CSET I: English

Except for a question on miscue analysis, I think TestPrep covered all these topics, although maybe not in enough detail to get the answers correct. I know I need to do more work on understanding grammar and phonics. I have no idea how to practice interpreting passages. The answers I picked may or may not be correct. This looks like a good site for reviewing grammar: http://www.chompchomp.com/terms.htm.
This looks like a good site for reviewing phonics: http://www.theschoolhouse.us/index.html

I’VE SCANNED THROUGH 5 CSET BOOKS AND PICKED OUT WHAT SEEM TO EXPLANATIONS RELATED TO THE QUESTIONS.
1. Which of the following is a compound sentence?
I picked one that had the word “but” in it.

**Compound**
A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses. Just think of taking two or more complete sentences and attaching them together. One way to do that is by using a semicolon (;). The other option is to use a coordinating conjunction, the list of which has come to be known as the fanboys.

The fanboys: *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so.*

- The sun is out, yet it’s cold.
- Shelbie’s boss was away on business Monday, so she spent the day playing solitaire on the computer.
- I don’t understand why he’s so angry; all I said was that his story was simplistic and trite.

Language St
2. Which of the following sentences is written correctly?
Sentences used their, I, me.

**Pronouns**

Pronouns take the place of nouns or noun phrases and help avoid constant repetition of the noun or phrase. Here is an example.

*Blaire* is in law school. *She* studies in *her* room every day.

[The pronouns *she* and *her* refer to the noun *Blaire.*]

**PRONOUN CASES**

Pronouns take three case forms: subjective, objective, and possessive. The personal pronouns *I, he, she, it, we, they, you* refer to an individual or individuals. The relative pronoun *who* refers to these personal pronouns as well as to an individual or individuals. These pronouns change their case form depending on their use in the sentence.

Subjective Pronouns: *I, we, he, it, she, they, who, you*

Use the subjective form if the pronoun is, or refers to, the subject of a clause or sentence.

*She and I* studied for the CSET.

The proctors for the test were *she* and *I.*

[She and I refer to the subject proctors.]

She is the woman *who* answered every question correctly.

I don’t expect to do as well as *she.*

[She is the subject for the understood verb *does.*]
Objective Pronouns: me, us, him, it, her, them, whom, you
Use the objective form if the pronoun is the object of a verb or preposition.

Cathy helps both him and me.
She wanted them to pass.
I don't know whom she helped most.

Possessive Pronouns: my, our, his, its, her, their, whose, your
Use the objective form if the pronoun shows possession.

I recommended they reduce the time they study with their friends.
He was the person whose help they relied on.

CLEAR REFERENCE
The pronoun must clearly refer to a particular noun or noun phrase. Here are some examples.

Unclear
Gary and Blaire took turns feeding her cat.
[We can't tell which person her refers to.]
Gary gave it to Blaire.
[The pronoun it refers to a noun that is not stated.]

Clear
Gary and Blaire took turns feeding Blaire's cat.
[A pronoun doesn't work here.]
Gary got the book and gave it to Blaire.
[The pronoun works once the noun is stated.]

AGREEMENT
Each pronoun must agree in number (singular or plural) and gender (male or female) with the noun it refers to. Here are some examples.

Nonagreement in Number
The children played all day, and she came in exhausted.
[Children is plural, but she is singular.]
The child picked up the hat and brought them into the house.
[Hat is singular, but them is plural.]

Agreement
The children played all day, and they came in exhausted.
The child picked up the hat and brought it into the house.

Nonagreement in Gender
The lioness picked up his cub.
[Lioness is female, and his is male.]
3. Which of the following is a run on sentence?

**Grammar.** Table 7.11 shows common grammar errors that you can spot in data sets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT/VERB AGREEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He walk to his house yesterday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He walked to his house yesterday.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMMA SPLICES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*He walked to his house yesterday, he had dinner with his family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He walked to his house yesterday, and he had dinner with his family.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RUN-ONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*He walked to his house yesterday he had dinner with his family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He walked to his house yesterday. He had dinner with his family.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FRAGMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*When he walked home yesterday. He had dinner with his family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When he walked home yesterday, he had dinner with his family.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the verbs do not agree with the subject in number or tense, then they show areas of need. Comma splices, too, might be present. A comma splice occurs when a student “staples” two complete sentences together, instead of using a period to end one sentence before beginning another or joining them together with a conjunction. Run-on sentences are similar to comma splices, only lazier. Here, the writer not only leaves off a conjunction but also forgets to supply a comma. Sentence fragments are usually sentences that begin with what’s called a subordinating conjunction. You’ll know them when you read them because the thought seems incomplete.

