



The Hochman Method

*Strategies for Effective
Writing Instruction*

Judith C. Hochman

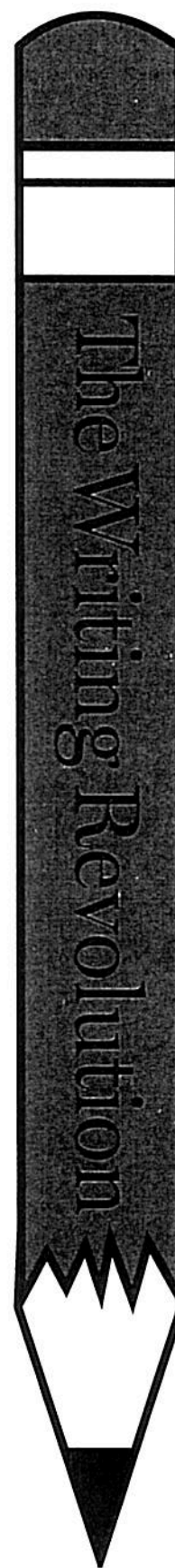
Dedication

To Steve: Thank you for years of patience, wisdom, encouragement, and advice.

To my children and grandchildren, who are constant sources of joy and inspiration.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank the many administrators, teachers, and students who taught me so much as they implemented the strategies in this writing curriculum over the years. Their suggestions and good practices are responsible for the success of *The Hochman Method*. Betsy Duffy, Director of Language arts at The Windward School, contributed countless contributions including research reviews and writing activities. Dr. Jay Russell, Head of The Windward School and Sandra Schwarz and the staff of The Windward Teacher Training Institute helped to further the work of *The Writing Révolution* in classrooms for both students and teachers. Deirdre DiAngelis, Principal of New Dorp High School, Staten Island, N.Y., Dina Zoleo, Assistant Principal and Toni Ann Vroom, Writing Coordinator and their staff demonstrated the tremendous effect that this program's strategies have on the writing of their students.



About the Author

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Contents

Introduction	1
The Challenge of Learning to Write	1
The Role of Executive Functions	2
Effective Writing Instruction	3
How to Use This Manual	4
Sentences	4
Paragraphs and Compositions	5
Instructional Guidelines	6
 Section 1: Sentences	 8
Sentence Goals	10
1.1 Sentences and Fragments	12
Examples 1.1A to 1.1C	
1.2 Scrambled Sentences	14
Example 1.2A	
1.3 Sentence Types	15
Examples 1.3A to 1.3G	
1.4 Questions	18
Examples 1.4A to 1.4E	
1.5 Phrases and Clauses	22
Example 1.5A	
1.6 Conjunctions	22
Examples 1.6A to 1.6D	
<i>Resource 1.6: Sentence Starters</i>	26
1.7 Sentence Combining	27
Example 1.7A	
1.8 Run-on Sentences	28
Examples 1.8A to 1.8B	
1.9 Sentence Expansion	30
<i>Resource 1.9: Sentences for Expansion</i>	31
Examples 1.9A to 1.9F	
1.10 Summarizing	37
Examples 1.10A to 1.10C	
1.11 Grammar and Usage	39
Subjects and Predicates	39
Examples 1.11A to 1.11E	
Punctuation and Capitalization	42
Examples 1.11F to 1.11G	
Number and Tense Agreement	43
Examples 1.11H to 1.11K	

Word Substitution	45
Examples 1.11L to 1.11U	
Active and Passive Voice	51
Example 1.11V	

Section 2: Paragraphs and Compositions.	52
Paragraph and Composition Goals	54
2.1 Planning	56
Expository Writing	56
Compare-and-Contrast Writing	56
Narrative Writing	57
Descriptive Writing	58
Persuasive Writing	58
<i>Resource 2.1: Topics for Writing Assignments</i>	60
Example 2.1A	
2.2 Topic Sentences	64
<i>Resource 2.2: Sample Topic Sentences.</i>	65
Examples 2.2A to 2.2F	
2.3 Outlines: An Overview	71
Examples 2.3A to 2.3B	
2.4 The Quick Outline	74
Examples 2.4A to 2.4K	
2.5 The Transition Outline	86
Examples 2.5A to 2.5C	
2.6 The Multiple Paragraph Outline	91
<i>Resource 2.6: Categories for Organizing an MPO,</i> <i>by Assignment Type</i>	93
Example 2.6A	
2.7 Introductions.	96
Examples 2.7A to 2.7E	
2.8 Conclusions	100
Example 2.8A	
2.9 Writing Drafts	101
<i>Resource 2.9: Writing Activity Suggestions</i>	102
2.10 Revising and Editing	103
Examples 2.10A to 2.10D	
Transitions	107
<i>Resource 2.10: Transition Words and Phrases</i>	108
Examples 2.10E to 2.10I	
Conjunctions	113
Listening Evaluation	113
2.11 Producing a Final Copy	114

Section 3: Writing Assessment	115
<i>Resource 3.1: Suggested Grade-Level Assessment Objectives</i>	117
Appendix	121
Template A: Expository-Writing Terms	122
Template B: The 4 Types of Conjunctions	123
Template C: Sentence Expansion with 3 Question Words	124
Template D: Sentence Expansion with 4 Question Words	125
Template E: Symbols and Abbreviations for Outlining	126
Template F: Quick Outline	127
Template G: Quick Outline—Book Report	128
Template H: Sentence Summary	129
Template H-A: Article Summary	130
Template I: Transition Outline (2 Paragraphs)	131
Template I-A: Transition Outline (3 Paragraphs)	132
Template J: Multiple Paragraph Outline (3 Paragraphs)	133
Template K: Multiple Paragraph Outline (4 Paragraphs)	134
Template L: Multiple Paragraph Outline (5 Paragraphs)	135
Template M: Multiple Paragraph Outline—Book Report	136
Template N: Revise and Edit Checklist	137
Template O: Proofreading Symbols	138
Template P: Listening Evaluation Checklist	139
Glossary	141
References	145

Introduction

The Hochman Method is a guide for teachers who want to help students of all grades and abilities develop expository-writing skills. The goals and activities in this manual were developed to provide systematic instruction in fundamental writing and can be adapted successfully for large classes, small groups, and tutorials. Moreover, since the activities in *The Hochman Method* represent a range of levels of difficulty, teachers can provide differentiation for individual students within a class. The program can be used across all grades, in every content area, and with mainstream as well as remedial students.

As students move through the grades, most of their assignments require expository writing, writing that explains or informs. In life, as in school, most required writing is expository. Therefore, students must learn to summarize, justify, persuade, enumerate, discuss, and so on. Older students have to analyze and synthesize information from articles, lectures, textbooks, and literature. **Template A**, in the appendix, illustrates the wide array of types of expository writing that students must master.

The Challenge of Learning to Write

Many people with excellent reading and speaking skills struggle with writing. The problems typical learners may experience are magnified for less-proficient learners. These students' difficulties with decoding, spelling, word retrieval, and syntax are often exacerbated by a deficient vocabulary and limited knowledge of the subject matter. These obstacles significantly compromise their capacity for comprehension and clear, accurate communication.

Writing is the most challenging skill to teach and to learn. Its demands on students' grapho-motor skills, cognitive and linguistic abilities, and awareness of text and social conventions pose problems for many. When we write, we have to clarify our thoughts and express ourselves with far more precision, accuracy, and clarity than when we are speaking. Facial expressions, gestures, and prior knowledge provide a speaker with information about his or her audience, but a writer lacks these cues. As a result,



writing requires a high level of abstraction, elaboration, and reflection. In literate societies, writing is considered to be the highest-level cognitive and intellectual achievement.

Unfortunately, assigning lots of writing activities and providing exposure to good writing do not necessarily produce capable writers. Direct, explicit instruction is the key to developing good writing skills.

Creative writing activities, which center on self-expression rather than communication, often dominate elementary school writing programs. With minimal guidance, students receive writing assignments such as imaginative stories, poems, journal entries, and subjective impressions. Activities of this kind depart from direct instruction on how to write. Students must learn to write effective sentences and paragraphs before they can competently experiment with creative writing forms and styles.

Writing can take many forms. It can serve simply as a means of transcription, or it can demonstrate knowledge, communicate, and facilitate learning (Scott, 1999, 2005). Ultimately, most writing serves two primary functions: It is either knowledge-telling or knowledge-transforming (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987).

Writing that is knowledge-telling is often, but not exclusively, a narrative recounting. Many students function at this level. To them, writing consists of nothing more than listing what they hope is relevant information. As these students grow older, the amount of information available to them renders them unable to plan, prioritize, classify, organize, or efficiently and effectively set goals for their writing.

