Instructor’s Manual
to accompany
EVERYDAY ARGUMENTS
A Guide to Writing and Reading Effective Arguments

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Instructor’s Manual to accompany Mayberry, Everyday Arguments: A Guide to Writing and Reading Effective Arguments

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Introduction

*Everyday Arguments* is intended for freshman writing or composition courses aimed at students with college-level writing competence and for upper-level writing classes in argument or advanced expository writing. The text consists of a rhetoric of argument (Part I) and a readings section with illustrative readings drawn from a variety of contemporary sources (Part II).

**Features of Part I**

1. *Everyday Arguments* is based on the premise that argument—the attempt to convince a reader of the reasonableness of a certain proposition—is the key to almost all writing that a student will do in college or on the job. The book establishes four categories of argument: factual arguments, causal arguments, evaluations, and recommendations. These categories correspond to the kind of writing that students will actually do; they are not highly theoretical categories with a tenuous connection to typical writing projects.

2. Part I of *Everyday Arguments* is structured around the three broad phases that every writer of argument works through. Chapters 1 through 5 discuss focusing the argument, including finding and limiting a claim, identifying and accommodating the audience, and understanding the relationship between claim and support. Chapters 6 through 9 detail those methods of argument peculiar to the four main classes (arguments of fact, cause, evaluation, and recommendation). Chapters 10 through 12 focus on reviewing the argument, including sharpening style, writing openings and closings, and revising.

3. Part I emphasizes image as a crucial element in argument and includes in its definition of image the following elements: style, the ethos or character of the writer, mechanics, and format. This broad definition should encourage students to see how argument is related to other modes of writing. It should help instructors convince students that the *how* is just as important as the *what* in successful arguments.
Introduction

4. Part I includes arguments from a wide variety of disciplines and professions as well as several examples of student writing. This approach will encourage students to see the applicability of the principles embodied in the text to their other courses and to their future careers.

5. Part I stresses the importance of motive in argument, encouraging students to write arguments that are meaningful to them, not just academic assignments with no relation to the rest of their lives.

Features of Part II

1. The readings in Part II of Everyday Arguments are divided into six topic areas: “Today’s College Student”; “The Internet”; “Sports”; “work”; “Diet”; and “Reading Popular Culture.” By design, these are not the typical subjects of traditional argument anthologies, which tend to focus on abstract issues—such as capital punishment or euthanasia—and the classical canon of arguments addressing them. These six topic areas were selected to engage students’ attention, and demonstrate the importance of regular critical reading and critical writing.

2. Each topic area begins with an introduction, including a discussion of the importance of critical reading on that topic. The first argument in each section is accompanied by a detailed commentary that serves as a model for the attentive, critical reading of argument. Following each reading is a set of discussion questions and suggestions for writing.

3. The discussion questions following each argument encourage collaboration among students and are closely tied to the contents of Part I.

4. The suggestions for writing following the discussion questions are directed toward students of all ages, backgrounds, and majors, with an emphasis on the stages of composition.

5. Part II is in continuing conversation with Part I, repeatedly demonstrating the connection between principle and practice.

6. Part II maintains a highly practical, student-friendly, writing-intensive approach to learning how to compose an effective argument.
General Suggestions

MAKE YOUR CLASSROOM A LABORATORY

Few activities are as futile as lecturing about writing. Students learn to write by writing. Having students read this text should diminish the need for lectures, though you should review the main points of each section and make sure that students understand what they have read. One increasingly common approach to teaching writing is to use peer editing groups to review student work; often a particular group of students works together throughout an entire course. Another common tactic, which can be used with or without peer editing, involves class discussion of anonymous student papers. In general, the best use of class time is to have students write and then review and discuss each other’s work.

MAKE YOUR EXPECTATIONS CLEAR

Students usually feel more comfortable with a class if they understand what is expected of them during the course. Your course description should tell students what they are expected to be able to do by the end of the course and how you will determine if they are able to do it. You should give students a written description of your assignments, their due dates, and the amount of influence on the final grade. You should also take attendance and have a policy requiring regular attendance. If your classroom really is a writing laboratory, students will be missing the crucial element in the course by missing class.

HOLD CONFERENCES TO REVIEW STUDENT FOLDERS

One of the best ways for both you and your students to keep track of improvement and any continuing problems is to require students to keep folders containing their written work during the course. You can review these folders during conferences with students, which you should hold as regularly as your
schedule and your energy permit. These conferences are crucial, since they allow you to focus with a particular student on his or her own work, and they allow both you and the student to focus on broader patterns in a student’s work, not just on a specific assignment.

STRESS WHY STUDENTS WRITE

One of the chief concerns of Everyday Arguments is that students feel some stake in what they write, some sense of ownership and responsibility for their writing. Many of the examples and exercises ask students to engage with their own work, to probe what troubles them, and to determine what can be done to solve or at least alleviate these problems. Instructors are urged to stress the importance of motives for writing, not only in Chapter 2, where it is discussed in detail, but also throughout the course.

REQUIRE REVISION

Although reviewing and revising an argument are discussed in Chapter 12, instructors should require revisions of certain student papers throughout the course. One very common method of motivating students to revise is to raise their grades on the papers if the second versions show real improvement. Instructors may wish to note some of the points covered in Chapter 12 long before students read this chapter, or they might ask students to jot down some observations on their own revision process, which can then be discussed when the final chapter is covered.

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Alternative Chapter Sequencing

The most obvious and for most students the most sensible way to work through this book is to follow the sequence in which the chapters appear. Under some circumstances, however, you may need to adopt a different organization. If you are using this book as the primary text in a trimester or quarter term, you will almost surely have to use the text selectively; you need a full semester to cover every chapter thoroughly.

For those teaching during short academic terms, try to get your students to the business of writing the four kinds of arguments as soon as possible. Such topics as audience, introductions, conclusions, claims, definitions, and style can be addressed in conjunction with the writing of each kind of argument. While covering arguments of fact, for example, you could also discuss claims, perhaps requiring some special attention to claims in the factual argument papers you assign. You could cover the material on claims in a discussion session, or you might assign Chapter 3 as independent reading. Here is one possible sequence to follow, although there are certainly other good ways to work the early and late chapters in with the middle chapters:

Chapter 1: An Introduction to Argument
Chapter 3: The Claim
Chapter 4: An Argument’s Support
Chapter 6: Arguing Facts (simultaneous focus on claims, introductions, and inductive logic)
Chapter 7: Arguing Cause (simultaneous focus on motives, audience, and Toulmin logic)
Chapter 8: Arguing Evaluations (simultaneous focus on image and style, and deductive logic)
Chapter 9: Arguing Recommendations (simultaneous focus on conclusions and organization)
Chapter 12: Revision (previously mentioned, revision needs to be introduced early in the course)

You might also want to modify the chapter sequence if you are using Everyday Arguments as the primary text in an upper-level writing course. The material on audience, claims, definitions, introductions, and conclusions could be for review purposes only, not actually covered in class. Even with advanced writers, you should include the section on Motives for Writing (Chapter 2) and all of Chapter 10 (Writing and Image), as the material discussed here will probably not be as familiar. In an upper-level writing course, you might assign chapters in the following sequence:

Chapter 1: An Introduction to Argument
Chapter 2: (partial—Motives sections)
Chapter 3: The Claim
Chapter 4: An Argument’s Support
Chapter 5: Making Reasonable Arguments
Chapter 6: Arguing Facts
Chapter 7: Arguing Cause
Chapter 8: Arguing Evaluations
Chapter 9: Arguing Recommendations
Chapter 10: Writing and Image
Chapter 12: Revision

Whatever the chapter order you choose (and there are many other possibilities besides the ones we have mentioned), you should cover Chapters 6-9 in the order presented, as each of the classes of arguments builds on the class or classes preceding it.
Rhetoric of Argument
Part I
This chapter is an overview of the contents and general philosophy of the book; it will prepare students for both the structure and the content of what is to follow. All the major points made here will be developed in further detail, and students will be given many opportunities to practice what they learn.

