What is rhetoric? A few scholarly minds define it this way.

Plato: [Rhetoric] is the "art of enchanting the soul." (The art of winning the soul by discourse.)

Aristotle: Rhetoric is "the faculty of discovering in any particular case all of the available means of persuasion."

Andrea Lunsford: "Rhetoric is the art, practice, and study of human communication."

In this class, we focus on the rhetorical analysis of a variety of texts—nonfiction and fiction, print and nonprint—from the 16th to the 21st centuries. We will synthesize our own arguments on a variety of subjects. We will develop advanced reading, writing, and rhetorical strategies that will help you now, in college, and beyond.

May's AP test is important

It keeps us honest, but it is ONE snapshot of ONE moming of this class. Overall class performance is a far better indicator of your diligence, dedication, and insight.

The test itself is three hours and 15 minutes.

- One hour for 52-54 multiple choice questions on 4-5 passages – Counts as 45% of the final score
- 15 minutes to read synthesis essay sources and plan essay
- Two hours for three essay questions, includes rhetorical analysis and argument – Counts as 55% of the final score

Multiple Choice Questions

Remember

- Plan time carefully. You have one hour for about 54 questions or about 1 question a minute.
- Survey the whole multiple choice section. Start with a passage that seems easiest to you.
- You will probably need to read and then reread each passage. One read can skim; the second should scour.
- Survey all of the questions for each passage. Answer the ones that seem easiest first.

- If you're having troubles getting into a passage, read the questions first to get your bearings.
- If you can't eliminate two answers, skip it.
- Make sure the number of the question matches the number on the answer sheet. Take a second and check each number as you go along.

Five basic types of questions

- Words and/or phrases in context:
 Using the indicated portion of the text, what does the word or phrase mean?
 Skill definition
- Main Idea: Read the text. Which answer best summarizes or defines the text?
 Skill - reading comprehension, making inferences
- Terms: What does it mean? Reference: vocabulary within the text, rhetorical strategies, and literary devices.
 Skill - definition

These first three types of questions are easiest. You should expect to get at least 70 - 80% of these questions correct.

- Function: Why is a word used or what phrases are juxtaposed against each other?
 Skills - Determining author's purpose Reading comprehension
- 5. Organization: Why is this paragraph here?

Skills - Determining author's purpose Reading comprehension Understanding author's purpose

The wrong answer choices follow a pattern - Wrong answer choices "reward" a surface reading and have less depth. Remember if part of the answer choice is wrong, it's all wrong.

Mnemonics for analyzing texts

SOAPStone: used to analyze texts

- **Subject:** What is the topic of the text?
- Occasion: Why is the speech being delivered or passage written? Is it a special event?
- Audience: With whom is the writer or speaker communicating? How do you know? Which words tell you?
- Purpose: What is the audience supposed to do? What lesson should

- they learn? How is the audience supposed to feel at the end?
- Speaker: (or author) Is the speaker a reliable person to discuss this topic? What qualifications does he or she possess?
- Tone: What is the tone or attitude of the speaker or author towards the subject?

<u>SMELL:</u> used analyze advertising or other persuasive texts.

- Sender-receiver relationship: Who is the target audience? Why is the sender using this language and/or these images?
- Message: Summarize the statements made.
- Effect: What is the desired effect? What does the author want the reader to do?
- Logic: What type of reasoning is at work? Consider images as well as words. How does its presence or absence affect the message?
- Language: How does the language of the text affect the meaning? How does it make the text more effective? Remember to consider images as well as words.

<u>DIDLS</u> - used when considering descriptive passages.

- Diction: Which words does the author use that are unusual or effective?
- Images: What specific images does the write enable you to envision clearly?
- Details: Which details visual, auditory, etc. -- does the writer develop to help develop his main idea?
- Language: What do you notice about the way the author puts the sentences together? Is it simple? complicated? Is the author writing for people who know a lot or a little about the topic already?
- Syntax: Does the length of the sentence affect the topic? Does it affect the way you react?

Rhetorical Precis- used to practice precise description of the argument and context an author presents in a text.

Sentence 1: Name of author, the type and title of the work, a rhetorically accurate verb (see list) that describes what the author is doing in the text, and a THAT clause in which you state the major assertion (thesis statement) of the author's text.

- Sentence 2: An explanation of how the author develops and/or supports the thesis (for instance, comparing and contrasting, narrating, illustrating, defining, using sarcasm, relating personal experience, using examples, etc.). Your explanation is usually presented in the same chronological order that the items of support are presented in the work.
- Sentence 3: A statement of the author's apparent purpose, followed by an IN ORDER TO phrase in which you explain what the author wants the audience to do or feel as a result of reading the
- Sentence 4: A description of the intended audience and/or the relationship the author establishes with the audience.

Writing in AP Language

- Keep in mind that your primary goal is clarity: the precise communication of your ideas.
- Remember your audience and your purpose. What do you want your audience to think, do, or believe after reading your essay? Is your audience positive, negative, neutral, or disinterested? What kinds of evidence and reasoning would most effectively accomplish this goal?
- Use apt, sophisticated diction.
 - Avoid pedestrian words and phrases such as "got", "a lot", "really", "okay"; avoid non-words such as "reoccur" (the correct word is "recur").
 - Avoid cliches "You can't judge a book by its cover," "A picture's worth a thousand words," etc. Too many students use them, and they set the reader's teeth on edge.
 - Avoid contractions, abbreviations, and slang. This is a formal occasion.
 - Make sure every pronoun you use has a clear antecedent. That includes the ubiquitous "it."
 - Limit the "be" verbs: There is, it is, and so on
 - Use an active voice. See the list for some stronger verbs.

Verbs to Use in AP Writing

Instead of using weaker verbs like shows, uses, or utilizes, use stronger verbs like:

Asserts	hints at	ignites
Details	highlights	changes
alludes to	constrains	invokes
Implies	explores	exemplifies
Clarifles	alters	conveys
Portrays	manipulates	repudiates
Inspires	conjures up	compares
describes	produces	masters
suggests	evokes	creates
connotes	elicits	refutes
Reveals	juxtaposes	documents
delineates	construes	enunciates
Shifts	solidifies	maintains
specifies	differentiates	demonstrates
evokes	transcends	stirs
Notes	emphasizes	dispels
Depicts	explains	twists
Tackles	enhances	elucidates

- Maintain present tense when analyzing texts.
- SENTENCE STRUCTURE: You vary your sentence structure and all sentences are punctuated correctly. Beware of comma splices.
- CONVENTIONS OF FORMAL WRITING: third person only, no confractions
- GRAMMAR: Be aware of parallel structure, subject-verb and pronoun agreement, and dangling or misplaced modifiers. Try not to end a sentence with a preposition.
- Remember that correct grammar, verb tense, and sentence structure must always be maintained, even when quoting.
- Show respect for the authors.
 - Don't say they are stupid or do not know what they are talking about, Chances are it is not Virginia Woolf who does not know what she's talking about.
 - Don't refer to the authors by their first names. In the intro, refer to the author by both names, then henceforth use the last name.

Handling quotations:

- Try imbedding the quote in your own sentence.
- Make sure the quote never stands alone; always include significance.

- If you use a long quote, indent all fines of the quote and separate it from the rest of your paper with spaces.
- All quotes are not created equal.
 Choose carefully which words you wish to quote.
- Do NOT use a quote as a topic sentence. Topic sentences are part of YOUR structure and should be your unique thoughts and wording.
- Remember that a mere quote doesn't show anything, prove anything, or make anything obvious or evident. YOU, as the writer, have that job.
- Be sure that you use absolutely correct MLA format when citing quotations. If your sentence ends with a quotation, be sure to put the ending quotation marks before the parenthetical citation and the period after the parenthetical citation: The boy's condition causes him to walk with a "weird shuffling gait" (19).
- Students often think the words <u>states</u> and <u>quotes</u> are interchangeable. They're not. Charles Dickens states, "It was the best of times..." not quotes. To quote is to repeat what someone else said.
- It's okay to use an ellipsis in a quote as long as the quote still makes sense.

Insertion of Quotes as Support

insection of An	otes as support
Weak	Strong
When Jerry says, "You	Attacking Peter's sense
have everything, and	of honor, Jerry orders
now you want this	him off the bench and
bench. Are these the	tauntingly asks if a
things men fight for?" it	mere park bench "are
shows that he is trying	the things men fight
to intimidate Peter by	for" in Peter's small
making fun of his	world.
honor.	
When Peter finally	Jerry, now desperate to
says, "Get up and	fulfill his suicidal
fight," Jerry inquires,	mission, resorts to
"Like a man?" This	attacks on Peter's
shows that Jerry is	manliness, provoking
attacking Peter's sense	him into fighting "like a
of manliness.	man."
In responding to Jerry's	Although Peter knows
comments about	that the gender of his
having a male child,	children is "a matter of
Peter says "It's a	genetics, not
matter of genetics, not	manhood," he
manhood, you	nevertheless lashes out
monster." It is obvious	at Jerry's insults,
that Peter is angry at	leaving the reader to
Jerry's insinuations.	doubt Peter's sense of
	security.



Timed Essays

Preparation (15 minutes)

- Take the time to read the question carefully—underlining (and numbering) the most important parts.
- Take the time to read the prompt TWICE. Work the text—use all the clues you see to get specifics about the author, the audience, the purpose, and the rhetorical strategies the author uses to achieve that purpose.
- Plan the essay to address each part of the question.

Draft Essay (20 minutes)

WOW (Introductory Paragraph) Don't waste time on a long or fancy intro. Throw away the bread and get to the meat.

- □ With no time for a general introduction, your first paragraph clearly sets the angle of your analysis.
- Make sure your THESIS statement (and whole first paragraph) is a direct and complete response to the prompt. Keep In mind that a fact or summary cannot be a thesis. Do not repeat the prompt, but it is often helpful to use key words.

STUFF (Body Paragraphs)

- The topic sentence of each body paragraph is a CLAIM (not a fact or summary statement) which clearly supports the argument of your thesis.
- ☐ Each claim is well-SUPPORTed with plenty of concrete evidence. (you do not need to waste time copying large sections of the text—use key words in quotation marks) Remember not to leave DRT hanging—it needs to be secured with prose to the rest of the paragraph.
- INTERPRETATIONS clearly explain how the evidence supports your claim.
- The tie of every claim to the thesis is clear: Either it is clearly stated, or the inference is obvious.

