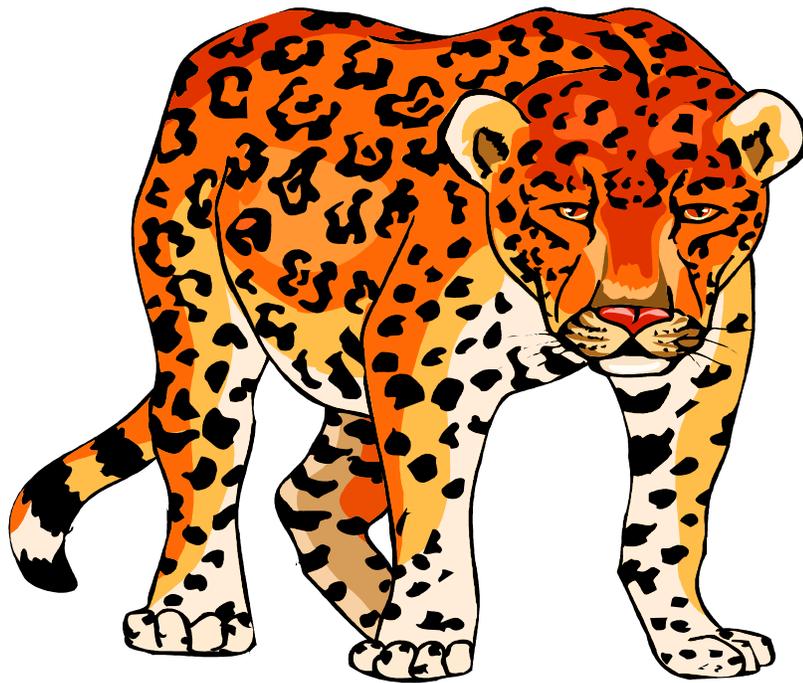


BELLE VERNON AREA



LANGUAGE ARTS DEPARTMENT HANDBOOK

Each student will be given one handbook. These are to be kept for all four years of high school. Please read this handbook in its entirety and become familiar with its contents. Teachers will refer to this handbook and expect students to use it when writing papers for all courses. If this handbook is lost, a replacement can be purchased in the high school office for \$5.00. Seniors will be permitted to keep the handbook as a reference book.

Student Name _____

The Belle Vernon Area High School Department Handbook was developed by Cathy M. Milinovich, tenth grade English teacher, April 2006.

To the student:

This handbook has been compiled to help you become a successful English student. You should keep it in a three-ring binder for quick reference for all four years of high school. This handbook will assist you in avoiding common errors in grammar, spelling, and punctuation. It also contains information concerning MLA format, which is used by the entire English department. As a department, the English teachers of Belle Vernon Area High School, want to assist you to become successful in reading, writing, speaking, and listening which are core components of the English curriculum. We hope this handbook will be one tool that will help you achieve this goal. The materials in this handbook are adaptations of the following:

Anderson, Robert, et.al. *Elements of Literature*. Austin: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1993.

Brown, Ann Cole et al. *English*. Atlanta: Houghton Mifflin, 1990.

College Entrance Examination Board. *Scorewrite A Guide to Preparing for the New SAT Essay*. 2004.

Gibaldi, Joseph. *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*. 6th edition. New York: The Modern Language Association, 2003.

Johns, Mellie, Yates, Paulene M. And De Laney, Edward N. *Building Better English*. Evanston, Illinois: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1965.

Lang, Donald, et al. *West Allegheny High School Research Handbook*.

Moran, Polly, Ferland, Sue. *Lake Region Union High School Mechanics of English Handbook*. Newport, Vermont: Memphremagog Press, 2002.

Pennsylvania Department of Education Division of Evaluation and Reports. *Reading Assessment Handbook*. Harrisburg, PA, 1998.

Sebranek, Patrick. *Basic English Revisited*. 4th Edition. Burlington, Wisconsin, 1980.

Sebranek, Patrick, Meyer, Verne, and Kemper, David. *Write for College*. Wilmington, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1997.

***Trinity High School English Department Handbook*.**

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BELLE VERNON AREA SCHOOL DISTRICT

COMPOSITION POLICY

The Belle Vernon Area School High School believes that every student must be able to use the writing process in the development of all forms of composition in every subject area.

The writing process has 5 basic steps: pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing, publishing

Writing Process

Pre-writing includes any experience, activity, or exercise that motivates a person to write by generating material or ideas for the writing, and by focusing the writer's attention on a particular subject. Some of these activities include: brainstorming, webbing, listing, outlining, free writing.

Drafting refers to the preparation of the first and subsequent drafts of a composition in which a writer is encouraged to put thoughts on paper without undue concern for technical perfection.

Revising emphasizes the improvement of a composition by re-thinking the content and re-organizing the writing for clarity and excellence.

Editing refers to the fine tuning of the composition by checking for errors in grammar, punctuation, spelling, and format.

Publishing is the final step where the composition is shared with an audience or turned in to the teacher to be graded. This stage is designed to help students realize the importance of, and establish value for, their own writing.

All 5 steps of writing have value and if used consistently will improve the writing ability and product of the student. Skipping steps is not recommended if a student wishes to obtain the best product possible.

Thesis Statement

A thesis statement is a statement in the introduction that tells the reader what is going to be discussed. It announces the topic and the main idea about it. The BEST place to put the thesis statement is the last sentence of the introduction.

An essay map is added to the thesis statement to identify the main ideas that the writer is trying to prove to the reader and helps to organize the paper.

Hints for writing and using a Thesis Statement/Essay Map

1. Develop the thesis from information that has been gathered by asking, “What main, or unifying, idea do the facts and details suggest?”
2. Be clear and specific. Keep the language and ideas sharp and definite. This is a declarative sentence making an assertion about the general topic.
3. Include the main points in an essay map and keep the language parallel. Write the paper in the same order as the essay map.
4. A writer should keep the thesis statement visible at all times as he or she plans and writes. It will help keep the writing on track. Every idea and detail should directly support the thesis statement. If information does not support the thesis, then leave it out.

Thesis Statement/Essay Map Examples (Essay maps are underlined)

Those interested in bicycle touring need to make some specific preparations involving the bike, themselves, their clothing, and their route.

Hundreds of highly trained and motivated disabled athletes compete each year in the Paralympics, the World Championships, and Games for the Disabled.

The world’s declining whale population is a result of global warming, over hunting, and pollution.

The holiday of Kwanzaa, beginning on December 26 and lasting for seven days, is a celebration of African American history, culture, and values.

For baseball fans everywhere, the umpire’s opening-day cry begins another season of high drama for players, teams, and fans.

Introduction

An introduction should do several things: Hook the reader's attention, introduce the topic of the paper, and present a thesis/essay map of exactly what the paper will present.

How to Hook the Reader's attention: There are several ways to "hook" attention:

1. **Use a Quotation:** Use an interesting or startling quotation that captures the attention.
2. **Ask a rhetorical question.** Ask a question to interest the reader in the topic.
3. **Introduce startling facts or statistics.** Use these to grab the attention of the reader.
4. **Use news headlines or ad openers from the current news.** This is very effective!
5. **Tell a story or use an anecdote.** Everyone loves a story. This always interests readers.

Once the reader's attention has been "hooked," transitional words and sentences should be used to introduce the topic and tie the "hook" into what the paper will be about. The final sentence of the introduction should be the thesis statement/essay map. Remember, start the paper strong so the reader will truly want to read on and discover the rest of the paper. Each paragraph should contain a minimum of 5 sentences. The number of support paragraphs should logically flow from the thesis/essay map.

Conclusion

A conclusion should bring the writing to a logical and memorable close, leaving the reader with something to think about.

Some ways to conclude an essay:

1. **Restate the central idea:** Refer to the thesis; try to re-word it so it sounds different.
2. **Generalize about the information given.** Show how the information can be applied.
3. **Make a prediction.** Use the information to predict what might happen in the future.
4. **Ask a question to provoke thought.** Get the reader to think about the topic further.

Make sure to use a transition to introduce the concluding paragraph. The conclusion should be a strong paragraph that leaves the reader with a sense of completeness and satisfaction. Do not end weakly. Make sure the paragraph is at least 5 sentences long.

MLA Format

The Belle Vernon Area High School English Department uses the Modern Language Association format for all essays and research papers. For a complete understanding of the MLA usage, see the *MLA Handbook* which is available in the BVA library or from each English teacher. For a quick thumbnail guide see the following:

Heading: The heading is placed in the left hand corner 1 inch from the top of the paper.

Your name
Teacher's name
Class Title
Day Month Year

Title: Every MLA document must have a title.

Center the title one double space from the heading.
Do **NOT** underline, italicize, or put quotes around the title, unless
a published title is within the title of the paper.
Capitalize important words (not- a, an, the, and- unless they are first).

Margins: One inch margins are used top, bottom, left, and right. (The only exception is the page number.)

