1. Conventions of Standard Written English

Breakdown of the Test

1. Conventions of Standard Written English (10%)

2. Revision Skills (40%)

3. Ability to Use Source Materials (25%)

4. Rhetorical Analysis (25%)

Breakdown of the Test

5. The Essays

There are two essays that have to be written. One of them will be about two sources, which have to be cited.

Conventions of Standard Written English

Now we will study different syntactical and grammatical aspects of the English language, and what kind of mistakes the CLEP exam purposefully puts in their test to see if you can recognize them.

Conventions of Standard Written English

The sections in this unit are:

1.1. Syntax (parallelism, coordination, subordination)

1.2. Sentence boundaries (comma splice, run-ons, sentence fragments)

1.3. Recognition of correct sentences

1.4. Concord/agreement (pronoun reference, case shift and number; subject-verb; verb tense)

1.5. Diction

1.6. Modifiers

1.7. Idiom

1.8. Active/passive voice

1.9. Lack of subject in modifying word group

1.10. Logical comparison

1.11. Logical agreement

1.12. Punctuation

1.1 Syntax (Parallelism, Coordination, Subordination)

Syntax

**We will look at these types
of sentences:**

- **Simple**

- **Compound**

- **Complex**

- **Compound-complex**

Simple Sentences

Simple sentences consist of a subject and a predicate (verb):

Jane went to the store.

I like my new house.

She sells clothes online.

Clauses

A clause is a subject and a predicate. When it can stand alone it's an independent clause:

Bill is a poet.

Clauses

When it can't stand alone,
it's a **dependent (subordinate) clause**:

who lives in Madrid.

Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are two independent clauses joined together by a conjunction (or, and, but, for, so, yet, not).

Compound Sentences

Bill is a poet and Jane is an architect.

You are very tired so you should go home.

Complex Sentences

A complex sentence is made up of an independent clause with one or more dependent clauses:

Complex Sentences

When I called my parents, they were eating dinner.

She is the one who helped me fix the car when I broke down.

Complex Sentences

The independent clause can be linked by the relative pronouns *who*, *whoever*, *that* or *which* to link the dependent clause to the main clause. This creates an adjective clauses that is attached to the main clause or can be found in the middle of it:

Complex Sentences

The professor who teaches the class is German.

People who speak other languages understand other cultures.

Complex Sentences

The independent clause can also be linked by conjunctions to create <u>adverb clauses and other types of clauses</u>. Some of these conjunctions are: *before*, *after*, *if*, *because*, *unless*, *as*.

Complex Sentences

If we smoke we go outside.

Unless she helps me, I won't get it done.

She is trilingual because she lived abroad.

After eating, I will go back to work.

Compound-Complex Sentences

A compound-complex sentence has two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses:

Compound-Complex Sentences

She studies a lot and she spends a lot of time in the library because she wants to get good grades.

Parallelisms

A parallelism is when a word or phrase that is repeated in a sentence functions in the same way in another part of the sentence. It is considered a parallelism because it should not change when it is repeated.

Parallelisms

Wrong: *You should either go to the store or beginning your homework now.*

Right: *You should either go to the store or begin your homework now.*

Parallelisms

Some of the conjunctions in which parallelisms should be monitored are:

- *not only…but also*
- *whether...or*
- *either....or*
- *neither...not*
- *the more...the more*
- *both...and*

Parallelisms

Some more examples:

Wrong: *Whether you decide on staying here or to go there, you will need to tell us soon*.

Correct: *Whether you decide on staying here or going there, you will need to tell us soon*.

Parallelisms

Some more examples:

Wrong: *After you write the letter, collecting the envelopes and addressing them, please send them on.*

Correct: *After you write the letter, collect the envelopes and address them, please send them on.*

1.2 Sentence Boundaries (Comma Splice, Run-Ons, Sentence Fragments)

Sentence Boundaries: Comma Splice

We want to avoid improperly connecting two independent clauses.

Wrong:

Andy didn't have any money, he couldn't go to the show.

Sentence Boundaries: Run-on Sentences

A run-on sentence also improperly connects two sentences:

Wrong:

Susan is in charge of the department she has a good understanding of how things work.

Sentence Boundaries: Fragments

In order to avoid fragments, we should have a subject and predicate that contains a verb. We <u>don't</u> want examples like these:

Sentence Boundaries: Fragments

Brings it to the store.

A boomerang that doesn't come back.

Doing what is asked of me, without delay.

1.3 Recognition of Correct Sentences

Recognition of Correct Sentences

This is a general category that refers to being able to recognize if what is shown is a correct sentence. Studying all the sections in this unit will help you prepare for this. Examples:

Recognition of Correct Sentences

Wrong: *She doesn't understood what I was saying.*

Right: *She didn't understand what I was saying.*

Recognition of Correct Sentences

Wrong: *Its not how you see it's outer shell Its what you don't see on the inside that is important.*

Right: *It's not how you see its outer shell; it's what you don't see on the inside that is important.*

1.4 Concord/Agreement (Pronoun Reference, Case Shift, and Number; Subject-Verb; Verb Tense)

Agreement

You also want to make sure there is agreement in a sentence. There are different types of agreement:

- Pronoun reference
- Case shift and number
- Subject-verb
- Verb tense

Pronoun Reference

Agreement in person refers to the relationship between the pronoun/subject and the corresponding verb.

Pronoun Reference

Wrong: *The professor and she is going.*

Correct: *The professor and she are going.*

Wrong: *If you want to do it, one has to do it right.*

Correct: *If you want to do it, you have to do it right.*

Wrong: *He always tell me that I am right.*

Correct: *He always tells me that I am right.*

Pronoun Reference

We have to be careful to always be aware of the demonstrative pronouns (this, that, these, those) and pronouns in the sentences. The reference can be confusing, like with these examples:

Pronoun Reference

When Suzy saw Jill, she was angry about class.

There are situations in which children don't have proper access to education. These bother me more than anything you can imagine.

Agreement in Case

Agreement in case has to do with the correct use of a noun or pronoun in a sentence.

I want to find the cat.

The ladder is leaning against my house.