Writing that is knowledge-transforming requires much higher-level thought processes. It empowers students to communicate clearly throughout—and beyond—their educational career. It enables the writer to formulate ideas, synthesize and analyze information, persuade, and solve problems. Knowledge-transforming writing interprets data and uses it to achieve a purpose. At its best, this is the high-level writing employed by graduate students, editorial writers, essayists, and contributors to professional journals. However, it is not the exclusive domain of these practitioners. Every student should have the opportunity to become a writer who can transform knowledge.

The Role of Executive Functions

Executive functions are cognitive processes that have a great impact on writing because they affect all aspects of memory, attention, and language. These functions enable a person to analyze situations, plan and take action, focus and monitor attention, and adjust actions as needed to complete a task. A person must have an understanding of how to access his or her knowledge and skills and stay motivated to accomplish goals (Horowitz, 2007). The executive functions play an enormous role in writing, especially when completing academic, professional, or business-related assignments. These functions affect a writer's ability to plan, organize, monitor, and revise text (Singer & Bashir, 2004). The writer must:

- strategize (select a topic);
- initiate a series of actions (gather information);

- plan approaches (outline);
- organize approaches (sequence information for narratives, compare/contrast, or persuasive writing);
- inhibit and monitor diversions;
- sustain task and effort;
- monitor and assess outcomes against plans; and
- institute needed changes.

Each of these steps requires selective attention, sustained and divided attention, span of attention, and the ability to shift attention (Singer & Bashir, 2004).

In addition, the demands of the writing process on working memory, a manipulative function that allows the management of multiple features and simultaneous processing, are enormous. Writers must think about meaning, purpose, audience, syntax, and semantics. They have to plan ahead, as well as sequence and organize information.

Many students have weak organizational skills. They lack the ability to distinguish essential from nonessential information and to set forth ideas in logical order. As they try to formulate outlines or generate coherent paragraphs and compositions, frustrating problems arise.

Competent writers focus on their topic, purpose, and audience as they plan a composition and organize the information it will present. These complex tasks call for processing at higher cognitive levels than other instructional areas require. In addition, older students are often called upon to demonstrate comprehension by paraphrasing or summarizing linguistically complex texts or passages that contain a great deal of factual information.

Effective Writing Instruction

Some educators believe that the teaching of written-language skills should be delayed until students master decoding, spelling, and handwriting. Other evidence points to the value of early writing instruction (Wong & Berninger, 2004). Students in the primary grades benefit when their teachers combine the instruction of writing with reading, spelling, and handwriting lessons. For example, students can write original sentences using their spelling words or to develop their own questions about reading materials. Those who are not taught specific writing strategies early in their education may develop communication problems, which can persist and hamper them as adults, personally, vocationally, and academically (Scott, 1989a, p. 261). Nevertheless, many young students receive little, if any, explicit instruction in written communication. Reading disabilities receive far more attention than writing problems (Scott, 1989b, p. 303). Too often, teachers incorrectly assume that good readers will naturally become good writers.

A sound writing curriculum stresses narrative- and expository-writing skills, with an emphasis on the latter. Because teachers have limited time for such instruction, *The Hochman Method* focuses on forming a solid foundation in the skills most needed for school assignments. Its approach assumes that writing and thinking are tightly linked, and so writing instruction should, above all, help students enhance clarity and precision

in the structuring of their ideas. Writing is the final, common pathway of cognition and language (Scott, 1999, 2005). A good writer must bring to bear a command of linguistic knowledge, world knowledge, and social cognition (an understanding of, and an empathy for, the audience). Thought and organization are the characteristics that separate strong expository writing from weak. That is why *The Hochman Method* is as much about the organization of a writer's thinking as it is about writing itself.

The two primary goals of this program are to raise the linguistic complexity of students' sentences and to improve the organization of their compositions. Students who have been exposed to *The Hochman Method* strategies are likely to display greater clarity in their written and oral language. Their communication often exhibits enhanced complexity and coherence, and their reading comprehension can show improvement. In addition, the organizational skills introduced in *The Hochman Method* can translate into better study skills, as students apply the paraphrasing, note-taking, outlining, and summarizing strategies they have learned.

How to Use This Manual

The Hochman Method is built upon instructional guidelines that emphasize expository writing for all content areas. The program presents goals, strategies, and activities for writing sentences, paragraphs, and compositions. You can apply these strategies systematically, during structured writing instruction time, or you can integrate the strategies into instruction of other content areas. Expository writing is an essential skill in every school subject. Even math students are expected to write clearly and in an organized way about the processes they use to solve problems.

The Hochman Method provides many opportunities for individual differentiation within classrooms and grade levels to accommodate students' unique abilities. You can use the book's many examples to demonstrate different aspects of writing in the classroom and to develop independent assignments for students. Reinforcement is built into the book's strategies.

Two sections make up most of the book: **Section 1: Sentences** and **Section 2: Paragraphs and Compositions**. Each begins with a goals checklist, followed by instruction and activities designed to help you teach what students need to know to achieve the listed goals. You can use the goals to set instructional priorities and to assess students' progress.

Sentences

Section 1: Sentences is designed to help students fully understand the purpose and structure of a sentence and develop the ability to compose complex sentences that reflect extended thinking. The section addresses some basic principles of grammar and encourages students to elaborate on short sentences and to summarize longer works. Teachers should introduce these sentence strategies as oral activities in the primary grades. The section's activities teach students to:

- distinguish between sentences and sentence fragments;

- sequence words correctly in scrambled sentences;
- identify a sentence's type;
- develop questions;
- use coordinating and subordinating conjunctions;
- combine multiple sentences into one;
- expand sentences;
- summarize;
- understand the parts of speech and use them correctly in writing activities; and
- add and move phrases and clauses within a sentence.

This section provides examples that can be adapted for all grade levels and content areas. For example, in learning to use conjunctions, young students could be asked to complete the following sentences, orally or in writing:

- The teacher was happy because . . .
- The teacher was happy, but . . .
- The teacher was happy, so . . .

The same strategy could work with older students, using a more advanced topic for the sentences:

- Fractions are like decimals because . . .
- Fractions are like decimals, but . . .
- Fractions are like decimals, so . . .

Each activity in **Section 1: Sentences** strengthens students' ability to express complex thoughts through sentences that take a variety of forms and include an appropriate level of detail. But the sentence lessons do not need to be taught in any particular sequence. In fact, they should be taught concurrently with each other and with the lessons in **Section 2: Paragraphs and Compositions**.

Paragraphs and Compositions

Section 2: Paragraphs and Compositions starts with the development of an individual paragraph. It teaches students to write a topic sentence, then organize several additional sentences into a cohesive paragraph. After students have had lots of practice writing single paragraphs, they move on to longer compositions. For an individual paragraph, and then for longer compositions, this section teaches students to plan and outline, write a first draft, revise and edit their draft, and write a final draft for a variety of expository forms.

Unlike sentence activities, paragraph and composition activities should be carefully sequenced. First, students should learn to develop Quick Outlines on a variety of subjects and in a range of genres as a class activity, following the sequence in **2.4—The Quick Outline**. Next, students should write drafts based on Quick Outlines developed in class. For younger students, the draft can be developed as a class activity.

After they learn to write drafts of single paragraphs, students are ready to learn to revise and edit. Communicating with the reader with precision and clarity, as well as keeping the

reader interested, are the goals of revising and editing. Initially, students should improve and correct work that you provide, instead of their own writing. Assignments should be brief, and instructions and both oral and written feedback should be specific and explicit. Have students begin by revising simple, unelaborated paragraphs as a class; then in pairs; and, last, independently.

Stress that students should expand sentences for the purpose of giving the reader more information. In addition, provide opportunities to improve boring topic sentences (e.g., to transform *Here are some ways to use computers* into *Computers, necessary tools for business, are now found in most homes*). Teach students to use transition words, as described in **2.10—Revising and Editing**, and explain how and when to use subordinating conjunctions and appositives in sentences. Demonstrate how to enhance a draft by adding examples.

When students are ready to tackle longer compositions, be sure to start with topics that are familiar to the students, or assign carefully directed and structured research activities. Demonstrate and develop Transition Outlines and Multiple Paragraph Outlines as class activities. Practice outlining topics for assignments in various genres. Do not assign drafts of multiparagraph compositions until students are secure in developing all elements of the outlines (e.g., key words and phrases, abbreviations, appropriate categories, organization). Have them practice writing introductions and conclusions. Then assign students to write a separate draft of each paragraph in a composition. Have them revise and edit one paragraph at a time before moving ahead.

Some students are ready to move independently through the writing process sooner than are other students. This section's activities provide many opportunities for individual differentiation within classes in any content area. For example, some students may need more help developing topic sentences or categorizing and clustering details. Others may be able to construct an outline independently after participating in practice with the class. The Revise and Edit Checklist (**Template N** in the appendix) is beneficial for focusing both teacher and students on the key features of a composition. In addition, using the Listening Evaluation Checklist (**Template P** in the appendix) to evaluate others' work as it is read aloud is an integral part of the program.