Given these examples, go back to the opening paragraph, My Favorite Memory, and try to find the agreement, splice, run-on, and fragment problems in the paragraph. You should be able to identify at lest one of each variety quite easily.
4. Which sentence could be interpreted in two ways?
Picked one about a woman and a spoon.

**Dangling or Misplaced Modifiers**
A dangling modifier is an introductory phrase that does not refer clearly or logically to a subsequent modifier (usually the subject) in a sentence. A misplaced modifier is one that is placed too close to a word that it could but should not modify. Here’s an example of a dangling modifier:

*Strolling along the beach, a wave suddenly drenched us.*

This sentence seems to say that the *wave* is doing the *strolling*. A correct sentence clarifies the modifier as follows:

*While we were strolling along the beach, a wave suddenly drenched us.*

Following is an example of a misplaced modifier:

*Ann prepared a roast for the family that was served burned.*

In this case, because *that was served burned* is so close to *family*, the sentence seems to say that the *family* was *burned*. Here is a corrected version.

*Ann served a burned roast to the family.*

Note that this correction also eliminates excessive words. (Cliff page 45)
5. Which of these words would structural analysis most help to determine the meaning of? Picked dehumanize.

Structural analysis is used to teach children vocabulary using prefixes, suffixes, roots, and base words. Table 4.37 shows an example of the process of structural word analysis applied to the word *antidisestablishmentarianism*.

**TABLE 4.37**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREFIX</th>
<th>PREFIX</th>
<th>BASE WORD</th>
<th>SUFFIX</th>
<th>SUFFIX</th>
<th>SUFFIX</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>anti-</td>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>establish</td>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>-arian</td>
<td>-ism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>. Opposed to</td>
<td>the removal of</td>
<td>the state</td>
<td>believers of</td>
<td>a philosophical position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


6. What is a miscue analysis used for?

Miscue analysis is an assessment that helps a teacher identify the cueing systems used by a reader — the strategies a reader uses to make sense of a text. Instead of focusing on errors, miscue analysis focuses on what the student is doing right, so that he or she can learn to build on existing reading strategies. This section explains how to perform miscue analysis and how to use what you learn from it to help your students. http://www.learnnc.org/lp/editions/readassess/2.0
7. Definition of phoneme.
A phoneme is the smallest part of spoken language that makes a difference in the meaning of words. English has about 41 phonemes. A few words, such as *a* or *oh*, have only one phoneme. Most words, however, have more than one phoneme: The word *if* has two phonemes (/i/ /f/); *check* has three phonemes (/ch/ /e/ /k/), and *stop* has four phonemes (/s/ /t/ /o/ /p/). Sometimes one phoneme is represented by more than one letter. (Cliff page 34)
8. There was a bibliographic entry and the question was what was it referring to. Picked: journal article. Other answers: anthology

Developing a reference list also differs in APA and MLA. First of all, in APA the list of books and journals at the end of the paper used as sources of information for writing the article is called a reference list; however, in MLA style, it is called a work cited list. Second, the way that books, journals, and electronic media are cited differ, too (see Table 7.6).

**TABLE 7.6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APA REFERENCE LIST</th>
<th>MLA WORKS CITED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Book, Single Author</strong></td>
<td><strong>Book, Single Author</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Book, Multiple Author</strong></td>
<td><strong>Book, Multiple Author</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Journal Article</strong></td>
<td><strong>Journal Article</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Websites</strong></td>
<td><strong>Websites</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CD-ROM</strong></td>
<td><strong>CD-ROM</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. There was a bibliographic entry and the question was what was it referring to. Picked: journal article. Other answers: anthology CONTINUED:

APA bibliographies have the following general format for books:

Last Name, First Initial, Middle Initial. (Year). *Title in italics*. City of Publication: Publisher.

The book title is in italics and only the first letter in the sentence is capitalized. Proper nouns and words after colons are also capitalized, but the rest are lowercase:

*Beating them all: Thirty days to success in English literature.*

Journal articles follow roughly the same format. The title is not italicized—*but the name of the journal is*. Furthermore, the volume number of the journal is given and so are the page numbers at the very end.