My sister gave me a dollar to buy the candy.

Agreement in Case

You want to make sure things are in order with the case in question:

Wrong: *Andy and me went to the store*.

Right: *Andy and I went to the store*.

Wrong: *This is for you and I*.

Right: *This is for you and me*.

Agreement in Gender

Agreement in gender refers to being gender neutral when you write.

Agreement in Gender

Wrong: *Mankind is worried about Earth's future*.

Right: *Humanity is worried about Earth's future*.

Wrong: *Everyone must do his part*.

Right: *Everyone must do his or her part*.

Agreement in Number

Agreement in number refers to the relationship of different parts of speech in a sentence and whether they are singular or plural.

Agreement in Number

Wrong: *If someone wants a key, they have to go to the front desk.*

Right: *If someone wants a key, he or she has to go to the front desk.*

Wrong: *The students should open their book*.

Right: *The students should open their books*.

Subject-Verb Agreement

Subject-verb agreement refers to using the correct subject with the correct verb (I run, you run, he <u>runs</u>, we run, you (all) run, they run). It's the third person singular form that we have to watch. This is more complicated with irregular verbs.

Subject-Verb Agreement

Wrong: *She said she go for a run every morning.*

Right: *She said she goes for a run every morning.*

Wrong: *She said that you was tired.*

Right: *She said that you were tired.*

Verb Tense Agreement

This refers to inappropriate changes in time frames in a sentence without proper cues.

Verb Tense Agreement

Wrong: *She take the subway home and then met with her friend in the café.*

Right: *She took the subway home and then met with her friend in the café.*

Verb Tense Agreement

Sometimes, however, there
are understood changes,
and a tense shift is OK:

*They are riding in the car
that she bought last week.*

1.5 Diction

Diction

Diction refers to word choice. Consider these:

- Effect/ Affect
- Farther/ Further
- Than/ Then
- Who/ That/ Which
- Who/ Whom

Diction

Diction refers to word choice. Consider these:

- There/ Their/ They're
- Lie/ Lay (Lain/ Laid)
- Accept/ except
- Capitol/ Capital
- Principal/ principle
- Stationery/ Stationary

1.6 Modifiers

Modifiers: Adjectives

With count nouns (bird, child, lemon) and non-count nouns (milk, dust, food) we need to be aware of the corresponding adjectives we use.

Modifiers: Adjectives

Some adjectives, such as *enough*, *some*, and *any* can be used with both:

I have some birds in my yard.

I need some milk with these cookies.

Modifiers: Adjectives

Watch the words *many*, *much*, *few*, *little*, which can only be used with:

Modifiers: Adjectives

Count nouns:

There are many people here.

There are few choices in this.

Non-count nouns:

I don't have much time.

He has little experience in this field.

Modifiers: Adverbs

**Adverbs modify verbs,
adjectives, other adverbs
or entire clauses.**

Modifiers: Adverbs

I am good (in character) as opposed to *I am well* (state of being now).

Wrong: *I'll do it quick*.
Right: *I'll do it quickly*.

Floating Modifiers

Depending on where it's located in the sentence, a word could change the semantics (meaning) of what the sentence is conveying. Look at these two examples:

Floating Modifiers

Only I want to understand what she said.

I only want to understand what she said.

1.7 Idiom

Idiom

An idiom is a set expression or phrase that has a figurative meaning and that is not interpreted literally. Some examples are:

Idiom

"All ears"

"Call it a day"

"Keep in touch"

"Off the hook"

"See eye to eye"

"Take it easy"

"Wet behind the ears"

1.8. Active/Passive Voice

Active/Passive Voice

The active voice is when the subject has a direct relationship to the verb. The passive voice is when that subject become the agent of the action. Some examples are:

Active/Passive Voice

The student wrote the paper (active)

The paper was written by the student (passive)

She is taking the test. (active)

The test is being taken by her. (passive)

1.9 Lack of Subject in Modifying Word Group

Lack of Subject in Modifying Word Group

This section could be found in many of the categories we have already seen.

Wrong*: I smoked behind the garage. And then got in trouble for it*.

Right: *I smoked behind the garage, and then I got in trouble for it*.

Lack of Subject in Modifying Word Group

Wrong: *My sister, the smartest in the family*.

Right: *My sister is the smartest in the family.*

1.10 Logical Comparison

Logical Comparison

A logical comparison can be missed when the corresponding form is incorrect or missing. Here are some examples:

Wrong: *My sister's car is faster than your sisters*.

Right: *My sister's car is faster than your sister's.*

Logical Comparison

Wrong: *Julie's collection has more stamps than Bob does.*

Right*: Julie's collection has more stamps than Bob's does.*

1.11 Logical Agreement

Logical Agreement

This is another broad category that overlaps with much of what has already been seen. To review this, here are some examples:

Wrong: *Andy like sports because it makes him feel good*.

Logical Agreement

Wrong: *A teacher should use a lesson plan that they alone prepare*.

Right: *A teacher should use a lesson plan that he or she alone prepares*.

1.12 Punctuation

Punctuation: Semicolons

Semicolons are used:

- **To separate two independent clauses:**

I can't do this any more; instead, we should share the cost.

Punctuation: Semicolons

Semicolons are used:

- **To make lists of extended words:**

What you can do is: a) finish your work; b) ask your professor if you can do it at home; c) ask for an extension and do it next class; d) leave now and take the zero.

Punctuation: Colons

Colons can be used in many different ways after an independent clause. For example:

Explanations: *She was the doctor: she knew what to do in the situation*.

Punctuation: Colons

Quotations: *Sally was in a rough state when she said: "The candidate has no idea what is going on."*

Lists: *My mom said I could do one of three things: study, get a job, or move out.*

Punctuation: Commas

There are many ways a comma is used.

It is used to separate a dependent clause from an independent clause:

When you leave the house, make sure that you turn the light off.

Punctuation: Commas

It is used to separate nonrestrictive clauses:

My sister, who is an expert, teaches high school.

Punctuation: Commas

It is used to separate two independent clauses:

I was really tired after the show, but I was willing to stay on for a while longer.