Page numbers: These are placed in the upper right hand corner at 0.5 inches in the header.

Last name # example: **Smith 1**
Note: no punctuation between the name and the number!!!
You might have to use the header feature on your computer.

Spacing: Double space the entire document. Do not ever use more than a double space.

Justification: Left hand justify the paper; never use right justification!

Font: Use Times New Roman 12 pt.: No exceptions!!!!

Ink: Use black ink only.

Paper: Use white paper only.

Final Draft: A final draft of an essay or research paper should be a "clean" copy, meaning no ink or pencil marks and no "white-out."

The Research Paper

A research paper is, first and foremost, a form of written communication that should present information and ideas clearly and effectively. In addition to gathering material, taking notes, compiling works cited pages, and documenting sources, students should apply the knowledge and skills they have acquired through previous writing experiences. Follow these steps to complete your research paper and then turn it in on time:

1. Select a topic (if not already chosen by teacher).
2. Begin general reading to familiarize yourself with the topic.
3. Limit your information to an acceptable topic.
4. Locate appropriate sources using books, databases, and the internet.
5. Create bibliography cards for the sources you have found.
6. Take notes on several sources.
7. Develop a thesis statement/essay map (also a working outline if required by teacher).
8. Write a rough draft.
9. Include parenthetical and/or in-text documentation.
10. Revise making sure not to commit plagiarism by citing correctly.
11. Write a final copy. (Make sure it is in the MLA format).
12. List the sources ACTUALLY used in the paper on a Works Cited page
13. Turn in your paper on time (include copies of sources if required by teacher).

Bibliography Cards

Figure 1 - Book Single Author

Stillworth, Ed. <u>Ozone Depletion</u> . New York: Gracco Co., 1998.	1
---	---

Figure 2 – Magazine (Periodical) – signed

Bosworth, Don. “Baseball’s Legends.” <u>Sports Magazine</u> 23 June 1996.26.	2
---	---

Figure 3 – Encyclopedia – signed

Cole, Terri L. “Schizophrenia Disorder.” <u>Encyclopedia Britannica</u> . 1998 ed.	
---	--

Figure 4 – Encyclopedia – unsigned

“Adaption in Nature.” <u>World Book</u> <u>Encyclopedia</u> . 2001 ed.	4
---	---

Figure 5 – Internet Sample - unsigned

“Planning for Resource Shortages.” Earth Care 8.3 (10 April 1996): 8pp 6 June 2006. http://berline.cc.stanfordu.ca/pub/Ecolog/Index.html .	5
---	---

Figure 6 – Database

“Senate Approves New Alternative Fuel.” <u>National Petroleum News</u> 90.9 (Sept. 1998): 36 (1/6p.) <u>MasterFILE Premier</u> . EBSCOhost!	6
---	---

The numbers in the upper right corner correspond to note cards for organizational purposes, So that all notes from the Stillworth source, should have a number 1 written on them.

Documenting Sources

Documentation is the process in a paper that tells where the information has been found. Every time information is taken from note cards or sources, a parenthetical or in-text reference must be entered in the text of the research paper.

Document

- * Quotations or partial quotations
- * Others' ideas, even if in your own words
- * Others' opinions, even if in your own words

Parenthetical Documentation

To credit a source using the parenthetical entry, place a brief note in parentheses. The note, which is called a parenthetical reference, typically consists of an author's name and page number.

He built a fortress and named it "La Navidad" in the honor of the date (Keene 5).

If there is no author in the source, then use a shortened title and page number in the parentheses.

The fortress was constructed entirely of bamboo and mud ("Fortress" 29).

In-Text Documentation

To credit a source using the author(s) name(s) in the text, only put the page number in the parentheses.

Bullough writes that genetic engineering was dubbed "eugenics" (121).

In No Need for Hunger, the author recommends that the U.S. government develop a new foreign policy to help Third world countries overcome poverty and hunger (89).

Model Works Cited Entries

BOOKS Author. Title. City of Publication: Publisher, Copyright Date.

1. One Author

Shaw, Arnold. Black Popular Music in America: From Spirituals, Minstrels, to Soul.
New York: Schrimmer Books, 1986.

2. Two or Three Authors

Bystydzienski, Jill M., and Estele P. Resnik. Women in Cross-Cultural Transitions.
Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1994.

3. More Than Three Authors

Marine, April, et al. Internet: Getting Started. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: PTR Prentice Hall,
1994.

4. A Single Work from an Anthology

Rich, Adrienne. "Re-Forming the Crystal." Contemporary American Poetry. Ed. A.
Poulin, Jr. 3rd ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1980. 396.

5. Two or More Books by the Same Author

List the books alphabetically according to title. After the first entry, substitute three
hyphens for the author's name.

Von Oech, Roger. A Kick in the Seat of the Pants. New York: Perennial-Harper, 1986.
— . A Whack on the Side of the Head. New York: Warner, 1983.

6. A Corporate Group Author

Task Force on Education for Economic Growth. Action for Excellence. Washington:
Education Commission of the States, 1993.

7. An Anonymous Book

The World Almanac Book of the Strange. New York: New America Library, 1977.

Or

The Jerusalem Bible. Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1966.

8. A Multi volume Work

Ziegler, Alan. The Writing Workshop. Vol. 2. New York: Harper and Row, 1984.

9. An Introduction, a Preface, a Foreword, or an Afterward

Callan, Edward. Introduction. Cry, the Beloved Country. By Alan Paton. New York: Macmillan, 1987. xv-xxvii.

10. Cross-References

To avoid unnecessary repetition when citing two or more entries from a larger collection, cite the collection once with complete publication information (see Hall).

Hall, Donald, ed. The Contemporary Essay. New York: Bedford-St. Martins. 1984.

The individual entries (see Abbey and Baldwin) can then be cross referenced by listing the author, title of piece, editor of the collection, and page numbers.

Abbey, Edward. "The Most Beautiful Place on Earth." Hall 225-41.

Baldwin, James. "Notes of a Native Son." Hall 164-83.

11. An Article in a Reference Book

"Euthanasia." Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary. 10th ed. 1993.

"Costume." Encyclopedia Americana. 1985 ed.

PERIODICALS "Title of Article." Title of Publication. Publication Date: Page Range.

Author. "Title of Article." Title of Publication. Publication Date: Page Range.

1. Signed Article in a Magazine

Tully, Shawn. "The Universal Teenager." Fortune 4 Apr. 1994: 14-16.

2. Unsigned Article in a Magazine

"Speak, Hillary." The New Republic 28 Mar. 1994: 9.

3. Signed Newspaper Article

Stanley, Alessandra. "Russians Find Their Heroes in Mexican TV Soap Operas." New York Times 20 Mar. 1994, national ed.: 1.

4. Unsigned Newspaper Article

"African Roots of American Music Traced at Westchester College Program." Amsterdam News [New York] 29 Jan. 1994, sec. 1:21.

OTHER PRINT AND NON-PRINT SOURCES

1. Films

Rebel Without a Cause. Dir. Nicholas Ray. With James Dean, Natalie Wood, Sal Mineo, and Dennis Hopper. Warner, 1955.

2. Personal Interview

Brooks, Sarah. Personal interview. 15 Oct. 1993.

3. Periodically Published Database

Ackley, Patricia. "Jobs of the Twenty-First Century." New Rochelle Informer 15 Apr. 1994: A4. New Rochelle Informer Ondisc. CD-ROM. Info-Line. Oct. 1994.

4. Article in an Electronic Journal

Elkhart, Wolfgang. "Planning for Resource Shortages." Earth Care 8.3 (10 Apr. 1996): 8 pp. 6 June 1996. <<ftp://berline.cc.stanfordu.ca/pub/Ecology/Index.html>>

5. Professional Site

Bowker, Samuel T. "Cyberspace: Debate on Research Use." University NET Scope.
12 Sept. 1996 University of Michigan-Ann Arbor. 5 Oct 1996
<<http://www.university.net.scope/infoscience.umichigan.edu/research>>.

6. Personal Site

Burton, Francis. Home page. 11 Nov. 1997 <<http://www.lang.uutah.francis/index.html>>.

7. Articles in Reference Databases

"Astronomy." Collier's Online. Vers. 97.2.2. 1997. Collier's Encyclopedia. 14 Jan. 1998
<<http://www.ce.com:362>>.

8. E-mail Message

Toshner, David. 22 Feb. 2006. E-mail to the author. 25 Feb. 2006.

9. On-line Government Document

United States. U.S. Census Bureau. Poverty in the United States: 1998. Sept. 1999. 12
Nov. 1999 <<http://www.census.gov/prod/00pubs/p60-207.pdf>>.

***** Any other sources not on this sample list can be found in the *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers* by Joseph Gibaldi.

