

商务英语类专业规划教材

英语写作基础教程

A Basic Course in English Writing

■ 主 编 王丽峰

 武汉理工大学出版社
WUTP Wuhan University of Technology Press

商务英语类专业规划教材

英语写作基础教程

A Basic Course in English Writing

主 编 王丽峰

副主编 裴 沁 熊春霞 严菊环

武汉理工大学出版社

内 容 提 要

《英语写作基础教程》共分为八章,从文稿格式、遣词造句,到段落篇章、应用文体和学术论文,都有详细的讲述。本书强调基本写作技巧和方法,同时辅以丰富的实例和各种类型的范文,为英语学习者提供帮助。

本书具有两个特点:一是实用性强,各章节都附有实例及练习;二是注重基础,浅显明了,适合各个层次的学生学习掌握。因此,本书可以作为英语专业低年级学生的写作教材,也适用于大学非英语专业本科生,还可供其他英语学习爱好者使用。

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

英语写作基础教程/王丽峰主编. —武汉:武汉理工大学出版社,2015.11
ISBN 978-7-5629-5030-1

I. ①英… II. ①王… III. ①英语-写作-教材 IV. ①H315

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2015)第 265173 号

项目负责人:雷 蕾(027-87523138)

责任编辑:雷 蕾

责任校对:楼燕芳

装帧设计:芳华时代

出版发行:武汉理工大学出版社

社 址:武汉市洪山区珞狮路 122 号

邮 编:430070

网 址:www.wutp.com.cn

经 销:各地新华书店

印 刷:武汉兴和彩色印务有限公司

开 本:787×1092 1/16

印 张:9.25

字 数:308 千字

版 次:2015 年 11 月第 1 版

印 次:2015 年 11 月第 1 次印刷

印 数:1—2000 册

定 价:20.00 元

凡购本书,如有缺页、倒页、脱页等印装质量问题,请向出版社发行部调换。

本社购书热线电话:027-87515778 87515848 87785758 87165708(传真)

· 版权所有 盗版必究 ·

前 言

英语写作是语言技能类课程,具有应用性强、涵盖知识面广、训练难度大的特点。本书旨在提供将语言知识与语言技能相结合的教材,引导学生同步提高语言水平和写作能力。

《英语写作基础教程》共分为八章,从文稿格式、遣词造句,到段落篇章、应用文体和学术论文,都有详细的讲述。本书强调基本写作技巧和方法,同时辅以丰富的实例和各种类型的范文,为英语学习者提供帮助。

第一章讲述了文稿格式,涉及页面安排、大写和经常使用的标点符号的用法。

第二章讲解选词的基础知识,从词的类别和词的含义两方面进行了介绍。

第三章介绍了句子的写作,从句子结构、类别到句子的特点,都用详细的例句进行了说明。

第四章讲述了段落写作,展示了段落的基本结构及特点,并详细介绍了段落的展开技巧。

第五章介绍了篇章结构及文章体裁。

第六章介绍了各种修辞的特点及使用。

第七章讲述了各种不同类型的应用文体的写作方法和注意事项。

第八章介绍了论文格式及写作要求。

本书具有两个特点:一是实用性强,各章节都附有实例及练习;二是注重基础,浅显明了,适合各个层次的学生学习掌握。因此,本书可以作为英语专业低年级学生的写作教材,也适用于大学非英语专业本科生,还可供其他英语学习爱好者使用。

本书由王丽峰设计整体编写结构,并编写了第一章至第五章;严菊环编写了第六章;裴沁编写了第七章;熊春霞编写了第八章,并对书稿进行了校对。

由于编者水平有限,书中难免有疏漏和不妥之处,敬请各位专家和读者不吝赐教。本书在编写过程中参考过的国内外相关书籍已列于参考文献中,在此向相关作者一并表示真诚的感谢。

