





Stan Baronett

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ONLINE CHAPTER 15 Analyzing a Long Essay

Instructors interested in providing students with an opportunity for further analysis can refer them to Chapter 15: Analyzing a Long Essay, located on the Companion Website at www.oup.com/us/baronett.

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SUMMARY BIBLIOGRAPHY Answers to Selected Exercises for Chapter 15

Preface

Today's logic students want to see the relevance of logic to their lives. They need motivation to read a logic textbook and do the exercises. Logic and critical thinking instructors want their students to read the textbook and to practice the skills being taught. They want their students to come away with the ability to recognize and evaluate arguments, an understanding of formal and informal logic, and a lasting sense of why they matter. These concerns meet head-on in the classroom. This textbook is designed to help alleviate these concerns.

THE CONTINUING STORY

The driving force behind writing this edition has been the continuing effort to make logic **relevant**, **interesting**, **and accessible to today's students**, without sacrificing the coverage that instructors demand and expect. An introduction to logic is often a student's only exposure to rigorous thinking and symbolism. It should prepare them for reasoning in their lives and careers. It must balance careful coverage of abstract reasoning with clear, accessible explanations and vivid everyday examples.

This book was written to meet all those challenges. **Relevant examples provide a bridge between formal reasoning and practical applications of logic, thereby connecting logic to student lives and future careers**. Each chapter opens with a discussion of an everyday example, often taken directly from contemporary events, to pose the problem and set the narrative tone. This provides an immediate connection between logic and real-world issues, motivating the need for logic as a tool to help with the deluge of information available today.

The challenge of any introduction to logic textbook is to connect logic to students' lives. Yet existing texts can and should do more to reinforce and improve the basic skills of reasoning we all rely on in daily life. Relevant, real-life examples are essential to making logic accessible to students, especially if they can mesh seamlessly with the technical material. To accomplish this, quotes and passages from modern and classic sources illustrate the relevance of logic through some of the perennial problems that impact everyone's lives. Examples from the workplace, careers, sports, politics, movies, music, TV, novels, new inventions, gadgets, cell phones, transportation, newspapers, magazines, computers, speeches, science, religion, superstition, gambling, drugs, war, abortion, euthanasia, capital punishment, the role of government, taxes, military spending, and unemployment are used to show how arguments, and thus the role of logic, can be found in nearly every aspect of life. The examples were chosen to be interesting, thought-provoking, and relevant to students. The voice of the book strives to engage students by connecting logic to their lives.

AN INCLUSIVE TEXT

The fourteen chapters are designed to provide a comprehensive logic textbook, but also one that can be tailored to individual courses and their needs. The result is a full five chapters on deductive logic, but also a uniquely applied five-chapter part on inductive logic. Here separate chapters on analogical arguments, legal arguments, moral arguments, statistical arguments, and scientific arguments get students to apply the logical skills learned in the earlier parts of the book. As with previous editions, explanations and examples have been created to facilitate student comprehension, and to show students that the logical skills they are learning do in fact have practical, real-world application. The material also provides more experience to help students when they do the exercise sets.

Since each chapter has been developed to provide maximum flexibility to instructors, some sections can be skipped in lecture without loss of continuity. In addition, those wishing a briefer text can choose a text tailored to their course. They may choose to emphasize or omit certain chapters on formal logic or critical reasoning, and they may choose a selection of the five applied chapters to reflect their and their students' interest.

ALTERNATE AND CUSTOM EDITIONS

Because every course and professor is unique, Alternate and Custom Editions are available for this book. Each Alternate Edition comes with answers to problems, a full glossary, and an index. The books are in stock and available for ordering. Please see the ISBN information below:

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NEW TO THIS EDITION

Careful attention has been given to retain the style of presentation and the voice of the previous editions, since considerable evidence exists that students have responded well to the manner of presentation. Every change was designed to preserve the delicate balance of rigor with the text's overriding goal of relevance, accessibility, and student interest.

General changes: The Key Terms lists at the end of each chapter are now listed alphabetically with reference to the page on which they first appear. The Check Your Understanding problem sets are now called Exercises. This is in line with how most instructors refer to the problem sets, and is a closer fit to what students are exposed to in their other textbooks. This edition contains over 200 new exercises, bringing the total to nearly 2,800 exercises.