Punctuation: Commas

It is used to separate modifiers:

The day was welcomed after the long, dark night.

2. Revision Skills

Revision Skills

Now we will study skills for revision. This is the longest section in the test. It gauges your ability to revise passages and sentences. Although most are passages in a longer text, some are just sentences.

Revision Skills

Each question asks you to pick the best out of five choices. All are multiple choice. *It is important to note that many of the skills for this sections are tested in other sections also.*

Revision Skills

The sections covered in this unit are:

2.1 Organization

2.2 Evaluation of evidence

2.3 Awareness of audience, tone and purpose

2.4 Level of detail

2.5 Coherence between sentences and paragraphs

2.6 Sentence variety and structure

2.7 Main idea, thesis statements and topic sentences

Revision Skills

2.8 Rhetorical effects and emphasis

2.9 Use of language

2.10 Evaluation of author's authority and appeal

2.11 Evaluation of reasoning

2.12 Consistency of point of view

2.13 Transitions

2.14 Sentence-level errors primarily relating to the conventions of Standard Written English

2.1 Organization

Organization

Organization refers to the way information is structured and delivered. What is important to consider is:

- Audience (the readers)

- Purpose (of the text)

- A logical and coherent presentation of ideas

Organization

- **The introduction, summarizing and repetition of key points**
- **Transitions between points given**
- **Consistency in organization of ideas**

Organization

There are different types of organization:

- Specific to general, or general to specific organization

- Chronological organization

Organization

- **Comparison organization**
- **Cause-effect organization**

2.2 Evaluation of Evidence

Evaluation of Evidence

Evidence is what a writer uses to support her points (thesis). There are different types of evidence:

- Data and information analyzed by the writer

Evaluation of Evidence

- **What the writer generally observes and perceives**
- **The citations the writer uses (references and quotations)**

Evaluation of Evidence

There are many types of evidence that can be evaluated:

- *Findings* (statistics, data, theories, observations)

Evaluation of Evidence

- *Observation* (informal, formal, anecdotal)
- *Authority* (appealing to experts, scholarly works, organizations, etc. for support)

2.3 Awareness of Audience, Tone and Purpose

Awareness of Audience, Tone and Purpose

Readers should be aware of the:

- **Audience: for whom the text is written (this will help understand the depth, vocabulary, topic and tone of the text)**

Awareness of Audience, Tone and Purpose

- **Tone: the attitude of the writer**
- **Purpose: why the text was written**

Each one of these points has an effect on the other points.

2.4 Level of Detail

Level of Detail

The control of detail is important in writing. <u>Too much detail</u> may cloud the main point, while <u>not enough detail</u> may overgeneralize and not be clear.

Level of Detail

Too much detail may also make the reader think minor points are more important than they actually are, and the **suppression of key details** may leave holes in the coherence of what is intended to be conveyed.

2.5 Coherence Between Sentences and Paragraphs

Coherence between Sentences and Paragraphs

The flow of words and the connectedness of ideas should be clear between sentences, between sentences and paragraphs, and between paragraphs themselves.

Coherence between Sentences and Paragraphs

The first sentence in the paragraph (the topic sentence) should convey the main idea of the paragraph, and the subsequent sentences should support it.

Coherence between Sentences and Paragraphs

The sequence of paragraphs should flow as well. This section will be covered in greater detail when we review how to write a composition.

2.6 Sentence Variety and Structure

Sentence Variety and Structure

Unit 1 covered the different types of sentences (simple, compound, complex, etc.). Writing with a variety of types of sentences makes the reading more diverse and less monotonous.

2.7 Main Idea, Thesis Statements and Topic Sentences

Main Idea, Thesis Statements and Topic Sentences

The main idea for the paper will be presented in the introduction. The sentence that summarizes the main idea, usually at the end of the introduction (although some works don't have an explicit thesis statement), is called the <u>thesis statement</u>.

Main Idea, Thesis Statements and Topic Sentences

Each subsequent paragraph should have its own "mini-thesis statement", called a <u>topic sentence</u>, usually at the beginning of each paragraph. This will be covered in greater depth when we review how to write a paper.

2.8 Rhetorical Effects and Emphasis

Rhetorical Effects and Emphasis

There are many ways writers try to persuade readers of their ideas.

There are many rhetorical techniques related to language that can be used in writing. These will be covered in detail in Unit 4.

Rhetorical Effects and Emphasis

The writer can also appeal to the readers in different ways:

- **There can be an appeal to <u>reason</u>, when the writer uses evidence and logic to persuade.**

Rhetorical Effects and Emphasis

There can be an appeal to <u>authority</u>, when the writer aims to be trustworthy and knowledgeable.

Rhetorical Effects and Emphasis

There can be an appeal to emotion, when the writer uses anger, emotion, etc., to engage the readers.

Rhetorical Effects and Emphasis

Not all of them are effective for the same purpose, and all of them have their fallacies. These three points are also not exclusive to one another, and a good writer may mix different approaches in the same work.

2.9 Use of Language

Use of Language

Using the right language in writing is important.

- **Language should have careful word choice – diction (covered in Unit one)**

Use of Language

- **Language should be appropriate for the intended audience (not too formal or informal)**
- **Language should avoid slang and jargon, as this might confuse the reader or seem radically out of place.**

Use of Language

- **Language should generally be consistent (taking into consideration tone, purpose and audience)**

- **Language should not be gender-biased**

2.10 Evaluation of Author's Authority and Appeal

Evaluation of Author's Authority and Appeal

We need to evaluate the writer's authority and appeal taking into consideration some points:

- The effective use of rhetorical effects and emphasis

Evaluation of Author's Authority and Appeal

- **Whether the authority is actually an authority (legitimate/ debatable authority)**

- **Whether there is bias in the authority's opinion**

Evaluation of Author's Authority and Appeal

- **Whether the authority is a "lone wolf" in her/his field**
- **Whether the claim made is within the authority's area of expertise**

2.11 Evaluation of Reasoning

Evaluation of Reasoning

To evaluate a writer's reasoning, we should take into consideration:

- **Evaluating the assumptions that the writer makes**
- **Examining the evidence the writer uses**

Evaluation of Reasoning

- **Looking for fallacies in the writer's reasoning**
- **Reviewing the writer's logic (flow, sequence of ideas and consistency)**

2.12 Consistency of Point of View

Consistency of Point of View

On one level, this refers to the consistency in the person or pronouns being used (as seen in Unit 1):

Wrong: *I like to go to the store. You have a lot of things from which to choose.*

Right: *I like to go to the store. There are a lot of things from which to choose* (there are other ways to write this).

