Effects of the past	Heroism
Chaos and order	Empathy	Heroism – real and perceived
Character – destruction, building up	Empowerment	Hierarchy in nature
Choices	Emptiness of attaining false dream	Honesty
Circle of life	Enthusiasm	Honor
Collaboration	Environment	Hope
Coming of Age	Escape	Humility
Commitment	Everlasting love	Humor
Communication	Evils of racism	Identity
Communication – verbal and nonverbal	Excellence	Identity crisis
Community	Exploration	Illusion of power
Companionship as salvation	Facing darkness	Imagination
Compassion	Facing Fear	Immortality
	Facing reality	Individual vs. society
	Fading beauty	Individuality
	Fairness	Influence

Ingenuity	Origins	Secrecy
Initiation	Overcoming – fear, weakness, vice	Security/safety
Injustice	Parallelism	Seizing the moment
Inner vs. outer strength	Parent-child	Self – inner and outer
Innocence	Patience	Self Awareness
Innovation	Patriotism	Self Discipline
Inspiration	Patriotism – positive side or complications	Self Esteem
Integrity	Patterns	Self Respect
Interdependence	Peace	Self Sacrifice
Isolation	Peer Pressure	Self-awareness
Isolationism - hazards	Perseverance	Self-preservation
Justice	Perspectives	Self-reliance
Kindness	Point of View	Sensitivity
Knowledge vs. ignorance	Possibilities	Social Change
Leadership	Power	Social mobility
Loneliness	Power and corruption	Structure
Loneliness as destructive force	Power of silence	Success
Losing hope	Power of the mind vs. authority	Survival
Loss	Power of tradition	Sympathy
Loss of innocence	Power of wealth	Systems
Lost honor	Power of words	Technology in society – good or bad
Lost love	Prejudice	Temporary nature of physical beauty
Love	Price of progress	Temptation and destruction
Love and sacrifice	Pride	The overlooked
Loyalty	Pride and downfall	The road not taken
Magnitude	Problem Solving	Tolerance
Manipulation	Progress – real or illusion	Totalitarianism
Materialism as downfall	Quest for discovery	Tradition
Memory	Quest for knowledge	Tragedy
Motherhood	Quest for power	Transformation
Mothering	Rebirth	Uncertainty
Names – power and significance	Reciprocity	Vanity as downfall
Nationalism – complications	Reflection	Virtue
Nature	Relationships	Vulnerability of the meek
Nature as beauty	Relativity	War
Necessity of work	Religion	War – glory, necessity, pain, tragedy
Need for change	Resolution	Will to survive
New Experiences	Resourcefulness	Winners and losers
Obligation	Respect	Wisdom
Opportunity	Responsibility	Wisdom of experience
Oppression of women	Revenge	Working class struggles
Optimism	Role of Religion – virtue or hypocrisy	Youth and beauty
Optimism – power or folly		
Order vs. Chaos		