OOH! (Conclusion)

Your concluding paragraph returns to the thesis idea but uses different words and extends the idea. (In effect, show the reader that you have proved your thesis, but not in a boring or redundant manner.)

If at all possible, finish with a fresh, brilliant insight that ties all of your ideas together and at the same time flows logically from your argument.

Review Essay (5 minutes)

- □ TRANSITIONS: To link paragraphs you use effective transitions to enhance the overall flow, coherence, and sense of your essay.
- Review the prompt to make sure you have addressed the entire question.
- Check mechanics: diction, syntax, grammar, spelling, and punctuation.

Three general kinds of timed essays in AP Language

1. Analysis Essays

- Rhetorical purpose: to convince the reader to think, do, or believe X; also personal, expository, and argumentative
- Rhetorical modes: narration, description, cause and effect, process analysis, comparison, example, classification, argument (though all communication is argument)
- Rhetorical strategies these are the broad categories--remember to get specific
 - Ethos establish credibility of speaker
 - Pathos address needs of the audience
 - Logos use one or more rhetorical modes to address purpose
- Style/Rhetoric/Language: Diction, Detail, Syntax, Imagery, and Tone

Advice: Stick to an analysis of the essay. Don't wander off into your personal experiences.

Avoid the words "paints a picture in the reader's mind." Too many students use it, and it doesn't say anything. Identify and explain the effect or tone the author is creating. Notice I said, "and explain" - identifying isn't enough.

Don't define terms. The readers are experienced AP teachers and English professors. We don't need to be told a simile is a comparison using like or as.

SHOWING, NOT TELLING

Telling	Showing
Peppering prose with Latin and Greek laundry lists of terms	Demonstrating understanding of the effects of those strategies
"The writer appeals to pathos"	"the author appeals to the emotions of the audience when he" "the author makes the audience afraid of the consequences, and so sways their opinion when she"
"The writer uses logos"	"the writer uses a carefully- reasoned cause-and-effect argument that shows unequivocally that X leads to Y" "the writer uses plenty of examples to support her point that" or "the writer reaches a logical conclusion that"
"The writer uses ethos"	"the writer establishes his authority by" "the writer makes herself sympathetic to the audience by" "the writer clearly has a good reputation because"

PHRASES BANK TO DESCRIBE THE RHETORICAL PURPOSES/FUNCTIONS:

- Anticipate objections raised by the ideas presented in X
- Expresses a causal relationship between X and Y
- Introduce a series of generalizations
- Makes an appeal to authority
- Present a thesis that will be challenged in paragraph B
- Presents a misconception that the author will correct
- Provide evidence to contrast with that in X
- Provide support for a thesis
- Provides a specific example for the preceding generalization
- Restates the thesis

STRUCTURE/DEVELOPMENT

- An exaggeration followed by qualifying statements
- Chronological examination of a topic
- Claim followed by supporting details
- Explanation of an issue leading to an examination of the same issue
- Generalization followed by other generalizations
- Historical example followed by contemporary examples
- Movement from particular to general
- Presentation of two conflicting ideas followed by a resolution

TONE

Acerbic and Cynical	Lyrical nostalgia
Harsh and strident	Uncertain
Cautious ambivalence	Feigned innocence
Informal and Analytical	Disbelieving
Contemplative and Conciliatory	Poignant remorse
Irate but carefully Judiclous	Relieved
Enthusiastic and	Reverent and
Optimistic	Respectful
Serious but faintly condescending	Objective
Self-deprecating	Scomful and
humor	Unsympathetic
Superficial and	Exasperated
Capricious	

ATTITUDE

Awe	Profound admiration
Feigned intimacy	Reasoned objectivity
Reasoned objectivity	Disapproval
Qualified enthusiasm	Idolatrous devotion
Suspicion	Indifference

2. Argument Essays

If given a passage to analyze, use the modified Graff Model to help you plan your essay.

1.	(author)	_ makes	the	genera
	argument th	at .		

- 2. More specifically, X argues that
- 3. In this passage, X suggests that ____
- ____

4	In conclusion	Y haliavoe	that

5.	i agree/disagree with X, because
6.	More specifically, I believe that
7.	For example,
8.	Although X might object that . I

9. Therefore, I conclude that ____

maintain that

If given a topic that doesn't involve an analysis of the author's argument, use this model instead.

- Write the thesis sentence as an
 "Although" sentence, putting the
 opposition in the dependent clause and
 your position in the independent clause.
- Using a concessionary transition word like "Certainly," or "Sure," make the first body paragraphs a good presentation of the OPPOSITION. Give the opposing arguments full and fair presentation.
- Then, using the most powerful turning word, "However," begin the presentation of your argument.
- Continue with more paragraphs, using add-on transitions like "Moreover," "In addition," "Not only that," "Furthermore," making the case solid for your position.
- Use the most powerful concluding word, "Therefore," and end with a memorable, succinct conclusion.

Advice: In either case, generate 6-10 examples that support your position. Pick the best examples (best means that the examples really fit the argument AND that you know enough about them to use them well), not just the first ones to pop into your head.

It doesn't matter if you defend, challenge, or qualify as long as you do it well.

Think of the argument prompt as a springboard for creating your own argument. You don't need to discuss Susan Sontag, and, for heaven's sake, don't try to analyze their argument. Your purpose here is to persuade the reader that your argument is sound and reasonable.

The reader wants "specific evidence" - two important words, often overlooked. The courtroom does not want the hypothetical or the theoretical. Use your own experience, incidents you know about, or what you have read about (or, in Sontag's case, the pictures you have seen).

If you give me 3 examples of specific evidence, make sure they illustrate 3 different points, not 3 examples to illustrate the same point.

3. Synthesis Essays

Reading and Preparation (15 minutes) – before you start the writing.

- Take the time to read the question underlining the most important parts.
 Write a quick answer to the question based on what you already know about the subject.
- Take the time to read the sources
 TWICE. Work the text—use all the
 clues you see to get specifics about the
 author, the audience, the purpose, and
 the likely biases. This means reading
 the introductory information carefully
 as well.
- Select 6-10 examples that support your position. Use at least three of the sources—identify the sources as (Source A) or the information in the parentheses. Pick the best examples (best means that the examples really fit the argument AND that you know enough about them to use them well), not just the first ones to pop into your head
- Remember that your argument is central. The sources support this argument. Do NOT merely summarize the sources.
- Plan your argument: thesis, claims, reasoning. See Argument section for a suggested outline.

Other kinds of writing in AP English Language

CSI Checklist

- □ Your CLAIM is an opinion—an arguable or debatable idea. It is <u>not</u> a fact or a detail or a summary statement. If you happen to say your claim out loud and everyone in the class agrees with you, then chances are you have not written a claim.
- Choose evidence from the text, including details and quotations,that clearly SUPPORT your claim.
- Always be sure to Transition into, and/or Lead in to the Quote (TLQ). Make sure



- you have informed your reader of the speaker and context before you quote.
- Every quotation is seamlessly inserted as part of one of your sentences. Do not put a quotation as a separate sentence.
- Cite every quotation parenthetically using MLA format. Example: Ophelia will "the effect of this good lesson keep" (1.3.45).
- After every quotation you INTERPRET: What does it mean? Exactly how does the evidence support your claim?
- You conclude with a final sentence of interpretation, tying up your claim, and ending with a fresh insight.

Essay Checklist—Process Writing

The big difference between a timed essay and one that goes through multiple steps and revisions (hence, process) is the WOW (Introductory Paragraph), the parenthetical citations, and the chance to polish and perfect your prose and examples.

- Grab the reader's attention and introduce the topic.
- Narrow the focus.
- ☐ The method of development may or may not be clearly stated/listed as part of your thesis statement, but the direction of the argument is evident to the reader. (If you list the main points of the claims to follow, you must discuss those claims in the same order you list them in the thesis statement.)
- ☐ The last sentence of your first paragraph is your THESIS statement. It is <u>clear</u> and precise, presenting the angle of your argument. Your thesis statement is an arguable idea. A fact or summary cannot be a thesis.

Rhetorical Terms - A Glossary

- ad hominem fallacy-(Latin for "to the man") a fallacy of logic in which a person's character or motive is attacked instead of that person's argument.
- ad populum fallacy--(Latin for "to the crowd") a fallacy of logic in which the widespread occurrence of something is assumed to make it true or right; e.g. "The Escort is the most widely sold car in the world; therefore, it must be the best."
- attegory--a story in which the people, places, and things represent general concepts or moral qualities.
- attusion—a brief reference to a person, place, event, or passage in a work of literature or the Bible assumed to be sufficiently well known to be recognized by the reader; e.g. "I am Lazerus, come from the dead." T. S. Eliot
- analogy—a comparison between two things in which the more complex is explained in terms of the more simple; e.g. comparing a year-long profile of the stock index to a roller-coaster ride.
- anecdote—a short entertaining account of some happening, frequently personal or biographical.
- anticlimax—a sudden drop from the dignified or important in thought or expression to the commonplace or trivial, often for humorous effect.
- appeal to authority—citation of Information from people recognized for their special knowledge of a subject for the purpose of strengthening a speaker or writer's arguments.
- argumentation—exploration of a problem by investigating all sides of it; persuasion through reason.
- begging the question—a fallacy of logical argument that assumes as true the very thing that one is trying to prove; e.g. 1.

 The Bible is the infallible word of God. 2.