Chapter 1: New exercises were added to section 1E, Deductive and Inductive Arguments, allowing students to benefit from more exposure to real-life sources. In section 1F, Deductive Arguments: Validity and Soundness, additional applications of counterexample techniques are presented, and a new exercise set was created. In section 1G, Inductive Arguments: Strength and Cogency, a new topic, "The Role of New Information," was added to expand the techniques of analysis of inductive arguments, and a new set of exercises was created. Finally, a new section, 1H. Reconstructing Arguments, offers additional information regarding argument recognition, and more practice in applying the techniques introduced in this introductory chapter.

Chapter 3: The chapter now concentrates on diagramming arguments. Given this new focus, two topics, *incomplete arguments* and *rhetorical language*, were removed, rewritten, and adapted for use in Chapter 1. Also, the *necessary and sufficient conditions* section was removed and placed in Chapter 14 in order to supplement coverage of causality. These changes were based on many instructors' and reviewers' suggestions that Chapter 3 should be devoted solely to one topic. In addition, many instructors wanted to use the material in the aforementioned sections but they did not want to cover diagramming. Thirty additional exercises were added to the exercise set in Chapter 3, so students can get more practice with diagramming extended arguments.

Chapter 4: This chapter has undergone a major revision based on feedback from instructors and reviewers. In the second edition, 27 fallacies were divided into three general groups. The third edition has 24 fallacies divided into six groups with each group having no more than five fallacies. Each fallacy group focuses on specific characteristics that define the group. The presentation of the fallacies has been expanded to include more explanation of why and how the fallacies occur, as well as additional examples of each type of fallacy. The chapter now includes explanations and examples of arguments in which the fallacies do *not* occur. The exercise sets have been expanded

to include passages where no fallacy exists, so students are given more opportunity to apply their understanding. The alternative version of Chapter 4 (with diagramming) is still available in either an alternate edition or custom edition.

Chapters 5 and 6: The major changes to both chapters have been the separation of the *modern* and the *traditional* squares of opposition and their interpretations. This was a cause for concern for many instructors and reviewers who did not want to introduce both interpretations in their courses. The changes make it easier to navigate through the two chapters. An instructor who wants to do just the modern interpretation can skip the sections that introduce the traditional interpretation. These methods for an instructor who wants to do just the sections who do both interpretations can just go straight through the chapter without skipping any sections. Several of the exercise sets have been rewritten so instructors can concentrate on one interpretation, if they wish.

Chapter 7: New examples were added to clarify the use and meaning of the logical operators that are presented. The discussion of disjunction has been expanded to include more examples from ordinary language, especially regarding the distinction between inclusive and exclusive disjunction. The *sufficient and necessary conditions* subsection has been moved to earlier in the chapter so it follows the discussion of conditional statements. The discussion of truth-functional propositions has been expanded. The material and exercises regarding *propositions with assigned truth values* have been moved earlier to section 7*C*, *Truth Functions*, where it seems to fit better. Since sections *F* and *G* cover related material, they were combined to form 7*F*, *Logical Equivalence*, *Contradictory*, *Consistent*, *and Inconsistent Statements*. The material and exercises regarding *argument form* have been moved up to section 7*G*, *Truth Tables for Arguments*, so it can be introduced with the use of full truth tables. Finally, one hundred new questions have been added to the chapter.

Chapter 8: The strategy and tactics guides have been completely redone, based on suggestions from instructors and reviewers. The revised guides now provide more direct application of the proof tactics. Several of the inference rules have new examples and fuller explanations. A few minor adjustments were made to the order in which some inference rules are presented. In each case, the more intuitive rules are presented first, in order to ease students into the material. Two inference rules have been modified: First, Disjunctive Syllogism (DS) is now validly applied when there is a negation of *either* the right or left disjunct of a disjunction that occurs as the main operator in a premise or a derived line. (Previously, you could apply DS only when the left disjunct was negated.) Second, a similar change has been made to Simplification (Simp); either the right or left conjunct can now be validly derived from a conjunction that occurs as the main operator of a premise or a derived line. (Previously, you could apply DS only when the left disjunct to the left conjunct.) These two modifications reduce the frustration of waiting until Commutation (Com) is introduced, and they make the two rules more intuitive. Finally, a new section, *8I*, *Proving Logical Truths*, has been added to the end of the chapter.