Although the strategies in **Section 2: Paragraphs and Compositions** should be taught in a specific order, the program is most effective if students work on the sentence and paragraph activities concurrently. Sentence activities form the basis for revising and editing skills, which underpin competent writing.

Instructional Guidelines

Teaching students how to write does not follow a single, simple recipe. Your judgment as a teacher, together with an assessment of each student's writing ability, plays an important role in determining which strategies you should emphasize. The strategies in *The Hochman Method* were developed to be taught either individually or in conjunction with one another. For example, you might first ask students to summarize a news article in one sentence, then use that sentence as a topic sentence for a Quick Outline (**Template H**).

They could subsequently convert the outline into a paragraph, which they would use to practice revising and editing. You could adapt each of these activities to the abilities and content area of your students.

Students should be exposed to writing lessons from *The Hochman Method* daily, but activities need not always involve paper and pencil. On the contrary, many of the activities should be practiced orally, as a class. This is particularly important for students in the primary grades but can benefit students at all levels.

Because of the tight link between reading and writing, many teachers find that structured practice in writing linguistically complex sentences enhances reading comprehension (Gillon & Dodd, 1995). For the same reason, this program's activities for writing paragraphs and compositions help students develop better critical-thinking and study skills. At each step in *The Hochman Method*, be sure to provide explicit explanations and demonstrations of what is expected. Avoid independent assignments until students have had ample demonstrations and group activities.

Although *The Hochman Method* does not address writing assessment until the third and final section, you should collect writing samples early in the school year in order to set goals both for individual students and for the class. Review the entire manual before your first writing assessment because familiarity with all of the program's terms and strategies is essential in goal-setting.

Since many students have difficulty applying the writing skills they learn in one class to the subject matter of another class, reinforcement is important. Writing instruction is most effective when integrated into every content area and all grade levels. Students of varying abilities then have the opportunity to become better writers across the curriculum. Note, however, that it is crucial for teachers across the various subject areas and grade levels to use the same terminology when teaching writing, and to use terms in exactly the same way. All teachers using the *The Hochman Method* program should familiarize themselves with this book's Glossary and refer to the definitions therein whenever in doubt.

Students should have many opportunities to practice written communication with a specific audience other than their teacher. Interview questions, summaries, critical reviews, and business and personal letters can all be important vehicles for instruction. **Resource 2.9** provides an extensive list of possible assignments.

Although spelling, handwriting, and related skills are important, students should be encouraged to focus on developing the higher-level skills they need to write. It also helps maximize the success of grammar lessons, which are most effective when embedded in writing instruction (Graham & Perin, 2007).

The strategies in *The Hochman Method* provide students with skills they can build on as they progress through school. Each activity reinforces the others, and students can be introduced to the fundamentals of writing in any grade or subject.

Sentences

There are two reasons to spend a great deal of instructional time working with sentences. The first is to enable students to write compound and complex sentences rather than only simple, declarative ones. As students begin to construct more sophisticated sentences, they will enhance both their writing and their reading comprehension skills (Graham & Herbert, 2010). The second reason is to improve students' ability to revise and edit. Learning to refine sentences sharpens critical-thinking skills. Many activities in *The Hochman Method* emphasize sentence structure and mechanics so that students gain a heightened awareness of grammar and parts of speech as they learn to write, as opposed to learning grammar in isolation (Scott, 2002; Graham & Perin, 2007).

In order to provide an ample focus on sentences, **Section 1** of *The Hochman Method* offers a variety of sentence activities. Most should be performed both orally and in writing. Since students' abilities differ, the activities address a wide range of skills, and they are designed for easy adaptation to various levels of difficulty. Try to offer as many opportunities as possible for students to practice writing sentences, regardless of their skill level. Teach sentence-writing concurrently with paragraphs and compositions (**Section 2**). Writing sentences in varied activities will enhance reading comprehension, revision and editing, and written communications skills.

The Sentence Goals checklist isolates 42 capabilities that this section's activities target. While the goals progress on the checklist from the simple to the more complex, students will not necessarily master them in sequence. Create a writing folder for each student, and place a hard copy of the goals checklist in the folder. Have students submit a writing sample in September, then another in January, and a third in June. Evaluate each writing sample against the Sentence Goals checklist. Use a check mark in the column corresponding to the month of the writing sample to indicate that a student has attained a particular goal. If you have introduced the goal but the student has not mastered it,



write the letter *I* in the box. (For more on evaluating student writing samples, see **Section 3: Writing Assessment**.)

It is not possible to fully assess students' attainment of writing skills through writing samples alone, so be sure to also use the work students complete in this section's activities to help evaluate their proficiency in composing high-quality sentences. Consider saving the Sentence Goals checklist and the Paragraph and Composition Goals checklist (at the beginning of **Section 2**) to chart individuals' progress from year to year.

Student's Name: _____
Year: _____

Teacher's Name: _____
Grade: _____

Sentence Goals

SEP.	JAN.	JUNE

1. Distinguish between a complete sentence and a sentence fragment.
2. Convert a sentence fragment into a complete sentence.
3. Identify a fragment(s) in a given paragraph.
4. Rearrange sequences of words into a sentence, adding punctuation and capitalization.
5. Distinguish between a statement and a question.
6. Write a statement with a capital letter at the beginning.
7. Write a question with a capital letter at the beginning.
8. Change a question to a statement and vice versa.
9. Distinguish among statements, questions, exclamations, and imperatives.
10. Write a statement, question, exclamation, and imperative.
11. Given a picture or text, write one or two questions.
12. Write a question from a given response.
13. Produce test questions for a unit of study.
14. Write sentences using the conjunctions but, and, or, nor, so, yet, and for.
15. Use subordinating conjunctions in the beginning of sentences.
16. Combine two or more sentences.
17. Produce complex sentences using subordinating conjunctions.
18. Expand a sentence using two or three words, where, why, how.
19. Identify the question words (who, what, when, where, why, how) to summarize the main idea of an article, event, picture, chapter, or story in one or two sentences.
20. Identify the words in an expanded sentence.

Sentence Goals

	SEP.	JAN.	JUNE
21. Use question words (who, what, when, where, why, how) to summarize the main idea of an article, event, picture, chapter, or story in one or two sentences.			
22. Identify and correct run-on sentences.			
23. Use correct end punctuation, commas, and capitalization.			
24. Identify subjects and predicates in sentences.			
25. Identify nouns in sentences.			
26. Distinguish between proper and common nouns.			
27. Identify action verbs in sentences.			
28. Identify adjectives in sentences.			
29. Add adjectives to sentences.			
30. Write sentences using adjectives.			
31. Identify pronouns in sentences.			
32. Substitute a pronoun for a noun and vice versa.			
33. Identify adverbs in sentences.			
34. Write sentences using adverbs.			
35. Identify an appositive (noun phrase) in a sentence.			
36. Write sentences using appositives (noun phrases).			
37. Identify nouns, verbs, pronouns, and appositives.			
38. Identify prepositions.			
39. Correct number agreement in sentences.			
40. Correct tense agreement in sentences.			
41. Use varied and accurate vocabulary.			
42. Use internal punctuation correctly (commas, quotation marks, colons, and semicolons).			
43. Change a sentence from active to passive form and vice versa.			

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Student's Name: _____ Year: _____

Teacher's Name: _____ Grade: _____

Sentence Goals

	SEP.	JAN.	JUNE
1. Distinguish between a complete sentence and a sentence fragment.			
2. Convert a sentence fragment into a complete sentence.			
3. Identify a fragment(s) in a given paragraph.			
4. Rearrange sequences of words into a sentence, adding the correct punctuation and capitalization.			
5. Distinguish between a statement and a question.			
6. Write a statement with a capital letter at the beginning and a period at the end.			
7. Write a question with a capital letter at the beginning and a question mark at the end.			
8. Change a question to a statement and vice versa.			
9. Distinguish among statements, questions, exclamations, and commands, and punctuate each correctly.			
10. Write a statement, question, exclamation, and command about a given topic.			
11. Given a picture or text, write one or two questions about it.			
12. Write a question for a given response.			
13. Produce test questions for a unit of study.			
14. Write sentences using the conjunctions <i>but</i> , <i>so</i> , and <i>because</i> .			
15. Use subordinating conjunctions at the beginning or the middle of sentences.			
16. Combine two or more sentences.			
17. Produce complex sentences using sentence starters.			
18. Expand a kernel sentence using two or three of the question words: <i>who</i> , <i>what</i> , <i>when</i> , <i>where</i> , <i>why</i> , <i>how</i> .			
19. Determine whether a specified part of a sentence tells <i>who</i> , <i>what</i> , <i>when</i> , <i>where</i> , <i>why</i> , or <i>how</i> .			
20. Identify the question words (<i>who</i> , <i>what</i> , <i>when</i> , <i>where</i> , <i>why</i> , <i>how</i>) that were used to expand sentence kernels.			