Consistency of Point of View

From the perspective of the writer, it refers to first person ("I believe…", "I have shown…") or third person (sometimes "we", or "you"). Although sometimes these voices are mixed, an abnormal flow can make the text erratic and confusing.

2.13 Transitions

Transitions

Transitions between sentences and ideas are important for coherent writing. Writers that organize their ideas with transitions facilitate the reader's understanding of the flow and connectivity of ideas. Some important transition words are:

Transitions

Addition: also, moreover, furthermore, in addition

Introduction: concerning, regarding, with regard to

Similarity: likewise, but the same token, similarly

Conflict: however, whereas, but, in contract

Transitions

Emphasis: even more, indeed, besides

Condition: given that, granted, even if

Conclusion: in the end, lastly, to conclude

Summation: given these points, consequently, on the whole, in short

2.14 Sentence-Level Errors Primarily Relating to the Conventions of Standard Written English

Sentence-level errors primarily relating to the conventions of Standard Written English

As mentioned before, although most questions in this section are passages in a longer text, some are stand-alone sentences, as seen in Unit One.

3. Ability to Use Source Materials

Ability to Use Source Materials

In this section you will be tested on your research skills. There are reference questions also. Some of the questions are taken from a passage, while others are stand-alone. You will need to know about:

Ability to Use Source Materials

3.1 Use of reference materials

3.2 Evaluation of sources

3.3 Integration of resource material

3.4 Documentation of sources (including, but not limited to, MLA, APA and Chicago manuals of style)

3.1 Use of Reference Materials

Use of Reference Materials

Documenting sources is very important in academic writing; let's say, in fact, that it is important in most *all* writing. It is important for four reasons:

- To avoid plagiarism and to be ethical in writing
- To be more convincing and credible when writing

Use of Reference Materials

- To provide a "dialogue" when writing, a conversation between the writer and the sources used. This reaction and interaction gives the paper more substance and dimension.

- To give readers additional resources for further reading on the subject

Use of Reference Materials

PALAGIARISM – something we all want to avoid. We should give credit where credit is due. If we take someone else's idea, we should recognize their work as not being ours but theirs.

Use of Reference Materials

Avoiding plagiarism is the <u>ethical</u> way to approach writing, and learning about how to cite material can save you in the long run. It's best to learn about it now and get in the habit of using it. What is more, it makes your writing look more <u>credible</u>.

Use of Reference Materials

Documenting sources is important to avoid plagiarism and to be ethical in writing. We must cite our sources and give credit to the person whose idea we are using. This is a courtesy we owe to that person and an obligation we owe to our readers.

Use of Reference Materials

Sources should be documented especially when:

- **Uncommon facts**
- **Ideas that are original and unique**

Use of Reference Materials

However, sometimes quotations are so well known that we don't have to cite them, and we may not even know where they came from.

Here is an example:

Blood is thicker than water.

The same can be made with general statements:

Mount Everest is the highest mountain in the world.

Use of Reference Materials

Documenting sources is important for writers to convince readers. Backing up what is said by using expert/ external opinion gives more credibility to the paper.

Use of Reference Materials

Readers may not be convinced by the author's words alone, and having other sources pointed in the same direction reinforces the veracity of the writer's voice.

Use of Reference Materials

Documenting sources is important to provide a "dialogue" when you write. In addition to the multiplicity of voices and diversity of perspectives that the use of external sources provides, you have the opportunity to engage in a conversation with them, which makes your paper more lively than if the paper were only written from your perspective.

Use of Reference Materials

By responding to what others say by either agreeing or disagreeing with them, by anticipating counterarguments and responding to naysayers, and by using external sources to support your central argument, you can create a very well-structured and clear paper that uses interchange, evidence and reason to convey your point.

Use of Reference Materials

Documenting sources is important to give readers additional resources for further perusal on the subject. If they are interested in finding out more about a citation, they only need to look up where it came from. This why it's important to be careful when citing, to not be tokenistic or misrepresentative, but rather whole and accurate when finding support. This takes us to our next section on Evaluating Sources.

Use of Reference Materials

(On finding sources, remember that a citation should support *your* ideas; you shouldn't just find quotes and write around them as if they were the outline of your paper. This is different, however, from *explaining* your citation, which is very important. This will be covered in Unit 5 on Writing the essay).

3.2 Evaluation of Sources

Evaluation of Sources

When you write a paper, you want to use reliable, up-to-date sources to support your ideas. This is why you need to closely evaluate the sources you select. Readers will also evaluate what you use, and unless you are careful, their findings may cast doubt on the merit of your paper. Some of the questions they may ask might be:

Evaluation of Sources

- Is the content of the source fact or opinion?
- Is the coverage of the evidence sufficient and reliable?
- Are these primary or secondary sources?
- How old are the sources?
- How reliable is the source?
- Are multiple viewpoints acknowledged?

Evaluation of Sources

Some things that you need to be aware of when choosing sources is:

- Type of source
- Internet versus print source
- Objectivity versus subjectivity of source

Evaluation of Sources

- **Relevance and range of coverage of source**
- **Credibility of the source and of the author of the source**
- **Date of publication of the source**

Evaluation of Sources

Type of Source:

- **Is the source a *primary* source (first hand source) or a *secondary* source (something written about a primary source)**

- **Is it a peer-reviewed or non-peer reviewed source?**

Evaluation of Sources

Internet Versus Print Source:

- **With a print source, it's easier to find out who wrote it, and when and where it was written. Anyone can put anything online anytime.**

Evaluation of Sources

Internet Versus Print Source:

- **With a print source, the publication process is more refined and strict, and more reliable. There is reviewing and editing involved. Anyone can put anything online anytime.**

Evaluation of Sources

Internet Versus Print Source:

- **With a print source, it is less likely to be biased. Anyone can put anything online anytime.**

Evaluation of Sources

Objectivity Versus Subjectivity of Source:

- **Biased sources may not be credible or convincing**

- **Evidence should show an impartial viewpoint**

- **Look for language and wording cues that offset an objective focus**

Evaluation of Sources

Relevance and Range of Coverage of Source:

- Is the source that is selected relevant to the topic? Is it a scholarly work about that topic? Is it primary research?