Websites are cited by offering the date of retrieval, along with the URL. Because Websites change rapidly, it is important to state the date that you visited and extracted the material from the site because it might disappear eventually.
8. There was a bibliographic entry and the question was what was it referring to. Picked: journal article. Other answers: anthology CONTINUED:

MLA bibliographies, on the other hand, have a number of distinguishing characteristics. Books are cited as follows:

Last name, First Name, Middle Initial. Title Underlined. City, State of Publication: Publisher, Year.

Journal articles in MLA are referenced as follows:

Last name, First Name, First Initial. “Title in Quotation Marks.” Journal Title Underlined. Volume, Number (Year): Pages.

Websites in MLA are cited like this:

Last Name, First Name [if any]. Title of Page. [Date Created:] Day Month Year. [Date Visited:] Day Month Year. URL
9. If you’re giving a speech, why is it better to speak from an outline rather than a prepared text? Picked: It would seem more natural to an audience.

Speech

CSET candidates should be familiar with conventions of effective speech presentation. Some key points to consider when evaluating a speech include the following issues.

**Eye contact:** A good speaker establishes eye contact with the audience in a manner that is engaging and appropriate. A good speaker avoids looking down, looking over the heads of the audience, or addressing just one member or one section of the audience.

**Volume and tone of voice:** An effective speaker’s tone varies naturally and appropriately according to the content. His or her volume is clear and suitable for the audience and venue. A good speaker modulates his or her volume at appropriate points in the delivery to engage the audience in the content.

**Pacing and clarity:** Effective speakers enunciate clearly and properly, using a natural pace that is governed by the syntax and content. Words are never slurred or run together. Good speakers do not use fillers such as um, ah, and like.

**Hand gestures:** Effective speakers also know when to use hand gestures and how to employ them appropriately to enhance their presentation. Poor speakers keep their hands in their pockets, play with their hair, or fidget inappropriately.

**Posture:** Good speakers face the audience squarely with a natural stance; they do not shift their weight or stand askew; they do not lean informally to one side or the other, nor do they lean on a lectern or podium.
10. At what stage of learning a second language would people start to talk more naturally.
Picked: Intermediate fluency.

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION
Most of what we’ve already covered applies to learners of English both as a first and second language, but there are theories and concepts specifically related to English Language Learners (now referred to in education as ELL, not ESL) that you need to know. This should be basic review for anyone who’s been through a teacher credentialing program in California.

Stages of Second Language Acquisition
There are five generally accepted stages of second language acquisition.

Preproduction
The preproduction stage is also known as the silent period. During this state, students observe, listen, absorb, and develop an understanding of up to 500 words, but may not speak for several months, or may communicate only with gestures and a few basic words.
CONTINUED:

**Early Production**
Early production occurs when students understand and can use approximately 1,000 words. They speak in one- to two-word phrases and can demonstrate understanding by answering simple (yes/no, either/or) questions. This stage can last up to six months after preproduction.

**Speech Emergence**
The speech emergence stage can last up to another year; by now, students have usually developed about 3,000 words and are beginning to speak in short sentences, ask simple questions, and engage in basic conversation.

**Intermediate Language Proficiency**
Intermediate language proficiency is also known as intermediate fluency. At this stage, students have a vocabulary of about 6,000 words. They understand more complex concepts and use longer and more detailed sentences when speaking and writing, though their English is punctuated by frequent grammatical errors. This stage may take up to a year.

**Advanced Language Proficiency**
Advanced language proficiency is also known as advanced fluency. It takes several years for students to reach this stage, but by this point, their English is comparable to their grade-level native English-speaking peers.
Semantic Acquisition. The meaning of certain words and phrases are acquired in an order. In the beginning, children overextend and underextend the meanings of words. For example, a “woof-woof” may be any animal with four legs and a tail (dogs, cats, beavers, lions, etc.), and “kitty” may only refer to the child’s cat and to no other catlike animal. Subordinate clauses and passive voice sentences are among the last things to be acquired. These elements can be acquired as late as fourth grade, if not beyond. The problem is understanding the meaning that these sentences convey. A sentence like

If I had run for just twenty-five minutes longer, then I would have won the race and I would not have to be here writing this book.

is a pretty complicated sentence to understand (for anyone), and it makes sense that the form is acquired late.

Passive and complex constructions are also acquired quite late (Turner & Rommetveit, 1967).