 The Bible says that God exists. Therefore, 3. God exists.
- cause and effect--examination of the causes and/or effects of a situation or phenomenon; e.g. Essay topics such as "How did the incumbent mayor lose the election?" or "What causes obesity?" are well suited to cause and effect exposition.
- chronological ordering-arrangement in the order in which things occur; may move from past to present or in reverse chronological order, from present to past.
- classification as a means of ordering arrangement of objects according to class;

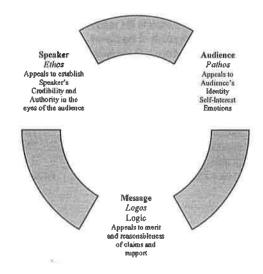
- e.g. media classified as print, television, and radio.
- colloquial expression--words and phrases used in everyday speech but avoided in formal writing; e.g. Jack was bummed out about his chemistry grade instead of Jack was upset about his chemistry grade.
- damning with faint praise--intentional use of a positive statement that has a negative implication; e.g. "Your new hairdo is so...interesting.
- deduction (deductive reasoning)—a form of reasoning that begins with a generalization, then applies the generalization to a specific case or cases; opposite to induction. (see syllogism)
- digression—a temporary departure from the main subject in speaking or writing.
- ellipsis—1. In grammar, the omission of a word or words necessary for complete construction but understood in context.
 E.g. "If (it is) possible, (you) come early."
 2. The sign (...) that something has been left out of a quotation. "To be or not...that is the question."
- euphemism—the use of a word or phrase that is less direct, but that is also less distasteful or less offensive than another; e.g. "he is at rest" is a euphemism for "he is dead."
- expository writing-writing that explains or analyzes.
- false dilemma—a fallacy of logical argument which is committed when too few of the available alternatives are considered, and all but one are assessed and deemed impossible or unacceptable; e.g. A father speaking to his son says, "Are you going to go to college and make something of yourself, or are you going to end up being an unemployable burn like me?" The dilemma is the son's supposed choice limitation: either he goes to college or he will be a burn. The dilemma is false, because the alternative of not going to college but still being employable has not been considered.
- hyperbole—an extravagant exaggeration of fact, used either for serious or comic effect, e.g. "Your beauty, that did haunt me in my sleep/ To undertake the death of all the world,/So I might live one hour in your sweet bosom." Shakespeare, Richard III
- imagery--lively descriptions which impress the images of things upon the mind; figures of speech.
- induction (inductive reasoning)—a form of reasoning which works from a body of fact



- to the formulation of a generalization; opposite to deduction; frequently used as the principal form of reasoning in science and history.
- inverted syntax—reversing the normal word order of a sentence; e.g. "Whose woods these are I think I know." Robert Frost
- irony--a method of humorous or sarcastic expression in which the intended meaning of the words is the opposite of their usual meaning; e.g. saying that a cold, windy, rainy day is "lovely."
- Itotes--in rhetoric, a figure in which an affirmative is expressed by a negation of the contrary. A "citizen of no mean city" is, therefore, "a citizen of an important or famous city."
- metaphor--a figure of speech in which one thing is compared to another by being spoken of as though it were that thing; e.g. "...a sea of troubles." William Bradford
- non sequitur—a statement that does not follow logically from what preceded it.
- order of importance--a method of organizing a paper according to the relative significance of the subtopics.
- oxymoron—a figure of speech in which contradictory terms or ideas are combined; e.g. "thunderous silence."
- parable--a short story from which a lesson may be drawn; Christ used the parable to teach his followers moral truths. The parable of the Sower and the Good Samaritan are examples of his parables.
- parallel syntactic structures—using the same part of speech or syntactic structure in (1) each element of a series, (2) before and after coordinating conjunctions (and, but, yet, or, for, nor), and (3) after each of a pair of correlative conjunctions (not only...but also, neither...nor, both...and, etc.). Below are examples for definitions (1) and (3):
 - (1) Over the hill, through the woods, and to arandmother's house we go.
 - (3) That vegetable is both rich in vitamins and low in calories.
- paradox—a statement which seems selfcontradictory, but which may be true in fact. "Success is counted sweetest / By those who ne'er succeed..." Emily Dickinson
- parody--a literary composition which imitates the characteristic style of a serious work or writer and uses its features to treat trivial, nonsensical material in an attempt at humor or satire.

- pedantry--a display of narrow-minded and trivial scholarship or arbitrary adherence to rules and forms.
- personification—a figure of speech in which an inanimate object or abstract concept is endowed with human attributes; e.g. the hand of fate.
- periodic sentence structure—a sentence written so that the full meaning cannot be understood until the end; e.g. Across the stream, beyond the clearing, from behind a fallen tree, the lion emerged.
- persuasion-taking a single position for the purpose of getting others to accept that position; may appeal to emotion or reason.
- point of view—the way in which something is viewed or considered by a writer or speaker, in fiction, it is the relationship assumed between the teller of a story and the characters in it, usually demonstrated by the author's use of either first or third person.
- post hoc fallacy—(from the Latin: post hoc, ergo propter hoc meaning "after this, therefore because of this.") This fallacy of logic occurs when the writer assume that an incident that precedes another is the cause of the second incident. For example: "Governor X began his first term in January. Three months later, the state suffered severe economic depression. Therefore, Governor X cause the state's depression." The chronological order of events does not establish a cause-effect relationship.
- rhetoric—the art of using words effectively in writing or speaking so as to influence or persuade.
- rhetorical question--a question asked for rhetorical effect to emphasize a point, no answer being expected; e.g. "Robert, is this any way to speak to your mother?"
- satire--a literary work in which vices, abuses, absurdities, etc. are held up to ridicute and contempt; use of ridicute, sarcasm, irony, etc. to expose vices, abuses, etc.

- simile--a figure of speech involving a comparison using like or as; e.g. "O my love is like a red, red rose." Robert Burns
- spatial ordering—organization of information using spatial cues such as top to bottom, left to right, etc.
- syllogism—a form of reasoning in which two statements or premises are made and a logical conclusion is drawn from them; a form of deductive reasoning. Example: Major Premise: J and G Construction builds unsafe buildings.
 - Minor Premise: J and G Construction built the Tower Hotel.
 - Conclusion: The Tower Hotel is an unsafe building. (see **deduction**)
- symbol—something that stands for another thing; frequently an object used to represent an abstraction, e.g. the dove is a symbol of peace.
- syntax—in grammar, the arrangement of words as elements in a sentence to show their relationship.
- tone—a way of wording or expressing things that expresses an attitude; the tone may be angry, matter-of-fact, pedantic, or ironic.
- understatement--deliberately representing something as much less than it really is. Jonathan Swift wrote, "Last week I saw a woman flayed, and you will hardly believe how much it altered her appearance."



Aristotelian Appeals: Logos, Ethos, and Pathos

Whenever you read an argument you must ask yourself, "Is this persuasive? If so, why? And to whom?" There are many ways to appeal to an audience. Among them are appealing to logos, ethos, and pathos. These appeals are identifiable in almost all arguments.

To Appeal to LOGOS (logic, reasoning): the argument itself; the reasoning the author uses; logical evidence	To Develop or Appeal to ETHOS (character, ethics): how an author builds credibility & trustworthiness	To Appeal to PATHOS (emotion) words or passages an author uses to activate emotions	
Types of LOGOS Appeals	Ways to Develop ETHOS	Types of PATHOS Appeals	
 Theories / scientific facts Indicated meanings or reasons (because) Literal or historical analogies Definitions Factual data & statistics Quotations Citations from experts & authorities Informed opinions Examples (real life examples) Personal anecdotes 	 Author's profession / background Author's publication Appearing sincere, fair minded, knowledgeable Conceding to opposition where appropriate Morally / ethically likeable Appropriate language for audience and subject Appropriate vocabulary Correct grammar Professional format 	 Emotionally loaded language Vivid descriptions Emotional examples Anecdotes, testimonies, or narratives about emotional experiences or events Figurative language Emotional tone (humor, sarcasm, disappointment, excitement, etc.) 	
Effect on Audience	Effect on Audience	Effect on Audience	
Evokes a cognitive, rational response. Readers get a sense of, "Oh, that makes sense" or "Hmm, that really doesn't prove anything."	Helps reader to see the author as reliable, trustworthy, competent, and credible. The reader might respect the author or his/her views.	Evokes an emotional response. Persuasion by emotion. (usually evoking fear, sympathy, empathy, anger,)	
How to Talk About It	How to Talk About It	How to Talk About It	
The author appeals to logos by defining relevant terms and then supports his claim with numerous citations from authorities. The author's use of statistics and expert testimony are very convincing logos appeals.	Through his use of scientific terminology, the author builds his ethos by demonstrating expertise. The author's ethos is effectively developed as readers see that he is sympathetic to the struggles minorities.	When referencing 9/11, the author is appealing to pathos. Here, he is eliciting both sadness and anger from his readers. The author's description of the child with cancer was a very persuasive appeal to pathos.	

Rhetorical Strategies & Their Functions

What are rhetorical strategies?

Rhetorical strategies are techniques writers use for a particular effect. Though the metaphor may sound somewhat crude, all writers draw from a "toolbox" of rhetorical strategies as they express ideas and evoke responses in their readers.

Here's a list of a number of rhetorical strategies and a basic description of their functions. Add to the list as you see additional ones in your reading.

Device	Function—not what it is but what it does!	
1. analogy	to make a pointed comparison, often a very powerful comparison	
2. metaphor	<i>n</i>	
3. simile	· m	
4. hyperbole	to provoke a response, to cast something in a strong light	
5. understatement	to spark the reader's imagination, or make a pointed observation	
6. juxtaposition	to call attention to extremes	
7. imagery	to illustrate an idea, a feeling, or the particular qualities of something; to produce a feeling, idea or tone.	
8. alliteration	to create a memorable phrase	
9. allusion	to lend authority to an idea, to make an association with something the reader knows	
10. refrain	to create a memorable phrase	
11. anaphora	to create a memorable, powerful effect, to reinforce an idea	
12. repetition	м	
13. parallelism	u	
14. tone	to communicate an attitude towards the subject	
15. undertone	to communicate an attitude towards the subject that cuts beyond the attitude that appears on the surface	
16. wo%ls w/heavy connotations	to cast the subject in a particular light, to imply	

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17. selection of detail to concretize a particular idea, fact, or feeling 18. lists, cataloguing to create a sense of overwhelming force or magnitude 19. irony to convey complexity 20. paradox to point out an apparent contradiction 21. anecdote to provide a concrete example or humanize an abstract concept 22. humor to disarm the audience, diffuse hostility, warm the reader to the writer's ideas 23. satire to ridicule and inspire reform 24. sarcasm, verbal irony to ridicule or criticize 25. invective to ridicule, chastise or convey contempt 26. narrative pace to convey energy or intense feelings (or lack thereof) 27. appeals to reason, to provoke the audience to respond in a emotion, patriotism, a particular way, to tap into a reader's intellect religion, ethics, etc. feelings, needs, values, etc. 28. rhetorical question to provoke the reader to respond or to think, or to lead them to the next idea 29. short, staccato sentences to call attention to an idea 30. paraleipsis to draw attention to something while pretending not to 31. litotes to draw attention to something while pretending to be

RECOGNIZING AND WRITING ABOUT TONE

Teacher remarks: The denotative meaning of tone is simple: the author's attitude toward his or her subject or audience. But tone is a large and complex umbrella concept in style analysis in both poetry and prose, fiction and nonfiction. Just as every human voice has a "tone," all writing has tone. It is the end result of how the author uses all other literary devices, so the devices like imagery, diction, syntax, figurative language, and selection of detail, for example, are the tools a writer uses to create tone. If a reader does not understand the tone of a piece, then he or she simply does not understand the piece. In AP English we often speak of tone and "undertone," meaning the surface level tone and what we detect underneath. For example, Twain's The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn is famous for its light, humorous, folksy surface tone and its sometimes dark, bitter undertone. In addition to tone and undertone, in AP English we see that a piece of writing is likely to have shifts in tone. This complexity of tone characterizes much of the writing a student is likely to see on AP English tests, both Literature and Language. Finally, it is helpful to think of the complete phrase "tone...of voice." In general, any word you can use to describe a tone of voice can also be used to describe tone in writing.