Chapter 9: A few of the *restrictions* to rules were modified in order to help clarify the ideas. In several instances, exercises that did not work have been replaced.

Chapter 14: A new section, *14A*, *Sufficient and Necessary Conditions*, was added to the beginning of the chapter. This section was originally in Chapter 3 of the second edition, but it seems more natural to include it directly in the chapter on causality instead of expecting students to refer back to it in an earlier chapter.

Chapter 15: Although this chapter has proven to be useful for informal logic and critical thinking courses, we have decided to eliminate it from the main text for this edition. However, the entire chapter and the accompanying exercise sets are available on the Companion Website, the Ancillary Resource Center, and the Dashboard site (please see "Student and Instructor Resources" below for more details). The chapter can also be included in a custom edition of the book, if an instructor wishes.

SPECIAL FEATURES

The features that instructors found most useful in the second edition have been retained:

Each chapter opens with a **preview**, beginning with real-life examples and outlining the questions to be addressed. It thus serves both as motivation and overview, and wherever possible it explicitly bridges both formal and informal logic to real life. For example, Chapter 1 starts with the deluge of information facing students today, to show the very need for a course in logic or critical thinking.

Marginal definitions of key terms are provided for quick reference. Key terms appear in boldface when they are first introduced.

The use of reference boxes has been expanded, since they have proven useful to both students and instructors. They capture material that is spread out over a number of pages in one place for easy reference.

Profiles in Logic are short sketches of logicians, philosophers, mathematicians, and others associated with logic. The men and women in these sketches range in time from Aristotle and the Stoics to Christine Ladd-Franklin, the early ENIAC programmers, and others in the past century.

Bulleted summaries are provided at the end of each chapter, as well as a list of key terms.

The *Exercises* include a solution to the first problem in each set. Explanations are also provided where additional clarity is needed. This provides a model for students to follow, so they can see what is expected of their answers. In addition, approximately 25% of the exercises have answers provided at the back of the book.

End-of-chapter *Logic Challenge* problems are included for each chapter. These are the kind of puzzles—like the problem of the hats, the truth teller and the liar, and the scale and the coins—that have long kept people thinking. They end chapters on a fun note, not to mention with a reminder that the challenges of logic are always lurking in plain English.

A full glossary and index are located at the end of the book.

STUDENT AND INSTRUCTOR RESOURCES

A rich set of supplemental resources is available to support teaching and learning in this course. These supplements include Instructor Resources on the Oxford University Press **Ancillary Resource Center (ARC)** at www.oup-arc.com/baronett; intuitive, auto-graded assessments and other student resources on **Dashboard** by Oxford University Press at www.oup.com/us/dashboard; a free **Companion Website** for students available online at www.oup.com/us/baronett; and downloadable **Learning Management System Cartridges**.

The ARC site at www.oup-arc.com/baronett houses a wealth of Instructor Resources:

- A customizable, auto-graded **Computerized Test Bank** of roughly 1,500 multiple-choice and true/false questions
- An Instructor's Manual, which includes the following:
 - A traditional "Pencil-and-Paper" version of the Test Bank, containing the same 1,500 questions as the Computerized Test Bank, but converted for use in hard-copy exams and homework assignments, including some open-ended questions that allow students to develop extended analysis, such as drawing Venn diagrams, completing truth tables, and doing proofs
 - A list of the 1,500 questions from the Computerized Test Bank (in their closed-ended, multiple-choice and true/false format)
 - Complete answers to every set of exercises in the book—almost 2,800 exercises in total—including extended explanations for many of the questions that often require additional discussion and clarification
 - Complete answers and extended explanations for every end-of-chapter "Logic Challenge"
 - Bulleted Chapter Summaries, which allow the instructor to scan the important aspects of each chapter quickly and to anticipate section discussions
 - A list of the boldfaced Key Terms from each chapter of the book
- PowerPoint-based Lecture Outlines for each chapter, to assist the instructor in leading classroom discussion
- Online Chapter 15, "Analyzing a Long Essay"

The Instructor's Manual and Test Bank are also available in printed format.