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(continued)

Sentence Goals

	SEP.	JAN.	JUNE
21. Use question words (<i>who, what, when, where, why, how</i>) to summarize the main idea of an article, event, picture, chapter, or story in one or two sentences.			
22. Identify and correct run-on sentences.			
23. Use correct end punctuation, commas, and capitalization.			
24. Identify subjects and predicates in sentences.			
25. Identify nouns in sentences.			
26. Distinguish between proper and common nouns.			
27. Identify action verbs in sentences.			
28. Identify adjectives in sentences.			
29. Add adjectives to sentences.			
30. Write sentences using adjectives.			
31. Identify pronouns in sentences.			
32. Substitute a pronoun for a noun and vice versa.			
33. Identify adverbs in sentences.			
34. Write sentences using adverbs.			
35. Identify an appositive (noun phrase) in a sentence.			
36. Write sentences using appositives (noun phrases).			
37. Identify nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, and appositives.			
38. Correct number agreement in sentences.			
39. Correct tense agreement in sentences.			
40. Use varied and accurate vocabulary.			
41. Use internal punctuation correctly (commas, quotation marks, colons, and semicolons).			
42. Change a sentence from active to passive form and vice versa.			

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1.1 — Sentences and Fragments

Goals 1–3

A sentence consists of a group of words that includes a subject and a predicate and that expresses a complete thought. Young students often struggle with this concept, so they should not be expected to understand the definition of a sentence. However, they may learn to recognize complete sentences by hearing them spoken alongside sentence fragments. Use oral activities to guide students in converting fragments into sentences. For example, say to the class something like:

- *ate a great meal*

Does that tell us everything we need to know? It doesn't tell us who ate the great meal. How can we change these words into a complete sentence?

- *Robert and Jack*

We need to know what they did. Let's make this fragment into a complete sentence.

Students often use sentence fragments or incomplete sentences in spoken language, and they may continue to use them as they learn to write. Explain that writing requires far more precision than speaking. Students should be able to spot fragments in oral or written activities before attempting to correct sentence fragments in their own work. They may need lots of practice distinguishing fragments from complete sentences. When presenting examples to the class, do not begin fragments with capital letters, and do not add end punctuation. (For activities to use in teaching about subjects, predicates, and parts of speech, see **1.11—Grammar and Usage**.)

Example 1.1A

DIRECTIONS:

Change the sentence fragments into complete sentences, adding correct capitalization and punctuation.

Tim and Sally

Tim and Sally went to the store to buy candy.

ran quickly

The dog ran quickly to the house.

in an airplane

My family went to Florida in an airplane.

Note: Prepositional phrases may be more difficult to convert into sentences because they require both a subject and a predicate.

Example 1.1B

DIRECTIONS:

Write "S" if the words form a complete sentence. Capitalize and punctuate the sentences.

Write "F" if the words are a sentence fragment. Change the fragments into complete sentences.

F the sad man

The sad man sat on a mat.

S the man can nap

The man can nap.

F the man with the tan hat

The man with the tan hat ran.

S did dad pat the cat

Did Dad pat the cat?

S in 1787 leaders of the states gathered to frame the constitution

In 1787, leaders of the states gathered to frame the Constitution.

F a set of principles

A set of principles was developed that explained how the new nation would be governed.

S george washington presided over the gathering

George Washington presided over the gathering.

F wanted a strong and fair national government

The leaders of the states wanted a strong and fair national government.

Example 1.1c

DIRECTIONS:

Underline and then correct the sentence fragment in the given paragraph. Use the lines below the paragraph to write the fragment as a complete sentence.

The sky became overcast, and the rain started to come down with great intensity. A bolt of lightning flashed. Followed by a loud clap of thunder. We ran quickly to the cabin.

It was followed by a loud clap of thunder.

1.2 — Scrambled Sentences

Goals 4, 6, 7

Students should be able to rearrange jumbled sequences of words into correctly punctuated sentences. For younger or less able students, consider providing the first word of the sentence.

Note: Scrambled sentences can include statements, questions, and exclamations. Avoid using commands (as in the third example below) with younger students because the inferred subject may confuse them.

Example 1.2A

DIRECTIONS:

Rearrange the words into sentences, and add the correct punctuation and capitalization.

live did where tim

Where did Tim live?

apples we oranges bought and bananas

We bought apples, oranges, and bananas.

divided twenty-one equals by seven three

Twenty-one divided by three equals seven.

the immediately ship abandon

Abandon the ship immediately!

1.3 — Sentence Types

Goals 5–10, 23

A solid understanding of the four types of sentences is useful for students writing topic sentences and concluding sentences for paragraphs. The four types are imperative/command, interrogative/question, exclamatory/exclamation, and declarative/statement.

Example 1.3A

DIRECTIONS:

Change the statement into a question.

Sam is coming with us.

Is Sam coming with us?

Example 1.3B

DIRECTIONS:

Change the question into a statement.

Did Germany invade Poland?

Germany invaded Poland.

Example 1.3c

DIRECTIONS:

Identify the sentence type for each sentence.

I don't want to go.

statement

Do you want to go?

question

I'm not going!

exclamation

Go now.

command

(continued)

Example 1.3c (continued)

Carbon dioxide has one molecule of carbon and two of oxygen.

declarative

Summer is great!

exclamatory

What is the square root of 144?

interrogative

Hand in your outlines by tomorrow.

imperative

Example 1.3d

DIRECTIONS:

Add the correct end punctuation to each sentence.

Are you coming ?

My dog's name is Spot .

I love ice cream !

Get over here !

Example 1.3E

DIRECTIONS:

Write a sentence of each type about the given topic.

Statement (.)

Halloween is in the fall.

Question (?)

Why do so many children love Halloween?

Exclamation (!)

Halloween is a great holiday!

Command (. or !)

Get your Halloween costume.

Example 1.3f

DIRECTIONS:

Write the given type of sentence about each topic.

Write a statement about homework.

Ms. Smith gave the class a lot of homework.

Write a question about weather.

What was the temperature last night?

Write a command about driving.

Watch out for that car!

Write an exclamation about desserts.

I love chocolate ice cream!

Example 1.3g

DIRECTIONS:

Write two statements, one command and one question, using the root word **retract** in any of its forms.

Statement 1 = The teacher retracted what she had said.

Command = Retract that statement.

Question = Will he retract that remark?

Statement 2 = The newspaper published a retraction.

Note: It is good practice to use new spelling or vocabulary words for this activity.

1.4 — Questions

Goals 11–13

Generating questions is as important for students as answering them. To teach this skill, show students a picture and ask them what questions the picture suggests. Ask older students to anticipate essay questions on upcoming tests or to produce comprehension questions after they read a selection.

Example 1.4A

DIRECTIONS:

Write three questions about the picture.



1. Where was this picture taken?

2. How does the girl feel?

3. What time of year is this?

Example 1.4B

DIRECTIONS:

Write three questions about *Tom Sawyer*.

1. What did Aunt Polly do to punish Tom for taking the jam?

2. How did Tom Sawyer get his friends to paint the fence for him?

3. What was Tom's reaction to Becky?

Example 1.4c

DIRECTIONS:

Write essay questions that you think may be on the upcoming test. You may write imperative sentences instead of questions. Use expository terms when appropriate. See **Template A**.

Social Studies:

- What are two reasons that early settlers lived near water?
- Discuss the events leading up to the War of 1812.

Literature:

- Why did Holden decide to leave school early?
- Explain the continuing public interest in "The Diary of Anne Frank."

Science:

- How is igneous rock formed?
- Describe the process of photosynthesis.

Example 1.4D

DIRECTIONS:

Write word problems for the equations below.

$$5 + 3 = 8$$

Susan had 5 balls, and Lisa had 3 balls. How many balls did they have together?

$$4 - 1 = 3$$

Jane had 4 apples. She gave 1 to Ron. How many apples did she have left?

DIRECTIONS:

Write word problems for the solutions below.

25 cents

Glen bought 5 pieces of gum. Each piece cost 5 cents. How much did the 5 pieces of gum cost?

100 pencils

There are 20 students in the class. They have 5 pencils each. How many pencils do they have all together?

50%

How do you write $\frac{1}{2}$ as a percentage?

3

What is the cube root of 27?

Example 1.4E

DIRECTIONS:

Write a question for each answer.

Q: How are you?

A: Fine, thank you.

Q: What is the last month of the year?

A: December

Q: What did you eat at the party?

A: hot dogs and hamburgers

DIRECTIONS:

Write a question for each answer about the chapter we have just read.

Q: What term was used to describe people opposed to slavery?

A: abolitionists

Q: What enabled the runaway slaves to hide on their way north?

A: the Underground Railroad

Q: What was the name of the nation formed by the states that seceded from the Union?