A. Cookie Monster ate the cookie.
B. The cookie was eaten by Cookie Monster.
C. I will have been standing here for five hours when the clock strikes three.

Because position dominates in understanding what sentences mean, sentence A is easy to understand. The agent (subject) carries out the action on the goal (object). However, sentence B is tricky, and a child might act out the sentence with a puppet by having the cookie eat Cookie Monster instead of the other way around. The child might believe that the first position of the sentence always contains the agent, so he or she acts upon that belief. Again, position is what the child might rely upon for meaning and thus accounts for why passive sentences are acquired later. The last sentence is highly complex and requires knowledge of time and contingencies to be fully understood. Cognitively speaking, some children may not be ready to understand such a sentence without the experience and knowledge of time.
11. What are children likely to learn first? One answer was chicken or robin before learning the category bird. Another one had to do with word endings like ing and ion. CONTINUED:

- Developmental Stages. Some aspects of first and second language acquisition are subject to nearly identical developmental stages (Pfaff, 1987). For example, learning wh-questions, like Where is Chris going?, happens in a particular order by both children learning English as a first language and adolescents and adults learning English as a second language. These shared stages are thought to indicate that there is a psycholinguistic aspect to language acquisition (e.g., it is not a matter of simply memorizing the correct forms).

- Developmental Orders. Like developmental stages, certain aspects of first and second language acquisition occur in an order. Consider how the morpheme /s/ is acquired: The plurals (cars) occur before the possessives (Chris's), and the third singular -s (runs) is acquired last. Again, this fact lends credence to the shared psycholinguistic aspects of first and second language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman, 1976).

- Hypothesis Testing. First and second language learners test out their current level of language acquisition against reality (Bley-Vroman, 1986). For example, when a child says goed to form the past tense of go, he or she does so with the belief that he or she is correct. Only later does he or she change this assumption through exposure to the correct form. Second language learners do the same thing, for example, when English learners say wented to form the past tense.
11. What are children likely to learn first? One answer was chicken or robin before learning the category bird. Another one had to do with word endings like ing and ion.

CONTINUED:

**Morphology.** Inflectional affixes are acquired in a particular order that is common to all children learning English as a first language (Brown, 1973). As mentioned earlier, children tend to learn the plural -s before the possessive -s. Third singular -s (runs, hits, jumps) tends to be last. The reason is probably because the plurals and possessives are concrete and third singular is abstract: It is easy to understand plural and possessive forms, but third singular -s is more for decoration; therefore, this third singular form is learned later.

Learning how to form the past tense morphologically occurs in stages. First, the child learns the form -ed to make the past tense, and then overgeneralizes this inflectional ending to any verb to make the past tense (see Table 4.53).

Table 4.53 shows how a child might move from one stage of hypothesis testing to another on the way to learning how to correctly form the past tense for irregular verbs in English (go/went, run/ran, sit/sat). Please note that the forms that the child uses in stages one through three (goed and wented) are seldom heard in the environment since the child’s caregivers (parents and teachers) probably use the correct forms of the verb when speaking to the child, yet the child uses these incorrect forms anyway because they make the most sense to him or her. Overgeneralized forms (goed) and hypercorrected forms (wented) are common here.
11. What are children likely to learn first? One answer was chicken or robin before learning the category bird. Another one had to do with word endings like ing and ion.

**TABLE 4.53**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGE ONE</th>
<th>STAGE TWO</th>
<th>STAGE THREE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overgeneralization</strong></td>
<td><strong>Hypercorrection</strong></td>
<td><strong>Uptake/Self-Correction</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child: I <strong>goed</strong> to the store.</td>
<td>Child: I <strong>wented</strong> to the zoo.</td>
<td>Child: I <strong>wented</strong> to the zoo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent: You <strong>went</strong> to the store?</td>
<td>Parent: You <strong>went</strong> to the zoo?</td>
<td>Parent: You <strong>went</strong> to the zoo?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child: Yes. I <strong>goed</strong> to the store got a toy.</td>
<td>Child: Yes. I <strong>wented</strong> to the zoo and saw lions!</td>
<td>Child: Yes. I <strong>went</strong> to the zoo.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Syntax.** Developmental stages affect the acquisition of English syntax. Below are the most common areas (Bloom, 1994; Cairnes, 1996; Chomsky, 1969).