- Does the source cover enough information about the topic? Is it too superficial, or perhaps too complex?

Evaluation of Sources

Credibility of the Source and of the Author of the Source:

- **How are the author's and the source's credentials and affiliations?**
- **What else has the author published in this field or in other fields?**
- **How is the reputation of the source and/ or the author?**

Evaluation of Sources

Date of Publication of the Source:

- **Does the publication represent the latest research in the field? Are there a variety of publications over different dates? Does it matter?**
- **Does the field being researched change constantly? Is the publication true to the latest findings?**
- **Is the latest research necessarily the best?**

3.3 Integration of Resource Material

Integration of Resource Material

<u>Citation</u>: When you integrate resource material into a paper, you cite a reference.

<u>Reference</u>: This gives the bibliographic information of the source (author, title, publisher, date of publication, place of publication). Depending on the source, not all of this will be available.

Integration of Resource Material

In this section we will cover citing sources.

In section 3.4 we will cover referencing sources.

Integration of Resource Material

There are three main types of citations and referencing:

MLA (Modern Language Association)

APA (American Psychological Association)

CMS (Chicago manual of Style)

They have the same information, but this information is organized in different ways.

Integration of Resource Material

Sources can be cited in many ways.

Let's say there is a book about language entitled *Languages in Decline* by Dalia Lipperstein. She is considered an expert in the field of linguistics. Sources can be cited in many ways. Here are some different ways:

Integration of Resource Material

Lipperstein (2016) predicts that the number of world languages will decline by one third in the next half century.

Lipperstein predicts that the number of world languages will decline by one third in the next half century (312-313).

The number of world languages will decline by one third in the next half century (Lipperstein 2016).

Integration of Resource Material

MLA Style Citation (Modern Language Association).

This style is used by many in the humanities.

Free-standing main text citations usually have the last name of the author and the page number, but if the name of the author is in the main text, you don't need to repeat it after the citation:

Integration of Resource Material

MLA Style Citation

Lipperstein predicts that the number of world languages will decline by one third in the next half century (312-313).

With the age of the Internet and other forces of globalization, it is predicted that the number of world languages (Lipperstein 312-313).

Integration of Resource Material

MLA Style Citation

If there are *numerous places in the same source* that are cited, the page numbers are separated by commas:

With the age of the Internet and other forces of globalization, it is predicted that the number of world languages will decline by one third in the next half century (Lipperstein 108, 312-313, 376).

Integration of Resource Material

MLA Style Citation

If there are *numerous sources with the same information*, the sources are separated by semicolons:

It is predicted that in the next 50 years, the number of world languages will decline significantly (Lipperstein 312-313; Moore and Trowel 333; Toll, Nickels and Jonson 19).

Integration of Resource Material

MLA Style Citation

More than three authors:

(Watson, Hammerstein, Blackstone et al.)

Organizations:

(Human Rights Watch);
(Human Right Watch 25)

Integration of Resource Material

MLA Style Citation

Multiple volumes:

(Henderson 2: 341)

Source within a source:

Dreggel sees that the number of world languages will decline in the next half century (cited in Lipperstein 312-313).

Integration of Resource Material

MLA Style Citation

If a source quotes another source it should show with "qtd."in the citation, like this: "Hafferson explained that reason was "way too obvious, and beyond a doubt (qtd. in Keller 196).

Integration of Resource Material

MLA Style Citation

Beyond this, there are citation formats regarding recordings, emails, newspapers, magazines, etc.

Integration of Resource Material

MLA Style Citation

In regard to citing a source on the Internet, the rules are like those of print sources, although much of the information may not be available. If the name is not available, the article name or website can be used. If a website is cited, the domain name can used rather than writing in the entire URL.

Integration of Resource Material

APA Style Citation

The APA style derives from the American Psychological Association's publication manual. It is a style used in many social sciences for scientific writing.

Integration of Resource Material

APA Style Citation

These stand like this:

- **In-text citation:**

Henderson and Hamilton (2016) pointed out the spike in coryza among college students in the Boston area.

- **Parenthetical citation:**

There has been a spike in coryza cases among Boston area college students (Henderson & Hamilton, 2016).

Integration of Resource Material

APA Style Citation

Let's say you have more than one source:

There has been a spike in coryza cases among Boston area college students (Boyle, 2015; Henderson & Hamilton, 2016; Zoltan 2016).

Integration of Resource Material

APA Style Citation

If there are more than two authors, after they are mentioned the first time, future references can be listed as "(first author) et al.", which means "and others" in Latin.

Integration of Resource Material

APA Style Citation

For organizations:

The rise in acute nasopharyngitis is seen as typical this time of year (Department of Health and Human Services, 2015).

In the case of a quotation citation:

"The anarcho syndicalist tendencies are baseless and unfounded" (Sully, 2011, p. 217).

As Sully (2011) states, "Those anarcho syndicalist tendencies are baseless and unfounded" (p. 217).

Integration of Resource Material

APA Style Citation

Say you have a source that sources a source (you like what someone writes about someone else):

Jackson (2009) sees this phenomenon on the decline because of diaspora (as cited in Wilcox, 2007).

Integration of Resource Material

APA Style Citation

As in the MLA style, there are rules surrounding other non-academic sources like newspapers, recordings, emails, etc.

Also, like the MLA style, sources taken from the internet are like those of printed sources. If the internet address alone is given, is would appear like this:

The seventeen thousand people that survived that ordeal are now resettled in different countries (http://www.diasporacheck.com/about).

