# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

# 6 + 1

# TRAIT

# WRITING

# 6+1 Trait® Writing

The 6+1 Trait Writing framework is a powerful way to learn and use a common language to refer to characteristics of writing as well as create a common vision of what 'good' writing looks like. Teachers and students can use the 6+1 Trait model to pinpoint areas of strength and weakness as they continue to focus on improved writing.

The following are the writing guidelines that are found in grading rubrics based on the 6 + 1 Traits of Writing by Ruth Culham:

1. **Ideas:** Ideas make up the content of the piece of writing – the heart of the message.

2. **Organization:** Organization is the internal structure of the piece, the thread of meaning, the logical pattern of the ideas.

3. **Voice:** Voice is the soul of the piece. It's what makes the writer's style singular, as his or her feelings and convictions come out through the words.

4. **Word choice:** Word choice is at its best when it includes the use of rich, colorful, precise language that moves and enlightens the reader.

5. **Sentence Fluency:** Sentence fluency is the lfow of the language, the sound of word patters – the way the writing plays to the ear, not just to the eye.

6. **Conventions:** Conventions represent the piece's level of correctness – the extent to which the writer uses grammar and mechanics with precision.

+1. **Presentation:** Presentation zeros in on the form and layout – how pleasing the piece is to the eye.

The following is an example of grading criteria using the 6 + 1 traits guidelines:

WOW!
**Exceed expectations**

° STRONG**:**
**Shows control and skill in this trait; Many strengths present**

‾ EFFECTIVE**:**
**On balance, the strengths outweigh the weaknesses; a small amount of revision is needed**

® DEVELOPING**:**
**Strengths and need for revision are about equal; about half-way home**

- EMERGING**:**
**Need for revision outweighs strengths; Isolated moments hint at what the writer has in mind**

¬ NOT YET**:**
**A bare beginning; writer not yet showing any control**

# 6+1 Writing Trait Rubric

## Essay Evaluation Criteria

Name _____

IDEAS:

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Thesis is narrow & specific, Lean & mean; has teeth | | thesis is somewhat specific, yet fairly broad; hard to really guide | | still in search of a topic; too general |

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Thesis answered question exactly Kept focus throughout | | thesis answered question mostly; kept focus usually | | failed to answer question |

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Uses relevant, telling, quality details That supported main ideas | | support starts to but does not fully validate key issues | | limited or unclear details |

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Analyzes; leads with ideas; Little retelling | | primarily analyzes; some over use of retelling, of summary | | mostly retells the story |

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Discusses proof and ideas fully And deeply; reveals comprehension | | discusses proof to some degree; reveals basic understanding | | no or little discussion; no comprehension |

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ideas are fresh and original; Reveals depth of thought | | ideas are reasonably fresh; may lack expansion or depth | | ideas are simple restatements of text |

ORGANIZATION:

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strong sense of direction; Key points stand out clearly | | usually a good sense of direction; most points can be determined | | no direction; no clear points |

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sequencing makes sense; Details fit where placed | | some logical sequencing & details; not consistently so or too predictable | | no recognizable pattern or details |

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Transitions are strong and natural Between ideas and paragraphs | | some transitions are unclear or do not fit; often good, but inconsistent | | no transitions |

CONVENTIONS:

| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Errors, so few &/or minor, Do not distract the reader | | enough errors to distract the reader, yet message remains clear | | errors distract the reader; mar the message |

TOTAL SCORE: _____/50

OVERALL COMMENTS:

# FUNDAMENTAL

# WRITING

# GUIDELINES

# 1.0  Writing Guidelines

## General Writing Guidelines

The following list is by no means complete; use it as a starting point and add to it with your own experience in writing.

- Plan before you write.

- Arrange material logically.

- Write for a particular audience.

- Write clearly, briefly, accurately, and logically.

- Impress the reader with your clarity, rather than with your vocabulary.

- Use the active voice as much as possible without being awkward or illogical.

- Use the present tense, not the future, unless the action will take place in the future.

- Use parallel structure whenever a sentence presents two or more thoughts that are of equal importance.

- Omit unnecessary words.

- Double space after periods.

- Avoid clichés.

- Avoid vague words.

- Write positively (concentrate on *do*, not *do not*).

- Use a simple direct, conversational style.

- Use short sentences, but vary the length and pattern.

- Use capitals, boldface, italics, and underlining sparingly and consistently.

- Put a period at the end of list items containing a verb (if one list item earns a period, they all do).

- Use correct grammar, punctuation, and spelling.

- Use 12-point font, Times New Roman unless otherwise stated.

# Audience

The first rule of effective writing is to help the reader.  Concentrate on writing for the needs of specific readers, rather than merely about certain subjects.  Too often, writers are blinded by their own familiarity with the subject and tend to overlook their readers' lack of knowledge.

Before starting to write, you must determine who your readers are and then adjust the amount of detail and vocabulary to their background and experience.

- Determine who your readers are.

- Visualize a single, typical reader.

- List reader characteristics.

  1. Age
  2. Interests
  3. Background for understanding

- List the audience's needs.

- If your audience has varied backgrounds, target the main reader.

- If your audience for longer papers has varied backgrounds, aim various sections at different sets of readers.

No matter what your topic or format, never forget that your readers are the most important consideration.

# Clarity

Writing clearly is very important.  You don't want your reader to misinterpret what you are trying to say.  Using clear words and direct language helps to make your writing clear.  Here are some specific guidelines to use when writing text.

- Choose concrete rather then abstract words, avoid redundancy (repeating), and omit needless expressions.

- To avoid long paragraphs of text, use either a colon or a list.

- Avoid jargon.

- Avoid abbreviations.  The abbreviations i.e. and e.g. are often interchanged to mean *for example*.  I.e. means *that is* and e.g. means *for example.*

- Express each thought as simply and directly as possible without obscuring its meaning.  Length does not make strength.

- Avoid using too many words to express your idea.

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- Don't use a longer, more complex word if a short and simple one will do.

- Avoid using unfamiliar words.

- Avoid unrelated, illogical ideas.

## Writing Format

Unless otherwise stated, double-space all essays and papers. Letters are single-spaced with double-spacing between paragraphs. Use a 14-point font for titles and a maximum of 1-inch margins. Use a 12-point font for all text. Titles may be in bold and double-spaced between the title and the introduction.

## Headings

The following heading has been adopted by the Random Lake School District. The heading is single-spaced and typed using a 12-point font. The title may be typed using a 14-point font and in bold. Use one double-space between the title and the introduction.

Line One/Center -          Class Block

Line Two/Left Margin -   Date
Line Two/Right Margin – First and Last Name

Line Three/Centered –   Title of Project (if required)

Example:

| Class Block | |
|---|---|
| Date | Full Name |
| **Title of Project or Assignment** | |

## Ten Keys to Clarity

People retain only 10% of what they read. On the average, people only read one book and learn five new words each year. This lack of reading could be due to material that is hard to read and understand.

Here are some things we can do to help make our writing easier for our audiences to read and comprehend.

1. Control sentence length. The recommended sentence length is 8 to 12 words.

2. Develop short paragraphs. The recommended paragraph length is 4 to 8 sentences.

3. Select appropriate, easy-to-understand words.

4. Use a thesaurus to expand vocabulary.

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5. Avoid jargon.  Uncommon acronyms and uncommon abbreviations should not be used.  When using an acronym or abbreviation throughout your document, restate the meaning of the acronym or abbreviation every two to three pages near the top of the page.

6. Use lists.  Lists help break up large or confusing paragraphs.  Bulleted and ordered lists are common.

7. Use one-inch margins.

8. Use ragged right margins.

9. Capitalize, underline, bold, and italicize words occasionally for emphasis.

10. Write to express, not to impress.

Print Literacy

# 2.0 Word Usage and Sentences

When you first put an idea in writing, you use words that are clearly associated with that thought. As a result, you read what you have written, and you see what you intended to say. Someone else could read and interpret it differently if you didn't write clearly and concisely.

## Word Usage

Use words that are short, easy, and common; avoid words that will stop the reader, adding to the reader's difficulty in getting the message.

You will find that it is harder to write gobbledygook than simple language because you must translate the simple words you used in thinking into uncommon, impressive words.

Do you understand the words you have used? More important, are you sure that your reader will understand what you have written? If the meaning of any word is doubtful in your mind, find a better expression. Your readers will lose your intended message if they have to search the meaning of your words.

## Word Choice

- Use specific words to express your meaning exactly.

- Choose words with meaning that match the feelings you wish to convey.

- Create fresh similes and metaphors to appeal to your reader's imagination.

- Avoid clichés.

## Commonly Misused Words

Here are some commonly misused words.

**A, An**

Use *a* before the beginning with consonant sounds and *an* before words beginning with vowel sounds.

**Accept, Except**

*Accept* means to receive, to agree to; *except* is a preposition meaning but, or a verb meaning to exclude.

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**Affect, Effect**

> *Affect* is a verb. To *affect* means to act or to influence. *Effect* is a noun and a verb. As a noun, the *effect* is the result or outcome. As a verb, *effect* means to bring about or to cause.

**Alot, A lot**

> Only *a lot* is considered standard usage.

**Already, All ready**

> *Already* means previously. *All ready* means completely ready.

**Alright, All right**

> Only *all right* is considered standard usage.

**Among, Between**

> *Between* is correct for two, while *among* is correct for three or more.

**Anxious, Eager**

> Both *anxious* and *eager* mean desirous, but *anxious* is related to anxiety and sounds worried or brooding; *eager* sounds positive-full of anticipation.

**And, Because**

> Find new ways to begin a sentence other than with *and* or *because*. This is not necessarily incorrect, but it is clumsy usage.

> Example of improper usage:

>> *Because* he prepared, he did well.

> Example of proper usage:

>> He did well *because* he prepared.

**Bad, Badly**

> *Bad* is an adjective. If can modify a noun directly (a **bad** view) or as a complement after a linking verb (his limp is *bad*). *Badly* is an adverb and can modify a verb (he limped badly). *Badly* is used when "in a bad manner" is meant.

**Can, May**

> *Can* is used for ability and *may* for permission, probability, or possibility.

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**Capital, Capitol**

*Capital* refers to either financial assets or to the city that hosts the government of a state or nation.  It also refers to all uppercase letters.  *Capitol* refers to the building in which the state or national legislature meets.

**Cause, Cuz, Because**

*Cause* refers to an event happening.  *Cuz* is slang and is **NOT** a word.  *Because* is used to explain why something happened.  *Cause* is **NOT** short for *because*.

Examples:

We went to the store *because* we needed bread.
The accident was the *cause* of driving too fast.

**Complement, Compliment**

A *complement* completes an idea or situation.  (For many, gravy is a *complement* to mashed potatoes.)  Only a person can praise or *compliment*.

**Different From, Different Than**

In formal writing, *from* is used with *different*.  *Different than* is acceptable when it is followed by a phrase.

Examples:

The fourth generation is *different from* the third generation.
The job was *different than* we had estimated.

**Ensure, Insure, Assure**

*Ensure* means to make certain.  *Insure* means to protect against loss.  *Assure* means to give someone confidence.

**Farther, Further**

*Farther* refers to actual distance, and further means to a greater extent.  Use *further* when there is no notion of distance.

**I, Me**

*I* is always the subject of a sentence.  *Me* is always the object of a sentence.  When in doubt about which word to use, say the pronoun alone in the sentence to see which one is correct.

Examples:

Join Mary and *me* for a drink.
My friends and *I* went to a football game.

**Imply, infer**

To *imply* is to suggest, often nonverbally. To *infer* is to draw a conclusion or guess, based on some evidence. Many people use *infer* for both meanings, perhaps because it sounds for elegant, but that is incorrect.

**Its, It's**

*Its* is a possessive pronoun as are yours, ours, hers, and his (the dog chased its tail). Possessive pronouns do not use apostrophes. *It's* is a contraction: it is.

**Lay, Lie**

*Lay* (principal parts – lay, laid, laying) means to put or place. *Lie* (principal parts – lie, lay, lain, lying) means to recline, rest or stay.

To decide whether to use *lie* or *lay*, substitute the word place, placed, or placing for the word in question. If the substitute fits, the corresponding form of *lay* is correct. If it doesn't fit, use the appropriate form of *lie*.

**Less, Fewer**

*Less* refers to mass quantities (*less* sugar, less milk). *Fewer* refers to items that can be counted (*fewer* sugar cubes, fewer cartons of milk).

Examples:

Jane likes *fewer* sugar cubes in her coffee than I do.
Higher taxes mean *less* money in your pocket.

**Like, As**

To avoid confusion between *like* and *as*, remember that *like* is a preposition and *as* is a conjunction. In other words, use *like* when comparing a person or a thing to something else. Use *as* before a verb phrase.

Examples:

The new supervisor behaves *like* a novice.
He acted *as* though he owned the company.

**Meant, Ment**

*Meant* is the past tense of meaning. *Ment* is a word ending only and should not be used to stand on its own. *Ment* is incorrect.

**Principal, Principle**

*Principal* refers to something which a chief or of the highest importance. It is also the name for the head of an elementary or high school. Remember, the *principal* is your pal. *Principle* is a basic belief, truth, rule, or policy.

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**Regardless, Irregardless**

*Regardless* means despite everything and is the word we really want when we say *irregardless*. *Irregardless* is incorrect.

**That, Which**

*That* always adds information that defines or qualifies the meaning of the sentence. *Which* always adds information that doesn't change the meaning of the sentence.

Examples:

My house, *which* is small and old, needs to be painted.
I bought my mother the suit *that* she will wear to her interview.

**Their, There, They're**

*Their* is a possessive word meaning belonging to them. *There* means in that place. *They're* is the contraction for they are.

Examples:

The children rode *their* bicycles.
The trail begins *there*.
Plants turn yellow when *they're* watered too often.

**To, Too, Two**

*To* means toward or in the direction of and is also a preposition. *Too* means also or extremely. *Two* is a number.

Examples:

Keith went *to* the gym to practice.
*Two* of the members were *too* late to vote.
Jim was invited, but Greg came *too*.

**Were, We're, Where**

Were is the second singular past, plural past, and past subject of *be. We're* is a contraction and means we are. *Where* is an adverb and means in or to what place or position.

Examples:
I thought you *were* going to the store with Jim.
*We're* going to the pool today.
*Where* are the remaining pieces to the puzzle?

**Who, Whom**

Who is always the subject of a sentence.  Whom is always the object of a sentence.  When in doubt about which form to use, try substituting a personal pronoun (such as he or him) to see which one is correct.  If he or they fits, use who.  If him or them fits, use whom.

Examples:

*Who* is the congressman from the tenth district?
He is the congressman from the tenth district.

It depended on *whom*?
It depended on them.

**Your, You're**

*Your* means belonging to you.  *You're* is a contraction for you are.

Examples:

Are these *your* gloves?
*You're* the one we want for president of the class.

# Usage Problem Areas

Be aware of the following usage problem areas.

# Prepositional Endings

If a preposition falls naturally at the end of a sentence, leave it there.  In the examples below, *dreamed of, riding in*, and *working for* are verb phrases that function best when not divided.  *"Of which he dreamed," "in which she rode*," and "*for whom she worked*" although grammatically correct, sound awkward.  Be aware, however, that a preposition at the end of a sentence can be an indication that the sentence is awkwardly constructed.

Examples:

It was a trip he has always *dreamed of*.
I saw the car she was *riding in*.
Do you know the man she was *working for*?

## Split Infinitives

Split infinitives occur when a modifier comes between *to* and the verb form, as in *to loudly complain.*

Example:

Incorrect:
> To correctly *build* a table file, you can use transaction tables.

Correct:
> To *build* a table file correctly, you can use transaction tables.

It may occasionally be better to split an infinitive than to allow a sentence to become awkward, ambiguous, or incoherent.

Example:

Incorrect:
> She agreed immediately *to deliver* toxic chemicals.

Correct:
> She agreed *to* immediately *deliver* toxic chemicals.

## Absolute Words

Avoid using modifiers to compare or to qualify words that are considered absolutes.  These words include *unique, vital, complete, perfect, round, critical*, and *dead*.  Following are two examples of the proper usage of absolute words.

Examples:

> That design is *unique*.
> The document is *critical.*

## Sentences

Use short sentences.  They are more likely to be tight, unified sentences.  Short sentences are easy to read because your eyes can pick them up with little effort.  Such sentences are easy to understand and remember because they form simple thought patterns.

Sentences should average 10 – 17 words or less.  Not all of your sentences should be 17 words or less in length.  If they are all short, your writing will be monotonous and childlike.  Vary the length of your sentences for interest; otherwise, your reader will become tired of your style.  Try to balance your sentences so that the average length is about 10 – 17 words.

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

## Write Clear Sentences

A sentence is a group, string, or alignment of words expressing a complete thought.

A sentence which includes several unrelated ideas connected by *and*'s and *so's* is hard to understand.

Arrange your words and phrases to convey your exact meaning.

Examples:

> Terry plays jazz piano.
> This new car runs on special fuel.

If a writer leaves out part of the idea, the result is usually a sentence fragment. A sentence fragment is a group of words that does not express a complete thought.

Examples:

> Plays jazz piano. (Who plays jazz piano?)
> This new car. (What happened to this new car?)

To change these fragments into sentences, you must add the missing information.

## Constructing Clear Sentences

Use uncomplicated sentences to state complex ideas. If readers must cope with a complicated sentence in addition to a complex idea, they are likely to become confused.

Sentences are the building blocks of your writing. Sentences should be complete to be clear.

### Concise Sentences

Concise sentences deliver more meaning from each word than do repetitive and wordy sentences. Do not string a series of thoughts together that should be written as separate sentences. Sentences carelessly tacked together this way are monotonous and hard to read because all ideas seem to be of equal importance.

Express your meaning in as few words as possible. Eliminate redundancy, empty expressions, and wordy phrases.

### Sentence Variety

A sentence that rambles on too long is as hard to follow as a series of short, choppy sentences.

Untangle sentences that string too many ideas together. Separate the ideas into a mixture of short and long sentences and avoid long strings of phrases.

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

Vary your sentences by using difference sentence beginnings.

Vary the length of your sentences by combining short, choppy sentences and untangling long rambling ones.

A run-on sentence is two or more sentences separated by a comma or no punctuation mark at all.