*Holophrases* occur around 12 to 18 months. These are one-word utterances that the child uses to mean a variety of phrases. For example, the word *me* can mean a variety of things: I'm hungry, I'm tired, I need to be changed, I'm really hot in this jumpsuit—could you please take it off? Often, the child's caregiver is able to understand what the child wants based on a single word either by intonation or simple trial and error.

The **Two-Word Stage** occurs shortly after the one word (holophrastic) state when children put two words together. *Chris car, kitty here,* and *no wash* are probably things that I said at this stage when I was a child, and so did you. The important idea to note is that a grammar is emerging at this stage, though it is very reduced and stripped down.

The **Telegraphic Stage** occurs when the child strings words together with a discernable grammar. *Daddy go, Milk all gone,* and *I now tired* are examples of the telegraphic stage. In each case, there is a subject and a verb form in the utterance; and it is becoming structurally correct, though the utterances lack "unessential" elements like determiners, prepositions, and so forth.

*Compound Subjects* and *Adverbial Modifiers* are in place and in production about
11. What are children likely to learn first? One answer was chicken or robin before learning the category bird. Another one had to do with word endings like ing and ion.

CONTINUE:

*Compound Subjects and Adverbial Modifiers* are in place and in production about kindergarten. For example, *Mike and Chris ran and jumped far* is a viable sentence at this stage, while prepositional phrases as modifiers may be in place by the end of kindergarten. This is because spatial concepts for words like *in, on, near,* and *far* must be established first before attaching a spoken or written label to them.

As the children improve in their language, they go through other stages. *Question and Negation Forms* as shown in Table 4.54 are examples that emerge around age 2 (Klima & Bellugi, 1966).

**TABLE 4.54**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DO + QUESTION</th>
<th>WH- + QUESTION</th>
<th>NEGATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You like?</td>
<td>Where go?</td>
<td>No run.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you like it?</td>
<td>Where you did go?</td>
<td>I'm not running.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You do like it?</td>
<td>Where did you go?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The orders for learning the *do, wh- question,* and *negation* forms are quite universal for children learning English as a first language. The orders seem inescapable (linguistics do not bother studying these forms anymore, because they are so common). These orders suggest that there is a psycholinguistic aspect to learning English as a first language. In the first place, children are not hearing phrases such as “you like” or “where go” or “no run” in the environment. *Yet they produce them.* Some kind of linguistic structuring must be taking place in the child’s mind for these odd forms to be produced on the way to learning how to correctly form the syntax of each of these statements.
12. How do you know when a writer is showing bias in their work? Possible answers: They use arguments others have rejected. They say they know they are showing bias. They don’t give any supporting evidence for what they say.

DETECT BIAS

Bias
A statement or passage reveals bias if the author has prejudged or has a predisposition to a doctrine, idea, or practice. Bias means the author is trying to convince or influence the reader through some emotional appeal or slanted writing.

Bias can be positive or negative.
Positive Bias: She is so lovely, she deserves the very best.
Negative Bias: She is so horrible, I hope she gets what’s coming to her.

Forms of Bias
Biased writing can often be identified by the presence of one or more of the following forms of bias.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotional Language</th>
<th>Language that appeals to the reader’s emotions, and not to common sense or logic.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive: If I am elected, I will help your family get jobs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative: If my opponent is elected, your family will lose their jobs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inaccurate Information</th>
<th>Language that presents false, inaccurate, or unproved information as though it were factual.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive: My polls indicate that I am very popular.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative: My polls indicate that a lot of people disagree with my opponent.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name Calling</th>
<th>Language that uses negative, disapproving terms without any factual basis.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative: I’ll tell you, my opponent is a real jerk.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slanted Language</th>
<th>Language that slants the facts or evidence toward the writer’s point of view.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive: I am a positive person, looking for the good side of people.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative: My opponent finds fault with everyone and everything.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Stereotyping | Language that indicates that a person is like all the members of a particular group. |
13. A person is beginning to rewrite an essay. What is the first thing he should consider? Picked: Determine if the piece flows well and uses good transitions between paragraphs. Another answer was to determine if correct English conventions were being used.

Writing Strategies:

Step 1: Prewriting
Prewriting is the initial brainstorming step in which the writer gathers ideas and examples. The purpose of the prewriting process is to organize one’s thoughts and plan the order to present points, examples, arguments, and so on. The most popular methods of prewriting include clustering, webbing, outlining, and note taking.

