AP Language and Composition: Summer 2023 Assignment

1. Terms: Review the attached list of terms and learn the definitions of each to prepare for a matching terms test during the first full week of school (August 21-25). Some definitions include examples/explanations as well. Keep these concepts in mind as you complete your reading (see below) to help you consider how the chapters are constructed.

2. Read Renee Jain's article, "Teaching Students the ABCs of Resilience" and use the included chart model to analyze your summer reading text and make notes to bring to the first day of class.

3. Read Laura Hillenbrand's *Unbroken* (ISBN: 9780812974492) and annotate the text (see below for a brief annotation guide), paying special attention to the themes of survival and resilience.

    > "*Unbroken*, written by Lauren Hillenbrand, is the biography of Olympic athlete Louis Zamperini. The book takes you on a journey through his youth, athletic career, time spent in the armed forces, and his time spent as a prisoner of war."–*Goodreads.com*

4. Bring your ABCs of Resilience notes and annotated copy of *Unbroken* on the first day of school. We will focus our first class discussions on the themes and construction of Hillenbrand's work. During the second full week of school (August 28-September 1), you will complete an in-class writing response on this text.

AP Language Terms (from *The Language of Composition*, 4ᵗʰ edition)

antithesis: contradictory ideas that are juxtaposed, often using parallel grammatical construction

classical oration (classical argument): five-part argument structure used by classical rhetoricians. The five parts of a classical oration are

> **introduction (*exordium*):** Introduces the reader to the subject under discussion. The speaker typically announces the subject and purpose, and appeals to ethos to establish credibility.

> **narration (*narratio*):** Also known as exposition today, this provides factual information and background material on the subject at hand or establishes why the subject is a problem that needs addressing.

> **confirmation (*confirmatio*):** Usually the major part of the text, the confirmation develops the proof through evidence to support the writer's claims.

> **refutation (*refutatio*):** Addresses the counterargument. It is a bridge between the writer's proof and conclusion.

> **conclusion (*peroratio*):** Brings the essay to a satisfying close.

concession: An acknowledgment that an opposing argument may be true or reasonable. In a strong argument, a concession is usually accompanied by a refutation challenging the validity of the opposing argument.

deduction: Deduction is a logical process that reaches a conclusion by starting with a general principle or universal truth (a major premise) and applying it to a specific case (a minor premise). The process of deduction is usually demonstrated in the form of a syllogism:

MAJOR PREMISE:	Exercise contributes to better health.
MINOR PREMISE:	Yoga is a type of exercise.
CONCLUSION:	Yoga contributes to better health.

induction: From the Latin *inducere*, "to lead into," induction is a logical process of reasoning from particulars to universals, using specific cases in order to draw a conclusion, which is also called a generalization.

Regular exercise promotes weight loss.
Exercise lowers stress levels.
Exercise improves mood and outlook.
GENERALIZATION: Exercise contributes to better health.

logical fallacies: Logical fallacies are potential vulnerabilities or weaknesses in an argument. They often arise from a failure to make a logical connection between the claim and the evidence used to support it. Logical fallacies include:

ad hominem: Latin for "to the man," this fallacy refers to the specific diversionary tactic of switching the argument from the issue at hand to the character of the other speaker. An argument that a community park should not be renovated because the person supporting it was arrested during a domestic dispute depends on an ad hominem fallacy.

ad populum fallacy (bandwagon appeal): This fallacy occurs when evidence boils down to "everybody's doing it, so it must be a good thing to do." For example, "You should vote to elect Rachel Johnson - she has a strong lead in the polls." Polling higher does not necessarily make Senator Johnson the "best" candidate, only the most popular.

appeal to false authority: This fallacy occurs when someone who has no expertise to speak on an issue is cited as an authority. A TV star, for instance, is not a medical expert, though pharmaceutical advertisements often use celebrity endorsements. For example, "According to former congressional leader Ari Miller, the Himalayas have an estimated Yeti population of between 300 and 500 individuals."

begging the question: A fallacy in which a claim is based on evidence or support that is in doubt. It "begs" a question whether the support itself is sound. For example, "Giving students easy access to a wealth of facts and resources online allows them to develop critical thinking skills."

circular reasoning: A fallacy in which the argument repeats the claim as a way to provide evidence. For example, "You can't give me a C; I'm an A student!"

either-or (false dilemma): In this fallacy, the speaker presents two extreme options as the only possible choices. For example, "Either we agree to higher taxes, or our grandchildren will be mired in debt."

equivocation: A fallacy that uses a term with two or more meanings in an attempt to misrepresent or deceive. For example: "We will bring our enemies to justice, or we will bring justice to them."