Dashboard at www.oup.com/us/dashboard contains a wealth of **Student Resources** for *Logic* and connects students and instructors in an intuitive, integrated, mobile device-friendly format:

- · Chapter Learning Objectives adapted from the book's chapter headings
- Level-One and Level-Two Quizzes with a total of around 2,500 questions, autograded and linked to the Learning Objectives for easy instructor analysis of each student's topic-specific strengths and weaknesses. Each question set is preceded by a short recap of the material pertaining to the questions.

- BRAND NEW! A Proof-Checking Module for solving symbolic proofs that allows students to enter proof solutions, check their validity, and receive feedback, both by line and as a whole, as well as Venn Diagram and Truth Table Creation Modules, all feeding automatically into a gradebook that offers instructors the chance to view students' individual attempts
- Quiz Creation Capability for instructors who wish to create original quizzes in multiple-choice, true/false, multiple-select, long-answer, short-answer, ordering, or matching question formats, including customizable answer feedback and hints
- A built-in, color-coded Gradebook that allows instructors to quickly and easily monitor student progress from virtually any device
- Video Tutorials that work through example questions, bringing key concepts to life and guiding students on how to approach various problem types
- Interactive Flashcards of Key Terms and their definitions from the book
- A Glossary of Key Terms and their definitions from the book
- Chapter Guides for reading that help students to think broadly and comparatively about the new ideas they encounter
- Tipsheets that help students to understand the particularly complicated ideas presented in each chapter
- Online Chapter 15, "Analyzing a Long Essay"
- Tools for student communication, reference, and planning, such as messaging and spaces for course outlines and syllabi

Access to Dashboard can be packaged with *Logic* at a discount, stocked separately by your college bookstore, or purchased directly at www.oup.com/us/dashboard.

The free **Companion Website** at www.oup.com/us/baronett contains supplemental **Student Resources**:

- Level-One and Level-Two Student Self-Quizzes, containing roughly 1,500
 multiple-choice and true/false questions. The Level-One Quizzes feature mostly
 questions taken from and answered in the book itself, while the Level-Two Quizzes
 are unique to the Student Resources and give students a chance to review
 what they encountered in each chapter. Each question set is preceded by a short
 recap of the material pertaining to the questions.
- Interactive Flashcards of Key Terms and their definitions from the book
- Video Tutorials that work through example questions, bringing key concepts to life and guiding students on how to approach various problem types
- Chapter Guides for reading that help students to think broadly and comparatively about the new ideas they encounter
- Tipsheets that help students to understand the particularly complicated ideas presented in each chapter
- Online Chapter 15, "Analyzing a Long Essay"

The Instructor Resources from the ARC and the Student Resources from the Companion Website are also available in **Course Cartridges** for virtually any Learning Management System used in colleges and universities.

To find out more information or to order a printed Instructor's Manual, Dashboard access, or a Course Cartridge for your Learning Management System, please contact your Oxford University Press representative at 1-800-280-0280.

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Part I SETTING THE STAGE



Chapter 1

What Logic Studies

- A. Statements and Arguments
- B. Recognizing Arguments
- C. Arguments and Explanations
- D. Truth and Logic
- E. Deductive and Inductive Arguments
- F. Deductive Arguments: Validity and Soundness
- G. Inductive Arguments: Strength and Cogency
- H. Reconstructing Arguments

We live in the Information Age. The Internet provides access to millions of books and articles from around the world. Websites, blogs, and online forums contain instant commentary about events, and cell phones allow mobile access to breaking stories and worldwide communication. Cable television provides local and world news 24 hours a day. Some of the information is simply entertaining. However, we also find stories that are important to our lives. In fact, they may do more than just supply facts. They may make us want to nod in agreement or express disbelief. For example, suppose you read the following:

The Senate recently held hearings on for-profit colleges, investigating charges that the schools rake in federal loan money, while failing to adequately educate students. Critics point to deceptive sales tactics, fraudulent loan applications, high drop-out rates, and even higher tuitions. In response, the Department of Education has proposed a "gainful employment" rule, which would cut financing to for-profit colleges that graduate (or fail) students with thousands of dollars of debt and no prospect of salaries high enough to pay them off.

If the information in this passage is accurate, then government decisions might affect thousands of people. On reading this, you would probably search for related material, to determine whether the information is correct. However, you would be concerned for more than just accuracy. You would also be asking what it means for you. Are the critics correct? Are the new rules justified, and do they address the criticism? Further research on the topic might help answer your questions.