Many students will come to your course with the pre-conception that an argument is synonymous with a quarrel. The extended definition of “argument” in this introductory chapter should firmly ground them in the text’s use of the term and convince them of the prevalence of argument as a form of discourse not only in academe but in the rest of their lives as well. (This definition can be used later in the course as an example of the different strategies that can be employed in extended definitions.)

To illustrate the prevalence of argument in all writing, you might find it useful to bring in other material, including national or local advertisements, articles or editorials in the college newspaper, or even literary material such as short stories or poems. Whatever material you use, be sure to stress that in written argument, image is just as important as content; in successful argument, “good ideas” are simply not enough.

Since the four classes of arguments introduced in this chapter inform the structure of the text and probably of your course, you should ensure that students attend to them here. In later chapters, the distinctions will be presented in greater detail.

In discussing the three stages of writing—forming the argument, supporting it, and reviewing it—stress to students that these stages are not airtight compartments forever separate but categories that inevitably overlap and entangle in diverse and fascinating ways. The same point should be made about the four classes of argument. This point is noted in the text, but students often try to get a grip on material by overclassifying it. Help them resist this temptation.
SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING (1.1)

Option (1) in this set of writing suggestions—writing a letter of application—will have practical value to all students. Students will appreciate the importance of learning how to write skillful application letters. The assignment will help them realize that effective arguments include not only clear claims and appropriate support, but also an effective image of the writer, as projected through style and mechanics.
Where Writing Begins: Motives and Audience

The discussion of dissonance is a crucial feature of this book because students must know not only how to create written arguments but also why people create them. Students should see the mastery of the material in the text not simply as the mastery of a certain amount of academic content but as the acquisition of strategies to help them in their own lives, both personal and professional. Dissonance is a connection between the student’s own thoughts and feelings and that larger world of argument that students often see as far removed from their own concerns.

When you discuss “Writing Arguments That Are Meaningful to You,” you might suggest to students the importance of avoiding two common pitfalls: writing pompous academic prose they assume their professors want, and overqualifying their claims to the point that they are meaningless. In general, good student writings should be straightforward and reasonably confident in its assertions.

The problems of having the instructor as the primary reader (discussed in the section on audience) point to the advantage of a designated peer audience as the primary audience for student writers. An audience of peers helps college students consider questions of audience knowledge and interest they might never consider when writing to an instructor.

In discussing with your students why an audience reads a certain argument, you should remember that many students need to learn that being “right” is simply not good enough, that the interests, predispositions, and beliefs of their audience must be taken into account when they are writing arguments.
Where Writing Begins: Motives and Audience

ACTIVITIES (2.1)

1. For this activity you may need to have students stretch a bit to think of a variety of writings, including notes to friends or parents as well as academic assignments. For some students, this may be a difficult assignment because they do very little writing outside of their courses. One approach in such cases would be a class discussion on what your students typically write and why they write it. This discussion would help give you a sense of your students’ experience with and proficiency in different types of writing.

2. This activity could be a class discussion as well, and it leads directly into one of the options in Suggestions for Writing (2.5).

ACTIVITIES (2.2)

1. You should cover one of these publications or a similar one with your students before they do the assignment. The assignment can also be done as a class discussion, or students could be placed in groups to research some of the publications and then report to the class.

2. The passage is too difficult for its intended audience. As well as being dry and abstract, it is written in the passive voice, which leaves unclear who is supposed to be performing all the actions described. There are any number of ways the passage could be improved, including a more informal style (for example, starting with a sentence like “We all know trouble is usually easier to prevent than to stop once it’s started”) and adding concrete examples.

ACTIVITIES (2.3)

This activity is one of many that will follow that require collaboration among a small group of students. Asking some of the groups to present their re-written claims to the rest of the class will give them valuable experience in informal oral presentations.
Where Writing Begins: Motives and Audience

ACTIVITIES (2.4)

This is a good exercise for requiring students to focus on audience response—in this case, whether an audience will understand a claim as a call for action.

1. Here, the writer would want to spell out suggestions that could be followed by the high school dietitian. Moderation would be important in these action steps, as the audience is not likely to cut all no/low-fat foods from school menus.

2. While the claim makes it clear that the student candidate for president wants her audience to vote for her (the action the audience is expected to take), if a full argument were developed from this claim, it would need to show the connection between the qualifications cited and effectiveness as student government president.

3. This claim is a call to action. Ask students what action(s) radio listeners could be expected to take to get the new law revoked, or at least re-examined. Ask them also to consider how difficult it is to get everyday citizens actually to act on their agreement (or disagreement) with such a claim.

4. As there are a number of actions that a state representative could take in support of this claim, the speaker/writer should explicitly identify what the audience should do—e.g., sponsor a bill, form a committee to look into the issue, vote a particular way on a forthcoming bill, etc.

5. The action (to waive the student’s suspension) is spelled out in the claim. You could ask students to consider what kinds of evidence would be necessary to convince the dean.

SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING (2.5)

1. The solution proposed will probably have to be general. For an assignment of this length, students should concentrate on showing the connection between the problem and the solution, not on giving a detailed solution.

2. One approach to this assignment is to have students outline their parents’ argument before they begin to create their own. But
they can also neutralize their parents’ inevitable objectives by using an appropriate tone.

3. Students are often quite surprised to review earlier writing from a
alter and, we hope, more sophisticated (as far as writing arguments is concerned) vantage point. Such assignments are
good opportunities for the instructor to talk about revision.

4. The two versions might not differ greatly if the student is very
positive about the instructor, whereas the difference could be
considerable in cases where the student had grave reservations
about the quality of the instructor’s teaching. You should
probably insist on a copy of the speech; otherwise it will be very
hard for you to evaluate this assignment
The Claim

In discussing claims, remember that the most common student problems in writing claims are vagueness and a hesitancy to take a point of view on a subject. Most students’ writing will improve markedly if students can begin to create claims with detailed and focuses points of view. While you should not be dogmatic about the placement of claims, the folk wisdom about placing a claim near the beginning of an essay does have merit. For most writers, in most situations, the sages’ place to put a claim is near the beginning, where it can act as a guidepost for both writer and reader. Placing a claim in the middle or near the end, or implying a claim, often demands skill and sophistication on the part of both writer and reader. In discussing the placement of claims, you need to be sensitive to your students’ ability levels.

Students and instructors both should view the four categories of argument as a flexible, not absolute, taxonomy designed to facilitate the invention process in written argument. In discussing these categories, stress to students the importance of an argument’s context: the background, setting, audience, and writer’s purpose. To the degree these are known, they help establish our sense of the type of argument; indeed, without some sense of context it is probably impossible to determine either the type or the meaning of an argument.

Regarding evaluations and interpretation, you should note that not all evaluations and interpretations are equally plausible. Students tend to equate evaluations and interpretations with opinions and believe that everyone has a right to his or her opinion, regardless of the amount of support offered for that opinion.

ACTIVITIES (3.1)

1. Obviously, the possible responses to this activity are virtually unlimited. Your main concern should be that each working claim
be sufficiently narrow and a basis for an argument, not just a report of information.