A: the Confederacy

Q: What plan allowed California to enter the Union as a free state?

A: the Compromise of 1850

1.5 — Phrases and Clauses

Goals 16–17

A clause is a group of words in a sentence that contains both a subject and a predicate. There are two types of clauses: an independent clause, which represents a complete thought that could stand alone as a sentence, and a dependent clause, which does not express a complete thought and could not stand alone as a complete sentence. A phrase is a group of words in a sentence that does not contain both a verb and its subject.

Students who understand how to rearrange the phrases or clauses within a sentence while retaining the sentence's meaning are capable of writing more linguistically complex sentences.

Example 1.5A

DIRECTIONS:

Change the position of the phrases and clauses within the given sentence.

My brother picked us up after the movies.

After the movies, my brother picked us up.

We stopped at the video store since it was on our way home.

Since it was on our way home, we stopped at the video store.

1.6 — Conjunctions

Goals 14–17

Students should use conjunctions to construct more complex sentences. **Template B**, in the appendix, provides a list of four types of conjunctions; it may be useful as a reference for students.

To teach conjunctions, start with assignments based on subjects familiar to students. The activities in this section vary in difficulty. Assignments should be based on students' age and ability. Younger or less able students need not use all the conjunctions in an activity.

Note that these activities are useful in assessing students' grasp of literature, social studies, and current events. Consider having students embed new spelling or vocabulary words in their sentences.

Example 1.6A

DIRECTIONS:

Complete the given sentences using **because**, **but**, and **so**.

The teacher was happy . . .

The teacher was happy because we raised our hands.

The teacher was happy, but she still gave us homework.

The teacher was happy, so gave us a longer recess.

Andrew Jackson was a popular president . . .

Andrew Jackson was a popular president because he was a
champion of the common people.

Andrew Jackson was a popular president, but there were many
critics of his "kitchen cabinet" and the "spoils system."

Andrew Jackson was a popular president, so he won the election
of 1828 easily.

The British invaded the colonies . . .

The British invaded the colonies because they were threatened by
the repeated acts of rebellion.

The British invaded the colonies, but they faced fierce resistance.

The British invaded the colonies so they could maintain
control.

Example 1.6B

DIRECTIONS:

Use the given words and conjunctions in sentences.

unhappy / so

Jane was unhappy, so she went to her room.

unhappy / because

The colonists were unhappy because they believed they were taxed unfairly.

infallible / although

Although the soldiers thought they were infallible, they were defeated.

infallible / since

Ron took many risks since he thought he was infallible.

Example 1.6c

DIRECTIONS:

Complete each sentence using the word **rain**. You may add suffixes.

Since _____ it has rained, we will play indoors.

Although _____ it is raining, I'd like to walk outside.

Whenever _____ it rains, the roof leaks.

After _____ the rain, we can go outside.

If _____ it rains, let's go to the movies.

Example 1.6D

DIRECTIONS:

Using the given subordinating conjunction, complete each sentence.

Topic: New York City

When he saw the magnificent skyline of New York City,
he was awestruck.

If you ever go to New York City, be sure to visit one of
its many museums.

Since the beginning of our nation's history, New York
City has played an important role.

Regardless of some bad publicity, New York City is a great
place to live.

Until you actually experience New York City, you may
have trouble imagining how exciting it is.

Note: **Resource 1.6** provides a broad selection of sentence starters. Select three, four, or five of the terms on **Resource 1.6** and a word or topic. Have students write a sentence about the given word or topic that begins with each of your chosen sentence starters.

Resource 1.6: Sentence Starters

Always . . .	Whenever . . .	Now . . .	Either . . . or
At night . . .	Before . . .	After a few days . . .	Neither . . . nor
In the past . . .	Yesterday . . .	At school . . .	Fortunately . . .
Last night . . .	Recently . . .	At home . . .	Why . . .
Finally . . .	Not long ago . . .	All at once . . .	Regardless of . . .
At last . . .	At present . . .	If . . .	Unfortunately . . .
Today . . .	Currently . . .	Although . . .	Unless . . .
Sometimes . . .	In the future . . .	Even though . . .	Remember that . . .
Next time . . .	As soon as . . .	Wherever . . .	Obviously . . .
Since . . .	Usually . . .	The instant . . .	Undoubtedly . . .
After . . .	During . . .	Once . . .	In my family . . .
Tomorrow . . .	When . . .	Even if . . .	Keep in mind . . .
While . . .	Soon after . . .	Until . . .	Not only . . . (but also)

1.7 — Sentence Combining

Goals 15–16

Sentence combining is the most effective means of teaching grammar (Graham & Perin, 2007). Have students combine short, declarative sentences using pronouns, commas, and conjunctions as needed. More capable writers may also use semicolons. Students can avoid repetition by using pronouns.

Example 1.7A

DIRECTIONS:

Combine the given sentences into one sentence.

Jack ran.

Mary ran.

Jack and Mary ran.

Bill had to buy a battery immediately.

Bill needed the battery because his car was not working.

Bill needed to buy a battery immediately because his
car was not working.

Wool is a common material used for clothes.

Wool protects the body from temperature changes.

Wool, a common material used for clothes, protects the
body from temperature changes.

The train chugged over the bridge.

The train was pulled by an old locomotive engine.

The engine was puffing black smoke.

It was a suspension bridge.

The train, pulled by an old locomotive engine puffing
black smoke, chugged over the suspension bridge.

(continued)

Example 1.7A (continued)

Members of the band watched the conductor.

Members of the band were dressed in black.

The conductor raised his baton.

Then members of the band began to play.

Members of the band, dressed in black, watched the conductor raise his baton; then they began to play.

1.8 — Run-on Sentences

Goals 15, 22, 41

Example 1.8A

DIRECTIONS:

Change each run-on sentence into two sentences, or add appropriate conjunctions, punctuation, and pronouns.

Jim went to the bank he needed money to buy a birthday present for his son.

Jim went to the bank because he needed money to buy a birthday present for his son.

The Vikings were excellent shipbuilders and traders Viking ships even traveled as far as North America.

The Vikings were excellent shipbuilders and traders. Their ships even traveled as far as North America.

The manager hurried into the dugout he had removed the pitcher from the game.

After removing the pitcher from the game, the manager hurried into the dugout.

Example 1.8B

DIRECTIONS:

Underline and then correct the run-on sentence in each paragraph.

When Mary got home she went to her room and did her homework and then she had a snack and went outside to play it was a beautiful day. She had a great time!

When Mary got home, she went to her room and did her home-
work. Then she had a snack. She went outside to play because it was
a beautiful day.

The morning of the planned assault on the enemy finally arrived. There was a pervading sense of anxiety among the troops. Although they had prepared for this moment for months they did not feel ready to move ahead and their fear of the unknown grew stronger as the minutes passed and then the orders began to come briefly and quickly they had no choice but to act. Everyone involved in that fateful battle would never forget it.

Although they had prepared for this moment for
months, they did not feel ready to move ahead. Their fear
of the unknown grew stronger as the minutes passed.
Then the orders began to come briefly and quickly, and
they had no choice but to act.

1.9 — Sentence Expansion

Goals 18–20

When they're writing, students often assume that their reader has extensive prior knowledge of the subject matter they're covering. Sentence expansion encourages students to think about what the reader knows already or may need, or want, to know to better understand the students' writing. Using this approach, students are able to provide information with greater precision.

To have students practice sentence expansion, display a chart with the question words *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, *why*, and *how*. Then give students kernel sentences (simple sentences), such as *Jane ran* or *The candidates will debate*. Select one, two, three, or more of the question words, and ask the class to expand the kernel sentences by answering some or all of those questions. When introducing this strategy, begin with *where*, *when*, or *why*.

Note that the kernel sentences must always be complete sentences. *They seem* or *She enjoys* are not sentences because they do not express a complete thought. **Resource 1.9** (next two pages) lists some handy kernel sentences. Keep in mind, however, that students are best able to expand sentences when they are given kernels that reflect their experience or their recent work in content areas.

Activities using kernel sentences and question words enable teachers to assess student comprehension or knowledge in any subject area. The activities in this section can easily be adapted to make such assessments. **Templates C** and **D**, in the appendix, are sentence expansion forms that make sentence expansion assignments straightforward. Initially, you should select the question words for students. Sentence expansion is also a useful tool for learning to summarize. Activities in **1.10—Summarizing** help develop that skill.

In assigning this section's activities, instruct students that their expanded sentences do not have to answer the question words in the same order in which they are presented. For example, if students put the response to *when* at the beginning of an expanded sentence, the sentence will begin with a left-branching adverbial phrase. This form is encountered more frequently in written text than in speech. If students learn to write complex sentences, their reading comprehension will improve. (Scott, 2009)

Note: Tell students that when they see a dotted line instead of a solid line on the sentence expansion form, their writing should take the form of words or phrases—not complete sentences.

Who?

What?