编 者

2015年8月

Contents

Chapter One Manuscript Form	(1)
1.1 Arrangement	(1)
1.2 Word Division	(2)
1.3 Capitalization	(3)
1.4 Punctuation	(4)
1.4.1 The Comma	(4)
1.4.2 The Period	(5)
1.4.3 The Semicolon	(6)
1.4.4 The Colon	(7)
1.4.5 The Question Mark	(7)
1.4.6 The Exclamation Mark	(8)
1.4.7 Quotation Marks	(8)
1.4.8 Parenthesis	(9)
1.4.9 The Dash	(9)
1.4.10 The Slash	(10)
1.4.11 Italics and Underlining	(10)
Chapter Two Diction	(12)
2.1 Levels of Words	(12)
2.1.1 Formal Words	(12)
2.1.2 Common Words	(13)
2.1.3 Informal Words	(14)
2.2 The Meaning of Words	(15)
2.2.1 Synonym	(16)
2.2.2 Polysemy	(17)
2.2.3 General and Specific Words	(18)
Chapter Three The Sentence	(21)
3.1 Components of Sentence	(21)
3.2 Sentence Pattern	(23)
3.3 Expansion of Sentence Pattern	(24)
3.4 Types of Sentences	(28)
3.4.1 The Communicative Function of Sentences	(28)

3.4.2 The Structure of Sentences (31)

3.4.3 The Rhetorical Form of Sentences (34)

3.4.4 Short and Long Sentences (35)

3.5 Effective Sentences (36)

3.5.1 Unity (36)

3.5.2 Coherence (37)

3.5.3 Conciseness (38)

3.5.4 Emphasis (40)

3.5.5 Variety (42)

Chapter Four The Paragraph (44)

4.1 The Structure of Paragraph (44)

4.1.1 Topic Sentences (44)

4.1.2 Developing Sentences (47)

4.1.3 Concluding Sentences (48)

4.2 Features of Paragraph (49)

4.2.1 Unity (49)

4.2.2 Coherence (50)

4.2.3 Transition (52)

4.3 Sequences of Developing Paragraphs (53)

4.3.1 Chronological Sequence (53)

4.3.2 Spatial Sequence (54)

4.3.3 General-to-particular Sequence (56)

4.3.4 Particular-to-general Sequence (56)

4.3.5 Climactic Sequence (57)

4.4 Skills of Developing Paragraphs (57)

4.4.1 Exemplification (58)

4.4.2 Comparison and Contrast (59)

4.4.3 Process (60)

4.4.4 Division and Classification (61)

4.4.5 Cause and Effect (62)

4.4.6 Definition (63)

Chapter Five The Whole Composition (65)

5.1 The Steps in Writing a Composition (65)

5.2 Organization (68)

5.2.1 Opening Paragraph (69)

5.2.2 Body Paragraph (70)

5.2.3 Concluding Paragraph (71)

5.3	Types of Writing	(72)
5.3.1	Description	(72)
5.3.2	Narration	(74)
5.3.3	Exposition	(77)
5.3.4	Argumentation	(91)
Chapter Six	Rhetorical Devices	(95)
6.1	The Function of Rhetoric in Writing	(95)
6.2	Commonly Used Figures of Speech	(96)
6.2.1	Simile	(96)
6.2.2	Metaphor	(96)
6.2.3	Metonymy	(97)
6.2.4	Synecdoche	(99)
6.2.5	Irony	(100)
6.2.6	Pun	(101)
6.2.7	Overstatement and Understatement	(102)
6.2.8	Euphemism	(103)
6.2.9	Oxymoron	(104)
6.2.10	Paradox	(104)
6.2.11	Alliteration	(105)
6.2.12	Personification	(105)
6.2.13	Transferred Epithet	(105)
6.2.14	Parody	(106)
6.2.15	Synaesthesia	(106)
Chapter Seven	Practical Writing	(108)
7.1	Note Writing	(108)
7.1.1	Brief Introduction	(108)
7.1.2	Samples	(108)
7.1.3	Exercises and Writing Practice	(109)
7.2	Notice Writing	(110)
7.2.1	Brief Introduction	(110)
7.2.2	Samples	(111)
7.2.3	Exercises and Writing Practice	(112)
7.3	Social Letter Writing	(112)
7.3.1	The Meaning of a Social Letter	(112)
7.3.2	The Composition of a Social Letter	(112)
7.3.3	The Format of a Social Letter	(114)
7.3.4	The Main Categories of Social Letters	(115)

Chapter Eight Thesis Writing	(125)
8.1 Format	(125)
8.1.1 The Structure of a Thesis	(125)
8.1.2 Use of Quotations	(126)
8.1.3 Use of Notes	(127)
8.1.4 Bibliography	(130)
8.2 Process	(133)
8.2.1 Topic	(133)
8.2.2 Outline	(134)
8.2.3 Thesis Proposal	(136)
8.2.4 Draft	(137)
References	(139)

Chapter One Manuscript Form

When we learn to write, we should follow the general rules and practice of manuscript form, such as writing the title, leaving the margins, indenting, paragraphing, capitalizing, and dividing words. Here we are going to deal with in details “arrangement, word division, capitalization, punctuation”.