Examples:

Incorrect:
> I was swimming very hard the tide was against me.

Correct:
> I was swimming very hard.  The tide was against me.
> I was swimming very hard, but the tide was against me.
> I was swimming very hard; the tide was against me.
> Although I was swimming very hard, the tide was against me.

Sentences can often be improved by eliminating trailing constructions and ineffective repetition.

Examples:

Incorrect:
> We conducted a new experiment last month and learned from it.

Correct:
> We learned much from a new experiment last month.

## Constructing Sentences to Achieve Emphasis

Make the sentence structure show what is important.  Don't put the key part of the sentence in the middle; if you do, your reader may entirely miss your meaning.

Subordinate your minor ideas to emphasize your more important ideas.

Examples:

Incorrect:
> We all had arrived, and we began the meeting early.

Correct:
> Since we all had arrived, we began the meeting early.

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Since the most emphatic positions within a sentence are at the beginning and the end, do not waste them by tacking on phrases almost as an afterthought.  Do not bury the main point in the middle of a sentence between less important points.

Reversing normal word order is also used to achieve emphasis

Examples:

> I will never agree to that.
> That I will never agree to.
> Never will I agree to that.

## Dialogue

Start a new paragraph with each new speaker.

Use quotation marks around the speaker's words.

Place commas and periods inside quotation marks.

# 3.0  GRAMMAR

## Parts of Speech

Words are categorized into eight parts of speech: nouns, pronouns, verbs, modifiers, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

| The Eight Parts of Speech | |
|---|---|
| | |
| **Nouns** (names) | **Modifier** (describes, limits) |
| **Pronoun** (replaces a noun) | **Adjective** |
| **Verb** | **Adverb** |
| | **Preposition** (relates) |
| | **Conjunction** (connects) |
| | **Interjection** (expresses strong feeling) |

## Nouns

A noun is a person, place, thing, or abstraction.

### Person

ballerina, girl, boy, eavesdropper, editor, philosopher, waitress

### Place

Alabama, Chicago, Mars, forest, rooms

### Thing

cigar, pocket, mirror, clock, cup, hand

### Abstraction

fashion, horror, silence, pride, revenge, freedom, fun

### Compound Nouns

Compound nouns are nouns made up of more than one word:

box office, take-out, soap opera, small talk, break-in

# Pronouns

A pronoun is a word that is used as a substitute for a noun. Using pronouns in place of nouns relieves the repetition of repeating the same noun over and over.

## Pronoun-Antecedent

A pronoun in a sentence points to or renames a noun or another pronoun – the antecedent. This antecedent controls the number (singular or plural) of the pronoun. A pronoun and its antecedent must agree in person, number, and gender. Pronouns should be placed as close as close as possible to their antecedents so that none of the surrounding words are mistaken for the antecedent. If necessary, repeat the antecedent to prevent misunderstandings.

Examples:

> *John* said that *he* couldn't go.
> Alan caught the *ball* and threw *it* to first base.
> *Lynn* asked *Sandy*, "Did *we* miss a turn?"

## Pronoun Problems

Remember these tricks for using the correct pronoun.

### When the Pronoun is Part of a Compound Object

Remove one of the subjects and say the other one alone in the sentence.

Examples:

> I bought the candy for Joe and *him.*　　　　(not he)
> The letter was addressed to us and *them.*　　(not they)
> We gave Joe and *her* the report.　　　　　(not she)

### When the Pronoun is Confusing or Misleading

Depending on where you place a pronoun, a sentence can be confusing or misleading.

Examples:

Incorrect:
> Sam selected Fred to attend a new program that proved to be a disappointment.

Correct:
> Sam selected Fred to attend a new program. It proved to be a disappointment.

# Verbs

A verb is a word or group of words stating something about the subject of the sentence. One kind of verb gives a subject action and movement. Another kind of verb tells something about the subject. It can state the condition of the subject or state the fact that the subject exists.

## Action Verbs

The most frequently used verb is the action verb. An action verb tells what action a subject is performing.

Most action verbs show physical action.

Examples:

> The bird *sang*.
> Dad *plants* tulip bulbs every fall.
> Karen *skated* across the frozen pond.

Some action verbs show mental action. Others show ownership or possession.

Examples:

> John *remembered* the picnic basket.
> Toby *has* a new friend.

## Verb Phrases

A verb phrase is a main verb plus one or more helping verbs.

| Common Helping Verbs | |
|---|---|
| | |
| **Be** | am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been |
| **Have** | has, have, had |
| **Do** | do, does, did |
| **Others** | may, might, must, can, could, shall, should, will, would |

Notice in the following examples that a verb phrase may contain more than one helping verb. It may also be interrupted by other words.

Examples:

> John *should have been told* about the concert.
> Barbara *can* surely *help* you with your math.
> *Should* Bob *go* with us?

## Linking Verbs

Verbs that link or join the subject with another word in the sentence are called linking verbs. A linking verb links the subject with another word in the sentence. The other word either renames or describes the subject.

### Common Linking Verbs

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| be | shall be | have been | appear | sound |
| is | will be | has been | become | stay |
| am | can be | had been | feel | taste |
| are | could be | could have been | grow | turn |
| was | should be | should have been | look | |
| were | would be | may have been | remain | |
| | may be | might have been | seem | |
| | might be | must have been | | |

Examples:

Tim *is* my brother. (*Is* links *brother* and the subject *Tim. Brother* renames the subject.)

The weather *has been* very cold. (*Has been* links the *cold* and *the* subject *weather. Cold* describes the subject.)

## Modifiers

Modifiers are words or groups of words that describe, expand, limit, or make precise the meaning of other elements in a sentence. Although we can create sentences without modifiers, we often need the detail and clarification they provide. The placement of a modifier in a sentence affects the meaning.

Modifiers, whether they are words or phrases, should be near the words they modify.

Example:

Production decreased.                                  (without modifiers)

*Automobile* production decreased *rapidly*.     (with modifiers)

There are two types of modifiers: adjectives and adverbs.

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**Adjectives**

An adjective describes, or limits, a noun, or pronoun. To find an adjective,
first find each noun and pronoun in a sentence. Then ask yourself, what kind? which ones? how many? or how much? about each one. The answers to these questions will be adjectives.

Examples:

| | |
|---|---|
| **What kind?** | The *old* car needs to be painted. |
| | Do you like *fresh* broccoli? |
| **Which ones?** | *These* boots belong to Stacy. |
| | I like the *white* horses. |
| **How many?** | *Thirty* people have attended the meeting. |
| | He owns *many* tapes. |

**Note:** The words *a*, *an*, and *the* form a special group of adjectives called articles. Keep in mind that *a* comes before words that begin with a consonant sound, and comes before words that begin with a vowel sound.

**Position of Adjectives**

Adjectives can modify different nouns or pronouns, or they can modify the same noun or pronoun.

Examples:

| | |
|---|---|
| **Different Nouns** | Buy *six* pears and a *big* onion. |
| **The Same Noun** | I just bought *six big* tomatoes. |

Usually an adjective comes in front of the noun or the pronoun it modifies.
However, an adjective can also follow a noun or a pronoun, or it can follow a linking verb

Examples:

| | |
|---|---|
| **Before a Noun** | Her *soft* voice couldn't be heard. |
| **After a Noun** | The dog, *sad* and *wet*, whined. |
| **After a Linking Verb** | Ron looks quite *cheerful* today. |

**Comparative Degree**

The comparative degree of an adjective or adverb compares two things, persons, or actions:

Example:

He is a *finer* man than his brother.

John took notes *more carefully* than Bob did.

**Superlative Degree**

The Superlative degree compares three or more persons, things, or actions:

Example:

> He is the *finest* man I know.

> John took notes *most carefully* of all the boys in his class.

**Articles**

Signal a noun and include: "A," "an," and "the."

Example:

> *A* small girl.

## Adverbs

An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs make verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs more precise.

**Adverbs**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| again | ever | often | somewhere | slowly |
| almost | here | perhaps | soon | happily |
| alone | just | quite | then | recently |
| already | later | rather | there | eagerly |
| also | never | seldom | today | rapidly |
| always | not | so | too | carefully |
| away | now | sometimes | very | |
| even | nowhere | somewhat | yet | |

**Note:** *Not* and its contraction *n't* are always adverbs.

Many adverbs end in –ly

Example:

> She had a *very* pretty dress.
> *Recently*, Congress voted *unanimously* to repeal the 16th amendment.
> *Absentmindedly,* Nixon pulled our troops out of Vietnam.

Most adverbs modify verbs. To find these adverbs, first find the verb. Then ask yourself, where? When? How? Or to what extend? The answers to these questions will be adverbs.

Examples:

| **Where?** | Look *everywhere* for the gold. |
|---|---|
| | Put the newspapers *there.* |

| | |
|---|---|
| **When?** | I *frequently* visit my grandparents. |
| | *Sometimes* I was the car. |
| **How?** | He ran *quickly* and *accurately*. |
| | Roy has *carefully* read the contract. |
| **To What Extent?** | Stan *thoroughly* enjoyed the dinner. |
| | I have *almost* finished my report. |

**Position of Adverbs**

An adverb can come before or after a verb. It can also come in the middle of a verb phrase.

## Misplaced Modifiers

A misplaced modifier can cause confusion or misunderstanding. A modifier is misplaced when it modifies, or appears to modify the wrong word/phrase. The best general rule for avoiding misplaced modifiers is to place the modifiers as close as possible to the words they are intended to modify.

Examples:

Incorrect:
The puppy belongs to the man with no face.

Correct:
The puppy, with no face, belongs to the man.

Incorrect:
We sent the brochure to four local firms which had three-color art.

Correct:
We sent the brochure, which had three-color art, to four local firms.

## Dangling Modifiers

Verb phrases that do not clearly and logically refer to the proper noun or pronoun are called dangling modifiers. Dangling modifiers usually appear at the beginning of a sentence as an introductory phrase. When the idea referred to is not named in the sentence, the reader may become amused, confused, or some freakish combination of both.

Examples:

Incorrect:
At the age of six, the child's mother gave birth to a second child.

Correct:
The mother gave birth to her second child when her first child was six years old.

.

# Prepositions

A preposition shows relationships between words. A preposition is a word that shows the relationship between a noun or a pronoun and another word in a sentence.

**Common Prepositions**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| aboard | before | down | off | till |
| about | behind | during | on | to |
| above | below | except | onto | toward |
| across | beneath | for | opposite | under |
| after | beside | from | out | underneath |
| against | besides | in | outside | until |
| along | between | inside | over | up |
| among | beyond | into | past | upon |
| around | but | like | since | with |
| as | by | near | through | within |
| at | despite | of | throughout | without |

**Note:** A preposition that is made up of two or more words is called a compound preposition.

Examples:

> The bushes *behind* the house hurt me.
> Carl sat *next* to Marcy at the game.
> The ball rolled *into* his face.

# Conjunctions

A conjunction connects words or groups of words.

| Common Conjunctions: | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| and | but | for | nor | or | so | yet |
| both/and | either/or | neither/nor | not only/but also | | whether/or | |

Example:

**Words**
> Her ring *and* car were lost.
> She *or* he will be elected.
> Greg came to the party *but* left early.
> Wear the white *or* red gloves.
> He joins us now *and* then.

**Groups of Words**
> The dog ran through the room *and* out the door.
> The spring water tasted especially good, *for* we were very thirsty.

**Pairs of Connecting Words**

> *Both* horses and rats can get fleas.
> Sam *not only* played the guitar, *but also* served in Vietnam.

# Interjections

Some words show strong feelings or emotions, such as joy or hatred. These words are called interjections. Interjections usually come at the beginning of a sentence. Since they are not related to the rest of the sentence, they are separated from it by and exclamation point or a comma.

Examples:

> *What!* Are you sure?
> *Wow!* That sounds great.
> *Oh,* I just locked myself out!

Sometimes another part of speech can be used as an interjection as well.

Examples:

> *Surprise!* Your wife left you.
> *Great!* I lost my job.
> *Well!* Who ate my dog?

**Note:** Don't use too many interjections. They will have more weight if you use them sparingly.

# Double Trouble

Avoid these cases of "double trouble."

## Double Subjects

A double subject occurs when you repeat the subject in the same sentence.

Example:

Incorrect:
> My friend, he lives in Arizona.

Correct:
> My friend lives in Arizona.

## Double Negatives

A double negative is the use of two negative words to make a negative expression sound even more negative. It also makes you sound uneducated and barbaric.

Example:

Incorrect:
    He is so tired, he can't hardly work.

Correct:
    He is so tired, he can hardly work.

## Double Comparisons

A double comparison occurs when you try to modify an absolute word.

Example:

Incorrect:
    He is more better than his brother.

Correct:
    He is better than his brother.

## Double Modifiers

A double modifier is the use of an additional modifier when only one modifier is needed.

Example:

Incorrect:
    That there book and this here magazine are on the table.

Correct:
    That book and this magazine are on the table

# 4.0 Usage

# Tense

Tense tells you the form of time that the verb is in. There are three main tenses in English: present, past, and future.

| Tense | Sentence |
|---|---|
| Present<br>Past<br>Future | I begin.<br>I began.<br>I will begin. |

# Present Tense

The present tense shows action that is happening in the present.

Example:

> I *use* people.

# Past Tense

The past tense shows an action that took place in the past. The past tense is usually formed by adding –d or –ed to a verb.

Example:

> We closed the office yesterday.

# Future Tense

The future tense indicates a time that will occur after the present.  It uses the helping verb *will* plus the main verb.

Example:

> I *will finish* the job tomorrow.

**Regular Verbs**

Verbs that form their past tense and past participle by adding –d or –ed to the present tense.

**Irregular Verbs**

Most frequently used incorrectly. Often used with "had" or "have." Consult a dictionary if necessary for their principal parts. The following list contains the principal parts of certain troublesome irregular verbs.

| Present | Past | Past Participle | Present | Past | Past participle |
|---------|------|-----------------|---------|------|-----------------|
| ask | asked | asked | know | knew | known |
| bite | bit | bitten | ride | rode | ridden |
| blow | blew | blown | ring | rang | rung |
| break | broke | broken | run | ran | run |
| burst | burst | burst | see | saw | seen |
| choose | chose | chosen | sing | sang | sung |
| come | came | come | speak | spoke | spoken |
| do | did | done | steal | stole | stolen |
| drink | drank | drunk | swim | swam | swum |
| eat | ate | eaten | swing | swung | swung |
| fall | fell | fallen | take | took | taken |
| freeze | froze | frozen | tear | tore | torn |
| go | went | gone | throw | threw | thrown |
| grow | grew | grown | write | wrote | written |

# Shifts in Tense

Avoid shifting tenses when relating a sequence of events. When you write, it is important to keep your tenses as consistent as possible. For example, if you are describing something that took place in the past, use the past tenses of verbs. If you suddenly shift to the present, your reader might not understand the sequence of events.

Examples:

Incorrect:
>  We *opened* the closet door, and suddenly something *flies* past us.

Correct:
>  We *opened* the closet door, and suddenly something *flew* past us.

Incorrect:
>  When everyone *had finished*, our teacher *collected* the tests.
>  Then she *dismisses* the class.

Correct:
>  When everyone *had finished*, our teacher *collected* the tests.
>  Then she *dismissed* the class.

# Voice

In grammar, voice indicates the relation of the subject to the action of the verb. When the verb is in the active voice, the subject acts; when it is in the passive voice, the subject is acted upon.

Examples:

David Cohen *wrote* the advertisement.                    (active)
The advertisement was *written* by David Cohen.           (passive)

Both of the sentences say the same thing, but each has a different emphasis. In the first sentence, the emphasis in on the subject, *David Cohen*, whereas in the second sentence, the focus in on the object, *the advertisement*. Notice how much stronger, forceful, and more direct the active sentence is.

# Passive Voice is Wordy

One of the rules of good writing is always to use the active voice unless there is good reason to use the passive. Because they are wordy and indirect, passive sentences are hard for the reader to understand. Notice how much clearer the following active sentence is compared to the passive sentence.

Examples:

Active:
        The human eye sees things in three dimensions: length, width, and depth.

Passive:
        Things are seen by the normal human eye in three dimensions: length, width, and depth.

Passive-voice sentences are wordy because they always use a helping verb in addition to the main verb, and an extra preposition if they identify the doer of the action specified by the main verb.

Examples:

Students resent changes in school policies.               (active)
Changes in school policies are resented by students.      (passive)

The active-voice version of the sentence takes one verb (resent) and one preposition (in); the passive-voice version takes two verbs (are resented) and two prepositions (in and by). The passive-voice version is also indirect because it puts the doer of the action behind the verb instead of in front of it.

## Passive Voice Buries the Subject

One difficulty with passive sentences is that they can bury the subject, or performer of the action.

Example:

Passive:
It was reported by Engineering that the new relay is defective.

Active:
Engineering reported that the new relay is defective.

Sometimes writers using the passive voice fail to name the performer.

Example:

Passive:
The problem was discovered yesterday.

Active:
The Engineering Department discovered the problem yesterday.

## Passive Voice can be Confusing

Very often the passive voice can be just plain confusing, especially when used in instructions.

Example:

Passive:
Plates B and C should be marked for revision.

Active:
Mark plates B and C for revision.

## Passive Voice can be Effective

There are, however, certain instances when the passive voice is effective or even necessary. The passive voice is used when the doer of the action is unknown or unimportant. It is also used to emphasize the receiver of the action. Indeed, for reasons of tact and diplomacy, you might need to use the passive voice to avoid identifying the doer of the action.

Examples:

Your sales force didn't meet the quota last month.          (active)
The quota wasn't met last month.                                        (passive)

# Subject-Verb Agreement

A subject and its verb must agree in number and in person.  Avoid making the verb agree with the noun immediately in front of the verb if that noun is not the subject of the sentence.  This problem is especially likely to occur when a plural noun falls between a singular subject and its verb.

Examples:

Only *one* of the emergency lights *was* functioning.
*Each* of the managers *supervises* ten people.

# Modifying Phrases

Do not let modifying phrases obscure a simple subject.

Example:

The advice of two teachers, one lawyer, and three executives *was obtained* prior to making a commitment.

# Expressing Measurement, Weight, Mass, or Total

Subjects expressing measurement, weight, mass, or total often take singular verbs even when the subject word is plural in form.