When?

Where?

Why?

How?

Resource 1.9: Sentences for Expansion

Volcanoes erupt.	The boats are docking.
Thelma will call.	They screeched.
The boys ran.	The men smiled.
The bird flew.	The rebels attacked.
Mary went.	It was stolen.
The soldiers fired.	The race ended.
The waves crashed.	A can was spilled.
Sarah entered.	The spectators departed.
The motors roared.	The snow drifts.
The Senate approved.	The sky darkened.
The cyclists pedaled.	She worked.
The food was eaten.	The couple emigrated.
The colt leaps.	The baby is crying.
Dad shaves.	Simon dreams.
The cars raced.	The fish swam.
The customer complained.	The children understand.
The crowd cheered.	Sam will dance.
The man wondered.	The cat stretched.
The children are eating.	The teacher refused.

(continued)

Resource 1.9 (continued)

He studied.

They read.

People traveled.

Lincoln unified the states.

Elmer works.

The children remained.

The student asked.

The horse stumbled.

The smell drifted.

The show closed.

The girls appeared.

The Earth revolves.

Actors performed.

A bear scratches.

A girl danced.

The people searched.

Slavery was abolished.

The violinist will practice.

The judge will decide.

The air smelled.

The concert will begin.

John shivered.

They ambushed the enemy.

Washington led the troops.

They are writing.

Children are playing.

The table broke.

Everyone was awakened.

Atoms are tiny.

The smoke disappeared.

The curtain is rising.

He promised.

He poured.

The office closed.

The thief vanished.

The phone is ringing.

Bridges were built.

The war will be won.

The Pilgrims landed.

Columbus sailed.

Example 1.9A

DIRECTIONS:

Expand each kernel sentence.

The tadpole splashed.

Where? in the pond

When? this morning

Expanded sentence:

This morning, the tadpole splashed in the pond.

My dog hid.

Where? under the bed

When? during the storm

Why? because he was scared

Expanded sentence:

During the storm, my dog hid under the bed because he was scared.

They rebelled.

Who? the American colonists

When? in 1775

Why? because they felt the British taxed them unfairly

Expanded sentence:

In 1775, the American colonists rebelled because they felt the British taxed them unfairly.

It sank.

What? the Titanic

When? April 14, 1912

Where? in the North Atlantic

Why? hit an iceberg

Expanded sentence:

On April 14, 1912, the Titanic sank in the North Atlantic because it hit an iceberg.

Example 1.9B

DIRECTIONS:

Expand the kernel sentence using any three of the question words: *who, what, when, where, why, how*.

The boys ran.

when	last Tuesday
how	quickly
where	in the park

Expanded sentence:

Last Tuesday, the boys ran quickly in the park.

Example 1.9c

DIRECTIONS:

Expand the kernel sentence using any four of the question words: *who, what, when, where, why, how*.

They worked.

who	teachers
how	feverishly
why	to finish
when	before the weekend

Expanded sentence:

The teachers worked feverishly to finish before the weekend.

Example 1.9D

DIRECTIONS:

Does each word tell **who, what, when, where, or how?**

later	<u>when</u>	quickly	<u>how</u>
rabbits	<u>what</u>	yesterday	<u>when</u>
carefully	<u>how</u>	inside	<u>where</u>
downtown	<u>where</u>	soon	<u>when</u>
they	<u>who</u>	newspaper	<u>what</u>

Example 1.9E

DIRECTIONS:

Do the underlined words tell **who, what, when, where, why, or how?**

Christopher Columbus was born <u>in Italy</u> .	<u>where</u>
The king and queen of Spain helped Columbus <u>by giving him three ships</u> .	<u>how</u>
<u>King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella</u> gave Columbus three ships.	<u>who</u>
<u>In 1492</u> , Columbus sailed from Spain to the New World.	<u>when</u>
<u>The Santa Maria</u> was one of Columbus' three ships.	<u>what</u>
Columbus wanted to find spices and gold <u>so he could become rich</u> .	<u>why</u>
Columbus named the natives "Indians" <u>because he thought he was in the Indies</u> .	<u>why</u>
The <i>Santa Maria</i> sank on the reef <u>in the summer</u> .	<u>when</u>
Columbus never knew that he found <u>the New World</u> .	<u>what</u>

Example 1.9f

DIRECTIONS:

Identify the question word(s)—**who**, **what**, **when**, **where**, **why**, and/or **how**—that were used to expand each kernel sentence.

Kernel: **Jenny hid.**

Expanded sentence: During recess, Jenny hid behind the tree.

Question words: when / where

Kernel: **The bird flew.**

Expanded sentence: The bird gracefully flew into its nest.

Question words: how / where

Kernel: **She won.**

Expanded sentence: Kristen easily won her tennis match this morning.

Question words: who / how / what / when

Kernel: **It exploded.**

Expanded sentence: After Ryan shook the soda can, it exploded all over the cafeteria.

Question words: when / who / what / where

Kernel: **They cooked.**

Expanded sentence: Tom and Rose cooked a delicious meal in their small kitchen.

Questions words: who / what / where

Kernel: **Elizabeth jogs.**

Expanded sentence: Every morning, Elizabeth jogs quickly through the park so that she will not be late for work.

Questions words: when / how / where / why

1.10 — Summarizing

Goal 21

The link between reading comprehension and many writing activities is a strong one. When students write summaries about text, research “showed a consistently positive effect on reading comprehension” (Graham & Hebert, 2010). Students should be taught to respond to the question words (who, what, when, where, why, how) to identify important information, delete non- or less essential information, and eliminate repetitive information. The Sentence Summary (page 129), Quick Outline (page 127), or Article Summary Outline (page 130) will provide the structure needed to summarize effectively. Additionally, Graham and Hebert’s findings indicate that taking notes from written text enhances comprehension. Because students have to use key words, phrases, symbols, and abbreviations on all three outlines, they will be integrating skills necessary to enhance their ability to derive meaning from text.

Example 1.10A

DIRECTIONS:

Use the question words to summarize the main idea of the article. Cross out question words that do not apply or write N/A.

Who/What? Tigers

(did/will do) what? won state championship

When? last night

Where? Glens Falls

Why? best offense

How? easily

Summary Sentence:

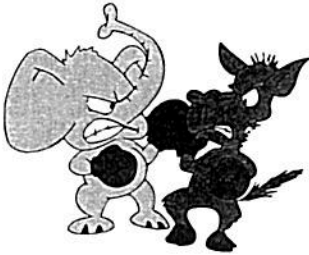
(T.S.) Last night in Glens Falls, the Tigers easily won
the state championship because they have the best offense in
the state.

Note: For additional templates for summarizing, see pages 129–130.

Example 1.10b

DIRECTIONS:

Write a caption for this political cartoon.



*The candidates will fight to
the finish.*

Note: Students may also write captions for illustrations or photographs.

Example 1.10c

DIRECTIONS:

Respond to the following question words about the chapter. Abbreviate when possible. Then write a summary.

Who? (two) *Lewis + Clark*

(did/will do) what? *explored LA Territory*

How? *w/ Sacajawea's help*

Where? *Missouri River to Pacific Ocean*

When? *1804 - 1806*

Why? *Jefferson wanted geological info*

Summary:

President Jefferson wanted geological information about the Louisiana Territory, which extended from the Missouri River to the Pacific Ocean. Lewis and Clark, with Sacajawea's help, explored it from 1804 to 1806.

Note: You may add cues for numbers or verb tenses to the question words.

1.11 — Grammar and Usage

Goals 22–42

As noted earlier (see **1.7—Sentence Combining**), the teaching of grammar should be embedded in writing activities; grammar should not be taught in isolation (Graham & Perin, 2007). As they become more mature writers, students must recognize and understand how to use subjects and predicates, punctuation and capitalization, and subject-verb agreement. These skills prove especially useful when students need to revise and edit their own work or assigned passages.

Subjects and Predicates

Goals 24, 38

Example 1.11A

DIRECTIONS:

Underline the subject once and the predicate twice in each sentence.

Mary performed on the stage.

Jason is running for president.

The street was paved yesterday.

A clock tells time.

A co-captain played the tennis match for me.

The table of contents gives an outline of the book.

Janet and John have been married for fifty years.

Example 1.11B

DIRECTIONS:

Match the subjects and predicates.

Clouds are two kinds of precipitation.

Precipitation is rain that freezes as it falls.

Rain and snow form from condensation in the atmosphere.

Sleet falls in pellets of hard ice.

Hail is water that falls to Earth from the atmosphere.

Example 1.11c

DIRECTIONS:

Change each single subject to a compound subject. Change the verb form when necessary.

Jane is coming to our party.

Jane and Bob are coming to our party.

Mexico is a country where Spanish is spoken.

Mexico and Colombia are countries where Spanish is spoken.

Example 1.11D

DIRECTIONS:

Change the single predicate to a compound predicate.