Step 2: Drafting
The drafting step logically follows prewriting. At this stage, you develop the initial draft of actual sentences and paragraphs. You should not worry about correctness or editing; rather, you should follow the organizational plan set up in the prewriting stage and incorporate all ideas into the essay. The purpose of drafting is simply to get all of the prewriting ideas into print.

Step 3: Revising
At the revising stage, writers begin fine-tuning the wording of the draft and/or rearranging the ideas or paragraphs. This is the time to think about changes that will make the writing more logical and forceful. For instance, you may decide to move a paragraph to a different location, rewrite a topic sentence, add a new example, or improve the essay through addition or deletion. The goal of revising is to ensure that the ideas flow logically and that the writer’s points are presented with clarity.

Step 4: Editing
During the editing step, writers clean up diction and syntax. You may decide to combine some sentences for effect or reword others for clarity. Of course, you may choose to move entire paragraphs around or combine them during editing, but the more you practice planning in the prewriting phase, the less you should need to make such major changes during the editing step. The purpose of editing is to check the flow of ideas and precision of presentation.

Step 5: Proofreading
This final proofreading step of the writing process allows writers to check the text for mechanical and diction errors (spelling, punctuation, grammar, etc.). This step allows you to ensure that the final draft is as accurate and error-free as possible using the conventions of standard written English.
14. Person is writing a report and is trying to decide if detailed background information should be included. Answers included: Would it be of interest to the readers. Would the information be easily available to the readers if it wasn’t included. What is the background of the readers. Would it contribute to the tone of the report.

FOUND NOTHING ON THIS. THINK I WOULD PICK WHAT IS BACKGROUND OF READERS.
15. There was a group of 4 sentences that had to be put in the correct order. They were about the number of words in Native American Languages. Someone said there weren’t very many words in their vocabulary (first sentence). However someone said there was evidence of a lot more words (2nd sentence). Then 2 more sentences that followed pretty logically.

Found nothing really helpful on this, but for written passages where they ask if it could be improved by moving sentences around, TestPrep said to be sure to look at how moving a sentence changes what is left behind, not just where you are moving it to. Example: if there are six sentences and it asks if it’s better to move sentence 2 after sentence 5, look to see if sentences 1 and 3 read better by having 2 moved away from them; not just if 2 works better after 5.

16. There was a short (4 line) passage and it asked what it was referring to. It had to do with innate or nativism learning of first languages. FOUND NOTHING HELPFUL.
17. There was a short passage (4 lines) that asked what it was demonstrating. I picked logical fallacy based on the last sentence that seemed to be contradicting itself.

RECOGNIZE INVALID ARGUMENTS

Valid arguments are reasonable. Valid arguments are objective and supported by evidence. Invalid arguments are *not* reasonable. They are not objective. Invalid arguments usually reflect one of the following fallacies.

*Ad hominem*  
Arguing against a person to discredit their position, rather than an argument against the position itself

*Ad populum*  
An argument that appeals to the emotions of the person

*Bandwagon*  
Arguing for position because of its popularity

*Begging the question*  
Assuming that an argument, or part of an argument, is true without providing proof

*Circular logic*  
Using a statement of a position to argue in favor of that position

*Either/or*  
Stating that the conclusion falls into one of two extremes, when there are more intermediate choices
17. There was a short passage (4 lines) that asked what it was demonstrating. I picked logical fallacy based on the last sentence that seemed to be contradicting itself.

CONTINUED:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faulty analogy</th>
<th>Using an analogy as an argument when the analogy does not match the situation under discussion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hasty generalization</td>
<td>Reaching a conclusion too quickly, before all the information is known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non sequitur</td>
<td>A conclusion that does not logically follow from the facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post hoc, ergo propter hoc</td>
<td>Falsely stating that one event following another is caused by the first event (faulty cause and effect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red herring</td>
<td>An irrelevant point, diverting attention from the position under discussion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
18. There was a passage and it asked which was most used in the passage. Choices were: Personification, Simile, Metaphor, Alliteration. Picked: personification. THIS PAGE AND NEXT HAVE GOOD DEFINITIONS OF THINGS THEY ARE LIKELY TO ASK ABOUT PASSAGES.

**Personification**
The assignment of a human trait to a nonhuman item or characteristic.
The angry sea crashed against the wall.

**Metaphor**
A figure of speech in which something is described as though it were something else.
In Robert Frost’s “The Road Not Taken,” the diverging roads are a metaphor for the choices people must make in their lives.