Example:

*Four years* is the average length of time to complete a Bachelors Degree.

# Using Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns such as some, none, all, more, and most may be singular or plural depending upon whether they are used with a noun or with a count noun.

A mass noun is a concrete noun that identifies things that consist of a mass rather than individual units, and cannot be separated into countable units (for example, water, sand, oil).

A count noun is a concrete noun that identifies things that can be separated into countable units (for example, desks, pencils, pens).

Examples:

*None* of the oil *is* to be used.
*Most* of the drivers *know* where they are going.
*Some* of the water *has* leaked.

## Special Situations

Words such as *type, part, series*, and *portion* take singular verbs even when they precede a phrase containing a plural noun.

Example:

A *series* of meetings *was* held yesterday.

# Parallelism

Tie your thoughts together with parallel construction.  Express parallel ideas with the same grammatical structure.

Example:

The stream runs *under the culvert, behind the embankment, and into the pond.*

## Faulty Parallelism

Faulty parallelism results when joined elements are intended to serve equal grammatical functions but do not have equal grammatical form.  Avoid this kind of partial parallelism by making certain that each element in a series is similar in form and structure to all others in the same series.

Examples:

Incorrect:
Running is more aerobic than to walk.

Correct:
Running is more aerobic than walking.

Incorrect:
You can get there by car, bus, or fly.

Correct:
You can get there by car, bus, or plane.

# Person

Person refers to the form of a personal pronoun that indicates whether the pronoun represents the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person (or thing) spoken about.

## First Person

A pronoun representing the speaker is in the first person.

Example:

*I* could find all the answers in the manual.

## Second Person

If the pronoun represents the person or persons spoken to, the pronoun is in the second person.

Example:

*You* are going to be a good supervisor.

## Third Person

If the pronoun represents the person or persons spoken about, the pronoun is in the third person.

Example:

*They* quickly received the news.

The following table shows first, second, and third person pronouns.

| Person | Singular | Plural |
|--------|----------|--------|
| **First** | I, me, my | we, ours, us |
| **Second** | you, your | you, your |
| **Third** | he, him, his, she, her, hers, It, its | they, them, their |

## Identifying Pronouns by Person

Identifying pronouns by person helps the writer avoid illogical shifts from one person to another. A common error is to shift from the third person to the second person.

Example:

Incorrect:
> *Students* should spend the morning hours on work requiring mental effort, for *your* mind is freshest in the morning.

Correct:
> *Students* should spend the morning hours on work requiring mental effort, for *their* minds are freshest in the morning.

# Sexism

Avoid the use of masculine and feminine pronouns. Either rewrite sentences to avoid pronouns, or if you must have a third person pronoun, use the plural *they*. Do not use *he or she* to refer to both sexes.

Since there is no singular personal pronoun in English that refers to both sexes, the word *he* has traditionally been used as a generic pronoun.

Because the use of a masculine pronoun when both sexes are being referred to is now recognized as offensive, it is better to rewrite the sentence in the plural (or avoid the use of the pronoun altogether) than to offend.

Examples:

> *Employees* should take advantage of *their* insurance benefits.
> *Whoever* is appointed will find *the* task difficult.

Unfortunately, he or she and his or her are clumsy when used repeatedly; the best advice is to reword the sentence to use a plural pronoun. Be sure to change the noun to its plural form when the pronoun is plural. This is a controversial rule and may vary due to instructor's preference. Check with instructor for clarification before using.

Example:

Method 1:
> A teacher cannot do *his or her* job until *he or she* understands the concept.
> > *(Although not incorrect, this method is awkward.)*

Method 2:
> A teacher cannot do his/her job until he/she understands the concept.
> > *(Although not incorrect, this method is awkward.)*

Method 3:
> Teachers cannot do *their* jobs until *they* understand the concept. (plural pronoun)

# 5.0  Punctuation

This section covers some general punctuation topics.

## Punctuation Marks

When you read, you probably do not think much about the punctuation used.  However, if it were not there, you would be confused.  You might not be sure, for example, where one sentence ends and another begins.

Punctuation marks are signals for a reader.  They indicate pauses and show points of emphasis.  If you want your readers to understand the exact meaning of what you write, give them the right signals by using punctuation marks correctly.

On the following pages is a brief discussion of each punctuation mark.  There is a more in-depth discussion further on in this section.

## End Marks

End marks show where sentences end.  There are three end marks.

- Periods
- Question marks
- Exclamation points

### Periods

Use a period after a statement, a command, a request, or a suggestion.

Also, use a period after initials, after most abbreviations, and in numbers as a decimal point.

### Question Marks

Use a question mark at the end of a sentence that asks a direct question.

### Exclamation Points

Use an exclamation point after an expression of strong or sudden feeling, or to show enthusiasm, surprise, disbelief, or urgency.  Exclamation points are frequently used in advertising and sales correspondence.  Avoid exclamation points whenever possible in business correspondence.

### Commas

There are two basic uses of commas:  single commas used to separate, and double commas used to enclose.

**Single Commas to Separate**

The single comma keeps words or expressions from running into each other.

**Double Commas to Enclose**

Use double commas to enclose information in the following situations.

- Most interruption expressions
- Parenthetical expressions
- Contrasting expressions

There are many other places you should use double commas.  Refer to the "Punctuation Sentences" subsection for more information on this topic.

# Semicolons

Semicolons join together two sentences that are closely related without using a conjunction.  If you are in doubt, create two sentences using periods.

Example:

> I did not call myself a poet; I told people I wrote poems.
> > -Terry McMillan, "Breaking Ice"

# Colons

The colon advises the reader to note what comes next.  When listing information, do not place a colon between a verb or a preposition and its objects.

Example:

> The three fruits on the table are apples, oranges, and lemons.
>
> One common exception is made when a verb is followed by a stacked list.

Example:

> The corporations that manufacture computers include:
>
> - DELL
> - APPLE
> - MAC

Also, use a colon when you write the time of day numerically (5:30 a.m.), and when you write the salutation of a business letter (Dear Mr. Johnson:).

# Hyphens

Use a hyphen if a syllable of a word must be carried over from one line to the next.  Always place the hyphen at the end of the line, not at the beginning.

Also use a hyphen in a compound numbers, in fractions, in some compound nouns, and between words that make up a compound adjective used before a noun.

# Parentheses

Use parentheses to enclose serial numbers and letters, and to set material off from the rest of the sentence.  While dashes are used to emphasize information parentheses are used to de-emphasize information.

# Quotation Marks

Use quotation marks to enclose a direct quotation.  Do not use them to enclose an indirect quotation or to emphasize words.

# Apostrophes

Use an apostrophe to form a possessive noun.  Never use an apostrophe to form a possessive personal pronoun.  For more information on possessive, refer to "Possession" on page 6.15.

Also use an apostrophe to create contractions.

# Layout and Spacing Guidelines for Punctuation and Paragraphs

Here are some suggestions for spacing after punctuation marks and within and between paragraphs.  MLA guidelines suggest that single or double spacing is appropriate in the following instances:

- After a period that ends a sentence

- After a colon, especially if a complete sentence follows the colon

- After bullets or numbers

- Indent double-spaced paragraphs.

- Maintain one-inch margins in documents.

- Double space ONLY between paragraphs in a double-spaced essay.

# Basic Sentence Patterns

Three basic *core* sentences occur in the English language and require no punctuation within the sentence.  A core sentence always has a subject and a verb, and always expresses a complete thought.

## Subject-Verb

Example:

        **S   V**
Many adults read for pleasure.

## Subject-Verb-Direct Object

Example:

    **S   V         DO**
She enjoys a good novel.

## Subject-Linking Verb-Subject Complement

Example:

     **S  LV          SC**
She is successful at her job.

Anytime you add words to these basic sentence patterns you must add punctuation.

# Punctuating Sentences

The punctuation you use in your sentences can be affected by the following:

## Introductory Material Beginning a Sentence

When introductory material appears before the core sentence, punctuation is required.

Examples:

*During the middle of the afternoon,* I saw a rainbow.

*Having worked very hard to achieve a good review,* I felt confident.

## An Interrupter Within the Sentence

An interrupter is a word or phrase that interrupts the sentence flow.  The interrupter is not essential to making a complete sentence.  The interrupter could be taken out and the sentence would still be complete.

When an interrupter occurs within the core sentence, punctuation is required.

Example:

John, *unfortunately,* did not do well.

The final project, *designed with a great deal of care,* was a success.

The entire body of federal law: *case*, *statutory,* and *administrative* is published daily.

## Further Explanation at the End of a Sentence

When further explanation is giving after the core sentence, punctuation is required.

Examples:

There has been one dominant theme in Congress, *taxes.*
There has been one dominant theme in Congress: *taxes.*
There has been one dominant theme in Congress—*taxes.*

We have chosen three colors: *red, white and blue.*
We have chosen three colors—*red, white and blue.*

# Items in a Series

## Commas in a Series

Use a comma after every item in a series of three or more items.  The items in a series may be single words or phrases.

Examples:

The flag is *red, white,* and *blue.*

The dog ran *out the door, down the steps* and *across the lawn.*

*How kangaroos run, what jumps they can take,* and *how they live* are explained in this book.

When two or more modifiers come before a noun, use a comma after each modifier except the last one.

Example:

>   They drove away in a *bright, shiny, expensive* sports car.

When an adjective modifies a phrase, no comma is required.

Example:

>   He was investigating his *damaged* radar tracking system.

Use commas after the words first, second, third, and so on, when these words introduce a series of parallel items.

Example:

>   There are three ways to get good marks: *first,* pay attention; *second,* take notes; *third,* study.

## Semicolons in a Series

Use a semicolon to separate items in a series if any of the items already contain commas.

Example:

>   Among those present were John Howard, president of Omega Paper Company; Carol Martin, president of Alpha Corporation; and Larry Stanley, president of Stanley Papers.

>   *Note:*   *There is not a colon after "were" because it is a sentence with a list, not information set off from the rest of the sentence.*

# Commas

## Commas With Nouns of Direct Address

Use commas to set off nouns of direct address.  The name of someone spoken to directly is a noun of direct address.

Examples:

>   If you look, *Peggy,* you will see the store on the left.

>   *Sarah,* you won the election!

>   I'll be right back, *Jim.*

## Commas With Appositives

Use commas to set off most appositives.  An appositive is a word or group of words used directly after another word to explain it.

Examples:

> The speaker, a *famous explorer,* talked about New Guinea.

> The leader, *the person on horseback,* rode away.

> Mr. Brown, *the president of the company,* is speaking next.

## Commas With Dates

When the year follows the month and day, treat it as an interrupter and set it off with commas.

Examples:

> March 1, *1992*, was an exciting day.

> Wednesday, *July 4, 1984,* marks his great achievement.

When the year follows the month, rather than the day of the month, the year is usually not set off with commas.

Example:

> As of *March 1992,* his mailing address will change.

## Commas With City and State

When the text identifies a city a state, treat the state as an interrupter.  The state is additional information that clarifies where the city is located.

Example:

> New Brunswick, *New Jersey,* has an old train station.

## Commas to Prevent Misreading

When no specific rule applies, but there is danger of misreading, use a comma.

Example:

> Who she *is, is* a mystery.

> What the crew does, does affect our voyage.

## Punctuation Within Quotation Marks

Use quotation marks to enclose a direct quotation.  Do not use quotation marks to enclose an indirect quotation.

A comma before the quotation marks follows explanatory words at the beginning of a sentence.

Example:

Mary said, "Let's go eat."

A comma inside the quotation marks follows a quotation that begins the sentence, and the explanatory words follow.

Example:

"There is someone to see you," the secretary announced.

Periods and commas always go inside the ending quotation marks, while colons and semicolons always stay outside the ending quotation marks.

Example:

He said, "I will pay the full amount"; this certainly surprised us.

Do not use quotation marks to emphasize a word or words.  Use italics, bold, or underlining, but use them sparingly.

Question marks/exclamations go *inside* the quotation marks when punctuating the actual quote and *outside* when punctuating the main sentence.

Example:

"Am I *dreaming?"*  Had she heard him say, "Here's the key to your new *car"?*

## Parentheses

Punctuate outside parentheses when you wish to punctuate the whole sentence.

Examples:

One morning (on my way to work), I encountered a problem.

I encountered a problem one morning (on my way to work).

Punctuate within parentheses when you wish to mark only the parenthetical material.

Example:

I encountered a problem one morning.  (I was on my way to work).

**Punctuating Inside of Parentheses Within a Sentence**

Do not begin material in parentheses within a sentence with a capital letter, or end it with a period, even if the material in parentheses is a complete sentence.

Example:

> We have tried many times (we tried six times last week) to end the hostilities.

**Enclosing Figures Inside of Parentheses**

Do not use parentheses to enclose a figure expressing the same number you just spelled out. The repetition is unnecessary. The following example is incorrect.

Example of incorrect usage:

> I want seven (7) copies of the material.

# Possession

Here are three quick steps for creating possessives:

1.  Write the word.

2.  Place the apostrophe after the word.

3.  If there is no s, place an s at the end of the word.

**Note:** Do not add another *s* if an *s* is already present.

Examples:

> Step 1. John
> Step 2. John'
> Step 3. John's
>
> Step 1. Girls
> Step 2. Girls'
> Step 3. Girls'

# Separating Core Sentences

Two core sentences within one sentence require punctuation between them.

## Core, and Core

A comma with a conjunction (and*, but, or, nor,* or *so*) is appropriate for separating two core sentences.  A conjunction connects words, phrases, or sentences, and can also indicate the relationship between the two elements it connects (*and* joins information together, *or* selects and separates information, *but* states an exception, and *so* states the result or reason)

Example of sufficient punctuation:

> I requested action, and it came immediately.

Caution: Be wary of using *and* to join core sentences because *and* occurs frequently within a core sentence, and two cores are rarely equal in importance.

Use a semicolon between two sentences connected by one of the following conjunctions (and, but, for, or nor, and yet), when either sentence contains other punctuation.

Example:

> In most cases, these individuals are corporate executives, bankers, and Wall Street lawyers; but they do not believe in the solutions proposed to handle the current economic situation.

## Core; Core

A semicolon is also appropriate for separating core sentences.

Example of sufficient punctuation:

> I requested action; it came immediately.

You could also separate these two sentences with a period depending on your writing style.  You would use a semicolon to separate two core sentences to show relationship between the two sentences.  If the two sentences are not closely related, it is inappropriate to join them with a semicolon.

### Core; Intro, Core

If the second core sentence contains an introductory word or phrase, you need a semicolon between the two core sentences, plus a comma after the introductory word or phrase.

An introductory word or phrase introduces the sentence that follows it.  And introductory is not a conjunction.  Introductory words and phrases include *moreover, furthermore, consequently, however,* and *on the other hand.*

Example of sufficient punctuation:

I requested action; however, it did not come immediately.

## Incorrect Ways of Separating Core Sentences

### Core Core

Linking two core sentences without any punctuation is incorrect.  The lack of punctuation between core sentences results in a *fused* sentence or a
*run-on* sentence.  You need punctuation in this situation.

Example of insufficient punctuation:

I requested action it came immediately.

### Core, Core

Linking two core sentences with a comma is incorrect.  A comma is not enough to separate two core sentences.  When you separate two sore sentences with a comma you create a comma splice.  You need more than a comma in this situation.

Example of insufficient punctuation:

I requested action, it came immediately.

## Over Punctuation

Never use a punctuation mark unless you know the reason for using it.  When in doubt, leave it out.

# 6.0  Spelling and Highlighting

People complain more about misspelled words than any other aspect of writing.  If you have problems spelling, or if you misspell only a few words, you must make a conscious effort to improve.

## Spelling Suggestions

Here are some suggestions to help you improve your spelling.

- List your own misspellings.  Write your most frequently misspelled words on a sheet of paper and keep it close at hand, or flag or highlight your dictionary.

- Be conscious of pronunciation.  Pronounce words carefully.  You may misspell words because you don't pronounce them properly.  Sound out each syllable.

- Make a mental picture of the word.  Get into the habit of seeing each letter in a word.  Take a good look at new words, or difficult words.  You'll remember the spelling better.

- Proofread everything you write.  In order to learn how to spell, you must learn to carefully examine everything you write.  To proofread a piece of writing, you must read it slowly, word for word.  Otherwise, your eyes my play tricks on you and let you skip over misspelled words.

- Keep a dictionary within reach to check troublesome words.

- Develop your own mnemonic or *mind hook* for words that give you regular trouble.

- Test yourself using the list of frequently misspelled words included in this section.

- Use a spell-check program.

## Spelling Guidelines

Follow these guidelines to help you spell correctly.

**I Before E**

I before E except after C, or when sounded like A as in *neighbor* or *weigh*.

This is a golden oldie. The words listed below follow this rule.

| **I before E**: | **except after C:** | **sounded like A:** |
|---|---|---|
| brief | ceiling | freight |
| believe | receipt | sleigh |
| piece | receive | veil |

Some exceptions to this rule include:

ancient
sufficient
leisure
weird

**Note**: The rules for spelling the *ie/ei* pattern apply only when these letters appear in the same syllable.  In the following examples, the *i* and *e* appear in separate syllables.

be ing
re imburse
sci ence
soci ety

**Words with the 'Seed' Sound**

Only one English word ends in sede.

supersede

Three words end in ceed.

exceed
proceed
succeed

All other words ending in the sound of 'seed' are spelled *cede.*

concede
precede
recede

## Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

### Prefixes

A prefix is one or more letters attached to the beginning of a word.

When a prefix is added to a word, the spelling of the word remains the same.

- appear/ disappear
- appoint/ disappoint
- spell/ misspell

### Suffixes

A suffix is one or more letters attached to the ending of a word that changes that word's meaning or tense.

#### The Silent E

When a suffix beginning wit a vowel is added to a word ending in a silent *e*, the *e* is usually dropped.

- hope/hoping
- continue/continuing
- create/creation

When a suffix beginning with a consonant is added to a word ending in a silent *e*, the *e* is usually kept.

- care/careful
- safe/safely
- state/statement

Here are some exceptions:

- truly
- argument
- noticeable
- canoeing

#### Doubling the Final Consonant

In words of one syllable that end in one consonant preceded by one vowel, double the final consonant before adding *–ing*, *-ed*, or *–er*.
- hit/hitting
- bat/batting
- hop/hopping

For longer words accented on the last syllable, double the consonant before adding an ending that starts with a vowel:

- forgot/forgotten

The following words do not double the final consonant because two vowels precede the final consonant.