1.1 Arrangement

There are some principles we can follow:

① Double spaced. We should write on every other line so that there will be room for corrections.

② Leaving the margins. Leave a margin on each side of the paper—about two centimeters at the top and a centimeter and a half at the left, the right and the bottom.

③ When the space left near the end of a line is not or barely enough for the word, we should write the word on the next line and divide it if it is a long one. (Examples are in “1.2 Word Division”.)

④ We should write the title in the middle of the first line, and capitalize the first and last words of the title and all other words (including words following hyphens in compound words, e. g. Four-Year-Old Boy) except articles (a, an, the), coordinating conjunctions (and, or, but, nor, for), short prepositions (in, for), and the “to” in infinitives. When a preposition has more than four letters, it should be capitalized. No period is used at the end of a title. We can use a question mark if the title is a direct question, but do not use one if it is an indirect question. Use quotation marks with quotes or titles of articles, and underline (italicize in printing) the title of a book within the topic. If there is a subtitle, it can be set off with a colon following the title.

► Examples:

My Impression of Beijing
The Wall Between
The People Without a Country
Rules to Abide By
Different Views on *Jane Eyre*
Different Views on Jane Eyre
The Myth of a “Negro Literature”
The English-Speaking People in Canada
Interpretations of Robert Frost’s “Fire and Ice”
Should Class Attendance Be Required?

What I Have Lived For

⑤ The first line of every paragraph should be indented (started after a space of four or five letters). In some international publications, the blocked form is well accepted.

⑥ Arabic numbers are generally used for paging. They can be put either in the upper right-hand corner or in the lower right-hand corner, or in the middle below the last line of every page.

⑦ Do not begin a line with a comma, a period, a semicolon, a colon, a question mark or an exclamation mark. Do not end a line with the first half of a pair of brackets, quotation marks, or parentheses. The hyphen that indicates a divided word is put at the end, not at the beginning of a line.

1.2 Word Division

If the space near the edge of the paper is not enough for the word we are going to write, we have to decide whether to divide the word or to write it on the next line. It is not proper to squeeze a word into the margin. Words with two or more syllable can be divided according to the formation of syllables. Pay attention to the following principles:

① One-syllable words like *march, spring, thought, through* and *brain* cannot be divided.

② Do not write one letter of a word at the end or at the beginning of a line, even if the one letter makes up a syllable, such as *a • bout, luck • y*.

③ A two-letter ending should not be put at the beginning of a line: *hat • ed, light • en, book • er*.

④ Do not separate proper names of people or places, such as *Chi • na, Aust • en*.

⑤ Do not divide words in a way that may mislead the reader: *pea • cock, lay • man, sister • hood, worm • wood*.

⑥ Do not divide the last word on a page. Instead, write the whole word on the next page.

⑦ A consonant plus -le is considered as a syllable: *peo • ple, no • ble, twin • kle, han • dle*.

⑧ A stressed close syllable usually takes a consonant with it: *har • bour, sen • ti • ment, fin • ish, hol • i • day*.

⑨ A two-syllable word with double consonants in the middle is divided between the two consonants: *let • ter, con • nect, cur • rent, strug • gle*.

⑩ Words with hyphens should be divided only at the hyphen: *father-in-law, soft-heart-ed, broad-minded*.

⑪ Words with prefixes or suffixes should be divided between prefix or suffix and the base part of the word: *im • prove • ment, mis • under • stand • ing, un • help • ful*.

Exercise:

Divide the following words according to the rules above.

alarm cutting friendship handy permission gratitude sister-in-law alive
correctness glimpse golden pleasant strong thought

1.3 Capitalization

1) The first words of sentences, key words in titles and proper names are always capitalized. Not only a complete sentence, but a sentence fragment treated as a sentence, should begin with a capital letter. Most sentences within the quotation marks should begin with capital letters. If a quoted sentence is broken into two parts and put in two pairs of quotation marks, the second part does not begin with a capital letter unless the first word is a proper noun or an adjective derived from a proper noun.