Integration of Resource Material

CMS Style Citation

CMS is the *Chicago Manual of Style.* It is not the product of a professional organization but is used for all types of writing. There are two different CMS subset styles for citations and reference. One is the notes and bibliography style, and the other is author-date.

Integration of Resource Material

CMS Style Citation

For the notes and bibliography style, when there is a source used, there is a number at the end of the sentence, and the reference details are listed either at the bottom of the page (footnote) or at the end of the essay (endnote):

Dempsy notices this change across classes, from the rich to the poor1.

Integration of Resource Material

CMS Style Citation

For the author-date system, the source is included, like in the APA style, with little change:

This change occurs across classes, from the rich to the poor (Dempsey 1997, 212).

Integration of Resource Material

CMS Style Citation

Like with the APA and MLA styles, the CMS style also has additional rules surrounding the sourcing of recordings, periodicals, emails, and the like. These formats, and those of the other styles, can be found in the supplemental materials section.

3.4 Documentation of Sources (Including, But Not Limited to MLA, APA and Chicago Manuals of Style)

Documentation of Sources

References/ Works Cited/ Bibliography

When using sources when writing, we must leave a full print of where we borrowed the material. The in-text and parenthetical citations are an abbreviated note to a fuller text which is listed at the end of the paper (or elsewhere, depending on the style: MLA, APA or CMS).

Documentation of Sources

APA Style Reference

All the citations in the main text require a full bibliographic reference at the end of the paper. These are listed in alphabetical order by the author's last name. These are some of the more common types of references seen:

Documentation of Sources

APA Style Reference

Book:

Hasselstein, R. (2012). *Dystopian Psychotherapy: A View from Across the Bridge*. NY: Handel Press.

In this case we have the author, the date of publication, the name of the book, the place of publication and the publisher.

Documentation of Sources

APA Style Reference

Journal article:

Hasselstein, R. (2011). Retribution Psychology in the Age of the Aftermath. *Psychology Beyond, 21*, **211-224.**

In this case, we have the author, the publication date, the name of the article, the journal, the volume number, and then the page numbers.

Documentation of Sources

APA Style Reference

Chapter from an edited book:

Hasselstein, R. (2016). Gathering Reasons for the Psychoallergenic Age. In P. Brottel and K. Mendelston (Eds.) *New Approaches to Mind and Age* (pp. 198-227). Boston, Fender Press.

Documentation of Sources

APA Style Reference

In this case, we have a chapter from a book that was published in 2016. Hasslestein is the author of the article "Gathering Reasons for the Psychoallergenic Age", that appeared in the book *New Approaches to Mind and Age* that was edited by Brottel and Mendelston. The article in that book appears on pages 198-227, and it was published in Boston by Fender Press.

Documentation of Sources

APA Style Reference

Organizations:

State Report on Children's Health. (1998). *Suggested Standards for Adolescent Well Being.* Baltimore, MD: Council of Youth Development.

Magazine article:

Levett, T. (2011, March). Arthurian revival. *Contemporary Medievalism, 37,* 98-110.

Documentation of Sources

APA Style Reference

More than six authors:

Pabson T., Averill B., Samson H., Heller U., Gregorian E., Tenill W., et al. (2009). Lesser harmony in an age of great change. *Journal of Social Development, 22,* 444-490.

Documentation of Sources

APA Style Reference

Internet sources:

Vatt, P. N. (2000). The ergative case. Retrieved 21 August 2001, from http://www.globallinguistics.org/ergativecase.htm.

Also, for Internet sources the DOI (Digital Object Identifier) or the URL should be provided. The date for the final version of the page should be given, but if there is no date, then the date it was retrieved will suffice.

Documentation of Sources

APA Style Reference

Here is an example of the DOI reference:

Johnson, J. (1999). Facts and figures of the fears and fancies of a new century. *Journal of Chronology, 17*, 199-211. doi:15.3470/1077-9947.56.2.991

Documentation of Sources

MLA Style Reference

The MLA style is similar to the APA, but has somewhat of a different format. Note the type of source (print, electronic, etc.) is put at the end:

Book:

Hanscom, Roberta. *Lapidary Poetry in Wartime.* Minneapolis, MN: Hackter Press, 1992. Print.

Documentation of Sources

Style comparisons:

MLA Style Reference:

Hanscom, Roberta. *Lapidary Poetry in Wartime.* Minneapolis, MN: Hackter Press, 1992. Print.

APA Style Reference (for comparison):

Hanscom, R (1992). *Lapidary Poetry in Wartime.* Minneapolis, MN: Hackter Press.

CMS AD (author-date) Style Reference:

Hanscom, Roberta. 1992. *Lapidary Poetry in Wartime.* Minneapolis, MN: Hackter Press.

CMS NB (notes and bibliography) Style Reference:

Hanscom, Roberta, *Lapidary Poetry in Wartime.* (Minneapolis, MN: Hackter Press, 1992).

Documentation of Sources

CMS Style Reference

With the CMS NB style, this style (a subset number is put after the source), the page number can follow from where the citation was taken (remember this appears in a footnote or an endnote):

Hanscom, Roberta, *Lapidary Poetry in Wartime.* (Minneapolis, MN: Hackter Press, 1992), 27-28.

If there are further citations with this same source (Hanscom) in the CMS NB style, they can be shown like this:

Hanscom, *Lapidary Poetry,* 59.

Documentation of Sources

Common abbreviations for bibliographic entries:

Here are abbreviations you might find on the test. This is not an exhaustive list. You may want to consult with longer lists:

chap. = chapter

diss. = dissertation

doi = digital object identifier

ed. = editor OR edition

eds. = editors

et al. = to list additional authors

Ibid = a citation refers to the source just used

Documentation of Sources

Common abbreviations for bibliographic entries:

n.d. = no date given

n.p. = no publisher

no. = number (volume, etc.)

p./ p.p. = page/ pages

qtd. = quote

rpt. = reprint

trans. = translator

URL = Universal Resource Locator

vol. = volume

writ. = writer

Documentation of Sources

Reference Materials

Where people can go to find facts and information. Here are some types of reference materials:

Almanac - for facts, statistics and comparative information on people, places and events.