What follows is a long list of great tone words. Are there any you don't know? Ask about them, look them up make a point of learning them!

sneering

I

Sadness -

somber

TONE WORDS BY CA	TEGORY
Reverence	melancholy
reverent	sorrowful
awe	lament
veneration	despair
solemn	despondent
mystical	regretful
majestic	dismal
apocalyptic	dark
religious	gloomy
pious	dejected
	grave
<u>Irreverence</u>	grieving
irreverent	morose
impious	sullen
iconoclastic	woeful
Wannings.	bleak
<u>Happiness</u>	remorse
happy	forlorn
pleased	agonized
merry	anguished
gleeful	depressed
light	miserable
delight	barren
cheerful	empty
gay	bereft
sanguine mirth	pitiful
	pathetic
enjoyment	lugubrious
relish	distressed
giddy	discouraged
agreeable amiable	disheartened
***************************************	hurt
warm	wounded
playful -	elegiac
friendly	_
0.1	<u>Irony</u>

ironic biting

smirking

sneering
derisive
icy
witty
humorous
sarcastic
satiric
mocking
sardonic
flippant
cynical
mock-heroic
mock-heroic mock-serious
taunting
-
<u>Love</u>
loving
affectionate
cherish
fondness
admiration
tenderness
sentimental
romantic
Platonic
adoring
narcissistic
passionate
lustful
infatuated
enamored
compassionate
benevolent
dreamy
flirtatious
coy
seductive
sexy
inviting

yearning longing ardor <u>Anger</u> angry vehement rage outrage antipathy irritated indignation vexed incensed petulant irascible riled bitter acrimonious irate fury wrath rancor consternation hostility miffed aggravated umbrage gall bristle exasperated explosive spiteful caustic revengeful belligerent petulant perturbed pique

sharp contentious

<u>Joy</u> joyful elated zeal fervor jubilant buoyant euphoric ecstatic blissful

Calm calm serene tranquil placid peaceful content complacent accepting at ease satisfied soothing

Hope expectant anticipatory hopeful encouraged buoyed heartened

Hate hateful vengeance abhorrence evil animosity enmity malice rancor aversion loathing despising scornful contemptuous disdainful jealous envious repugnance repulsion revulsion revengeful resentment spiteful disgusted bitter

vicious

invective harsh cold threatening savage

<u>Fear</u> fearful frightened afraid timid apprehensive anxious terrorized horrorified dismayed agitated sinister startled uneasy qualms angst trepidation intimidation appalled meek mild cautious overwhelmed paranoid nervous alarmed

Confusion confused shocked befuddled baffled bewildered disturbed addled upset

disturbed

Strength strong authoritative confident superior dominant arrogant proud audacious

Weakness weak impotent passive lethargic

Youth young innocent callow naïve childish immature fresh jejune

Mystery mysterious furtive surreptitious sneaky covert subtle

allusive MISC. passive agreeable patronizing complimentary humorous explosive lofty chauvinistic bored sexist cynical obnoxious laconic concerned remote hypocritical condescending curious obsessive critical disbelief obnoxious laconic lethargic presumptuous humorous funny witty remote hypocritical gentle regretful

bittersweet

determined

zealous

preachy

pedantic

didactic

impatient

frivolous

Words That Describe Language literal figurative abstract concrete formal informal objective subjective jargon vulgar precise exact esoteric abstruse learned scholarly insipid connotative poetic plain simple colloquial stuffy slang artificial detached emotional pedantic euphemistic pretentious sensuous symbolic bombastic grotesque moralistic idiomatic cultured picturesque homespun

folksy provincial nostalgic trite

Five Language Registers Static Formal Consultive (professional) Casual Intimate

A SYNTAX PRIMER WITH EXERCISES

THE ESSENTIAL IDEA: Like all literary features, syntax must be examined in terms of how it contributes to purpose, meaning, and effect, and helps an author achieve his/her purpose.

Therefore when analyzing, consider the following:

- 1). **SENTENCE LENGTH** Are the sentences *telegraphic* (shorter than 5 words), *short* (approximately 5 to 10 words), *medium* (approximately 15 to 20 words) or *long* (approximately 30 words or more)?
- 2). **SENTENCE BEGINNINGS and ENDINGS** Is there variety or does a pattern emerge? (*Anaphora & epistrophe*, terms to learn here.)
- 3). WORD ORDER Are words set out in a special way for a specific purpose or effect?
- 4). RHETORICAL QUESTION A question that expects no answer, it draws attention to a point or leads a reader to a specific view, answer, etc.

Example: Can't we all just get along?

5). ARRANGEMENT OF IDEAS – Are ideas set out in a special way for a purpose or effect? The types listed below are just a few basic patterns. There are many more!

A. loose sentence: makes complete sense if brought to a close before the actual ending. The main point is "front loaded."

Example: We finally reached San Diego/that morning/after a long delay/ a turbulent flight/ and some exciting adventures with airline food.

B. periodic sentence: makes sense only when the end of the sentence is reached. The main point is "end loaded."

Example: That morning, after a long delay/ a turbulent flight/ and some exciting adventures with airline food/ we finally reached San Diego.

C. parallel structure: refers to a grammatical or structural similarity between sentences or parts of a sentence. It involves an arrangement of words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs so that elements of equal importance are equally developed and similarly phrased. In essence, it is a particular kind of repetition.

Wrong: In the winter, I usually like skiing and to skate.

Right: In the winter, I usually like skiing and skating.

Right: In the winter, I usually like to ski and to skate.

Example: He was the kind of man who knew what he wanted, who intended to get it, and who allowed nothing or nobody to get in his way.

D. natural order sentence: a sentence where the subject comes before the predicate (mainverb).

1

Example: Oranges grow in California.

V. Stevenson, 7/7/2012 AP English Literature and Language, PHHS Source? Maybe an old Warriner's Grammar and Composition? E. inverted order sentence: a sentence where the predicate (main verb) comes before the subject.

Example: In California grow oranges.

F. split order sentence: divides the predicate into two parts with the subject coming in between.

Example: In California oranges grow.

G. interrupted order: the subordinate elements come in the middle, often set off by dashes.

Example: Oranges—beautiful, sweet, and delicious—grow in California

- 6). SENTENCE CLASSIFICATIONS Consider the following in examining sentence structures. Learn the terminology.
 - A. Four Basic Sentence Types (purposes)
 - Declarative: makes a statement

Example: The king seems sick.

- Imperative: gives a command
- Example: Help him now.

• Interrogative: asks a question.

Example: What's the matter with him?

• Exclamatory: makes an exclamation

Example: The king is dead!

B. Four Basic Sentence Structures

• Simple sentence: one independent clause

Example: The singer bowed to her adoring audience.

• Compound sentence: two or more independent clauses (joined by a coordinating conjunction—and, but, for, or, not, yet, so—or a semicolon).

Example: The singer bowed gratefully to the audience, but she san no encores.

Example: The singer bowed gratefully to the audience; however, she sang no encores.

• Complex sentence: one independent clause and one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses.

Example: Although the singer bowed gratefully to the audience, she sang no encores.

• Compound-complex: two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent (subordinate) clause(s).

Example: Although the audience clapped wildly, the singer sang no encores, but she did bow gratefully.

Ways to Think and Write about Style and "Arrangement"

STYLE

The following words in categories can give you apt terms with which to describe various writing styles. This list is by no means exhaustive! It's just to get your thinking started.

clarity lucid explicit	obscurity obscure vague involuted	plainness unvarnished severe commonplace unimaginative sparse	embellishment ornate flowery turgid bombastic florid
conciseness brief terse laconic succinct sententious	diffuseness verbose prolix rambling protracted wordy convoluted	elegance polished classic graceful symmetrical felicitous	inelegance graceless vulgar labored ponderous tasteless
vigor forceful mordant incisive graphic impassioned trenchant	feebleness prosaic unvaried sketchy weak puerile inferior ineffective	conformity ordinary commonplace bromidic exemplary	unconformity singular amorphous bizarre extraordinary

"ARRANGEMENT" aka ORGANIZATION

"Arrangement" is one of the five classical canons of rhetoric. Modern readers and writers are more likely to refer to it as "organization." One can talk or write about "arrangement" or organization is many, many ways. Organization can range from something small like a paragraph in an article or the stanza of a poem to larger things such as the way an argument is structured in an essay, or a chapter

PHHS

V. Stevenson, 9/21/2012

I have put this handout together from various sources over the years. Unfortunately, I can't remember where I got most of this or give proper attribution. Sorry originators!

developed in a novel, or how an entire book is put together. Also, various other terms are often used to mean the same thing. A test question might ask "how is ______ structured," and this, too, would be addressing "arrangement."

On many tests, especially AP English tests, being able to answer questions about organization in multiple choice questions or being able to write about it in an essay question is especially valuable just because many students (your competition in this instance) cannot do this with any proficiency.

Below is a list of terms that describe common ways for authors to organize their writing. If you are trying to analyze or write about organization, you might use these terms:

Cause and effect
Compare and contrast
Spatial organization (organized around "where")
 top to bottom/bottom to top
 near to far/far to near
 left to right/right to left
 back to front/front to back
 microcosm to macrocosm/macrocosm to microcosm
Time organization (organized around "when")
 first to last/last to first
 most recent to most remote/most remote to most recent
 then to now/now to then

Other Miscellaneous Ways:

Simple to complex/ complex to simple

Order of importance

Order of magnitude or degree

Linear/Narrative structure (like a story, from "once upon a time" to "happily ever after")

Extended metaphor

Conceit

Familiar to unfamiliar/ unfamiliar to familiar

Logical progression

Association--how things are related.