For example, a student could start with television, and work this way: narrower topic: the portrayal of women on television; still narrower topic: the portrayal of women on television soap operas; still narrower topic: the portrayal of women on a specific soap opera; working claim: a specific soap opera portrays women as weak, conniving, and obsessed with the need for male approval. Note that in this case the narrowing process went through three stages, not just one as in the example cited in the text. Point out to students that they must keep narrowing until they arrive at a manageable slice of the original broad topic.

2. There are at least two merits to this activity. First, searching a topic on the world wide web is an excellent way for students to experience a process parallel to the narrowing process practiced in Activity (3.1) above. Second, skill in web searches will be valuable to your students in this and many other courses.

ACTIVITIES (3.2)

Most of the activities in this text give students practice in writing. But it is also important to ask them, as this activity does, to apply what they are learning to arguments written by others. You might want to point out that the two essays assigned here were written by non-professional writers.

ACTIVITIES (3.3)

For each of these propositions, the most likely category is as follows:

1. second or third party
2. second or third party; generalization
3. personal experience
4. common knowledge
5. common knowledge; generalization
6. personal experience; generalization
7. second or third party; generalization
The Claim

8. second or third party; generalization
6. common knowledge; personal experience

ACTIVITIES (3.4)

1. The answers are as follows:
   a. probable
   b. probable
   c. probable
   d. factual
   e. probable
   f. factual
   g. probable
   h. probable
   i. factual
   j. probable

ACTIVITIES (3.5)

1. Two examples of possible claims are:
   c. Instituting a pass-fail grading option at this college would stimulate intellectual curiosity
   e. College courses delivered over the world wide web can be as effective as those delivered in a classroom.

2. Two examples
   a. Part of the appeal of the movie *Titanic* lay in its invitation to the audience to feel morally superior to the characters from the upper class, who, while rich and privileged, were morally deficient.
   c. The fashion of body piercing among college students reflects their self-destructive tendencies.

ACTIVITIES (3.6)

Two examples of possible responses:

a. Focus on current conditions: “We have to buy a new television because our television’s picture tube is gone, and it would cost too much to replace it.” Focus on future results: “We should buy
a new television because many of the new televisions have picture and sound quality far superior to old ones.”

e. Focus on current conditions: “The city must increase the number of police in these areas because of the severe crime wave this summer.” Focus on future results: “The city should increase the number of police in these areas as part of an experiment to see if the increased presence of police lowers the crime rate.”

ACTIVITIES (3.7)

As with many of the other exercises, there are no absolutely correct answers to these questions. The quality of the students’ support for a particular answer is most important. The most likely answers:

1. causal argument
2. evaluation, perhaps also practical recommendation
3. practical recommendation, perhaps also evaluation
4. causal argument, perhaps also evaluation
5. factual argument, perhaps also evaluation
6. evaluation or interpretation
7. practical recommendation
8. practical recommendation, perhaps also evaluation
9. causal argument or evaluation
10. causal argument

SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING (3.8)

The first two writing activities are similar, though students may have a more difficult time with #2. Nevertheless, examining famous documents like the ones suggested is another way to drive home to students the ubiquity of argument in written discourse.

If possible, try to assign both suggestions #1 and # 2, as students will get the opportunity to put into practice what they have learned about relating to their audience. Ask them what felt different about writing an essay to be handed in to you vs. writing a letter to you.
This general introduction to supporting a written argument should pose no problems to students, but it is important that they fully understand the ideas contained here before they begin supplying support for their own written arguments. The tasks of selecting and organizing support will be much easier if students view an argument’s support as discrete units undergirding a main claim, as separate assertions strengthening the claim in a variety of ways. With this concept in mind, students will be prepared for Chapters 6-9, which present the varieties of support and their application to the different kinds of arguments.

This chapter discusses one important form of support not covered in the following chapters: secondary claims that support the central claim, but that must themselves be supported according to the category to which they belong. In other words, most arguments consist of many arguments, with briefer factual, evaluative, and causal arguments all brought to the service of the central proposition.

The suggestions about organizing support should not be seen as prescriptive rules; the real purpose of this discussion is to remind students once again of the importance of considering the effect of their writing on their readers. Where a particular unit of an argument is placed should be determined by careful consideration of readers’ probably reactions to the argument. Identifying probably counter-arguments derives from this same sensitivity to audience. Students should be encouraged to incorporate this form of support in their arguments, both because it strengthens many arguments and because it develops sensitivity and flexibility in writers.

Students should be encouraged to view the provision of clear definitions as a variety of support, in that an argument’s support is all the material that transforms a claim into a justified, reasonable conclusion. Without clear delineation of crucial terms, an argument is not likely to succeed. As this section indicates, sometimes definition of a term can be a central claim in itself.
ACTIVITIES (4.1)

1. A series of secondary factual claims describing the features of the study guide could support this evaluative claim, as well as a definition of what constitutes an “excellent tutorial.” This claim could also be supported by endorsements from experts or student users who have performed well on the GRE (individual evaluative claims).

2. This causal generalization would need to be supported by data compiled by reliable sources (factual claims) and/or by individual examples of the influence (causal claims).

3. Actual data (factual claims) on the incidence of eating disorders as compared to alcohol/drug abuse would be necessary to support this factual claim.

4. To support his evaluative claim, a writer would need to establish the centrality of the themes of sin and redemption in the novel (interpretive claim).


ACTIVITIES (4.2)

2. If you were arguing for the study of homosexuality in a college course, your best bet would be to appeal to the values of your audience, resting your argument on the educational necessity of exposing college students to the existence, causes, effects, etc., of human behavior. If your audience would be moved by the argument that one of the purposes of education is to convert harmful ignorance to knowledge and understanding, this particular claim could fit nicely into that value.

3. Comparison; appeal to audience needs (cutting costs) and values (staying in frequent touch with friends.)

ACTIVITIES (4.3)

After establishing a working definition of the term censorship Sharon first supports her evaluative claim by addressing the counterargument—that is, citing two good reasons for the administration’s concern about
An Argument’s Support

Fasciano’s visit. Though she identifies these concerns as “real risks” in paragraph 3, she overrides their urgency by appealing to the authority of one of the most famous arguments for freedom of speech—John Milton’s “Areopagitica.” In the next paragraph, Sharon introduces an even more well-known authority on freedom of expression: Thomas Jefferson. In citing Jefferson, she is also appealing to the values of her audience, who she assumes set a high premium on the principles that shaped the American character. Having established the valued tradition of free expression, Sharon concludes her argument by appealing to what she believes to be her audience’s commitment to the objective of education—teaching students to exercise choice. Her closing suggestion of an open forum where opponents of Fasciano can express their views subtly reminds her audience that it is not Fasciano’s beliefs she is defending, but rather his right to air those beliefs.

Students should make sure to discuss the effectiveness of putting the counter-argument so early in the argument, as well as the decision not to argue directly against that counterargument.

ACTIVITIES (4.4)

1. Be sure to have students give you a copy of the extended definition they analyze.
2. You should point out to students the value of concrete examples in defining such abstract terms, including examples that help to show what the definition does not cover.

SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING (4.5)

1. This suggestion requires students to make use of much of what they will have learned to far from this book. In developing a claim emerging from a position or belief they hold strongly, they will be working from the principle of dissonance discussed in Chapter 2. To identify the class of the claim, they will need to have mastered the distinctions among the four classes discussed in Chapter 3. Their list of supporting reasons draws from material covered in this chapter, and their consideration of audience (whether the support they have listed would be sufficient for a general audience) will require them to analyze the needs of a particular audience (covered in Chapter 2).
An Argument’s Support

2. It can be useful to have students identify the different strategies used in their definitions after they have written them.
This chapter introduces students to the basic principles of induction and deduction, to variants of formal logic (the enthymeme and Toulmin logic), and to a variety of informal fallacies. In teaching the material in this chapter, you should stress the usefulness of these principles to the actual process of composing written arguments. Too often, formal logic and its variants are presented as abstract formulas that bear little relationship to the composition of reasonable arguments.

In Chapters 6 through 9, the text demonstrates the applicability of the principles introduced here to each of the four classes of arguments. This approach makes the usefulness of logic as an evaluator of arguments even more concrete. If students haven’t mastered the concepts discussed in this chapter, they will have a difficult time with the concrete applications covered later. For this reason, try to assign and discuss as many of the activities in this chapter as possible, always pushing students to see the connection between getting the “right” answers and applying these principles to their writing.

**ACTIVITIES (5.1)**

1. Identifying missing major premises is not particularly difficult. What students should learn through this activity is the frequency with which major premises themselves need to be supported.
   a. **Major premise**: A poorly written resume is not likely to get you a job.
Making Reasonable Arguments: Formal and Informal Logic

b. **Major premise:** Anyone who makes faces at refs, curses at the other team, and refuses to congratulate the winners is a poor sport.
c. **Major premise:** Constant interruption of others is a sign of disrespect.
d. **Major premise:** Good citizenship includes a valuing of family and community.
e. **Major premise:** To be a good statesman (or woman), one must know how to compromise.
f. **Major premise:** The final research paper for this class is worth 90% of the final grade.

2. Students should quickly recognize that every one of the major premises they created for Activity 1 will need to be argued. You might ask them also to identify the class of claim for each major premise.

3. This activity gives students an opportunity to discover the silent presence of deductive reasoning in work that they wrote before they had even heard of the syllogism. Not all student writing will yield a full syllogism, which is one clue to the inadequacy of the argument.

**ACTIVITIES (5.2)**

1. a. Warrant: The public should not be exposed to a harmful environment.
b. Warrant: Excessive media focus inevitably biases individuals who are ultimately selected for juries in trials. (This is the only warrant of the five suggested that would require backing—perhaps interviews with jury members after a trial.)
c. Warrant: It is unfair to expose people to your contagious infection.
d. Warrant: One must understand the principles of grammar in order to write well.
e. Warrant: In the classic running style, the arms work like pistons at waist height, and the heel strikes the ground just before the rest of the foot.
ACTIVITIES (5.3)

1. slippery slope
2. either-or
3. circular language
4. emotive language
5. false analogy
6. false analogy (military academies and private schools are not necessarily comparable); not sequitur
7. distraction
8. *ad populum*
9. either-or
10. straw person

SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING (5.4)

1. This suggestion gives students a good opportunity to observe the shortcuts in reasoning that we all take in informal conversation and the possible risks of those shortcuts.
2. In evaluating advertisements by applying the Toulmin model, students will recognize just how unreasonable most advertisements are, how much the public is expected to accept, how little reflection is involved in our reception of advertisements.
This chapter begins by introducing students to the large territory that the term fact covers. While students must understand just how critical facts are to argument, they must also recognize that what may be factual to one person will be preposterous to another. In order to use facts responsibly and effectively, students must be able to distinguish among different degrees of factuality.

By presenting facts as a category of argument, this chapter stresses the importance of supporting facts. Support for factual propositions consists of the care with which the fact is evaluated and the way in which it is presented.

The section on personally experienced facts stresses the importance of objectivity and responsibility in recording personal experience. The discussion of facts reported by others serves as a primer on evaluating and documenting facts obtained from external sources and will be useful to students writing research papers. In this era of the Internet, knowing how to evaluate electronic information is a crucial skill for all researchers. While we do not include actual citations forms (APA, MLA) in the text, you might want to provide them at this point in classes requiring research papers.

The discussion of generalization and statistics provide students with detailed coverage of inductive reasoning, as introduced in Chapter 5.

The tendency of student writers to make broad, unsupported generalizations can be addressed in this chapter. Stress the importance of matching the breadth of the sample (all, many, some) to the number of individual instances cited, and make the point that sweeping generalizations are automatically suspect. Students may use the discussion of statistics as an introductory guideline for conducting their own surveys on drawing statistical conclusions, and as a source of criteria against which to evaluate statistics drawn from other sources. Again, remind them to be alert to the possibility of inaccurate or otherwise undependable facts obtained from external sources.
Arguing Facts

ACTIVITIES (6.1)

This activity requires students to evaluate material recorded by others and once again will reveal any confusion between fact and interpretation. The only purely factual passages here are (2) and (6).

7. An example of self-interpretation and therefore not necessarily factual (you could use it to discuss the necessary subjectivity of autobiography).
8. A purely factual passage.
9. Could possible be documented by individual examples of each “power.” The language contains a strong interpretive point of view that students need to examine. Obviously, the facts are not current; the question is rather the accuracy of the statement for mid-nineteenth-century Europe.
10. Largely factual, but too dated to be reliable.
11. This would be more credible if the credentials of the author(s) of the study had been provided. But we can assume that if the American Psychosomatic Society is a legitimate, respectable organization, studies presented at their meetings have probably been reviewed carefully. This proposition would be more convincing if more information about the source had been provided.
12. While it isn’t true that government publications are consistently accurate, most readers would accept this statement as reliable. The abbreviation “gov” in the html indicates government organization.

ACTIVITIES (6.3)

1. a. Information needed: size of sample (how many doctors surveyed); how sample was selected; who sponsored and conducted the study (watch for possibility of bias if Brand A conducted it); who are the leading competitors.
   b. Information needed: size of sample; how sample was selected; who sponsored and conducted the survey.
Arguing Facts

c. Information needed: size of sample; how sample was selected (was it a random sampling?); the reputation of the pollster; the wording of the original question (there seems to be bias in the wording).

d. Information needed: same as first three of (c), with particular attention to how sample was selected (if the sample is only moviegoers, the result cannot support the generalization).

e. Information needed: at a minimum, size and selection of sample are needed, as well, as credentials of surveyors. But because this statement is a prediction ("A mild recession will occur"), it cannot be considered factual.

2. Conducting their own survey will make students sensitive to the requirements of responsible, accurate, statistical research, as well as better prepared to evaluate the reliability of the research of others. Make sure they consider the question of their sample’s representativeness and that they realize a biased or limited sample can weaken the survey’s conclusions.

SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING (6.4)

1. You may give students the choice in this essay of working with a personally experienced fact, in which case the support will be limited to their observations and experience, or with a surprising fact discovered in research, in which case their support will come from secondary sources. In the latter case, caution students against simply reproducing parts of the source in which they found the surprising fact. This is a good assignment for trying out some of the introductory strategies discussed in Chapter 11.

2. This is a good exercise for driving home the perniciousness of stereotypes as faulty reasoning.

3. This suggestion works well if the instructor first shows a videotape in class and leads discussion on the subtle biases of the tape, then, a second video can be shown, which the students analyze independently.
The first part of this chapter, “Determining Cause,” introduces students to the processes and concepts necessary to identify reasonable causes for a given effect.