Other types of information contain different claims. For example, in 2005, California passed a law prohibiting the sale of violent video games to minors. The law applied to games (a) in which the range of options available to a player includes killing, maiming, dismembering, or sexually assaulting an image of a human being, (b) that are offensive to prevailing standards in the community, and (c) that lack serious literary, artistic, political, or scientific value for minors. Representatives for the video game industry argued that the law was unconstitutional. The case went to the Supreme Court, where the decision was 7–2 in favor of overturning the law. Here is an excerpt of the Court's decision:

Like protected books, plays, and movies, video games communicate ideas through familiar literary devices and features distinctive to the medium. And the basic principles of freedom of speech do not vary with a new and different communication medium. The most basic principle—that government lacks the power to restrict expression because of its message, ideas, subject matter, or content—is subject to a few limited exceptions for historically unprotected speech, such as obscenity, incitement, and fighting words. But a legislature cannot create new categories of unprotected speech simply by weighing the value of a particular category against its social costs and then punishing it if it fails the test. Therefore, video games qualify for First Amendment protection. Adapted from California v. Entertainment Merchants Association

The information in this passage contains an argument. An **argument** is a group of **statements** (sentences that are either true or false) in which the conclusion is claimed to follow from the premise(s). A **premise** is the information intended to provide support for the **conclusion** (the main point of an argument). An argument can have one or more premises, but only one conclusion. In the foregoing example, the conclusion is "video games qualify for First Amendment protection." The premises are the first four sentences of the passage.

It is quite common for people to concentrate on the individual statements in an argument and investigate whether they are true or false. Since people want to know things, the actual truth or falsity of statements is important; but it is not the only important question. Equally important is the question "Assuming the premises are true, do they support the conclusion?" This question offers a glimpse of the role of **logic**, which is the study of reasoning, and the evaluation of arguments.

Arguments can be simple, but they can also be quite complex. In the argument regarding video games and the First Amendment, the premises and conclusion are not difficult to recognize. However, this is not always the case. Here is an example of a complex piece of reasoning taken from the novel *Catch-22*, by Joseph Heller:

There was only one catch and that was Catch-22, which specified that a concern for one's own safety in the face of dangers that were real and immediate was the process of a rational mind. Orr was crazy and could be grounded. All he had to do was ask; and as soon as he did, he would no longer be crazy and would have to fly more missions. Orr would be crazy to fly more missions and sane if he didn't, but if he was sane he had to fly them. If he flew them he was crazy and didn't have to; but if he didn't want to he was sane and had to. Yossarian was moved very deeply by the absolute simplicity of this clause of Catch-22 and let out a respectful whistle. Argument A group of statements in which the conclusion is claimed to follow from the premise(s).

Statement A sentence that is either true or false.

Premise The information intended to provide support for a conclusion.

Conclusion The

statement that is claimed to follow from the premises of an argument; the main point of an argument.

Logic The study of reasoning, and the evaluation of arguments. This passage cleverly illustrates complex reasoning. Once you know how to tease apart its premises and conclusions, you may find yourself as impressed as Yossarian.

Logic investigates the level of correctness of the reasoning found in arguments. There are many times when we need to evaluate information. Although everyone reasons, few stop to think about reasoning. Logic provides the skills needed to identify other people's arguments, putting you in a position to offer coherent and precise analysis of those arguments. Learning logical skills enables you to subject your own arguments to that same analysis, thereby anticipating challenges and criticism. Logic can help, and this book will show you how. It introduces the tools of logical analysis and presents practical applications of logic.

A. STATEMENTS AND ARGUMENTS

The terms "sentence," "statement," and "proposition" are related, but distinct. Logicians use the term "statement" to refer to a specific kind of sentence in a particular language—a *declarative sentence*. As the name indicates, we declare, assert, claim, or affirm that something is the case. In this sense every statement is either true or false, and these two possibilities are called **truth values**. For example, the statement "Water freezes at 32° F" is in English, and it is true. Translated into other languages we get the following statements:

El agua se congela a 32° F.
(Spanish)
Wasser gefriert bei 32° F.
(German)
Pānī 32 digrī ēpha mēm freezes.
(Hindi)
L'eau gele a 32° F. (French)

Nu'ố'c đồng bằng ổ' 32° F. (Vietnamese) Tubig freezes sa 32° F. (Filipino) Air membeku pada 32° F. (Malay) Maji hunganda yapitapo nyuzi joto 32° F. (Swahili)

The foregoing list contains eight *sentences* in eight different languages that certainly look different and, if spoken, definitely sound different. Since the eight sentences are all declarative sentences, they are all *statements*. However, the eight statements all *make the same claim*, and it is in that sense that logicians use the term "proposition." In other words, a **proposition** is the information content imparted by a statement, or, simply put, its meaning. Since each of the eight statements makes the same claim, they all have the same truth value.