V. Stevenson, AP English originated 4/99; reprinted 09/21/12

Power Verbs

Summarizing, rather than analyzing, is one of the chief pitfalls of AP rhetorical analysis. Bland verbs, such as says and relates, tend to lead the writer into summary. Powerful verbs and verb phrases, used correctly, will make your writing more analytical and incisive.

suggests hints intimates implies questions casts sheds light clarifies masks notes observes asserts concedes qualifies affirms criticizes admonishes challenges debates excoriates berates belittles trivializes denigrates

vilifies

demonizes

disparages

ridicules

points out acknowledges

emphasizes minimizes

mocks

dismisses demonstrates underscores sugarcoats flatters lionizes praises exaggerates downplays minimizes exposes articulates explores lists *s*upports establishes evokes induces quotes cites draws attention to the irony calls attention to

Verbs Related to Rhetorical Modes of Development compares contrasts classifies

~ defines

narrates

details

describes
argues
persuades
analyzes
explains
exemplifies
illustrates
summarizes

Structure Verbs
opens
begins
adds
connects
juxtaposes
draws a parallel
between
foreshadows
uses an analogy
turns to

shifts to transitions to concludes finishes closes ends

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Transitional Devices

Transitional devices are like bridges between parts of your paper. They are cues that help the reader to interpret ideas a paper develops. Transitional devices are words or phrases that help carry a thought from one sentence to another, from one idea to another, or from one paragraph to another. And finally, transitional devices link sentences and paragraphs together smoothly so that there are no abrupt jumps or breaks between ideas.

There are several types of transitional devices, and each category leads readers to make certain connections or assumptions. Some lead readers forward and imply the building of an idea or thought, while others make readers compare ideas or draw conclusions from the preceding thoughts.

Here is a list of some common transitional devices that can be used to cue readers in a given way.

To Add:

and, again, and then, besides, equally important, finally, further, furthermore, nor, too, next, lastly, what's more, moreover, in addition, first (second, etc.)

To Compare:

whereas, but, yet, on the other hand, however, nevertheless, on the contrary, by comparison, where, compared to, up against, balanced against, vis a vis, but, although, conversely, meanwhile, after all, in contrast, although this may be true

To Prove:

because, for, since, for the same reason, obviously, evidently, furthermore, moreover, besides, indeed, in fact, in addition, in any case, that is

To Show Exception:

yet, still, however, nevertheless, in spite of, despite, of course, once in a while, sometimes

To Show Time:

immediately, thereafter, soon, after a few hours, finally, then, later, previously, formerly, first (second, etc.), next, and then

To Repeat:

in brief, as I have said, as I have noted, as has been noted

To Emphasize:

definitely, extremely, obviously, in fact, indeed, in any case, absolutely, positively, naturally, surprisingly, always, forever, perennially, eternally, never, emphatically, unquestionably, without a doubt, certainly, undeniably, without reservation

To Show Sequence:

first, second, third, and so forth. A, B, C, and so forth. next, then, following this, at this time, now, at this point, after, afterward, subsequently, finally, consequently, previously, before this, simultaneously, concurrently, thus, therefore, hence, next, and then, soon

To Give an Example:

for example, for instance, in this case, in another case, on this occasion, in this situation, take the case of, to demonstrate, to illustrate, as an illustration, to illustrate

To Summarize or Conclude:

in brief, on the whole, summing up, to conclude, in conclusion, as I have shown, as I have said, hence, therefore, accordingly, thus, as a result, consequently, in sum

"They Say, I Say" Templates

Why Templates?

Successful academic writing involves presenting both your sources' ideas and your own ideas fairly and effectively to your readers. According to Graff and Birkenstein, to do so, you should engage in "a conversation about ideas" in which you react critically to your sources (ix). Graff and Birkenstein's templates may help you to have this conversation in a reader-friendly fashion, so that your thesis, supporting evidence, opposing evidence, and conclusion are clear. They Say / I Say discusses these templates more fully, and includes useful lists of them, especially in the end of the book. While you don't want to adopt these templates mindlessly, the templates do provide sensible language for engaging in academic conversations, and we all benefit from adopting good language for our own purposes. Here are a few of the examples that I have adapted from their text. Remember, these forms still require proper citations so readers know who "they" are.

Introducing standard views:
Americans today tend to believe that
Conventional wisdom claims that
My whole life I have heard people say that
Capturing authorial action (e.g., to write a summary):
X acknowledges that
X agreed that
X argues that
X complains that
X demonstrates that
• X emphasizes that
Introducing quotations:
• X inslsts, ""
As the prominent philosopher X puts it, ""
According to X, ""
• In her book, Book Title, X maintains that ""
X complicates matters further when he writes that ""
Explaining quotations:
Basically, X is saying
• In other words, X believes
Making what "they say" into something you say:
• I have always believed that
When I was a child, I used to think that
Introducing something implied or assumed:
 Although X does not say so directly, she apparently assumes that
While they rarely admit as much, often take for granted that
Introducing an ongoing debate:
 On the one hand, X argues On the other hand, Y claims My own view is
• In a long-accepted argument, X argues, but Y and others disagree because In fact, Y's argument that
is now supported by new research showing that
 In recent discussions of, a controversial issue has been whether On the one hand, some argue that
On the other hand, however, others argue that My own view is
As I suggested earlier, defenders of can't have it both ways. Their assertion that is contradicted by their claim that
Disagreeing, with reasons:
• I think that X is mistaken because she overlooks
I disagree with X's view that because, as recent research has shown,
• X's claim that rests upon the questionable assumption that

Adapted with changes by Chris Hunter from: Graff, Gerald and Cathy Birkenstein. *They Say/I Say: The Moves That Matter in Academic Writing.* New York: Norton, 2010.

Agreeing, with a difference:			
 X is surely right about 	rt because, as he/sh	e may not be aware, recent stud	ies have shown that
	is extremely useful because		
 I agree that 	a point that needs emphasiz	ing since so many people believe	*
Agreeing and disagreeing simi			
 Although I agree wit 	h X to a point, I cannot accept his	/her overall conclusion that	because
 Although I disagree v 	with much of what X says, I fully ϵ	endorse his/her final conclusion t	
	at still insist that		
X is right that	but she seems to be on mo	ore dubious ground when she sta	ites
Signaling who is saying what:			
 X argues 			
 My own view, howev 	ver, is that		
 Yet a careful analysis 	of the data reveals		
	., introducing your point of view		
	onsider an important point about		
	dorse what X calls		
	in fact addressing the larger mat		
These conclusions with	ill have significant applications in	as well as in	·
Making concessions while still			
 Although I grant that 	, I still maintain that		
• Whileis	it does not necessa	rily follow that	8
Indicating who cares:			
 Researchers have long 	g assumed that Fo	or instance, one eminent sociolog	gist,, long argued that
	rch has clearly demonstrated oth		
Establishing why your claims n	natter:		
 X matters because 			
 These conclusions ha 	ve significant implications for	as well as for	<u></u>
Commonly Used Transitions:			
Cause and Effect	Conclusion	Comparison	Contrast
Accordingly	As a result	Along the same lines	By contrast
As a result	Consequently	In the same way	Conversely
Consequently	Hence	Likewise	Despite the fact that
Therefore	In conclusion, then	Similarly	Nevertheless
Thus	Therefore		On the contrary
Addition	Concession	Example	Elaboration
Also	Admittedly	After all	Actually
Furthermore	Of course	Consider	By extension
In addition	Naturally	For example	In other words
In fact	To be sure	For instance Specifically	To put it in another way
Moreover			

Adapted with changes by Chris Hunter from: Graff, Gerald and Cathy Birkenstein. They Say/I Say: The Moves That Matter in Academic Writing. New York: Norton, 2010.

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Stevenson's Notes on Argument—"Everything's an Argument"

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Argument in its best academic, scholarly, or journalistic sense is not the same as an emotional argument or conflict between people. In general, it seeks to open a subject, not close it; to broaden a subject, not narrow it; and primarily to earn respect for a position, not necessarily defeat one.

I. We argue about 3 Basic Categories

- 1. Arguments of Fact: global warming is/is not a serious problem, humans did/did not evolve from lower life forms; TV violence and video games do/do not effect increase violence in youth; the war in Iraq has/has not limited terrorist activities in this country.
- 2. Arguments of Values: capital punishment is/is not wrong; giving incentives to motivate donations to charity is/is not ok; a woman president would/ would not be good for the US; the war in Iraq is doing more harm than good.
- 3. Arguments of Policy: we should/should not grant amnesty to hard-working, law-abiding alien workers; the US should/should not immediately withdraw from Iraq.

II. We argue for 4 Major Purposes

- 1. To assert
- 2. To prevail
- 3. To inquire
- 4. To negotiate differences

III. We use 3 Basic Appeals

1. Logos—logic, rational

-

- 2. Pathos—emotion, morality, ethics, values
- 3. Ethos—credibility of sources, use of sources

As reader: recognize it As a writer: master it

How: tone (measured, respectful "a good person speaking well"); quality

of evidence/source



IV. Let's consider 3 Special Modes (but any mode can be an argument)

	Cause & Effect	Argument	Persuasion
Purpose	inform/explain	inform/influence	change/call to action
Appeal	logos	logos	logos/pathos
POV	neutral	biased, logos based	biased, logos/pathos based
Tone/ Rhetoric	neutral	neutral, measured, reasonable	varied: passionate satiric, urgent, etc.
Ethos	+	+	+
Smoking Example	just the facts	the "massaged" facts (arrangement)	"by whatever means necessary"

IV. The Premises of Argument—that which can divide us

- 1. Political
- 2. Legal
- 3. Historical
- 4. Values: ethical/moral/religious
- 5. Scientific
- 6. Psychological
- 7. Economic
- 8. Pragmatic
- 9. Post Modern
- 10. Sociological

Example: Capital punishment

- o Political: "The American public supports it."
- o Legal: "It's the law/it shouldn't be the law."
- o Historical: "It has/has not worked in the past."
- Values: "It is right" (eye for an eye, justice). "It is not right" (thou shalt not kill; two wrongs don't make a right)
- o Psychological: "Most prisoners on death row were abused children."
- o Economic: "It's too expensive." "It's cheaper than life without parole."
- o Pragmatic: "It doesn't work." It's an ineffective deterrent."
- o Sociological: "A disproportionate number of the poor and people of color are on death row."