faulty analogy: A fallacy that occurs when an analogy compares two things that are not comparable. For instance, to argue that because we put animals who are in irreversible pain out of their misery, so we should do the same for people, asks the reader to ignore significant and profound differences between animals and people.

hasty generalization: A fallacy in which a faulty conclusion is reached because of inadequate evidence. For example, "Smoking isn't bad for you; my great aunt smoked a pack a day and lived to be 90."

post hoc ergo propter hoc (post hoc fallacy): This fallacy is Latin for "after which therefore because of which," meaning that it is incorrect to always claim that something is a cause just because it happened earlier. One may loosely summarize this fallacy by saying that correlation does not imply causation. For example: "We elected Johnson as president and look where it got us: hurricanes, floods, stock market crashes."

red herring: A type of logical fallacy wherein the speaker relies on distraction to derail an argument, usually by skipping to a new or irrelevant topic. The term derives from the dried fish that trainers used to distract dogs when teaching them to hunt foxes. For example, "We can debate these regulations until the cows come home, but what the American people want to know is, when are we going to end this partisan bickering?"

straw man: A fallacy that occurs when a speaker chooses a deliberately poor or oversimplified example in order to ridicule and refute an idea. For example, "Politician X proposes that we put astronauts on Mars in the next four years. Politician Y ridicules this proposal by saying that his opponent is looking for 'little green men in outer space.'"

rhetoric: Aristotle defined rhetoric as "the faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion." In other words, it is the art of finding ways to persuade an audience.

rhetorical appeals: Rhetorical techniques used to persuade an audience by emphasizing what they find most important or compelling. The three major appeals are to ethos (character), logos (reason), and pathos (emotion).

ethos: Greek for "character." Writers and speakers appeal to ethos to demonstrate that they are credible and trustworthy to speak on a given topic. Ethos is established by both who the speaker is and what the speaker says.

logos: Greek for "embodied thought." Writers and speakers appeal to logos, or reason, by offering clear, rational ideas and using specific details, examples, facts, statistics, or expert testimony to back them up.

pathos: Greek for "suffering" or "experience." Writers and speakers appeal to pathos to emotionally motivate their audience. More specific appeals to pathos might play on the audience's values, desires, and hopes, on the one hand, or fears and prejudices, on the other.

rhetorical situation: The exigence, purpose, audience, writer, context, and message of a text.

> **audience:** The listener, viewer, or reader of a text. It has both shared and individual beliefs, values, needs, and backgrounds. Most texts are likely to have multiple audiences.

> **context:** The circumstances, atmosphere, attitudes, and events surrounding a text.

> **exigence:** The aspects of the rhetorical situation that prompted the writer or speaker to create the text, including its occasion. See also occasion.

> **message:** The main idea or position the writer wants to convey to the audience about the subject of a text.

> **occasion:** The time and place a speech is given or a piece is written. See also exigence.

> **purpose:** The goal the writer or speaker of a text wants to achieve.

> **writer:** The person or group who creates a text. This might be a politician who delivers a speech, a commentator who writes an article, an artist who draws a political cartoon, or even a company that commissions an advertisement.

rhetorical triangle: A diagram that illustrates the interrelationship among the writer, audience, and subject of a text.
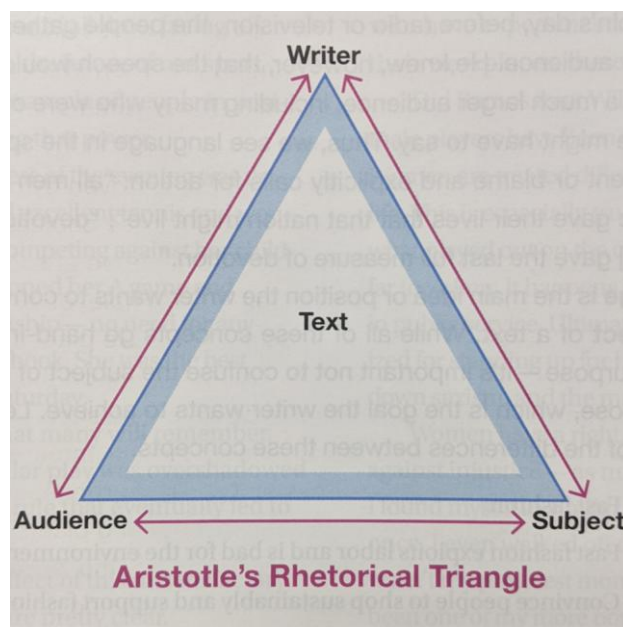
"Teaching Students the ABCs of Resilience"
by Renee Jain

From natural disasters to economic meltdowns, from wars abroad to tragic shootings close to home, this year brought to light the increasing complexity of the world in which we raise kids. Our natural instinct as teachers, parents and caretakers is to protect children from hardship, yet we know walking between the raindrops of adversity is not possible. Instead of sidestepping challenge, we can teach kids to cope positively, to learn and grow from adversity. We can arm our youth with skills of resilience, and these lessons can begin in the classroom.