Atlas – different types of maps

Documentation of Sources

Reference Materials

Bibliography – list of resources and material

Citations index – a list of citations for specific sources

Dictionary – for the origin, pronunciation and definitions of words

Documentation of Sources

<u>Reference Materials</u>

<u>Directories</u> – a list of people or organizations

<u>Encyclopedia</u> – a listing of a wide range of subjects, with brief information about them

<u>Handbook</u> – a lot of information on one subject

<u>Index </u> – how to locate information on an item or source

<u>Thesaurus</u> – a synonym dictionary

Documentation of Sources

Using a dictionary

A dictionary entry will have the word, its part of speech (adj.), its meaning, its grammatical forms (variations on the word), and etymology (origin of the word).

Documentation of Sources

Using a dictionary

Some entries will be denotations (the literal meaning of the word. Example: "pig" = reference to the farm animal), while others will be connotations (subjective, figurative meaning. Example: "pig" = reference to being sloppy and eating too much).

Documentation of Sources

Parts of speech abbreviations

adj. – adjective

adv. – adverb

conj. – conjunction

interj. – interjection

modif. – modifier (adjective or adverb)

n. – noun

prep. – preposition

pron. – pronoun

Documentation of Sources

Grammatical information Abbreviations:

comp. – compound

compar. – comparative

compl. – complement

dem. – demonstrative

der. – derivation

imp. – imperative

ind. – indicative

intr. – intransitive

irreg. – irregular

m. – masculine

pa. t. – past tense

poss. – possessive

pl. – plural

pref. – prefix

refl. – reflexive

sing. – singular

subj. – subjective

superl. – superlative

trans. – transitive

Documentation of Sources

Usage and Etymology Abbreviations

Amer. –
American

bef. – before

Brit. – British

c./ cent. –
century

ca. – circa
(approximate
date)

cf.- confer
(compare to
another word)

colloq. –
colloquial

def. – definition

dial. – dialect

etym. –
etymology

euphem. –
euphemism

fig. – figuratively

Documentation of Sources

Usage and Etymology Abbreviations

Gr. – Greek
Heb. – Hebrew
IE – Indo-European
L – Latin
lit. – literally
obs. – obsolete
opp. – opposite
phr. – phrase
poet. – poetic

q.v. – Quod vide (like cf.)
rel. – related to
rev. – revised
sp. – spelling
unkn. – unknown
var. – variant of
wd. – word

4. Rhetorical Analysis

Rhetorical Analysis

4.1 Appeals

4.2 Tone

4.3 Organization/structure

4.4 Rhetorical effects

4.5 Use of language

4.6 Evaluation of evidence

4.1 Appeals

Appeals

Rhetoric involves using language in an effective way. Good writing is persuasive and is able to keep the reader's attention. It may aim to make the reader feel a certain way. It may strive to change long-term attitudes or views on a certain subject, and even influence behavior outcomes.

Appeals

We discussed in module 2.8 the different types of appeals based on the Aristotelian model. To review them, they are:

<u>Pathos</u> – appeal to emotion: to create an emotional response

<u>Ethos</u> – appeal to ethics: convincing readers of the credibility of the writer

<u>Logos</u> – appeal to logic: to persuade readers by reason

Appeals

These three models are the traditional approaches to rhetorical persuasion. They combine appeals to the readers' intellect, beliefs and emotions. Sometimes they are intertwined and more than one appeal can be found in one piece of writing. As readers, we must evaluate the logic and evidence that are presented.

4.2 Tone

Tone

Audience, Purpose and Tone

These three elements have to be considered together. They were previously mentioned in module 2.3, but let's look at them in greater depth.

Tone

Audience, Purpose and Tone

Audience: For whom is the text written? Consider length, language, style, level, etc.

Purpose: Why is the text written? To inform, persuade, motivate, entertain, analyze, argue?

Tone: What is the author's attitude? Choice of vocabulary, focus, content and opinion.

All three of these are in inextricably connected.

4.3 Organization/Structure

Organization/structure

Rhetorical analysis also involves understanding how a work is organized and structured. Here are the most common types of organization:

Organization/structure

Cause-and-Effect Order is the relationship between events and/or things, when one is the outcome of the other, as in action and reaction: *I twisted my ankle— I can't run for at least three weeks*.

Chronological Order is when information is given in sequence, like telling a story or explaining an historical event.

Organization/structure

<u>Comparison Order</u> is when two or more things are compared and/or contrasted.

<u>Emphatic Order</u> is when things are presented in order of importance, perhaps like in a news article, where the first lines are the most prevalent.

Organization/structure

General to Specific Order starts with a general theme but moves to a specific topic.

Problem-Solving Order is when a problem is presented and solutions are given.

Organization/structure

Framing

This is when a writer makes readers explicitly aware of what is to come in the piece of writing. It can pertain to the entire text (for example, in the thesis statement), to one passage (for example, in the topic sentence), or to one sentence (for example, detail of an idea).

Organization/structure

Framing

Framing is important because it is when you are going to "tell them what you are going to tell them".

Framing should tell readers about the organization as well as the content of what they will read.

Organization/structure

Transitions

Transition words were covered in another section of this course. They are important for flow and sequence. They also provide a framing for what is to come next. Words like *for example, however, also, in contrast, in conclusion,* etc., tell readers how the next words will relate to the previous ones. Please review module 2.13 for more information on transitions.

4.4 Rhetorical Effects

Rhetorical Effects

Rhetorical devices

Many techniques are used to entice readers. Here are some of the more common ones:

Parallelism: a parallel syntactic or word structure that is repeated

Alliteration: the repetition of similar sounds

Metaphor: speaking of one thing like it were another by making a figurative comparison

Rhetorical Effects

Rhetorical devices

<u>Simile</u>: making a comparison using "like" or "as"

<u>Hyperbole</u>: an exaggeration

<u>Antithesis</u>: parallel structure of ideas that contrast one another

<u>Rhetorical question</u>: asking a question to raise an issue but not necessarily seeking an answer to it

Rhetorical Effects

Rhetorical devices

Analogy: comparing something well known with something less well known

Allusion: a reference to a person, place, event, etc.