Models of Argument: Classical, Toulmin, and Rogerian

helpful to your organization of your own argument. This information is summarized from the following source: Georgia State University, Department of English. Included here is a summary of three different models of argument. These models provide possible ways to organize an effective argument, which I hope will be (2008). First Arguments: A Peer Approach to Persuasion. Plymouth, Michigan: Hayden McNeil

F	The Classical Approach	The Toulmin Approach	The Rogerian Approach
The Paris Aris Paris Par	The classical approach to argument is a model of argumentation invented by the famous Greek philosopher Aristotle. It is best used when the purpose of your argument is to persuade your audience to agree with your point of view, take your side on an issue, or make a decision in your favor. The classical approach/Aristotelian model relies heavily on the use of ethos, pathos, and logos appeals. The following is the typical organization pattern for this approach:	This model of argument was developed by the British philosopher Stephen Toulmin. The Toulmin Model is especially helpful when you try to make a case on controversial issues that do not have an absolute truth as the Toulmin Model seeks to establish probabilities rather than truth. The following is a typical organization for the Toulmin Model:	This is a model of argument named after the psychologist Carl Rogers, who believed that people could only resolve an issue or solve a problem once they found the "common ground." A group of rhetoricians then developed a model of argument named the Rogerian argument, which advocates a way of argument that is less confrontational, less one-sided, and more compromising and deliberately consensus-building. The following are the usual elements of the Rogerian approach:
	Exordium (Introduction) - Get the attention and goodwill of your audience while introducing the autienticalism	• ClaimsThere are several different types of claims: claims of fact, claims of definition, claims of cause claims of value and claims of	 An introduction that briefly and objectively defines the issue or problem
•	Narratio (State your case) – Clarify your issue. Give any necessary background for understanding the issues (what happened when, who is involved,	policy. You can use any one or more of these claims to introduce your issue and to establish your case.	 A neutral, non-judgmental statement of the opponent's position, presented within valid contexts, that demonstrates the writer clearly
•	 etc). Define any important terms of conditions here; i.e., put the argument in context. Partitio (Proposition) - State your central proposition or thesis. Present the subtonics or 	 para-information you use to support your claims. Warrant-The assumption made by a writer in order for the claim to be true. 	 A neutral statement and explanation of your position and the contexts in which it is valid An analysis of what the two positions have in
	supportive points to lay out (outline) your argument for the reader.	BackingWhat you use to support the warrant. RebuttalThis is where you consider the connection viewnoint and refine it.	 common and what goals and values they share A proposal for resolving the issue in a way that recognizes the interests of both parties, or a
•	your case. Use detailed support for your claim(s). Use appropriate factual evidence and logical reasoning.	Qualifier-Use language that seeks to qualify the claims you make in order to bring your argument to a close.	statement of how the opponent's position would benefit if he were to adopt elements of the writer's position
•	Refutatio (Refutation) - Analyze the opposition's argument and summarize it; refute or address the points; point out faulty reasoning and inappropriate		
•	appeals. Peroratio (Conclusion) – Summarize the case and move the audience to action.	iii	The state of the s
15	Vour Approach		

Your Approach

The above approaches provide proven organizational tools you could use for your argument. What approach you use, however, doesn't necessarily have to conform exactly to one of these approaches. In fact, it is quite common for people to combine some of the elements of these approaches based on the needs of their argument.

Mature Academic Writing in AP English Literature and Language

Missteps on the Road to "Mature Academic Style"

- 1. Regurgitating the prompt (aka: empty openings).
- 2. Lack of planning.
- 3. Generalizations instead of analysis.
- 4. Summary instead of analysis.
- 5. Actually anything instead of analysis.
- 6. Formulaic writing, (aka: a writer on autopilot instead of "a mind at work," "a writer engaged with text").
- 7. General carelessness: not differentiating between a poet and a speaker, between a character and a person, between an audience (for a play) and a reader (for text); not spelling words right that are in the prompt, or not getting characters names right; not stating ideas precisely.
- 8. Over-simplifying what is complex.
- 9. Filling the paper with quoted material instead of analysis (commentary).
- 10. Failing to develop ideas.

Special Detractors from "Mature Academic Voice"

- 1. Use of first person. Avoid "I think," "I believe," "To me this means..." Note: used <u>sparingly</u>, first person can be appropriate in either the argument or synthesis questions on the AP exam since the student writer has been asked to create a position or assert an opinion. First person is usually NOT acceptable for Question 2, passage analysis, since this is considered an analytic academic essay. In this instance, the first person violates the accepted conventions for formal academic writing.
- 2. Use of second person "you." Avoid the use of the second person. Not: "When you die..." Instead use: "When humans die..." Not: "The slant rhyme makes you notice..." Instead use: "The slant rhyme makes the reader notice..." Not "If you confessed to being a witch..."
- 3. Colloquial speech and immature, excessively informal vocabulary. Examples: "Your average Joe," "Joe College," "Back in the olden days," "came back to bite her," "totally off the charts," "Nowadays," "A bunch of...a ton of...a huge amount of..." (Does the writer mean "a significant number...a great degree..."?); "I would have to say..." (Not really); "That would have to be..." (Again, not really); "He got off..." (Rather than the more elevated: "He escaped justice..."); "really hassled by" (Suggestion: "agitated by").
- 4. Use of psychobabble: "Pap destroyed Huck's self-esteem." "The peer pressure on Hester Prynne..." "Gatsby was depressed by..." "Huck and Jim's life-style on the raft..." "Ok, so Medea had an anger management issue..." "Virgina Woolf, herself a depressed person, writes a rather bi-polar essay."
- 5. Use of absolutes: "all," "always," "never," "none," "nobody," "everybody" "I'll bet 99.99% of the people..."
- 6. Excesses of tone: hysterical, breathless, indignant, self-righteous, cute, breezy, etc. Example: "If a homeless man even talks he gets arrested." Purple prose is a special sub-genre of this category.
- 7. Cheerleading, a special kind of excess of tone when the student lavishes praise on an author or her work. Examples: "The greatest poet..." "Does a magnificent job of..." "...so awesome," "obviously a genius," "...will affect me for the rest of my life." (Note: this observation is not intended to squelch true passion or heart-felt response to literature.)

- 8. Silly, weak, childish examples; students' lack of discernment with regard to quality of examples or evidence; using cartoons, Disney movies, etc. as legitimate evidence.
- 9. Rhetorical questions, especially those with an indignant response, such as: "Do we Americans have to put up with this? I think not!"
- 10. Clichés, all of them. They're as old as the hills.
- 11. Exclamation points, especially lots of them!!!!
- 12. **Most adverbs**, such as "basically, obviously, surely, certainly, very, really, incredibly, totally," etc. should be used sparingly!
- 13. Writing about the author and speaker or narrator as though they are the same. Weak: Dickinson greets death as a courtly suitor. Stronger: The speaker greets Death as a courtly suitor.
- 14. Misspelling the author's name, although I am partial to "Whit Waltman."
- 15. Referring to authors by their first names. Please use "Whitman and Dickinson," never "Walt and Emily," unless, of course, you know either of them very well. And let's not call him Author Miller.
- 16. Writing about an author's life rather than his or her work or specific purpose in a text. Weak: "Whitman and Dickinson write about death differently due to their different life experiences." Better: "Dickinson chooses this image to..." or "Whitman's imagery suggests..."
- 17. Using technical vocabulary incorrectly, inflated purple prose. Examples: "Green uses emotional syntax." "She uses dictional phrases like..." "His short fragments are all connected by commas and collaborated into a few run-on sentences."
- 18. Gobbledygook, usually some kind of combination of the characteristics listed above. It imitates pretentious writing but says little. Examples: "The author brilliantly uses a hyphen in order to emphasize and reinforce motivation and justice that God provides and installs in each and every man." "Meger (sic) imagery provided by the author commences to place a precidence (sic) of their style, a conventional rhetoric that gives the passage somewhat of a quixotic tone."

So what is the successful AP student writer to do?

College Board's Course Description says that "stylistic maturity...is characterized by the following:

- A wide-ranging vocabulary used with denotative accuracy and connotative resourcefulness;
- A variety of sentence structures, including appropriate use of subordinate and coordinate constructions;
- A logical organization, enhanced by specific techniques of coherence such as repetition, transitions, and emphasis'
- A balance of generalization with specific illustrative detail; and
- An effective use of rhetoric, including controlling tone, maintaining a consistent voice, and achieving emphasis through parallelism and antithesis."
- AP English Literature and Composition 2005-2006 Professional Development Workshop Materials, page 51

V. Stevenson, reprint 5/30/12 Patrick Henry High School

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AP ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND COMPOSITION Exam Format

Section 1: Multiple Choice

45 Questions | 1 Hour | 45% of Exam Score

- Includes 5 sets of questions.
 - 23–25 Reading questions that ask students to read and analyze nonfiction texts.
 - 20–22 Writing questions, a new type of question, that ask students to "read like a writer" and consider revisions to stimulus texts.

Section 2: Free Response

3 Free-Response Questions | 2 Hours 15 Minutes (includes a 15-minute reading period) | 55% of Exam Score

- Students write essays that respond to 3 free-response prompts from the following categories.
 - Synthesis Question: After reading 6–7 texts about a topic (including visual and quantitative sources), students will compose an argument that combines and cites at least 3 of the sources to support their thesis.
 - Rhetorical Analysis: Students will read a nonfiction text and analyze how the writer's language choices contribute to the intended meaning and purpose of the text.
 - Argument: Students will create an evidence-based argument that responds to a given topic.

BRACKETING: An AP Multiple Choice Strategy

BRACKETING THE PASSAGE

- 1. Go directly to the first question. Glance at the question to see if it refers you to particular lines. If so, put a bracket and the question number to the right or left of the lines. Make your bracket a little larger than the lines mentioned. Do not read the answer choices at this time.
- 2. Continue bracketing the passage in this manner. The task should not take more than 60 seconds.
- 3. Begin reading the passage at the top. When you get to the bottom of the first bracket, stop and answer the question. (You will know if you need to read on before you can answer the question.) As you eliminate wrong answer choices and narrow toward the right answer, scrutinize each choice by trying to find fault with it. Don't let what sounds possible but was never mentioned in the passage trick you. Look back and forth between the lines you marked in the passage and the answer choices to see what is actually there.
- 4. Beware of the typical wrong answer choices:
 - Au contraire—choice is the opposite of the right answer
 - Outside scope—an aspect of the choice was never mentioned in the passage. It may sound plausible;
 nevertheless, the passage contains no evidence to support it
 - Distortion—material from another part of the passage has been incorrectly applied
 - Sounds good except for one particular word. That word invalidates the entire answer.
 - Half right, half wrong
 - Fits but is not the "best" answer. This choice may be of secondary importance. It may describe part of the passage but not all.
- 5. Mark your test paper to keep your focus:
 - Put a line through an individual word that invalidates the choice.
 - Put a dot to the side of any answer that you cannot find fault with
 - Put an X next to any answer that is patently wrong.
- 6. Once you evaluated each choice, you have probably narrowed to two possible right answers. Now look at the lines you bracketed. Pick the one for which you find confirmation in the passage. You will know that you have selected the right choice when you can find evidence in the passage to back it up. Though you are sometimes working with implied rather than stated meaning, there will be always be some sort of evidence supporting the correct choice.