*****In addition, an on-line resource to help you with works cited entries can be found at www.citationmachine.net.

OUTLINE FORMAT

An outline is an orderly arrangement of related ideas. It is a guide or blueprint which makes clear where each piece of information belongs. Organize your outline following the format below.

Thesis:

Introduction

I. A.
 B.
 C.

II.

 A.

 1.
 2.

 B.

 1.
 2.

 a.
 b.

 (1).
 (2).

 (a).
 (b).

III.

 A.

 B.

Conclusion

Note: No new subdivision should be started unless there are at least two points to be listed in that new division. This means that each 1 must have a 2; each a must be followed by a b.

SAMPLE FIRST PAGE OF A RESEARCH PAPER

Smith 1

Laura J. Smith

Mr. John Jones

College Prep. English 12

8 May 2006

Ellington's Adventures in Music and Geography

In studying the influence of Latin American, African, and Asian music on modern American composers, music historians tend to discuss such figures as Aaron Copland, George Gershwin, Henry Cowell, Alan Hovhaness, and John Cage (Brindle; Griffiths 104-39; Hitchcock 173-98). They usually overlook Duke Ellington, whom Gunther Schuller rightly calls "one of America's great composers" (318), probably because they are familiar only with Ellington's popular pieces, like "Sophisticated Lady," "Mood Indigo," and "Solitude." Still little known are the many ambitious orchestral suites Ellington composed, several of which, such as Black, Brown, and Beige (originally entitled The African Suite), The Liberian Suite, The Far East Suite, The Latin American Suite, and The Afro-Eurasian Eclipse, explore his impressions of the people, places, and music of other countries.

Not all music critics, however, have ignored Ellington's excursions into longer musical forms. Raymond Horricks compared him with Ravel, Delius, and Debussy: The continually enquiring mind of Ellington . . . has sought to extend steadily the imaginative boundaries of the musical form on which it subsists . . . Ellington since the mid-1930s has been engaged upon extending both the imaginary and the formal construction of written jazz. (122-23) Ellington's earliest attempts to move beyond the four-minute limit imposed by the

SAMPLE FIRST PAGE OF A LIST OF WORKS CITED

Smith 10

Works Cited

- Brindle, Reginald Smith. "The Search Outwards: The Orient, Jazz, Archaisms." The New Music: The Avant-Garde since 1945. New York: Oxford UP, 1975. 133-45.
- Burnett, James. "Ellington's Place as a Composer." Gammond 141-55
- Duke Ellington. 2002. Estate of Mercer K. Ellington. 3 June 2002
<<http://www.Dukeellington.com/>>.
- Duke Ellington's Washington. 200. Public Broadcasting System. 3 June 2002
<<http://www.pbs.org/ellingtonsd/>>.
- Ellington, Duke. The Afro-Euroasian Eclipse. 1971. Fantasy, 1991.
- . Black, Brown, and Beige. 1945. RCA Bluebird, 1988.
- . The Far East Suite. 1965 RCA, 1995.
- . The Latin American Suite. 1969. Fantasy, 1990.
- . The Liberian Suite. LP. Philips, 1947.
- Gammond, Peter, ed. Duke Ellington: His Life and Music. 1958. New York: Da Capo, 1977.
- Griffiths, Paul. A Concise History of Avant-Garde Music: From Debussy to Boulez. New York: Oxford UP, 1978.
- Hitchcock, H. Wiley. Music in the United States: An Introduction. 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice, 1974.
- Horricks, Raymond. "The Orchestral Suites." Gammond 122-31.
- Lawrence, A. H. Duke Ellington and His World: A Biography. New York: Routledge, 2001.
- Schuller, Gunther. Early Jazz: Its Roots and Musical Development. New York: Oxford UP, 1968.

Avoiding Plagiarism

Plagiarism is intentionally or unintentionally using work prepared by someone else as though it were your own. What you do not want to do is mislead people into thinking that all these ideas are your own. Plagiarism is a serious offense that carries serious consequences. Extensive plagiarism will result in failure of the project.

GUIDELINES FOR AVOIDING PLAGIARISM (Taken from Section 297 of Write for College)

Just Do It!

- * Mark when you use anything from another's work, regardless if it's only a phrase or one key word, by using quotation marks.
- * Discern clearly where the ideas of other writers end and where your own comments begin when summarizing or paraphrasing.
- * Be sure, when using another writer's idea, to credit the author by name and also include the work in which the idea was found.
- * Supply a new citation when using additional information from a previously cited work.
- * When in doubt, give credit whenever you believe you are using information that is not general knowledge or does not belong to you.

Just Don't!

- * Do not use details, facts, or ideas from a source without acknowledging it in some way.
- * Try not to confuse your own ideas with other writer's ideas that you may have ascertained during your research. Even if your idea looks like another writer's, you must give credit to the writer and the work.

Basically, be honest about where you located your words and ideas and you will never be accused of being a literary kleptomaniac.

EXAMPLES OF PLAGIARISM

The following examples of plagiarism are borrowed from Section 298 in Write for College. The passage shows a lack of acceptable documentation from a source.

To any reader who accepts the terms of Mailer's vision, this book generates intoxicating hope, for Rojack is a pioneer of the spirit: his explorations give us a felt sense of expanding possibilities for the self. Mailer has defined character in this novel as an endless series of second chances. His hero is trying to do what the classic American heroes of James Fenimore Cooper and Herman Melville tried to do before him - get away from the enfeeblements of civilization, the crush of history.

COPYING WORD FOR WORD WITHOUT QUOTATIONS MARKS OR ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCE:

To any reader who accepts the terms of Mailer's vision, this book generates intoxicating hope, for Rojack is a pioneer of the spirit: his explorations give us a felt sense of expanding possibilities for the self. Mailer has defined character in this novel as an endless series of second chances.

USE OF SOME KEY WORDS/ PHRASES WITHOUT ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCE

An American Dream may be seen as an optimistic book, for Rojack is a pioneer of the spirit. He is an example of character defined as an endless series of second chances.

PARAPHRASING, GIVING NO AUTHOR OR SOURCE CREDIT

Rojack falls in the line of other classic American heroes created by James Fenimore Cooper and Herman Melville in his ardent individualism and desire to escape society.

USING AN AUTHOR'S IDEA WITHOUT CREDITING AUTHOR/SOURCE

Rojack can be seen as another Ahab or Deerslayer in his willingness to push the limits of his spiritual potential in the face of an inherently hostile universe.

Criteria for Evaluating Internet Resources

The World Wide Web offers a great wealth of information, as well as the opportunity for people to express themselves and exchange ideas. This makes it a potentially great place to accomplish research on many topics, but putting documents or pages on the Web is easy, cheap or free, unregulated and unmonitored. If you are using a Web-based source for a research paper, you will need to develop skills to evaluate the credibility and appropriateness of what you find. The following list presents questions to

ask to help determine whether a Web page is a suitable resource for a research paper, or not. Don't expect to be able to answer all the questions, all the time, for all Web sites you look at. Rather, try to use the questions as a tool to help you look at Web pages critically.

**AUTHOR
OR
SOURCE**

- * Is there an author of the work? If so, is the author clearly identified?
- * Are the author's credentials for writing on this topic stated?
- * Is the author affiliated with an organization?
- * Does the site or page represent a group, organization, institution, corporation, or government body?
- * Is there a link back to the organization's page or a way to contact the organization or the author to verify the credibility of the site?
- * Is it clear who is responsible for the creation/ maintenance of the site?

ACCURACY

- * Is this page part of an edited or peer-reviewed publication?
- * Can factual information be verified through footnotes or bibliographies?
- * Based on what you already know about the subject, does this information seem credible?
- * Is it clear who has the responsibility for the accuracy of the information presented?
- * If statistical data is presented in graphs or charts, is it labeled clearly?

CURRENCY

- * Is there a date stating when the document was originally created?
- * Is it clear when the site or page was last updated, revised or edited?
- * Are there any indications that the material is updated frequently or consistently to ensure currency of the content?
- * If there are links to other Web pages, are they current?

OBJECTIVITY

- * Is the page free of advertising? If the page does contain advertising, are the ads clearly separated from the content?
- * Does the page display a particular bias or perspective? Or is the information presented factually, without bias?
- * Is it clear and forthcoming about its view of the subject?
- * Does it use inflammatory or provocative language?

THE WEB IS ONLY ONE RESOURCE THAT MAY ASSIST YOU IN YOUR RESEARCH NEEDS. REMEMBER TO CONSULT OTHER RESOURCES SUCH AS BOOKS AND JOURNAL ARTICLES. NEED HELP? ASK!!!!

Diction (Word Choice)

In addition to understanding how parts of speech express ideas in a sentence, it is necessary to distinguish among certain words or expressions that are often misused. This area of language is known as diction or word choice. Be sure you know how to use these words correctly.