It is not necessary for us to know the truth value of a proposition to recognize that it must be either true or false. For example, the statement "There is a diamond ring buried fifty feet under my house" is either true or false regardless of whether or not anyone ever looks there. The same holds for the statement "Abraham Lincoln sneezed four times on his 21st birthday." We can accept that this statement must be true or false, although it is unlikely that we will ever know its truth value.

Many sentences do not have truth values. Here are some examples:

What time is it? (Question) Clean your room now. (Command)

Truth value Every statement is either true or false; these two possibilities are called *truth values*.

Proposition The

information content imparted by a statement, or, simply put, its meaning.

Please clean your room. (Request) Let's do lunch tomorrow. (Proposal)

None of these sentences make an assertion or claim, so they are neither true nor false. Quite often we must rely on context to decide whether a sentence is being used as a statement. For example, the opening sentence of a poem by Robert Burns is "My love is like a red, red rose." Given its poetic use, we should not interpret Burns as making a claim that is either true or false.

The term **inference** is used by logicians to refer to the *reasoning process* that is expressed by an argument. The act or process of reasoning from premises to a conclusion is sometimes referred to as *drawing an inference*. Arguments are created in order to establish support for a claim, and the premises are supposed to provide good reasons for accepting the conclusion.

Arguments can be found in almost every part of human activity. Of course, when we use the term in a logical setting, we do not mean the kinds of verbal disputes that can get highly emotional and even violent. Logical analysis of arguments relies on rational use of language and reasoning skills. It is organized, is well thought out, and appeals to relevant reasons and justification.

Arguments arise where we expect people to know what they are talking about. Car mechanics, plumbers, carpenters, electricians, engineers, computer programmers, accountants, nurses, office workers, and managers all use arguments regularly. Arguments are used to convince others to buy, repair, or upgrade a product. Arguments can be found in political debates, and in ethical and moral disputes. Although it is common to witness the emotional type of arguments when fans discuss sports, for example, nevertheless there can be logical arguments even in that setting. For example, if fans use statistics and historical data to support their position, they can create rational and logical arguments.

B. RECOGNIZING ARGUMENTS

Studying logic enables us to master many important skills. It helps us to recognize and identify arguments correctly, in either written or oral form. In real life, arguments are rarely found in nice neat packages. We often have to dig them out, like prospectors searching for gold. We might find the premises and conclusions occurring in any order in an argument. In addition, we often encounter incomplete arguments, so we must be able to recognize arguments even if they are not completely spelled out.

An argument offers reasons in support of a conclusion. However, not all groups of sentences are arguments. A series of sentences that express *beliefs* or *opinions*, by themselves, do not constitute an argument. For example, suppose someone says the following:

I wish the government would do something about the unemployment situation. It makes me angry to see some CEOs of large corporations getting huge bonuses while at the same time the corporation is laying off workers. Inference A term used by logicians to refer to the reasoning process that is expressed by an argument. The sentences certainly let us know how the person feels. However, none of the sentences seem to offer any support for a conclusion. In addition, none of the sentences seem to be a conclusion. Of course it sometimes happens that opinions are meant to act as premises of an argument. For example, suppose someone says the following:

I don't like movies that rely on computer-generated graphics to take the place of intelligent dialogue, interesting characters, and an intricate plot. After watching the ads on TV, I have the feeling that the new movie *Bad Blood and Good Vibes* is not very good. Therefore, I predict that it will not win any Academy Awards.

Although the first two sentences express opinions and feelings, they are offered as reasons in support of the last sentence, which is the conclusion.