- near/nearing
- look/looked
- meet/meeting

## Suffixes –ly and –ness

When the suffix –*ly* is added to a word ending in *l,* both l's are kept.  When –ness is added to a word ending in *n,* both n's are kept.

- normal/normally
- open/openness

## Words ending in Y

When a suffix is added to a word ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, the *y* is usually changed to *i.*

- seventy/seventieth
- marry/marriage
- crazy/crazily

Exception: When –ing is added to a word, the y does not change.

- carry/carrying
- worry/worrying

When a suffix is added to a word ending in *y* preceded by a vowel, the *y* usually does not change.

- employ/employed
- stay/staying
- relay/relaying

## Plurals

When a word ending in *y* preceded by a vowel is made into a plural, just add *s.*

- boy/boys
- turkey/turkeys

When a word ending in *y* preceded by a consonant is made into a plural, drop the *y* and add -ies.

- city/cities
- lady/ladies

# Hyphenating

Hyphens typically occur at the end of a line of type.  Use a hyphen if a syllable of a word must be carried over from one line to the next.  Always place the hyphen at the end of a line, not at the beginning.  Hyphens can also occur between two words or between a prefix and a word.

# Hyphenating Suggestions

Follow these suggestions to help you place hyphens properly when you write.

- Check your dictionary for the proper hyphenation.

- Only words of two or more syllables can be divided at the end of a line.

- Do not divide one-syllable words.

- Do not leave a single letter alone.

- For a word already hyphenated, divide it only at the hyphen.

- Separate words by syllables.

  o Syllables usually begin with consonants: con-so-nant

  o Divide between two consonants if each has separate sound: con-so-nant

  o Treat stems, prefixes, and endings as units: de-sir-able, self-ish (not sel-fish)

  o Usually, divide between double consonants: bit-ter

# Hyphenating Guidelines

## Compound Numbers

Use a hyphen in compound numbers from twenty-one through ninety-nine.

- Twenty-three cents
- Forty-two students

## Fractions

Use a hyphen in fractions

- Two-thirds majority
- One-fourth of the pie

## Compound Nouns

Use a hyphen or hyphens in compound nouns:

- Great-aunt
- Commander-in-Chief

## Compound Modifiers

Use a hyphen or hyphens between words that make up a compound modifier used before a noun.

- This is an up-to-date edition.

When compound adjectives are used after the noun, they usually are not hyphenated.

- This edition is up to date.

**Note**: If the hyphenated word can be separated and each separate word can modify the noun on its own, then no hyphens should be used.

## Hyphens With Prefixes and Suffixes

Most prefixes attach directly to the base word.

- misspell
- unhappy

Use hyphens in the following situations.

- Between a prefix and a proper noun or proper adjective (all-American, mid-Atlantic, pre-Colombian).

Notice that only the proper noun or the proper adjective begins with a capital letter, not the prefix.

- After the prefix self- (self-righteous, self-satisfied).

- After the prefix ex- when it means *former* or *formerly* (ex-convict, ex-governor, ex-senator).

- After a person's title when it is followed by the suffix -*elect* (president-elect).

- When the prefix ends and the root word begins with the same vowel (re-evaluate, anti-inflammatory).

- To avoid confusion, some words and modifiers should always be hyphenated. *Re-cover* does not mean the same thing as *recover*. The same is true of the following words.

    o re-sent   resent
    o re-form   reform
    o re-sign   resign

# Abbreviating

An abbreviation is a shortened form of a written word or phrase used in place of the whole word. Most abbreviations use punctuation; however, some common abbreviations do not.

Abbreviations are used frequently in note taking, in some messages, and in tables or charts. Be cautious about using them in ordinary writing. When in doubt, spell them out.

## Abbreviating Suggestions

Follow these suggestions when you need to abbreviate words:

- Be consistent within the same material. Don't abbreviate a term in some sentences, and spell it out in others.

- Consult a dictionary for acceptable forms of abbreviations.

- Even when a sentence ends with an abbreviation, use only one period.

- If a sentence ends with an abbreviation and the sentence is a question, place a period after the abbreviation, and end the sentence with a question mark.

- If the abbreviation might be unfamiliar to a reader, spell it out when it is first used and follow it immediately with the proper abbreviation in parentheses: an end-of-month (e.o.m.) sale.

- Except for people's initials, set abbreviations without spacing.

  o J. C. Smith
  o CIA

- Abbreviations composed of capital letters usually do not require periods.

  o USA
  o AMA

- Use lowercase abbreviations except for proper nouns.

  o 7:00 a.m.
  o 9:30 p.m.

- Because some lowercase abbreviations may look like words, lowercase abbreviations often use periods. For example, the abbreviation of the word number (no.) without a period would look like a word (no).

- Acronyms (abbreviations pronounced as words) are usually made up of capital letters and usually do not use periods.

    o NASA
    o PETA

- To make an acronym plural, add a lowercase *s*.  Do not use an apostrophe.

    o ATMs
    o DVDs

# Abbreviating Guidelines

### Titles

Abbreviations of titles are acceptable only when they are used with proper names.

Titles before proper names:

- Dr. Johnson
- Mrs. Curtis

Titles after proper names:

- Philip J. Smith, Jr.
- Carl Holman, Ph.D.
- Mary Ross, M.D.

### Government Agencies

Many government agencies use the agency's abbreviation.  Notice periods are not used with these abbreviations.

- FDA
- CIA
- FAA

### Dates and Time

Use abbreviations when referring to a specific date or time.

- 900 B.C.
- 7:00 a.m.

**Note:**  Always capitalize the abbreviations B.C. and A.D.

### When Abbreviations are not Acceptable

1. Abbreviations are not used for the President and the Vice President of the United States.

2. Abbreviations are not used for the *Honorable* and *Reverend* when they are preceded by the word *the*:  The Honorable Mary Wiess.

3. In ordinary writing, abbreviations are not acceptable for names of countries and states, months, and days of the week.

4. Abbreviations are not acceptable for words that are part of addresses or company names.

   **Note:**  If a company uses an abbreviation as part of its name, you should also use the abbreviation.

5. Do not use abbreviations standing for measurements, such as in., hr., or min.

# Capitalizing

There are many rules for using capital letters.  Capitalizing a word puts special emphasis on the word.  Capitalize sparingly when you have reasons other than the following.  Create an appropriate capitalization style and follow it consistently.

# Capitalization Guidelines

Follow the guidelines for capitalization presented here.

### Basic Rules

Capitalize the first word of every sentence and each item displayed in a list.

- Snow is falling in Hawaii.

### Proper Nouns

Capitalize the official name of a person, place, or thing.

- North America
- Murphy's Law

### Names of Persons

Capitalize the names of persons and also the initials or abbreviations that stand for those names.

- J.R.R. Tolkien (John Ronald Revel Tolkien)
- Sharon A. Miller

Capitalize titles used with names of persons and also the initials or abbreviations that stand for those titles.

- Mr. Edward Scott
- Judge Ellen Fahrns

Do not capitalize titles used as common nouns.

- Have you seen the doctor?
- The captain is in his quarters.

Capitalize titles of people whose rank is very important, even when these titles are used without proper names.  Do not capitalize titles of honor and respect when they follow a personal name.

- Our guest for dinner is the President of the United States.
- Dr. Robin Meyers, president of the AMA, is out of town.
- I heard the Pope speak yesterday.
- Mom's name is actually Sharon.

## Geographical Names

In a geographical name, capitalize the first letter of each word except articles and prepositions.

**Note:**  The article *the* appearing before a geographical name is not part of the name and is therefore not capitalized.

- I went to Europe last summer.
- We crossed the Pacific Ocean.
- We live on Perry Lane.

## Sections and Directions

Capitalize the names of sections of the country.

- I live in the Midwest.

- The Southwest is the fastest-growing region.

Do not capitalize directions of the compass.

- We headed south for our vacation.

- I went hunting up north.

## Names of Organizations and Institutions

Capitalize the names of organizations and institutions.

- Random Lake High School
- Children's Hospital

**Note:** Do not capitalize words such as school, college, church, and hospital when they are not used as names.

Common organizational terms are capitalized when they are used as the actual names of units, or are used alone to designate a department.

- The Marketing Department publishes our press releases.
- Most large companies have finance departments.

## Months, Days, and Holidays

Capitalize names of months, days, and holidays, but not the names of the seasons.

- The first day of spring falls in March.
- Isn't Labor Day always the first Monday in September?

## Quotations

Capitalize the first word of a direct quotation. If the direct quotation is interrupted by explanatory words, for example, "she said," do not capitalize the first word of the second part of the divided quotation unless it starts a new sentence.

- "Well," he said, "what you say is quite true."
- "I agree," she said. "What you say is quite true."

## Letters

Capitalize the first word and the name of the person addressed in the greeting of a letter.

- Dear Mrs. Montgomery:
- Dear Ms. Perkins:

Capitalize only the first word in the complimentary close.

- Sincerely yours,
- Respectfully,

# Listing Information

Lists can save readers time by allowing them to see at a glance specific items, questions, or directions.  Lists also help readers by breaking up complex statements and by allowing key ideas to stand out.

# List Guidelines

Follow these guidelines to help you use lists correctly.

- Avoid using lists if they run longer than a page.

- Keep items in your lists short, so your readers do not get confused.
- Keep your lists parallel; in other words, begin each item within your lists with the same parts of speech.  For example, if your first item begins with a verb, begin all other items in your list with a verb.

- Avoid beginning lists with *a* or *the*.

- Use a numbered list when the sequence of the items is important, or when your text describes items by number.

- Use a bulleted list in all other cases.

- Always put a period at the end of each list item if the item contains a verb.

- Do not end any of your list items with anything but a period.  If any item within your list needs further explanation, do not use a dash to offset the explanation.  Put a period at the end of the list item, leave two spaces, and then begin your explanatory sentence.  If only one entry in your list demands a period, put periods at the ends of each of the entries to keep them consistent.

- Begin each list item with a capital letter, but use lowercase letters for the remaining words within the item, unless those words normally demand capitalization.

- Introduce your lists with a sentence or a phrase.

- Use a colon or a period to end the introduction to your list.  Again, the final word in the introductory sentence should not include *a* or *the*.

- Use either ordered or unordered sublists.

- Single space list items when each item uses only one line of text.

**Note:**  If any list items extend past half the page, double space the list items.

- Double space list items when more than one line of text is used by one or more list items.

## Punctuating Lists

Use punctuation for all list items that include a verb.  Do not punctuate list items that do not include a verb.  If any of the items in a list require end punctuation, punctuate every list item.

Example:

Here are some animals you would see on a farm.

- Ducks
- Chickens
- Pigs

Do not end any list item with a comma, a semicolon, or the words *and* or *or*.

Example of an incorrect list:

The story I just read was about:

- Fire-breathing dragons,
- Witches, and
- Crystal balls.

## Numbers in Writing

Random Lake uses the MLA standards to express numbers in writing.

### Use Numbers for the following:

- In subjects where numbers are infrequent

- Numbers that cannot be written on one or two words:  *2½, 101, and 1,275*

- In subjects where numbers are frequent:  *a scientific paper or statistical study*

- Quantities involving units of measurement:  *5 milliliters*

- Numbers that are being compared
- **Note:**  In the ten years covered by the study, the number of participating institutions in the United states doubled, reaching 90, and membership in the six-state region rose from 4 to 15).

- In all contexts

- Numbers accompanying abbreviations or symbols:  *6 lbs., 3%, $9*
- **Note:**  In contexts where numbers are infrequent, spell out percentages and monetary amounts in words if you can use three or fewer words.  Do not use both words and numbers.

- Dates:  *April 24, 1992*

- Addresses:  *8N Wildwood Drive*

- Page Numbers:  *Page 6*

- Telephone Numbers:  *608-571-2848*

- Time with a.m. and p.m.:  *6:30 a.m.*
  **Note:**  Time expressed in quarter and half hours and hours followed by o'clock are given in words

## Numbers as Words

Use words in the following situations.

- In subjects where numbers are infrequent

- The beginning of a sentence:  *Thirty years is the average lifespan of a horse.*

- Figures of speech and similar expressions:  *Roaring Twenties*

- Indefinite usage:  *The temperature remained in the nineties all day.*

- Centuries and decades (in lower case):  *in the twenty-first century*
  **Note:**  With decades, numerals can be used, but be consistent.

- Numbers that can be written in one or two words:  *one, thirty-six, three million*

- Indefinite amounts of money:  *many thousands of dollars*

## Other Information

Use words and numbers for the very large numbers:  *4.5 million*

# Highlighting

There are four ways to highlight words, or place more emphasis on words, when you write.

- Capitalizing
- Italicizing
- Bolding
- Underlining

Use all of these techniques consistently but sparingly when you write.  If too much highlighting is used, the emphasis becomes unclear or lost.

# 7.0 Proofreading Techniques and Marks

Most of us are not aware of the costs of inadequately proofreading documents. Often this happens because we never sit down to think about the consequences of poorly structured sentences and misspelled words.

## Major Elements of the Proofreading Process

### Four Steps of Proofreading

All of these steps are necessary if you are aiming for perfection.

1. **Visual Proofreading**
   Hold the document at an arm's length or upside down to spot layout errors

2. **Spell Proofing**
   Read each line backwards to locate typographical and spelling errors. Keep a dictionary within reach and use a spell checker.

3. **Basic Proofing**
   - Read the text word for word.
   - Guide your eyes as you read.
   - Check grammar and logic.

   It is recommended that you check for grammar during one reading of the document, and check for logic during another reading of the document.

4. **Edit Proofing**
   Read the text out loud. This helps you to hear the proper punctuation and parallelism. You can also hear if a word has been overused. Look for active verbs switching to passive verbs in the same sentence.

### Proofreading Techniques

1. Avoid obscuring the original text.
   You want to be able to read what is underneath your proofreading marks.

2. Mark changes in the text in both margins.
   Use the margins so you don't obscure the text.

3. Indicate any changes in the closest margin.
   Place your marks in the margin closest to the part of the text.

4. Circle marginal instructions which are not part of  the text.
   Highlight what needs to be changed.

5. Use an ink color other than black.

6. Get agreement on the proofreading method.

Print Literacy

## Proofreading Tips

1.  Pay special attention to areas where errors lurk.

    - At beginnings
    - In small words
    - Near other errors

2.  Keep resources within reach (dictionary, grammar reference book).

3.  Obtain group consensus on the proofreading marks you use.

4.  Get someone else's opinion.

5.  Do partner proofreading and switch roles frequently.

6.  Don't take someone's edit of your work personally.

7.  Double space during the proofreading process.

8.  Circle notes in the margins that don't belong directly in the text.

## Proofreading Marks

### Deleting characters

To delete one or two characters, place a vertical line through each character:

Character

To delete three or more characters, place a horizontal line through all of the characters:

Charactereres

If the marks alone might be confusing, place a delete symbol (    ) in the margin closest to the character(s) you wish to delete

### Adding characters

To add characters, place a caret in the text, and place the characters above the word:

place a cret in the tex

To add connected characters, use only one caret and place the characters above the word where the characters belong:

chcters

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

To insert punctuation, use a caret and place the punctuation mark within the caret.  To insert a period, put a circle around it.

Its a long hard drive

## Replacing incorrect characters

To replace incorrect characters, delete the character(s) using a vertical or horizontal line, and write the correct character(s) above the incorrect spelling.

Sit reelistik goalsals that provighde a chaillench.

## Moving Characters

To close a space, use a double arc in the text:

to clo se a space completely

To reduce a space, use a single arc in the text:

to reduce a  space

To reduce line spacing, use a vertical arc in the text:

to reduce

line spacing

## Creating or Increasing a Space

To create or increase a space, place a slash between the words and write a number symbol above the words to be moved.

What getsrewarded, getsdone.

## Moving a Line of Text

To move a line of text, use arrows pointing in the direction you want the text to move.

To move to the right, use a right arrow: →

To move to the left, use a left arrow: ←

To center, use both arrows: → ←

Welcome!
←We are so glad you have come.

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

## Transposing Simple Characters or Words

To transpose simple characters or words which are out of order, use the transpose symbol:

Chraacter

## Transposing Numbers or Confusing Transpositions

To transpose numbers or for confusing transpositions, use the method for replacing wrong characters:

1909

Otnraaoi, Canada

## Changing to Caps or to Lowercase

To indicate caps, use three underlines below the letter(s) or word:

kansas city, mo

To make a single letter lowercase, draw a slash through the letter:

High School or College

To make several continuous letters lowercase, draw a slash through the first letter and draw a line above the rest of the letters:

HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

## Indicating a New Paragraph

To indicate a new paragraph, place a paragraph symbol ( ) to the left of the beginning word of the new paragraph:

…to increase your work force.    We suggest you plan what you want…

## Spelling out Numbers or Words

To spell out numbers or words within the text, circle the number or word.

The mgr. wrote 4 proposals.