- A. accept-** a verb meaning receive or agree to
except- a verb meaning exclude or leave out a preposition meaning excluding
1. The pledge accepted the fraternity's bid.
 2. The committee will except all late applications.
 3. Ollie, I have all the folders except yours.
- B. affect-** a verb meaning influence
effect- a verb meaning cause or bring about
a noun meaning an influence
1. Lack of sleep affects my judgement.
 2. The raise effected a change in Lou's attitude.
 3. The effect of prices brought joy to the investors.
- C. already-** an adverb meaning previously
all ready- an adjective meaning completely ready
1. James has already signed the form.
 2. Is the hotel staff all ready for opening night?
- D. altogether-**an adverb meaning entirely
all together-an adjective meaning in a group
1. His remarks were altogether unusual for so shy a man
 2. The girls were all together for Helen's birthday.
- E. amount-**a noun referring to a quantity
number-a noun referring to things that can be counted
1. The amount of oil in the tank was insufficient for our needs.
 2. The large number of guests required more tables and chairs.
- F. anxious-**an adjective meaning concerned or worried
eager- an adjective meaning looking forward to
1. Granny Carter is always anxious during thunder storms.
 2. The audience was eager for the movie to begin.
- G. beside-**a preposition meaning close to
besides-a preposition meaning in addition to
1. Beside our canoe paddled six ducklings.
 2. Besides the canoe, we took a tent and sleeping bags.
- H. between-**a preposition used with two persons or items
among -a preposition used with three or more persons or items
1. I have nephews who are between one and three years of age.
 2. There were starlings among the birds in my front yard.

- I.** **bring-** verb used when direction is toward the speaker
take- verb used when direction is away from the speaker
1. Susan usually brings her lunch to work.
 2. Would you please take this form to the principal's office?
 3. Please take this money to the bank and bring me the receipt.
- J.** **capital-**noun meaning a key city
capitol-noun meaning a legislative building
1. The Smithsonian Institution is located in the nation's capital.
 2. The capitol is located in the heart of Harrisburg.
- K.** **complement-** verb meaning make complete
compliment- a verb meaning congratulation
1. A bright tie complements a somber business suit.
 2. Rob complimented Aunt Ethyl on her quick recovery.
- L.** **healthy-**an adjective meaning having health
healthful-an adjective meaning bringing or causing health
1. Healthy skin requires protection from the sun.
 2. Raisins and nuts are healthful snacks.
- M.** **imply** -a verb meaning suggest or hint
infer- a verb meaning deduce or conclude
1. The watchman implied that the hall was haunted.
 2. I inferred from his remarks that he would be late.
- N.** **its-**a possessive pronoun denoting ownership
it's-a contraction of the pronoun it and the verb is
1. The speckled puppy wagged its tail with glee.
 2. I know that it's going to take a long time to finish this project.
- O.** **lay-**a transitive verb meaning place (principal parts: lay, laid, laid)
lie-an intransitive verb meaning to recline(principal parts:lie,lay,lain)
 Note: Lay always takes a direct object; lie never does.
1. The elderly man laid a single coin on the counter.
 2. Could Marie lie on this sofa for a minute?
- P.** **like-**a preposition denoting comparison
as-a preposition suggesting similarity
 conjunction which introduces a clause
1. Luke chose to dress like his twin.

2. Ann's mother came disguised as a mummy.
3. As Dan was locking the door, the telephone rang.

- Q.** **principal**-an adjective meaning main or chief
a noun meaning the head of a school
principle-a noun meaning law, doctrine, or belief
1. Rent is our principal cost.
 2. Mrs. Bessinger accepted the job as assistant principal.
 3. Mr. Coonse explained the principle of capillarity.
- R.** **set**-a transitive verb meaning put or place (parts: set, set, set)
sit-an intransitive verb meaning to take a seat (parts: sit, sat, sat)
1. Louis set your tape recorder on the window seat.
 2. The doll is sitting in its own little tiny rocking chair.
- S.** **than**-a conjunction used after the comparative degree of an adjective
then-an adverb used to signify next or at the same time
1. They are later than usual.
 2. We will eat dinner; then we will look at your album.
- T.** **their**- a possessive pronoun
they're-a contraction of the pronoun they and the verb are
there- an adverb indicating place
1. The trios want their names in the programs.
 2. We put greenery here and there among the candles.
 3. They're planning to go to the beach in August.
- U.** **to**-a preposition indicating direction, movement, or proximity
too-an adverb meaning besides, as well, also, or very
1. I will give the essay to my English teacher.
 2. Jim is going to the prom too.
 3. He is too tall to fit through the opening.

Additional problem areas include the following:

a lot	not	alot	off	not	off of
all right	not	alright	regardless	not	irregardless
anywhere	not	anywheres	kind of	not	kind of a
aren't/isn't	not	ain't	enthusiastic	not	enthused
because of	not	due to	would've	not	wouldof
could've,	not	could of	should've	not	should of

USAGE

Usage is a part of accuracy in the writing process. This information will help you when editing your essays.

1. Agreement refers to the balance of number, person, and gender in a sentence. There are several situations which can cause difficulty with agreement.
 - A. Subjects joined by and take a plural verb.
 1. Mark and Jolene are volunteers at Central Hospital.
 2. There are the cabbage and the shredder: start to work!
 - B. If two words connected by and represent a single idea or if both refer to a single person or thing, use a singular verb.
 1. Peaches and cream makes a great summer dessert.
 2. The Stars and Stripes has a long history.
 - C. Collective nouns, which name a group, rely on a sense of the sentence to govern their verb form. Some examples include: team, audience, navy, fleet, jury, committee, cast, militia, congregation, human race, wildlife, class, congress, public, assembly, association, board, cabinet, trio, commission, company, corporation, council, counsel, couple, crowd, department, family, firm, group, majority, minority, press, staff, army, division, platoon, legion, police, herd. If the words imply that the group acts as a single unit, the verb is singular.
 1. Hurray! Our crew has won the silver cup.
 2. Does the cast expect to be paid after the last performance?
 - D. If the sentence implies that each member acted individually, then a plural verb is needed.
 1. The fallen enemy were scattered over the countryside.
 2. The flock feed at different times of the day.
 - E. Some nouns, such as mumps, measles, mathematics, economics, physics, ethics, athletics, politics, summons, news, and blues, appear to be plural, but take a singular verb.
 1. The news from Wall Street is especially cheerful tonight.
 2. The ethics of the situation seems clear-cut.
 - F. Also, some singular nouns, such as scissors, pliers, pincers, headquarters, shears, odds, wages, pants, tidings, means, assets, earnings, premises, proceeds, quarters, savings, winnings, and goods look plural and take a plural verb.
 1. Abel's scissors lie near his ruler and protractor.
 2. His quarters seem unusually stuffy.

- G. Nouns which denote weight, extent, time, fractions, portions, or quantity taken as a unit require a singular verb.
1. At fifty cents per yard, four yards costs two dollars.
 2. Sixty seconds remains in the first quarter.
- H. Some expressions can take either singular or plural verbs, depending on the sense of the sentence.
1. Half of the punch goes to me; half of the cupcakes go to you.
2. Pronouns can also cause problems with agreement.
- A. Relative pronouns- who, whose, whom, which, and that- agree with the antecedent or the word for which they stand. If the pronoun is the subject of a verb, then the verb also agrees with the antecedent.
1. It is not we who are to blame, Mrs. Turner.
 2. The birds which flock to our feeder are usually wrens.
- B. The indefinite pronoun can be either singular or plural. Examples of pronouns that are always singular include someone, somebody, each, nobody, anyone, anybody, one, everyone, no one, everybody, either, neither, and many a (as in many a new employee). These words require a singular verb.
1. Everybody enjoys a good cowboy movie.
 2. Is no one going to eat this last chocolate chip cookie?
- C. Examples of pronouns that are always plural include several, few, both, others, and many. These words require a plural verb.
1. Few have learned Chef Wally's salad secret.
 2. Others leave early, but Sylvia always stays to the end.
- D. Some indefinite pronouns, such as some, any, none, all, and most, can be either singular or plural, depending on the sense of the sentence.
1. Some of the oil was dripping to the pavement.
 2. All of this bad weather has begun to make me depressed.