Many newspaper articles are good sources of information. They are often written specifically to answer the five key points of reporting: *who, what, where, when,* and *why.* A well-written article can provide details and key points, but it need not conclude anything. Reporters sometimes simply provide information, with no intention of giving reasons in support of a conclusion. On the other hand, the editorial page of newspapers can be a good source of arguments. Editorials generally provide extensive information as *premises,* meant to support a position strongly held by the editor. The editorial page usually contains letters to the editor. Although these pieces are often highly emotional responses to social problems, some of them do contain arguments.

When people write or speak, it is not always clear that they are trying to conclude something. Written material can be quite difficult to analyze because we are generally not in a position to question the author for clarification. We cannot always be certain that what we think are the conclusion and premises are, in fact, what the author had intended. Yet we can, and should, attempt to provide justification for our interpretation. If we are speaking with someone, at least we can stop the conversation and seek clarification. When we share a common language and have similar sets of background knowledge and experiences, then we can recognize arguments when they occur by calling on those shared properties.

Since every argument must have a conclusion, it sometimes helps if we try to identify that first. Our shared language provides **conclusion indicators**—useful words that nearly all of us call on when we wish to conclude something. For example, we often use the word "therefore" to indicate our main point. Here are other words or phrases to help recognize a conclusion:

CONCLUSION INDICATORS			
Therefore	Consequently	It proves that	
Thus	In conclusion	Suggests that	
So	It follows that	Implies that	
Hence	We can infer that	We can conclude that	

We can see them at work in the following examples:

1. Salaries are up. Unemployment is down. People are happy. *Therefore*, re-elect me.

Conclusion indicator

Words and phrases that indicate the presence of a conclusion (the statement claimed to follow from premises).

- Salaries are down. Unemployment is up. People are not happy. Consequently, we should throw the governor out of office.
- The book was boring. The movie based on the book was boring. The author of both the book and the screenplay is Horst Patoot. *It follows that* he is a lousy writer.

Although conclusion indicators can help us to identify arguments, they are not always available to us, as in this example:

We should boycott that company. They have been found guilty of producing widgets that they knew were faulty, and that caused numerous injuries.

If you are not sure which sentence is the conclusion, you can simply place the word "therefore" in front of each of them to see which works best. In this case, the first sentence seems to be the point of the argument, and the second sentence seems to offer reasons in support of the conclusion. In other words, *because* the company has been found guilty of producing widgets that they knew were faulty, and that caused numerous injuries, *therefore* we should boycott the company.

In addition to identifying the conclusion, our analysis also helped reveal the premise. As here with "because" in this example, a **premise indicator** distinguishes the premise from the conclusion. Here are other words or phrases that can help in recognizing an argument:

PREMISE INDICATORS			
Because	Assuming that	As indicated by	
Since	As shown by	The fact that	
Given that	For the reason(s) that	It follows from	

When premise and conclusion indicators are not present, you can still apply some simple strategies to identify the parts of an argument. First, to help locate the conclusion, try placing the word "therefore" in front of the statements. Second, to help locate the premise or premises, try placing the word "because" in front of the statements.

In some cases you will have to read a passage a few times in order to determine whether an argument is presented. You should keep a few basic ideas in mind as you read. For one thing, at least one of the statements in the passage has to provide a reason or evidence for some other statement; in other words, it must be a premise. Second, there must be a claim that the premise supports or implies a conclusion. If a passage *expresses a reasoning process*—that the conclusion follows from the premises—then we say that it makes an **inferential** claim. The inferential claim is an objective feature of an argument, and it can be *explicit* or *implicit*. Explicit inferential claims can often be identified by the premise and conclusion indicator words and phrases discussed earlier (e.g., "because" and "therefore"). On the other hand, while implicit inferential claims do not have explicit indicator words, they still contain an inferential relationship between the premises and the conclusion. In these cases we follow the advice given earlier by supplying the words "therefore" or "because" to the statements in the passage in order to help reveal the inferential claim that is implicit.

Premise indicator

Words and phrases that help us recognize arguments by indicating the presence of premises (statements being offered in support of a conclusion).