## *Chart of Proofreading Marks*

| PROOFREADER'S MARK | | | EXAMPLE |
|---|---|---|---|
| Single Space | The Report<br><br>is not done | = | The report is<br>not done |
| Double Space | Look at the project as a whole. | = | Look at the project as<br><br>a whole. |
| Close Space | The infor mation will be gathered. | = | The information will<br>be gathered. |
| Reduce Space | Dear Mr.   Graham: | = | Dear Mr. Graham |
| Create Space | #<br>Itis planned. | = | It is planned. |
| Move Text | 8.→<br>9.→<br>10.<br>11. | = | 8.<br> 9.<br>10.<br>11. |
| Transpose | February   January | = | January February |
| Spell Out | 4 proposals | = | four proposals |
| Delete Character | committment | = | commitment |
| Delete Characters or word | group is really excited | = | group is excited |
| Delete Characters or word | not very hard | = | not hard |
| Insert letter | fourth qarter | = | fourth quarter |

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

| PROOFREADER'S MARK | | | EXAMPLE |
|---|---|---|---|
| ==================== | | | ======== |
| Capitalize | tom p. bell | = | Tom P. Bell |
| Lowercase a letter | Post Office | = | post office |
| Insert a period | We are waiting | = | We are waiting. |
| Insert a comma | Sincerely | = | Sincerely, |
| Insert an apostrophe | cant do | = | can't do |
| Insert quotation marks | I like it, she said. | = | "I like it," she said. |
| Insert parentheses | leave this month May | = | leave this month (May) |
| Indicate a new paragraph | It is possible that… | = | It is possible that… |

# Random Lake

# Writing

# Models

# -

# Works Cited

# TYPES OF WRITING FOR THE 21ST CENTURY

1. Analytical Writing

2. Articles and Article Summaries

3. Business Letters
   a. Formal
   b. Informal

4. Descriptive Writing

5. Editorial Writing

6. Effective Electronic Communications

7. Expository

8. Humorous Writing

9. Journal Writing

10. Narrative Writing
    a. Memoir
    b. Biography

11. Peer Editing

12. Personal Letters
    a. Formal
    b. Informal

13. Persuasive writing

14. Poetry

15. Research Paper
    a. Works Cited Page
    b. Plagiarism

16. Reviews

17. Script Writing

18. Speech

19. Technical Writing

20. Visual Communication

# ANALYTICAL WRITING

**"I**t's a way to get technical information across, so that your readers immediately find out **what's important and why** -- without getting bogged down in a swamp of details and technical jargon. Analytical writing is simple, direct, concise, and to-the-point. It leaves out gobbledygook and avoids the stilted, impersonal style that clutters journal pages and clogs the machinery of government, corporations, and academia."

"Analytical writing is clear in purpose and conveys ideas in an interesting, original manner that holds the reader's attention. Often, the writing develops as a process of discovery for both reader and writer. Clear, relevant examples, anecdotes or details develop and enrich the central idea or ideas."

# ARTICLES AND ARTICLE SUMMARIES

The following are the characteristics of an article:

1. The article will:

    a. Answer the question of how or why

    b. Develop details that fit with the article

    c. Have a powerful "lead" sentence

    d. Have a powerful "ending" that causes the reader to have something to think about

    e. Include visuals such as: pictures, captions, photographs, diagrams that support the information in the article

    f. It is based on facts

    g. Take the extraordinary and puts it into ordinary terms

    h. Have a template or "layout" will include various fonts, bullets or styles and will use the white space well

    i. Use titles, headings and subheadings to guide the reader

    j. Be well researched

Sometimes, school doesn't adequately prepare you for the types or amount of reading and writing required in assessments. This list of descriptors will help the learner to read a scholarly article and how to get and summarize the important information.

The following are the characteristics of an article summary:

2. The development of an appropriate article summary will lead the learner to:

    a. Choose the appropriate magazine that fulfills the requirement of the teacher

        i. The Library media specialist can help you choose

    b. Take notes don't highlight the article since learners will tend to highlight everything or nothing of importance

    c. Write the summary without the article present it eliminates the problem of plagiarism

    d. Proofread, print and deal with suggestions

# BOOK REVIEWS AND BOOK REPORTS

## Steps for Writing a Good Book Review

1. **Introduce the subject, scope, and type of book**

   - Identify the book by **author**, **title**, and sometimes **publishing information**.

   - Specify the **type** of book (for example, fiction, nonfiction, biography, autobiography). Help your readers to review with perspective.

   - Mention the book's **theme**.

   - Sometimes you will need to include **background** to enable reader(s) to place the book into a specific context. For example, you might want to describe the general problem the book addresses or earlier work the author or others have done.

2. **Briefly summarize the content**

   - **For a nonfiction book,** provide an overview, including paraphrases and quotations, of the book's thesis and primary supporting points.

   - **For a work of fiction,** briefly review the story line for readers, being careful not to give away anything that would lessen the suspense for readers.

3. **Provide your reactions to the book**

   - **Describe the book:** Is it interesting, memorable, entertaining, and instructive? Why?

   - **Respond to the author's opinions:** What do you agree with? And why? What do you disagree with? And why?

   - **Explore issues the book raises:** What possibilities does the book suggest? Explain. What matters does the book leave out? Explain.

   - **Relate your argument to other books or authors:** Support your argument for or against the author's opinions by bringing in other authors you agree with.

   - **Relate the book to larger issues:** How did the book affect you? How have your opinions about the topic changed? How is the book related to your own course or personal agenda?

4. **Conclude by summarizing your ideas**

   - Close with a direct comment on the book, and tie together issues raised in the review. Briefly restate your main points and your thesis statement if your teacher requires it. If you like, you can offer advice for potential readers.

# Standard Business Letter Models

This appendix includes information on several standard formats for writing letters, addressing envelopes, and writing internal memorandums.  It also contains a listing of the correct uses, spellings, and capitalization of some standard company terminology.

## Business Letters, Envelopes, and Memorandums

This subsection includes information on several standard formats for writing letters, addressing envelopes and writing internal memorandums.

## Business Letters

Since there are many styles of business letters available, Random Lake adopted the use of two styles of business letters to be consistent and to give quality to correspondence. These two styles are block and modified block.

## Parts of a Letter

Business letters are made up of parts that inform the reader of the date and letter was written, the person who wrote it, the reason for the letter, and the person whom it was written. The positioning of the letter parts creates specific letter formats.

**Date Line**

The position of the date line depends, to some extent, on the style of the letter used and the length of the letter. The date line is usually typed two to four lines below the letterhead, or even more if the letter is very short.

Follow these suggestions when typing the date line.

- Type the date conventionally, all on the line (March 15, 1992). Do not use the style of 3/15/92.

- Do not abbreviate or use figures for the month.

- Do not use d, nd, rd, st, or th following the day of the month.

**Inside Address**

The inside address contains the name of the addressee, the title (if known), the name of the organization, the building name, the street address and/or the post office box number, and the city, state, and Postal ZIP Code.

The inside address usually begins on the fifth line below the date. The exact position of the first line of the address depends on the length of the letter. Single space the address, and align each line at the left margin. The inside address should not extend to the right beyond the middle of the page. Carry over part of an extremely long line to a second line, and indent the carry-over line two spaces.

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

Address the letter, whenever possible, to a specific person and include that person's job title and department (if known).  If you do not have the name of a specific person, use a title instead (for example, National Sales Manager).

**Name of Person and Title**

When writing the name of a person, follow the person's preference in spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and spacing. Do not abbreviate or use initials unless the person to whom you are writing uses abbreviations or initials. If you are unsure about a person's name or title, phone the organization to verify the information.

Use a title before the name of a person in the inside address (Mr., Miss, Mrs., or Ms.). Respect an individual woman's preference when selecting Miss, Mrs., or Ms.  If her preference is unknown, use Ms. Or omit the title altogether. Follow the same practice in a salutation.

Do not use any title if you don't know whether the person addressed is a man or a woman.

The practice of using a comma before typing Jr., Sr. or a roman numeral after a name is optional, unless you know the addressee's preference.

A title of position should be included in an inside address whenever possible. **Do not abbreviate a title.** Type it on the line following the name.

Example:

>   Mr. Roger Billings
>   Vice President and
>   General Manager

A very short title may be typed on the same line as the person's name to balance the length of lines in the address. In this case, the title should be preceded by a comma.

**Name of Organization**

The organization's name is typed on a line by itself. Similarly, if a department or division name is needed in the address, it should precede the organization's name on a line by itself.

Example:

>   Ms. Mary J. Blue
>   Project Manager
>   Marketing Department
>   Times Printing

Always follow the organization's style for spelling, punctuation, capitalization, spacing, and abbreviations. The letterhead on the incoming correspondence is the best source of information. Another option is to phone the organization to verify the information.

**Building Name**

Type the building name on a line by itself immediately above the street address.  The room number or a suite number should accompany the building name.

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

Example:

        Walters Building, Room 101
        1234 Somewhere Avenue
        Boston, MA 02109-3150

**Street Address**

Always type the street address on a line by itself, immediately above the city, state, and Postal ZIP Code. Use figures for house and building numbers except the number one (One Park Avenue).

Numbers used as street names are written as follows:

- Spell out the numerical names of streets and avenues if they are numbers of ten and under (918 Tenth Avenue).

- Use figures for numbers over ten (34 West 58 Street). The ordinal signs *st, rd, nd* and *th* can be omitted as long as a word such as East or West separates the street number from the building number. If no such word intervenes, use the ordinal sign for clarity (181 96th Street)

Do not abbreviate North, South, East, West, Northeast Southwest or a similar word when it appears before the street name (112 East 14 Street).

Use the word and, not an ampersand (&), in a street address (Fourth and Maple Streets).

Do not abbreviate such words as Street, Boulevard, and Avenue in the inside address.

**Post Office Box Number**

The post office box number can be written one of three ways:

1. Post Office Box 12536
2. P.O. Box 12536
3. Box 12536

Some companies show both the street address and the post office box number in their mailing address.

**City, State, and Postal ZIP Code**

In an inside address, these items must ALWAYS be typed on one line immediately following the street address. The style is name of city followed by a comma and one space, the state followed by one space, and the Postal ZIP Code. Whatever information appears on the line before the city, state, and Postal ZIP Code, determines where the mail is delivered.

Example:

        Milwaukee, WI 53212-0536

## Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**Note**: The US Postal Service has introduced a nine-digit Postal ZIP Code. The use of the additional four digits is voluntary.

Never abbreviate the name of a city, unless the abbreviation is standard; for example, St. Louis, St. Paul.

Spell out the name of the state or use the two-letter abbreviation of the state name.

**Note**: When addressing envelopes, only the two-letter abbreviations should be used with the Postal ZIP Codes in the addresses. When using two-letter state abbreviations, type them in capital letters, with no periods or spaces between the letters.

**U.S. Postal Service State Abbreviations**

| State | Abbreviation | State | Abbreviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| ALABAMA | AL | NEW HAMPSHIRE | NH |
| ALASKA | AK | NEW JERSEY | NJ |
| AMERICAN SAMOA | AS | NEW MEXICO | NM |
| ARIZONA | AZ | NEW YORK | NY |
| ARKANSAS | AR | NORTH CAROLINA | NC |
| CALIFORNIA | CA | NORTH DAKOTA | ND |
| CONNECTICUT | CT | OHIO | OH |
| DELAWARE | DE | OKLAHOMA | OK |
| DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA | DC | OREGON | OR |
| FLORIDA | FL | PENNSYLVANIA | PA |
| GEORGIA | GA | PUERTO RICO | PR |
| GUAM | GU | RHODE ISLAND | RI |
| HAWAII | HI | SOUTH CAROLINA | SC |
| IDAHO | ID | SOUTH DAKOTA | SD |
| ILLINOIS | IL | TENNESSEE | TN |
| INDIANA | IN | TEXAS | TX |
| IOWA | IA | UTAH | UT |
| KANSAS | KS | VERMONT | VT |
| KENTUCKY | KY | VIRGIN ISLANDS | VI |
| LOUISIANA | LA | VIRGINIA | VA |
| MAINE | ME | WASHINGTON | WA |
| MARSHALL ISLANDS | MH | WEST VIRGINIA | WV |
| MARYLAND | MD | WISCONSIN | WI |
| MASSACHUSETTS | MA | WYOMING | WY |
| MICHIGAN | MI | | |
| MINNESOTA | MN | | |
| MISSISSIPPI | MS | | |
| MISSOURI | MO | | |
| MONTANA | MT | | |
| NEBRASKA | NE | | |
| NEVADA | NV | | |

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**Attention Line**

An attention line can be used when the correspondence sent can be handled by anyone in the company or a specific department and is not addressed to an individual. The attention line is typed on the second line below the inside address starting at the left margin. Use a colon and two spaces after the word Attention.

Example:

> First National Bank
> 1945 Thorton Place
> Boston, MA  02198
>
> Attention:  Accounts Payable

**Salutation**

A salutation is an expression of greeting. Type the salutation on the second line below the attention line (if used) or on the second line below the inside address. Use a colon following the salutation. A comma is used only in social letters, particularly those that are handwritten.

Mr., Mrs., Ms., Messrs., And Dr. should be abbreviated. All other titles should be written out.

Capitalize the first word as well as any nouns and titles in the salutation.

Example:

> Dear Mr. Franzer:
> Dear Ms. Blue:
> Dear C.J. Smith:
> Dear Mr. Lyons and Mr. Richards:
> Dear Ms. Brown, Mrs. Smith, and Miss Green:

Another alternative is to address the letter to the head of the organization by name and title, if known, otherwise by using a general salutation.

Examples:

> Mr. John W. Jones
> President
> Security Bank
> 1234 Southwest Avenue
> San Francisco, CA  92034
>
> Dear Mr. Jones:
>
> **OR**
> Public Relations Department
> Security Bank
> 1234 Southwest Avenue
> San Francisco, CA   92034

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**Subject Line**

A subject line briefly identifies the reason for the letter. If used, type a subject line on the second line below the salutation and before the body of the letter flush with the left margin. The subject line can be centered when using modified block style. Always use the word subject before the subject line.

Example:

>Mr. James Smith
>President
>1945 Thorton Place
>Boston, MA  02198
>
>Dear Mr. Smith:
>
>Subject:  Invoice 123456

**Body of Letter**

The body of the letter contains the information you want the reader to know.

The body of the letter begins on the second line below the subject line, if used, or on the second line below the salutation. Single-space within paragraphs and double-space between paragraphs.

If a letter is two or more pages in length, leave at least two lines of the paragraph at the bottom of a page and carry over at least two lines to the top of the next page.

Two very important elements in the body of a letter are the opening and closing paragraphs. One effective way to arrange your letter is to open with a short paragraph, followed by one or more longer paragraphs for the body itself, and another short paragraph for a conclusion.  This is called a diamond arrangement, and it can help to focus your letter.

**Opening Paragraph**

In your opening you should identify your subject so you focus its relevance for the reader. Remember that your reader may not immediately recognize or see the importance of your topic. Therefore, it is important to focus the reader's attention on the subject at hand. Be particularly careful to get directly to the point.

**Closing Paragraph**

Your closing should tie together all of the letter's important points. Your most significant points can be restated here. You can use a closing for different purposes. You might propose a recommendation, or summarize the main points of your letter. You man merely present ideas for consideration, call for action, or deliberately provoke thought.

Because a closing is in a position of emphasis, be especially careful to avoid clichés. Your conclusion must relate to and reinforce ideas already presented in the letter.

**Complimentary Closing**

Type the complimentary closing on the second line below the body of the letter. Use a standard expression (like those listed below). If the recipient is a friend as well as a business associate, you can use a less formal closing.  Stay away from religious closings such as *God Bless*.

Capitalize only the initial letter of the first word, and follow the expression with a comma.

**Formal Complimentary Closings**

Example:

> Sincerely,
> Sincerely yours,
> Yours truly,

**Less Formal Complimentary Closings**

Example:

> Best wishes,
> Warmest regards,

**Signatures (Writer's Name/Title)**

The signature of a business letter usually consists of the signature of the writer, and the typed name and business title of the writer. Because Deluxe letters are typed on letterhead, retyping the company name is redundant and should not be typed unless a formal document is prepared.

Type the writer's name on the fourth line below the complimentary closing, and the writer's position either on the same line or on the next line.

Example:

> Sincerely,
>
>
> Julie A. Jordan
> Marketing Assistant

**Continuation Pages**

Continuation pages should begin on the seventh line from the top of the page. Type the heading as shown below for a block or a modified block letter. Leave three lines below the last line of the continuation page heading and resume typing the letter.

Block Example:

> Ms. Victoria Billings
> January 2, 2007
> Page 2

Modified Block Example:

> Ms. Victoria Billings                    2                    January 2, 2007

**Never** use a continuation page to type only the closing section of a business letter. Do not divide a paragraph containing two or three lines. If a paragraph has four or more lines, leave at least two lines of a paragraph at the bottom of the previous page and carry over at least two lines to the continuation page.

The complimentary closing should always be preceded by at least two lines of the message.

Leave a margin of 6 to 12 lines at the foot of each page of a letter (except the last page).

Do not divide the last word on a page between the first page and the second page.

# Letter Formats

Since there are many styles of business letters available, the two main styles will be covered in this handbook. Type all letters using single spacing with double-spacing between paragraphs. Use ragged-right margins.

The two styles of business letters are:

- Block letter

- Modified block letter

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

## Block Letter

The block letter format is the most standard and the easiest to format.

The distinguishing feature of the block letter format is that all the structural parts of the letter are flush with the left margin.  There are no indentations.

Example:

Ms. Julie A. Jordan
Marketing Assistant
Random Lake High School
901 Random Lake Road
Random Lake, WI  53075


July 12, 2007

Ms. Joan Lawrence
Executive Assistant
Training and Education Department        **(Inside Address)**
Clark Industries, Inc.
1250 Second Street
Milwaukee, WI  53201-3121

Dear Ms. Lawrence:                       **(Salutation)**

Subject: Block Letter Format             **(Subject Line)**

I am pleased to submit a sample of the block letter format used by Random Lake High School (RLHS). In order to promote quality and consistency in all RLHS correspondence, we have selected block and modified block formats as standard within our school district.
                               **(Body of Letter)**
As you can see, there are no indentations. Everything, including the date and the closing, begins at the extreme left margin. This uniformity eliminates several mechanical operations in typing letters.

If you have any questions regarding this letter format, please do not hesitate to call me.

Sincerely,                               **(Complimentary Closing)**



Julie A. Jordan                          **(Writer's Name/Title)**
Marketing Assistant

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

## Modified Block Letter

The modified block letter format is a widely used format.

The distinguishing feature of the modified block letter format is that the inside address and the paragraphs are blocked, flush with the left margin.  The salutation and subject line (if used) are aligned with the inside address.  The date line, the complimentary closing, and the typed signature are aligned and begin slightly to the right of the center of the page.

Example:

Ms. Julie A. Jordan
Marketing Assistant
Random Lake High School
901 Random Lake Road
Random Lake, WI  53075

July 12, 2007

Ms. Jane Carter
Marketing Manager
Marketing Department
Check Corporation
5345 Oak Avenue
Milwaukee, WI  53201-3121

Dear Ms. Carter:

Subject: Modified Block Letter Format

You asked me if there is any on e letter style that is used more than others. Probably more businesses use the modified block format than any other format, because its marginal uniformity saves time for the typist. Many companies are adopting the block format, however, because it saves even more time than the modified block. This letter is an example of the modified block letter format.