3. Conjunctions: the way in which conjunctions join subjects can cause confusion.

Coordinating Conjunctions: and, but, or, for, nor, so, yet

Correlative Conjunctions: both...and; not only...but also; either...or; neither...nor; whether...or

Common subordinating conjunctions: after, although, as, as if, as long as, as soon as, as though, because, before, even though, if, in order that, since, so that, than, though, unless, until, when whenever, where, wherever, whether, while

- A. When singular subjects are joined by or or not, the verb is singular.
1. One or the other knows where to find the boat key.
 2. Neither my house nor yours is big enough for a big party.
- B. When a singular and plural subject are joined by or or nor, the subject closer to the verb decides the number of the verb.
1. Either Mrs. Watts or her sons rake the leaves each fall.
 2. No, Jan, neither the girls nor their brother has called for you.
- C. When the subjects joined by or or nor are of different person, the subject nearer the verb determines its person.
1. The line foreman realized that neither you nor he has enough training.
 2. Mother thinks that either she or you always leave the lid off.
4. Parallel structure refers to the uniform grammatical structure of words, phrases, or clauses that are connected by coordinating conjunctions or are items in a series.
- Incorrect:** Misty and her kittens prefer to lie in the sun or sleeping in the grass.
- Correct:** Misty and her kittens prefer to lie in the sun or to sleep in the grass.
- Incorrect:** Matt seems gentle, pleasant, and has nice manners.
- Correct:** Matt seems gentle, pleasant, and mannerly.
5. Misplaced Modifiers are words or groups of words incorrectly positioned in a sentence. For greatest clarity, modifiers should be placed as close as possible to the word modified.
- Incorrect:** She served salad to her guests in wooden bowls.
- Correct:** She served salad in wooden bowls to her guests.
6. Dangling Modifiers are words, phrases, or clauses which have no sensible connection with an agent or doer.
- Incorrect:** Having arrived early, the usher offered April a seat.
- Correct:** Having arrived early, April was offered a seat by the usher.

You should be familiar with the following lists:

Linking Verbs

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

Prepositions

aboard	at	despite	in regard to	opposite	together
with	about	away from	down	inside	out
through	above	back of	down from	inside of	out of
throughout					
according to	because of	during	in spite of	outside	till
across	before	except	instead of	outside of	to
across from	behind	except for	into	over	toward
after	below	excepting	like	over to	under
against	beneath	for	near	owing to	
underneath					
along	beside	from	near to	past	until
alongside	besides	from among	unto	prior to	
notwithstanding					
alongside of	between	from between	of	regarding	up
along with	beyond	from under	off	round	up to
amid	but	in	on	round about	upon
among	by	in addition to	on account of	save	with
apart from	by means of	in behalf of	on behalf of	since	within
around	concerning	in front of	onto	subsequent to	without
aside from	considering	in place of	on top of		

Verb Tenses

Tense

Active Voice

Passive Voice

Present: expresses action which is happening at the present time or happens regularly.

I find, we find

I am found, we are found

Past: expresses action which is completed at a particular time in the past.

I found, we found

I was found, we were
found

Future: expresses action which will take place in the future.

I shall find, we shall find

I/we shall be found

Present Perfect: expresses action which began in the past but continues in the present or is completed at the present.

I have found, we have found

I/we have been found

Past Perfect: expresses action which began in the past and was completed in the past.

I had found, we had found

I/we had been found

Future Perfect: expresses action which will begin in the future and be completed by a specific time in the future.

I/we shall have found

I/we shall have been
found

A good writer strives to use Active Voice. Use Passive Voice “intentionally” for emphasis.

Punctuation Basics

SEMICOLONS

1. Use a semicolon between independent clauses in a sentence if they are not joined by and, but, or, for, nor, so, or yet.

Example: Our parents settled the argument for us; they took the car keys away.

2. Use a semicolon between independent clauses joined by such words as for example, for instance, that is, besides, accordingly, moreover, nevertheless, furthermore, otherwise, therefore, however, consequently, instead, and hence.

Example: Shirley Hufstedler became Secretary of Education in 1979; moreover, she was the first person to hold this cabinet position.

3. A semicolon (rather than a comma) may be needed to separate independent clauses of a compound sentence if there are commas within the clauses.

Example: A tall, svelte woman entered the large, drafty room; and a short, slight blond woman followed her.

COLONS

The colon says in effect, "Note what follows."

1. Use a colon before a list of items, especially after expressions like "as follows" or "the following."

Example: Minimum equipment for camping is as follows: bedroll, utensils for cooking and eating, warm clothing, sturdy shoes, jack-knife, rope, and flashlight.

2. Use a colon between the hour and minute when you write time.

Example: 12:00 noon
3:50 PM

3. Use a colon after the salutation of a business letter.

Example: Dear Sir:

4. Use a colon to elaborate what was just said.

Example: The plot is founded on deception: the main characters have secret

identities.

UNDERLINING (OR *ITALICS*)

1. Use underlining (or *italics*) for titles of books, periodicals, works of art, movies, and ships.

Examples: Call of the Wild is set in Alaska
Time magazine has reviews about books, movies, and plays.
 The Pittsburgh Post Gazette is a Pulitzer Prize winning newspaper.

QUOTATION MARKS

1. Use quotation marks to enclose a direct quotation, which is a person's exact words.

Examples: "Has anyone in this class read War and Peace?" asked Ms. Smith.
 "I did last summer," said June.

Do not confuse a person's exact words with a rewording of the person's speech.

Indirect: Pauline asked for my interpretation of the poem.

Direct: Pauline asked, "What is your interpretation of the poem?"

2. A direct quotation begins with a capital letter.

Example: Jimmy shouted, "The parade is starting in half an hour."

3. When a quoted sentence is divided into two parts by a interrupting expression such as "he said" or "Mother asked," the second part begins with a small letter.

Example: "What are some of the things," asked Mr. Hall, "that the astronauts do?"

4. A direct quotation is set off from the rest of the sentence by commas or by a question mark or exclamation point.

Example: "I've just finished reading a book about Franklin Roosevelt," said Sam.

5. A period or a comma following a quotation should be placed inside the closing quotation marks.

Example: Ramon said, "Hank Aaron was better than Babe Ruth."

6. A question mark or an exclamation point should be placed inside the closing quotation marks if the quotation is a question or exclamation. Otherwise it should

be placed outside.

Example: “What is the difference?” asked George.
“Linda exclaimed, “I thought everyone knew that!”

7. When you write dialogue (two or more persons having a conversation), begin a new paragraph each time you change speakers.

Example: “What did you think of the ceremonies in Hong Kong?” Sarah asked Ben as they left the assembly.
“I was surprised at the water parades and fireworks.”

8. When a quotation consists of several sentences, put quotation marks only at the beginning and at the end of the whole quotation, not around each sentence in the quotation.

Example: “Memorize your lines for Monday. Have someone at home to give you the cues. Enjoy your weekend!” said Mr. Wood.

9. Use single quotation marks to enclose a quotation within a quotation.

Example: “I said, ‘The quiz will cover chapter 7 and your special report,’” repeated Mr. Allen.

10. Use quotation marks to enclose titles of chapters, articles, short stories, poems, songs, and other parts of books or magazines.

Examples: Irwin Shaw’s “Strawberry Ice-Cream Soda” is a short story.
Read the first chapter, “American’s Create New States” for tomorrow.
Helen can recite “Paul Revere’s Ride” word for word.

APOSTROPHES

The apostrophe has two uses: to show ownership or relationship and to show where letters have been omitted in a contraction.

1. To form the possessive case of a singular noun, add an apostrophe and an s.

Example: The dog’s collar was too tight.

Exception: A proper name ending in s may add only an apostrophe under the following conditions.

1. The name consists of 2 or more syllables.
2. Adding ‘s would make the name awkward or hard to

pronounce.

Examples: Mr. And Mrs. Rogers’ house
Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings’ novels
Hercules’ feats

2. To form the possessive case of plural nouns ending in s, add only the apostrophe.

Example: friends' invitations

3. Use an apostrophe to show where letters have been omitted in a contraction.

A contraction is a word made by combining or shortening two or three words. An apostrophe takes the place of the letters that are omitted.

Example: Where's the exit?

4. Use an apostrophe and s to form the plural of letters, numbers, and signs, and of words referred to as words.

Example: Doesn't he know the ABC's?
Your 2's look like 5's.

HYPHEN

1. Use a hyphen with compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine and with fractions used as adjectives.

Example: There are twenty-nine ducks in that flock.
A two-thirds majority will decide the issue.

COMMAS

Words, phrases, and clauses in a series should be separated by commas so that they will be clear to a reader.

1. Use commas to separate words in a series.

Example: In the morning the lake looked cold, gray, and yet inviting.

2. Use commas to separate phrases in a series.

Example: We found seaweed in the water, on the sand, under the rocks, and even in our shoes.

3. Use commas to separate subordinate clauses and short independent clauses in a series.

Example: Everyone wondered who had been in the house, what he wanted, and where he had gone.

4. If all items in a series are joined by “and” or “or,” do not use commas to separate them.

Example: Have you read Huckleberry Finn or Tom Sawyer or A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur’s Court?

5. Use a comma to separate two or more adjectives preceding a noun, but do not put a comma directly in front of the noun.

Example: An Arabian stallion is a fast, beautiful horse.

6. Use a comma before: and, but, or, for, nor, so, yet when they join parts of a compound sentence. (Independent clauses)

Example: The musical comedy originated in America, and it has retained a distinctly American flavor.

7. Use commas to set off a participle phrase or an adjective clause that is not essential to the basic meaning of the sentence. Do not use commas with phrases or clauses that **are** essential to the meaning.