➤ Miss Johnson said, “when you write an essay, you should pay attention to both content and language.”

➤ “When you write an essay,” she said, “you should pay attention to both content and language.”

➤ “When you write an essay, you should pay attention to both content and language,” the teacher said.

➤ Miss Johnson advised us to “pay attention to both content and language” when we wrote an essay.

2) Common nouns used as parts of proper names are capitalized.

➤ Changan Street Washington Square Lake Erie President Obama
the Middle Ages Labour Day the Far East Lantern Festival

3) Words derived from proper names are usually capitalized.

➤ Darwinist Nobelist Shakespearian Confucian Hegelian

4) The first word in each line of poetry is usually capitalized if the poet has used capitals.

➤ When you are old and grey and full of sleep,
And nodding by the fire, take down this book,
And slowly read, and dream of the soft look,
Your eyes had once, and of their shadows deep.

—William B. Yeats

➤ God has a brown voice,
as soft and full as beer.

—Anne Sexton

Exercise:

1) Capitalize the following titles:

① where i lived, and what i lived for?

② are transgenic corps safe?

③ why i prefer to live in the countryside?

④ well-known dramatists of ming dynasty

⑤ criticisms on the ending of mark twain's adventures of huckleberry finn

⑥ the people without a country

- ⑦ on the generation gap
- ⑧ which is more important: work or money?
- ⑨ bush set for tour of losangeles
- ⑩ a five day week

2) Read the two paragraphs and capitalize the words that needed.

i say to you today, my friends, even though we face the difficulties of today and tomorrow, i still have a dream. it is a dream deeply rooted in the american dram. i have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creeds—"we hold these truths to be self-evident that all men are created equal."

go back to mississippi; go back to alabama; go back to south carolina; go back to georgia; go back to louisiana; go back to the slums and ghettoes of our northern cities knowing that somehow this situation can and will be changed. let us not wallow in the valley of despair.

1.4 Punctuation

Proper use of punctuation is helpful to convey information correctly and clearly. Thus it is necessary to learn to use the punctuation properly. There are more than ten commonly used punctuation marks in English, including comma(,), period/full stop(.), semicolon(;), colon(:), question mark(?), exclamation mark(!), quotation marks(" "), parenthesis(()), brackets([]), dash(—), slash(/), ellipsis(...), apostrophe('), hyphen(-), underlining(underline) and italics.

1.4.1 The Comma

The comma is one of the most frequently used punctuation marks, and it is used to indicate a pause within a sentence. But sometimes commas are required by the structure of a sentence, even where no pause at all.

1) A comma is used in a compound sentence before the conjunction (and, but, or, for, so, nor, or yet).

- We made it at last, and we felt happy.
- The teacher asked a question, but no one answered.
- Get up early, or you'll be late.
- It must have rained last night, for the ground is wet.
- Nobody answered the door, so she left.
- She couldn't go to the airport to meet him, nor could she send anyone instead.
- I answered all of his questions, yet he is not satisfied.

2) A comma is used after an adverbial phrase or clause, denoting a participial or prepositional phrase placed before the subject, or inserted in the middle of the sentence.

- When you knocked at the door, I was cooking.
- In the ancient palace, they saw the throne where emperors used to sit.

- Born and brought up in the South, she is not used to eating wheat.
- The audience, interested in the topic, asked the speaker many questions.
- Walking through the park, we saw a lot of flowers.
- To catch the train, he got up early this morning.

3) Commas are used to separate a series of words or phrases with the same function in the sentence.

- He got up, washed, dressed and hurried to school.
- The main products of the district are wool, cotton, timber and tung-oil.
- We had a long, hard but interesting journey.
- A group of young men were standing there, talking, laughing and teasing each other.
- In the Great Depression, millions lost their jobs, businesses failed and charitable institutions closed their doors.

- The little girl likes to sing, to dance, and to act.

4) Nonrestrictive clauses and phrases are set off by commas.

- She had eight children, two of whom lived.
- They will fly to Shanghai, where they plan to stay for two weeks.
- The pear trees, which he planted five years ago, have not yet born and fruit.

5) Parenthetical elements are set off by commas.

- The dictionary, you know, is meant chiefly for Chinese students.
- The trees in that area, it is said, are mostly over thirty feet tall.
- Your work, I'm sorry to say, is not satisfactory.