Bob swam at the beach.

Bob swam and played volleyball at the beach.

Soil holds the roots of plants in place.

Soil holds the roots of plants in place and provides them with nutrients.

Example 1.11E

DIRECTIONS:

Underline the simple subject once and the simple predicate twice in each sentence.

The small boy ran immediately to his mother.

The process of photosynthesis sustains plants.

Example 1.11f

DIRECTIONS:

Rewrite the given sentences using correct punctuation and capitalization.

the capital of the united states is washington dc

The capital of the United States is Washington, D.C.

we celebrate the fourth of july on a wednesday this year

We celebrate the Fourth of July on a Wednesday this year.

james and michael are brothers

James and Michael are brothers.

halloween and thanksgiving are both celebrated in the fall

Halloween and Thanksgiving are both celebrated in the fall.

the eiffel tower is in france

The Eiffel Tower is in France.

robert a young student was coming home for the holidays

Robert, a young student, was coming home for the holidays.

since it is raining I am not going to the park

Since it is raining, I am not going to the park.

mr and mrs smith ate apples bananas pears and grapes in hawaii

Mr. and Mrs. Smith ate apples, bananas, pears, and grapes in Hawaii.

when did president lincoln give the gettysburg address

When did President Lincoln give the Gettysburg Address?

Example 1.11G

DIRECTIONS:

Insert correct punctuation (quotation marks, question marks, commas, colons, semicolons, and periods) in the sentences. Correct run-ons.

The rain which was extremely heavy began during the game everyone was soaked.

The rain, which was extremely heavy, began during the game. Everyone was soaked.

Jefferson said every generation needs a new revolution.

Jefferson said, "Every generation needs a new revolution."

Please do the following chores walk the dog clean your room and set the table.

Please do the following chores: walk the dog, clean your room, and set the table.

Number and Tense Agreement

Goals 38, 39

Example 1.11H

DIRECTIONS:

Underline the correct verb in each sentence.

Those (is / are) my sneakers!

He (is / are) closely watched by his teacher at recess.

The cause of the fire (was / were) investigated by the firefighters.

March and April (was / were) two of the snowiest months in the mountains last year.

Even though we conserved water, the wells (is / are) dry.

This (is / are) a very high cliff, so I do not want to drive here.

They (was / were) going to study all afternoon.

Tim (was / were) the best student in the entire school.

Example 1.11i

DIRECTIONS:

Correct the sentences for errors in tense and number agreement.

When World War II ended, huge crowds gather to cheer.

When World War II ended, huge crowds gathered to cheer.

The surface of Mars are covered with rocks and dust.

The surface of Mars is covered with rocks and dust.

Example 1.11j

DIRECTIONS:

Change the verb in each sentence to the specified tense.

Jan went to the movies last Saturday.

Present tense: *Jan goes to the movies every Saturday.*

Future tense: *Jan will go to the movies next Saturday.*

My family is bringing chicken to the picnic today.

Future tense: *My family will bring chicken to the picnic tomorrow.*

Past tense: *My family brought chicken to the picnic yesterday.*

Example 1.11K

DIRECTIONS:

Write sentences using commonly confused verbs, such as *is/are*, *was/were*, *don't/doesn't*, and *have/has*.

is / tree: He is hiding behind the tree.

were / movie: What movie were they thinking about?

don't / television: My parents don't allow me to watch a lot of television.

has / dress: My friend Linda has a red dress.

Word Substitution

Goals 25–37, 40

The exercises in this section are useful for reducing students' repetition of frequently used words and for making their writing more interesting and informative. Make sure students understand that when they brainstorm words to substitute one word for another, they do not necessarily have to come up with synonyms; they can often come up with a more accurate or vivid term than the first word that comes to mind.

Example 1.11L

DIRECTIONS:

Brainstorm a list of words to use instead of the underlined term.

He was a good person.

decent compassionate

kind thoughtful

generous considerate

"Don't go!" Scott said.

begged pleaded

warned implored

advised yelled

Example 1.11m

DIRECTIONS:

Brainstorm a list of words or phrases that would complete the sentence.

_____ went _____ to class.
(noun) (adverb)

Jane *purposefully*

The woman *dutifully*

Ms. Smith *directly*

Our teacher *reluctantly*

The instructor *quickly*

Washington, _____, was the first president.
(appositive)

the father of our country

a brilliant general

a noble individual

a shrewd politician

a wealthy Virginian

Note: An appositive is a second noun, or a phrase equivalent to a noun, that is placed beside the first noun in a sentence to explain it more fully. Appositives are particularly helpful for students trying to elaborate topic sentences.

Example 1.11N

DIRECTIONS:

In each sentence, substitute pronouns for nouns and vice versa.

John ate an apple.

He ate it.

They went to class.

The students went to class.

Rachel burned dinner.

She burned it.

It was open for classes.

The school was open for classes.

Example 1.11o

DIRECTIONS:

Rewrite the sentence, labeling each common or proper noun with an **N**, each verb with a **V**, and each pronoun with a **P**. Capitalize proper nouns.

Last friday, steven and i visited him.

N N P V P

Last Friday, Steven and I visited him.

We flew to florida for thanksgiving.

P V N N

We flew to Florida for Thanksgiving.

I knew the mountains turned cold in october.

P V N V N

I knew the mountains turned cold in October.

Example 1.11p

DIRECTIONS:

Underline the adjectives and circle the adverbs in the given sentences. Put two lines under each preposition.

The heavy snow quietly drifted into deep piles last night.

The weary bicyclists pedaled slowly up the steep hill.

The frisky koala scampered over the wide limb gracefully.

I could never shimmy up a rope as well as the P.E. teacher does.

Example 1.11q

DIRECTIONS:

Insert an adjective on each line.

The fat cat slept on a red rug.

Joan ran quickly down the long path because the day was cold
and windy.

Example 1.11r

DIRECTIONS:

Insert an adverb on each line.

The dog ran eagerly to the man.

Since rain rarely fell in Egypt, people learned to use water very
carefully.

The girls waited inside.

Example 1.11s

DIRECTIONS:

Insert adjectives and adverbs to make each sentence more descriptive.

The children played near the lake.

The little children played noisily near the lake.

As the wind began to blow, ripples formed on the water.

As the wind began to blow harder, ripples formed on the warm water.

The woman walked down the sidewalk.

The woman walked too slowly down the busy sidewalk.

Example 1.11t

DIRECTIONS:

Write sentences using at least one adjective and at least one adverb.

The impressive black car stalled suddenly.

A majestic oak gradually grew from the acorn.

Huge schools of yellow fish swam past us silently.

Example 1.11u

DIRECTIONS:

Write a sentence using the given phrase as an appositive.

a powerful politician

Abraham Lincoln, a powerful politician, was a great debater.

a great teacher

Mr. Baker, a great teacher, will always be remembered.

the gifted violinist

Itzhak Perlman, the gifted violinist, performed at the concert.

a challenging sport

Mountain climbing, a challenging sport, requires a great deal of careful preparation.

a popular tourist attraction

The Statue of Liberty, a popular tourist attraction, has been reopened.

a well-known restaurant

Carmine's, a well-known restaurant, is located in New York City.

the world's largest desert

The Sahara, the world's largest desert, is located in North Africa.

Active and Passive Voice

Goal 42

Example 1.11v

DIRECTIONS:

Change the sentences from active to passive form.

England invaded Scotland.

Scotland was invaded by England.

The colonists defeated the British.

The British were defeated by the colonists.

Paragraphs and Compositions

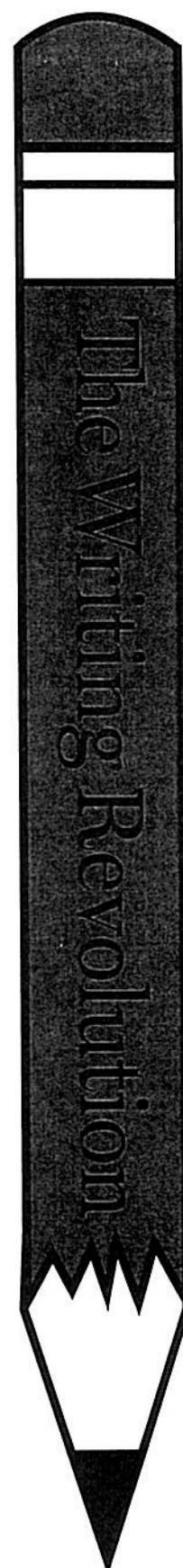
Writing a good paragraph forms the basis of effective writing. Therefore, spend a great deal of time teaching students how to plan and write a single good paragraph before they move on to developing compositions. Many teachers, confusing quantity with quality, are eager to spur their students to write at great length about a topic. If students write too much too soon, they may drift from the topic and fail to proofread and improve their writing. Most writing assignments involve four sequential steps:

1. **Planning and outlining**
2. **Writing a draft**
3. **Revising and editing**
4. **Producing a final copy**

You may end a lesson after any of these steps, except writing a draft.