As you can see, the inside address is blocked and paragraph beginnings are aligned with the left margin, as they are in the block format.

The date line begins slightly to the right of the center of the page. The date line begins on the second line below the letterhead. The inside address begins on the fourth line below the date line. The closing and signature lines are aligned with the date line.

Please contact me if you have any questions about the modified block style letter format.

Sincerely,

Julie A. Jordan

# Types of Business Letters

There are many types of business letters used throughout different corporations.  The next few pages list some steps and suggestions for writing business letters, and show four specific letter types.

## Business Letters

There are some basic steps to complete when planning and writing a letter.

1.  Establish your objective.

2.  Research your topic, if necessary

3.  Understand who your reader is.

4.  Prepare an outline, even if it is only a list of topics to be covered.

5.  Revise the draft, if possible, after a period of a couple of hours.

## Letter Writing Suggestions

Show consideration for the reader of your letter by following these suggestions.

*   Be respectful, not demanding.

*   Be modest, not arrogant.

*   Be polite, not sarcastic.

*   Be positive and tactful, not negative and condescending.

## Types of Letters

The following pages discuss four types of letters.

*   Acknowledgement letter

*   Adjustment letter

*   Inquiry letter

*   Response letter

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**Acknowledgement Letter**

The acknowledgement letter serves the function of letting someone know you received what was sent to you.  This letter should be a short, polite note that mentions when the item arrived and that expresses thanks.

Example Acknowledgement Letter:

    Ms. Jamie Carson
    Account Manager
    Random Lake High School
    901 Random Lake Road
    Random Lake, WI  53075

    July 12, 2005

    Ms. Mary Evans
    System Developer
    Transaction Network
    2746 Patterson Road
    Beechwood, MI  45432

    Dear Ms. Evans:

    Subject: Technical Specifications Received

    I received the technical specifications for a link to Transaction Network. The specifications appear to be complete and will help us estimate the work we need to do to link to your network.

    When we finish the analysis of this project, I will contact you with a proposal. Thank you for sending the specifications so promptly.

    Sincerely,


    Jamie Carson
    Account Manager

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**Adjustment Letter**

An adjustment letter is written in response to a complaint letter or phone call, and it tells the customer what your company intends to do about the complaint.

Although it is sent in response to a problem situation, an adjustment letter actually provides an excellent opportunity to build goodwill for the company.   An effective adjustment letter both repairs the damage that has been done and restores the customer's confidence in your company.

You must investigate what happened and decide what you can do to satisfy the customer before granting an adjustment to a claim for which your company is at fault.  Treat every claim individually, and lean toward giving the customer the benefit of the doubt.

Settle claims quickly and courteously, trying to satisfy the customer at a reasonable cost to your company.  Grant adjustments graciously, because a settlement made grudgingly will do more harm than good.  Your response must remain both respectful and positive no mater how unpleasant or unreasonable your complain letter.  Put your emphasis on what you are doing to correct it.  You must be gracious, and you must also admit your error in such a way that the customer will not lose confidence in your company.

**Adjustment Letter Writing Guidelines**

The following guidelines will help you write adjustment letters.

1. Open with whatever you believe the reader will consider good news.

   - Grant the adjustment for uncomplicated situations, or reveal that you intend to grant the adjustment by admitting that the customer was in the right.  Then explain the specific details of the adjustment.  This method is good for adjustments that require detailed explanations.

   - Apologize for the error.  This method is effective for adjustments for situations in which the customer's inconvenience is as much an issue as money.

   - Use a combination of these techniques.  Often, situations requiring an adjustment are unique and do not fit a single pattern.

2. Explain what caused the problem if the explanation will help restore your reader's confidence or goodwill.

3. Explain specifically how you intend to make the adjustment if it is not obvious in your opening.

4. Express appreciation to the customer for calling your attention to the situation, explaining that this helps your company to keep the quality of this product or service high.

5. Point out any steps you may be taking to prevent a recurrence of whatever went wrong, giving the customer as much credit at the facts allow.

6. Close with an offer to be of further service.  Close pleasantly, looking forward not back. Avoid recalling the problem in your closing.

Print Literacy

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**Educate Your Reader**

You may sometimes need to educate your reader about the use of your project or service. Customers sometimes submit claims that are not justified, even though they honestly believe them to be.  The customer may actually be at fault for not following maintenance instructions properly, for example.  Such a claim is granted only to build goodwill.  When you write a letter of adjustment in such a situation, it is wise to give the explanation before granting the claim; otherwise, your reader may never get to the explanation.  If your explanation establishes customer responsibility, be sure that it is by implication rather than by outright statement.

Example Adjustment Letter:

Ms. Karin Walters
Customer Assistance
Sweete Coffee Company
901 Random Lake Road
Random Lake, WI  53075

July 12, 2005

Mr. John Ortiz
ABC Network
5390 Bittersweet Court
Finnerton, OH  63421

Dear Mr. Ortiz:

Subject: Cleaned Sweete Coffee Maker Returned to Customer

Enclosed is your Sweete coffee maker, which you sent to us on August 17.

In various parts of the country, tap water may contain a high mineral content. If you fill your Sweete coffee maker with water for breakfast coffee before going to bed, a mineral scale will build up on the inner wall of the water tube, as explained on pate two of your Sweete Instruction Booklet.

We have removed the mineral scale from the water tube of your coffee maker and thoroughly cleaned the entire unit. To ensure the best service from your coffee maker in the future, clean it once a month by operating it with four ounces of white vinegar and eight cups of water. To rinse out the vinegar taste, operate the unit twice with clear water.

With proper care, your Sweete coffee maker will serve you faithfully and well for many years to come. Should you have any problems with it, however, please let us know.

Sincerely,


Karin Walters
Customer Service

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**Inquiry Letter**

Your primary objective in writing an inquiry letter is to get a response, so make it as easy as possible for your reader to respond. Keep the number of questions to a minimum, and make them as clear and concise as possible.

There are two broad categories of inquiry letters. One kind provides a benefit (or potential benefit) to the reader; the other benefits only the writing.

**Inquiry Letter with Benefit to the Reader**

Inquiring about a product or service makes you a potential customer and gives the reader a built-in motivation to respond. With this kind of inquiry letter, get directly to the point. Identify the product or service you are interested in, and ask for the brochure or other item you want the reader to send you.

**Inquiry Letter with Benefit to the Writer**

Some inquiry letters benefit only the writer, and ask for a special favor from someone who has no apparent motivation to respond. This type of letter requires persuasion, and it is generally best to start with an inducement designed to get your reader to respond. Such an inducement might be the recognition of the reader as an expert in the field.

**Inquiry Letter Guidelines**

1. To save yourself and your reader time and trouble, plan your letter carefully.

2. Phrase your questions carefully and precisely. Nothing is more frustrating than receiving an answer to the wrong question.

3. Be sure to include your address. Surprisingly, this vital piece of information is often forgotten.

4. It is usually a good idea to include a stamped, self-addressed return envelope.

5. End your letter with an expression of appreciation for your reader's anticipated help.

## Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

Example Inquiry Letter:

Ms. Kathryn J. Parsons
Howard Enterprises
P.O. Box 113
Oak Brook, IL  49301

July 12, 2005

Ms. Jane Metcalf
Engineering Services
Miami Valley Power Company
P.O. Box 1444
Clemson, IL  49305

Dear Ms. Metcalf:

Subject: Request for Heating Information

We are presently designing an all-electric, energy-efficient, middle-priced home that we plan to market in your service area. The house, which contains 2,000 square feet of living space (17,600 cubic feet), meets all the requirements stipulated in your company's brochure "Insulating for Efficiency." However, we need some additional information on heating systems.

1.  What is the proper size heat pump to use in this climate for such a home?

2.  What is the wattage of the supplemental electrical furnace that would be required for this climate?

3.  What is the estimated power consumption, and current rates for these units, for a calendar year.

We will be happy to send you a copy of our preliminary design report for your information. Thank you for your request.

Sincerely,


Kathryn J. Parsons

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**Response Letter**

When responding to an inquiry letter, if you cannot respond immediately, at least acknowledge receipt of the letter, indicate the reason for the delay, and indicate when you will be able to respond.

If you cannot respond to an inquiry letter at all, find someone who can and forward the letter to that person.  Send a note to the sender saying you have forwarded the letter to another person (include this person's name), who will respond shortly.  Be sure to send a copy of your note to the person who will eventually answer the inquiry.

**Response Letter Guidelines**

1. Begin and end a response to an inquiry letter with positive statements.

2. If it is necessary to include negative facts, cushion them in the body of your letter, but do not hide them.

3. Be sure to answer all questions, even those that seem obvious or unimportant.

4. If you must ask for additional information or point out a misunderstanding, do so politely.

5. Take care not to be sarcastic or condescending.

6. End your letter by offering to answer any further questions the reader may have.

## Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

Example Response Letter:

Ms. Jane Metcalf
Engineering Services
Miami Valley Power Company
P.O. Box 1444
Clemson, IL  49305

July 12, 2005

Ms. Kathryn J. Parsons
Howard Enterprises
P.O. Box 113
Oak Brook, IL  49301

Dear Ms. Parsons:

Thank you for inquiring about the heating system we would recommend for use in the homes designed according to the specifications outlined in our brochure "Insulating for Efficiency."

Since I cannot answer your specific questions, I have forwarded your letter to Mr. Michael Stott, Engineering Assistant in our development group. He should be able to answer the questions you have raised.

Sincerely,


Jane E. Metcalf
Director of Public Information

# Envelopes

The U.S. Postal Service moves over half a billion pieces of mail every day.  Use the guidelines described below to address your envelopes correctly.

## Address

Always put the complete address on your mail.  The address contains the name of the addressee, the title (if used), the name of the organization, the building name, the street address and/or the post office box number, and the city, state, and Postal ZIP Code.

Following are some general guidelines to follow when addressing envelopes.

- Type or print addresses clearly in the middle of the envelope using black ink.

- Single space and block each line at the left.

- Capitalize the first letter of every word except for prepositions (for example, *of* and *for*), conjunctions (for example, *and*), and articles (for example, *the, a,* and *an*) used within a name or title).

- If **Personal, Confidential, Please Forward,** or **Hold for Arrival** is used, type the word(s) below the return address.  Begin typing on line nine or on the third line below the return address, whichever is lower.  Start each main word with a capital letter and use underscoring.  The notation should align at the left with the return address.

- For special mailing procedures, type the appropriate notation (such as **SPECIAL DELIVERY** or **REGISTERED**) in all capital letters in the upper right corner of the envelope beginning on line nine or on the third line below the bottom edge of the stamp, whichever is lower.

## Name of person/Title/Attention Line

Follow the person's preference in spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and spacing.

A title (if used) should be typed on the line following the name.

An attention line, if used in the letter, should appear on the envelope.  Always put the attention line first.

## Name of Organization

The organization's name is typed on a line by itself below the person's name, or the person's title (if used).

If a department or division name is needed, it should follow the organizations name on a line by itself.

## Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

### Building Name

Type the building name on a line by itself immediately above the street address. The room number or suite number should accompany the building name.

### Street Address

Type the street address on a line by itself, immediately before the city, state, and Postal ZIP Code. Include the following abbreviations in the street address. The abbreviations are requested by the Post Office to ensure prompt delivery of the mail.

- N (North), S (South), E (East), W (West), NE, SE, and SW

- AVE (Avenue, ST (Street), DR (Drive), RD (Road), PL (Place), and CIR (Circle)

- RM (Room), STE (Suite), and APT (Apartment) number

### Post Office Box Number

Some companies show both the street address and the post office box number in their mailing address.

Whatever information appears in the line before the city, state, and Postal ZIP Code, determines where the mail is delivered.

### City, State, and Postal ZIP Code

These items must always be typed on one line immediately following the street address. The style is the name of the city, followed by a comma and one space, the two-letter state abbreviation in capital letters followed by one space, and the Postal ZIP Code. If space limitations make it impossible for the Postal ZIP Code to fit on the same line, type it on the line directly below the city and state, blocked at the left.

**Note:** The U.S. Postal Service has introduced the nine-digit Postal ZIP Code. The use of the additional four digits is voluntary.

Example Envelope:

```
Nancy Smith
Random Lake High School
605 Random Lake Road
Random Lake, WI  53075


                    Ms. Sarah Anderson
                    President
                    Clark Industries, Inc.
                    1245 Second Street
                    Milwaukee, WI  53201
```

## Memorandums

The memorandum is the most frequently used form a communication among members of an organization. Memos are routinely used for internal communications of all kinds, from short notes to small reports and internal proposals. Memos provide a record of decisions made and virtually all actions taken in an organization. For this reason, clear and effective memos are essential to the success of any organization.

### Memo Writing Guidelines

When writing a memo, follow these suggestions.

1. Write an outline even if it is only a number of ideas jotted down and arranged in a logical sequence.

2. Include the following information double-spaced at the top of the memo:

   - To:

   - Copy:

   - From:

   - Date:

   - Subject:

3. If you are addressing a memo to several people, type the names in columns across the page after the guide word To:. If it is not possible to fit the names in the heading of the memo, type See Distribution List after the guide word To: and include a cover memo stating the *Copy*:, *From:, Date:,* and *Subject:* information. Indicate that this is a distribution list, and type the names below it.

4. Separate the body of the memorandum from the subject line by two or three blank lines or with a thin, double line.

5. If your memo is particularly long, insert headings to focus the reader's attention. Headings divide the material into manageable segments, call attention to the main topics, and signal changes of topic.

6. If the reader is not familiar with the subject, or with the background of the problem being dealt with, provide a brief introductory paragraph. Longer memos and memos dealing with complex subjects benefit most from introductory information.

7. Initial the memo immediately following your name, after the *From:* guide word.

8.  If the memo continues beyond the first page, type a continuation heading, as shown below, on the seventh line from the top of the page. Continue typing the message on the third line below the last line of the continuation page heading.

Example:

May 24, 2007
Page 2

Example Memorandum:

**Random Lake High School**
**INTEROFFICE MEMORANDUM**

**To:**          Nancy Smith

**Copy:**      Jane Jones

**From:**      Jeff Walters

**Date:**      June 4, 2007

**Subject:**   Writing Effective Memos

---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Memos are internal documents that serve as a powerful statement of your

competence and performance. They need to be clear, credible, and effective.

The list below offers several key observations to help your memos enhance your

professional image.

1.      Content: Limit the memo to one subject.

2.      Subject Line: Position the important information in the subject line.

3.      Salutation: Omit salutations.

4.      Purpose: Ask for the response you want.

5.      Clarity; Select familiar, easy to understand words.

6.      Closing Sentence: Provide both a phone number and an extension.

7.      Courtesy Close: Omit a courtesy close

8.      Format: Usually double-spaced with five spaces indented for paragraphs.

Follow these eight keys for attention-getting memos!

# DESCRIPTIVE WRITING

## Things to Consider as You Write Your Descriptive Essay

- Think of an instance that you want to describe.

- Why is this particular instance important?

- What were you doing?

- What other things were happening around you? Is there anything specific that stands out in your mind?
- 
- Where were objects located in relation to where you were?

- How did the surroundings remind you of other places you have been?

- What sights, smells, sounds, and tastes were in the air?

- Did the sights, smells, sounds, and tastes remind you of anything?

- What were you feeling at that time?

- Has there been an instance in which you have felt this way before?

- What do you want the reader to feel after reading the paper?

- What types of words and images can convey this feeling?

- Can you think of another situation that was similar to the one you are writing about? How can it help explain what you are writing about?
- 
- Is there enough detail in your essay to create a mental image for the reader?

# EDITORIAL WRITING

## Writing Editorials

The editorial serves as the official view of a paper, reflecting the opinions of many sides of an issue. The editorial is composed by an editorial board or an individual who agrees on the topic and the view to present.

## Editorial Content

- The editorial deals with a current issue that is effecting many readers.

- The editorial may attempt to influence, by giving readers all of the facts and concerns.

- The editorial offers suggestions and indications as to outcomes.

- The opinion, if offered, will not be an extreme view, but a well prepared and informed one, taking into consideration many aspects from both sides of the debate.

## Construction

- An editorial presents the official view of the paper, so it is a wisely thought out representation.

- An editorial offers clear and concise wording and is free of emotive terms.

- An editorial is usually balanced, presenting all aspects of the situation/event/issue.

- An editorial is written on an important topic, often a deep seated problem within society, which is likely to be of interest or concern to many readers.

- An editorial doesn't normally include a reported speech.

# ELECTRONIC COMMUNICATIONS

The following is a list of E-mail Etiquette Do's and Don'ts.  Consider these guidelines when sending e-mails in the work place.  Keep in mind that sending e-mail with school property is against school policy.  Sending e-mails during a class period could result in suspension of computer use.  This information is intended for students, parents, teachers and staff to use in a work place.

1. DO treat each e-mail as though the message were being sent to your boss and your worst enemy.  Since e-mail can be easily passed along to another person, your message may end up being seen by persons you didn't intend.

2. DON'T betray confidences.  It is all too easy to forward an e-mail thinking your response is relevant to the group, while the original document may very well not be.  In all likelihood, the author may be uncomfortable with you publishing his or her statements.

3. DO review the "To:" and Cc:" lines in your message before you sent it.  Are you SURE you want the message to go there?  Think about how the receiver will perceive the action of including others.

4. DON'T send messages as chain letters or broadcast indiscriminately to large numbers of individuals.  E-mails sent to a large number of recipients should in general be directed only to those who have indicated a willingness to receive such e-mail.

5. Do use a meaningful subject heading.  It makes life so much easier when one needs to find the e-mail later.

6. DO take out unnecessary information.  When forwarding e-mail that was sent to many individuals, delete the extra pages of text that the recipient would otherwise have to scroll through to get to the content.

7. DO remember that no one can hear the tone of your voice.  It is impossible to determine if your audience will be able to tell the difference between serious statements or sarcasm.

8. DO exercise some restraint.  Understand the message you are sending and the audience.  The audience may include people of other cultures, whether nearby or around the world.

9. DON'T SEND A MESSAGE IN ALL CAPS.  It's the equivalent of shouting.

10. DO use normal capitalization and punctuation.   Separate your paragraphs with blank lines just as you would in normal writing.

11. DO not send a message if you are angry.  Wait a day or two or even a few hours before sending an e-mail which may be offensive to the recipient and which you may regret later.