Examples: A new spider web, shining in the morning light, is an impressive sight.
Anyone who finishes early many start on tomorrow’s assignment.

8. Use a comma after a participle phrase or an adverb clause that begins a sentence.

Examples: Forced onto the sidelines by a torn ligament, Harris was restless.
When March came, the huge ice pack began to melt and break up.

9. Use a comma after a word such as: well, yes, no, why, when it begins a sentence.

Examples: Why, you really should know about Sally Hemmings.
No, I do not want to invest in that new company.

10. Appositives and appositive phrases are usually set off by commas.

Examples: Have you ever been in Texas, the Lone Star State?
My favorite teacher, Mr. Smith, gave us many opportunities.

11. Words used in direct address are set off by commas.

Example: Can you tell me, Bob, where to get a new car?

12. Parenthetical expressions are set off by commas.

Example: I never buy full price, on the contrary, I only buy items on sale.

13. Use a comma to separate items in dates and addresses.

Examples: The Constitution was signed on September 17, 1787.
My friend moved to 6448 Huggens Road, Chicago, Illinois 60432.

14. Use a comma after a salutation of a friendly letter.

Example: Dear Aunt Mary,

CAPITALIZATION

1. Capitalize the first word in every sentence.
2. Capitalize the pronoun "I."
3. Capitalize the name of a person.
4. Capitalize geographical names.

Example: San Diego, California
Sections of the country like the North, the South, the East, the
West

Do not capitalize east, west, north, south when these words indicate direction.

5. Capitalize names of organizations, business firms, institutions, and government bodies.

Examples: Speech and Debate Club
Washington Hospital
Thiel College

6. Capitalize special events and calendar items.

Examples: World Series
Fourth of July

7. Capitalize historical events and periods.

Example: Ice Age
Revolutionary War

8. Capitalize names of nationalities, races, religions, brand names, business products, ships, planets, monuments, awards and proper adjectives.

Examples: Catholic, Moslem, Chilean, Buick, Ivory soap, Pringle potato

chips, Hoover Dam, U.S.S. Maine, China, Spain, Egyptian cotton

Do not capitalize the name of school subjects, except languages and course names followed by numbers.

Examples: I have tests in English, Spanish, and math today.
You must pass History 101 before you take History 102.

9. Capitalize the title of a person when it comes before a name.

Example: There will be a short speech by Governor Rendell.

10. Capitalize words showing family relationship when used with a person's name but not when preceded by a possessive.

Examples: Aunt Christina, Grandfather Smith, Maria's mother

When family-relationship words are used in place of a person's name, they may or many not be capitalized.

Examples: Ask Mother or Ask mother

11. Capitalize the first word and all important words in titles of books, magazines, newspapers, poems, stories, movies, paintings, and other works of art.

Unimportant words in a title are "a", "an", "the", and prepositions and conjunctions of fewer than five letters. Such words should be capitalized only if they come first or last in the title.

Examples: I love the poem, "With Eyes at the Back of Our Heads."
Katherine Hepburn starred in The African Queen.
"I Heard a Fly Buzz When I Died" is a famous poem by

Dickenson.

Exception: When you write the names of newspapers and magazines within a sentence, do not capitalize the word "the" before the name.

Example: Is this the late edition of the New York Times?

12. Capitalize words referring to the deity.

Examples: Lord, our Father, the Creator, Son of God, God

The word god is not capitalized when referring to the gods of ancient mythology.

Example: Zeus was the Greek god of all gods.

SPELLING

Spelling is part of accuracy in the writing process. If you are using a computer, you can do a spell check to maintain accuracy; however, in-class writing and essays tests such as the PSSA and SAT do not afford you the luxury of spell check. Here are some basic spelling rules and some commonly misspelled words to help you with your spelling.

Rule 1: Write i before e except after c, or when sounded like a as in neighbor and weigh.

Exceptions: Neither, sheik, leisure, seize, either, weird, eight, financiers, reign, foreign

Rule 2: When a one-syllable word ends in a consonant preceded by one vowel, double the final consonant before adding a suffix which begins with a vowel.

Example: Bat...batting

Rule 3: If a word ends with a silent e, drop the e before adding a suffix which begins with a vowel.

Example: state...stating

You do not drop the e when the suffix begins with a consonant.

Example: state...statement

Rule 4: When y is the last letter in a word and the y is preceded by a consonant, change the y to i before adding any suffix except those beginning with i.

Example: fry...fries; hurry...hurried; happy...happiness

List of frequently misspelled words:

accommodate	disintegrate	lightning	secret
achieve	doesn't	lonely	separate
acquaint	eliminates	losing	sophomore
amateur	enemies	maybe	subtle
acquire	embarrass	maintenance	straight
appreciate	exaggeration	nuisance	summary
arguments	exceed	obstacle	surprise
background	experiences	occurred	tomorrow
beginning	famous	omniscient	tough
candidate	fascinate	opportunity	tragedy
career	foreword	permanent	truly
collection	government	precedent	vegetable
congratulate	grammar	vicious	conscience
villain	probably	whether	innocent
received	different	rejuvenate	dilemma
judgment	schedule	realizes	privilege

inheritance
principal

guidance
weird

contributions
genre

guard
transgress

PREPARING FOR THE PSSA

All students in 11th grade will take two types of PSSA tests related to English: Reading and Writing. The Reading test will include passages that must be read followed by multiple choice questions and a short writing response related to the reading. The Writing test consists of a prompt with several stated criteria that must be addressed.

In light of the importance of these tests, the English Department has come up with several suggestions to assist students in achieving their best on these important tests.

1. Get plenty of rest the night before each test.
2. Come prepared and determined to do well on the tests.
3. Use a highlighter or pencil to underline important terms or passage.
4. Write notes in the margins to help find vital information or record ideas.
5. Make sure to have an introductory sentence in each essay.
6. Fill up the box as much as possible without going over.
7. Write a conclusion for each essay.
8. Do not use abbreviations or symbols in writing.
9. Do not use the second person “you” in these essays; it is too casual.
10. Use transitions such as first, second, and so on to guide the reader through the essay.
11. Use quotes from the reading passages and be sure to use quotation marks around these.
12. Use the best handwriting possible so that the essay is easy to read.
13. Write the essay following the order of thesis statement/essay map
14. When asked to summarize, write the summary in the same order as the reading passage.
15. Make references to other things that relate to the assigned topic for support.
16. Use the best grammar, spelling, punctuation, and sentence structure possible.

*** See the Pennsylvania Writing Assessment Domain Scoring Guide on the next page

to see how essays are scored.

Pennsylvania Writing Assessment Domain Scoring Guide

	FOCUS	CONTENT	ORGANIZATION	STYLE	CONVENTIONS
4	<i>The single controlling point made with an awareness of task (mode) about a specific topic.</i>	<i>The presence of ideas developed through facts, examples, anecdotes, details, opinions, statistics, reasons and/or explanations.</i>	<i>The order developed and sustained within and across paragraphs using transitional devices including introduction and conclusion.</i>	<i>The choice, use and arrangement of words and sentence structures that create tone and voice.</i>	<i>The use of grammar, mechanics, spelling, usage and sentence formation.</i>
3	Sharp, distinct controlling point made about a single topic with evident awareness of task (mode)	Substantial, specific and/or illustrative content demonstrating strong development and sophisticated ideas	Sophisticated arrangement of content with evident and/or subtle transitions	Precise, illustrative use of a variety of words and sentence structures to create consistent writer's voice and tone appropriate to audience	Evident control of grammar, mechanics, spelling, usage and sentence formation
2	Apparent point made about a single topic with sufficient awareness of task (mode)	Sufficiently developed content with adequate elaboration or explanation	Functional arrangement of content that sustains a logical order with some evidence of transitions	Generic use of a variety of words and sentence structures that may or may not create writer's voice and tone appropriate to audience	Sufficient control of grammar, mechanics, spelling, usage and sentence formation
1	No apparent point but evidence of a specific topic	Limited content with inadequate elaboration or explanation	Confused or inconsistent arrangement of content with or without attempts at transition	Limited word choice and control of sentence structures that inhibit voice and tone	Limited control of grammar, mechanics, spelling, usage and sentence formation
0	Minimal evidence of a topic	Superficial and/or minimal content	Minimal control of content arrangement	Minimal variety in word choice and minimal control of sentence structures	Minimal control of grammar, mechanics, spelling, usage and sentence formation

NON-SCORABLE

- Is illegible; i.e., includes so many indecipherable words that no sense can be made of the response
- Is incoherent; i.e., words are legible but syntax is so garbled that response makes no sense
- Is insufficient; i.e., does not include enough to assess domains adequately
- Is a blank paper

OFF-PROMPT

- Is readable but did not respond to prompt

SAT

The New SAT Reasoning Test began in March 2005. This has a writing section that will include a student-written essay. Students will have 25 minutes to write a first draft of an original essay. This will provide a direct measure of a student's ability, under timed conditions, to do one of the kinds of writing required in most college courses. These changes to the SAT— especially the inclusion of a writing section with an essay— are part of a commitment by the College Board to encourage and improve student writing. The New SAT essay will provide colleges with an additional measure of a student's readiness to handle college-level work. The New SAT writing component will also include multiple-choice questions that will assess the students' understanding of the conventions of language— grammar and usage.