Display a wall chart in the classroom listing the four steps in writing, and refer to it regularly. Planning/outlining and revising/editing are the most crucial steps to achieving competency, so apportion these two skill areas the most instructional time.

The selection of a topic for a paragraph or composition is of primary importance because it determines the writer's purpose and taps his or her knowledge of the subject. A list of topics geared to each type of writing—expository, compare and contrast, narrative, descriptive, and persuasive—can be found in *Resource 2.1*.



Before students actually begin to write, have them participate in several group activities. Class discussions should establish an assignment's purpose and audience before students begin to develop an outline. Ask the class these sorts of questions:

- Is the audience your teacher, classmates, a pen pal, a younger child, a newspaper editor, your parents, or the principal?
- Is the purpose to describe, persuade, summarize, or relate an experience?

Focusing on audience and purpose informs the prewriting process. When students begin to hone these skills, they can plan effective paragraphs and compositions and enhance communication.

To help students get the most from their writing practice, have them work on paragraph and composition activities concurrently with sentence activities. Since many students find it hard to apply the writing skills learned in one class to the subject matter of another, use every opportunity to create reinforcement. Writing instruction is most effective when integrated into every content area, at all grade levels.

Paragraph and Composition Goals

Student's Name: _____ Year: _____
Teacher's Name: _____ Grade: _____

	SEP.	JAN.	JUNE
1. Given a topic sentence, generate details.			
2. Given details, generate a topic sentence.			
3. Distinguish a topic sentence from supporting sentences.			
4. Given a topic, generate a topic sentence.			
5. Select a topic sentence from a group of sentences, and sequence the remaining sentences.			
6. Eliminate irrelevant sentence(s) from a group of related sentences.			
7. Given a topic sentence and details, produce a concluding sentence.			
8. Convert sentences into key words and phrases.			
9. Convert key words and phrases into sentences.			
10. Group related details.			
11. Select appropriate details from a list for a given topic sentence.			
12. Given a paragraph, convert it into a Quick Outline.			
13. Given a completed Quick Outline, write a five- or six-sentence paragraph using correct paragraph format with a topic sentence, supporting details, and a concluding sentence.			
14. Given a topic, generate a Quick Outline independently.			
15. Given a topic, generate a Quick Outline, then produce a five- or six-sentence paragraph independently.			
16. Identify the type of a given paragraph (expository, descriptive, persuasive, narrative, or compare/contrast).			
17. Given a topic, produce a topic sentence for each type of paragraph.			
18. Produce a Quick Outline and a narrative paragraph.			
19. Produce a Quick Outline and an expository paragraph.			
20. Produce a Quick Outline and a descriptive paragraph.			

I = Introduced ✓ = Proficient
(continued)

Paragraph and Composition Goals

Student's Name: _____ Year: _____
Teacher's Name: _____ Grade: _____

21. Produce a Quick Outline and a persuasive paragraph.	
22. Revise consistently using the Revise and Edit Checklist.	
23. Use varied sentence starters, including subordinating conjunctions.	
24. Use transition words and phrases.	
25. Edit consistently for:	
• spelling errors	
• capitalization	
• punctuation	
• tense agreement	
• number agreement	
26. Evaluate oral presentations of peers' work using (Template P).	
27. Develop categories, topic sentences, and details.	
28. Convert a three-paragraph composition into a Quick Outline.	
29. Develop categories and details for a four-paragraph composition.	
30. Convert a four-paragraph composition into a Quick Outline.	
31. Develop a thesis statement for a given topic.	
32. Write a three-sentence introduction that includes a topic sentence, a thesis statement, and a general statement.	
33. Write a conclusion that paraphrases the thesis statement and a general statement.	
34. Given a topic and a thesis statement, produce a paragraph.	
35. Produce an MPO for a five-paragraph composition.	
36. Produce a five-paragraph composition with a thesis statement, three supporting paragraphs, and a conclusion.	

Student's Name: _____ Year: _____

Teacher's Name: _____ Grade: _____

Paragraph and Composition Goals

	SEP.	JAN.	JUNE
1. Given a topic sentence, generate details.			
2. Given details, generate a topic sentence.			
3. Distinguish a topic sentence from supporting sentences.			
4. Given a topic, generate a topic sentence.			
5. Select a topic sentence from a group of sentences, and sequence the remaining sentences.			
6. Eliminate irrelevant sentence(s) from a group of related sentences.			
7. Given a topic sentence and details, produce a concluding sentence.			
8. Convert sentences into key words and phrases.			
9. Convert key words and phrases into sentences.			
10. Group related details.			
11. Select appropriate details from a list for a given topic sentence.			
12. Given a paragraph, convert it into a Quick Outline.			
13. Given a completed Quick Outline, write a five- or six-sentence paragraph using correct paragraph format with a topic sentence, supporting details, and a concluding sentence.			
14. Given a topic, generate a Quick Outline independently.			
15. Given a topic, generate a Quick Outline, then produce a five- or six-sentence paragraph independently.			
16. Identify the type of a given paragraph (expository, descriptive, persuasive, narrative, or compare/contrast).			
17. Given a topic, produce a topic sentence for each type of paragraph.			
18. Produce a Quick Outline and a narrative paragraph.			
19. Produce a Quick Outline and an expository paragraph.			
20. Produce a Quick Outline and a descriptive paragraph.			

I = Introduced ✓ = Proficient

(continued)

Paragraph and Composition Goals

	SEP.	JAN.	JUNE
21. Produce a Quick Outline and a persuasive paragraph.			
22. Revise consistently using the Revise and Edit Checklist (Template N).			
23. Use varied sentence starters, including subordinating conjunctions.			
24. Use transition words and phrases.			
25. Edit consistently for:			
• spelling errors			
• capitalization			
• punctuation			
• tense agreement			
• number agreement			
26. Evaluate oral presentations of peers' work using the Listening Evaluation Checklist (Template P).			
27. Develop categories, topic sentences, and details for a Transition Outline.			
28. Convert a three-paragraph composition into a Transition Outline.			
29. Develop categories and details for a four-paragraph Multiple Paragraph Outline (MPO).			
30. Convert a four-paragraph composition into an MPO.			
31. Develop a thesis statement for a given topic.			
32. Write a three-sentence introduction that includes a general statement, a specific statement, and a thesis statement.			
33. Write a conclusion that paraphrases the thesis statement and includes a specific statement and a general statement.			
34. Given a topic and a thesis statement, produce an MPO for a four- or five-paragraph composition.			
35. Produce an MPO for a five-paragraph composition.			
36. Produce a five-paragraph composition with an introduction that includes a thesis statement, three supporting paragraphs, and a conclusion.			

I = Introduced ✓ = Proficient

2.1 — Planning

Goal 16

The planning, or prewriting, stage requires much more instructional time than is generally allotted to writing activities and assignments. This is when students begin to organize their thoughts systematically and sequentially. During prewriting, students gather and share information and learn to distinguish between essential and irrelevant material. This is also the time to categorize ideas and supporting details and arrange them in outline form. In the planning stage, students develop topic sentences for paragraphs and thesis statements for longer compositions. Initially, students should complete these activities as a class. As they become more proficient, they can develop them independently.

When students learn to construct outlines, it is important that they understand the definition of a paragraph: a group of sentences that includes details supporting a specific point. They must recognize the idea of coherence that is implicit in this definition—that the sentences in a paragraph must be logically related to one another. One effective way to develop their ability to recognize a well-constructed paragraph is to give students many opportunities to hear, read, and compare paragraphs that vary in type and quality. *The Hochman Method* emphasizes five types of paragraphs and compositions: expository, compare and contrast (a type of expository writing), narrative, descriptive, and persuasive.

Expository Writing

Expository writing explains or informs. For example:

Western Avenue was closed yesterday due to a health hazard. A sewer line broke, and sewage seeped into the street. There were unfounded reports that the water supply had been contaminated. No one was permitted on the street except residents. City authorities are expected to solve this problem within three days.

This is the form of writing assigned most frequently in middle elementary grades and beyond; all of a student's classes may regularly generate assignments that require expository writing. Therefore, teachers of basic writing skills should give it the most instruction time.

Students must write an expository paragraph or composition when asked to *define, discuss, criticize, list, compare, explain, or summarize*. For a comprehensive list of expository-writing terms, see **Template A**, in the appendix. These terms can help students determine which specific type of expository writing an assignment requires.

Compare-and-Contrast Writing

Expository compositions that compare and contrast should highlight the similarities (comparisons) and differences (contrasts) between two people, animals, places, things, ideas, or experiences. Students must then develop a conclusion that emerges from the facts. When assigning this type of writing, be aware that organizing compare-and-contrast essays can challenge the skills of many writers.