6) In dates, a comma is used to split the day and year if the sequence is month-day-year; no comma need to be used if the sequence is day-month-year.

- The meeting was held on June 6, 2015.
- She was born on 4 June 2010.

7) With numbers over 1,000, commas are often used to separate digits by thousands. From right to left, a comma is placed after every three numerals.

- 123,456 67,543,235 8,890 7,789,900

1.4.2 The Period

1) The period (full stop) is used at the end of a declarative sentence, a mildly imperative sentence, and an indirect question.

- His pronunciation is far from perfect.
- I wonder if you could give me a hand.
- Please take a seat.
- He asked me whether I was a teacher or a student.
- Don't overuse the exclamation marks.

2) The period is used with most abbreviations. If an abbreviation is at the end of a sentence, the punctuation marks but a period can be used after it.

- Washington, D. C. is the capital of the U. S. A.

- Mrs. Smith is a good teacher.
- He gets up at 6:00 a. m. Everyday.
- His real name is Ronald William Reagan, but he is known as Ronald W. Reagan.

3) If an ellipsis is at the end of a sentence, a period is used after it. That is, four periods are used together.

- Peel some oranges, bananas. . . .
- I intend to discuss some of more fundamental principles and ideals upon which I believe the Government of the United States should be conducted. . . .

1.4.3 The Semicolon

The semicolon is used to separate different parts of a sentence or list or to indicate a pause.

1) The semicolon is used between two coordinate clauses which are not linked by a conjunction (and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet). The two coordinate clauses can be separated as two independent sentences without change in meaning. The function of the semicolon is to mark the connection of closely related sentences.

- Work while you work; play while you play.
- No one is born with knowledge; knowledge must be taught and learned.
- People make history; unusual people make history interesting.

2) The semicolon is used with conjunctions when the clauses have internal punctuation.

- Before he came, we had expected him to help us; but when he was with us, he didn't do much.
- He said that he would give up smoking; but when he came to the office, he smoked again.

➤ As he promised, he donated a large sum of money; and this money helped a lot with the Project Hope.

3) The semicolon is used to separate a series of items with internal commas.

- Scientist arrived from such places as Chicago, America; Paris, France and Venice, Italy.
- Follow this procedure: first, get your application forms; next, fill them out; and last, pay the charges.

➤ On the committee are quite a few well-known people; for example, Professor Zhao, Dean of the Normal College; Mr. Han, editor-in-chief of the local evening paper; Miss Xu, a popular actress; and Mr. Hu, Director of the Bureau of Culture.

4) Conjunctive adverbs like *however, therefore, hence, nevertheless, moreover, thus, otherwise, besides*, should not be used as conjunctions to link two coordinate clauses. The semicolon is used before such conjunction adverbs.

- The trip was not very well planned or prepared; therefore, it was not a pleasant one.
- David read a book; then he wrote a book report.
- We made it to the project site by the agreed-upon time; however, the rain forced us to

stay in our trucks for two hours.

- Buses are always crowded; hence he prefers to cycle.
- The invention brought him fame; moreover, it brought him money.

1.4.4 The Colon

The colon is used to show that what follows is an example, list or summary of what precedes it, or a contrasting idea.

1) The colon is used to describe a group or class or a linking phrase to introduce a list of items.

- His library consists of two books; the Bible and Shakespeare.
- Proceed as follows; switch on the computer, insert a disk and press any key.
- “Tomorrow never comes” means; One should not put off till tomorrow what can be done today.
- We have prepared everything we need; funds, techniques, experiences, and qualified personnel.

➤ He gave two reasons for his failure in the examination; poor health and insufficient time for preparation.

2) The colon may precede a quotation or a statement.

- It will do everyone good to remember this old saying: “One will know that he does not know enough after he begins to learn.”
- Shakespeare said: “Neither a borrower nor a lender be.”
- At the meeting he made an important announcement; he would resign from the committee in two weeks.

3) The colon is used between the hour and the minute to show the time, to record the scores of games, to mark the beginning of a speaker’s introductory remark to the chairman and audience.

- The class begins at 8:00.
- China beat Japan 3:2 in the women’s volleyball tournament.
- Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen; (the beginning of a speech)

1.4.5 The Question Mark

1) The question mark is used after a direct question.