12. DO not send a message which may be better in person or even over the phone.  Some message are just better to get in person.

# EXPOSITORY WRITING

Expository text is written by authors to inform, to explain, to describe, to present information or to persuade.  Expository text is subject-oriented and contains facts and information using little dialogue.  The following are seven basic structures of expository text:

- Definition
- Description
- Process
- Classification
- Comparison
- Analysis
- Persuasion

## Definition

Definition is the form of writing that authors use when they want to define a topic or subject.  Definitions are an important part of any type of writing and are especially important for expository text.

## Description

Description is a form of writing that is used to describe the attributes and features of people, places, or items.  Usually in descriptive writing, the main topic is introduced and then the attributes are included in the body of the paragraph.  The focus of the information included for the descriptive paragraph may include the senses such as :  hearing, smelling, tasting, touching and seeing.

## Process

Process is a form of writing that is used if the author wishes to inform readers about certain topics by presenting this information by listing events or steps in a sequence or in presenting information in chronological order using time.  If a timeline is necessary in the essay, it would be written in this paragraph.

## Classification

Classifications are arranged by groups of persons, places, things, or abstract ideas according to a common topic in detail.  It is an organizational strategy to categorize items.

## Comparison

Comparisons show how two or more people, places, or things are alike or different.  Authors use descriptions of the items being compared to illustrate the differences or the similarities of the items being compared.

## Analysis

Otherwise known as Cause and Effect or Problem and Solution, analysis text is used to present problems and the solutions.  Problem and solution is used when a problem is presented and includes the possible solutions to this problem.  Cause and Effect may be used when the reader examines the relationships between the parts and the whole in order to communicate or comprehend the structure of the underlying ideas.

## Persuasive

Persuasive writing is used to convince the reader to view things from the author's point of view.  Usually this text is written by authors to present arguments.

# HUMOROUS WRITING

**H- Humor**

**U- Unanswerable Questions**

**M- Mix Ups, Mess Ups and Disasters (Plotting)**

**O-  Ordinary or Extraordinary?**

**U- Under-currents/sub-text**

**R- Research/Recycling of Humor**

## Writing with Humor

Consider the following guidelines when attempting to write with humor:

- Look for the funny situations in life.

- When writing about humorous incidents in life, laugh with love, not sarcasm.

- Look at situations through the eyes of a child

- Consider whether a situation will cause hardship or laughter five years from now.

- Keep a smile on.

- Look at simple, ordinary incidents and use a "might have been" or "what if?" approach to find the "funny factor" to write about.

- Laugh at yourself and write about it.

- Look for the brighter side of a situation and find that laugher will invigorate life and writing.

# JOURNAL WRITING

Effective journal writing can be organized in many ways. Some of the issues instructors must consider include:

1.  What role(s) will the journal play in the class? Is it to be mostly a record of responses to readings? to lectures? a collection place for all class writings? Some combination of these?

2.  What is the payoff going to be for the students? They are more likely to engage with the project if the journal will help them write a paper, participate in discussions, pass an exam and/or earn a grade.

3.  How will journal writing fit into class time? Journals might become a beginning of class ritual. Or journal writing can be a closing ritual, an activity scheduled for the end of every class. Or journals can be done outside of class.

4.  Will the instructor keep a journal too, writing in class with students and out of class as well? Students usually take journal writing more seriously when they see their instructor writing too.

5.  How will the instructor respond to student journals? Certainly many of the entries should be read and responded to. Reading and responding, however, are different than grading. Grades may be, in fact, the least effective type of response instructors can offer to informal writing such as journals. And, as writing teacher Peter Elbow remarks, teachers don't have to read, much less grade, everything their students write; in fact, especially in a class with journals, teachers who have the time to read everything probably aren't assigning enough writing.

6.  Many successful instructors who use journals require a table of contents and a page-numbering system that allows them to spot check entries and assign a quantity mark to them. Instructors may set up a rotating schedule so that both they and their students know exactly how many journals the instructor will read a week. Students, too, can offer powerful and influential readings and responses to each others journals.

7.  Instructors may wish to specify the appearance they want the journal to take. Some teachers like spiral notebooks; others prefer loose-leaf which allows students to pull out pages, staple them with a coversheet, and then reinsert them in the journal when they are returned.

8.  There are several internal formats for journal writing to choose from. Journal texts may consist of informal jottings, or a log or of formal short papers collected together with an introduction. Some instructors prefer single entry and others the double-entry style journal. Typically in double-entry journals facts are written on the left and interpretations or reactions on the right. More discussion of double-entry journals is included below.

(Much of the proceeding list was adapted from Kansas University Faculty Resources). For a discussion of other, related writing-to-learn activities see the Mānoa Writing Program's Writing Activities to Get Students Thinking and Learning.

http://www.teach-nology.com/ideas/subjects/writing/

# Peer Editing

Peer Editing in General

Peer Editing of an essay

 K-12 Peer and Self-editing

# Peer Edit with Perfection!

There are three steps to good peer editing:

1.  Compliment the author

    - What are a few things that you liked about the author's writing?

2.  Make specific suggestions regarding the author's

    - Word choice

    - Use of details

    - Organization

    - Sentence length

    - Topic

3.  Mark corrections on the writing piece

    - Look for spelling, grammar, and punctuation mistakes.

In addition, remember to:

    - Stay positive!

    - Be specific!

# NARRATIVE WRITING

Narrative writing tells a story. Creative narrative writing has a plot, a setting (where and when the story happens), and characters who have motives (reasons) for what they do. Good narrative writing is more than a list of random events. It has a problem to be solved or a challenge to be overcome. There is a point to the story.

Non-fictional narrative writing is often used to recount a person's life story, important historical events, or news stories. This is really a combination of narrative and informational writing, since its purpose is both to tell a story and to provide important facts and details.

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## Writing the Narrative!

A basic narrative (or story) must contain a definite beginning, middle and end. Paragraphing isn't as important as chronological order of events in the story. The narrative format is based on telling a story in a logical order. A story needs to be told with passion and a clear progression from beginning to end. Dialogue and details add to the quality of the story as do descriptions of the scene. Remember the following as you write your narrative:

Keep to the story you are telling. Do not stray or go off on a tangent. Do not tell a story within a story.

Make sure that the events in your story happen in a chronological order. Do not skip around in your telling of the story or jump from one event to another or suddenly change scene.

Use great vocabulary. You want to show that you have a good command of words that are above and beyond those the average student your age knows.

Use dialogue or other creative writing strategies somewhere in your story.

Use similes and strong verbs to enhance descriptions.

## Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

Make sure that you include enough detail to make your story interesting to the reader, to keep him/her hooked.

Write with a clear voice. Pick whether you want to write using "I" or a third person (he or she) and stick with it.

# PERSUASIVE WRITING

Persuasive writing focuses on topics, which generate different opinions. The writer assumes that the reader does not agree with their opinion on the topic.

## The Parts of a Good Persuasive Essay

In persuasive writing, there are three key elements to keep in mind.

The **point** of your essay is the central reason why you are writing. For example, if you are writing in support of local Amendment 5 to enforce a neighborhood curfew on teenagers, your point might be that this curfew would drastically improve conditions in the community.

The **purpose** of your essay is decided mainly by who you're writing to – the intended audience. While your point would be that the Amendment is good or bad and why, your purpose would be to persuade, to inform, or to otherwise affect your audience.

Your **support**, commonly known as the "argument," consists of statements that reinforce the point and purpose of your essay. Ample, objective support is key to success in persuasive writing, and is more effective than opinions or limited, anecdotal evidence. Most of your writing will concern how to organize and express your support.

The **audience** is, simply, the people you hope to impact by writing. It is important to tailor your argument and use of language to the needs of your audience. The essay you write to your local town council will be different than the one you may write to the opinion column of the tri-county newspaper, and will be very different indeed from one you write to the mayor.

## Bringing it All Together

**Brainstorming:** When you have an issue that you'd like to weigh in on, deciding on a point and purpose is relatively simple. Determine who you want to influence and why – if in doubt, ask yourself, what will be the fastest route to the change I want to see? Before writing, it is a good idea to make sure that you can state your point and purpose in two simple sentences. If you can't express your point and purpose naturally and with a minimum of words, you may have difficulty formulating a readable essay. As a general rule, the more strongly you feel about your topic, the more natural it will be for you to write extensively about it.

**Research:** Research your topic thoroughly. If you are writing on a political matter in the local area, your town hall or public library can be a valuable source of government documents relating to your issue. If you are tackling something of wider scope, you will no doubt do some internet research. A whole article could be written on this topic, but in sum, be careful of blogs and websites hosted on free services where public access is the norm. Government or non-profit organizations sites and statements from known, trustworthy public figures should form the backbone of any argument; having your facts discredited will make your audience much less likely to listen to you in the future. During research, also keep in mind who you are writing for and make note of facts that will appeal to their values and desires. You can emphasize these during the writing process.

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**Writing:** Essays meant for public consumption will generally follow an outline like this:

*Opening*: The opening of any piece of work should grab the reader's attention. There are several ways to do this. You may want to present an interesting fact that will reel the reader in right away. Another method is to ask a question, even if it is rhetorical (ex: "Who doesn't like safety?"). Delve into your research – as in our example, if statistics show a case for your position, don't be afraid to start strong with something like. "Did you know that most local street crime is perpetrated by teens after ten P.M?"

*Support*: Everything between your opening and your conclusion will take the form of support. You should strive for objectivity – that is, an unbiased tone – in your support paragraphs in order to sound more trustworthy and authoritative. Center your writing on verifiable facts, and make the reader aware of where you found them.

*Closing*: After three to five paragraphs of support, your closing should succinctly restate your point and purpose. Your closing paragraph is no time to introduce any new ideas or facts, but you can use it to repeat your strongest arguments. A good rule of thumb is, "First you tell the reader what you're going to say, then you say it, then you tell them what you said." Repetition in the opening and closing paragraphs is used to solidify your main arguments in the reader's mind.

Taken from this site: Excellent
http://www.finetuning.com/articles/271-how-to-write-a-good-persuasive-essay.html

# POETRY

## Characteristics:

1. Has a focused purpose such as: Painting a picture, recreating feelings and emotions, telling a story, sharing a specific experience

2. Does not have to rhyme, but does not let rhyme inhibit the purpose

3. Senses play an important role

4. Strong vocabulary to include verbs, specific nouns, descriptive adjectives.

5. Uses simile's, metaphors, or personification (poetic language)

6. Uses unique literary devices to help visualize what the writer or focus of the poem saw or felt

7. Uses Rhythm, repetitions, alliteration (poetic devices)

8. Uses punctuation to bring ideas across in their poems

# RESEARCH PAPER

## PROCEDURE FOR WRITING A RESEARCH PAPER

Alton L. Raygor
University of Minnesota
**A research paper is primarily a record of intelligent reading in several sources on a particular subject. The task of writing such is not as formidable as it seems if it is thought out in advance as a definite procedure with systematic perpetration.**

**The procedure for writing such a report consists of the following steps**:

1. Choosing a subject
2. Finding sources of materials
3. Gathering the notes
4. Outlining the paper
5. Writing the first draft
6. Editing the paper

## Paper Format

1. Random Lake has adopted the MLA format for writing research papers.  The preparation of papers and manuscripts in MLA style is covered in chapter four of the MLA Handbook, and chapter four of the MLA Style Manual.  Below are some basic guidelines for formatting a paper in MLA style.

2. Type your paper on a computer and print it out on standard, white 8.5 x 11-inch paper.

3. Double-space the text of your paper, and use a legible font, preferably Times New Roman, 12- point font.

4. Leave only one space after periods or other punctuation marks (unless otherwise instructed by your instructor).

5. Set the margins of your document to one inch on all sides.  Indent the first line of a paragraph one half-inch (five space or press tab once) from the left margin.

6. Create a header that numbers all pages consecutively in the upper right-hand corner, one-half inch from the top and flush with the right margin.  (Note:  Your instructor may ask that you omit the number on your first page.  Always follow your instructor's guidelines.)

7. Use either italics or underlining throughout your essay for the titles of longer works and, only when absolutely necessary, providing emphasis.

8. If you have any endnotes, include them on a separate page before your Works Cited page.

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

## Formatting the First Page of Your Paper

1. Do not make a title page for your paper unless specifically requested.

2. In the upper left-hand corner of the first page, list your name, your instructor's name, the course, and the date.

3. Double space and center the title. Don't underline your title or put it is quotation marks; write the title in Title Case, not in all capital letters.

4. Use quotation marks and underlining or italics when referring to other works in your title, just as you would in your text. For example, *Fear and Loathing in Las Vegas* as Morality Play or Human Weariness in "After Apple Picking."

5. Double space between the title and the first line of the text.

6. Create a header in the upper right-hand corner that includes your last name, followed by a space with a page number; number all pages consecutively with Arabic numerals (1,2,3,4, etc.), one-half inch from the top and flush with the right margin. (Note: Your insgtructor or other readers may ask that you omit last name/page number header on your first page. Always follow their guidelines.)

The following is a sample of a first page in MLA Style:

---

Pete Smith                                                    English 101
Dr. B. Boilermaker                                      October 12, 2005


**Building a Dream:  Reasons to Expand Ross-Aide Stadium**

During the 2000 football season, the Purdue Boilermakers won the Big Ten Conference

Title, earned their first trip to the Rose Bowl in thirty-four years, and played every game in front of

a sold-out crowd.  Looking ahead . . .

---

Print Literacy

# Works Cited Page:  Basic Format

According to MLA style, you must have a Works Cited page at the end of your research paper. All entries in the Works Cited page must correspond to the works cited in your main text.

# Basic Rules

1. Begin your Works Cited page on a separate page at the end of your research paper.  It should have the same one-inch margins and last name, page number header as the rest of your paper.

2. Label the page Works Cited (do not underline the words Works Cited or put them in quotation marks) and center the words Works Cited at the top of the page.

3. Double space all citations, but do not skip spaces between entries.

4. Begin each entry flush with the left margin.  If the entry runs more than one line, indent additional lines one-half inch (five spaces).

5. List each entry alphabetically by the author's last name.  If there is no author, use the first word of the title (disregard *A, An,* and *The*).

6. List page numbers of sources accurately.  If you refer to a journal article that appeared on pages 223 through 225, list the page numbers on your Works Cited page as 223-225.

7. If you're citing an article or a publication that was originally issued in print form but that you retrieved from an online database, you should provide enough information so that the reader can locate the article either in its original print form or retrieve it from the online database.

8. Do not underline the title of a book, magazine, or reference material unless handwriting. Reference material is italicized when placed in a typed works cited page.

# Capitalization and Punctuation

1. Capitalize each word in the titles of articles, books, etc. but do not capitalize articles, short prepositions, or conjunctions unless one is the first word of the title or subtitle:  *Gone with the Wind, The Art of War, There Is Nothing Left to Lose.*

2. Use italics or underlining for titles of larger works (books, magazines) and quotation marks for titles of shorter works (poems, articles).

## Source Examples

### Book with One Author

First or single author's name is written last name, first name, The basic form for a book citation is:

Last name, First name.  *Title of Book*.  Place of Publication:  Publisher, Year of

Publication.

A basic entry for a book would be as follows:

Guillermo, Kathy Snow.  *Monkey Business*. Washington, DC:

National Press Books, 2006**.**

### Book with Two or Three Authors

Bystydzienski, Jill M., and Estelle P. Resnik.  *Women in Cross-Cultural Transitions*.

Bloomington, IN:  Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1994.

### Book with More Than Three Authors

Marine, April, et al.  *Internet:  Getting Started*.  Englewood Cliffs, NJ:  PTR Prentice Hall, 1994.

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Bystydzienski, Jill M., and Estelle P. Resnik.  *Women in Cross-Cultural Transitions*.

Bloomington, IN:  Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1994.

### Book with More Than Three Authors

Marine, April, et al.  *Internet:  Getting Started.*  Englewood Cliffs, NJ:  PTR Prentice Hall, 1994.

### A Multi-volume Work

Ziegler, Alan.  *The Writing Workshop*.  Vol. 2 New York:  Teachers and Writers, 2005.

### An Article in a Reference Book

It is not necessary to give full publication information for familiar reference works (encyclopedias and dictionaries).  For these titles, list only the edition (if available) and the publication year.

"Multi-tasking."  Jargon:  *An Information Dictionary of Computer Terms*.  2000 ed.

"Technical Education."  *Encyclopedia Americana*.  200 ed.

Lum, P. Andrea.  "Computerized Tomography."  *World Book*.  2006 ed.

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

## Signed Article in a Magazine

A basic entry for a periodical (a magazine) would be as follows:

Murr, Andrew.  "The High Cost of Defense."

*Newsweek* 21 Mar. 2005: 70.

## Signed Newspaper Article

Bleakley, Fred R.  "Companies' Profits Grew 49% Despite Economy."  *Wall Street Journal* 1 May

2004, Midwest ed.: 1.

## Anthology or Collection

List by editor or editors, followed by a comma and "ed." Or, for multiple editors, "eds."

Hill, Charles A. and Marguerite Helmers, eds.  *Defining Visual Rhetorics.*  Mahwah, NJ:

Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2004.

Anthologies may include an essay in an edited collection or anthology, or a chapter of a book.
This may include a Literature Textbook.

Last name, First name.  "Title of Essay."  *Title of Collection.*  Ed.  Editor's Name(s).  Place of

Publication:  Publisher, Year. Pages.

Harris, Muriel.  "Talk to me:  Engaging Reluctant Writers."  *A Tutor's Guide:  Helping Writers One*

*to One.*  Ed.  Ben Rafoth.  Portsmouth, NH:  Heinemann, 2000.  24-34.

## Works Cited:  Television Programs, Radio Program, or Music Video

The basic format for citing television productions includes title, director's name, and the name of
one or two leading performers.  Include the broadcast network and release date.  If you're
working from a video or DVD, include the word "Videocassette" or "DVD," followed by the release
date of the video.  Note the city where the program was aired.

Example:

Audioslave.  "Doesn't Remind Me."  *Out of Exile.*  Interscope, 2005.  Music Video.
[author.]              ["program title."]              [series title.]  [production company, year.]  [format.]

"War Against Iraq Begins."  Perfs Peter Jennings, Ted Koppel.  Nightline.  ABC.  KGO,

San Francisco, 16 Jan. 1991.