Similar to the PSSA, the New SAT will consist of a prompt from some authentic text and will be scored using a domain scoring guide; however, there are 6 levels in the scoring guide rather than 4 in the PSSA assessment guide.

THE NEW SAT ESSAY SCORING GUIDE

A Score of 6 is outstanding—demonstrating clear and consistent mastery.

A Score of 5 is effective— demonstrating reasonably consistent mastery.

A Score of 4 is competent— demonstrating adequate mastery.

A Score of 3 is inadequate— but demonstrates developing mastery.

A Score of 2 is seriously limited— demonstrating little mastery.

A Score of 1 is fundamentally lacking— with little or no mastery.

The guidance office here at BVA has many aids to help you get ready for the SAT. They post a testing schedule in each room as well. See your guidance counselor to register for the SAT.

To help you prepare for the SAT, the College Board offers a range of online and print resources. They all include valuable information about the SAT essay. Especially helpful for users is The Official SAT Online Course.

You can learn more at www.collegeboard.com

LITERARY TERMS

action-the events that form the plot

allegory-a story or poem in which characters, settings, and events stand for other people
or
events or an experience

alliteration-the repetition of the same or similar consonant sounds in words close
together

allusion- an implied or indirect reference in literature to a familiar person, place, or
event

antagonist-the opponent who struggles against or blocks the protagonist in the story

antonym- a word that is the opposite of another word

assonance-the repetition of similar vowel sounds followed by different consonant
sounds

blank verse -poetry written in unrhymed iambic pentameter

brainstorming-listing all possibilities before writing

character-an individual in a story or play

climax-that point in a plot that creates the greatest intensity, suspense, or interest

conflict-the struggle between opposing forces or characters in a story

connotation-the associations, images, or impressions carried by a word; implication of a
word

crisis-problems that a protagonist must solve

denotation-the dictionary definition of a word

dialogue-conversation of two or more people

editing-examining a written paper for arrangement, coherence and mechanics

epic-a long narrative poem about the adventures of a hero of great historic importance

figurative language -words that go beyond the literal meaning

flashback-a scene that interrupts the normal chronological sequence of events in a story to depict

something that happened at an earlier time

foreshadowing-the use of hints and clues to suggest what will happen later in the plot

framework-a story within a narrative setting or frame; story within a story

genre-a category used to classify literary works, usually by form, technique or content

homophone-one of two or more words pronounced alike, but different in spelling or meaning

hyperbole-exaggeration to the extreme to make a point

imagery-the use of language to evoke a picture or a concrete sensation of a person, place, thing,

or for abstract ideas or qualities

irony-in general, a discrepancy between appearances and reality. There are three types: dramatic,

verbal, and situational.

metaphor-comparing two unlike items without using “like” or “as”

mood-the tone which prevails in a piece of literature

narrative-the form of discourse that tells about a series of events

omniscient-a narrative perspective from a “godlike” view unrestricted by time or place.

onomatopoeia-the use of words that mimic the sounds they represent

oxymoron-a phrase that seemingly is contradictory but is true nonetheless

parable-a relatively short story that teaches a moral or lesson about how to lead a good life

personification-an object or abstract idea given human qualities or human form

plot- the series of related events in a story or play, sometimes called storyline

point-of-view- the vantage point from which the writer tells the story

protagonist-the central character in a story, the one who initiates or drives the action

resolution/denouement-the conclusion of a story where the plot is resolved

revising-re-thinking your writing by wholesale manipulation of the text.

rhetorical purpose- reason for the speaker's remarks; or the attitude that the author would like the reader to adopt.

rhetorical structure- any organizational device used by the author to convey tone, purpose, or effect. The rhetorical structure can be shifted during an essay from one mode to another.

satire-a type of writing that ridicules the shortcomings of people or institutions in an attempt to
bring about change

setting-the time and location where a story takes place

simile-a comparison using "like" or "as"

style-the distinctive way in which a writer uses language

suspense-a feeling of uncertainty and curiosity about what will happen next in a story

symbol-a person, place, thing, or event that has meaning in itself and that also stands for something more than itself.

synonym-one of two or more words in a language that have highly similar meanings

syntax-the pattern or structure of word order in sentences, clauses and phrases

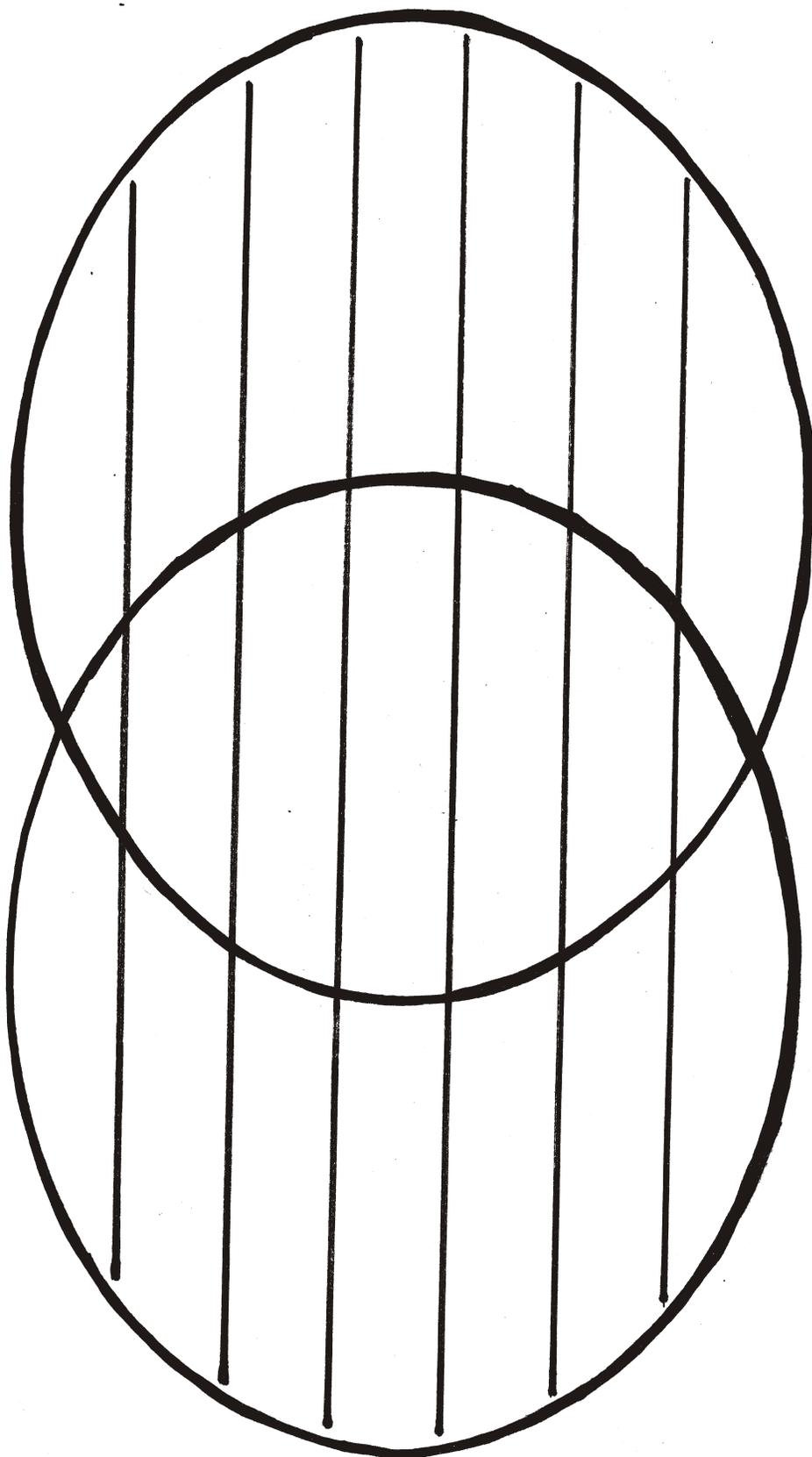
theme-the insight about human life that is revealed in a literary work

thesis-the basic argument advanced by a speaker or writer who then attempt to prove it

tone-the attitude an author takes toward the subject of a work, the characters in it, or the audience