FINAL TIPS

BEWARE

Watch out for questions like this: "Each of the following is true EXCEPT." Many people miss these items because they do not pay attention to the word EXCEPT.

KNOW WHEN TO MOVE ON

If you hit an extremely difficult question, don't spend more than two minutes on it. Skip it. You will be saving more than the quarter of a point you'll lose by getting it wrong; you'll be saving time to spend on another question you can get right. You may have time at the end of the test to return to the questions you skipped, but you probably won't.

CAN'T GET IN TO THE PASSAGE? ... CAN'T KEEP YOUR FOCUS?

- Read the first sentence of each paragraph and the last sentence of the passage to get a sense of the passage's subject and the direction in which it moves.
- Take notes on your scratch paper to help you keep your focus. Particularly note shifts in any argument or reports of concepts.

Multiple Choice Protocol Format for Students to Follow

Reflection after taking a multiple-choice test is critical to your growth in this area. The procedure for this practice is as follows:

- 1. Meet with a group to discuss your answers.
- 2. Come to consensus within a group as to the correct answer for the questions.
- 3. Discuss answers with the class as a whole. Groups will be asked to support their answers with **SPECIFIC textual references**.
- 4. The correct answers will then be given.

Why Not A:

Why E:

"use quote from the text."

Hopefully you will get all the answers right and be done! However, this is not generally the case due to the difficulty level of the questions. So, you will be asked to submit a multiple-choice protocol following each practice exam. Procedure and format for this protocol is as follows:

practice exam.	Procedure and format for this protocol is as follows:
Student Name Teacher Name AP English L Date	e e
	Multiple-Choice protocol for passage/test
Example:	
Question 1:	I thought C was the correct answer, but the answer was actually B.
Stem:	In relation to the passage as a whole Provide the question (without the answer choices) as seen on the exam here.
Why Not C:	Clearly, when looking at the passage as a whole, the main purpose is to discuss the intellectual nature of words and how they affect a person's comprehension of the world.
	C doesn't work because it only explains the meaning of the sentence by itself, but it doesn't really connect to the bigger idea of the nature of language and how it helps someone to understand the world.
Why B:	B addresses the concept of language and understanding of the world when it says "use quote from the text." This explains how language is like a cup that people can drink from to increase their knowledge base. This more clearly and directly connects the sentence to the passage, and also addresses the idea of knowledge fulfilling a person's role in life.
Question 5:	I thought A was the correct answer, but the answer was actually E.
Stem:	The speaker employs all of the following rhetorical strategies EXCEPT Provide the question (without the answer choices) as seen on the exam here.

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I misread this question. So, when I saw A was an accepted, used thetorical used rhetorical technique, I jumped on the answer choice. While the passage did include understatement, it also included other strategies listed. A—personification—was used in the passage in line 6

E-Appeal to Logos-was the only strategy not in the passage. Instead evidence of the other

devices listed in the answer choices include . . . "use quotes from the text."

Notes on the Synthesis Question

1. NOTES FROM: THE SYNTHESIS QUESTION FORUM

A. Characteristics of Effective (Upper Half) Papers:

- Students have a notion of self and the world around them, "mature academic perspective," "voice," "a mind at work."
- Students engage text without avoiding complexity.
- Students understand readers' needs—give examples, summarize, set context, and explain details ("for instance").
- Students are willing to deal with and represent uncertainty (vs. immature, dogmatic certainty).
- Writers control sources rather than being controlled by them—key idea! "Clear cut difference between sources that write the paper and students that write the paper."
- Can put sources "in conversation" with each other.

B. Implications for Research

- Requires different method for teaching research—not the usual linear approach, not a report, not someone else's argument
- Re-evaluation of what text and sources are. Includes: ads, photos, paintings, personal
 narratives, music lyrics, blogs, etc. Suggests the broadest possible meaning of what is
 "text" and what it means to "read" it.
- Approach research as a "conversation," about making meaning rather than relating meaning someone else has already made. "Research needs to be transformative."

C. What AP Readers Who Are High School Teachers Will Their Students

- The synthesis question is a kind of argument—you must see it that way. The student's
 argument is central.
- Have an element of restraint—avoid the rush to judgment, a premature "expert opinion" is not desirable.
- Reach to understand multiple points of view.
- The AP Lang synthesis question and the APUSH DBQ are not identical.
- Must be able to use (short!) blended sources, ellipsis.
- Must be able to give appropriate context for citations.
- Make concessions; acknowledge the opposing point of view with respect.
- Understand concept of "fair use of sources."
- Must know where the ideas come from—from the student writer or another source.
- "Consider the source"—All sources are considered legitimate but is it someone's unpublished lecture or an expert opinion in a recognized academic journal.



2. OPPOSING STRATEGIES FOR READING THE SOURCES & WRITING THE SYNTHESIS QUESTION – Which makes the most sense to you?

METHOD A: POSITION READ

- Identify key issues or criteria from the prompt (example: what factors should be considered when making a decision regarding X?)
- Prewrite/brainstorm: what do I already know, what examples might apply?
- Adopt a tentative position—working thesis
- Read sources in light of your position to verify position, add evidence, deal with opposition, or qualify argument. Modify position if necessary.
- Write the essay.

METHOD B: READ



POSITION

- Identify key issues or criteria from the prompt (example: what factors should be considered when making a decision regarding X?)
- Prewrite/brainstorm: what do I already know, what examples might apply?
- Read sources to explore the subject in light of the criteria
- Develop your position.
- Write the essay

3. BEST PRACTICE FOR CITING SOURCES ON THE EXAM

Use author's name in signal line and (Source) at the end: When Ms. Star claims...blah, blah, blah, she reveals her bias towards...such and such (Source C).

DIRECT CITATION EXAMPLE:

When educational columnist Rostein reports that school administrators think "electronic materials will get students more engaged," he does not seem to question whether or not these administrators are, in fact, correct (Source A).

PARAPHRASE OR REFERENCE TO A SOURCE EXAMPLE

As Delany reminds us, technologies can provide teachers with new ways to interact with their pupils (Source B).

Synthesis Question: General Analytic Rubric (adapted from Collegeboard.org)

Row A: Thesis, 0-1 point 0 points 1 point Responds to the prompt with a defensible thesis that may establish a line of There is no defensible thesis. The intended thesis only restates the prompt. reasoning The Intended thesis provides a summary of the issue with no apparent or coherent claim. There is a thesis, but it does not respond to the prompt. Responses that do not earn this point: Responses that earn this point: Only restate the prompt. The thesis responds to the prompt rather than restating or replicasing the Does not take a position, or the position must be inferred or is vague. prompt and the thesis clearly takes a position rather than just stating there are Equivocate or summarize other's arguments but not the student's (e.g., pros/cons. some people say it's good, some people say it's bad). State an obvious fact rather than a making a claim that requires a defense.

Note: Thesis may be one or more sentences anywhere in the response. Can be awarded the point whether or not the response successfully supports the reasoning.

Row 8: Evidence (AND) Commer	nt 17, 0:4 points (Evidence should	be ethos, logos, and pathos, not g	eneric guotes.)	
0 points	1 point	2 points	3 points	4 points
Simply restates thesis (if present), repeats provided information, or references fewer than two of the provided sources.	EVIDENCE: Provides evidence from or references at least two of the provided sources. AND COMMENTARY: Summarizes the evidence but does not explain how the evidence supports the student's argument.	EVIDENCE: Provides evidence from or references at least three of the provided sources. AND COMMENTARY: Explains how some of the evidence relates to the student's argument, but no line of reasoning is established, or the line of reasoning is faulty.	EVIDENCE: Provides specific evidence from at least three of the provided sources to support all claims in a line of reasoning. AND COMMENTARY: Explains how some of the evidence supports a line of reasoning.	EVIDENCE: Provides specific evidence from at least three of the provided sources to support all claims in a line of reasoning. AND COMMENTARY: Consistently explains how the evidence supports a line of reasoning.
Typical responses that earn 0 points:	Typical responses that earn 1 point:	Typical responses that earn 2 points:	Typical responses that earn 3 points:	Typical responses that earn 4 points:
 Are incoherent or do not address the prompt. May be just opinion with no textual references or references that are irrelevant. 	Tend to focus on summary or description of sources rather than specific details.	Consist of a mix of specific evidence and broad generalities. May contain some simplistic, inaccurate, or repetitive explanations that don't strengthen the argument. May make one point well, but either do not make multiple supporting claims or do not adequately support more than one claim. Do no explain the connections or progression between the student's claims, so a line of reasoning is not clearly established.	Uniformly offer evidence to support claims. Focus on the importance of specific words and details from the sources to build an argument. Organize an argument as a line of reasoning composed of multiple supporting claims. Commentary may fall to integrate some evidence or fall to support a claim.	Uniformly offer evidence to support claims. Focus on the importance of specific words and details from the sources to build an argument. Organize and support a line of reasoning composed of multiple supporting claims, each with adequate evidence that is clearly explained.

Note: Writing that suffers from grammatical and/or mechanical errors that interfere with communication cannot earn the fourth point in this row.

Row Ct. Sophistication, 0-1 point	· 建筑器。1996年1996年1997年1997年1998年1998年1998年1998年1998年1998
O points Does not meet the criteria for one point.	1 point Demonstrates sophistication of thought and/or a complex understanding of the rhetorical situation.
Responses that do not earn this point: Attempt to contextualize their argument, but such attempts consist of predominantly sweeping generalizations ("In a world where" OR "Since the beginning of time") Only hint or suggest other arguments ("While some may argue that OR "Some people say") Use complicated or complex sentences or language that are ineffective in that they do not enhance the argument	Responses that earn this point may demonstrate a sophistication of thought or develop a complex literary argument by doing any of the following: 1. Crafting a nuanced argument by consistently identifying and exploring complexities or tensions across the sources. 2. Articulating the implications or limitations of an argument (either by the student's argument or arguments conveyed in the sources) by situating it within a broader context. 3. Making effective rhetorical choices that consistently strengthen the force and impact of the student's argument throughout the response. 4. Employing a style that is consistently vivid and persuasive.
Note: This point should be awarded only if the demonstration of sophistication	on or complex understanding is part of the argument, not merely a phrase or reference.