**Simile**
A figure of speech that has a direct comparison between unlike things using *like* or *as*.
You are as quiet as a mouse.

**Alliteration**
The repetition of usually initial consonant sounds in two or more words or syllables.
Alliteration is found in a poem entitled “The Searchers” by Kenyan poet, John Roberts. *I remember a dog ran out from an alley, sniffed my trousers, scented rags...* The /s/ sounds in the words *sniffed* and *scented* mimic the sounds of smelling, and thereby create an image for the reader of the act of smelling.
More terms about poems and passages they may ask about:

**Analogy**
A comparison of similar traits between dissimilar things in order to highlight a point of similarity.

*We scored a touchdown on the educational assistance plan.*

**Figurative Language**
A word or phrase that departs from literal language. The most common examples are metaphor and simile.

*Winter’s end* implies the end of a person’s life.

**Hyperbole**
Deliberate exaggeration for effect.

*The whole world’s problems are on my shoulders.*

**Imagery**
Words or phrases that appeal to the senses (sound, smell, taste, and feel).

*The siren in the night played a haunting tone.*

**Irony**
The use of words to suggest the opposite of their intended meaning.

*A parent tells a teenager, “Oh, your room is really clean.”*

**Literal Language**
The actual definition of the word.

*Winter’s end* is the end of winter.

**Symbol**
Usually concrete objects or images that represent abstract ideas.

*The eagle is often used as a symbol of freedom.*

**Paradox:** A statement that seems to be self-contradicting but, in fact, is true. The figure in a Donne sonnet that concludes “I never shall be chaste except you ravish me” is a good example of the device.
FOUND NOTHING HELPFUL FOR THESE 3.

19. Long passage about biography of Stephen Crane who wrote Red Badge of Courage. This was a story about the civil war. After he wrote the book, although he was sickly he was pressured into becoming a war correspondent. He had tuberculosis. Question was something about literary elements used. Possible answers: compound sentences. Contrasting sentences.

20. Long passage written from point of view of a Mexican-American student living in a Barrio. Language was like Spanish slang. He liked literature. Teacher was like a drill-sergeant. Student was upset because she asked them to pick a poem they could relate to. Then she had him say it out loud in class. He thought she was from outer space and couldn’t relate to him. Answers had to do with: Differences in regional dialects.

21. Poem of 3 stanzas. Question was about how second and third stanzas relate to first stanza. Answers were like: They disprove the first stanza. They show irony. They show paradox. There might have been a second question about this poem.
22. This poem by Emily Dickinson was on the test. I found it because after the test closed there was a section on getting permissions to use things on the test and it gave her name. I think there were 2 questions on it. I think it’s likely this or another Dickinson poem may always be on the test. I’ve found some analyses of this and 3 other of her famous poems, that we should read to become more familiar with her.

“Success is Counted Sweetest
Success is counted sweetest
By those who ne'er succeed.
To comprehend a nectar
Requires sorest need.

Not one of all the purple Host
Who took the Flag today
Can tell the definition
So clear of Victory

As he defeated-dying-
On whose forbidden ear
The distant strains of triumph
Burst agonized and clear.
Essay questions:

Passage written by Huang. Baby (2004). Discuss the use of personification in the passage. Discuss the tone of the passage. Passage was describing a warm night without a wisp of fog. Scene took place in 1972 in the San Francisco Mission District. Breeze playing in curtains was compared to a toddler playing hide and seek in its mother’s skirts. Seeing the curtains from the street was like a flirtation with the window. Then it said the apartment was taking a nap. Music drifting out of the apartment window. Dishes clanking was compared to twinkling stars.

**Personification**
The assignment of a human trait to a nonhuman item or characteristic.
The angry sea crashed against the wall.