Inferential claim If

a passage expresses a reasoning process—that the conclusion follows from the premises—then we say that it makes an inferential claim. Of course, determining whether a given passage in ordinary language contains an argument takes practice. Like all tools, our strategies and indicator words take practice in order to use them correctly. Even the presence of an indicator word may not by itself mean that the passage contains an argument:

He climbed the fence, threaded his stealthy way through the plants, till he stood under that window; he looked up at it long, and with emotion; then he laid him down on the ground under it, disposing himself upon his back, with his hands clasped upon his breast and holding his poor wilted flower. And thus he would die—out in the cold world, with no shelter over his homeless head, no friendly hand to wipe the death-damps from his brow, no loving face to bend pityingly over him when the great agony came. Mark Twain, Tom Sawyer

In this passage the word "thus" (my italics) is not being used as a conclusion indicator. It simply indicates the manner in which the character would die. Here is another example:

The modern cell phone was invented during the 1970s by an engineer working for the Motorola Corporation. However, the communications technologies that made cell phones possible had been under development *since* the late 1940s. Eventually, the ability to make and receive calls with a mobile telephone handset revolutionized the world of personal communications, with the technology still evolving in the early 21st century.

Tom Streissguth, "How Were Cell Phones Invented?"

Although the passage contains the word "since" (my italics), it is not being used as a premise indicator. Instead, it is used to indicate the period during which communications technology was developing.

We pointed out that *beliefs* or *opinions* by themselves do not constitute an argument. For example, the following passage simply *reports* information, without expressing a reasoning process:

Approximately 2,000 red-winged blackbirds fell dead from the sky in a central Arkansas town. The birds had fallen over a 1-mile area, and an aerial survey indicated that no other dead birds were found outside of that area. Wildlife officials will examine the birds to try to figure out what caused the mysterious event. "Why Did 2,000 Dead Birds Fall From Sky?" Associated Press

The statements in the passage provide information about an ongoing situation, but no conclusion is put forward, and none of the statements are offered as premises.

A noninferential passage can occur when someone provides *advice* or words of wisdom. Someone may recommend that you act in a certain way, or someone may give you advice to help you make a decision. Yet if no evidence is presented to support the advice, then no inferential claim is made. Here are a few simple examples:

In three words I can sum up everything I've learned about life: it goes on. Robert Frost, as quoted in *The Harper Book of Quotations* by Robert I. Fitzhenry People spend a lifetime searching for happiness; looking for peace. They chase idle dreams, addictions, religions, even other people, hoping to fill the emptiness that plagues them. The irony is the only place they ever needed to search was within. Ramona L. Anderson, as quoted in *Wisdom for the Soul* by Larry Chang

The passages may influence our thinking or get us to reevaluate our beliefs, but they are noninferential. The same applies to *warnings*, a special kind of advice that cautions us to avoid certain situations:

- Dangerous currents. No lifeguard on duty.
- All items left unattended will be removed.
- •Unauthorized cars will be towed at owner's expense.

The truth value of these statements can be open to investigation, but there is no argument. No evidence is provided to support the statements, so the warnings, however important they may be, are not inferential.

Sometimes a passage contains *unsupported* or *loosely associated statements* that elaborate on a topic but do not make an inferential claim:

Coaching takes time, it takes involvement, it takes understanding and patience. Byron and Catherine Pulsifer, "Challenges in Adopting a Coaching Style"

Our ability to respect others is the true mark of our humanity. Respect for other people is the essence of human rights. Daisaku Ikeda, "Words of Wisdom"

The passages lack an inferential claim. The statements in the passages may elaborate a point, but they do not support a conclusion.

Some passages contain information that illustrates how something is done, or what something means, or even how to do a calculation. An *illustration* may be informative without making an inferential claim:

To lose one pound of fat, you must burn approximately 3500 calories over and above what you already burn doing daily activities. That sounds like a lot of calories and you certainly wouldn't want to try to burn 3500 calories in one day. However, by taking it step-by-step, you can determine just what you need to do each day to burn or cut out those extra calories.

Paige Waehner, "How to Lose Weight: The Basics of Weight Loss"

The passage provides information about calories, fat, and weight loss. It illustrates what is required in order to lose one pound of fat, but it does not make an inferential claim. For another example, the definition of a technical term:

In order to measure the performance of one investment relative to another you can calculate the "Return on Investment (ROI)." Quite simply, *ROI* is based on returns over a certain time period (e.g., one year) and it is expressed as a percentage. Here's an example that illustrates how to perform the calculation: A 25% annual ROI would mean that a \$100 investment returns \$25 in one year. Thus, in one year the total investment becomes \$125.

"How to Calculate a Return on an Investment," eHow, Inc.