- What on earth did you do that for?
- Who has the final say in your family?

2) The question mark is used when a declarative or an imperative sentence is converted into a question.

- You have finished your homework?
- Ten yuan is enough?
- Finish it in five minutes?

3) A question mark within parentheses expresses the writer’s doubt about the correct-

ness of the preceding word, figure, or date.

➤ The owner of this house was born in 1575 (?) and died in 1634.

➤ Qu Yuan, the great Chinese ancient poet, was born in 340 B. C. (?), and died in 286 B. C. (?).

1.4.6 The Exclamation Mark

The exclamation mark is used at the end of a sentence or remark expressing great anger, surprise, joy or other strong emotion.

➤ What wonderful news!

➤ “Never!” she cried.

➤ Help! Help! A boy has fallen into the river!

➤ Never do such a kind of thing!

➤ Long live our great motherland!

1.4.7 Quotation Marks

In British usage, quotation marks are usually single. In U. S. usage, they are usually double.

1) Quotation marks are used to enclose all words and punctuation in direct speech.

➤ “What on earth did you do that for?” he asked.

➤ “Nonsense!”

➤ “We must hope,” he replied wearily, “that things will improve.”

2) Speech within speech is introduced by a comma and enclosed by double quotation marks where single quotation marks are otherwise in use.

➤ The professor said, “Confucius says, ‘Do not impose on others what you do not desire yourself. This is a very good principle of moral conduct.’”

➤ Jane said, “When the judge said, ‘Not guilty’, I could have hugged him.”

3) The quotation marks are used to draw attention to a term that is unusual in the context (e. g. a technical or slang expression) or one that is being used for special effect (e. g. Irony).

➤ Next the dough is “proved” to allow the yeast to start working.

➤ He told me in no uncertain terms to “get lost”.

➤ Thousands were imprisoned in the name of “national security”.

4) Quotation marks are used for titles of articles, essays, short stories, poems, songs, etc., and for headings of chapters or subdivisions of books.

➤ I was watching “Match of the Day”.

➤ The People’s Daily carries an important article today: “The Present Situation in the Balkans.”

➤ Have you ever read Houseman’s famous poem “The Laws of God, the Laws of Man”?

5) The dash, the question mark, and the exclamation mark are placed within the quotation marks when they are connected only with the quoted words; they are placed outside

when they are connected with the whole sentence.

- She asked, “What do you mean?”
- Would you explain to us the meaning of “brain storm”?
- The young man shouted, “Help! Help!”
- Stop crying “I want it”!

1.4.8 Parenthesis

1) Parenthesis is used to separate extra information or an afterthought or a comment from the rest of the sentence.

- Mount Robson (12 972 feet) is the highest mountain in the Canadian Rockies.
- He thinks that modern music (ie anything written after 1900) is rubbish.
- Mark Twain(1835-1910), the famous American writer, wrote many humorous and instructive novels.

2) Parenthesis is used to enclose cross-references.

- This moral ambiguity is a feature of Shakespeare’s later works (see Chapter Eight).

3) Parenthesis enclose figures or letters used for enumeration.

- Our objectives are (1) to increase output, (2) to improve quality and (3) to maximize profits.

➤ Coordinate clauses are linked by (a) a comma and a conjunction, (b) a semicolon or a colon, and (c) a dash.

1.4.9 The Dash

1) The dash is used instead of a colon or semicolon to mark off a summary or conclusion of what has gone before.

- Men were shouting, women were screaming, children were crying—it was chaos.
- You’ve admitted that you lied to me—how can I trust you again?

2) The dash marks a break in thought or a change in tone, or speaker’s hesitation or puzzlement.

- Alice didn’t join us to go out on a picnic yesterday—seemed a little unhappy.
- I didn’t like the meal—did you like it?
- I went through a lot of ordeals in those years—but who didn’t?
- He might do many good things for the people of the city—if he was elected.

3) The dash in pairs can set off a parenthetical element.

➤ Winters in the Mediterranean—contrary to what many people think—can be very cold.

- Three countries—Spain, Italy and Hungary—abstained.
- His old problems—such as asthma and high blood pressure—are still worrying him.

4) The dash indicates an unfinished or interrupted statement.

- “She is going to—” “Go home?”
- “My idea is—” “You don’t want to stay, do you?”