Enumeratio: a list of details about something

Exemplum: providing the reader with examples

4.5 Use of Language

Use of Language

There are many writing techniques that are related to style.

As mentioned in module 1.5, <u>diction</u> is very important when writing. Some words can be confused for others (effect/ affect; capitol/ capital). In addition to, and beyond word confusion, general word selection is important for good writing.

Use of Language

Diction

Consider these sentences:

He had no understanding whatsoever of the outcome.

His understanding of the outcome was questionable.

The outcome caused some confusion for him.

It seems that when the results came out, he wasn't quite with it.

The outcome seemed a bit beyond his understanding.

Use of Language

Point of View

As mentioned in previous modules, the consistency of the point of view is important, whether the writer uses first, second or third person. This is also important in rhetorical analysis. They have different effects on the writing style.

Use of Language

Point of View

<u>The first person </u>(I) gives the writer's perspective. It is more personal but in some writing it can be considered less objective.

Use of Language

Point of View

<u>**The second person**</u> **(you) is from the reader's perspective. This is the least used and can be the least convincing if used too much.**

Use of Language

Point of View

The third person (it is, etc.) is neither of these; it is mostly unspecified. It is more objective and is often used with the passive voice.

Use of Language

Diction

How a person writes will depend on the tone, audience and purpose of the piece of writing. This has been touched on in previous modules. Word selection (diction) will influence the <u>effectiveness and clarity</u> of the author's writing.

Use of Language

Syntax

The syntax (grammar), as mentioned before, should reflect a wide range of sentence length, forms and structure (use of clauses and modifiers). Rhetorical analysis involves the use and recognition of this diversity.

Use of Language

Syntax

The use of the <u>active voice</u> or the <u>passive voice</u> can have an outcome on the effect of the writing. Some writers believe that first person is more effective because there is a direct causal relationship; however, third person may be better if the outcome is more important. Example: *It can't be undone.*

4.6 Evaluation of Evidence

Evaluation of Evidence

It's important to think critically, to analyze and evaluate language and evidence. We must be able to separate <u>fact</u> from <u>opinion</u>. Sometimes it's clear what is fact and what is opinion, but in the case that it is not, the reader must analyze the rhetoric the author uses.

Evaluation of Evidence

Effective rhetorical analysis evaluates the arguments a writer presents. This involves understanding the logic and the evidence. This case is obviously misleading:

Sam was quite the recluse misanthropist; he really enjoyed spending time with his friends.

The second part doesn't logically follow the first part.

Evaluation of Evidence

Fallacies: We must analyze the author's assertions. They could be fallacious in nature. Here are a list of some common fallacies:

Ad hominem: attacking the person instead of the argument

Appeal to ignorance: ignorance as evidence (we have no evidence God doesn't exist, therefore he does)

Evaluation of Evidence

Fallacies

Argument from (false) authority: someone isn't really qualified to say that

Bandwagon fallacy: because everyone does it, or believes it, it is true

Circular argument (begging the question): repeating the claim but not providing support

Evaluation of Evidence

Fallacies

Dogmatism: unwilling to consider the opponent's argument

Faulty analogy: saying two things are more alike than they really are

Non Sequitur: something that does not follow the premise

Evaluation of Evidence

Fallacies

Red herring: diverting the attention by changing the subject

Slippery slope: a change in policy or law will lead to dire consequences.

Straw man: creating a false scenario and then attacking it

5. The Essays: Our Guide

The Essays

- **The first essay asks you to take a position in relation to a specific topic**
- **The second essay also asks you to take a position, but you have to include two sources.**

The Essays

The topics of the essays vary and some colleges design their own essays. You should check with particular colleges that interest you to see if they have chosen this modular option of creating their own essays.

The Essays

The essays are scored from 0-6 by two independently contracted university professors.

The Essays

Let's take a look how to put the essay together…

6. Review and tips

6.1 Review – part 1

6.2 Review – part 2

6.3 Things to remember

6.1 Review – part 1

How is a complex sentence different from a compound sentence?

What is a comma splice?

What is a run-on sentence?

What does it mean to have proper agreement in a sentence?

Why is diction important?

How are semicolons and colons used?

Explain the importance of evidence.

Explain the difference between cohesion and coherence.

What's the difference between a topic sentence and a thesis statement? Where are they generally located in an essay?

Explain a possible structure for the introduction of the paper.

What are the different ways that a writer can appeal to the reader?

How should we evaluate/ critique an author?

Explain consistency of point of view in writing.

Explain the importance of transitions.

6.2 Review – part 2

Why should we cite our sources?

What sort of material should be documented?

What sort of material does <u>not</u> need to be documented?

What are some questions we should ask when we find a source that we want to use for a paper?

What's the difference between a citation and a reference?

What are some sources that should be listed in italics?

What are some sources that are listed in quotations?

How can you list more than three authors of a work?

What are some different reference and citation styles?

Is it important to study the abbreviations of documented sources?

Thinking about sources, what is the purpose of an almanac? An atlas? A thesaurus? A handbook?

What is the difference between a denotation and a connotation?

What are some more information of abbreviations you might find in sources?

What is "framing"?

Considering rhetorical devices, what is Parallelism? Alliteration? Metaphor? Simile? Hyperbole? Antithesis? Rhetorical question? Allusion? Enumeration?

What is the difference of using first, second or third person?

What are some common fallacies?

6.3 Things to remember

Variation of essay possibilities (institutional).

Importance in being able to create an essay because a good essay does show you have learned from the course.

It's not just a matter of recognition of what's right and wrong (for example in grammar points and structure), but it's a matter of production too: the same mistakes that you recognize on the CLEP multiple choice test could be made when you produce the essays.

Time management:

One minute per question on the test.

When you take the test, make sure you read the directions and all the answers. Jumping to save time may affect your score.

Understanding what [plagiarism](#) is and how to avoid it is one of the main purposes of this class. You should understand about citations and referencing and make sure that you cite the source when you produce your essay.

The essay is the hardest part for many of the test-takers.

Importance of an outline. It is worth the time.

Practice the essays, especially for time and typing.

Do the practice tests, the ones offered here, the ones offered in other places.