In arguing a causal claim, students should begin by considering all the possible causes—remote and immediate—that may have influenced a given effect. It is useful to construct a list of possible causes as a first step, and then, using the knowledge gained in the first major part of this chapter, identify the degree of causality for each candidate (necessary, sufficient, contributing factor, and so on). In an argument presenting a thorough causal explanation of a particular effect, students will represent the entire cluster of causes, designating the relative influence of each factor. In shorter papers focusing on a very few causes, what they will usually be looking for is sufficient causes or causes that combine the properties of sufficiency and necessity. Because of the near-tautological quality of many necessary causes (the necessary cause of a decline in the unemployment rate is that more people are finding work), identifying necessary causes can be rather meaningless.

Students should be reminded that the terms used in this chapter (necessary, sufficient, method of agreement, causal chain, and so on) are for their convenience in studying cause and in most cases will not be used in the actual written argument.

When students have identified a number of possible sufficient causes, they can use Mill’s three methods to check the probability of each candidate. Make sure that your students truly understand these methods and can apply them to their writing situations, because a major method of support in causal arguments is reporting the application of these methods (as in the example of the four concession stands).

Once students have identified the probably causes they wish to argue, they will need to learn how to support those causes most effectively. Since most arguments that students write will involve human actions (either in the causes or the effects or both), it is important that students understand how identifying an acceptable motivation can support such arguments. Another supporting method that is almost always necessary in causal arguments is establishing the factuality
Arguing Cause

of both the cause and the effect. Such factual claims become secondary arguments in the primary causal argument.

The main difference between arguing cause and arguing effect is the higher degree of uncertainty inherent in the latter. In arguing a possible effect, students should always qualify their claims, avoiding absolute predictions. To determine the plausibility of a predicted effect, students will treat the effect as if it has already happened and then determine if the existing causes of this effect are linked to it through the now familiar causal principles. One especially important method for supporting arguments of effect is the citing of comparable situations. Because this is such a strong form of support, try to spend some time on the concept of true comparability, and make sure to discuss with students in detail (3) in Activities (7.6). Applying the Toulmin model to these kinds of causal relationships is also useful.

ACTIVITIES (7.1)

1. Because this activity constitutes the first step of making causal arguments—listing all possible causes—we strongly encourage you to assign this activity and to give it considerable classroom attention. Here we give a brief cluster for (a) and (e).
   a. Cluster of possible causes: increasing public distrust of the legal profession; screenplay qualities of Grisham’s novels; appeal of a disenchanted lawyer (Grisham) writing novels about the legal system; the earlier success of Scott Turow’s lawyer novels.
   e. Cluster of possible causes for the popularity of the Environmental Science major at your school; Environmental Science has the only paid internship option in the college; comparative youth of faculty in this major; high percentage of recent graduates have found good jobs with this degree.

ACTIVITIES (7.2)

1. There is considerable latitude for responses here. What is most important is the quality of the students’ reasoning about the role (or lack of it) of each of these possible causes.
   a. The first cause is necessary.
   c. The third is probably both a necessary and sufficient cause of a decline in prices.
Arguing Cause

d. The third may be sufficient, and the last is probably irrelevant.

2. a. **Data:** increased leisure time  
   **Claim:** More people are taking up sports like skiing and windsurfing.  
   **Warrant:** These sports require a substantial amount of free time.

c. **Data:** special incentives that reduce auto prices  
   **Claim:** Auto sales have increased.  
   **Warrant:** People like to feel that they are getting something for nothing.

e. **Data:** the banning of a book  
   **Claim:** The demand for the book has increased.  
   **Warrant:** People are always attracted to the forbidden.  
   Some backing required in the form of familiar examples.

ACTIVITIES (7.3)

These three activities require the application of Mill’s methods. All three activities ask for brief essays, so you should tell your students not to be too elaborate in their analyses. For (3), students should pick a simple correlation, such as the temperature and attendance at an ice cream stand or the exercise room in the gym at a certain time of the day.

ACTIVITIES (7.4)

1. a. Possible causal chain: expanding industrialization involves the growing use of natural resources, which means that the environment is increasingly threatened. The conservation movement grows as a response to this threat since humans value nature for its beauty as well for the crucial role it plays in human life.

c. Possible causal chain: Jane was absent much of her third grade year, which is when cursive writing was taught at her school. The school did not emphasize how to write cursive after that and had no remedial program for students like Jane. Consequently, she never learned how to write in cursive.

2. a. All could be contributing factors.
   b. The last three are contributing factors.
c. The first two are probably contributing.
d. The first two are probably contributing.
e. All causes except the last.

ACTIVITIES (7.5)

1. The cheating needs to be established as a fact and the language qualified (“probably” instead of “certainly”). The motive needs to be described more fully.
2. A motive needs to be established.
3. The independence of the two elements in this proportional correlation must be established. Both elements could be the result of the same cause, such as a decline in the standard of living, which could lead both to more working women and smaller families.
4. “Charismatic” needs to be defined, as well as examples given to demonstrate that King had this type of personality. The certainty implied in the claim needs to be qualified and examples given of how King’s personality did have this impact. The argument would be most convincing if the method of difference were used to show that in situations where King was not involved, the movement had a smaller impact.
5. “Moral decadence” needs to be defined, and evidence given to demonstrate that his decadence was widespread—a few colorful examples won’t do. The link between decadence and the fall of the empire must be established, and the method of determination of this link reported.

ACTIVITIES (7.6)

1. a. Possible effects: raising a student’s self-esteem; changing a student’s career goals. Action is sufficient for each.
b. Possible effects: improving the chances of meeting new people; commitment to no more blind dates. Sufficient for each.
c. Possible effects: more friendly environment; less money spent on security. Sufficient for each.
d. Possible effects: rebudgeting your monthly income; spending more time at home. Sufficient for each.
Arguing Cause

e. Possible effects: getting a speeding ticket (necessary); selling your Corvette (sufficient).

2. In evaluating this assignment, examine whether the student can envision circumstances where the chain would not work. Sensitivity to when causes might not operate is important in effectively determining when they are operating.

3. This activity should demonstrate to students just how difficult it is to find substantially comparable situations. For each comparable situation cited, ask students to list important differences that might invalidate the comparison.
   a. The candidate will become governor of the state because she has been mayor of a major city.
   b. Success in college.
   c. Similar successful anti-alcohol campaign in different chapter of same fraternity.
   d. Getting herself out of academic trouble in community college.
   e. Being an “All County” lacrosse player in high school.

SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING (7.7)

Each of the following assignments deals with a different issue:

1. with determining necessary and sufficient causes for an event in the student’s life
2. with the method of agreement
3. with the method of difference
4. with the method of proportional correlation

Reassure your students that you are looking for probable causes, since certainty in analyzing causality is hard to come by, especially within the scope of these assignments. For assignment (1), students may use the method for determining cause that seems most appropriate; they will probably use agreement, determining the causes of events in their own lives in light of their sense of why other people behave in similar ways. For (1), (2), (3) and perhaps (4) (if the trends involve some human choice), the establishment of motive will be important.
Arguing Evaluations

In writing evaluative arguments, student need to set comparatively modest goals for themselves; the most realistic goal is an intelligent expression of informed opinion that can be understood and appreciated by readers. To expect complete agreement from all readers, especially on ethical and aesthetic issues, is in most cases an extravagant aspiration that can introduce undesirable dogmatism into the argument.