## Works Cited:  Film, Video, and Online Media

Include the following elements in the following order:

- Video or Film Title (underlined)
- Series Title (in parentheses)
- Director/Filmmaker OR Personal Producer OR Corporate/Institutional Producer.
- Key Actors or other Key Performers.
- Version, release, or other information
- Format.  (Film, Video, DVD, Videodisc, Note:  List the format you watched).
- Studio Name OR Production Company OR Distributor.
- Original Productino/Release Date.

Example:

> *Citizen Kane*.  Dir. Orson Welles. Perfs. Orson Welles, Joseph Cotton, Film.  RKO Radio
>
> Pictures, 1941.

## Works Cited:  Electronic Sources

The MLA Style Manual provides some examples of electronic source citations in chapter six.  If your particular source is not covered here, use the basic forms to determine the correct format, consult the MLA Handbook, or talk to your instructor.

## Tips on Handling Electronic Sources

Maintain personal copies of electronic information, when possible.  Print or save Web pages or, better, using a program like Adobe Acrobat, keep your own copies for future reference.  Most Web browsers will include URL/electronic address information when you print, which makes later reference easy.

## Basic Style for Citations of Electronic Sources

The following are some common features to include when citing electronic sources in MLA style. Include as much information as available:

- Author and/or editor names
- Name of the database, or title of project, book article
- Any version numbers available
- Date of version, revision, or posting
- Publisher information
- Date you accessed the material
- Electronic address, printed between

<u>Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines</u>

### An Entire Web Site

Basic format:

*Name of Site.*  Date of Posting/Revision.  Name of the institution/organization affiliated with the

site (sometimes found in copyright statements).  Date you accessed the site <electronic

address>.

It is necessary to list your date of access because web postings are often updated, and information abailable on one date may no longer be available later.  Be sure to include the complete address for the site.

Example:

*The Purdue OWL Family of Sites.*  26 Aug. 2005.  The Writing Lab and OWL at Purdue and

Purdue University.  23 April 2006

http://owl.english.purdue.edu/.

### Web Site (Professional)

ESPN. Com. 12 Nov. 1999 ESPN Internet Ventures. 24 Nov. 1999

<http://espn.go.com>.

### Article Within a Web Site

Devitt, Terry.  "Flying High."  The Why Files.  9 Dec. 1999.

University of Wisconsin.  Board of Regents.  4 Jan.  2000

<http://whyfiles.news.wisc.edu/shorties/kits.html>.

### E-Mail or Other Personal Communication

Example:

Author.  "Title of the message (if any)."  E-mail to person's name.  Date of the message.

This same format may be used for personal interviews or personal letters.  These do not have titles, and the description should by appropriate.  Instead of "Email to John Smith," you would have "Personal interview."

### When Citation is not Needed

Common Sense and ethics should determine your need for documenting sources. You do not need to give sources for familiar proverbs, well-known quotations or common knowledge.

Remember, this is a rhetorical choice, based on audience. If you're writing for an expert audience of a scholarly journal, they'll have different expectations of what constitutes common knowledge.

## Plagiarism

Most research draws on the information and ideas of others. Credit each source of direct quotations, paraphrases, and visuals. Proper documentation ensures the professional requirements for ethics and authority.

Documentation is a matter of *ethics* because the writer of an idea deserves the credit. All published material is protected by copyright laws. Failure to credit your source could make you liable to a charge of plagiarism, even if you didn't realize your error.

Documentation is also a matter of *authority*. In a claim you make ("A BMW is a better car than a Honda Civic") you invite challenge: "Says who?" Data on road tests, frequency of repairs, resale value, workmanship, and own comments can help validate your claim by showing its basis is fact.

Document any source where you have quoted words or borrowed facts and ideas that cannot be seen as common knowledge (or general information) in that field. Follow the tips below to aid you when citing sources:

1. In quoting, copy the statement word for word and place quotation marks around all directly quoted material, even a phrase or a word used in a special way.

2. In quoting any sections of a sentence or paragraph, use an ellipsis-three dots (…) indicating that words have been left out of a sentence.

3. When quoting the first part of a sentence or the last part of a sentence or one or more sentences or paragraphs, use four dots (….):

    If you quote only sections … use an ellipsis….

4. When using your own comments within the quotation, place brackets around them to distinguish your words from the author's:

    "This job [aircraft ground controller] requires exhaustive attention."

5. Introduce quotes, and integrate them with your own sentences by using phrases such as "Jones argues," "Smith agrees," or "Brown suggests."

6.  Include quotations so that your sentences are grammatically correct:

    "The agricultural crises," Marx acknowledges, "resulted primarily from unchecked land speculation."

    OR

    "She has rejuvenated the industrial economy," Smith writes of Berry's term as economic adviser.

# In-Text Citations:  Author-Page Style

MLA format follows the author-page method of in-text citation.  This means that the author's last name and the page number(s) from which the quotation or paraphrase is taken must appear in the text, and a complete reference should appear on your Works Cited page.  The author's name may appear either in the sentence itself or in parentheses following the quotation or paraphrase, but the page number(s) should always appear in the parentheses, not in the text of your sentence.

Example:

    Wordsworth stated that Romantic poetry was marked by a "spontaneous overflow of

        powerful feelings" (263).

    Romantic poetry is characterized by the "spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings"

        (Wordsworth 263).

    Wordsworth extensively explored the role of emotion in the creative process (263).

The citation, both (263) and (Wordsworth 263), tells readers that the information in the sentence can be located on page 263 of a work by an author named Wordsworth.  If readers want more information about this source, they can turn the Works Cited page, where, under the name of Wordsworth, they would find the following information:

    Wordsworth, William.  Lyrical Ballads.  London:  Oxford U.P., 1967.

# Formatting Quotations

When you directly quote the works of others in your paper, you will format quotations differently depending on their length.  Below are some basic guidelines for incorporating quotations into your paper.

## Short Quotations

To indicate short quotations (fewer than four typed lines of prose or three lines of verse) in your text, enclose the quotation within double quotation marks.  Provide the author and specific page

citation (in the case of verse, provide line numbers) in the text, and include a complete reference on the Works Cited page.

Example:

> According to some, dreams express "profound aspects of personality" (Foulkes (184), though others disagree.

> According to Foulkes's study, dreams may express "profound aspects of personality" (184).

> Is it possible that dreams may express "profound aspects of personality" (Foulkes 184)?

### Long Quotations

Place quotations longer than four typed lines in a free-standing block of text, and omit quotations marks.  Start the quotation on a new line, with the entire quote indented one inch from the left margin; maintain double-spacing.  Only indent the first line of the quotation by a half-inch if you are citing multiple paragraphs.  Your citation should come after the closing punctuation mark.

Example:

> They entirely refused to have it in bed with them, or even in their room, and I had no more sense, so, I put it on the landing of the stairs, hoping it would be gone on the morrow.  By chance, or else attracted by hearing his voice, it crept to Mr. Earnshaw's door, and there found it on quitting his chamber. (Bronte 78)

## Adding or Omitting Words In Quotations

If you add a word or words in a quotation, you should put brackets around the words to indicate that they are not part of the original text.

> Jan Harold Brunvand, in an essay on urban legends, states:  "some individuals [who retell urban legends] make a point of learning every rumor or tale: (78).

If you omit a word or words from a quotation, you should indicate the deleted word or words by using ellipsis marks, which are three periods (…) preceded and followed by a space.  For example:

> In an essay on urban legends, Jan Harold Brunvand notes that "some individuals make a point of learning every recent rumor or tale … and in a short time a lively exchange of details occurs" (78).

# SCRIPT WRITING

## How to Write a Script

Writing a script is a challenging and rewarding exercise.

### Steps

1. Choose a general idea of what you want to happen, the plot. Have a direction to head in before you start writing the actual script.

2. Create at least one character to begin with. Some writers have to develop things as they go, while others have to have a ready supply before they can do anything. Find your method and work with it.

3. Skip lines between one character speaking and a different one speaking, especially if you're handwriting it. You may even want to skip a line even if you haven't changed speakers to add in notes later.

http://wiki.ehow.com/Write-a-Script

# TECHNICAL WRITING

## Characteristics of Effective Technical Writing

Technical writing usually requires action, follow-up, dialog, or input from the audience. Therefore, effective technical writing is clear, accurate, and correct. Because technical writing is seldom read from beginning to end, like a novel generally is, the various sections must be easily accessible and well organized. And while technical writing needs to be comprehensive, it is also concise and carefully worded.

- **Clear**—is easily understood by the intended audience without ambiguities.

- **Accurate**—is factual, correct, free from bias.

- **Correct**—follows both grammatical and technical conventions.

- **Comprehensive**—contains all necessary information.

- **Concise**—is clear and complete without excess or redundant verbiage.

- **Accessible—**includes headings and subheads, indexes, and table of contents.

# VISUAL COMMUNICATION

Visual communication is an additional way for teachers to teach writing through the use of comics, cartoons, and graphic novels.

## Using Comics to Teach Writing

Comic book writing is just as challenging, interesting, difficult, and rewarding as writing a play, a poem, a novel, or a movie. But just as those media have certain rules that proceed from their forms, so, too, do comics.

# National History Day (NHD) Writing Guidelines

# Random Lake School District Writing Guidelines

**What is a process paper?**

    A process paper is a three part document that includes a description called the process essay of <u>no more than 500 words</u> explaining how you conducted your research and created and developed your entry as well as your title and all pertinent bibliographical information.

**What is the process paper used for?**

    At an NHD contest, you provide a copy of your process paper for each of the judges (unless you are a historical paper participant) that they then read at the beginning of their interview in order to get basic ideas about your research and exhibit preparation.

**Do contestants in the paper category have to write a process paper?**

    NO, but they do need to complete a title page and bibliography.  They must also be sure to cite all sources within the text of their papers and include the appropriate notes.

**What are the main parts of a process paper?**

    The process paper includes three main parts:
1. a title page
2. the process essay
3. the annotated bibliography

**What should the title page look like?**

    The title page should <u>never</u> contain images or pictures.  You can use any readable font you choose in any color… but remember this page is about giving BASIC INFORMATION not for WOWING the judges with your creativity.  The title page should include three simple pieces of information:

1. The title of your project
2. Your name or the names of everyone in the group
3. Your division, group type, and project type…(use the underlined words)
   - Division-Junior Division=Middle School or Senior Division=High School
   - Group Type-Individual=working by yourself or Group=working with two or more.
   - Project type-Documentary=films, Exhibits=Displays, Performances=plays, etc., Websit=computer based web page

So for example, if you are a freshman group of students making a display, you would label it…

<div align="center">
Senior Division<br>
Group Exhibit
</div>

**What do I write about in the process essay?**

Process essays should provide the following information… always in paragraph form with complete sentences:

1. The first section should explain how you chose your topic.
2. The second section should explain how specifically you conducted your research.
3. The third section should explain how you selected your category and created your project.
4. The fourth section should explain clearly how your project relates to the NHD theme.

**Does it matter if my process essay isn't 500 words long?**

Not really, as long as it effectively addresses the four sections above.

**What is the most important part of the process essay?**

Generally, the fourth section!!!  You must conclude your description with an explanation of the relationship of your topic to the contest theme.  This should introduce the judges to your theses and leave it as the last thing in their mind before they examine your project.

**What do you mean generally the fourth?**

Sometimes students have particularly good stories about why they chose their topic or did their research… Is there a family connection?  Did you travel?  Did you do unique research?  etc.  In these cases, the first three sections may deserve the benefit from more attention, but generally the answer for section one is something like… we found it interesting.  Not too exciting.

**What format does my bibliography/works cited have to be in?**

The most common citation method is the MLA method that is detailed in this book.  However, the Chicago/Turabian method is also acceptable for NHD.  There are many resources available to guide you through the proper format.

**Should I separate primary and secondary sources in my works cited page?**

It is not a requirement of the contest, but it is highly suggested that you do this, it is extremely important to use as much primary source material as possible and this is one why to highlight it.  At Random Lake, we require you to separate this in your works cited if you are going on to regionals.

**How many sources should my works cited have?**

This is impossible to answer!  It depends on your subject and the availability of resources.  But in general:  More is better, if you can find it, get it and use it.  You should strive for a mix of sources:  primary and secondary, print and electronic, new and old, simple and complex, popular and scholarly.  There are works cited that are several pages long and more, especially at the higher levels of competition.  A solid works cited is critical to success on your project and in the contests.

**Do I have to annotate my works cited?  What does that mean?**

Yes, you do have to!!!  Annotations are clear descriptions of each source assisted you in gathering information to produce your final project.  They must accompany each source and must be written in complete sentences.  They are part of the citation so DO NOT skip a line before composing your annotation.

**What are the most common errors on MLA works cited?**
1. Be sure to list sources in alphabetical order
2. Be sure to indent all lines after the first, including annotations
3. Be sure to use proper form
4. Be sure to list and annotate ALL sources, this includes picture credits for exhibits and documentaries!
5. Be sure to list full annotations for websites, not just web addresses!

# Works Cited Page

Follow the MLA guidelines below when developing an annotated bibliography/works cited page for NHD.

1. Double-space the entire works cited page.

2. If the entry is longer than one line, indent all preceding lines for that particular entry by five spaces. This is called a hanging indent style.

3. List author's name first (if listed), followed by name of article, reference material, publisher, and date. (See bibliography section for exact details).

4. Underline all reference material.

5. Begin Annotation on a separate line following specific entry.

6. Alphabetize all entries.

Follow examples below:

**Primary Sources**

Commager, Henry Steele, ed. *Documents of American History.* New York: Meredith

Corporation, 1968.

Two important documents were used: part of Jefferson's letter to Livingston, America's

minister to France, with instructions for negotiating the purchase of new Orleans and the

Floridas; and the treaty between France and the United States for the purchase of the

Louisiana Territory. Both of these documents were placed on the project.

Message of President Thomas Jefferson concerning the cession of the province of Louisiana to

the United States, *Congress-Senate Records.* Record Group 46; National Archives

Building, Washington, D.C. [Online version on August 16, 2001], available through the

online catalog at *http://www.nara.gov/nara/nail.html]* I used Jefferson's address to

Congress to understand the dynamics that existed between the executive and legislative branch in response to the Louisiana Purchase.

**Secondary Sources**

DeConde, Alexander. *A History of American Foreign Policy*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1963.

The author discussed Jefferson's policies regarding U.S. relationships with Spain, France, and England during 1800-1803. This helped me to understand Jefferson's third annual message of October 17, 1803. I used a quote from this author in a caption.

Edwards, Mike W. "Thomas Jefferson," *National Geographic*, February 1976.

This article is a pictorial overview of Jefferson's life with a brief mention of the conflict and compromise of the Constitution about acquiring property. I used three pictures from this article for my display.

Stokes, George. "Louisiana," *The World Book Encyclopedia*, 1981, Vol. 10.

This article was useful for the history of Louisiana. A timeline of the important events was developed from this article and placed on the project.
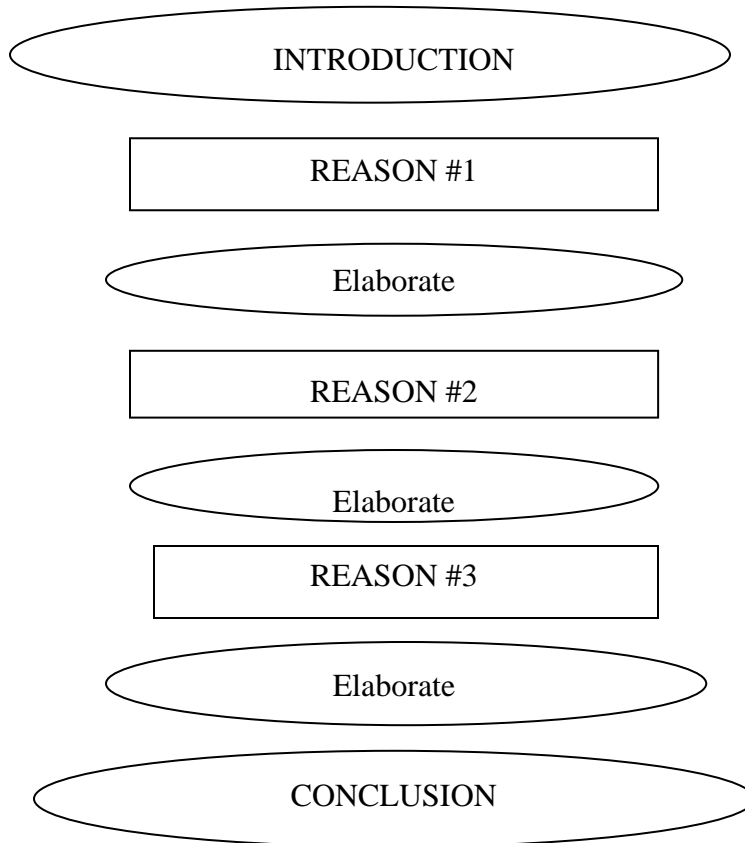
"Thomas Jefferson." *The White House*. *http://www.whitehouse.gov/history/presidents/tj3.html*

This Web page was part of The White House Web site. It contained a brief biography on Thomas Jefferson, which provided me with an overview of Jefferson's accomplishments.

# Appendix A

## Hamburger Method

Follow the diagram below when following the hamburger method to write an essay. This method can be used when writing a paragraph or when writing a longer essay.

INTRODUCTION

REASON #1

Elaborate

REASON #2

Elaborate

REASON #3

Elaborate

CONCLUSION

## Works Cited

*Fundamental Writing Skills and Deluxe Correspondence Guidelines*.  Glendale, WI:  Deluxe Data

    Systems, Inc., 1992.

Kunka, Jennifer Liethen and Joe Barbato.  *OWL Resource MLA Formatting and Style Guide*

    http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource

Lannon, John M.  *Technical Writing*.  Glenview, Illinois:  Scott, Foresman and Company, 1988.

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

Sebranek, Patrick, et al.  *School to Work*.  Wilmington, MA:  D.C. Heath and Company, 1996.

http://wiki.ehow.com/Write-a-Script

Kemper, Dave, Patrick Sebranek, and Verne Meyer.  *Write Source*. Wilmington, MA:  Great Source

    Education Group, 2007.