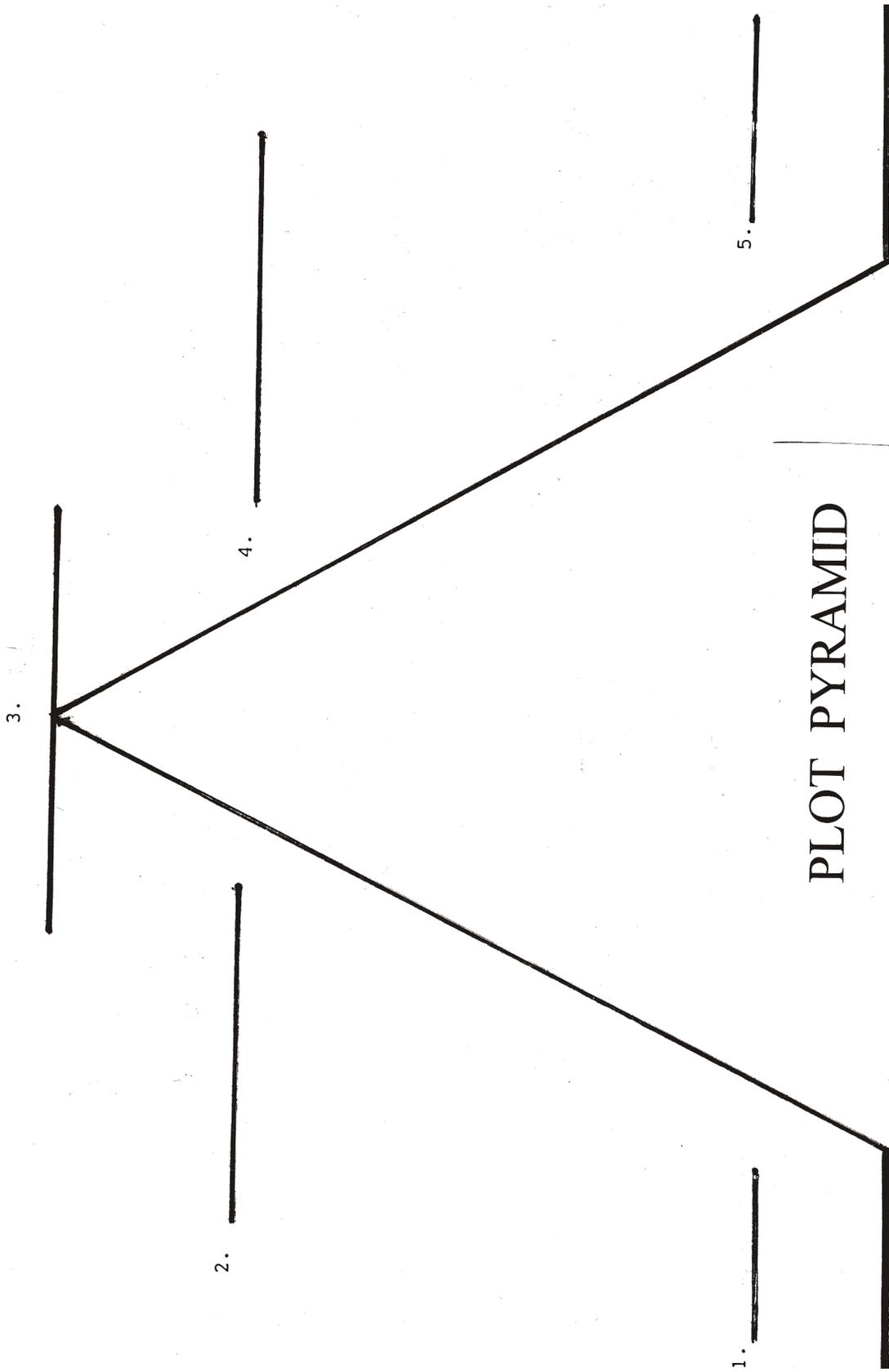
Venn diagram-this is made up of two overlapping circles and is useful for examining similarities and differences in characters, stories, poems, etc.

voice-the fluency, rhythm and liveliness in writing that makes it unique to the writer



VENN

DIAGRAM



PLOT PYRAMID

“Visual Aids, especially, can help a speaker make a point because vision is our most dominant sense. Research tells us that we pay twenty-five times as much attention to visual suggestions as we do to audio suggestions. “One seeing,” says an old Japanese proverb, “is better than a hundred times telling.” Still every speaker should remember that no matter how powerful or striking her/his visual aids may be, they are meant to enhance and not replace a well-constructed speech.” Communication Matters

Guidelines for Using Visual Aids

The visual must be large enough for the audience to see.

- * Words should be brief, written large enough to see, dark enough to see, and spelled correctly.
- * Master the mechanics of any equipment you plan to use. (Overhead, PowerPoint, CD player, etc.)
- * Check in advance to see if equipment is available for your use in the classroom. (Computer, television screen, chalkboard, easel, tape for holding visual, etc.)
- * Check the room arrangement in advance for necessary furniture or room distractions. (Lectern, chairs, seating arrangement, noisy air vents, location of computer/television screen, etc.)
- * If using handouts, have them available and a plan for passing them out.
- * Avoid turning your back to the audience to look at the visual aid.
- * Learn to use your visual aid with no more than a sidelong glance.
- * Point to the part of the visual aid you will talk about; look at the audience; talk to the audience.
- * Don't stand in front of the visual aid.
- * Talk to the listeners, not the visual aid.
- * Keep visual aids out of sight until ready to use, and then put it away when you have finished.
- * Pause and give the audience sufficient time to view the visual aid; pausing 10-12 seconds is fine.
- * The visual aid should not contain every word of your speech; use short phrases.
- * Don't overdo a good thing. A long succession of visual aids can become boring.
- * Coordinate the visual and verbal message by practicing the speech aloud.

Practice aloud, practice aloud, practice aloud!

From: Communication Matters and Speech: Exploring Communication

Tips for Designing PowerPoint Presentations

- * Every presentation should have a title slide. Make sure the title relates to the a presentation content.
- * Maintain a consistent color scheme throughout the presentation.
- * Keep the background simple, making sure the text can be seen clearly.
- * Avoid long lines of text. Avoid too many lines of text. No line should consist of more than seven words; no slide should consist of more than seven lines.
- * Avoid small text. Text on slides should be no smaller than 24 points, text for overheads should be no smaller than 18 points.
- * For bulleted text, avoid using a single bullet or more than five bullets per slide. Don't use more than two levels of bullets.
- * Use consistent wording in bulleted text.
- * Use clip art that relates to the content and doesn't distract from the message. void the temptation to "jazz up" a slide show with too much clip art.
- * Keep charts simple. The most effective charts are pie charts with three or four slices and column charts with three or four columns.
- * Provide some form of handout so your audience can keep track of the presentation.
- * Your final slide should provide a recommendation or summary.

**PowerPoint 2002: A Comprehensive Approach. Columbus, OH:
Glencoe McGraw-Hill, 2002.**

How to Rehearse for a Speech

On one occasion, Winston Churchill's valet heard Churchill speaking as he was taking a bath. When the valet asked Churchill if he was speaking to him, Churchill replied, "I was addressing the House of Commons." From Speech: Exploring Communication by J. Regis O'Connor, Prentice Hall, c. 1984.

*Excellent preparation, **practicing in advance, and rehearsing aloud until comfortable with the speech** are keys to giving **outstanding speeches**.*

What Practice **Procedures** to Use

- * Prepare your speech well in advance of the speaking occasion.
- * Speak from an outline or word for word, whatever is comfortable for you.
- * Always practice the speech **out loud**.
- * For the first several practices, practice alone.
- * Once you are familiar with the speech, practice the speech with a friend or family member.
- * Ask your listeners for constructive comments.
- * If you consistently hesitate in the same speech section, that's a clue to revise that section
- * Practice at least ten times! Begin practicing at least one week before the speech!

What Skills to Practice

- * Review your main points until they are firmly implanted in your mind. Practice looking down at your notes and then looking up at the audience as you speak.
- * Practice standing up giving the speech while maintaining equal weight. Practice looking around the room at individuals as you speak. Practice speaking **loud**. Speaking over a radio is helpful.
- * Practice pausing at punctuation marks so that you can breathe.
- * Practice having expression in your voice. Make your voice pitch go up and down like a wave. Your speech will sound more interesting. Underline your words for emphasis and use slash marks indicating where to pause. (Do this especially if presenting a memorized literature selection)
- * Practice using facial expressions and using gestures to help communicate your ideas.
- * Practice using any visual aids or any electronic devices to be sure you know how they work.

What to Do the Day of the Speech

- * Choose clothing that is comfortable, neat, and suitable for the occasion. When practicing get as close to the real situation as possible.
- * Arrive early when giving a speech so you can check the stage or room area. Practice using the microphone or any equipment if possible.
- * Actually stand at the lectern or podium and practice speaking.
- * Have a friend critique your speech as you practice.
- * Be careful the noise from your shoes (if you walk during the speech) does not distract from the message.

If you cannot practice in the real situation, observe the speakers before you, and adjust your speech.

Notes