Evaluations originate in a stipulative definition of the evaluative term. A review of the discussion of definitions in Chapter 4—particularly stipulative definitions—would be a good way to begin your work on evaluations. Stress to your students the importance of defining the evaluative term as objectively as possible. A main purpose of the definition is to translate a subjective judgment into objective terms, or at least terms that are more objective than those in which the original judgment is expressed. A “good teacher” (subjective judgment) would be defined in terms of the following more objective qualities: (1) thorough knowledge of the subject; (2) commitment to education; (3) understanding of students’ needs and abilities. This translation process is what makes reasonable evaluations possible, what introduces fact and objectivity into a process that would otherwise be uselessly subjective. To give your students practice in proposing definitions, you might want to add to the list of subjective terms provided in Activities (8.2).

Like most arguments, evaluations consist of a large measure of factual verification. Once the more objective definition is presented (and in some cases argued), the writer’s job is to verify the qualities of the definition in the subject itself. As with all factual arguments, the key to success is to cite reliable and authoritative experience and observations, and to include specific, concrete examples of general statements.

Students’ understanding of the principles of syllogistic reasoning (Chapter 5) will bear fruit in this chapter on writing evaluations. Placing their claim and definition within the syllogistic framework can help students analyze the
Arguing Evaluations

reasonableness of their arguments. Students usually catch on to this “translation” exercise quickly, and should be urged to practice it whenever they write evaluative arguments.

Like all taxonomies in this text, the categorization of evaluative arguments (ethical, aesthetic, and functional) should be viewed as a useful tool for determining effective support, not as an inflexible system admitting no overlap.

While interpretations do not necessarily argue the quality of a subject, as do evaluations, they share important features with evaluations and are therefore included in this chapter. Like evaluations, interpretations can be very personal, they rarely elicit unanimous agreement, and they cannot claim absolute truth. At some point in their college career, all students will have to write interpretive papers—most likely in liberal arts courses. You might consider allowing your classes to apply the principles of interpretation discussed here to a paper assigned in another course, or in some way to incorporate other course assignments in this section.

ACTIVITIES (8.1)

1. a. Evaluative term: classic American novel or classic example of American literature.
   b. Evaluative term: great athletic feat of the twentieth century (argument would have to demonstrate superiority of the feat over other great athletic achievements).
   c. Evaluative term: mediocre president
   d. Evaluative term: boon to mathematics students.
   e. Evaluative term: bankruptcy—both moral and political.

2. For this activity, stress the importance of using qualities in the definition that are as objectively measurable as possible. Some examples:
   b. Great athletic feat: first of its kind in history; requiring extraordinary skill and courage; not easily achieved by athlete’s contemporaries.
   d. Boon to mathematics students: faster calculation speed; time saved for other problem-solving activities.
ACTIVITIES (8.2)

For some of the terms in this exercise, have your students specify according to whose judgment the evaluation is to made. A good car to a middle-income family with young children is different from a good car for a college student or a racing enthusiast. Some examples:

1. A safe car (for a middle-income family with young children) : mechanically reliable; excellent traction system; solid body; successfully crash-tested. A good teacher (according to conscientious high school students) : thorough knowledge of the subject; commitment to education.

4. A natural athlete (according to a high school coach): instinctive timing; perfect musculo-skeletal system; eye-hand coordination.

ACTIVITIES (8.3)

As with Activities (8.2), have your students stipulate according to whose judgment the definition will be made. Two examples:

2. A musical concert (for the average concertgoer): agreeable choice of music (few would go to the expense of a concert ticket to hear music they don’t like); quality performance (it can be painful to hear one’s favorite music poorly performed); good acoustics (concertgoer wants the music to sound as good as possible); comfortable seating (if all the other requirements are satisfied, most dedicated concertgoers would put up with some physical discomfort, but comfortable seating would be necessary to thorough enjoyment).

3. A campus newspaper (for students at a large state university) : coverage of a wide range of interesting topics; accurate information about university events; student-centered focus; provocative.
Arguing Evaluations

ACTIVITIES (8.4)

1. **Claim:** For middle-income families with young children, the Ford Taurus is a safe car.
   **Major Premise:** A safe car for middle-income families with young children must be mechanically reliable; must have front-wheel drive and a solid body; must be in the top 10% in crash-test results for cars of its class.
   **Minor Premise:** The Taurus demonstrates all these qualities (a factual argument establishing each of these qualities would be essential here).

4. **Claim:** Margaret is a natural athlete.
   **Major Premise:** A natural athlete must have superior hand-eye coordination; must have an instinctual understanding of playing strategy; must have physical agility and efficiency of movement (should clarify through example "instinctual understanding of playing strategy and efficiency of movement.
   **Minor Premise:** Margaret displays all these attributes (each must be supported by a combination of factual arguments—some personally experienced, others documented by experts).

ACTIVITIES (8.5)

For all these evaluations, the primary means of development and support would be concrete factual examples of each quality listed in the definition of the evaluative term. Two examples:

1. The most effective and available means of support beyond concrete examples would be appeal to authority (primarily literary experts), but also appeal simply to the vast numbers of generations and cultures who have read Shakespeare.
2. Primarily identification and argument of effect, demonstrating the negative effects of no water treatment plant. If available, appeal to authority and comparison (a truly comparable situation and the ill effects of failing to build the plant) would also be appropriate.
ACTIVITIES (8.6)

Advise students to identify and define the evaluative term and to give examples showing how the term fits the specified person, group, or activity.

ACTIVITIES (8.7)

1. An action film: fast-paced plot; credible special effects; elements of surprise; charismatic performers.
2. A mystery novel: original plot; plausible plot; good writing.
4. A portrait photograph: clear resemblance to subject; spontaneous pose; flattering but not unrealistic representation of subject.

ACTIVITIES (8.8)

1. An automobile for a family with three small children: safety; affordable cost; roominess; comfort of ride.
2. A president of a college or university: facility at dealing with the public; administrative ability; long-range vision.
3. A personal computer: affordable price; ability to run popular programs; reliability.
4. A United States senator: high intelligence; honesty; an advocate of the priorities of his constituents.
5. A college reference librarian: thorough knowledge of library’s holdings; willingness to help people; resourceful intelligence.
Recommendations are a hybrid breed of argument consisting of components with which the students will be largely familiar. Many of the examples throughout the chapter, including the sample proposal for a computer facility, represent fairly formal recommendations. But students should be made aware that recommendations and proposal are frequently made in informal, nonprofessional settings as well. You might have them bring in examples of such recommendation found in their own newspaper and magazine reading.

Recommendations require particular attentiveness to audience. Students should recognize how difficult it is to argue successfully for change, to get readers to act, to disrupt the status quo on the strength of a written document. A wise assumption of any recommendation is that its audience is extremely resistant to change. Working from this assumption, students will come to understand the importance of discovering and appealing to their readers’ self-interest, those needs and values so important to readers that they might go to some lengths to satisfy them.

This concept of assumed value is the only really new concept in the chapter; it is critical to recommendation of any kind, and it requires careful consideration of audience. Students must not assume that the need or value that moves them to recommend a change is the same need or value that will convince their readers. Many recommendations are wrecked on the rocks of such solipsism. While it is usually not necessary for the writer to identify explicitly the reader value being appealed to, students must be taught to identify it to themselves before they begin writing. As well as assigning Activities (9.1), which require considerable thinking about this concept of assumed value, you might ask students to append a brief discussion of audience needs and valued to the recommendations they write.

While not all recommendations fall clearly into the categories of emphasis we set up (current situation or future effects), students should be encouraged to
identify their emphasis before they begin writing. This will require them to develop a focus early in the writing process, and it will help them identify the necessary components of their arguments. Make sure to point out the summary at the end of the chapter that lists the components of each kind of recommendation; students can use these summaries as checklists as they prepare their recommendations. Because recommendations with an emphasis on the future are more challenging and reflect the formal proposals students may have to write professionally, be sure to assign one (see the first suggestion in “Suggestions for Writing” at the end of the chapter). Given a choice between this kind of recommendation and one concentrating on current problems, most students will choose the simpler one.