THE ARCH METHOD: for Analyzing AP Passages

This approach is based on the observation that students often start writing before they understand the task and before they have made the sort of observations that would put them in the running for a top score.

Directions for Students:

- 1. Read the prompt and passage once to get the gist. Try to hear the voice of the speaker and get a sense of the personality of the individual who wrote this piece and the circumstances under which he or she wrote it, but withhold judgment for now.
- 2. Study the prompt closely. What is the overarching issue you are asked to address? Does it have more than one aspect to which you must respond? Draw an arch. Write the issue(s) you must address below the arch. It is often helpful to begin this with the word "what" and form a question you will address in your thesis. You should now understand your writing task.
- 3. Read the passage again. As you move through the passage, mark it and make notes in the margins about both the specific uses of rhetorical strategies and style devices (the "how") while continuing to keep the overarching issue (the "what") in mind. It is not a rule or a requirement, but a reasonable goal to aim for is to make at least three observations about the overarching issue and identify at least five strategies or devices. More is better.
- 4. Write your original response to the overarching issue above the arch. This step will require critical thinking on your part. There is never just one right way to do this.
- 5. Craft a bold 2 to 3-sentence introduction in which you answer the over-arching question. Do this in such a way that lets the reader know that your essay is well focused on the task at hand. Draft the introduction on the prompt or scratch paper, fine-tune it, and then rewrite it as the beginning of your essay.
- 6. Move through the piece chronologically as you discuss the specific strategies and devices that support your original response to the overarching issue (your thesis). This is often referred to as an "organic" organization. Always be sure you are linking your observations and identifications of strategies and devices to your thesis. Do not write a perfunctory five-paragraph essay.
- 7. End your paper on a strong final note. Think "closure" not "conclusion." Do not summarize or restate what you have already said in a formulaic way that repeats the opening. You might re-assert a main point if you add something new to it. SPECIAL TIP: Commenting on the way a passage ends (its final sentences or paragraph) can often bring your own paper to a natural close.

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Originated by Margaret Lee, Woodward Academy, GA Adapted by V. Stevenson, reprinted: 5/25/2014 AP English Language and Literature Patrick Henry High School, San Diego, CA

Rhetorical Analysis Question: General Analytic Rubric (adapted from Collegeboard.org)

1 point 0 points Responds to the prompt with a defensible thesis that analyzes the writer's rhetorical choices. There is no defensible thesis. The intended thesis only restates the prompt. The intended thesis provides a summary of the issue with no apparent or coherent claim. There is a thesis, but it does not respond to the prompt. Responses that earn this point: Responses that do not earn this point: The Intended thesis only restates the prompt. The thesis responds to the prompt rather than restating or rephrasing the prompt and The intended thesis is vague, must be inferred, does not take a position, clearly articulates a defensible thesis about the rhetorical choices the writer makes. equivocates or summarizes other's arguments but not the student's (e.g., some people say it's good, some people say it's bad). The intended thesis simply states an obvious fact rather than a making a claim that requires a defense. Note: Thesis may be one or more sentences anywhere in the response. Can be awarded the point whether or not the response successfully supports the reasoning.

Row B: Evidence AND Comments	ry/0-4 points		第一个工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作工作	建设的基本的产业对应
0 points	1 point	2 points	3 points	4 points
Simply restates thesis (if present), repeats provided information, or offers information irrelevant to the prompt.	EVIDENCE: Provides evidence that is mostly general. AND COMMENTARY: Summarizes the evidence but does not explain how the evidence supports the student's argument	EVIDENCE: Provides some specific and relevant evidence. AND COMMENTARY: Explains how some of the evidence relates to the student's argument, but no line of reasoning is established, or the line of reasoning is faulty.	EVIDENCE: Provides specific evidence to support all claims in a line of reasoning. AND COMMENTARY: Explains how some of the evidence supports a line of reasoning. AND Explains how at least one rhetorical choice in the passage contributes to the writer's argument, purpose, or message.	EVIDENCE: Provides specific evidence to support all claims in a line of reasoning. AND COMMENTARY: Consistently explains how the evidence supports a line of reasoning. AND Explains how multiple rhetorical choices in the passage contribute to the writer's argument, purpose or message.
Typical responses that earn 0 points:	Typical responses that earn 1 point:	Typical responses that earn 2 points:	Typical responses that earn 3 points:	Typical responses that earn 4 points:
Are incoherent or do not address the prompt. May be just opinion with no textual references or references that are irrelevant.	Tend to focus on summary or description of a passage rather than specific details or techniques. Mention rhetorical choices with little or no explanation.	Consist of a mix of specific evidence and broad generalities. May contain some simplistic, inaccurate, or repetitive explanations that don't strengthen the argument. May make one point well, but either do not make multiple supporting claims or do not adequately support more than one claim. Do not explain the connections or progression between the student's claims, so a line of reasoning is not clearly established.	Uniformly offer evidence to support claims. Focus on the importance of specific words and details from the passage to build an argument. Organize an argument as a fine of reasoning composed of multiple supporting claims. Commentary may fall to integrate some evidence or fall to support a key claim.	

Note: Writing that suffers from grammatical and/or mechanical errors that interfere with communication cannot earn the fourth point in this row.

points	1 point
oes not meet the criteria for one point.	Demonstrates sophistication of thought and/or develops a complex understanding of the rhetorical situation.
tesponses that do not earn this point: Attempt to contextualize their interpretation, but such attempts consist of predominantly sweeping generalizations. Only hint or suggest other possible interpretations. Examine individual rhetorical choices but do not examine the relationships among different choices throughout the text. Oversimplify complexities of the topic and/or the text. Use complicated or complex sentences or language that are ineffective in that they do not enhance the argument.	Responses that earn this point may demonstrate a sophistication of thought or develop a complex literary argument by doing any of the following: 1. Explaining the significance or relevance of the writer's rhetorical choices (given the rhetorical situation). 2. Explaining a purpose or function of the passage's complexities or tensions. 3. Employing a style that is consistently vivid and persuasive.

Argument Question Basics in AP English Language & Composition

THE WRITING TASK:

- Take a position
- Gather evidence
- · Tell why evidence is relevant

GOOD ARGUMENT ESSENTIALS

- Define terms: "important" "beneficial" "charity"
- Deal with the opposition
 - --anticipate the opposing point of view
 - --acknowledge its merits
 - -- dispense with its claims
 - --make a "harmless" concession
- Quality of evidence

PROMPT BASICS

- Take a position that defends... challenges... or qualifies...
- Support your argument with appropriate evidence from your reading...
 observation...
 or experience...

Argument Question: General Analytic Rubric (adapted from Collegeboard.org)

Row A. Thesis, 0-2 point 0 points 1 point Responds to the prompt with a thesis that presents a defensible position. There is no defensible thesis. The intended thesis only restates the prompt. The intended thesis provides a summary of the issue with no apparent or cohèrent claim. There is a thesis, but it does not respond to the prompt. Responses that do not earn this point: Responses that earn this point: The thesis responds to the prompt rather than restating or rephrasing the Only restate the prompt. Do not take a position, or the position is vague or must be inferred. prompt and the thesis clearly takes a position rather than just stating there are State an obvious fact rather than making a claim that requires a defense Note: Thesis may be one or more sentences anywhere in the response. Can be awarded the point whether or not the response successfully supports the reasoning. 2 points 3 points 0 points 1 point 4 points EVIDENCE: EVIDENCE: EVIDENCE: EVIDENCE: Simply restates thesis (If Provides evidence that is mostly Provides some specific relevant Provides specific evidence to Provides specific evidence to present), repeats provided general. evidence. support all claims in a line of support all claims in a line of Information, or offers reasoning. reasoning. information irrelevant to the AND AND prompt. AND AND COMMENTARY: COMMENTARY: Summarizes the evidence but Explains how some of the COMMENTARY: COMMENTARY: does not explain how the evidence relates to the student's Explains how some of the Consistently explains how the evidence supports the argument, nut no line of evidence supports a line of evidence supports a line of reasoning is established, or the reasoning. reasoning. argument. line of reasoning is faulty. Tvoical responses that Typical responses that Typical responses that Typical responses that Typical responses that earn 0 points: earn 1 point: earn 2 points: earn 3 points: earn 4 points: · Are Incoherent or do . Tend to focus on summary Consist of a mtx of specific Uniformly offer evidence to Provide commentary that evidence and broad support claims. engages specific details from not address the of evidence rather than generalities. Focus on the Importance of the sources to draw specific details. prompt. May contain some simplistic. specific details to build an conclusions. . May be just opinion inaccurate, or repetitive argument. · Focus on the Importance of with no evidence or explanations that don't Organize an argument as a · specific details to build an evidence that is strengthen the argument. line of reasoning composed of irrelevant. argument. multiple supporting claims. May make one point well, · Organize and support an but either do not make Commentary may fall to argument as a line of multiple supporting claims or integrate some evidence or reasoning composed of do not adequately support fall to support a key claim. multiple supporting claims, more than one claim. each with adequate Do not explain the evidence that is clearly connections or progression explained. between the student's claims, so a line of reasoning is not clearly established. Note: Writing that suffers from grammatical and/or mechanical errors that interfere with communication cannot earn the fourth point in this row. How C 5ophistication, 0-1 point . 1 point 0 points Does not meet the criteria for one point. Demonstrates sophistication of thought and/or develops a complex understanding of the rhetorical situation. Responses that earn this point may demonstrate a sophistication of thought or develop a Responses that do not earn this point: complex literary argument by doing any of the following: Attempt to contextualize their argument, but such attempts Crafting a nuances argument by consistently identifying and exploring complexities or consist of predominantly sweeping generalizations ("in a world where..." OR "Since the beginning of time...") Articulating the implications or limitations of an argument (either the student's Only hint or suggest other arguments ("While some may argue argument or an argument related to the prompt) by situating it within a broader that... OR "Some people say..."} Use complicated or complex sentences or language that are Making effective rhetorical choices that consistently strengthen the force and impact ineffective in that they do not enhance the argument of the student's argument. Employing a style that is consistently vivid and persuasive.

Note: This point should be awarded only if the demonstration of sophistication or complex understanding is part of the argument, not merely a phrase or reference.