**Tone** is a slippery word, and almost everyone has trouble with it. It’s sometimes used to mean the mood or atmosphere of a work, although purists are offended by this definition. It can also mean a manner of speaking, a tone of voice, as in “The disappointed coach’s tone was sardonic.” But its most common use as a term of literary analysis is to denote the inferred attitude of an author. When the author’s attitude is different from that of the speaker, as is usually the case in ironic works, the tone of voice of the speaker, which may be calm, businesslike, or even gracious, may be very different from the satiric tone of the work, which reflects the author’s disapproval of the speaker. Because it is often hard to define tone in one or two words, questions on tone do not appear frequently on multiple-choice exams, but an essay topic may well ask for a discussion of the tone of a poem or a passage of prose.
Read the excerpt below from The Story of My Life (1903), Helen Keller's autobiography; then complete the exercise that follows.
Have you ever been at sea in a dense fog, when it seemed as if a tangible white darkness shut you in, and the great ship, tense and anxious, groped her way toward the shore with plummet and sounding-line, and you waited with beating heart for something to happen? I was like that ship before my education began, only I was without compass or sounding-line, and had no way of knowing how near the harbor was. "Light! give me light!" was the wordless cry of my soul, and the light of love shone on me in that very hour.
Write a response in which you:
describe the use of analogy in the excerpt, and describe the impact of specific word choices on tone in the excerpt.
Be sure to cite specific evidence from the text.

In this passage from Helen Keller’s autobiography, Ms. Keller compares herself, "before [her] education began," to a fogbound ship, without instruments of navigation, adrift in ignorance and fear. We know that Ms. Keller was both deaf and blind, without any outwardly expressive language in early childhood. In this passage she speaks of the isolation she then felt, "groping" and wordlessly trapped in her "tangible white darkness."
The imagery of the fog is an evocative analogy of social isolation and sensory deprivation. It is most telling that the light that came to shine on her and led her to the acquisition of knowledge was not a visible light, but the light of love, as tangible as the darkness that had surrounded her.
By comparing herself to the "tense and anxious" ship that "groped her way toward the shore" Keller creates a tone of uncertainty and yearning that culminates in the desperate supplication "Light! give me light!"
2. Teacher gave a spelling test and there is a list of 7 words and how the student spelled them. Discuss the students spelling development.

Robin’s answer:
It looks like in 3/7 words the student over utilized the need for a double consonant/vowel (e.g., kk, oo, hh, ee). As for the last 2 words it appears the student spelled both words phonetically rather than committing the proper spelling to memory through the use of automatic word recognition. Overall it seems that the student is struggling with recognizing proper spelling patterns when asked to listen to a word & then transcribe it.

Stepped spelled correctly
Heads spelled correctly
Reefreshhing for refreshing
Moovmint for movement
Talkked for talked
Pamint for payment
Terned for turned
Use the information below to complete the exercise that follows.
A fifth-grade student attempts to spell a list of words that are read aloud. Shown below are the words and the student's spellings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Word</th>
<th>Student's Spelling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>yelloe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>nacheral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muffin</td>
<td>muffin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor</td>
<td>dockter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special</td>
<td>spechul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sign</td>
<td>sine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quick</td>
<td>quick</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Write a response in which you describe the student's spelling development. Make sure to cite specific examples to support your conclusions.

This fifth-grade student has demonstrated a knowledge of sound-symbol relationships on all the words in this list as far as beginning sounds and blends are concerned, such as the blend "sp" in special. An understanding of consonant-doubling is demonstrated in the words yelloe and muffin. However, there are mistakes in some of the ending sounds, such as the "oe" in yelloe and the "er" in doctor. These mistakes are common for a first or second grader but are not expected of a fifth grader. The fifth-grade student’s sight vocabulary should be such that these mistakes are eliminated due to practice and exposure to written words. Another weakness of this student is in the area of medial sounds, as shown in the words natural/nacheral and special/spechul. This student’s development is at the transitional level, and the student is still using sign-symbol relationships mastered at the lower grade level. This student could build up a better understanding of the correct spelling of words though practice and exposure to more literature. More reading would also help to develop better morphological understanding, as of the relationship between natural and nature.
Complete the exercise that follows.
In 1776, after more than ten years of growing resistance, Great Britain's North American colonies in America declared their independence. Using your knowledge of U.S. history, prepare a response in which you:

- Identify two important causes of the American Revolution;
- Select one of the causes you have identified; and
- Explain why that cause was a decisive factor in bringing about the decision for independence.

One major cause of the American Revolution was colonial opposition to British efforts to tax the colonies. Another was colonial discontent over British policies that restricted westward expansion. The first of these causes was particularly significant because it involved differing conceptions of colonial rights. Americans insisted that they could not be taxed by a government in which they were not represented, and thus could not be subject to acts of Parliament; the British disagreed. These differences were at the heart of disputes surrounding the Stamp Act, the Townshend duties, and the Tea Act—disputes that contributed considerably to the growing tensions that resulted in war.