As with syllogisms and evaluative arguments, the Toulmin model can help students judge the reasonableness of their recommendations. If you did not reach the Toulmin model earlier, you should return to Chapter 5 and cover it so that students can recognize its practical value in evaluating their own recommendations. Asking students to apply the Toulmin model to their own reasoning is probably the most valuable use of this tool (Activity #3 in 9.5 provides this opportunity).

ACTIVITIES (9.1)

1. Students will have not difficulty recognizing the inappropriateness of the value cited. This activity will get students thinking about conflicting values and should be assigned before Activity (2).

   e. Here, as in all the examples, the cited appeal is obviously inappropriate. Employers do not make decisions in order to satisfy their employees’ need for leisure time. They might, however, be moved by an appeal to the possibility of increased worker productivity, if a convincing causal connection were made between a shorter work week and increased productivity. You might point out that this recommendation would require a secondary argument of effect, demonstrating that shorter hours can result in more or better work.

2. Students may conclude that in some of these instances, no meaningful common value can be discovered. In each case below, mutually held values will be at some remove from the immediate gain of each group. Students should recognized that
Arguing Recommendations

these appeals are usually less powerful than those that promise more immediate good. Some examples:

a. Mutual value: concern of both groups for the overall prosperity of the community.

c. Mutual value: acceptable behavior. The child won’t like the punishment, but could be made to recognize the wrongness of his behavior. Students may skeptical that a child would hold this value.

d. Mutual value: overall prosperity of the community.

ACTIVITIES (9.2)

1. The evidence called for here would constitute the initial presentation of the situation—a factual argument. Therefore, all evidence has to be verifiable, though it might be interpreted in a number of ways. Some examples:

a. Traffic at an intersection: recent accidents, including dollars worth of damage and extent of personal injury; the extent of traffic difficulties, including how many cars tied up for how long at what time.

b. Someone’s physical appearance: here, it would be hard to avoid some implicit evaluation of the evidence. In recommending a change in someone’s habit of dress, for example, writers would concentrate on a detailed factual description of the dress (style of clothes, colors, fit, condition), but they would also at least imply a negative judgment of these details.

2. a. Data: Number of accidents in last 5 years at this intersection, costing x dollars and extensive personal injuries; long delays during peak traffic periods.

Claim: A stop light must be installed at this intersection.

Warrant: A stop light regulates traffic flow and decreases accidents (would need backing in form of reputable studies).

b. Data: John wears dirty sneakers, T-shirts, and old khakis to his summer job as messenger for a prestigious law firm.

Claim: John needs to change the way he dresses for work.

Warrant: John’s attire is inappropriate to a prestigious law firm.
ACTIVITIES (9.4)

1. Some examples:
   c. (1) Mandatory viewing of graphic DWI films in driver education courses; (2) unit on alcoholism in junior high health courses; (3) addresses presented in school by alcoholics and children of alcoholics.
   d. (1) More extensive training of all personnel involved in production; (2) more extensive training of quality inspection personnel; (3) de-emphasizing volume of production in order to promote quality.
   e. (1) Instituting weekly lunches between faculty and students; (2) instituting “Live-in Faculty Week,” when faculty live in dorms for a week; (3) composing faculty yearbooks, with personal and professional profiles of faculty.

ACTIVITIES (9.5)

1. All these projected results seem probable. Although the 25 percent hike in ticket price is steep, 50 cents more per student per ticket is not significant in terms of most students’ discretionary funds and will not be a powerful disincentive for student moviegoers. On the other hand, a 25 percent increase in total admission revenue is significant, and would surely make it possible to acquire more recent, popular, and thus more expensive films, which in turn would almost certainly draw a larger audience.
2. The heavy focus on grades and g.p.a.’s among students makes the first projected result likely. If they don’t have to worry about damaging a high g.p.a. with a low grade in a difficult course they’re truly interested in, students will be far more likely to take that course. However, the second result projected is dubious, at least with certain students. There will always be individuals who use the pass-fail option as a way to coast, to do the minimum work,
Arguing Recommendations

especially when the grade in that course will not affect their overall record.

ACTIVITIES (9.6)

1. a. Drawbacks: risk to human lives and great expense.
   b. Drawbacks: some students in a class would end up being much older than the other students if they continued to fail the competency test.
   c. Drawbacks: smokers may frequent public places less; could be seen as an infringement of individual choice, as harsh discrimination against smokers.
   d. Drawbacks: the children’s and teachers’ productivity may decline if they resent the additional month; secondary school students would be less likely to find summer jobs if summer vacation were drastically shortened.
   e. Drawbacks: might reduce student involvement in community service; might negatively affect enrollment.
This chapter as well as the entire text balances two views of style: the view that style is intensely personal (expressed in the adage that “the style is the person”) and the view that style is a range of options available to anyone. We urge students to write sincerely but to explore new possibilities in sentence structure, word choice, and figures of speech. Style should reflect the student’s personality, but a personality attuned to the particular writing context.

ACTIVITIES (10.1)

1. The major difference here will probably be in tone (informal in the first case and formal in the second). The reasons for asking for the loan probably will be basically the same. Since the loan office personnel will set the dates for repayment, they will be more interested in whatever record the student has of being creditworthy, while parents or friends would be especially interested in when and how the loan would be paid off (for example, “I’ll have some extra money this summer from my part-time job”).

ACTIVITIES (10.2)

1. How two of these analogies illuminate or obscure the situation:
   b. The family of humanity: all humans are similar biologically and share certain basic needs and desires. Families are also characterized by occasional differences and tensions, as are most human relations. One obvious difference is that the family is a sphere of intimacy, a sphere that cannot be extended to all of humanity.
   d. The war of ideas; ideas can be and are in frequent conflict with each other, just like armies in a war, and often one idea or
group of ideas defeats another in the sense that it becomes more widely accepted or instituted through some policy or practice. Ideas, however, are not flesh and blood and are rarely killed, which unfortunately cannot be said of the humans who hold those ideas.

2. Use the example of the Jung analogy to stress to students that good analogies help to make the abstract palpable. They should strive for this effect in their own analogies.

ACTIVITIES (10.3)

Urge students not to exaggerate in doing this assignment by simply labeling the object “beautiful” or “admirable” in one paragraph and “ugly” or “disgusting” in the next. They should refer to the same qualities in both paragraphs, but use different terms to describe the activity. In one paragraph, for example, the pace of life in New York City could be described as “exciting”; in the other, as “hectic.”

ACTIVITIES (10.4)

Students are likely to find the first and third passages the most memorable, but they can legitimately argue that the other passages are striking or at least appropriate for their context. If you assign this activity, students might benefit from an initial discussion of the importance of context.

SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING (10.5)

1. There could be enormous differences between the two descriptions, with the first revealing the friend’s flaws and the second idolizing him or her. On the other hand, the main difference between the two could be simply that the first is more informal than the second. If you assign this suggestion, you should briefly discuss the informal/formal distinction with students before they begin.

2. One approach here is to have students copy some of the sentences form one of these texts, then try some sentences of their own in that pattern before doing the essay. This assignment
Writing and Image

may work better with more sophisticated student writers, since they may be more attuned to the range of stylistic options.
While the subject of introductions and conclusions is discussed late in the book, your students will probably have been writing these sections of arguments all along. The discussion of introductions is placed at this late point in the text because the job of creating effective beginnings (and to a lesser extent, effective closings) can distract students from the argument itself.