Understanding the Roots of Resilience

Have you ever wondered why one student may be more resilient than another? Let's say Lisa and Jenny are students in the same eighth grade math class. They both struggle during the quarter and, in the end, they both receive low final grades. Upon hearing the news, Lisa and Jenny share myriad negative emotions: disappointment, anger, fear and sadness. However, after a few days, they diverge in their coping strategies. Lisa picks herself up; she finds a tutor and commits to making a greater effort in math going forward. Meanwhile, Jenny tumbles into a downward spiral of negativity; she sulks and starts performing poorly in all of her subjects. Lisa and Jenny faced the same adversity, so why did one bounce back while the other did not?
You may guess the difference lies in their genetic disposition or family circumstance. Maybe Lisa was born a "stronger" person, or maybe Lisa's parents are more supportive than Jenny's parents. While this may all be true, one factor supersedes the influences of genes, childhood experiences, and opportunity or wealth when it comes to resilience. In fact, according to decades of research, the biggest influence on resilience is something within our control. The biggest influence is our cognitive style -- the way we think.

The ABCs of Resilience

Students can adjust their own cognitive style by learning about the ABCs of resilience. This model was first proposed by psychologist Albert Ellis back in 1962, and it is still used as a foundational lesson in resilience. Let's learn about the ABCs by going back to our example.
If you asked Lisa or Jenny why she was unhappy upon receiving low math grades, she would probably look at you quizzically. It's obvious, isn't it? She was upset because she received a low grade. This seems to be the correct answer, but it's not. Many people mistakenly believe that facing an *adversity* like receiving a low grade leads to a *consequence* like feeling unhappy.

Myth: Adversity Leads to Consequence

If a particular adversity led to a particular consequence, then Lisa and Jenny would have shared the same enduring reaction to their poor grades. In fact, everyone would have the same reaction to every adversity in life, and we know this is not the case. People react differently to the same exact challenges, because between A (adversity) and C (consequence) lies the crucial letter B. Here is the more accurate model: every *adversity* one faces triggers *beliefs* about that situation, which in turn causes a reaction or *consequence*.

Reality: Adversity Leads to Beliefs Leads to Consequence

The ABC model explains why Lisa and Jenny coped differently with the same challenge. Lisa knew she received a low grade, but she *believed* she would improve by making a greater effort; she also felt that one bad grade wasn't the end of the world. Lisa's beliefs led her to acquire a tutor. Jenny, on the other hand, *believed* that doing poorly in math had spoiled her chances of getting into a good college. Jenny thereby decided there was no point in trying at all in school and began skipping her classes and neglecting her studies.

Lisa's optimistic and more realistic beliefs contributed to her high resilience in an adverse situation. Jenny's pessimistic and unrealistic beliefs contributed to low resilience in the same adverse situation. Optimistic and realistic belief systems combine to create a cornerstone of resilient mindsets. The great news is that once students learn the ABC model, they can hone in on their *beliefs* and begin fine-tuning them for greater optimism and accuracy.

The ABC model is a simple yet power tool in cultivating self-awareness -- a crucial element of resilient mindsets. Do you think it's a model you would teach in your classroom?

ABC's of Resilience Chart

Adversity	Belief	Consequence

AP Language & Composition Annotation Guide

Annotation Guide: Margin Notes and Color Marking

Margin notes [can be on sticky notes if you prefer] in which you do the following (this list is not exhaustive):

- Write your personal response to the text.
- Note implications of the text.
- Note the author's purpose as well as his/her technique.
- Explain the significance of the text. Define unknown vocabulary.

Annotations Tips

- What NOT To Do
  - Don't use a highlighter that will bleed.
  - Don't mark large volumes of text—you want important points to stand out.
    - Although we all know that everything can't be important, we often highlight all of the text on the page. Avoid this to help the key points stand out.
- What To Do
  - Mark the text with a pencil, pen, or—even better—colored fine-tipped pens.
  - Underline sentences that contain a main idea or important new piece of information/development.
  - Write the passage topic in the margin as a reminder—just a word or two.
  - Write questions in the margin. When you don't understand something or when you don't understand the author's thought process on a particular topic, write the question in the margin as a reminder to settle the question.
  - Circle new and unfamiliar words and look them up as soon as possible.
  - Add your or other author's perspectives in the margins. Other authors have surely written on the same subject. What do they say? Do they agree with this author? If not, what do they say? Add these ideas in the margins.
  - Draw arrows to related ideas.

Annotate for repetition, shifts, tone, and author's purpose.