For many writers, introductions are best delayed until the content and tone of the argument have been established. Sometimes, of course, writers discover their entire argument through the inspiration of an introduction. If you prefer introducing the subject matter of this chapter earlier in the course, you might assign the chapter after Chapter 3 or Chapter 5.

Students may appreciate the importance of effective openings and closings more if they think about them in terms of the image projected. Introductions are a reader’s first impression of the writer and the argument, and like all first impressions, can leave an indelible influence on a reader. Conclusions, on the other hand—whether of the general or more formal kind—are the final impression a reader has of a writer, the one likely to linger in his or her mind long after the argument has been read and put aside.

Students should not feel restricted to the strategies for introductions and general closing cited here; these examples represent only a few of the countless varieties students may use in their arguments. A good way to stress this point is to ask students to bring in examples of other strategies found in their own reading of magazines, professional journals, textbooks, and so on.
ACTIVITIES (11.1)

Since the measure of an introduction’s success is its effect on the reader, we suggest you discuss all these activities in a group setting, rather than simply read them yourself, grade them, and hand them back. The best discussion strategy is to distribute copies of the students’ work to the class or to smaller discussion groups and to have the students talk about their reactions as readers. Do they find the introductions interesting and inviting, and why? What suggestions can they offer for improving their classmates’ work?

In Activity (1), you might ask students to indicate where in their argument the claim might appear, and why that would be an effective placement.

ACTIVITIES (11.2)

Both #1 and 2 in this Activity set will set students up nicely for the next chapter on revising. As well as writing two conclusions (#1) and an abstract (#2), you might have students make a list of other things they would change in the two arguments.
Few writers enjoy revising, and certainly college students are no exception. Unless they are compelled to practice thorough revision as an actual assignment, they are not likely to give revision the attention it requires. In any revision assignment you make, stress the difference between editing and revising, and indicate that thoroughness in revising (reorganizing, discarding irrelevant passages, rewriting) will be rewarded.

While the majority of revision takes place after a first draft has been written, students should also practice small-scale revision as they are writing preliminary drafts. Writing on a work processor facilitates this ongoing revision as well as the full-scale revision discussed in this chapter. If a computer lab is available to your students, we encourage you to incorporate some word-processing classes in your course schedule and to require at least one paper to be prepared on a word processor.

Because students often don’t know where to begin in reviewing and revising their work, we offer a list of suggestions for them to follow. Of these suggestions, the most useful is probably the first: “Give yourself some breathing space.” Good revision is not possible without distance and some objectivity, which is only achieved by getting away from the project for a while. Because student’s schedules and their own procrastinating tendencies can make them ignore this suggestion, you might want to build it into a revision assignment; have them hand in a first draft, hold on to it for a while, and then return it without comments for them to revise.

**ACTIVITIES (12.1)**

1. This activity is valuable in its demonstration to students of reader reaction. Encouraging feedback from readers other than the instructor can develop in students a sensitivity to audience, helping them predict the way in which others will perceive their arguments.
Illustrative Arguments

2. For this activity you should refer students to the discussion of
tone in Chapter 2, as well as to the discussion of voice in
Chapter 10. Some considerations for students in examining
voice: is the voice formal or informal, "objective" or openly
emotional, straightforward or ironic?

ACTIVITIES (12.2)

Partial list of necessary revisions:

1. There is no readily identifiable claim informing the discussion;
essay lacks a unifying position.
2. Paragraph 1 is neither inviting nor informative, and the final
sentence is irrelevant.
3. Many of the factual points made in the essay need further support:
for example, paragraph 2—the generalization about student
ignorance of student government; paragraph 3—the assertion that
"None of us has much of a voice in how things are run."
4. The recommendation made in paragraph 3 is entirely unsupported
and undeveloped: "I believe that if the student government started
even is they did not attend them."
5. Largely because of the lack of a clear claim, the organization of
the essay seems haphazard and incoherent. It's difficult to see
how the parts relate to each other and to the whole.

SUGGESTIONS FOR WRITING (12.3)

2. This can be a very useful exercise. Collaborative writing requires
students to concentrate on writing, editing, and revising, as well as
making them more sensitive to reader reaction. Try to minimize
the importance of the grade for this project, as students will
cooperate more and compete less in the absence of grade
pressure.
Illustrative Arguments in Part II

(Pages are found in Everyday Arguments.)

Chapter 2, Where Writing Begins

Retreat from Intimacy, Arthur Levine and Jeanette S. Cureton 
Talkin' Bout My Generation, Liz Croteau 
Who Is a Teacher? Celeste M. Condit 
Listening for the Silence, Stephen E. Talbott 
Little Girls in Pretty Boxes, Joan Ryan 
Runner’s Story, Sharon Robb 
My Story: Bob, Daniel Slosberg 
Popular Culture and the Family, Kenneth A. Myers

Chapter 3, The Claim

A Lost Moment Recaptured, Sara Rimer 
Stop Me Before I Shop Again, James Gleick. 
Bizball, Harvey Araton 
The End of Work, Jeremy Rifkin 
Lessons from 2 Ghosts, Scott M. Fisher 
On Dumpster Diving, Lars Eighner 
Public Eating, Michelle Stacy 
Why We Crave Horror Movies, Stephen King

Chapter 4, An Argument’s Support

The Age of Social Transformation, Peter Drucker 
Where Have All The Heroes Gone?, Stephen D. Mosher 
Popular Culture and the Family, Kenneth A. Meyers 
Dieting Dialogue, 
The Chosen One, Gary Smith 
Retreat from Intimacy, Arthur Levine and Jeanette S. Cureton 
Daemon Seed, David S. Bennahum 
Public Schools Use of Native American Names, Symbols, and Mascots, Richard P. Milk
Chapter 5, Making Reasonable Argument’s

The End Of Work, Jeremy Rifkin. page 320
Career Transitions, Nancy Kollamer. page 336
Why We Crave Horror Movies, Stephen King page 409
Listening for the Silence, Stephen E. Talbott page 250
Intuitive Eating, Evelyn Tribole and Elyse Resch page 350
The Three Jobs of the Future, Robert B. Reich page 311
Students Behaving Badly, Richard Flacks page 226
Public Schools Use of Native American Names, Symbols, and Mascots, Richard P. Milk page 295

Chapter 6, Arguing Facts

What Does This Indian Symbol Mean? page 406
Super Egos, Peter Francese page 215
My Story: Bob, Daniel Slosberg page 369
The Contents of Women’s Purses, Daniel Harris page 399
Information Literacy page 261
The Diet Biz, Donald Jackson page 342
Who Is a Teacher? Celeste Condit page 217
The End of Work, Jeremy Rifkin page 320

Chapter 7, Arguing Cause

The Chosen One, Gary Smith page 282
Where Have All the Heroes Gone? Stephen D. Mosher page 278
Lessons From 2 Ghosts, Scott M. Fisher page 332
The Three Jobs of the Future, Robert B. Reich page 311
Runner’s Story, Sharon Robb page 298
Why We Crave Horror Movies, Stephen King page 409
Stop Me Before I Shop Again, James Gleick page 244
Politics on the Internet, Doug Bailey page 265

Chapter 8, Arguing Evaluations

Students Behaving Badly, Richard Flacks page 226
Popular Culture and the Family, Kenneth A. Myers page 376
The Chosen One, Gary Smith page 282
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